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Using U.S. Training in the Philippines

A FOLLOW-UP SURVEY
OF PARTICIPANTS

VOLUME I: THE REPORT

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

ADMINISTRATION

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A Follow-up Survey of Participants

Volume One:

The Report

Institute for Social Research

The University of Michigan

Ann Arbor, May 1959

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USING U. S. TRAINING IN THE PHILIPPINES

A Follow-up Survey of Participants

An interview and questionnaire survey of a sample of Filipino participants, sent to the United States for technical training under the joint auspices of the National Economic Council and the International Cooperation Administration, and a questionnaire survey of their supervisors and of U S. technical assistance experts provided under the ICA program.

Volume One - The Report

Volume Two - Appendix

Preface

This survey was conducted by the Institute for Social Research under Memorandum of Agreement (ICA-W-193) between the International Cooperation Administration and the Regents of the University of Michigan. A substantial portion of the field costs were covered by the National Economic Council of the Republic of the Philippines, in cooperation with the U. S. Operations Mission to the Philippines.

The research project was directed by Hollis W. Peter and conducted in collaboration with Lawrence E. Schlesinger, with the help of the persons named in the next section. The authors and the Institute for Social Research bear the responsibility for all parts of the report.

Acknowledgments

We wish to express appreciation to the International Cooperation Administration. The desire of this organization to make greater use of social science methodology to improve cooperative programs with other countries led to this survey. We feel particularly grateful to Robert Oshins for his initiative in suggesting a survey; to David Tilson for his encouragement and help in making arrangements for the field survey; and to Thomas A. Moser for his assistance after the field work was completed.

We also wish to thank others who gave impetus to the project and advice on the broad outlines of this study. Among these were Rensis Likert, Director of the Institute for Social Research; Angus Campbell, Director of the Survey Research Center; and Dorwin Cartwright, Director of the Research Center for Group Dynamics; all at the University of Michigan. Samuel P. Hayes, Jr., Director of the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, and Henry W. Riecken, Professor of Social Psychology at the University of Minnesota, now on leave as Head, Office of Social Sciences, National Science Foundation, provided valuable consultative sources during the initial stages.

In the Philippines, several organizations helped make the research study possible. Within the Government of the Republic of the Philippines, the National Economic Council not only provided peso counterpart funds for field expenses of the survey, but also assigned several staff persons to assist in the survey, and gave full cooperation in making arrangements with other government agencies and private businesses employing participants to be interviewed. These arrangements were made through the office of Cornelio V. Crucillo, Director of Foreign Aid Coordination. Our special thanks go to Major Bienvenido G. Villavicencio, Senior Executive Assistant in the Program Planning Branch; to his associate Dr. Manuel Carreon; and to Jose Alejandrino, Senior Executive Assistant in the Program Executive Branch, for their personal interest and help. Dr. Leticia Brillo, loaned to the survey staff, did an outstanding job assisting in code development and interviewing. Mrs. Hilaria N. Martinez, Educational Planning Analyst, and Miss Demetria A. Joven, Fiscal Analyst, helped arrange interviews.

Within the other government agencies in the Philippines cooperating on this survey, a group of liaison officers made the arrangements with individual participants to be interviewed; they also made helpful suggestions on substantive aspects of the survey. Mr. Delfin G. Quirolgico not only acted as coordinator and liaison officer within the Department of Vocational Industrial Education, Bureau of Public Schools, but also arranged for schools to be used as sites for interviewing in the provinces. Coordinators for this survey in other agencies were: Professor Quirino E. Austria, Budget Commission; Dr. Cicero Calderon, Labor Education Center; Florencio O. Jaime, Department of Labor; Arturo C. Leano, Customs Administration; Dr. Antonio Pardo, Department of Health; Vicente Mendoza, Bureau of Public Schools; Felina T. Reyes, Labor Unions; Antonio Soriano, Bureau of Public Highways; Abelardo Valenzuela, Industrial Development Center; and Basilio Viado and Domingo Paguirigan, Bureau of Agricultural Extension.

The Census Bureau in the Philippine Government provided valuable assistance by tabulating some survey data so that a preliminary report could be given to the U. S. Operations Mission and to the National Economic Council by the survey team before it left Manila.

Another group to whose members we are very grateful are the participants themselves. Their unflinching cooperation, friendliness, and interest in the survey will always be remembered, though their identity as individuals has necessarily been obscured by the statistical treatment and group generalizations in the report. To their superiors also, who contributed their views in mailed questionnaires, we wish to express our thanks.

The members of the U. S. Operations Mission to the Philippines, led by Director Paul Summers, gave the survey group every possible assistance. Particular thanks are due to Dr. John B. Stabler, Chief of the Training Division, through whom most of the arrangements were made, and whose staff assistance helped overcome operational problems as they arose. To the other Division Chiefs and members of their staffs, who contributed many useful ideas to the survey, completed a written questionnaire, and gave freely of their time as consultants, we are also grateful.

To the interviewers themselves we owe a special note of thanks and appreciation. As members of the survey team they demonstrated such interest, ability, and imagination that their role became much larger than we had thought possible. Not only did they demonstrate skill in interviewing, but they contributed materially to the development of the written questionnaires and interview schedule, helped develop the coding materials, completed nearly all the coding during the brief period of the survey, did typing and tabulating and contributed to the initial analysis of some of the data. Members of this remarkable team were: Leandro A. Vitoria who served as group leader, Urbana D. Asis, Leticia Brillo, Rafael P. Cabrera, Pedro B. Esperal, Flor D. Francisco, Laureano C. Lamboy, Marcos S. Ramos, Delia J. Paglinawan, Estela G. Pinga, Angel L. Quimson, Paz Eulalia Saplaia and Teresita Tiansay.

Within our own organizational family, we would like to acknowledge the important assistance of several specialists during the analysis of the data. Edwin C. Dean developed new programs for the IBM 650 electronic computer to accommodate the survey data. Alvin Zander offered valuable suggestions for the report. Miss Gail Van Nest and Sharad Shah helped prepare the statistical materials, and Mrs. Annette N. Wigod helped edit the report.

Hollis W. Peter
Lawrence E. Schlesinger

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PART I
THE RESEARCH SETTING
1. INTRODUCTION

The training of persons from countries seeking more rapid progress toward their economic and social development has been a key element in the technical and educational programs carried on between the United States and other countries for many years. Programs for training and education in the United States are carried on by a variety of governmental and international agencies, business concerns and private voluntary organizations. Many individuals come on their own. The Institute of International Education has estimated that some 40,000 foreign nationals come each year to study, receive training, or teach in the United States. There are at least 20,000 Americans who go abroad each year for similar purposes.

An important segment of these training programs are conducted by the International Cooperation Administration of the U. S. government in cooperation with foreign governments and their agencies. On a world-wide basis, approximately 40,000 participants from over 60 countries have been trained under the auspices of the International Cooperation Administration (and its predecessor agencies) in the United States and third countries. The total number is increasing by more than 6,500 each year.

Proper planning and management of a program of this magnitude and complexity requires a great deal of information about the participants, the effects of the training program, and the ways in which the program might be improved. Are the persons trained using their foreign training to good advantage? What are their attitudes toward the foreign country in which they received their training? What kinds of adjustment problems do individuals have when studying in a foreign land? What problems do individuals face in applying their learning in their home society? What kinds of persons make the necessary adjustments most easily, abroad and back home? What factors determine whether foreign training is successfully used, or wasted? Both host government and United States agencies involved in administering these training programs need such information.

To date, there have been quite a number of studies of cross-cultural education and the problems of learning from a foreign country. The bibliography in this report lists some of these studies. The International Cooperation Administration and its field missions in half-a-dozen countries have conducted "evaluation" studies of the participant training program, and anticipating that more field missions would be undertaking such studies, the ICA with the approval of the National Economic Council of the Republic of the Philippines, contracted with the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan to undertake a follow-up survey of returned "participants" in the Philippines. Participant is the term used for all persons sent under this cooperative intergovernmental program, including administrators and technicians, leaders, and trainees in any field of activity related to joint NEC/ICA programs in the Philippines. At the time this survey was made, April to July 1958, some 1,500 participants from the Philippines had gone to the United States for training and had returned home.

The survey was also viewed as a pilot study to provide guidelines for future comprehensive surveys expected in other countries. One point of focus has been on the factors that appear to be related to the degree of success in participants' utilization of United States training after their return home. Another has been a comparison of the views of participants with those of their supervisors, and with the United States technicians in the cooperative program. These American technical experts and advisors are referred to as Technical Assistants, or TA's, in this report. They are the specialists pro-

viding technical assistance to the projects jointly agreed upon by the ICA and the NEC.

This study seeks to show how participants, their supervisors and U. S. technical assistants feel about many aspects of the training program, to what extent United States training is actually being used; what factors help to account for success or failure; and what differences exist between participants of different background, field of training, and experience. If the report suggests ways in which the joint NEC/ICA training program in the Philippines can be further improved, it will have served one major purpose.

While the survey deals only with returned participants in the Philippines, the survey team consulted with host government officials and members of the United States Operations Missions in Bangkok, New Delhi, Karachi and Tel Aviv. This consultation revealed some of the limitations which methods used in the Philippine study would have in surveys conducted in other countries, but also suggested the possible applicability of both methods and substantive findings to other situations. If the survey report provides some leads for obtaining useful information about participant training programs in other countries, it will have served another major purpose.

The study does not attempt to evaluate whether there should or should not have been a participant training program in the Philippines, what priority this program should have as compared to other components of the cooperative program, how its efficiency of operation compares to other program activities, or which fields of training contribute most to economic and social development in the Philippines. This pilot survey is not, moreover, intended as a manual on how to conduct a study of returned participants in other countries. While a good deal of standardization is desirable with regard to the type of information gathered in other countries, so that comparisons can be made, conditions in each country require considerable flexibility of approach.

This report is written primarily for readers who have a responsibility in the planning, administration and evaluation of cross-cultural training programs. It is written secondarily for those who have a more general interest in the problems of cross-cultural learning as it relates to economic and social development. As indicated on the Table of Contents, the report follows, wherever possible, the stages of the entire training and utilization experience in their normal time sequence. References to tables not shown in the text are made in parentheses and refer to tables in Vol. 2, the Appendix. These appendix tables are in approximately the order of chapters and subject coverage in this report volume.

2. METHOD

Objectives

The objectives of the survey were:

(1) To help develop better methods for studying returned participants, their attitudes toward selection and toward the U. S. training experience, their back-home application of training, their adjustment problems, and the factors related to their successful utilization of training. To learn also how attitudes of supervisors and U. S. technical assistants relate to those of the returned participants.

(2) To obtain data which would be helpful in understanding and improving the participant training program in the Philippines.

Participant Sampling

In view of these objectives, the selection of participants for study was not done on a probability or random sampling basis. While it would have been interesting and probably useful for operational purposes to obtain information on a sample representing the participant population as a whole, there was a question whether such random sampling would provide large enough groupings of participants to permit intensive exploration and analysis of the variables which are likely to affect utilization of training. The alternative approach used was to select for intensive study certain projects in which the participant population was relatively large, relatively homogeneous, and in organizational units about which a good deal could be learned because of the relative concentration of participants.

Participants in the Philippine training program are grouped by field of training, and these groups are identified as projects. Eleven groups of participants, or projects, were selected for intensive study on the basis of the following criteria: (1) a sufficient number of participants, preferably 30 or more in each field-of-training project, to permit cross-breaks for statistical analysis; (2) availability of one or more American specialists (Technical Assistants) in the ICA Mission who knew the subject field and most of the participants, so that judgments of utilization from this source could be developed and compared to the responses of participants interviewed; (3) geographic dispersion of returned participants; (4) a range in length of training period in the U. S.; (5) projects believed to represent some differences in organizational characteristics, such as readiness to accept change; (6) one or more projects believed to represent a variation in degree of utilization by returned participants.

This method of selection of participants excluded those in smaller projects, which may have different characteristics with respect to commodity and equipment support and follow-up support.

It should be pointed out that all participants in the NEC-ICA training program in the Philippines are selected in connection with joint projects already in operation, or planned. We understand that this is not the case in many other countries.

The sample selected in this survey thus consisted of 445 persons in eleven field-of-activity groups, each representing a single project or several closely associated projects. Only participants in these projects who had been back six months or more were studied, as it was felt that those who had been back less than six months would not have had an opportunity to use their U. S. training to any extent.

Table 2. 1

Participant sample by
field of training

<u>Program field</u>	<u>Specific field of training (Project or project group)</u>	<u>Number of participants</u>
Agriculture	1. Agricultural Extension	33
Education	2. Elementary Curriculum Development	34
	3. Vocational Industrial Training	58
	4. Vocational Agricultural Training	14
Health	5. Health (Nursing Education) (Hospital Administration) (Public Health Administration)	69
	6. Water Supply	13
Industry	7. Industrial Development Center	72
Labor	8. Labor Department	34
	9. Labor Unions	27
Public Administration	10. Public Administration (Budgets Accounting) (Civil Service) (Customs Administration) (Government Management & Procedures) (Wage & Position Classification)	50
	11. Highway Improvement	41
	Trans- portation	
		<u>41</u>
		445

Some 1500 Filipinos had been sent to the United States for training at the time the survey was made. The sample represents 38 percent of all participants who had been back six months or more. About 75 percent of all the participants in the selected projects who had been back six months were actually interviewed. The discrepancy between this figure and the goal of 100 percent was due to interview losses because of illness, and in several projects in public administration, there was considerably less than complete coverage because of participants' work-loads and unavailability for interviews.

U. S. Technical Assistant Sampling

The American technical specialists and advisors from whom information about participants was obtained were the 15 TA's associated with the 11 projects mentioned above. They provided utilization ratings on 325 of the participants interviewed, in every field of training project except the Industrial Development Center. In this project, the TA had not had an opportunity to work closely with the participants, who were in private industry.

Supervisor Sampling

Supervisors of participants included in the sample were also used as a source of information in this survey. The factories in which the participants were located selected one who had direct and personal knowledge of the participants, who had been the participant's supervisor for at least six months, and who had executive authority over him. In most cases, this was the participant's immediate supervisor, but in some cases one several levels above, or a previous supervisor who met these requirements.

Information provided by the supervisors of some 256 participants was used in the analysis, reflecting both a less-than-complete response, and the necessity for beginning the analysis before all supervisor returns were received.

Survey Instruments Used

Information from participants was obtained in two ways. The first instrument was an oral interview, in English and conducted in most cases by Filipino members of the survey team. The interviewers used an interview schedule (see Appendix B) which contained both open-end questions and fixed response questions which could be checked by the interviewer. On the average, each interview lasted about one hour. The interview was followed immediately by a written questionnaire in English (see Appendix C) which participants were asked to fill out. The questionnaire consisted of fixed response questions to be answered by checking on scales. Completion of the written questionnaire took 2-3 hours on the average.

The decision to use both an oral interview and a written questionnaire was made in an attempt to combine the best points of each method rather than to test them as separate alternative methods. Starting with the oral interview enabled the interviewer to set the stage for data gathering, to obtain general reactions, and to get ideas which could not have been anticipated in advance. A normal procedure in interviewing is to begin with the general and then to move to the specific by means of "probes." Working from the broad and free expression by the participant in the oral interview, the written questionnaire followed this "funnel" approach, making it possible to get answers to specific questions on a much wider range of topics than could possibly have been covered in the oral interview.

Thus the oral interview, perhaps more sensitive to the individual's own ideas and needs, set the tone and provided some information, while the written questionnaire provided wide coverage of topics and many details at low cost, with data in a form more readily quantifiable and comparable. Many topics were covered in both the oral interview and the written questionnaire, but approached in different ways; therefore, it was possible to cross-check related responses, as well as to make comparisons with responses by supervisors and TA's. The oral interview also provided an opportunity for interviewers to rate participants on their communication facility, and social ease.

A questionnaire accompanied by a letter explaining the purpose of the study was mailed to the supervisor of each participant. This questionnaire, in English, combined fixed-response and fill-in questions, and took about one-half hour to complete. The completed questionnaire was returned by mail. Thus there was an opportunity for supervisors to discuss the questions with other persons if they so desired. The decision to use a mail questionnaire with supervisors was based primarily on the need to save time.

U. S. Technical Assistants were asked to complete a one-page rating sheet of participant's efforts and utilization of U. S. training. The TA's made these ratings only where they felt they had personal knowledge of the participant and his work.

The biographical files in the ICA Mission were also used as a source of information about participants. Thus, five sources were used to obtain data on each participant.

- (1) Biographical files
- (2) Participant oral interview guide
- (3) Participant written questionnaire
- (4) Supervisor written questionnaire (mailed)
- (5) U. S. TA rating sheet

After initial drafting, the four survey instruments were substantially improved before use, with the help of practical suggestions from the Filipino members of the survey team, from the American Technical Assistants in the USOM (U. S. Operations Mission), and from the representatives of the NEC and the other Philippine Government agencies involved in the survey.

Pre-tests were made of the participant oral interview guide, the participant written questionnaire, and the TA rating sheet, resulting in further modification.

Control Groups

In a strict sense, there was no control group in this survey. Individuals who were not participants were not studied as a basis for comparison with participants who had received U. S. training. An attempt was made in another way, however, to use other groups for comparative purposes. Participants were asked several times in their written questionnaires to compare themselves in different ways with others they knew at the time of selection and afterwards, who had similar jobs, background and experience, except for U. S. training. Supervisors were also asked to compare their U. S. trained subordinate (participant) with other subordinates who had not had this training. In these ways simulated control groups were in effect used.

Conducting the Survey

Since this survey was conducted with the active participation of many organizations, it may be helpful to review briefly the ways this cooperation worked.

Before the two American members of the survey group left for the Philippines, there had been consultation in Washington, with ICA officials, in part to ensure that information needed both by ICA and other Federal agencies in Washington would be obtained through the interviews and questionnaires. The ICA had also arranged through its field mission in Manila for active cooperation in the Philippines with the National Economic Council, which authorized the provision of counterpart pesos for field expenses of the survey.

In Manila, the Training Division of the USOM had selected a group of prospective interviewers and assistants, twelve of whom were subsequently employed as members of the survey team. The NEC assigned three senior officials to help arrange the cooperation of other government agencies, and three other persons to work as members of the survey team. When the survey was being organized, a liaison group was established, composed of representatives from each of the government departments or agencies in which participants were to be interviewed. These liaison officers made appointments with the participants for their interviews in Manila and in other parts of the country.

Interviews in Manila were conducted in the ICA offices, which seemed to be accepted as "neutral territory" by participants, and had the additional advantages of being reasonably quiet and air-conditioned, important because of the summer season, and because of the normal overcrowding in Philippine Government offices. Interviewing outside Manila was mainly done in Arts and Trades Schools, made available for this purpose by the Bureau of Public Schools.

Because the survey was made during the summer period, which is also the vacation period for those in academic and related professions, it was possible to obtain the temporary services of Filipino interviewers of exceptional ability. These members of the survey team, after training, demonstrated such interest and skill in the survey that they played an important role in developing the survey instruments, in preparing the codes for these instruments, and in doing some analyses of the data. They undertook the entire task of coding, beginning during the course of the field interviews and completing most of it shortly thereafter. This enabled the field portion of the survey to progress more rapidly than had been anticipated. The survey team was organized in Manila in mid-April, interviews began in the first week in May, and all interviews were completed by the end of June. Questionnaires were mailed to supervisors early in July, and coding of all materials from participants, supervisors, and TA's was completed about the end of August.

It was recognized that the value of the survey data in this pilot study would depend in part upon the candor and objectivity with which questions were answered by participants, supervisors, and TA's. Every possible method was used to ensure the anonymity of individual responses, and to make it clear to respondents that this would be done (see first page of questionnaire in the Appendix). No information on an individual basis has been made available to the NEC, to other Philippine government agencies, or to the ICA; these data became the property of the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan. This guarantee of anonymity to respondents is not only a matter of fairness and protection to individuals, but an important key to getting information of scientific value in understanding attitudes and feelings.

Treatment of the Data

Information obtained in the survey was tabulated and analyzed in Ann Arbor, except for the preliminary tabulation and quick analysis of some data made in Manila before the survey team departed.

The data fall into two broad classifications: (a) Independent variables describing the participant, his job, his background, the many events connected with his training and back-home experience, attitudes and expressions of degree of satisfaction are generally treated as independent variables; (b) Dependent variables are the different ratings of the extent to which the participant is using his U. S. training.

The first phase of the analysis was to determine the average of the entire sample on particular experiences, characteristics, attitudes, etc. and the typical range of responses on various items of information. A second phase of the analysis looked at the differences among the eleven groups by field of training. A third part of the analysis was to determine what factors--characteristics, experiences, attitudes--seemed to be related to the participant's success or failure in using his training after returning from the United States.

Where averages (means) are compared with one another, the degree of statistical significance between averages is expressed in terms of the value of p . This value indicates the probability that the results could have been due to chance. For example, a p value of .05 means that the statistical comparison made between two averages could be the result of chance no more than one time in twenty in a population of the size being considered; similarly, a p value of .01 means chance occurrence no more than one time in one hundred in this size population. In text tables, the statistical significance of relationships is shown according to the following code:

- * means $p = .05$, a significant relationship
- ** means $p = .01$, a very significant relationship
- *** means $p = .001$, a highly significant relationship

Where measurements provided a series of responses along a dimension describing a variable, these were usually correlated with the several measurements of utilization of U. S. training for the same group of participants. The size of the correlation coefficient thus obtained indicates the degree of association or relationship between a given position on one measurement dimension and a given position on the other. Correlations indicate only the degree to which the results on two measures vary in a similar fashion. They do not prove that one variable is the cause of the other. In order to interpret the data provided by correlations, however, we have assumed that use made of U. S. training is the dependent variable, the result, and that the factors correlated with utilization are independent variables, the causes. Correlation coefficients are designated by the letter r , and are followed by the p value, showing the probability of a correlation of this size occurring by chance in a population of the size being considered. (Tables showing significant correlations found in the survey are in the Appendix.)

In many cases, association between a measured variable and utilization was also examined by the use of chi-square, or X^2 , which is better for certain groupings of data. The reader who is not familiar with this procedure will find it described in any textbook on statistics. The p value is also given where the chi-square test was used.

The ratings of utilization made by participants were based on an index composed of three questions. The participant was asked to estimate on a ten-point scale the percentage of (1) his total work time that, since his return, he had spent working in areas related to his training; (2) his training that he had actually been able to use since return; and (3) the work he did that actually employed his U. S. training.

The ratings of utilization by the participant's supervisor and the U. S. Technical Assistant were based on 4-point scales. Raters were given four choices: (1) utilized fully (75% to 100%); (2) utilized quite a lot (50% to 74%); (3) utilized partially (25% to 49%); and (4) utilized very little or none (less than 25%). In the comparison of these ratings with other items in the questionnaire, the method of analysis employed depended upon the nature of the other item. If the other item also consisted of a rating scale, for example, a rating of "satisfaction with training received," a coefficient of the product-moment correlation of the linear relations between the two scales was computed. If the comparison item did not consist of a scale, it was converted into a two-choice

question. For example, persons who reported having had favorable social experiences in the U. S. were compared with persons who reported unfavorable social experiences in the U. S. The rating scale was also reduced to two alternatives, as follows:

<u>Rating of utilization by:</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>n</u>
Participant	80% or above	174	All others	260
Supervisor	75% or above	100	All others	133
U. S. Technical Assistant	75% or above	81	All others	215

The resulting four-fold tables were analyzed for departure from chance distribution by the chi-square technique. The results of these analyses are in the Appendix.

The Philippines as a Country for a Pilot Study

Readers of this report are interested in the Philippines, in the problems of planning, administering or evaluating cross-cultural training programs, or in the general process of cross-cultural learning. For those concerned with training programs in other countries, a logical question is, In what respects is the participant training program in the Philippines a typical or even a useful example for a pilot study of this sort? Some of the apparent advantages and disadvantages of selecting the Philippines for study are as follows:

Advantages

1. The demonstrated readiness of the Philippine Government to cooperate in the survey suggests that there will be a continuing and growing effort to use knowledge about the participant training program for its systematic improvement. Surveys conducted without such involvement are likely to have less practical usefulness, whatever their scientific value.
2. The participant training program in the Philippines is large enough and has been in operation over a sufficient length of time to provide a participant sample well-suited to intensive study of many variables believed to affect the success of such programs.
3. The history of close relationship with the U. S., the widespread use of English as a second language, and similar factors, put the Philippines in what may be an unique intermediate position between the U. S. and many other countries. This position makes some problems in cross-cultural training easier to study (e. g., because of reduced communication and translation difficulties). It also has a possible advantage in that, of the relationships which show up at all in the Philippines, some should show up more markedly in other countries where culture contrasts with the U. S. are greater.

Disadvantages

1. Because the Philippines has had a special relationship with the U. S., it is not "typical" of countries in Asia, and would not clearly show some features of participant training programs and their problems which might show up better in other Asian countries.
2. More specifically, the pilot study in the Philippines does not help suggest how best to handle such a problem as obtaining information from a participant or his superior who prefers to use a language other than English. Similarly, this pilot study may not have exposed relationships, attitudes, or values which could be of great significance in other countries though not conspicuous in the Philippines. For example, the study only partially tests the question of how to get the "frank" versus the "polite" answer in some sensitive areas.

PART II
USING U.S. TRAINING
3. SUMMARY OF RESULTS

In this chapter are summarized the major findings of this survey and their apparent implications for the participant training program in the Philippines. The possible relevance of these findings to situations in other countries is suggested where appropriate.

The sequence of findings begins with conclusions about the criteria on which measures of utilization of U. S. training were made, and mention is made of the location of key barriers to application of training. Specific findings, particularly relationships between utilization of training and factors at each chronological stage of the training and application of sequence, are then summarized. Several factors operating by field-of-training are described. Finally, there are several conclusions on survey methodology.

The reader will note that findings are reported at several levels of abstraction. Most findings describe the specific factors at each stage of the training process which seem to account for successful utilization of U. S. training; some findings relate to more general objectives of communication and understanding between participants and Americans; some findings show the relative importance and interdependence of experiences and attitudes.

Different criteria for evaluating participant performance.

The survey data show that there are substantial differences of opinion about the actual performance of returned participants. Performance was rated in terms of the use actually being made of U. S. training. These ratings of utilization were obtained from three sources: the participants, their supervisors, and the U. S. Technical Assistants. These ratings did not coincide. The U. S. Technical Assistant ratings for individual participants had no relation to the ratings made by the participants or by their supervisors. Supervisors and participants agreed to a statistically significant, but practically very small degree. The reasons for the differences among these three, substantially independent appraisals of performance are brought out in more detail elsewhere.

The fact that there are different views on the use being made of training from each rating source used in the survey means that:

- (1) There are different ideas about what is important in judging utilization. Participants, supervisors and TA's have different standards and criteria in mind.
- (2) There is different information about actual performance reflected in these different ratings. TA's appear to base their ratings largely on the expressed views of supervisors and participants; supervisors and participants somewhat more on observed performance and their own attitudes and feelings.

In future evaluation studies, in the Philippines or elsewhere, it would probably be useful to seek closer agreement, particularly between supervisors and U. S. Technical Assistants, on the criteria to be used in measuring or rating participant performance. This procedure might resolve some of the apparent conflicts in criteria now in use, and should at least provide better mutual understanding of factors considered important by each rater. Such discussion might contribute to closer agreement on mutual program goals, and on means to overcome observed obstacles to them.

Planners and administrators of participant training programs should recognize that there are seldom likely to be identical goals, standards, and criteria among those nationals of the two countries who are personally involved in participant training programs. It is important, therefore, to get several viewpoints in evaluating progress toward program goals. This process would lessen the risk that Americans would judge by their own goals and criteria, representatives of the host country theirs, and neither would understand or appreciate the reasons for different conclusions with respect to goals or achievement.

Participant Sample Utilization of U. S. Training

There was also substantial, but less disagreement among participants, supervisors and TA's on the proportion of the participant sample in each category of utilization.

<u>Categories of Utilization</u>	<u>Ratings of Utilization by:</u>		
	<u>Participants</u>	<u>Supervisors</u>	<u>TA's</u>
	Percent		
Full (75-100%)	55	43	35
Quite a bit (52-74%)	28	34	43
Partial (25-49%)	11	18	18
Little or none (less than 25%)	6	5	4
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>

More than half of all participants reported they were making full use (75-100%) of their U. S. training, substantially more than either supervisors or TA's. Supervisors and TA's judged approximately 25 percent of the sample as making inadequate (less than 50%) use of their training, more than did participants.

In view of the observed differences among the several ratings, it seems inappropriate to guess whether or not Filipino participants are making satisfactory use of their U. S. training. The practical problem is to determine how the proportion of participants making full use of their training can be increased, and to reduce still further the proportion making little or no use of their training, judged by any of the ratings.

Many Factors Related to Utilization Ratings

In spite of the lack of agreement between the three ratings of the use individual participants were making of U. S. training, a large number of factors--characteristics, attitudes, experiences--were consistently related to high or low utilization as judged by one, two, or all three of the rating sources. No single factor or small group of factors seems to explain differences in utilization; however, a large number of these factors tend to cluster in logical ways which help to explain high utilization ratings by some participants and low utilization by others.

Key Barriers to Application

Each phase in the process of training provides new ideas and experiences for participants which affect his capacity and desire to be an agent for change in his own society and job. Successful utilization can be regarded as a cumulative process involving an assimilation of these many new learning experiences, the maintenance of the participant's own desire to use his training, and the provision of opportunities for use of training fitted to his motivation and skills. Failure, on the other

hand, seems to be a breakdown at any point in this sequence, most frequently in the opportunities to use training, and to a lesser extent, in the participant's skills or motivation to use his training. The key barriers to fuller utilization of participant training in the Philippines seem to be within the organization in which the participant works after his return home. Only to a small extent, as described later, does failure of the selection process, or some inadequacy in the U. S. training experience, seem to be responsible for low utilization.

Something further can be done to help participants become more effective change-agents for economic and social improvement. However, the points where action seems to be needed most are in the organizations in the Philippines which are devoted to carrying out these programs of economic and social development. To some extent making these organizations more effective users of foreign training probably means also bringing about necessary changes in the attitudes of those in the highest levels of government, and in those parts of the public with which these organizations deal. U. S. trained participants are individuals in organizational groups which are operating units of Philippine society. Changes at any level must be related to the readiness to change of other parts of the social structure.

Selecting Effective Participants

1. Adequacy of selection procedures. The selection process is usually considered a key point in the training program. The survey data show that there is relatively little dissatisfaction with selection in the Philippines on the part of the supervisors of participants or U. S. Technical Assistants. There appears to be no evidence that poor selection in the joint NEC/ICA participant training program is an important reason for lack of utilization by participants after their return home from the United States.

Selection in the Philippine training program is already quite successful in screening out nearly all the poorest candidates; those who are selected generally range from satisfactory to excellent prospective participants. This seems to explain why differences among participants at time of selection were not more closely related to subsequent differences in utilization of training. As will be shown later, among a reasonably well selected group, factors other than selection appear to determine the degree of success in later application of training.

2. Need for improvements. Some improvements in the selection process in the Philippines can be made, however. Both supervisors and TA's appear to feel the need for more objective and clearly understood criteria on which selection can be based. Such clarification would reduce still further the possibility of having poor candidates chosen. Supervisors believe selection would be improved if more attention were given to ability and relevant work experience and if competitive examinations were more often used. They want somewhat less emphasis given to family and social status, and to political influence. Supervisors want even more responsibility for selection given to the Philippine agencies involved and to themselves. As shown in the report, previous work experience, leadership ability, special needs of the project, and supervisors' initiative are all positively and significantly related to high utilization of U. S. training. The initiative of TA's in selection, as reported by participants, does not show up as significantly related to utilization, nor does seniority at time of selection.

3. Personal and career benefits. The participants selected for U. S. training expected the experience to improve their chances of promotion, to get a better job, and to increase their salaries. Most participants reported that they had received substantial personal and career benefits, although less than they had expected. For example, one-half received promotion on their return.

Nearly all participants reported that they had gained in professional skills and knowledge, in prestige, and in recognition by their work associates.

Analysis of the data showed that these personal and career benefits are strongly related to subsequent utilization of training, as rated by participants, supervisors and TA's. Utilization tends to be significantly higher when the personal and career benefits to the participant from U. S. training are high. On the other hand, those participants who get fewer personal or career benefits from their U. S. experience tend to be lower users of their training, even though apparently well-qualified by existing selection criteria.

This finding suggests that those officials responsible for selection consider, as a new criterion, the prospective benefits to the participant from U. S. training. It is apparently not enough to assume that satisfying project needs brings use of training. If both personal and project goals can be met through U. S. training, subsequent utilization of this training is likely to be high. Participant satisfaction is also more likely to be higher. In more specific terms, senior persons, for example, should in general be selected for U. S. training only where some personal motivation to change and to use new training still exists. This does not preclude the occasional need for sending persons in key positions whose exposure to new ideas or whose prestige reward from travel can be expected to reduce their resistance to change.

4. Age. There is a moderately wide range in age among the majority of participants selected under the present program; 80 percent were between 30 and 50 years old. Presumably, those who were very young did not have the necessary academic training or work experience to be selected, or were considered too immature. Similarly, most older candidates were not seen as having a sufficiently long work career ahead of them to be selected. Within the broad middle-age groups from which most of the participants were selected, other variables appear to be more important than age in determining the application of training.

No change in present policies with respect to age in selection seems indicated.

5. Identification with the Philippines. The survey data showed clearly that participants who have and maintain a strong positive identification with the Philippines are more likely to be high users of U. S. training (according to ratings by participants and their supervisors) than those with weaker self-identification with their country. Participants who were strongly identified with the Philippines mentioned more frequently than others that they hoped to do something for their country, to tell other people about the Philippines; they thought it an advantage to let people know about their country. They seemed less likely to learn personal and social habits which alienated them from people in their own society. At the same time, the more effective participants thought most favorably of the United States and did most to develop mutual understanding between the two countries.

It is difficult to see how a reliable operational measure of strong identification with own country can be used as a criterion in selection, but this factor should be kept in mind in interviewing candidates and judging their qualifications. It is clearly a loss to the program when Filipino participants develop too close or complete identification with the United States during their training. Fortunately, high utilization of U. S. training is made by participants who have both strong identification with the Philippines and favorable reaction to the United States.

6. Social status. In comparing their own social standing with that of their parents, nearly all of the participants in every field of training felt that they had moved up the social ladder from the position of their parents. The participants were members of upwardly moving social groups.

The utilization ratings were unrelated directly either to the social status of the participant or to that of his parents. However, those participants indicating a greater distance between themselves and their parents were rated higher by both supervisors and U. S. technical assistants.

These findings suggest that upward mobile persons use the training to further their career goals. For those concerned with selection, this social mobility reflects a possible incentive for fuller employment of training. Social mobility seems to reflect influence in society which carries over onto the job. Promotion on the job probably also brings with it higher social status. Social status should not be a criterion for selection, but should be considered in relation to prospective career benefits to the participant, to the influence requirements of the job to which he will return, and to similar factors.

Providing Better Pre-Departure Preparation

1. Involvement of the participant. The data showed that the more effective participants, who made greater use of their U. S. training, were those who participated more in the planning and discussion of their training programs before going to the States, and who were more satisfied with the planning of their programs. They felt they were more familiar with the objectives of the training programs, and in particular, had discussed these problems with their supervisors and co-workers. They also felt that they had had more influence in planning their own programs of training.

To the extent that it is administratively feasible, participants should be given greater opportunity to discuss and help plan their training programs, especially with their supervisors and co-workers for those aspects which are related to back-home application.

2. Future training of others. If there is any single weakness in the pre-departure phase of the Philippine training program, it is that participants, supervisors and TA's have given inadequate attention to future training activities by participants after their return. In many cases back-home training activities were not discussed at all, and in most cases no provision was made to insure agreement that transmission of training to others would be a regular part of the job after return.

To increase the multiplier effect of U. S. training, there should be more advance planning of future training activities by returned participants. There should also be agreement among responsible officials on these training activities before departure, and perhaps even as a condition for the selection of the participant.

Orientation

The survey indicated that orientation in the Philippine training program was well handled, both in Manila and in Washington. Some complaints were made about the inadequacy of briefing on social and recreational opportunities, and on climate and clothing needs, but participant satisfaction was high, particularly with briefing on travel arrangements, finances and living arrangements.

Making the Most of the U. S. Training Experience

1. General satisfaction. Participants, their supervisors, and U. S. Technical Assistants all express a high level of satisfaction with the U. S. training. It is evident that those responsible for planning and operating this major part of the entire training experience are doing a good job.

Within this framework of general satisfaction, however, there are a number of questions and suggestions which came out of the responses of those interviewed, and from an analysis of data from the survey.

2. Participant satisfaction. The participant's attitudes toward his training experience are related to his self-ratings of application of training, but in specific ways that are more complex than equating general satisfaction with use of training. The more effective participants viewed the quality of the training program in terms of ultimate use, and in terms of the degree of his own involvement in it. The more effective participants not only felt more satisfied with their U. S. training, but showed more interest in the program, and participated more in planning their programs and their use of training after return. They were also more satisfied with those aspects of the training program which were directly related to use back home, and felt they had received the training that they had requested and which had been planned for them.

This suggests that more consultation with the participant during both the planning and the training itself would increase participant involvement, interest, motivation, and back-home application. The data do not show what degree of flexibility and participant involvement is optimally related to utilization or, of course, what is administratively feasible.

3. Length of training program. The most commonly criticized feature of U. S. training was its length--a large majority of participants felt the training period (which averaged just over 8 months) was too short. Participants wanted to learn more, acquire degrees, and observe more places related to their field of training. The survey data show that successful application of training (participant rating) is positively related to length of the training period. Apparently in a longer period more learning of new ideas and skills does take place. However, it does not seem appropriate to suggest a change in policy until more is known about optimum length of training, taking into account differences among fields of training, and offsetting disadvantages to projects that are waiting for returned participants.

4. Academic training. Training needs for specific projects determine whether the program is all, partly, or not at all academic. More participants in the sample had training which was all or mostly nonacademic than had training which was mostly academic. Those participants in academic training, however, tended to report greater application of their training after return. Moreover, the more favorable their attitudes toward academic training, the higher were all three ratings of utilization. Effective participants were most satisfied with the aspects of their academic training most closely related to preparation for their jobs. Satisfaction with academic training was the only item in the U. S. training experience, except for general satisfaction with U. S. training, that was positively related to all three utilization ratings. Apparently, academic training is not only the appropriate preparation for many jobs to which participants return in the Philippines (education, health, etc.), but when especially liked by participants helps bring about increased utilization.

5. Academic degrees. Academic degrees are highly prized in the Philippines. Even though participants recognized that their U. S. training was in most cases not degree-oriented, many still hoped for degrees and were disappointed not to obtain them. The survey data suggest that getting a

degree makes the participant more satisfied, and probably raises his prestige and influence. But the data show no clear relationship between obtaining degrees and utilization. Some kind of certificate of achievement, as is occasionally used, would seem generally indicated, as well as some additional help in obtaining degrees where they are a professional requirement for the job.

6. Focus on back-home application. Participants who later felt they were more successful appliers of their U. S. training kept a focus on the back-home situation during their stay in the States. They were more likely to keep communication channels open with their co-workers, discuss with their colleagues in training the possible applications of what they were learning, and keep generally abreast of the situation in the Philippines.

It is quite possible that project managers and advisors, by encouraging this focus on the back-home job situation during training, could appreciably increase later utilization of training.

7. Skills in gaining acceptance. The quality of the participants' technical training, and acceptance of the new ideas and skills in the back-home job situation, are two major and related factors in the success of the program. The survey data provided no basis for serious criticism of the technical training received by participants, but pointed in many places to the difficulties faced by participants in gaining acceptance of their learning. Effective participants were more likely than less effective ones to say that their training should have included more emphasis on skills of working with people.

It seems that general satisfaction with U. S. training is based primarily on the quality of teaching of new techniques and methods in the technical subjects of specialization. U. S. training appears to be generally weaker in teaching the skills and techniques for insuring that these new techniques are adopted and put into use in another culture. Participants need greater skills in communicating their new ideas to others, in becoming sensitive to the nature of resistance in others who are expected to adopt new techniques, and in working effectively with others in bringing about improvements. If U. S. training is to be made more effective, it must not only continue to teach participants the "what" of new technologies, but also help them learn the "how" of bringing about these changes.

8. Learning about Americans. Along with their formal training, the visitors informally learned a great deal about American behavior and attitudes. In contrast with the observations of visitors to the U. S. from some other countries, the visitors were very favorably impressed by their personal experiences with their hosts. They found Americans to be interested in people and helpful; friendly, pleasant and cordial; their behavior informal and egalitarian with little emphasis on status and rank distinctions. Besides the warm interpersonal behavior, the visitors noted with surprise the rational, work-oriented attitudes of their hosts. They were mildly astonished to note that Americans worked hard, were busy and industrious. Frequent comments cited the "moral" aspects of American character, honesty in business and social life, frankness and directness in business and social communications, and a pervasive discipline and planning to reach long-range goals. For some, these observations provided interesting cultural contrasts with their own experience, and for others they provided standards of interpersonal behavior and attitudes toward work to be emulated upon return home.

9. Increasing mutual understanding between the U. S. and the Philippines. It is clear from the findings that Filipino participants learned a great deal about social and economic life in the U. S. Nearly half voluntarily mentioned this effect. Most participants reported very favorably on Americans and liked them. Even the majority of those experiencing racial discrimination had generally favorable

attitudes towards Americans. There was little evidence, however, that participants gained much understanding or appreciation of American political life or foreign policy, nor did they seem to have gained appreciable perspective on their own country.

Insofar as changes in Americans are concerned, the evidence is necessarily indirect. Participants had many contacts with Americans, were surprised at how little Americans knew about the Philippines, took occasion to tell them about the Philippines, and perceived them as friendly and understanding. This suggests that Americans became better informed about the Philippines because of this program, but provides no direct evidence of attitude change.

The program appears to provide an effective communication channel and increased information flow between Americans and Filipinos. The data from this survey suggest that the program brings about some favorable attitude change on the part of Filipinos, but it does not show the effects on Americans. Moreover, the impact of the participant training program on Filipino attitudes is difficult to separate from the general impact of the favorable environment created by the friendly relations which have existed between the two countries.

10. Value of social experience. While Filipino participants are very serious about their technical training, much of their learning during their stay in the States comes from their informal social experience and other contacts with Americans. For most participants, a trip to the United States is a highly prized experience. However, the more effective participants had more favorable social experiences with Americans than did the less effective, for a variety of reasons discussed in the chapter on factors related to utilization; (1) many of the useful things the participant learned came from learning in informal social settings, and (2) favorable social experiences create conditions under which the participant's technical learning can most readily take place. Not just technical training, but also the participants' social experience in the U. S. , affects later utilization.

11. Social experience: opportunity and satisfaction. Opportunities for social and recreational experiences were considered unsatisfactory by many participants. However, there was a very significant relationship between self-ratings of utilization and satisfaction with social and recreational opportunities. Such activities are not frivolous nor unrelated to the serious business of preparing participants for making good use of their technical training. Effective participants not only had more contacts with Americans, but were more likely to comment voluntarily on the good social relations they had observed among Americans.

12. Perceived American attitude toward the Philippines. The more successful participants more often reported actually telling people in the U. S. about the Philippines. After returning home they also were more likely than less successful participants to believe that Americans had favorable attitudes toward political, cultural and living standards in the Philippines. This does not prove that higher utilization is caused by telling Americans about the Philippines, or by attributing favorable attitudes to them. However, it may well be that encouraging participants to tell Americans about their country will contribute to mutual understanding and to later utilization of training.

13. Racial discrimination. About one-third of the participants came to the States with considerable apprehension about being discriminated against on racial grounds. Sixty percent of these tended later to discount their negative stereotype or asserted that they had no personal experience with discrimination. However, 40 percent of them experienced racial discrimination as they had expected, or worse.

The analysis did not show this single factor to be systematically related to utilization. The occurrence of unfortunate experiences with racial discrimination is apparently a function of the situations in which individual participants find themselves. These experiences, of course, tend to lower the level of general satisfaction with the U. S. experience, which is itself related to application of training.

14. Expectations and benefits. For one reason or another, a great many Filipinos built up excessive expectations of personal and career benefits from their U. S. training and general experiences. Effective participants had somewhat higher expectations than less successful ones of doing useful things such as acquiring skills and knowledge useful to their country, but were very much more likely to feel that they had actually learned more useful things--even more than they expected. More and less successful participants differed very little in their tourist expectations, such as broadening themselves through travel, but more successful persons reported being much more satisfied with the realities.

Program planners should try to keep excessive expectations from developing among participants, as failure to realize these expectations contributes to dissatisfaction and lower utilization.

Increasing the Utilization of Training

1. Time since return. The survey data show that opportunity to use U. S. training increases, on the average, with increasing length of time after return. Many of the participants hit a turning point in their opportunity to use their training, at various times after return; at this point they either increased their chances and continued to improve their position to use training each year, or they decreased their chances and continued to lose ground thereafter.

While those responsible for using the skills of returned participants can generally count on time working with them, they should be on the lookout for events which can precipitate a decline in participants' opportunities to use their training.

2. Job assignments. About ten percent of the sample had job assignments after return which provided little direct opportunity to use their training. As might be expected, the more effective participants, as judged by both supervisors and participants, had job assignments which permitted them to apply their training. To the extent that job assignments are made to enable participants to use their training, as was the case in the great majority of returned Filipinos, the training program will show better results. As suggested by the findings relative to time since return, it is important to see that job assignments are appropriate to training not only immediately after training, but in subsequent years.

3. Supervisor support. Encouragement and support by the participants' supervisor is an important element in his successful use of U. S. training. Supervisors recognize this, and give higher ratings to participants whom they indicate they have helped. Such support takes the form of helping plan the participants' program of activities after return, giving the participant authority and opportunity to use his initiative, and matching job assignment to U. S. training.

These findings suggest that supervisors should become more personally involved in the participants' training program, and are an important target group for activities aimed at increasing participants' application of training.

4. Support from colleagues. Participants reporting high application of training were more likely to feel co-workers were interested in their new ideas, to have cooperation with persons in related jobs, and to feel that they were receiving considerable support from their co-workers. Participants who felt they met with envy, suspicion of their ideas and resentment, and who tended to work alone, were rated lower by supervisors and TA's.

These findings may in part reflect the characteristics of the organization, the prior involvement of superiors and co-workers in planning, and the personal efforts and skills of participants in making an adjustment to persons related to their job situation. The implication is that these others should participate in discussing the participants training program and back-home application.

5. Limited facilities and trained personnel. Lack of adequate facilities, equipment and funds was the greatest difficulty standing in the way of the introduction of improvements by returned participants, in the opinion of participants, their supervisors and U. S. Technical Assistants. A second major complaint by participants, supported by TA's but not by supervisors, was the lack of sufficient trained personnel in their organizations. The analysis showed that participants who indicated that they had very inadequate facilities and equipment tended to rate their use of U. S. training lower and received lower utilization ratings from their supervisors. Participants who were satisfied with the technical ability of people they worked with rated themselves higher and were rated higher by their supervisors. Those most dissatisfied with the technical qualifications of others were rated lower by supervisors.

These findings suggest that lack of facilities, equipment and trained personnel are serious problems which are reflected in ratings, and that more successful users of U. S. training either have more adequate supplies and personnel available or somehow try to overcome these deficiencies without complaining. Supervisors seem to react negatively to participant dissatisfaction. One implication is that U. S. training should be designed and geared to the use of facilities, equipment and supporting personnel that will be available to the returned participant. Training in advanced techniques usually does require more modern facilities, equipment, and supporting skills by others, however. It may be desirable to do somewhat more group training of persons who must work together on a new project, to provide accessory skills and group support for individual participants.

6. Participant influence and prestige. U. S. training tremendously increases the prestige of the returned participant in the Philippines. This is one of the few items in which the actual results from U. S. training exceeded participant expectations. But the influence of the participant seems to be related to a variety of factors. The data show that the greater the acceptance of the participant by his colleagues, the more likely they are to be influenced by him. Participants who were more satisfied with the ease of communication with others in their organization rated themselves higher and were rated higher by TA's. Those who were consulted more by colleagues tended to be more effective users of U. S. training. These persons were also asked most frequently about the U. S. The more effective participants increased their prestige and their influence with co-worker, subordinates and superiors.

It is difficult to determine from the data the direction of cause and effect relationships between these several factors and high utilization. But it appears reasonable to assume that increased use of U. S. training comes from increased communication skill (ease of communication), and good human relations skill (acceptance by others), as well as sound U. S. training (such items as good technical learning and focus on back-home application, mentioned earlier). Increased prestige seems to come initially from the fact of U. S. training and later along with increased influence, from successful interaction with others. Successful interaction with others contributes to high utilization. Whatever the

actual sequence, participants derive a very considerable prestige from the fact of U. S. training, but only convert it into acceptance and influence on a continuing basis through the exercise of other skills they have learned. For example, the more effective participants also felt they had developed broader outlooks, more systematic ways of working at their tasks, and more satisfactory ways of working with people. Participants who expect unlimited acceptance and influence because of the prestige they gain from U. S. training are likely to be disappointed and ineffective.

7. Participant satisfaction with job. Participants who were satisfied with their actual job, the work itself, their acceptance as a professional, and the opportunities to do the things they were trained for were rated higher users of U. S. training by superiors and TA's as well as by participants themselves. If a participant is doing well, this is usually reflected in job satisfaction, a finding consistent with other studies.

8. Organizational barriers. Participants who were critical of the lack of interest on the part of others in their organization tended to give themselves lower ratings of utilization of U. S. training, and were rated lower by supervisors and TA's. Lack of interest by others is seen by participants as resulting from the others' greater interest in personal affairs than organizational goals, fear of trying anything new, and lack of interest in doing a good job. TA's mentioned quite frequently that the organization is not set up to use participants' training, and felt also that quite a number of participants were blocked by their superiors.

These findings seem to describe important differences in the organizational attitudes toward change, and suggest focussing more on the organization itself as the logical target for needed change, rather than exclusively on the individual participant.

9. Promotion criteria. Similar findings are reflected in the participants' attitudes toward the criteria used in his organization for promotion. Participants who considered that management based promotion on measures reflecting achievement (i. e., education, quality of work) rated their use of U. S. training high and were rated high by their supervisors. Those who felt that management used criteria reflecting "who you are" (i. e., political influence, region or province of origin, being known to management) gave themselves lower ratings and received lower ratings from their supervisors. These data suggest the need for knowing more about the organizational climate in which participants work, but do not lead at present to program recommendations.

10. Participant as a barrier. Deficiencies in the participant himself are seen by the supervisors and TA's as factors standing in the way of higher utilization, in some cases. It should be emphasized, however, that these are seen as far less important barriers than organizational factors, lack of facilities and equipment, and other factors mentioned previously. In the few cases where TA's thought the participant himself was the barrier, he felt it was principally due to personal or personality difficulties, and not trying hard enough. These characteristics were negatively related to TA ratings. Supervisors somewhat more frequently felt that participants had too many new ideas, did not adjust easily to job requirements, and had difficulty accepting directions--these were all negatively related to ratings by the supervisors and by the TA's. Similarly, supervisors gave lower ratings to participants who themselves reported more interest in change and who reported changing their personal and social behavior in ways disapproved by their families, friends and co-workers.

These data show that some participants seem to be largely responsible for their own lack of utilization. It is not clear, however, to what extent these individuals could have been screened out during selection, whether their personal difficulties were the result of inadequacies in training, or whether they resulted from frustration in their jobs back home. Even where the participant is seen as a barrier to change, the real explanation may show the problem is not exclusively in the participant.

11. Follow-up support. The evidence points to the need for a follow-through program to provide at-the-elbow support to participants in their attempt to utilize their training and stimulate a greater readiness for change in the work environment of the participant. Participants attach great importance to these contacts with the U. S. Technical Assistants. Participants who rated their utilization high were more likely to say they had a great deal of contact with TA's, valued these contacts, and desired more. The relation between utilization and TA support was stronger than for any other kind of follow-up support. Overall, participants who judged themselves effective made more use of almost all forms of follow-up support and tended to value them more highly than less effective participants. Neither supervisor nor TA ratings were significantly related to participants current use of follow-up support, nor to the estimated value of these activities. However, supervisors tended to give higher ratings to participants desiring more follow-up activities, particularly memberships in a professional society in the Philippines. This was less common for U. S. technical publications and professional membership in a U. S. society. Supervisors saw less need for follow-up support to participants by U. S. technical assistants, and suggested that TA services could be dispensed with more rapidly.

The implications of these data are that more follow-up support is desired by participants, and that follow-up does contribute to greater use of technical training as judged by participants.

12. Transmission of training to others. Transmitting training to others is a major American goal, in order to multiply the effects of U. S. training. The survey findings show that there are serious weaknesses in this phase of the participant training program, even though participants, supervisors and TA's believe there is considerable transmission to others by participants.

Firstly, participants need the incentive to transmit their training to others after return. Effective participants reported more often that training others would influence their own success on the job. They recognized the relation between this activity and their career goals. Less effective participants did not seem to have this concept or incentive to the same degree.

Secondly, participants need the opportunity to train others. Effective participants, by their own ratings and by their superiors', much more often reported that they had the opportunity to transmit their training to others. Formal teaching, on the job seminars, discussion groups and training programs were part of their regular job. Communication channels for training others were open to them.

Thirdly, those to be trained, the recipients of new ideas and skills, need to be interested in such training. Effective participants felt that their co-workers and subordinates were more interested in being trained, and this was also related to TA ratings of application of training.

There seems to be a greater need for discussion and prior agreement on this back-home activity during the planning of the participants training program, and on this activity after return. Too many participants report that this was not discussed at all, that it is not considered a regular part of their job, and that they do not have time for such training of others.

This might also be part of the follow-up activity, to insure that training of others is not being lost sight of in the press of day-to-day work on the job, and to try to develop or maintain a receptive environment for such training activities.

13. Resistance of the public. Surprisingly few returned participants work directly with the public, although this varies widely depending on the field of training. "Change" means largely making improvements within the organization. However, participants who deal with the public emphasize the need for demonstration. Telling people is not enough. They must see results to understand. They also point out that people are afraid to take a chance on new ideas and cling to traditional ways of doing things. They feel that cultural tradition and lack of exposure to concrete evidence of improvement accounts for people's slowness to accept new ideas and techniques. There were no findings that people resist change because they are completely satisfied as they are.

These findings and others illustrate the gap between what is known to the experts and what is visible and demonstrable to the public in the Philippines, and suggest the need for more emphasis on demonstration and public education to increase acceptance of change.

Impact on the Participant

1. Personal changes. The more effective participants had more confidence in themselves than did the less effective, and compared themselves more favorably with Americans on a series of social and personal attributes. They changed more in job-related behavior patterns, becoming more organized and systematic, and more informal and democratic with subordinates. Supervisors also felt that their U. S. trained subordinates had more initiative, had more leadership ability, had pleasing personalities, and contributed more to group morale and work efficiency than did non-U. S. trained subordinates. Supervisors gave higher ratings to participants who had more of these qualities. On the other hand, as mentioned earlier, supervisors gave lower ratings to participants who reported that they had changed their personal and social behavior in ways disapproved by their families and friends.

These findings suggest that the original selection plus the U. S. training developed effective participants whose job-related behavior became less traditional but was more efficient (and appreciated by supervisors), but that supervisors did not see participants who incorporated non-traditional social behavior as being high utilizers. Apparently innovational behavior is more acceptable on the job than in outside social life.

2. Other participant characteristics. Effective participants (rated by supervisors and TA's) were somewhat younger than average and had made higher than average gains in social status, compared with their parents. Supervisors gave higher ratings to persons actually having political influence. But these effective participants did not see themselves as active advocates of change.

Thus, supervisors think most highly of participants who are technically competent, have political influence, are upwardly mobile socially, but who do not seem to press too hard for change. This suggests that from the supervisor's viewpoint, effective participants need, in addition to technical skills, certain personal and social attributes, including the ability to move forward at an acceptable pace in an acceptable manner.

Differences by Field of Training

The findings summarized here have to do with general factors which seem to be related more closely to differences in fields of training than to differences among individual participants. As those administering training programs are well aware, the progress of projects must be judged in relation to the difficulties encountered as well as the nature of project goals, and neither of these are easily compared between projects.

1. Organizational readiness for change, and personal motivation. Survey findings reported elsewhere in this report suggest that a series of conditions are necessary for successful utilization of U. S. training by individual participants. The participant must be well selected and well trained. His supervisors must understand the needs of the project and should also be involved in helping the participant. The participant must have an opportunity to use his training. He must have personal motivation, as well as opportunity, to apply what he has learned. The organization (primarily supervisors and higher management) must be ready for change.

The findings relative to differences in performance by fields of training suggest that relative strength in one or more of these positive factors may help offset relative weakness in others. For example, participants in highway development, while not lacking in personal motivation, seemed lower on this factor than many other groups. On the other hand, their organization was perhaps the highest of any studied with respect to readiness to change and experience with change. The organization has been set up to provide good opportunities for participants to use their training, many supervisors were also trained in the U. S. , and adequate facilities and equipment were available. The very strong positive organizational environment seems to have offset any deficiencies in personal motivation, and permitted high utilization of U. S. training. Other projects seem to illustrate the reverse situation in which highly motivated participants found either the organization or the public very resistant to change, for a variety of reasons. Labor union leaders, mentioned more frequently than any other group public resistance to change. Health participants, more than any other group, felt that their organization was not properly set up to permit application of modern methods learned in the States. Participants in elementary curriculum development felt quite dissatisfied with the organizational set up, with the facilities and equipment, and with opportunities to exchange information and ideas with people in related jobs; TA's agreed that these organizational factors reduced utilization. Public administration participants saw their colleagues and subordinates as little interested in receiving training, and felt their own opportunities to use training were below average.

These examples point to the importance of factors within the organization as they help determine the actual use made of U. S. training in different fields.

2. Kinds of change. The findings with respect to utilization by fields of training strongly suggest the importance of the kind of change or improvement being introduced by returned participants as related to the ease or difficulty of using U. S. training. Industrial development participants had very little difficulty gaining acceptance of new machine layouts, or better use of existing equipment. Vocational industrial participants were able to introduce technological improvements in shop layout for improved teaching, and successfully used new equipment which could either be purchased or built with local materials and ingenuity. Highway improvement participants found people enthusiastic about better roads and bridges, even when modern machine methods reduced requirements for manual labor and did less to alleviate unemployment than did construction using traditional methods. However, when participants suggested improvements involving changes in the organizational power structure, or requiring changes in value systems, such changes met with considerably more resistance. Those in elementary curriculum development felt that decision-making was overly centralized at higher levels; public administration mentioned various factors within their organizations as resistant to change; and participants in health and in the Labor Department reflected the reorganization difficulties encountered by these organizations.

The findings suggest that there is some kind of continuum along which ease of change can be measured. Change can be expected most quickly and readily when the change is physical, demonstrable, and consistent with existing power structures, traditions and values, but comes with increasing slowness and difficulty as it requires modification of existing social relationships, and of underlying

traditions and values. The relative success of projects must be judged in relation to the strength of these barriers to the particular changes proposed.

3. Follow-up support. The data showed differences between projects which seem to reflect the operation of some of the same elements of follow-up support that operate with individuals, and which are related to utilization.

a. One such factor is ease of communication with others of similar training. Labor union leaders, for example, found it easier than any other group to get together and exchange information and ideas with people in related jobs, and also reported that people in related jobs assist each other very frequently. Labor Department and Water Supply participants, on the other hand, did not seem to engage in such exchange to any great extent or to get much help from people in related jobs. It seems desirable to encourage the exchange of information and ideas among participants with similar training, both to improve skills and to maintain morale.

b. A second element in follow-up support seems to be maintenance of group identification with a project and its goals. Most of the participants returned to projects with well-defined goals, and to organizational units identified with these goals. The Water Supply participants, however, while sent to the U. S. for training under a health project, seemed to have little feeling of identification with the various organizations to which they were assigned after their return to the Philippines. They ended up reporting least opportunity to use their training, lowest utilization, and most dissatisfaction. Those responsible for program planning should try to ensure that participants in particular projects do not feel they are "cast adrift" after return home.

c. Other elements in follow-up support, such as frequency and type of contact with U. S. Technical Assistants, membership in professional societies, and correspondence with professional persons in the U. S. show some differences between projects. The attitudes and needs of participants in different fields of training are summarized in Part IV. Those responsible for follow-up for the different projects may gain some clues from these descriptions and from the comparative data in Appendix A, so that group as well as individual needs may be taken into account.

Improving Survey Methods

1. Oral interviews vs. written questionnaires. The survey showed that both oral interviews and written questionnaires have a place in such evaluation studies. Oral interviews with participants provided them with an opportunity for free expression of views, and revealed information that had not been anticipated. Within the general setting of volunteered information and broad scope provided by the oral interview, the written questionnaire for participants gave a great wealth of detail, over a wide range of topics, in readily quantifiable form. Such detailed information would have been impractical in an oral interview. The two instruments also provided a cross-check on the consistency of participant responses to the same questions asked in different contexts.

The written questionnaire mailed to supervisors seemed also quite satisfactory as a means of obtaining useful information, although the response rate was somewhat less than hoped for. However, the use of this mail questionnaire was dictated by shortage of time, not by the conviction that it was preferable to, or even equivalent to, an oral interview. Thus, the survey experience did not provide an answer to the alternatives of oral interviews vs. written questionnaires, but simply took advantage of some of the known features of each method.

2. Frank vs. polite replies. The results from the oral interview and written questionnaire demonstrated that participants in the Philippines do not give stock answers or "polite" responses on sensitive subjects, apparently being convinced that their responses would be kept confidential by the survey and that they would remain anonymous as individuals. The rather elaborate precautions actually taken to insure this protection to individuals seem fully justified. There was good distribution of replies on both the open-ended and the scaled fixed-range questions. This means either that respondents said pretty much what they actually believed, or else had widely different ideas on what the appropriate "polite" or expected reply was. The evidence available supports the belief that responses represented the respondents' true feelings.

Wherever surveys are conducted which seek sensitive information in a given culture, special efforts appropriate to the host country culture need to be made to maximize the validity of the responses.

3. Analysis problems. It will be evident to the reader of this report that the factors related to utilization are numerous, and their relationships are often complex. Unless those requesting evaluation surveys want only simple descriptive materials, this means that provision must be made for testing the relationship between one or more criterion variables and perhaps several hundred independent or related factors. This suggests that prior arrangements be made for the use of a high-speed electronic computer, and for the necessary professional support to manage the analytical problems involved. The social scientists who provide this support will, of course, want to be involved in planning the research design and in the collection of data if the later analysis is to be most useful.

Additional data and more detailed discussion of findings are given in other chapters of this report.

PART III

THE PARTICIPANT SAMPLE AS A WHOLE

In this part of the report are several chapters which give the detailed findings from each phase of the training program and after the participant returned to his job in the Philippines. In each chapter the experiences and attitudes of the participant are discussed, and also the determinants of the participant's actual utilization of the knowledge and skills learned in the U. S. Three criteria for application of U. S. training are used. (1) The participant was asked to evaluate his own use of his training. (2) In a questionnaire mailed to his supervisor, the supervisor was also asked to evaluate his subordinate's application of training. (3) In a questionnaire given to U. S. TA's they were asked to evaluate the participant's application of training.

As indicated in the chapter on application of training, these three evaluations did not coincide. The TA estimate had no consistent relation to that of the applicant and his supervisor. Supervisor and subordinate agreed to a statistically significant, but practically, very small, degree. In effect, then, there are three independent judgments of the extent to which the participant utilizes his training. Reasons for these differences in appraisal are described at the end of the chapter on application of training.

These three ratings were related to a number of items in the questionnaires and interviews. Use of high speed computer facilities permitted more relationships to be examined than would ordinarily be practicable.

Relationships are reported which were found to be statistically significant and thought to be practically significant as well. A number of summary tables are used in the text, whereas detailed statistical tables are given in the middle section of Appendix A. The reader interested in these details may follow the text discussion via the appendix tables. In the text, the statistical significance of the relationships found are indicated by asterisks according to the following code:

- *** means "highly significant." Probability of chance occurrence of this relationship is less than one in a thousand. ($p = .001$)
- ** means "very significant." Probability of chance occurrence of this relationship is less than one in a hundred. ($p = .01$)
- * means "significant." Probability of chance occurrence of this relationship is less than five times in a hundred. ($p = .05$)

Two measures of association were used, chi square (X^2) and the Pearsonian product moment correlation coefficient (r). A minus sign (-) indicates a negative relationship. The way the utilization ratings by participants, supervisors and U. S. Technical Assistants were used in the correlation and chi-square analysis is explained in the preceding chapter on method.

4. PERSONAL AND SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

Information about the background and characteristics of participants selected for U. S. training was gathered to help explain differences in participant's attitudes towards various stages of the training program, and especially their utilization of U. S. training. Recognizing that the U. S. experience, and subsequent experience in the back-home work environment may be partial determinants of success or failure in using training, it is still clear that personal and social characteristics of participants also play an important part in determining the final outcome. This chapter describes some of the features which characterize the participant sample as a whole.

In attempting to select what might be important and measurable factors in participants personal and social characteristics, the survey was limited both by time and by the state of the arts in this field. So far as we know, tests of intelligence, aptitude and personality, such as are used extensively in the United States, have not been used in selecting participants in the training program in the Philippines, perhaps partly because such tests have not been validated against subsequent measures of performance. Even in the United States, where such tests have been used for many years in business, government agencies and educational institutions, a great deal more experience is needed before they will be accepted as reliable instruments for more than very limited purposes. It was not felt that the purposes of this survey justified the very considerable additional time and expense that would have been required to try out some of the available tests. This would be a separate and difficult research program. As a result, only one quick personality test was administered during the interviewing of participants. Thus, for the most part, the information in this section deals with standard characteristics which are easily obtained from participants, but which should contribute to a useful picture of the participant sample.

USOM files

In the Training Division of the U. S. Operations Mission to the Philippines, there are biographical files on all participants. Some measure of the completeness of these files can be obtained from the presence or absence of selected information about the participants interviewed in this study.

<u>Type of Information</u>	<u>Percent Present</u>
PIO/P (Project Implementation Order/Participant)	65
Biographical Data	93
TA Evaluation Sheet (before this survey)	38
Participant report on his training	85
ICA Follow-up Questionnaire (before this survey)	13

This chapter draws on information both from the USOM files and obtained directly during the survey.

Age, sex, marital status

Eighty three percent of participants in this survey were males, and 17 percent females. If this is a high proportion of women for a country in Asia, it probably reflects the relatively strong position of women in Philippine society. Female participants in the Philippines also rate themselves higher on utilization of U. S. training than do male participants.

The average age of participants was 39.5 years at time of selection. Three percent were under 24 years of age, and 2 percent 55 years or older. Age distribution of the sample is shown below; details by type-of-training groups are shown in Appendix Table (A111).

<u>Age group</u>	<u>Percent</u>
20-24	3
25-29	9
30-34	15
35-39	18
40-44	26
45-49	20
50-54	7
55+	<u>2</u>
Number of participants - 445	100

Eighty-two percent of the participants were married at the time of their selection; the remaining 16 percent includes single, separated or widowed persons. Some 75 percent of participants considered themselves heads of households. Another 21 percent reported wives, husbands or fathers as heads of their household, and 4 percent indicated mothers, brothers or sisters.

Place of birth

The biographical files showed place of birth for 93 percent of the participants interviewed. This is shown by geographic regions below. Within these regions, 78 percent came from barrios, small villages or small cities; 22 percent of participants were born in the major cities shown:

Table 4.2 Participants' Place of Birth, by Region

<u>Region</u>	<u>Total Percent in Region</u>	<u>Percent from Barrios, Villages, Small Cities</u>	<u>Percent from Major Cities</u>
1. Northern Luzon	14	13.7	Baguio 0.3
2. Central Luzon	41	22.8	Manila) Pasay) 18.2 Quezon)
3. Southern Luzon	21	21	-
4. Bicol Region	4	4	-
5. Western Visayas	8	5.8	Iloilo 1.7 Bacolod 0.5
6. Eastern Visayas	7	7	Cebu 0.3
7. Northeastern Mindanao	2	2	-
8. Southwestern Mindanao	<u>3</u>	<u>1.5</u>	Zamboanga <u>1.5</u>
	100	77.5	22.5

Number of participants - 418

There are 81 provinces in these regions of the Philippines. Birthplace by province is shown in Appendix Table A1. The island of Luzon, which has 14 provinces, was the birthplace for over three-fourths of the participants in the projects studied. The Manila-Pasay City-Quezon City urban area in central Luzon provided 80 percent of all the participants born in cities, and was the birthplace of nearly as many participants as from the Visayan and Mindanaon regions put together.

Participants from the Philippines are a highly educated group. Eighty-four percent have had some college or have completed college; 20 percent have more than one college degree. Sixteen percent have not been to college, but about half of these participants have some technical or vocational training in addition to high school.

English language facility

Ratings of English language facility were made by ICA officials and were part of the biographical file of participants. With regard to speaking, 37 percent were considered excellent, another 59 percent good, and 4 percent fair. Ratings of writing facility showed 45 percent excellent, 49 percent good and 3 percent fair. In reading, 50 percent rated excellent, 47 percent good and 3 percent fair. These ratings quite accurately express the general feelings of participants themselves after they have tested their English language facility during their U. S. training experience. Less than 5 percent of the sample indicated having considerable difficulty in understanding or communicating with Americans in the classroom or in social situations. It appears that Filipino participants, in contrast to those from

many other countries where English is not a widely-used second language, have little difficulty speaking or understanding English during their training experience.

It should be emphasized that a knowledge of English is usually indispensable for training in the United States. There may be exceptions where a large enough group is brought in to justify a translator who speaks the language of the group members. But in most cases, the participant must know English to receive training, and to form good social relationships. And it is in social situations that most of the informal learning takes place.

A second point to be remembered is that the English language facility of any candidate can be determined by an objective program planner, using tests now available. Moreover, these tests also indicate how much time will be required to teach English to a prospective candidate in view of the purpose and expense of a particular training program. Experience indicates that foreign students or participants coming to the States with only a poor understanding of English seldom gain adequate facility rapidly except through special intensive training.

Social status

The social position and location of the returned participant in the power structure of his home society affects his ability to influence others and to use--and perhaps get others to use--the knowledge and skill he acquires during his training. A participant's status also helps to determine his feelings of confidence, self-esteem and security during the training experience. For example, participants who are low in the power hierarchy and in status, or for other reasons feel insecure, are more likely to conform uncritically to American customs and ideas, or alternatively, to reject everything unfamiliar. Participants' social mobility turned out to be an important factor in the Philippines.

Since information on the participants' occupation was already available he was asked about his father's occupation, in an attempt to see from what socio-economic background participants came. Occupations were classified by the survey team into three socio-economic groups in the Philippines. In the highest socio-economic group were included proprietors or high officers of big business, owners of large estates and senior government officials. The middle group included physicians, lawyers and similar professional persons, teachers, military officers, middle-range government employees, and owners or managers of middle-sized businesses and estates. In the low socio-economic group were the lower government employees (clerks, mechanics, etc.) small farmers and store proprietors, service and manual workers. The detailed classification used is shown in Appendix F. Nearly nine out of ten Filipino participants came, in almost equal number, from the middle and lower socio-economic groups. Only one out of ten was from the highest socio-economic group. This is shown by field of training, in appendix Table A112.

During the oral interview participants rated their parents and then themselves on a social scale for the Philippines. The results are shown below with the scale categories used, and an adjective description which has been added:

Table 4.3 Participant's ratings of their parents' and their own social standing

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Social Class Description</u>	<u>Parent's Standing</u>	<u>Participant's Standing</u>
(1 - highest to 10 - lowest)		<u>Percent</u>	<u>Percent</u>
1 & 2	Upper	8	14
3 & 4	Upper middle	24	45
5 & 6	Middle	57	36
7 & 8	Lower middle	8	4
9 & 10	Lower	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>
Number of participants - 433		100	100

The mean rating for the parents was 4.85, just above the midpoint (5.5) on this social scale, suggesting that participants see their parents as somewhat above the average in social standing in the Philippines.

Using the same rating scale, participants showed clearly that they felt their social status has improved. Their mean score was 4.05, within what might be described as the upper middle class. This reflects a higher average self-rating by participants in every field of training (Table A113).

There is only moderate agreement between the socio-economic classification of father's occupation, which was made by the survey team, and the ratings of parent's social standing or status, made by the participants. They are not strictly comparable, partly because some low income occupations put in the lower socio-economic class are given higher status value by participants in their social rating of their parents.

Income

Information about participant's income was obtained from the biographical files in the ICA Mission, and directly during the interview. Data on income in the biographical files was available for only 27 percent of the participants later interviewed, but showed an average annual salary of about ₱3100. Some 62 percent of this sub-sample, had annual salaries of less than ₱4,000 prior to U. S. training, but data on many higher-income participants, such as the IDC group, were not in the files.

Participants in the oral interview estimated their annual salary or yearly income from their main job before leaving for U. S. training. The mean annual income was ₱3,790 and 56 percent reported incomes below ₱4,000. The range in income is shown in the table below:

Table 4.4

Participant's annual income from main job prior to training

<u>Income Group</u> <u>Pesos</u>	<u>Percent</u>
9,000 and over	7
8,000 - 8,999	1
7,000 - 7,999	3
6,000 - 6,999	7
5,000 - 5,999	10
4,000 - 4,999	17
3,000 - 3,999	23
2,000 - 2,999	24
1,000 - 1,999	<u>8</u>
	100

Number of participants - 424

Note: One Philippine peso (₱) equals U. S. \$0.50 at the official rate of exchange.

This table does not tell the whole story. Nearly two thirds of participants said they had other sources of income; quite a few mentioned several additional sources of means.

Table 4.5

Participant's supplementary sources of income

<u>Sources mentioned</u>	<u>Percent frequency</u> <u>of mention</u>
Wife or husband	32
Farm or real estate	31
Private business	19
Teaching	16
Parents	<u>2</u>
	100
Number of participants reporting -	246

No quantitative estimates of the additional income received were made. However, participants guessed where they stood on an income scale in the Philippines at the time of their selection, taking not only their main job but their income from all sources into account.

Table 4.6

Participant's self-rating on income at time of selection

<u>Income Scale for the Philippines</u>	<u>Percent</u>
1. Highest	1
2.	3
3.	10
4.	21
5.	29
6.	14
7.	11
8.	8
9.	2
10. Lowest	<u>1</u>
	100

Number of participants - 430

The mean self-rating score on the income scale was 5.22, just above the midpoint 5.5. Participants see themselves, on the average, as being about middle-income individuals in the Philippines. Their reported incomes suggest that the average is actually somewhat higher. It seems likely that participants have compared themselves to others in similar social and occupational groups, rather than to the population as a whole. This is more strongly suggested by the order of ranking by type-of-training groups (A114).

Curiously, those participants with less income from their main job prior to selection report higher utilization of U. S. training after return home.

Employment experience

Identifying the place of employment immediately prior to ICA training shows, among other things, the movement of participants from their first home, or place of birth. When place of employment was tabulated by region, it showed that over two-thirds (68 percent) of all participants in the sample were working in the region of Central Luzon, in which Manila is located, as contrasted with 41 percent who were born in this region. All other regions showed fewer participants employed there

than had been born in these regions, except for the two sparsely populated regions in Mindanao. The number of participants employed in Southwestern Mindanao (including Zamboanga City) increased slightly, and in northeastern Mindanao remained the same as had been born there.

Place of employment by city further illustrates this concentration of government and business activity around the capital. Almost two-thirds (62 percent) of the participants were found to be working in the Manila-Quezon City-Pasay City urban area prior to U. S. training, compared with 18 percent born there. Only two other cities, Iloilo and Zamboanga, gained in terms of participant place of employment (4.5 percent together) compared to place of birth (3 percent). Clearly there has been a large movement of participants from their places of birth throughout the islands to the capital and this geographic centralization is maintained after U. S. training.

Prior to training, nearly four out of five participants interviewed (79 percent) were already in government employment. Nearly all of these were employees of agencies of the national government; only 7 percent of all participants were from provincial, city or municipal agencies. Some 20 percent of the participants were in private employment and one-tenth of these were self-employed. A few participants (5 percent) were engaged in private business as well as in government; these have been included in government, above.

Average length of work experience prior to selection was 6.5 years, with a wide variation reflecting the age distribution shown earlier. Participants averaged 4 years prior work experience in the particular field in which they received additional U. S. training. Nearly half (44 percent) were already working on joint NEC/ICA projects at the time of their selection.

Experience as innovators

Many persons feel that if an employee attempts to make improvements in his regular job, he is more likely to be a successful "change-agent" after additional training. For this reason, participants were asked about their experience as innovators prior to U. S. training. Four out of five said they had a chance to make improvements in their jobs before selection to go to the United States. These participants mentioned an average of two improvements apiece. The kinds of improvements described were later separated into two major groups, one representing direct improvements and the other involving training of others (Table A2).

Table 4.7

Types of improvements made in jobs
prior to U. S. training

	<u>Percent frequency of mention</u>
A. <u>Direct improvements</u>	
Improved quality of work methods, products	44
Expanded activities and services to people	24
Improved organizational setup	22
Improved physical work conditions	12
Improved public relations	9
Acquired better equipment	6
B. <u>Transmission to others</u>	
Gave in-service training	14
Prepared publications	7
Provided consultative services	<u>2</u>
	140*
*Some participants gave more than one response	
Number of participants - 443	

This summary table of improvements shows at best a rather crudely drawn picture of innovation prior to U. S. training. It proved very difficult to categorize the types of improvements described by participants. Moreover, the survey team was in no position to judge either the importance of individual examples given or the precise role of the participant in their introduction. However, the overall impression of prior innovational experience of Filipino participants is reasonably clear. Direct improvements in the job are much more frequently mentioned than are improvements involving the training of others or transmission of new ideas, which seems to have been a minor innovational activity. Of the direct improvements mentioned, the great majority represent internal physical, methodological and procedural matters in the organization, rather than improvements in interpersonal relationships with people within the organization or in services to those outside served by the organization. Considering that most of the participants were employed in national government agencies rendering services to the public, this focus on intra-organizational improvements rather than external services can be interpreted in several ways. It may reflect an inadequate public service concept, or it may simply represent a feeling that improvement in organizational effectiveness is needed first to achieve its main external service goals. One can conclude, however, that most participants who made job improvements prior to U. S. training were principally oriented to intra-organizational problems.

The one out of five participants who said they had no chance to make improvements in their jobs prior to selection for U. S. training gave a variety of reasons for this. One third said they lacked the necessary skill and know-how; one third said they lacked the authority; the remaining one third mentioned lack of opportunity, lack of motivation or other reasons. These responses tend to confirm an impression of rather inflexible organizational structure in Philippine government agencies, as well as the relatively junior status of some participants selected from these agencies.

There was a tendency, approaching statistical significance, for participants' prior records as innovators to be negatively related to supervisor ratings of utilization of U. S. training. Participants rated high by their supervisors reported making fewer improvements in their jobs prior to U. S. training. Moreover, in their reports on the kind of changes made, these participants rated high by supervisors, tended to describe changes which were a direct carry-over of a practice they had observed or learned. Participants rated lower by supervisors were more likely to describe the modifications necessary to accomplish the change. Apparently, supervisors rated higher those participants who were less threatening to them.

Prior innovational experience was not associated, in the Philippine sample, with utilization ratings by the participants themselves, or by TA's.

Previous travel to the U. S.

Nine out of ten participants reported that their U. S. training trip was the occasion for their first visit to the United States. Data in the ICA biographical files showed that a considerably larger number than the remaining 10 percent had travelled somewhere outside the Philippines prior to selection for this training. Approximately one-third of all those who had contacts with persons from other cultures outside the Philippines had been to the U. S., one-third to Southeast Asia, and one-third to all other countries taken together. The traditionally close relationship between the Philippines and the United States is well illustrated by these data. In addition, many of the participants who had not previously travelled abroad undoubtedly had some contacts within the Philippines with persons from other national cultures.

For the ten percent who had previously travelled to the United States, study was the principal reason given and business the next. Forty percent of those who had gone to the U. S. for study obtained a degree.

Thirty-five percent of all participants interviewed reported that one or more members of their immediate family had been to the United States prior to this training grant. Study was again the reason most frequently mentioned for the trip to the U. S. by other members of the participant's family, followed by business, then a combination of these two reasons, and lastly pleasure. Prior contact with the United States by members of participants' families is quite commonplace and helps explain the knowledge of that country which participants possessed even before their training.

Table 4.8

Other members of family having
been to the United States

Percent frequency
of mention

Brother	32
Spouse	15
Sister	12
Father	8
Son	6

Number of participants

Political and organizational activity

To get some idea of participants' activities outside their jobs, information was gathered about their memberships in other organizations, and about their political interests. The biographical files showed that they belonged, on the average to 2.4 formal organizations of some sort. Three-fourths of those interviewed belonged to three organizations or less, while one-fourth were members of four or more. As a group, participants seem to be quite active in organizations outside their own jobs.

Scarcely more than one-fourth (27 percent) of the sample professed a strong interest in politics at the time of their selection, and only 15 percent reported that they were moderately or very active in politics at that time. The great majority (85 percent) said they did not participate in politics at all or had very little participation (only exercised their rights as a voter, etc.). On the other hand, 36 percent reported that they had some political influence, and an additional 6 percent said they had a great deal. In other words, half of the politically inactive participants felt they had political influence beyond that of an ordinary voter.

As described in the next chapter, political influence was reported by participants as being the least important factor in their own selection and in the selection of other participants (although more important in the selection of others than in their own case). Superiors said that political influence was the least important factor in selection, and that their U. S. trained subordinates had less political influence than comparable subordinates who had not had such training. But supervisors also felt that the selection procedure should be improved by having a good deal less weight given to the participants' political affiliation and influence. In characterizing the participant sample, one might say that they are well-aware of the importance of politics, profess little personal interest or personal activity in politics, but feel that they nevertheless have some political influence. Within the group, those who admit being active in politics and some who did not, appear to exert considerable influence; many others who are not active frankly recognize their lack of influence.

Personality characteristics, and preferences

The survey touched upon many of the attitudes and motivations of participants. A considerable number of these responses are reported in the sections dealing with different states of the training sequence. Here we are concerned with a few measures of personality, and related factors.

Some earlier research in the United States has suggested that "need for achievement," "need for affiliation," and "need for independence" are personality-motivational factors which can be measured and may be significantly related to innovation and using training. A test has been developed, in which the responses to a series of statements about personal preferences provided the basis for scoring these "needs." This test was used in the written questionnaire completed by participants, with the following results:

Table 4.9**Need achievement, need affiliation and need independence of the participants**

<u>Personality factor</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Rating scale:</u>
Need for achievement	6.39	7 - high
Need for affiliation	6.06	to 1 - low
Need for independence	2.43	

Number of participants - 432

Participants in the sample exhibited a rather high need for achievement motivation, also a rather high need for affiliation, and quite a low need for independence. The results of these tests by type of training are touched upon in a later section. However, there does not seem to be a clear relationship with utilization of U. S. training.

Comparisons with others

Participants in another part of the interview compared themselves to friends and acquaintances in the Philippines on a number of factors. They saw themselves as having significantly higher intelligence and academic standing; somewhat greater personal popularity and social prestige and about the same financial status, physical and sports ability. These social self-perceptions relate quite well to the responses to similar questions used in the need for achievement, --independence--affiliation test summarized above. For example, participants as a group felt that it was very important to be an accepted member of a friendly group, and also to have others like them. They also said they felt quite badly when they quarreled with a friend. On their competitive attitude in sports, 80 percent feel strongly about winning games of skill in which they participate.

Participants also compared themselves to one other person at the time of selection, this other person being the most similar to the participant in age, job and other characteristics, but who did not go to the U. S. for training. Participants saw themselves as having considerably more confidence in their skills and ability, having introduced more ideas for improvement on the job, having more technical know-how and work experience related to project needs, more influence on subordinates and co-workers, and more interest in Philippine development. They also believed they had more social ease, ambition to get ahead, and more personal social prestige. However, they felt they had slightly less family connections and prestige and somewhat less political influence than the persons to whom they compared themselves. Statistically significant differences appeared mainly in these last three items (Table A4).

On the basis of this evidence, one gets a picture of participants as intelligent, highly-motivated and upwardly mobile socially, quite ambitious and eager to advance themselves professionally, and expecting some help from their friends, colleagues and superiors.

Participants with high self-ratings on utilization had more confidence in themselves

Participants who rated themselves high on application of U. S. training tended to rate themselves higher than their Filipino friends on these attributes--intelligence, social prestige, financial status, physical and sports ability, academic standing and personal popularity. In comparing them-

selves with Americans on these same attributes, they also tended to rate themselves higher than did the less effective participants (Table A101).

Training expectations

The things that participants expected to get out of their visit to the United States naturally go beyond the acquisition of additional skills and knowledge, although participants expected to get the most help in this area. They also expected that the U. S. training experience would do something for their country. Considered next in the amount of help they expected to receive was--broadening themselves through travel, learning about the U. S. and how Americans live, telling Americans about the Philippines, advancing their careers, and improving promotion chances. They also expected the trip to give them some increased social prestige, increased salary and a better job. Least of all did participants expect the trip to help them get an academic degree, even though they may have wanted this very much. The help participants actually felt the trip provided in reaching these goals is discussed in the chapter dealing with impact on the participant.

The order in which areas of expected help are rated shows that participants perceive the training program primarily as a means to national goals of development. Nevertheless, participants as a group are also quite conscious of what they expect the training experience to do for them as individuals; although the variability of responses among individuals increases as one goes down the list into personal objectives (Table A5). As will be shown later, however, the training experience in the U. S. did not fully provide the help expected of either kind. With the exception of "find how people in the U. S. live" and "gain social prestige," all other benefits are rated slightly lower in the help actually provided than the help expected. To our picture of participants as a group, we add that they had rather high, and apparently excessive, expectations of personal benefit from their U. S. training visit, and also of benefits to their country.

Participants with high self-ratings of utilization expected fewer career benefits, obtained more

Participants who rated their utilization of U. S. training high tended to expect fewer career benefits as a result of their training. However, they reported receiving more career benefits than did the less effective participants. In addition, if we compare the difference between what they said they expected, and what benefits they actually received, the more effective participants were more likely than the less effective to derive greater career gains than anticipated. (Table A102.)

Table 4.10

Relationship between expected and actual career benefits, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Career benefits:</u>	<u>Ratings of utilization by participants</u>		
	<u>Expected</u>	<u>Actual</u>	<u>Difference</u>
Improve promotion chances	(-)	**	**
Increase salary	(-)	**	**
Get better job		**	**
Advance career		**	

Note: This table reads as follows on "improve promotion chances:" Participants who expected U. S. training to improve their promotion chances most, tended to rate themselves lower on utilization, but this relationship was not quite statistically significant. Participants

who felt most strongly that their actual promotion chances had improved as a result of U. S. training tended to rate their utilization of U. S. training higher, and this relationship was very significant ($p = .01$). Those who had greater gains in the difference between expected and actual improvement in promotion chances rated themselves higher on utilization, and this relationship was also very significant.

These data suggest that some effort should be made by program administrators to prevent excessive expectations of personal gain from developing among participants.

5. SELECTION

The selection of participants to be sent to the United States represents one of the most important steps in the training process, as is well-known to those administering the program. If the best men and women are chosen to receive additional training, the chances of their being successful in the projects and activities to which they return will certainly be enhanced. The question becomes, best in what, and how determined?

Guiding principles and procedures covering selection of participants have been developed in the joint NEC-ICA training program in the Philippines, as they have in other countries. The previous chapter describes some of the characteristics of those selected. We are concerned here with examining more closely the criteria which relate to selection of the individual participants. Some of the criteria officially used in individual selection are listed below to illustrate the measurement problems and the assumptions involved:

Candidates for training must have the following qualifications:

1. Be a citizen of the Philippines of good moral character, be psychologically mature, and able to adjust to new and varied conditions.
2. Possess sufficient maturity to provide proper representation for his country in his associations abroad.
3. Show ability to understand a foreign culture and to benefit from educational and observational experience abroad.
4. Be assured of employment in his proposed field of training and certify his interest and willingness, upon completion of his training and his return to the Philippines, to work in the field of his training for a minimum of two years.
5. Show an ability to work with others anywhere in the Philippines, in order that the multiplying effect of his training can be reasonably assured.
6. Must not be over 53 years of age (separate criteria have been developed for exceptions).
7. Display adequate understanding and utilization of English.
8. Show that he has utilized all appropriate, practical and academic training available in the Philippines.

Other criteria deal with health qualifications, the conditions under which participants may seek to obtain academic degrees, etc.

The criteria developed and used in the NEC-ICA Joint Program of participant training are generally very good ones, even though objective measures for many of these qualifications do not exist, and reliance must be placed on the judgments of officials making and approving individual selections. Our interest in the survey was to see whether these qualifications were reflected in the subsequent behavior of participants, to see whether additional or alternative criteria might be suggested, and to explore various means of measuring more objectively the qualities suggested by some of these criteria.

While selection represents a major element in the training program, there is clear evidence that selection is not the only place where success or failure is determined. Even with the best possible selection, such experiences as preparation for U. S. training, the training itself, and especially what happens after the participant returns home strongly influence his or her chances of success. Moreover, every host government, making its selection in cooperation with the ICA Mission, must consider what persons are available and can be spared for training, as well as what criteria are most important for selection in particular cases.

Since the effect of selection cannot easily be separated from the effects of other phases of the training program, it is extremely difficult to evaluate the relative weight of selection in the success of a training program. In addition, there are no real control groups to whom the participants can be compared at the time of their selection, or later, after they are back-home and working. Those who were not selected for training are for many reasons not a good control group, nor are they often identifiable. Nevertheless, it is possible to get a picture of how the participants, their superiors, and the U. S. Technical Assistants view the selection process, and how they feel it might be improved. It is also possible to see how differences in the characteristics of participants, and in the selection procedures, seem to relate to subsequent utilization experience.

Previous training as preparation

One of the questions often asked about training in the U. S. is whether participants had sufficient previous training and experience to make good use of this training. Are participants being selected for training abroad before they have fully exploited the training opportunities in their own country? In this survey, participants were asked how well their previous academic training and work-experience had prepared them for the U. S. training they subsequently received. Eighty-four percent were of the opinion that they had just about the right background, 14 percent said they would have learned more if their academic training and work experience in the Philippines had been greater, and 2 percent thought that their previous training and work experiences were more advanced than what they received in the U. S. It appears that selection is being well done on this count.

Factors important in own selection

During their oral interview participants were asked what they thought were their personal qualities, attributes and characteristics that influenced their selection. Work experience was most frequently mentioned, by two-thirds of those replying. Personal characteristics and abilities were next most frequently referred to, by 56 percent. Their educational background and record was mentioned as a factor by 49 percent of the group. Only 19 percent mentioned their potential usefulness as a factor.

When asked in the written questionnaire to assess the importance of a broader list (than personal characteristics) of factors in their own selection, however, participants showed that they understood the relationship between personal qualities and other factors in selection. Special needs of the project was listed as the most important factor, followed by previous work experience, ability and intelligence, leadership ability, and academic training. All of these were significantly more important, as seen by participants, than pleasing personality, superior's initiative, seniority, U. S. technician initiative, own initiative, family and social status, or political influence, which were rated significantly lower in order of importance (Table A6). It is interesting to note that superior's initiative, about midway in the rating of importance of factors in selection, is still significantly more important than seniority, U. S. technician initiative, own initiative and the remaining factors

listed above. Own initiative is considered significantly more important than family and social status, and such status is seen as significantly more important than political influence, ranked lowest and of negligible importance. Participants' responses to this question certainly show the consciousness of project orientation in the training program in the Philippines. In view of the rather common impression that such factors as family status and political influence play an important part in selection, the unimportance of these factors as reported by participants is somewhat surprising. It is natural to ask, however, to what extent participants were being less than candid, or were simply unaware of what may be a different actual basis for selection.

Factors important in the selection of others as compared to own selection

An opportunity was given the participants in the written questionnaire to say what factors they thought were important in the selection of other participants they knew who went to the U. S. for training. It was felt that this would provide a somewhat less subjective picture of important factors in selection. Rather surprisingly, there were rather few and no major changes in the rank ordering of the factors considered important in the selection of other participants.

Table 5.1	Importance of factors* in selection of other participants	<u>Mean</u>
<u>Special needs of project</u>		<u>5.91</u>
Ability and intelligence		5.53
Previous work experience		5.45
Academic training		5.36
Leadership and ability		5.36
<u>Superior's initiative</u>		<u>5.24</u>
Pleasing personality		4.79
U. S. technician's initiative		4.50
Own initiative		4.38
<u>Seniority</u>		<u>4.27</u>
<u>Family and social status</u>		<u>3.75</u>
Political influence		2.91

Number of participants replying - 423

Scale: 7 - very important, to 1 - not at all important

*Note: A factor underlined is significantly more important than all factors below it, and likewise, factors connected by a vertical line are not significantly different in importance; those beyond the vertical line at either end are.

It seems fair to assume that participant's views of how other participants were selected reflects their general attitude toward the selection process. Curiously, while special needs of the project are still shown as the factor significantly more important than any other, ability and intelligence is considered as just slightly more important generally than in the participants' own case. There are statistically significant differences only between factors separately by underlining, however. Superior's initiative is seen by participants as significantly more important than pleasing personality in the selection of others, for example, which is not the case in their own selection.

The most interesting information from these questions comes from a comparison between the importance attached to factors in the participant's own selection and in the selection of others (Table A7). Political influence, while ranked as least significant in both, shows the greatest difference in the absolute rating scores. This factor is reported less important as a factor in the selection of the participant himself than in the selection of other participants he knows. Own initiative, U. S. technician initiative, family and social status, and superior's initiative are also seen as somewhat less important in our selection than in the selection of others. It is likely that all these factors which are rated less important in their own selection than in the case of others are also to some extent seen by participants as negative values which they are reluctant to admit played much part in their own selection. But if they believed they were really important in the selection of other participants and that the selection process in the Philippines was characterized by such factors, they had an opportunity to say so which they did not use. Our conclusion is that participants really do not think these factors representing negative values are very important in selection.

There are some factors which participants see as slightly more important in their own selection than in the selection of others. These are seniority, special needs of the project, ability and intelligence, pleasing personality, leadership ability, academic training and previous work experience, listed in ascending order of differential importance. It seems a reasonable inference from this ordering that these are considered positive values and also the criteria on which participants feel selection should be made. The fact that participants rated themselves only slightly higher than other participants suggests that selection in the Philippines is generally seen by participants as actually using these positive criteria.

Participants who rated themselves high on utilization of U. S. training indicated that the following personal characteristics had greater importance in their own selection than did participants who rated their utilization of U. S. training low.

Table 5.2 Relationship between personal characteristics at selection, and participant ratings of utilization

	<u>Participant rating of utilization</u>
Previous work experience	**
Leadership and ability	**
Pleasing personality	*

Note: ** means relationship is very significant ($p = .01$); * means significant relationship ($p = .05$).

Effective participants (those who rated themselves high on utilization of U. S. training) indicated that seniority had less importance in their own selection.

Special needs of the project

Effective participants were much more likely than less successful utilizes of training to say that the special needs of the project influenced their selection. The importance of the work situation and the readiness of those associated with the project to accept the new skills and ideas will be referred to again in later sections.

Selection as seen by supervisors

Separate confirmation of the picture of selection seen by participants comes from their superiors. Supervisors of returned participants were asked, in the questionnaire mailed to them, how their U. S. trained subordinate compared with their other subordinates in similar positions who had not had U. S. training. U. S. trained participants are seen by their superiors as having or making considerably more:

(listed by decreasing amount of difference)

Contribution to improved work efficiency

Initiative

Ability and intelligence

Leadership ability

Ability to work with others

Adaptability to local work conditions

Academic training

Contribution to group morale

Pleasing personality

Previous work experience

Family and social status

Some of these factors mentioned by superiors are comparable with those listed by participants in discussing selection, and relate to characteristics at the time of selection. Others may have been acquired or improved with U. S. training. Contribution to work efficiency is obviously not unrelated to U. S. training, and the high rating of participants initiative by their supervisors is not necessarily comparable to participants' self-rating of initiative in being selected. But superiors rate participants substantially higher than their other subordinates in ability and intelligence, leadership ability, academic training, pleasing personality and previous work experience, all of which are considered important factors by participants in their own selection and that of other participants.

Family and social status, for example, a rather constant factor, was considered by supervisors as only slightly higher for U. S. trained participants than for other non-U. S. trained subordinates. Political influence is the only factor mentioned which superiors thought participants had less of than other subordinates.

An index was prepared of the degree of qualification possessed by U. S. trained participants compared to subordinates in similar positions without U. S. training. In preparing this index, it was assumed that family and social status and political influence are not appropriate criteria for selection, but that the other qualities above are all positive values present at selection or acquired during U. S. training. Superiors saw 56 percent of their U. S. trained subordinates as very much more highly qualified than non-U. S. trained staff, 37 percent as more qualified, and only 7 percent as somewhat less qualified. Arbitrarily eliminating those good qualities which might have been

acquired during U. S. training would not materially change this picture. It is still very clear that superiors believe that the great majority of U. S. trained participants in the Philippines were well selected.

Other questions asked of participants' supervisors throw light on the selection process. When asked to identify the difficulties preventing their participant subordinate from making greater use of his U. S. training, less than 2 percent of the supervisors checked personality difficulties (timidity, lack of leadership, etc.) (Table A8). However, those few supervisors who mentioned this difficulty--and the few who referred to participant's inadequate prior training and work experience, apparently feel quite strongly about them. Where mentioned, those two factors were considered among the first four most important difficulties preventing greater use of U. S. training.

Even making the assumption that these two difficulties were observed or anticipated at the time of selection, it does not follow that a better selection could necessarily have been made from among those candidates available. Perhaps those selected were still the best. It is worth questioning, however, whether sufficient attention has been given in all cases to the personal characteristics of prospective participants, or their readiness (in terms of prior training and work experience) to take full advantage of U. S. training, even though the selection record is generally very good.

Selection as seen by TA's

The U. S. technicians associated with the projects and participants studied were a third source of information about the selection process. TA's were asked to indicate major factors preventing greater utilization of U. S. training by returned participants they knew. The factors relative to selection and to the personal characteristics of participants, as seen by TA's in the Philippines are shown below, in order of frequency of mention:

Table 5.3	TAs' mention of selection factors and personal characteristics of participants preventing greater use of training	<u>Percent frequency of mention</u>
Has personal difficulties		11
Does not try hard enough		11
Inadequate prior training		5
Lacks initiative and drive		3
Too old		3
Is not adaptable		3
Inadequate prior work experience		2
Too immature		2
Not very intelligent		2
Shuns responsibilities		<u>1</u>
Number of mentions - 153		43
Note: More than one factor or characteristic was often mentioned for a single participant.		

It seems that TA's are moderately critical of selection, but they do not feel that selection has been badly handled except in a relatively few cases. There does appear to be room for improvement in selection, however, judging from the TA's' reactions.

Responsibility for selection

Nine out of ten participants said that there were persons whom they thought were chiefly responsible for their selection. The persons seen as chiefly responsible, in four out of five cases, were superiors or co-workers of the participants. In about one out of five cases, TA's were seen as the persons chiefly responsible for selection. Very few participants felt that friends or relatives had much to do with their selection.

At the time of their selection, less than half of all participants (44 percent) were working on joint ICA-NEC projects. At the same time, nearly three-fifths of the participants said that there was a U. S. TA assigned to their agency. In the 281 cases where there was a TA assigned to the agency, 36 percent of the participants reported that the TA had either a great deal or quite a bit to do with their being selected, and 12 percent felt he had some influence, while 17 percent said he had nothing to do with selection. Thirty-six percent did not know.

In general, in the Philippines, participants felt that their superiors and others in their own agency or organization had the major responsibility for their selection. Where TA's were present, participants felt that they also had an important responsibility in selection. As noted above, supervisors felt that the role of the TA's in selection should be about the same or somewhat less.

Sources of influence

Effective participants reported that their superiors were more influential than the U. S. TA's in their selection. In detail, the relation between the ratings was positive for superior's initiative, negative for U. S. TA's initiative, but not significant for either. However the difference between the two correlations is significant, indicating that the superior's initiative was more important than the TA's in determining selection, in the opinion of the effective participants.

Improving participant selection

Participants were not asked how they felt selection could be improved because they are usually not in the best position to know how it was arranged. However, their superiors were asked in what ways they thought the process of selecting participants for U. S. training could be improved. They suggested that there should be:

- (a) Either a great deal or somewhat more
 - Attention given to ability and to relevant work experience.....
 - Responsibility given to the supervisor in selection.....
 - Responsibility by Philippine agencies involved.....

- (b) Somewhat more
 - Use of competitive examinations

- (c) About the same or slightly less
 - Participation in selection by TA's.....
 - Restrictions against candidates over 50 years old
 - Attention paid to candidate's family and social status ...

(d) A good deal less
Weight given to his political affiliation and influence.

The four groups of suggestions are significantly different from one another (Table A9). It is interesting that supervisors in this context feel that a good deal less weight in selection should be given to a participant's political affiliation and influence, when this factor was earlier reported by supervisors and participants as of negligible importance in selection.

Supervisors of participants believe that there is need for improving the selection of participants. Ten percent feel a great need, 69 percent feel a moderate need and 21 percent felt a slight need.

Feelings at time of selection

Participants were asked, in the oral interview, whether they had any feelings of worry or anxiety over persons or things they would leave behind. Less than half (44 percent) admitted to some such worries relating to family, financial situation, or their job. No particular pattern of anxiety stands out. Perhaps the more significant point is that more than half of the participants had nothing which worried them in looking forward to their training experience in the United States.

Participants also commented on the attitudes of co-workers and superiors at the time of their selection. Most participants reported that they had noticed some change in attitudes; over one-third (38 percent) reported that some co-worker's attitudes had changed unfavorably. These co-workers became lukewarm, adopted a passive attitude toward the participant or reflected outright jealousy that they had not been chosen instead. The majority of co-workers (62 percent) reacted favorably, showing pleasure, greater confidence in and respect for the participant.

Superior's attitude change was even more favorable. Participants, where they noticed any change, reported that 86 percent of their supervisors had favorable reactions. Only 14 percent seemed unhappy or discouraging. In a few cases, participants mentioned this was because the superior felt he should have been selected. It is reasonable, of course, that in general superiors should be pleased with the selection of their subordinates, since they had a major responsibility in selection.

As will be shown in later sections of this report, the attitudes of superiors and co-workers toward the participant is an important element in his application of U. S. training. One suggestion for those officials responsible for selection would be to make as clear as possible to all candidates and their co-workers the objective criteria (academic training, work experience, etc.) used in selection. This might reduce the negative reactions of those co-workers who may not understand why they were passed by in the selection process.

Summary of selection

1. Supervisors, who are seen by participants as having the major responsibility for selection, want an even larger responsibility. Supervisors are also quite specific about the shortcomings in the selection process, and the ways in which selection can be improved.

2. TA's who are seen as having important but secondary responsibility in selection, are also quite specific about the inadequacies of selection in the relatively few cases where they feel this was responsible for low utilization of U. S. training.

3. Participants who rated themselves high on utilization of U. S. training tended to report that their superiors were more influential than TA's in their selection.

4. Both supervisors and TA's seem to feel that selection can be improved considerably, although selection is not seen as poor or as a major factor preventing subsequent utilization of U. S. training. Aside from the question of responsibility for selection, there appears to be a mutual desire for more objective criteria upon which selection can be based.

5. Making the criteria on which selection is based clearer to all concerned with selection, especially other candidates, might reduce unfavorable reactions of co-workers and improve the organizational environment to which the participant returns after U. S. training.

6. PRE-DEPARTURE PREPARATION AND ORIENTATION

After a participant was selected for U. S. training, there was often a considerable time lag before he left his old job and the Philippines. The participant's experience during his pre-departure preparation and his orientation help determine his readiness for the training experience and his later use of U. S. training. Philippine agencies and the ICA Mission have a fairly complete program for readying newly-selected participants.

Time lapse after selection

In the Philippines, the time lapse between selection (notification of ICA approval) and actual departure for the states was less than 3 months for 56 percent of participants, from 3-6 months for 29 percent, and over six months for 25 percent. Seventy percent of participants expressed satisfaction with the time lapse in their own cases, 24 percent felt neutral or were a bit dissatisfied, and 6 percent were quite unhappy about the length of time before departure. Those who were most unhappy tended to be those who had the longer delays, as one would expect.

Participation in planning training

Participants were asked in the survey's written questionnaire what they did with respect to their planned program of training during this pre-departure period. The table below gives their answers in descending order, beginning with things they did the most of:

Table 6.1 How participants helped plan their training

	<u>Mean</u>
<u>Learned about specific objectives of project</u>	<u>5.3</u>
<u>Discussed, with superiors, training in relation to project goals</u>	<u>4.3</u>
<u>Discussed, with co-workers, training in relation to project goals</u>	<u>3.4</u>
<u>Participated in planning the training program</u>	<u>3.3</u>
<u>Discussed their future job with superiors</u>	<u>2.9</u>
<u>Discussed their future job with co-workers</u>	<u>2.7</u>

Number of participants - 413

Scale: 7 - a great deal, to 1 - none at all

Significantly more attention was paid to the first two activities than to the others, according to participants. Information from other parts of the survey suggest that it would be worthwhile if somewhat more attention had been given to the discussions of the participants future job, especially with superiors. Participants rating their subsequent utilization of U. S. training high tended to be those who discussed project goals with their superiors before leaving.

Participants were also asked how satisfied they were with several aspects of the program of training that had been planned for them prior to departure. They were most satisfied with the details of training and the clear establishment of priorities. They were least satisfied with the amount of influence they had personally in planning their program of training. One must not conclude, however, that they should have had more influence. Few participants are in a position to know just what they should receive by way of training. The fact that participants devoted a good deal of time to discussing with superiors their proposed training in relation to project goals, but less time to their future job, suggests where more thorough preparation is needed.

Satisfaction with orientation

Orientation was given to participants in the Philippines and in the United States. How well were important topics covered? In the Philippine survey participants reported that all orientation was well-handled and all topics well-covered. However, they felt that travel arrangements were covered the best by far, followed by finances, living arrangements, social habits in the U. S., and climate and clothing in that order. Briefing on recreational opportunities was considered significantly less well-handled. This attitude of satisfaction with orientation and its topical coverage is borne out by other reports in the participants' biographical files in the ICA Mission, which show that 81 percent of those participants for whom data are available had a favorable attitude toward orientation, presumably including also their orientation in the U. S. There appears to be no problem of orientation in the Philippine training program.

As a matter of curiosity, since the question had been raised by persons connected with training in other countries in Asia, participants were asked whether they thought it would be helpful to have an orientation in a place like Hawaii, intermediate between the Philippines and the U. S. Forty-two percent said it would be very or quite helpful, 33 percent said it would be of some use, and 25 percent said it would not be helpful. Apparently Filipinos do not feel strongly the need for a transition from the Philippines to the United States, as nationals of other Asian countries have been reported as wanting.

Help in pre-departure preparation and orientation

Participants were asked to look back on the orientation and briefings that they had received, and to indicate how helpful those given by different agencies had been to them personally in getting adjusted to the U. S. The assistance of ICA/Washington was considered most helpful, followed by that of the ICA Mission in the Philippines, and by the help from Philippine agencies.

U. S. Technical Assistants with the ICA Mission in the Philippines were considered very helpful in preparing for the trip to the U. S. by 59 percent of the participants. Responses from the remaining 41 percent ranged from moderately helpful to no help at all (14 percent). This latter is not an unfavorable response in most cases, since it includes replies from participants to whose business or organization no U. S. TA had been assigned. Wherever there were TA's available, they seem to have been helpful.

When asked in what way TA's were helpful in preparing the participant for his trip to the United States, a number of items were mentioned. These are listed below in decreasing frequency of mention:

Table 6.2 Ways in which TA's were seen as helpful by participants in preparing for the trip to the U. S.

	<u>Percent Frequency of Mention</u>
Pre-departure orientation (what to bring, what to expect, where to go, etc.)	45
Arranged or helped in training program and itinerary	20
Suggested fields of specialization	13
Helped in processing papers	6
Helped relate U. S. courses to home job	2
Wrote to friends in the U. S.	2
Suggested books to read	1
All other	<u>8</u>
Number of participants - 388	97

This listing suggests that even to Filipinos, who tend to know a good deal about the U. S., briefing and orientation are very helpful. It is somewhat surprising that TA's were considered to have helped so little in relating training courses in the U. S. to the participants' jobs at home.

In summary, it seems evident that participants from the Philippines are generally well-pleased with the pre-departure preparation and orientation for their U. S. training experience. They get help from several sources, and are well-prepared for their trip. If any suggestions can be made, it is that participants might profitably devote somewhat more time to discussing their future jobs with their superiors and perhaps with TA's. This might help both in planning the training program and in their back-home adjustment.

7. THE U. S. TRAINING EXPERIENCE

One of the major goals of the participant training program is to provide an effective and satisfactory training experience. In this section we will appraise this major element of the cross-cultural training program, as it is viewed by the participant who goes through the learning experience; the U. S. Technical Assistant in the Philippines who takes part in the initial planning of the training and sees the returnee back at work in his home environment; and the participant's immediate superior who may have also participated in the initial planning and selection of the participant, and who is currently supervising the returned sojourner.

The training experience is seen from some distance, in both time and space, by the participant who is reflecting on the experience after an interval of at least a year, and the Technical Assistant and Supervisor, who can only infer the quality of the experience from the behavior of the returned participant. From another viewpoint, the training experience is appraised from the point of maximum advantage, in the context of application to the particular job and development of the specific field in which the participant was trained.

A more complete evaluation of the training experience would require interviews with the various staff, agency, academic, government and industry personnel responsible for its planning and implementation. Here we are interested in training only from the viewpoint of those features which influence its ultimate utilization.

As background for a discussion of the effects of the training experience, let us appreciate briefly the critical difficulties encountered in the management of the training program. These management problems arise from the necessity of coordinating the efforts of a number of quite different sets of people. Among those involved in the development of a training program are the Philippine agency or industry and its representatives, the personnel responsible for training in the National Economic Council of the Philippine Government, U. S. technicians in the specific program of the ICA Mission in the Philippines as well as the training officer and his staff, the ICA Washington training program personnel, and the academic, plant or governmental personnel who are the hosts of the participants. This is a minimum list, and considerable difficulties in communication and coordination stem from differences in cultural background, the necessity of overseas correspondence in program development, and differences in motives and goals. There may even be conflict between the program officer who wants to organize the best possible plant tour, and plant officials who feel that their hospitality has already been overburdened, or that they are not in favor of stimulating overseas competition. Our purpose is to provide these personnel with testimony on the outcome of their efforts. There are several reasons why such evidence is necessary for the operation of this training program:

1. It is necessary to ascertain whether the training program itself is satisfactory. Although an effective training program is no guarantor of ultimate utilization of that training, an ineffective training program is a sufficient barrier to utilization. Participants cannot put into practice skills, knowledge and attitudes which, for various reasons, they have failed to learn.
2. It is necessary to provide information to program planners which will help them to appraise the results of their past efforts, and, more important, give rise to suggestions for new improvements.
3. It is necessary to provide concrete information that will serve to evaluate the recommendations for changes in program policy.

4. It is necessary to evaluate the role the training program plays as a contributor to ultimate utilization. Does the training include experiences which will facilitate later utilization?

Let us turn then to the data provided by our survey on some of the most prominent features of the training experience.

Impact of the training program on back-home application

In general, the participant's attitudes toward his training experience were related to his self-rating of application of U. S. training but not to the ratings of his supervisor or the Technical Assistant. This finding seems reasonable, as the participant is best informed on the nature of his training experience and more likely to see the connections between facets of his training and back-home application.

The relation between attitudes toward training and self-ratings of utilization of training, however, did not reveal an overall "halo" effect in which a general feeling of happiness or unhappiness about the training experience and its consequence would be automatically reflected by high or low self-ratings. The relations discovered pointed to specific aspects of the training experience that are differently related to back-home application of training.

Completion of the training program

An obvious criterion of the success of a program is its satisfactory completion, and on this count the record is good. Ninety-three percent of the participants reported completing the planned program of training. Of the 29 persons who did not complete their training, seventeen were recalled to their home country by Philippine government agencies before the end of the training program. In most cases these were persons needed by the agencies, who asked them to cut short their summer observation trip following academic studies. Six claimed to have been recalled by ICA for reasons they did not know. Two participants changed their field of study and two requested termination of their programs for business or personal reasons.

Overall satisfaction with the training program

The participant's attitude:

The response to the training program was predominantly favorable but indicative of dissatisfaction with some specific aspects of the program. An illustration of this trend is shown in a content analysis of all participant comments about training in their reports to ICA.

Table 7.1 Appraisal of training program by participants in their reports to ICA

Participants making comments that were:

	<u>Percent</u>
Favorable	68
Unfavorable	14
Both	<u>18</u>
	100

Number of comments - 289

Similarly, in response to a direct question about their satisfaction with their training experience, the majority of participants indicated a high degree of satisfaction. However, in their spontaneous comments about training in answer to general questions about their experiences in the United States, we found that one-third of the remarks reflected favorably on the training experience and another third unfavorably (Table A10). This was not so much a matter of divided opinion about the same features of the training program, but as we shall see in subsequent sections, some features of the program were found satisfactory and some unsatisfactory.

Supervisor's attitude:

Over half of the supervisors felt that the training was satisfactory in all respects. The predominant weaknesses they found were the length of the training program, too short, and the content, too general (Table A11). These features of the program are reported at greater length below.

Technical Assistant's attitude:

The Technical Assistants were evidently well-satisfied with the training received by participants working in the technician's area of specialization. Little weight was placed by them on inadequacy of training as a factor preventing greater utilization (Table A12). However, it might fairly be argued that the Technical Assistants are naturally more concerned with aspects of the job environment in the Philippines than with training in the United States. At any rate the possibility of inadequate training was seen by them as a negligible contributor to the on-the-job success of the participants.

In sum, the majority of participants regarded the training experience as satisfactory overall, with some qualifications. Their supervisors were also satisfied, but had several specific complaints. The Technical Assistants saw no deficiencies in the training.

Effective participants were more satisfied with the training program

A positive evaluation of the training program by either the participant or by his supervisor was related to high ratings of application by both participant and supervisor (Table A63). The participants who rated themselves as most satisfied with their overall program of training also rated themselves high on application of training. Supervisors checking the statement that the training of the participant was "satisfactory in all respects" were likely to give these participants high ratings. Participants whose training was considered satisfactory in all respects by their supervisors gave themselves higher ratings of employment of their training.

Planning of the training program

A major element of the training program is the preparation of the individual or team training program before they leave their own country. The decision that a particular government agency or industry could profit by having more skilled personnel or contact with similar procedures in their counterpart organization in the United States needs to be supplemented by a program that makes it possible to acquire the needed skills and information. Certainly the participants are not fully aware of the difficulties involved in developing such a program by correspondence between the project managers in the United States who are informed of the problems of organizing a successful sojourn and ICA Philippines personnel who are informed of the Philippine industry or government agency requirements. As far as its impact on them personally, most of the visitors were satisfied with this preparatory phase, as the table below indicates.

Table 7.2 Participant description of the planning of his program of training

	<u>Percent</u>
Well planned in accordance with USOM request	73
Hit-or-miss proposition pulled together after arrival in Washington	14
Other	<u>13</u>
	100

Number of interviews - 434

An examination of the "other" category affords a glimpse of the kinds of difficulties encountered. Thirty persons said the program was not well-planned for one or more of the following reasons:

- the schedule was too rapid
- companies did not cooperate
- program officers were uninformed
- trainees were not consulted
- inappropriate courses or observations were scheduled

Thirteen persons said the program was adequately revised and adapted to their needs after consultation. Seven made further comments on the excellence of the training and helpfulness of program officials. However, responses to a direct question are usually more positive than would be the case if the respondent had the opportunity to express himself freely. On a check list of possible improvements in the training program, nearly half of the sample thought "more careful planning of the program," would improve the training program (Table A13). Similarly, the majority of 100 persons who themselves brought up the topic in the free answer interview situation had unfavorable things to say about the planning, timing and scheduling of the program.

Table 7.3 Participants' comments about the planning, timing and scheduling of the training program

Feature of training experience

Liked most	22%
Liked least	<u>78%</u>
	100%

Number of free answer responses - 98

In sum, our data indicate the need for a closer examination of sources of dissatisfaction with the planning of the training program.

Effective participants were more involved in the training program

The participants who felt they were able to employ their training most upon return participated to a large extent in the actual planning of the program of training, felt that they were familiar with the objectives of the training program, and discussed these objectives with their supervisors and co-workers. In short, the successful participants showed more interest in the training program than did the less successful, and actually participated more in planning the program of training and in the use of their training upon return.

Table 7.4 Relationship between participation in planning the program and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Attitudes toward participation:</u>	<u>Ratings of utilization by participants</u>
Participate in the planning of the training program	**
Discuss the goals of the project with their supervisors	**
Discuss the goals of the project with their co-workers	**
Have more personal influence in planning the training program	**
Learn the specific objectives of the training program	*

Reminder note: ** = p value .01
* = p value .05

Implementation of the training program

Planning is a prelude to execution of the training program. As a result of his orientations, and discussions with program officials, the participant develops a set of expectations concerning the nature of the training program he will receive. Does the actual training program meet the expectations that have been created?

Participants report that the program did meet the planning specifications. It tended to be similar to that requested for them when they were in the Philippines and they were quite satisfied with the actual implementation of the planned program of training (Table A14). Only ten persons remarked that there were changes made in their training program with which they were dissatisfied. On the whole, then, participants felt that the training program they received was that which had been planned for them.

Table 7.5 Changes in training program from that proposed

Yes changes	15%
No changes	85%
	<u>100%</u>

Number of comments - 320

Attitudes toward the training program, and utilization

Participants who felt they were able to use their training more effectively upon return were more satisfied with those aspects of the training program which are logically related to ultimate employment of training.

(1) Planning of the training program

High ratings of application were positively related to greater satisfaction with the planning of the training program (Table A65).

(2) Implementation of the training program

High ratings of application were positively related to satisfaction with implementation of the training program that had been planned for them (Table A65). Persons with high ratings of effectiveness were more likely to say that the training they received in the U.S. was the same as they requested.

Changes in the program of training

When the student talks to the program officer in charge of planning his or his group's program, or when he reaches the campus or begins his industry or government agency tour, he begins to appreciate concretely the nature of the learning experience. From that point on, the extent to which the program fits his needs is clear to the participant. The participant has not often had, as the data indicates, sufficient opportunity to share in the planning of his own training. He therefore becomes concerned with changing it to fit his own requirements. Examine, for example, the comments about opportunities to change the program in the reports written by participants.

Table 7.6 Opportunity/change program of training to fit needs

Favorable	14%
Unfavorable	<u>86%</u>
	100%

Number of comments - 42

This does not mean that the program was entirely rigid or inflexible. The majority of participants reported that there was some or a little change in their training programs (Table A15). Our data does not allow us to differentiate changes motivated by personal concerns from those spurred by interest in attaining skills necessary for the development program. It seems likely that some of the motivation for change arises from the attempt of participants to make changes that would better their own careers, such as pursuing course work that would lead to a degree. Two points, however, are clear. To the participant the program of training often does not seem to fit his needs. Second, he does not believe the program is sufficiently amenable to change (Table A16).

Effective participants had flexible programs

The quality of decision concerning the content of the training program can be increased by taking more fully into account the information that the participant himself has about the skills and knowledge he needs to perform his job more successfully (Table A66).

Two items suggest that application of training is greatest when the participant is able to influence the content of the training program. First, successful participants (those with higher self-rating of utilization of U. S. training) report more often that they made substantial changes in their program of training after arrival in the United States. Second, successful participants were also more likely to report that they were more satisfied with the opportunities they had to change their program of training.

In short, the quality of the training program in terms of ultimate usage, and the acceptance of the training program as best for him by the participant, can be increased by consulting the participant at both the planning and implementing stages of the training program.

Administration of the training program

Project managers in the United States have a great deal to do in steering the participant through the new and often strange environment. There are many problems of living and behaving in an environment which no longer affords certainties and predictabilities. Program managers have developed a great deal of skill in making arrangements for individuals and teams, including

budget problems, itineraries, travel arrangements, plant visits, programs of study, language problems, etc. What is the response of the participant to these efforts? Not entirely favorable, as the table below indicates.

Table 7.7 Comments about the overall administration of the training program

Favorable	53.5%
Unfavorable	<u>46.5%</u>
	100

Number of comments - 43

Similarly, in a check list of possible improvements in the training program, one fourth of the entire sample checked "better administrative arrangements" (Table A13). In sum, the administration is not viewed as entirely satisfactory.

Length of the training program

The average length of the U. S. training program was about 8 months, shortest for Industrial participants and longest for the Health group (Table A17). Length of the training program was to participants its most unsatisfactory feature. As the table below clearly indicates, most participants wanted a longer training program, and even a large proportion of supervisors felt the training program was too short.

Table 7.8 Attitudes toward duration of training program

Participant

a) Interview comments:	b) Participation written reports:	c) Check list of deficiencies in U. S. training
Too short 97%	Too short 86%	Should be shorter 4%
Too long <u>3</u>	Too long <u>14</u>	Should be longer 77
100	100	
Number of comments - 121	Number of comments - 36	Number of interviews - total - 434

Supervisor

Check list of deficiencies	
Too short	38%
Number of supervisors - 25	

In addition, asked what they hoped to get out of their training programs that they were unable to (Table A18), 70 participants (16%) said they had hoped to extend their periods of training. In answer to the same question, 109 persons (21%) said they had hoped to learn more, or acquire a degree, and 89 (21%) commented that they had wanted to observe more places related to their field of training. The length of the training program is apparently one of its most unsatisfactory features. The kinds of additional training which are seen as desirable will be discussed at further length below.

Length of training program related to utilization.

Successful application of training was positively related to the length of the training program (Table A67). As noted above, one of the most frequent sources of dissatisfaction was the length of the training program. Apparently, more learning can take place in a longer training program and the participant has more skills and ideas to apply than from a shorter training program aimed at the acquisition of fewer techniques or ideas.

Type of training

Training program officers are confronted with a number of conundrums in devising a balanced program. Formal academic studies need to be supplemented by field trips and observations and the opportunity to attend professional meetings, workshops and seminars. In addition to academic work, participants want to see and talk to people at work in their specific fields of training, to see how the job is actually accomplished. For groups or individuals on plant tours, there is the dilemma of seeing a broad spectrum of plants versus intensive observation in one plant. It is possible to characterize the type of training participants received from their own descriptions of it, which were in the USOM biographical files.

Table 7.9 Type of U. S. training program

	<u>Percent</u>
All non-academic	48
Mostly non-academic	11
Mostly academic	41
All academic	*
	<u>100</u>

* Less than 1 percent
Number of participants - 367

There were, as one would expect, substantial differences by field of training (A128). However, it seems that with a majority of training programs all or mostly non-academic (observations, in-service training, workshops, plant tours, etc.) they could be closely tailored to the needs of participants.

General attitude to type of training

First, were participants satisfied with the general type of training that had been devised for them, the overall plan? The evidence indicates that they were.

Table 7.10 Attitudes toward type of training expressed in reports to ICA

	<u>Percent</u>
Favorable	94
Unfavorable	6
	<u>100</u>

Number of participant reports containing comments - 225

In answer to the question, "What was there about the training program that you liked the most?" most of the respondents were very specific about those aspects of the program which had the most appeal for them. The opposite question, "liked least" elicited from half of the respondents the comment that they liked "everything" about the program, and they persisted in that response despite repeated probes and assurances that it was normal and reasonable "not to like some things as well as others," that they may have "felt some features of their training program might have been improved." (Tables A19 and A20.)

Academic training

Appraisal of the academic program and its main features, the quality of instruction, of subjects, of training facilities, and training techniques was generally favorable. Forty-three percent (187) of the responses to the question about aspects of the training program "liked most" mentioned the academic training or some specific feature of it. In contrast, considering aspects of the training program liked least, only 16 percent (71) of the responses referred to some aspect of the academic training.

Observations, field trips, workshops and seminars in connection with academic training

The most memorable and pleasant experiences in the training program were the observations and field trips in connection with the academic training. Forty-three percent (203) of the participants brought up this subject spontaneously in answer to the question about what they liked most. Another 15 percent mentioned their favorable evaluation of the workshops, seminars, lectures and other activities outside of the formal classroom training as being among the highlights of their training experience. In contrast, only 7 percent had some complaint with any of the field trips, observations, workshops or other learning experiences in conjunction with the classroom.

Opportunity for observation

Not only were the field trips and observations fully appreciated, the main complaint was that these were not sufficient to meet their needs. Asked what they hoped to get and didn't out of their trip, 21 percent (89) of the responses referred to frustrated hopes of seeing more places related to their fields of training. One-half of the participants thought more travel and observation would improve the training program.

In-plant training

Of 84 persons who themselves brought up the subject of in-plant training 88 percent were favorably impressed. Asked to list those things they hoped to get out of their training and didn't, only 3 percent (11) of the sample said they had hoped for more in-plant training.

Specialization

Although the participants enjoyed their opportunities for travel and observation of places related to their field of training and had hoped for more than they actually got, over half of the sample felt that more specialization in one place would improve the training program. Taken in conjunction with their attitudes on the length of the program this would not imply cutting down the number of places visited, but increasing the amount of time spent at some of them. The supervisors agreed with the participants on this characteristic of the training program. Only 6 percent (14)

thought the training was too specialized as compared to 29 percent (72) who thought the training was too general. In sum, increased specialization both with respect to in-plant training and academic courses is seen as a desideratum.

The classroom experience

The classroom experience can be broken into several elements, the overall subject matter of the training program, the material covered in the courses taken, the availability of courses desired, and the quality of instruction. Let us examine these features.

Subject matter of the training program

Of those persons who spontaneously mentioned the overall subject or focus of their training programs, there was an even division of attitude.

Table 7.11 Comments about the subject matter of training

The subject matter was:	
Excellent	28
Not what I wanted	12
Duplication of prior training	11

Number of comments - 51

Twenty-three persons or five percent of the sample, felt strongly that as indicated above, they had been assigned to the wrong course of training, or that the training received was a replication of their previous training rather than an addition to their skills and knowledge. Whether, in a program of this size and scope, this percentage of seeming "errors" can be reduced is impossible to say. On the positive side, it can be observed that the majority were quite satisfied that they were assigned to the proper course of training and at the proper level.

Material covered in the courses

On the average, the participants were fairly satisfied with the material covered in the courses taken. They were not completely satisfied, but neither did they tend to be at all dissatisfied with the coverage. One of the most frequent complaints was duplication. The general tenor of the complaints reflects the difficulty in fitting a foreigner into the right point in a training program.

Availability of courses desired

Like course coverage, the availability of courses was not a serious source of difficulty, nor were participants completely satisfied that they were able to get the exact courses they wanted or expected. Course availability seemed to be reasonably satisfactory.

Quality of instruction

One of the highest rated elements of the training program was the quality of instruction. For example, three-fourths of the 89 persons who selected this aspect of the training to talk about in the interview had favorable impressions of the high calibre of instructional staff. In a rating of

various factors related to training by the entire sample, the quality of instruction received next to the highest average rating.

Training facilities

The training facilities were evidently quite satisfactory. Ten percent of the sample remarked on the high quality of the training facilities. With one exception, there was almost no adverse comment on this score. Admiration for the training facilities was countered by the agreement of one-third of the sample that the training equipment should be more similar to Filipino equipment. Since training institutions cannot be expected to deprive themselves of hard-won facilities, this means that the trainees need to understand the basic operations and procedures in order to be less dependent on machine accomplishments.

Reputation of the university

It seems most probable that the universities attended by these Filipinos have no more loyal a group of alumni anywhere in the world. In some of the remotest towns in the Philippines we heard spirited but friendly debates about the superiority of the debators' respective universities. Many of the interviewees we met identified themselves as alumni of particular universities. We were not surprised that the participants rated highest in a list of elements of their training experience, the "reputation of the university" they attended.

Degree opportunities

One-fifth of the participants said they had hoped to get a degree. Opportunity to obtain a degree was a sore point for many. A degree would have been a visible mark of their achievements and a recognizable lever for furthering their own careers. Since a man's job status and change potentiality are intimately related, it seems shortsighted not to make provisions for obtaining degrees where it is possible and in line with the development program. The strict one year time limit gives a lack of flexibility to the program. Although many of the participants were not degree seekers, "degree opportunities" received the next lowest rating among factors related to academic training. Also many of the respondents told us that a degree was one of the things they hoped to get in the United States, but didn't.

Academic experience related to utilization

Participants receiving academic training or viewing academic training favorably report more application of U. S. training.

Those participants in academic training programs were more likely to report greater application of training (Table A68). In addition, the more favorable the participant's attitudes toward academic training, the greater use they felt they had made of their training (Table A69) and the higher the ratings by both supervisors and TA's.

Effective participants were more satisfied with those aspects of their academic experience that might be expected to lead to greater employment of training (Table A70).

Table 7.12 Satisfaction with academic experience, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Satisfaction with:</u>		<u>Rating of utilization by participant</u>
Availability of the courses desired		**
Material covered in the courses taken		**
Degree opportunities		**
Reputation of the university		**
Quality of instruction		**

Sources of support in the U. S.

The visitor is often confused and feels anxious as he attempts to find his way in a new and strange learning environment. He has changed from the role of worker and producer to learner, and has to acquire this new role in a foreign culture. He is met by a number of gratifying attempts to help him, but does not quite know how to interpret his relationship with these helping but none-the-less strange Americans. It is no wonder, that many foreign students remember, with gratitude, one person with whom they were able to form a stable, continuous, unambiguous relationship for guidance and emotional support at different intervals during their stay.

Table 7.13 Persons the participant felt he could go to for help

<u>Source</u>	<u>Percent</u>
ICA Washington personnel	40
Foreign students' advisor	32
Personal American friends	21
School or university officials and authorities	18
Filipino friends or relatives	17
Philippine Embassy	6
Persons in private or government establishments visited	5
Landlady	3
Civic, social and religious organizations	2
Other	5
N. A.	5
None	1
	<u>149*</u>

*Some participants mentioned more than one source of help.
Number of participants - 429

Nearly all of the participants felt they had someone they could turn to for help. In most cases these were the officials designated to fill these helping roles, the ICA personnel and student advisors. Some had a personal or familial tie in this country they could rely on for support. Some made friends in the plants or government agencies they visited, and some found their landladies both sympathetic and helpful. Organizations outside of the training institutions and ICA were not seen as helpful.

ICA Washington personnel

The ICA Washington personnel, particularly the project managers, represent the boundary conditions for the participant. They indicate or approve the courses to be taken, the possibilities of travel and sightseeing, the feasibility of earning a degree, opportunity to change the itinerary. Can he indicate these limits and be seen as a friendly counsellor at the same time? The data indicate that project managers were successful (Table A21). They could serve both as administrative authority and helpful hosts. Fifteen persons remarked on the exceptionally favorable relationship with their training officers, whereas eleven commented that one of the least liked features of the program was their project manager.

Counselling services and professors

The counselling services provided by the schools were rated satisfactory. A more important concern is the faculty of these schools. Sent here to learn new skills and knowledge, the underlying assumption is that the participant will encounter faculty members or skilled personnel who are highly capable as well as able to impart these skills. Asked to adopt the learner role, the participant is highly sensitive to the skills of those who are supposed to be his teachers. As we have seen, the quality of instruction is highly prized, and at least 30 of the participants were particularly struck by the helpful relationship they developed with faculty members of the schools they attended.

Relation of training to prior work and experience

The participant is concerned with two related questions as he examines the fit of his training experience to his own background. Has he been properly credited with his prior school training so that he is now taking courses at the proper level? This first question is concerned with recognition for his previous academic training. The second question examines his own adequacy. Has he had sufficient work experience to profit by the training?

Recognition and credit for previous academic work was one of the least satisfactory of the academic matters related to training (Table A16). As described in a later section, the Filipino sojourner loses considerable status during his trip to this country, from the simple fact that being an American is more highly valued than being a Filipino by both Filipinos and Americans, a reflection of the differences in national status. Therefore an American gains status during a trip to the Philippines and the Filipino loses during his trip to the U. S. This makes the participant sensitive to all forms of recognition and evaluation of himself, and is expressed in his feeling that his prior academic work is not properly appreciated. Sensitivity to depreciation of one's prior training does not make the claim of depreciation less valid. It is worth examining.

Prior experience and training

The relation between prior experience and U. S. training is examined more carefully in the following table.

Table 7.14 Previous experience in relation to training in the U. S.

	<u>Percent</u>
Would have learned more if training and experience in the Philippines had been greater	14
Had just about the right background	82
Previous training and work was more advanced	3
Other	<u>1</u>
	100

Number of interviews - 434

A much larger number of people (60) indicated that their prior experience was insufficient to prepare them for their training than claimed their experience was more advanced (10). This inadequate preparation for training is emphasized also by the supervisors of the returned participants. In an evaluation of difficulties preventing greater use of training, they rated the participant's prior training and work experience fairly high on the list of barriers to greater utilization of training (Table A22).

Maintaining connections with the job

Keeping a steady eye on the target of his training, the job back home is very important for the visitor during his learning experience in the host country. As we have seen in a prior section, the participant is often not sufficiently informed of the nature of the job to which he will return. He has therefore no ready means of translating his training into the problem areas of his back-home tasks. At the same time, he can become so involved in observing and having new experiences that he forgets to test his experiences for their back-home significance.

There are a number of ways that the participant can be stimulated to think about the possibilities of borrowing or modifying the skills he has learned to fit his own job. First, the reports to ICA serve to keep explicitly in mind the expectation that the visitor will bring home from his trip something he can apply on his job. The participant must evaluate the skills, practices and procedures he learns or observes and select those which would be most appropriate at home. Often, considerable adaptation and modification is necessary before the practice or skill can be used in the Philippines, because of differences in machinery, personnel skills and practices, and local customs. The clearer the image of the relevant facts in the home situation, the more successful can the participant be in translating his training into the realities of the home situation.

The problem of adapting to the immediate situation and the newness of the experiences fills the consciousness of the participant. The necessity to adjust and integrate these experiences tends to make him postpone thinking about application and transfer of his learning. There are several objections to this delay. In order to make a successful transfer from training to the job, the participant should have access to the ideas and operations in both the new operations and the target of application. By the time he gets home, the source material will not be available to serve to check certain practices or procedures. Nor can he re-examine aspects which are suggested by renewed contact with his job. For ultimate innovation to take place it is important for the participant to begin thinking about application while undergoing training or on his observation trip. One way of encouraging this is by having individuals or teams write interim reports focussing on possible application.

Reports to ICA on application of training

Eighty-five percent of the sample were authors or co-authors of reports to ICA. However one-fifth of these (76) contained no mention of recommendations for back-home application of their training. We could not judge the quality of these recommendations, but we took their quantity to be a rough index of the amount of attention paid to application and transfer of learning.

Table 7. 15 Number of distinct back-home recommendations suggested in participant report to ICA

	<u>Percent</u>
None	21%
1 - 3	19
4 - 8	31
9 or more	<u>29</u>
	100

Number of reports - 370

About two-thirds of those writing reports made four or more distinct recommendations. Did these recommendations show an appreciation for the difficulty of transferring an idea or procedure from one social system to another, or were they merely lists of improvements or procedures which the visitor thought might be useful here. Analysis of the participant reports encourages us to believe that the job situation at home was salient and alive for the writers. Eighty-eight percent (243) of the persons making recommendations showed some concern with the modifications and alterations necessary to introduce the ideas to a new setting.

Discussion of application of training

Discussion with others taking the same course of training or on the same team does more than keep the issue of utilization prominent. To some extent these others can provide a reasonably clear image of back-home reality. By their comments and reactions the others can represent the job situation. People working in the same field can sharpen and refine ideas of application, anticipate difficulties which might be encountered, and explore ways of avoiding these difficulties.

If there has been planning in advance about the kinds of change that are desirable, the task of searching for the means to effect these changes is much easier. There is strong reason to believe from our data that the participant often does not have clear expectations about what kinds of change are desired and what he is expected to contribute upon return. If he or his team has clear objectives, the task of working on and extending the change program is that much easier. At any rate, considerable discussion of back-home application was reported.

Table 7. 17 Frequency of discussion of back-home application

	<u>Percent</u>
Frequently	72
Some	21
Little or none	<u>7</u>
	100

Number of interviews - 434

Communication with co-workers and supervisors

A more sensitive index of the visitor's interest in back-home application and coordination between the learning experience and the job is the amount of direct communication with co-workers and supervisors.

Table 7. 18 Frequency of communication with
co-workers and supervisors

	<u>Percent</u>
Frequently	47%
Occasionally	38
Little or none	<u>15</u>
	100

Number of interviews - 434

As previously reported many participants have unclear expectations about their roles upon return. Add to this the fact that half of the sample report some or little correspondence with personnel on the job back home. The inference of inadequate pre-planning of what participants are expected to get from their training and do with it when they return, is strengthened.

Successful participants kept focussed on the back-home target

The successful participants kept a steady eye on the targets of their training, the back-home situation, during their learning experience in the host country (Table A71). They were more likely to keep communication channels open with their co-workers, discuss with their colleagues in the training institution the possible applications of their training, as well as keep generally abreast of the situation in the Philippines.

Table 7. 16 Concern for application while in U. S. , and
participant ratings of utilization

<u>Keeping the image of the back-home target:</u>	<u>Ratings of utilization by participants</u>
Communication with co-workers and superiors in the Philippines	**
Kept well-informed about what is happening in the Philippines	**
Discussed with others the use of training upon return home	**

Items that might indicate the participants' interest in keeping in touch with his home via letter, speaking his native language, associating with other Filipinos, and similar ways of relating to the home culture did not distinguish the more successful from the less successful participant. The items that did differentiate, listed above, were more closely related to keeping in touch with the back-home job situation, and considering the possibilities of application at the time when the participant had access to the new ideas and techniques.

Training and job requirements

A detailed evaluation of a given training program entails comparison of the skills and knowledge actually acquired by students in the training program with the knowledge and skills required on the job. We are not prepared, in this survey, to achieve any such comparison. We can only examine relationships between some overall characteristics of the training and job needs.

Table 7.19 Participant appraisal of relation of training to present job needs

	Percent*
Training is directly related to present job needs	66
Should have been more technical and specific	47
Should have learned more about how to deal with people	19
Training is not directed to present job needs	7
Should have been more general and theoretical	5

Number of interviews - 434

*More than one response permitted

Over half of the participants felt that training more related to their present jobs would improve the training program (Table A13). Two-thirds of the sample agreed with the assertion that the training they received was directly related to their job needs. Seven percent (39) flatly asserted that the training was not directly related to their present job needs. This "casualty rate" seems reasonably low. Reasons, such as lack of facilities, change in job, and so on, could be adduced to explain it, as well as the possible inadequacy of training.

Training fitted the job requirements

Participants who successfully employed their training consistently reported that the skills and knowledge they acquired were relevant to the requirements of their jobs (Table A72). They were more likely to:

Check the statement: U. S. training is directly related to job needs	**
Not check the statement: U. S. training is not directly related to job needs	**

Training to be innovators

In addition to learning the specific skills, knowledge, ideas and procedures related to one's occupation, is there a need for special training in the skill of transmitting these new ideas from the host culture to one's own culture? The evidence indicates that participants want to learn how to be the transmission link from one culture to another. In the table above, one-fifth of the sample indicated that their training should have taught them more about how to deal with people. In addition, approximately one-third checked off "more emphasis on how to train others" on a list of possible improvements in the training program (Table A13). Our own observations of the vast differences in the rules governing the operations of U. S. and Philippine organizations leads us to agree. The carrier of new ideas and procedures from one culture to another needs to learn special skills in the germination, nourishment, and development of these transplantations.

Increasing the acceptance of the participant's training

The importance of two related factors needs emphasis, improving the quality of the participants training program and increasing the acceptance of new skills and ideas in the job situation. Some evidence for the importance of this latter factor is indicated by the following finding: Effective participants were more likely than less effective returnees to agree with the statement that the training should include more on skills of working with people (Table A73).

8. THE U. S. SOJOURN

In the last chapter we examined the problems of academic, professional and technical learning, the learning situation, and conditions facilitating the transfer of learning to the home country. In this chapter we examine those features of the visitor's general experience with the host country that are intimately related to both learning and back-home application. A number of problems which influence the visitor have been identified in our data.

1. Problems of meeting expectations. The visitors have many motives and expectations for their visit. What is the nature of these expectations and how are they met?
2. Problems of transition. What problems of "cultural shock" are encountered in moving from one culture to another?
3. Problems of orientation and adjustment to living conditions. What evidence is there on the effectiveness of the orientation in facilitating the visitor's adjustment? What types of difficulty did the visitor encounter?
4. The problem of finding security and self-esteem as a national representative abroad. How is the visitor identified by the host community? Is he distinguished from other Asians? How does the host attitude toward his country effect his attitudes toward himself?
5. The problem of acceptance by the hosts; finding an interested and receptive group of Americans. If the visitor is to be influenced by the host community to learn new ideas, ways of thinking and technical skills, he must have a favorable attitude toward the source of that influence. Similarly, he will be better able to maintain these attitude and skill changes, in the face of opposition when he returns home, if he associates himself with the sources of these changes. A favorable attitude toward the host depends in part on the warmth and interest they communicate to the visitor.
6. The problem of developing satisfactory social relations with Americans. What are the patterns of interaction between the visitors and hosts? Do the visitors mix with Americans or tend to seek out one another's company or that of visitors from other countries?
7. The problems of encounters with racial attitudes and practices. What observations do the visitors make of race relations in the U. S., and what are their personal experiences?
8. The problem of testing expectations about Americans. What decisions do visitors make about what Americans are really like? These decisions are based partly on: the visitors own national character, general attitude toward Americans, the information received through mass and personal communication, and finally their everyday experiences and contacts.
9. The problem of developing pro-work and pro-productivity attitudes. The acquisition of technical skills and know-how will have little consequence if the visitor does not acquire some of the motives and attitudes toward work that make the application of these skills possible. Does he observe, and is he favorably impressed by these attitudes and motives in the Americans he meets?
10. The problem of maintaining home connections. While absorbing the new experience, the visitors need to maintain a relationship with their home culture which enables them to translate their new learning in terms of their own ways of thinking and acting. How is the image of the home culture kept alive and salient?

We turn now to the evidence bearing on these questions.

Expected benefits from U. S. trip

For almost every Filipino, a trip to the United States is a longed-for experience. Although the Philippines is geographically near the mainland of Asia with an Asian population, when the islanders think of the "mainland" they are referring to the U. S. A familiar topic of conversation in the social banter following an interview was plans for a re-visit to the United States. Past, projected, or disappointed, a trip to the United States assumed considerable importance.

Table 8.1 Benefits expected from U. S. sojourn

	<u>Percent checking "a great deal"</u>
Acquire skills and knowledge	95
Do something for country	90
Broaden through travel	84
<hr/>	
<u>Learn about U. S.</u>	<u>74</u>
<hr/>	
Find out how people in U. S. live	61
Improve promotion chances	61
Tell people in U. S. about country	56
<hr/>	
Get a better job	45
Increase salary	44
Gain social prestige	38
<hr/>	
Obtain academic degree	22

Number of interviews - 434

From this table it is evident that the visitors came to this country with "great expectations." Although the ordering of these self-confessed motives is probably a mirror of self-approved motives, it does tell something. First, the visitor sees himself as a learner with a specific educational purpose embedded in national goals of planned development. Despite the explicit non-academic objective of the program, one-fifth of the sample had high hopes it would lead to an advanced academic degree. Second, he is a tourist who wants to broaden himself through travel and learn about the United States. Third, he is an ambassador, a representative of the Philippines with the mission of informing the citizens of the U. S. Fourth, he is a self-improver with strong expectations that the learning experience will lead to career improvements.

Were these expectations fulfilled by their subsequent experiences? The visitors felt that they had learned a great deal, but not quite as much as they had hoped and wanted to. As tourists, their expectations were amply fulfilled. This was one of the most rewarding aspects of the experience. Many of the visitors commented on their enjoyment of their sight-seeing activities (Table A23). The visitors were also more than satisfied with the opportunities they had to represent their countries to their hosts. The amount of gain in personal careers was the most disappointing and will be discussed more fully in the chapter on experiences back home. An unexpected benefit was a considerable rise in social prestige as a former sojourner in the U. S. (Tables A24 and A25).

Cultural transition

Did the visitors experience any "cultural shock" in adjusting to the United States? The greater the contrast in culture, the more difficulty we would expect the visitor to experience in acclimating himself. For the middle or upper class Filipino, the cultural differences are too small to be a source of anxiety or discomfort. Sixty percent of the visitors indicated that there was nothing that tended to make them anxious or uncomfortable while in the United States, and only four percent reported much difficulty in adjusting to living conditions. The specific complaints were varied, and none ascribed to by more than ten percent of the sample (Table A26). The unusually cold climate and uncomfortable living conditions, fear that a war might prevent their return home, expectations of embarrassing racial incidents, social loneliness, adjusting to the study program, experience with new natural disasters such as cyclones, and financial worries, were the chief sources of difficulty.

Orientation

The ICA/Washington orientation program was rated very helpful by three-fourths of the visitors, and helpful to some extent by nearly all (Table A27). All of the topics were considered satisfactorily covered (Table A28). Least satisfaction was expressed with the discussion of recreational opportunities, and, in their subsequent experiences, recreational and social opportunities were, in fact, considered relatively inadequate.

Adjustment to living conditions

The cold climate and inadequate clothing preparation was one of the least liked features of their experiences in the U. S. for one-fourth of the participants. Unsatisfactory housing arrangements and per diem were targets of hostility for one-tenth of the sample. Travel arrangements were considered highly satisfactory, but the visitors were least happy with arrangements for recreational and social opportunities (Table A21).

Participants who rated themselves high on utilization of U. S. training were more likely to be satisfied with both the housing and per diem arrangements.

National status and personal adjustment

Look at the visitor as the representative of one culture visiting another. If he has not travelled from his country before, the visitor is confronted with a new way of judging him to which he must adjust. He finds himself stripped of most of the usual cues by which he is judged in his own country, his province and dialect, family background, financial and social status, and is judged instead by a criterion he had ordinarily taken for granted, his nationality. Many of the persons that he meets are going to react to him solely on the basis of the status they accord persons of his nationality.

The visitor wants very much to be identified as a Filipino and differentiated from other Asians. In the southern states particularly he is very anxious to be publicly identified as a Filipino in order to avoid being treated as a Negro. Many of the visitors told us how gratified they were to have articles about them in the local press identifying their nationality and rationale of visit, if they were in a state that practiced segregation.

Table 8.2 **Advantage of having people in U. S. know participant is from the Philippines**

	<u>Percent</u>
Great advantage	54
Some advantage	34
Neither advantage nor disadvantage	5
Some disadvantage	7
	<u>100</u>

Number of interviews - 434

Nearly 90 percent felt that they would benefit by having their hosts make the correct identification of their nationality. Although the visitors felt that Americans would rate the living, cultural and political standards of the Philippines as high, their estimate of American ratings was not quite as high as their own ratings of their country.

Table 8.3 **Participant's own and estimated American rating of living, cultural and political standards in the Philippines**

	Own rating	Estimated American
Highest	85	71
Middle	14	25
Lowest	1	4
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>

Number of interviews - 434

It is felt to be a gain for most Filipinos to be differentiated from other Asians and from Negroes, and he feels that the host's evaluation of his country is high, if not quite as high, as his own. How is this appraisal of his national status reflected in his own self-picture? Asked to compare himself on a number of status criteria with friends and acquaintances in the Philippines, on the average all of the visitors compared themselves favorably on all the criteria. They compared themselves most favorably in academic standing and intelligence, second most favorably in personal popularity and social prestige, and third most favorably in financial status and physical and sports ability (Table A29). Asked to compare themselves with Americans whom they knew best in the United States, the order of comparisons was exactly the same, with the average response indicating that the visitor compared himself favorably with his host, but more likely to rate himself nearly the same. Examining the differences between comparison of self with Filipinos and Americans, we find that the comparison with Americans is nearly the same amount less favorable than the comparison with Filipinos on all of the criteria (Table A29). This is an indication of a general lowering of self-esteem for the visitor, to the extent that self-esteem is a reflection of the comparison of one's self to others. The research team had the opposite experience while conducting the field work in the Philippines. They rose in social status, popularity, financial status, and so on. The Filipino accords the American higher esteem as a result of his higher national status than the American is accustomed to receiving at home.

Since many persons respond to him as a representative of his own country, and his own self-esteem is lowered in relation to his new status, the differences between the values and achievements of his country and the United States become salient. The visitor is exposed to a

set of values which emphasizes the strengths and achievements of the host country and places the home country in the category of "underdeveloped" areas. Faced with this discrepancy in evaluation of their own country and the host country, visitors from other Eastern lands have reduced their allegiance to their home countries and shifted it to the United States. This has been done to varying degrees, from unusually long extension of student days to actual change in citizenship. The Filipino, however, does not shift in allegiance to his own country and he continues to identify his future with that of his country. He must, however, for his own personal feelings of self-esteem and security, attempt to equalize the discrepancy between his country and the host country.

He cannot change the actual state of affairs, but he can influence the attitudes of those with whom he comes into contact. As we shall see, the visitor does spend a great deal of time attempting to raise the status of his own country by telling people in the U. S. about its advantages, and exploiting some of the folk art native to the culture. In one demonstration of Philippine culture at a large Midwest University, the visitors learned to perform the folk dances in the U. S. in order to exhibit them!

With respect to inequality of technical achievement, the visitors made special note of those technical processes in plants which were inferior or the equivalent of technical processes in the home country. Any such evidence of technical quality was avidly noted and remarked upon, as a counterbalance to the many technical areas where the U. S. was unquestionably superior. The visitors evidently shared the American value for technical superiority as they did not attempt to counterbalance it by the usual claim that the U. S. is materialistic, and inferior in cultural values.

Another method of equalizing status is to broaden the time perspective. Since both countries share democratic values, the visitor points out that the Philippines have just begun to work toward democratic objectives and have made great strides in a short time, whereas the U. S. has a comparatively long democratic tradition. At the same time the visitor sees deviations from democratic behavior, such as segregation, as grounds for criticism which will minimize American superiority.

The general point is that the visitor needs help in maintaining his respect for his own country. For the Filipino this was not a severe problem. There was little evidence in our data of defensive distortion of their observations or hostility toward Americans. Yet, there was a pre-occupation with identifying themselves as Filipinos and developing good will and understanding toward the Philippines. This can be a very important part of the process of cross-cultural learning. But if the visitor feels threatened, if he is not appropriately identified, and has to work hard to put up a good front, this may interfere with his learning opportunities.

Communicating with Americans

One of the chief barriers to having a satisfactory experience in the U. S. is the visitor's facility in English. This was no problem for the Filipinos. Less than five percent of the sample indicated having considerable difficulty in understanding or communicating to Americans in the classroom or in social situations. An amusing discovery, for some, was that the English spoken in the Philippines, so-called "bamboo English," which has a predominantly Spanish accent, is different from the English spoken in the United States.

Social adjustment

An important objective of many of the visitors is to establish satisfactory social relationships. This may be an end in itself or a means of deepening and widening his overseas experience. The visitor is cut off from his usual source of social gratification, he may want to establish new channels of friendship, with people of the same and of the opposite sex, companions for recreational activities, and sources of intellectual stimulation. Second, the social activities may be instrumental to intensifying his experience through meeting persons who are intimately familiar with the activity he has come to study; or gaining entree into family life as a means of gaining more intimate understanding of American interpersonal relations; or establishing friendships as a means of exploring cultural differences and similarities; or meeting people who will serve as guides to the visitor.

In their reports to ICA, eighty percent of those writing reports made some mention of social relationships with Americans. One of the chief sources of gratification related by half of the visitors was their enjoyment of their social experiences: friendships developed, visits to American families, and invitations to social affairs (Table A23). One-fifth checked off "more social life" as a means of improving the training program with only 6 percent checking off "less social life." Evidently, a satisfactory social adjustment is a means to finding personal security and increasing the value of the training experiences.

Social experience and application of U. S. training.

Effective participants had more favorable social experiences with Americans than did the less successful. There are several reasons for the influence of favorable social relationships on learning while in the U. S. on back-home performance. First, the participant is more likely to allow himself to be influenced if he feels attracted to the people who are trying to show him new techniques and ideas. He is less likely to feel defensive about himself and his own skills, and to resist new learning. Secondly, if he is attracted to Americans and associates himself with these new ideas, he is more likely to advocate them upon return, and to continue to support the new techniques in the face of adversity in his own organization.

The effective participants were much more satisfied with their social life in the United States as evidenced by a number of different questions. Opportunities for social and recreational experiences were considered most unsatisfactory by many of the visitors. However, there was a very significant relationship between self-ratings of effective use of training and satisfaction with social and recreational opportunities (Table A74).

The effective participants were not only more satisfied with their social life as visitors but they were least likely to check the statement that the training experience might be improved by providing a more adequate social life. Along similar lines, effective participants were less likely to indicate that they had wanted to visit more places in the U. S. outside of training.

Patterns of contact

Each individual's experience is unique. The mature students whose sojourn abroad means separation from wife and children and shift in status from respected government officer to student responds differently than a younger unmarried person taking advanced graduate work.

Table 8.4 Time spent with Americans in various activities

Shared meals, coffee, coke	5.00
Spent in discussion and studies	4.82
Spent in social conversation	4.75
Spent with families in their homes	4.37
Spent in parties and social events	3.79
Talked about literature, music, etc.	3.54
Spent in religious organizations	3.38
Shared housing arrangements	3.04
Spent in campus organizations	2.74
Borrowed and lent things	1.54

Number of participants - 424

Scale: 7, very often, to 1, never

For the group as a whole we may not see some dominant styles of interaction with the host community. With the exception of a minority whose sole interest was the acquisition of technical skills and knowledge, the Filipinos were very much interested in absorbing as much as they could from the experience. They wanted to see more places, learn more, meet more people, have more social experiences, do more sightseeing, stay longer. However, the short duration of their stay or the itinerary prevented, as the table above indicates, frequent interaction with their hosts. The most frequent interactions were informal: sharing of meals, discussions and informal invitations to families in their home. Organized social interaction, such as planned social events, shared housing arrangements or membership in religious or campus organizations was much less frequent. Few achieved the degree of intimacy with Americans symptomatized by borrowing and lending things to one another.

Effective participants had more contacts with Americans

All of the questions about the amount of contacts with Americans were positively related to the effectiveness ratings (Table A75).

Table 8.5 Contacts with Americans, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Time spent with Americans:</u>	<u>Ratings of utilization by participants</u>
Campus organizations	**
Religious organizations	**
Families in their homes	**
Shared meals, coffee, cokes	**
Shared housing arrangements	**
Discussion and studies	*

Reminder note: ** - p value .01
* - p value .05

Experience with segregation

Upon arrival in this country, the visitors had preconceptions about the nature of race relations in the United States, and considerable apprehension, being brown-skinned, lest they personally be identified as Negroes and discriminated against. As Asians oriented toward the United States, they find our ethnic behavior unassimilable with the other values of fairness and justness in interpersonal relations that we claim to represent. This flaw in our behavior is not related by the visitor to the considerable problems of ethnic relations existing in his own country: discriminatory legislation against the small in number but economically powerful Chinese, inability to successfully assimilate the non-Christian "Moros" in the southern island of Mindanao, or unfavorable attitudes toward the primitive tribes in the mountains of northern Luzon. The critical point for the visitor is not an objective look at the problems of intergroup relations, but the reasonable personal concern that he may become the victim of segregated practices.

The visit made it possible for them to test their preconceptions against their own observations. However, the overall attitude of the visitors toward the host may influence the meanings he gives to his observations. The more friendly the visitor, the more likely he is to pay attention to observations which validate his positive preconceptions and discount his negative preconceptions. Visitors whose attitudes to the United States were very favorable related their experiences of being denied hotel rooms, or refused service in a restaurant, on the grounds that they were Negro, and then went on to discount these observations as evidence of race discrimination by their hosts. The hotel clerks or waiters, they claimed, were not themselves U. S. citizens, but foreigners.

Expectations of racial discrimination in the United States were salient for many of the participants. Asked to describe things they did or saw in the United States that were different from what they expected, one fourth of the participants talked about their observations of our race attitudes and behavior. Fifteen percent of the sample found the situation to be much better than they expected. They found that our race attitudes and behavior were favorable and that they were not treated like Negroes. Ten percent of the sample reported the opposite experience; racial attitudes and behavior were as bad or even worse than they had originally expected. They noted the color distinction in the South, the separate facilities, overheard prejudiced remarks, and were personally discriminated against. A few claimed that they limited their visits due to their encounters with race prejudices (Table A10). Twenty-six persons observed that race prejudice was their chief source of worry while in the United States (Table A26). Fifty-two visitors said that what they liked least about their experience in the United States was their encounter with race attitudes and segregated practices (Table A30). Summarizing this data, 30 percent of the sample brought up the subject of race relations. Of those who discussed it, 60 percent tended to discount their negative stereotypes or asserted that they were not personally discriminated against. Forty percent, 76 persons, validated their negative expectations, or found that their experience was even more unfavorable than they had anticipated.

Attitude toward Americans

Not only did the effective participants have more contacts with Americans, they were more likely to comment voluntarily on the favorable social relations they had observed among Americans. Two-thirds of those who mentioned the favorable quality of social relations in America rated themselves high on utilization.

Table 8.6 Social relations in the U. S., and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Participant rating of utilization</u>	<u>Favorable Social Relations</u>	
	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>
High	67	125
Low	33	61
	<u>100</u>	<u>186</u>

The effective participants also felt that Americans had favorable attitudes toward the Philippines (Table A76). Asked to estimate what Americans thought of the political, cultural and living standards in the Philippines, the effective participants were more likely to attribute more favorable attitudes to the Americans.

In sum, the effective participants tended to be more favorable toward the quality of social life they observed in the U. S., and feel that Americans were more friendly to them.

The visitor is likely to be struck by those observations which are in striking contrast to customary ways of behaving at home. Two such differences were the themes of the visitors' evaluation of the behavior of Americans they encountered. They are the modes of interpersonal behavior and the long-range goal-oriented nature of American character. We will discuss each of these in turn.

Rules for interpersonal behavior

A number of very specific rules govern the behavior of the visitors in their home country. First are the pervasive, nearly feudal class distinctions which govern behavior between members of a small elite, a fairly large and growing middle class, and the agrarian masses. Within these class divisions, one is expected to be helpful to family members, friendly to persons from the same locality or province, deferential to older persons and males, and so on. For the owner of a plant, for example, it is nearly unthinkable to stop and converse in a friendly manner with even a skilled worker.

For Americans, the rules are much more general, more universal. The expectation is that he will be generally helpful and friendly, be respectful and courteous to both supervisor and subordinate. A Filipino will characteristically be helpful only to a superior or equal. He is amazed therefore to have the university professor help him with his bags, or see the plant supervisor chatting with laborers. Half of the visitors volunteered a favorable evaluation of this unexpected characteristic of American interpersonal behavior (Tables A23 and A10). They found their hosts to be interested in people and helpful; they were friendly, pleasant, and cordial; in their own behavior they were democratic and informal. Only five percent of the sample were unfavorable charging Americans with attitudes of superiority and superficiality in their friendliness. The charge of superficiality in personal relations is made much more frequently by persons of other nationalities.

This feeling of warm emotional response from the host culture is especially important for the acquisition and maintenance of changes in work and personal attitudes during the visit. If he feels that his hosts have a warm personal interest in him, he is much more likely to allow himself to be influenced by them. If he feels himself warmly accepted by the host community, he is also better able to maintain his identification with these views when he returns home.

Expressive versus instrumental behavior

Like many tropical formerly Spanish colonies where Catholicism mingled with more mystic religions, the Filipino national character emphasizes the expression of one's impulses and feelings in many areas of life, with much less emphasis on rational planning and long-range goals. By contrast, the Protestant dominated Northern countries are likely to emphasize the postponement of gratification, inhibition of emotions, and emphasize the value of work and the organization and integration of behavior for the achievement of temporally distant objectives.

When one of these groups evaluates the character of the other, they can easily be favorable or unfavorable. The Filipino might see Americans as inhibited, Puritanical, materialistic, lacking in emotional sensitivity or he might look at the positive side of these same traits. Of the one-fifth of the sample who commented that their observation of these traits were the most striking or most pleasant parts of their experience in the U. S., none commented adversely. These traits were seen as a means to economic progress, and partly an explanation of the differences in economic conditions between the U. S. and the Philippines. The most frequent comment dealt with "moral" aspects of American character: honesty in business and personal life; frankness and directness in social and business communications; and a pervasive discipline of behavior. Along with this, they noted with surprise, that Americans worked hard, they were busy and industrious (Table A23 and A10). The Philippine notion of material success in the U. S. emphasized the conspicuous consumption ends and they were uninformed of the standards of behavior governing the production of these goods and services. This preconception of American material success unaccompanied by notions about the amount of hard work done by Americans may be a product of the interaction of the Hollywood film and the Filipino's own high value on conspicuous consumption.

Along with discipline, hard work and a respect for labor, the visitors noted that their hosts did a great deal of long-range planning. Given a task to do, they planned out all of the steps in sequence. Some of the participants said they were personally more likely to start without clearly seeing all of the intervening steps between them and their objective. The visitors were particularly struck by the hosts' personal economic planning, the budget-consciousness and thrift.

These observations of the hosts' behavior are not just casual remarks. Although the visitors came to learn to improve their skills and knowledge, for many of them, the most important learnings were not the technical performance of their tasks, but new standards and rules of interpersonal behavior and favorable attitudes toward work and productivity. This incidental learning will be discussed at greater length in a subsequent chapter.

Maintaining home connections

The problem of establishing satisfactory relationships with the host, meeting learning objectives, and observing the host culture, are only a part of their overall dilemma. They need to keep the image of job relevance of their learning constantly before them and at the same time maintain their allegiance and relationships with the home culture.

It is important for the visitor to allow himself to be influenced to some extent by the new culture. The younger, less mature visitor is likely to be "seduced" by the new experience, so completely absorbed that he forgets to maintain his connections with his home. On the other hand, the more mature visitor may be more concerned with maintaining home allegiances as a defense against the influence of the new culture. The problem of absorbing influence from the host culture and maintaining membership in the home culture is continuous throughout the visit. The most satisfactory situation is learning from the host while maintaining a realistic image of the home country. The problems of translating between the two cultures can then be accomplished during the visit. Either complete absorption in the host culture or complete rejection of it will reduce the value of the sojourn. The absorbed person will find himself out of step at home, his ideas rejected. The isolate will fail to learn much from the experience. Let us examine the ways in which the visitor relates to his home culture while overseas.

There was considerable variability among the visitors in their maintenance of back-home relationships. For example, one method is to keep informed of what is happening in the home country.

Table 8.7 Extent participant kept informed about events
in the Philippines while in the U. S.

	<u>Percent</u>
Well informed	62
Moderately well informed	25
Little or not at all	<u>13</u>
	100

Number of interviews - 434

The pattern of maintenance of home images and relationships indicates that the Filipino visitor did not tend to withdraw from the experience by seeking the company of other Filipinos, or reading home newspapers and magazines. He kept the home connection while actively participating in the activities of the host culture. His most frequent connection home was via letters telling of his new experiences and enabling him to keep informed. Secondly, he maintained home ties by frequently acting as an unofficial ambassador and telling people about the Philippines (Table A31). Acting as unofficial representatives of their countries gave the visitors an opportunity to take the role of informed experts as they described some of the interesting and valued features of the home country.

Expectations and benefits related to utilization

The participants expectations and actual benefits resulting directly from his U. S. training may be classified under three headings, reflecting three different roles, or ways of looking at himself that the participant may adopt while a visitor in the host country: (1) the learner or student, (2) tourist, (3) representative of country (Table A77).

(1) Learner:

Effective participants were more likely to expect to acquire skills and knowledge. The relation between utilization and amount of knowledge and skills actually acquired was even greater. Similarly, effective participants indicated that they actually learned more than they had expected. Effective participants were not more likely to report expecting to learn skills needed in the Philippines, but were much more likely to report that they actually had learned skills needed in the Philippines. Effective participants also expected to do something for their country. Again, the relation between "doing something for country" and utilization increased for the actual consequences, and for the difference between expectations and actualities.

In sum, effective participants were somewhat more likely to expect to acquire skills and knowledge that would be useful to their country. But they were very much likely to feel that they had actually learned more useful things. Also, they learned a great deal more than they had expected.

(2) Tourist:

Except for one item, finding out how people in the U. S. live, the effective participants were not different from the less effective in their tourist expectations. However, they reported being much more satisfied with the actualities. They felt they had learned more about the U. S., how people in the U. S. lived, and had broadened through travel, they also obtained much more tourist experience than they had expected. In fact, effective participants were less likely to check the statement "wanted to see more places in the U. S. outside of training."

(3) Country representative:

Participants did not differ in their expectations about representing their country abroad. However, the effective participants more often reported actually telling people in the U. S. about the Philippines than did less effective participants.

9. APPLICATION OF TRAINING

In this section we begin to analyze the returns yielded by the training program when the participant returns to his job assignment in the home culture. The increase in trained personnel is imbedded in a program of national development. The use of these human resources should lead to an end product of increased effectiveness industry-wide, throughout government agencies or for particular occupations. But these basic effects in such fields as public health, education, industry, labor, public administration, agriculture and transportation are obviously the end result of many forces in addition to added personnel skills. We must look therefore for more concrete intervening effects in order to evaluate the training program. The evidence for two such effects is examined in this section:

Program Effect I: Direct application of the skills and know-how resulting from training to the jobs of the participants,

Program Effect II: The amount and type of the spread of training skills within the plants and organizations of the returnees and outside their own workplaces--teaching, consulting, articles, publications, conferences, etc.

Successful application of training requires the removal of barriers and the provision of positive supports and incentives. A statistical analysis of the factors influencing application of training is presented in the appropriate chapters. Here we examine some of the main problems the participants encountered in attempting to put their skills and know-how to use.

1. What are the characteristic patterns of application of training as time goes by? Does the participant make increasingly more or less use of his training? Here, we examine participants who have been back from one to five years.
2. The problem of adequate assignment of personnel to jobs requiring their training.
3. The problem of adequacy of training. Was the training received relevant to the needs of the jobs?
4. The problem of adequate facilities, funds and equipment to support the use of specialized skills.
5. The problem of trained personnel to facilitate and staff new ideas and practices.
6. The problem of acceptance of the returnee as an expert with useful ideas. Is the returned participant who has received training abroad received as an influential carrier of new ideas or rejected as a person who had learned some impractical ideas in a foreign country?
7. The problem of readiness to change of the work associates, and management of the plants, agencies and organizations of the returnee. Successful use of new ideas depends on the interest of management in improvement and change and the readiness of work associates to learn and use new ideas.

8. The problem of providing the returnee with follow-up support to maintain his motivation and interest in introducing new ideas, provide sources of support, and provide additional technical information.

Let us examine the main effects of the training program, direct application and dissemination, and some of the factors influencing the success of these activities.

Direct application of training

To get a complete picture of the participant's use of his training, (1) the participant himself gauged the extent of application of his training; (2) fifteen Technical Assistants gave ratings to the participants working in the areas covered by their programs, evaluating altogether 325 persons; and (3) supervisors, in response to a mailed questionnaire, rated 256 of the participants. In this way three independent evaluations of the participant's application of training were obtained.

Relationship of the ratings

There was practically no agreement among the raters.

Table 9.1 Agreement among raters of application of training

	<u>r</u>	<u>Number of comparisons</u>
Participant's own rating vs. supervisor's	.24**	242
Supervisor's vs. U.S. Technical Assistant's	.11 (-)	184
Participant's own rating vs. U.S. Technical Assistant's	.05	294

**Significant at better than .01 level

The participants and their supervisors did agree to a limited extent. The U. S. Technical Assistants did not agree either with the supervisors or the participants. What conclusions can be drawn from the fact that these ratings of the same person were so different from one another?

Possible reasons for the differences are not hard to find. The raters were differently informed about the activities of the ratees. Those who were best informed, the participants and his supervisor, tended to agree the most. The attitudes and motives of the raters varied. The participant may have wanted to call attention to the fact that he was doing a good job, or that he was not correctly assigned. The Technical Assistant and the supervisor may be objective or may have wanted their programs to show a good record. On the constructive side, this lack of agreement points to the need for making more visible the behavior of the participant, his job, and developing satisfactory criteria for evaluating the application of training on the job.

The participants rated themselves high

A basic rule of survey interpretation is that the response to a question is a function of the question. A slight change in the wording of the question may influence the percentage answering in each category. Therefore we asked the participant three different questions, based on three

different criteria, to get his estimate of his use of the training experience. We asked him how much of his time was spent working in the area in which he was trained; how much of the work that he did required U. S. training; and how much of the training he used in the jobs he had held.

Table 9.2 Participant estimates of application of training following return home

Percent Application:	Percent time working in area relevant to training	Percent of work requiring U. S. training	Percent of training used in jobs held
	Percent	Percent	Percent
81 - 100	57	41	32
61 - 80	19	28	29
41 - 60	12	15	13
21 - 40	7	10	11
0 - 20	5	6	5
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>

Number of interviews - 434

The influence of question wording on the responses is evident. The participants indicated that the amount of time they spent working in areas relevant to training was greater than the amount of the work they did that required U. S. training. Estimates of percentages of time and work were both greater than the amount of the training they had used in the jobs held. Overall at least 60 percent of the sample were quite affirmative about the application of their training and less than five percent of the sample indicated a minimum application.

Supervisor and Technical Assistant ratings were less favorable

Although the supervisors and U. S. Technical Assistants did not agree with one another, they were more likely to deprecate the participants' utilization of training than were the participants. Both assigned approximately 25% of the sample to the categories indicating inadequate application of training (less than 50 percent).

Table 9.3 Participants', supervisors' and Technical Assistants' estimates of participants' application of U. S. training

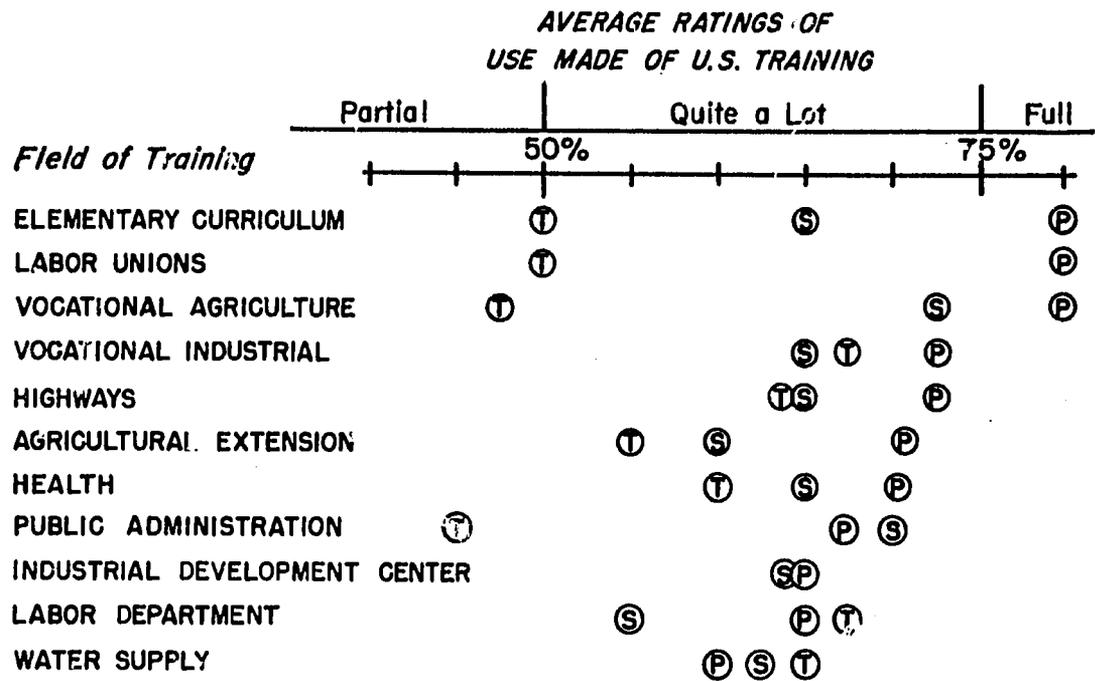
<u>Application of training</u>	<u>Participant self-rating*</u>	<u>Supervisor rating</u>	<u>Technical Assistant rating</u>
	Percent	Percent	Percent
Full (75-100%)	55	43	35
Quite a bit (50-74%)	28	34	43
Partial (25-49%)	11	18	18
Little or none (less than 25%)	6	5	4
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>
Number of persons rated	427	233	325

*Participants' self-rating is based on an index using the three components in the previous table, unweighted, and adjusted to fit the categories used in supervisor and TA ratings.

More than half of all participants estimated they were making full (75-100%) use of their U. S. training, substantially more than did either supervisors or Technical Assistants. Supervisors and TA's assigned approximately 25 percent of the sample to the two categories indicating inadequate application (less than 50 percent) of training, more than did participants. Only in the lowest category is there close agreement, and these are not necessarily the same individuals in the three ratings.

The three ratings by field of training

The figure below shows the averages of all participants' self-ratings, supervisors' ratings, and TA's ratings for each of the eleven fields of training groups in the sample. While average participant self-ratings still show up higher than supervisor or TA ratings for most of these groups, they do not for all of them. Why the three ratings are so much closer together for some groups than for others is not explained by the survey data, but perhaps can be explained by those who know the personnel in these projects.



KEY

- Ⓟ = PARTICIPANTS RATINGS
- Ⓢ = SUPERVISORS RATINGS
- Ⓣ = U.S. TECHNICAL ASSISTANTS RATINGS

Figure 1. Average ratings of participants, by field of training

Earlier evaluation by Technical Assistants

For 165 of the participants in the survey sample there were earlier evaluation reports by U. S. Technical Assistants, in the USOM biographical files of participants. A content analysis of the TA comments on participants is summarized below.

Table 9.4 Content analysis of TA evaluations of participant application of training

	<u>Percent</u>
Effectively using their training	84
In position to make use of their training	80
Has brought about general improvements	68
Evidence of improved operations cited by TA	55
Successful dissemination of training	52
Evidence of participant receiving increased responsibilities	25

Number of TA evaluations - 165

Since TA evaluation reports were available for only 35 percent of the sample, and we do not know what differences there are between participants who were evaluated and those who were not, we can make no general conclusions from this table. In fact, the presence of the TA evaluation reports may tell us more about the programs in ICA than the participants. The value of systematically constructed reports by TA's which can then be compiled for an overall picture of the consequences of training for the program as a whole, as well as for particular programs, should be apparent.

Transmission of training was quite successful

The returnees had very favorable attitudes toward helping others learn the skills and know-how they had themselves acquired. Ninety-five percent said they had some interest in training others, and five percent said they had little or no interest in performing this activity. They saw their colleagues and subordinates receptive to learning, but not as receptive as the participants professed to be interested in teaching. Eighty-seven percent of the returnees felt that their colleagues and subordinates were interested in receiving this training. When it comes to actually training others, two-thirds reported considerable success, and one-third little or no training of others.

What methods were used by the returnees to instruct others? They are outlined in the table below.

Table 9.5 Participants' estimates of methods used to transmit technical training to others

	<u>Percent checking</u>
Informal discussions	85
Consultant activities	63
On the job seminars and discussion groups	62
On the job training program	51
Formal teaching part of regular job	39
Articles and publications	35
Formal teaching outside regular job	19

Number of interviews - 434

The primary channel for dissemination of training was discussion, either with another person as consultant, or in group meetings. Secondly, some persons had the explicit objective of training others as part of their jobs either through teaching or on-the-job training. Another method of transmission goes beyond the confines of the immediate work situation. One-third of the returnees taught outside of their regular jobs, and one-fifth prepared articles for general consumption.

The supervisor's estimates of the ways the participants disseminated training was very similar to the returnees.

Table 9.6 Supervisors' estimates of ways participants disseminated training

	<u>Percent checking</u>
Has given in-service training to others	70
Used staff meetings and conferences	65
Held workshops or seminars	54
Developed educational aids	34
Wrote technical materials and publications	27
Taught classes outside regular job	23
Talked over radio or wrote for press	15

Number of supervisors - 256

What are some of the ways in which this spread of training might be facilitated. Let us look first at the reasons the returnees give for not doing more training of others.

Table 9.7 Participant estimates of barriers to transmission

	<u>Percent</u>
Load of direct work makes it difficult	64
Arrangements with superiors not made prior to training	19
Training others not considered part of regular job	15
Subordinates and co-workers not interested in being trained	12
Superiors do not approve of this use of time	8
U. S. training did not prepare me to train others	7

Number of interviews - 434

The table above indicates that the chief barrier is in the job. The normal work load prevents using time for training others; this is particularly true when training others is not considered part of the job. Some felt that their superiors did not specifically plan on their disseminating their training, or did not approve of this use of their time. Others felt that their colleagues were not interested in additional training. A small percentage did not blame the requirements of their job or the interest of their supervisors and colleagues, but felt that they were inadequately prepared to train others. Note, however, that the majority of persons placed the barriers in the job situation.

Increasing the transmission of training

Since spread of training is an important program objective we made a special analysis of these data. Four factors can be assigned responsibility for influencing the amount of spread, (1) the communication channels available in the job situation, (2) the skills of the returnee as a trainer, (3) the motives and interests of the returnee in training others, and (4) the motives and interest of others in being trained. Since few persons felt that they lacked skills, we omitted this factor from our analysis. (We did not dismiss the idea that blaming the job, the supervisors or the colleagues may be another way of admitting lack of skill in coping with a difficult situation.)

Recent studies of the reasons for differences in worker productivity have shown that the high producer views increasing the amount of work that he does as a path to his own objectives. Increased productivity helps him get a raise in pay, a promotion, or reach some other goal. Following this reasoning we asked the participants whether they thought training others would be helpful to them in attaining success in their jobs. Three-fourths felt it would be helpful to them personally. One-fourth felt it would not. These two groups are compared below.

Table 9.8 Relationship between personal gain from training others and training activities

	Transmitting training is personally:	
	Helpful (312 returnees)	Not Helpful (118 returnees)
	<u>Percent mention</u>	<u>Percent mention</u>
Considerable training of others	84	69
Very much interested in training others	93	87
Co-workers are very interested in receiving training	77	55
Formal teaching part of job	41	32
Have on-the-job training program	54	43
Wrote articles and other publications	35	13

Participants need personal incentives to train others

Effective participants reported more often that training others would influence their own success on the job. They felt, in other words, that there was a positive incentive or goal for themselves to be attained as a consequence of training others (Table A94). It would help them personally. This problem of providing suitable incentives to encourage changes on behavior deserves emphasis.

Those returnees who felt they could personally gain from training others were more likely to report actually training others, having more interest in training others, and finding more receptivity to learning among their co-workers. The ways in which they differed from the others in methods of transmitting training indicates the value of planning for dissemination. They were assigned responsibility for training others either in formal training or in on-the-job training programs. They were also much more likely to write articles for professional or popular consumption.

Participants need channels of communication

Motivation is not enough to cause changes in behavior. The organizational environment must supply suitable channels for communication. Participants rated high by themselves and their supervisors much more often reported that they had the opportunity to transmit training to others. The relation between participant self-rating and opportunity to transmit training was one of the strongest relations ascertained in this phase of the study (product moment correlation of .58). (Table A94) There were also highly significant relationships between effective utilization and the opportunities available to transmit training reported by participants and their supervisors (Table A95).

Table 9.9 Training activities, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Training activities:</u>	<u>Ratings of utilization by participants</u>
Formal teaching as part of the regular job	***
On the job seminars and discussion groups	***
On the job training programs	***

Evidence that the provision of opportunity on the job for transmission of training is related to effectiveness comes from the supervisors as well as the participants themselves. The supervisors were asked to report what each participant working for them had done to transmit his training to others. These reports of transmission of activity were significantly related to high ratings of application of training of the participant by the participant himself, and his supervisor (Table A96).

Table 9.10 Relationship between supervisor reports of transmission activities, and utilization

<u>Supervisor reports that participant:</u>	<u>Rating of utilization by:</u>	
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>
Has given in-service training to others	***	**
Taught class outside of regular job	***	
Developed educational aids	**	**
Held workshops or seminars	*	

Reminder note: *** = p value .001
 ** = p value .01
 * = p value .05

Participants who gave in-service training to others were rated high by themselves and their supervisors. Participants who taught classes outside of their regular jobs were rated high only by themselves.

Effective participants were more likely to see transmission of training as a definite part of their jobs. They were less likely to report, for example, that training others was not considered part of their jobs.

Acceptance of innovation

Two of the elements in transference have been discussed, the motivation of participants, and the provision of channels for communication. Finally, let us consider the acceptance of new ideas and skills by the potential recipients. Effective participants felt that their co-workers were more interested in being trained (Table A94). Other supporting evidence comes from the fact that participants checking the statement "Subordinates and co-workers are not interested in being trained" were given lower ratings by the U. S. TA's (Table A97).

These facts lead us to the conclusion that the barriers to training others in the job situation are real, not a product of distorted views. In sum, facilitating the spread of training to others can be increased by making transmission part of the job, planning for these training activities when the participant is selected and rewarding the participant for successfully training others.

Time since return

Considerable interest has been expressed in the participants' opportunity to use their training as the years go by after they return. It has been suggested that participants who are frustrated in their opportunities to put into effect new ideas and practices immediately after they return will do so when they have achieved sufficient status and power in their organizations.

The biographical files in the USOM contained evaluation reports by TA's for about one-third of the participants later interviewed in the survey. However, over 80 percent of these reports had been made within six months of the participant's return, and none had been made after 10 months from return. The participants in this study had been back six months or longer, on the average about two years.

Table 9. 11 Time elapsed since return

<u>Time*</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Less than 1 year	14
1-2 years	24
2-3 years	32
3-4 years	17
4-5 years	10
over 5 years	3
	<u>100</u>

Number of participants - 424

*Date of survey was taken as July 1, 1958

Participants were asked, in the written questionnaire to indicate the opportunity they had to put their U. S. training into use each year since their return.

Table 9.12

**Participant opportunity to use U. S. training
in successive years after return**

<u>Participants who have been back for</u>		<u>Percent reporting considerable opportunity to use training during:</u>				
	<u>Number</u>	<u>1st yr.</u>	<u>2nd yr.</u>	<u>3rd yr.</u>	<u>4th yr.</u>	<u>5th yr.</u>
1 year	(80)	75				
2 years	(131)	73	78			
3 years	(82)	65	77	82		
4 years	(46)	48	63	63	69	
5 years	(86)	70	79	80	76	86
	(425)					

The diagonal of the table indicates the participants' estimate of current opportunity to use their training (in the year during which the survey took place). Except for the fourth year returnees, there is on the average a small gain in opportunity to use training with each year that passes. If we look across the rows, the general trend is for persons to report having increasing opportunity to use their training with each year that passes. Or, to put it conversely, they see themselves as having had less opportunity earlier.

This increased opportunity to use training over time is a general trend but there are marked differences between participants in the 11 field of training groups. The figure below shows that several groups showed a rather consistent increase in opportunity to use training each year after return, several showed an erratic increase or decrease in opportunity, and several showed a steady decline.

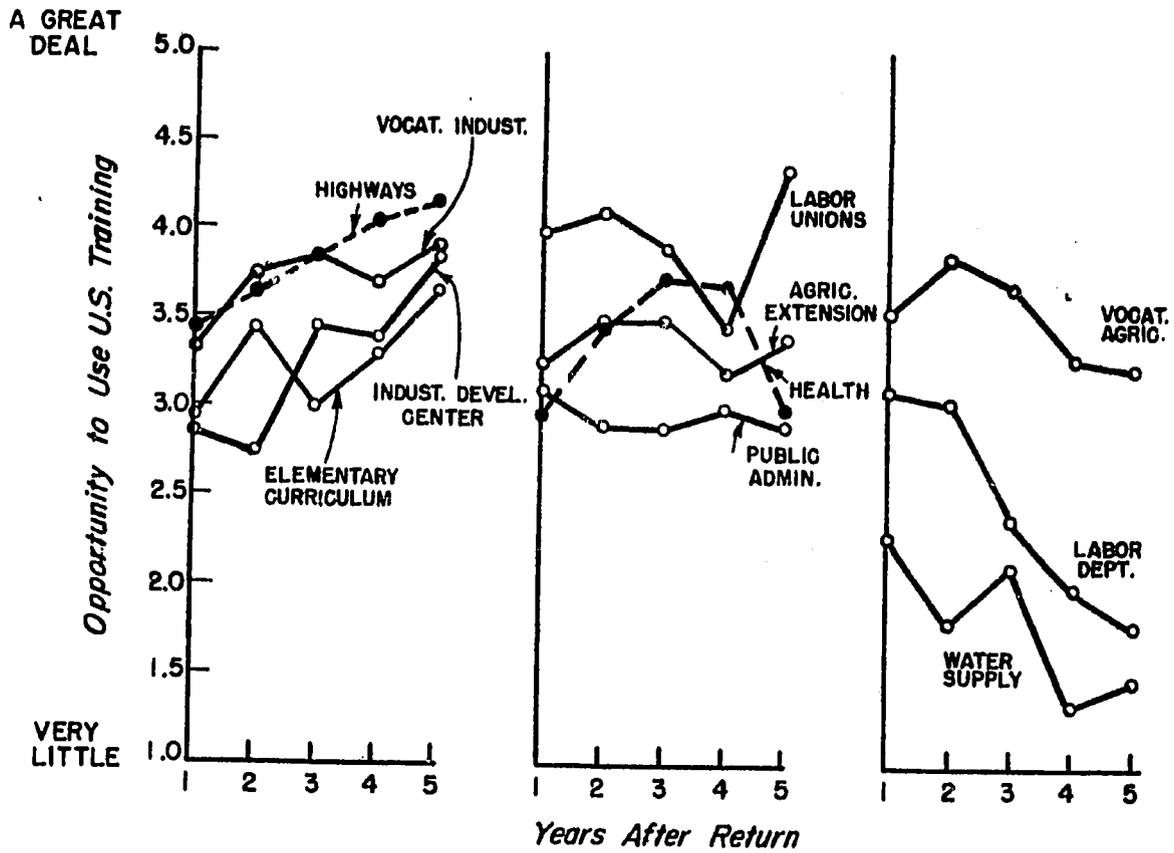


Figure 2. Participants' estimates of opportunity to use U.S. training each year after return, by type-of-training groups.

Let us compare those persons who are currently reporting themselves to have considerable opportunity to use their training and those reporting less opportunity.

Table 9.13 Relationship between participants' current and previous opportunity to use U. S. training

Participants' current opportunity to use training	Percent reporting considerable previous opportunity to use training during:	Percent reporting considerable previous opportunity to use training during:				Number of participants
		1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	
Years since return	Opportunity to use training					
5 years	considerable	70	88	93	97	(67)
	little	68	47	27	10	(19)
4 years	considerable	52	64	84		(31)
	little	26	26	14		(14)
3 years	considerable	70	84			(67)
	little	40	47			(15)
2 years	considerable	83				(102)
	little	21				(29)

For example, of those 67 participants who have been back five years since returning from U. S. training and who currently report considerable opportunity to use their U. S. training, 70 percent reported considerable opportunity to use their training during the first year after return, 88 percent during the second year, 93 percent the third year and 97 percent the fourth. On the other hand, of the 19 participants who have been back five years but who currently report little opportunity to use their training, 68 percent report having had considerable opportunity to use training during their first year after return, 47 percent during the second year, and only 27 and 10 percent during the third and fourth years after return, respectively. In general, as the table shows, participants who currently report having considerable opportunity to use their U. S. training also report that as the years have gone by their opportunity to use their U. S. training has consistently increased each year. Those who currently report having little opportunity to use their training tend to see their previous opportunities to use their training as having diminished each year.

Summarizing: (1) Opportunity to use U. S. training increases, on the average, with increasing length of time after return; (2) many of the participants hit a turning point in their opportunity to use their training. They either increased their chances and continued to stay in a position to use their training, or they decreased their chances and continued to lose ground each year.

Job assignments provided opportunity to use training

The assignments given to the returnees enabled a large majority to use their training. Personnel placement does not stand out from the evidence as a major difficulty preventing the application of training. A guess from the data would be that inadequate placement was a serious

problem for ten percent or approximately forty persons in the sample. Let us review the evidence briefly.

First, were the returnees assigned to the jobs that had been planned for them?

Table 9. 14 Comparison between job assignment and job expected

Percent saying their job was:	
	<u>Percent</u>
The same	69
Somewhat different	13
Very different	<u>17</u>
	100

Number of interviews - 434

Although seventeen percent reported that the jobs they were assigned to upon return were quite different than had been planned for them, these changes did not lead to an under use of their skills and know-how.

Table 9. 15 Opportunity to use training in present job as compared to job participant had before U. S. training

	<u>Percent</u>
More	56
Same	40
Less	<u>4</u>
	100

Number of interviews - 434

From another question we find that the training they had is directly useful for nearly four-fifths of the sample, and indirectly useful for the remaining fifth. As another indication of opportunity to use training we asked the returnees to compare themselves with other persons who had received similar training. Only 12 percent of the sample felt they had less opportunity than their colleagues to use their training.

Table 9. 16 Opportunity to use training compared to others with similar training

	<u>Percent</u>
More	68
Same	20
Less	<u>12</u>
	100

Number of interviews - 434

Checking with the Technical Assistants and the supervisors on underemployment of skills as a consequence of improper assignment, the Technical Assistants said that 10 percent of the sample (42 persons) had been moved to a job using less of their training. Analysis of Technical Assistants' evaluations of participants in the USOM files in the Philippines corroborates this data. Of 165 evaluations, 16 percent were pointed out as not being in a position to use their training. Nearly half the supervisors said that they gave assignments to participants making use of their training and 13 percent said they recommended participants to better positions (Table A32). In assigning responsibility to factors preventing greater use of the participants training, 15 percent checked as important the statement that the participant's present job is not closely related to his training. Twenty-four percent assigned some or very little importance to this factor, and 61 percent said it was not at all important.

Summarizing, the data from our three sources, it would appear that job assignments that are not related to training is a serious problem for about ten percent of the sample, but not for 90 percent.

Utilization and job assignment

Effective participants had job assignments which permitted them to apply their training. Effective participants reported that the job they returned to was the job that had been planned for them when they undertook the training program. Less effective participants reported more often that the jobs they returned to were different from the one planned for them when they left. Effective participants also reported having a great deal of opportunity to use their training in their current assignments (Table A78).

Table 9. 17 Job assignment, and two ratings of utilization

Reports on Job Assignment	Ratings of utilization by:	
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>
<u>Participant reports:</u>		
Job returned to same as they planned prior to training	**	
Greater opportunity to use training than others with similar training	***	**
Job returned to offers opportunity to use training	**	**
Participant's job is not related to his current job	** (-)	** (-)
Participant moved to job using less of training	(-) approaches significance	

Training met job needs

In the main the content of the training programs did meet the requirements of the jobs to which the participants returned. The TA's were quite satisfied with the adequacy of training. The most serious complaint, and this was made about four percent of the participants by the TA's (13 participants) was that the training was not geared to job needs (Table A12). The supervisors were somewhat more critical of the adequacy of training.

Table 9. 18 Supervisor rating of adequacy of training as a factor preventing greater utilization

	<u>Percent</u>
Not at all important	51
Slightly	23
Moderately	11
Quite	3
Very important	7
	<hr/> 100

Number of supervisors - 256

Fifteen percent of the supervisors blamed adequacy of training as a barrier to greater application, but 75 percent seemed quite satisfied. In response to another question, nearly ten percent of the supervisors checked the statement that the training was not suited to conditions in the Philippines.

Lack of facilities and equipment as a barrier to change

Lack of facilities, equipment and funds was the greatest difficulty in the way of introduction of improvements by the returnees, in the opinion of all three of our sources of information. The participants asserted that it was the greatest barrier to new ways of doing things. More of the supervisors, 20 percent, gave this reason more than any other (Table A8). Similarly, the U. S. Technical Assistants reported that lack of facilities and equipment was preventing one-third of the returnees from full utilization of their training (Table A33). No other reason was given as frequently.

True, it is probably easier to blame difficulties on lack of equipment, funds and money than some of the more intangible factors preventing utilization. However, the administrative problem pointed to here is the necessity for coordination in each of the economic development programs, of the training and the hardware resources. The equipment needs to be supplied in coordination with the human resources and skills to use them. An extreme example illustrates this failure of coordination: In Vocational Industrial training, some teachers were trained in vocational subjects for which no equipment was available or in sight upon their return.

Lack of trained personnel: a barrier to change

The introduction and institutionalization of innovation calls for the presence of supporting skills in the organization. The innovator needs skilled persons to help him reach his objectives. He needs, first, the resources they can bring to bear, in bringing about change. Secondly, he needs their cooperation and support in initiating and supporting the change.

One of the chief complaints of the returnees was this lack of trained personnel in their organizations. Among the least satisfactory aspects of their jobs was the technical ability of people they worked with (Table A34). They felt their co-workers at their level were much less qualified to make suggestions, for example, than their supervisors and upper management (Table A35). Similarly, one of the greatest barriers they saw to applying their training was the lack of trained staff (Table A36). The U. S. Technical Assistants were in agreement with the returnees. In assigning reasons for the participant failing to use his training the reason they

pointed to for one-fifth of the participants, was lack of other trained personnel. (Table A33). The supervisors did not share this point of view. Only four percent checked lack of trained personnel as a difficulty preventing greater use of training (Table A8).

The fundamental problem raised here is that of the number of people that need to be trained to have an appreciable effect in a given economic development area. If the returnees do not get technical help and support from others in their field, it is likely that they will vanish like drops of water in the sand. If the returnees are to be catalytic sources of change, some optimal number of persons will have to be trained in each area, at different levels in the organization.

Utilization limited by inadequate facilities and trained personnel

Participants who indicated that they had very inadequate facilities tended to rate themselves lower and receive lower ratings from their supervisors. But the relationships did not reach statistical significance. Attitudes toward the technical ability of other persons in the organization were related to utilization ratings. Participants who were satisfied with the technical ability of people they worked with rated themselves high and were rated high by their supervisors. Participants who indicated that few persons in their organization had training in modern techniques were rated low by their supervisors (Table A80).

Table 9. 19 Satisfaction with technical ability of others, and utilization

Ratings of utilization by:		
<u>Participant satisfactions:</u>	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>
Satisfaction with technical ability of people in agency	**	**
Checked statement, "Very few have had training in modern techniques."		** (-)
 <u>Qualifications of others to make suggestions:</u>		
Top level management	**	
Upper level management	**	
Co-workers at same level	**	

The participant as a barrier to change

In searching for the factors preventing greater application of training, we must examine both the work situation and the participants themselves. The barriers may be in the work environment, the resistance of co-workers, the failure of superiors to support the returnee's suggestions, the lack of provision for training others in the job definition, or the lack of authority to introduce changes without going through elaborate bureaucratic procedures. Or the barriers may be in the participant and his approach to the situation. He may have changed so much as a result of his foreign experience that he is no longer personally acceptable as the source of change. His presumption of expertness may be offensive to his colleagues (Table A37).

He may be impatient with other persons for not accepting what seems to him the most modern and advanced methods. To gain some understanding of the participant himself as a barrier to greater application, we asked the supervisors to check off a list of possible ways in which the participant himself is seen as preventing greater application.

Table 9.20 Supervisors' evaluation of ways in which participant is creating problems

	<u>Percent frequency of mention</u>
(a) Dissatisfaction with promotion or assignment	18
(b) Has too many new ideas	15
(c) Has too good an opinion of himself	15
(d) Has difficulty working without advanced equipment	14
(e) Does not adjust easily to job requirements	13
(f) Is too demanding and expects too much from job	13
(g) Has difficulty in accepting directions from superiors	11
(h) Does not have practical ideas	8
(i) Is not accepted by co-workers	6

Number of supervisors - 256

If the themes in the above table represent the major difficulties that a supervisor might have with the returnee, then there is no reason to believe that the behavior of the returnee is a major deterrent to application of training. Yet the data shows that ten to twenty percent of the returnees are viewed by their supervisors as having problems that prevent satisfactory application of their training. The participant whom the supervisor describes as (a) dissatisfied with promotion or assignment, (b) having too many new ideas, (c) having too good an opinion of himself, (e) not adjusting easily to job requirements, and (g) having difficulty in accepting directions from superiors, were more likely to be given low ratings by the supervisors with respect to their application of training.

These participants did not get the job advantages they expected to follow from additional training. The supervisors noted this disappointment reflected in dissatisfaction with current assignment and promotions. The supervisors also felt that some returnees were trying to present too many ideas and were overconfident of the value of these ideas. Further, the supervisors felt the participants did not fit easily back into the job. They were unprepared to use less advanced equipment, didn't adjust easily to the job requirements and made what supervisors considered to be unreasonable demands.

Without attempting to place blame on either the supervisor or participant, we can see that a small but substantial group of participants have their expectations raised as a result of training. Upon return they make demands on the situation which are rebuffed. The supervisor is more likely to rate these persons as low in application of training. Their demands create a problem for him. He attributes these demands to puffed up self-importance and inability to adjust.

On the participant side, recent research on the relation between expressions of dissatisfaction and productivity indicate that he may have good reason for his behavior. The most dissatisfied workers are often the best workers. They are disappointed because they have high

expectations and high interest. They are frustrated by the barriers in the job that prevent them from doing their best and are then likely to be vocal about these sources of dissatisfaction.

TA's estimate of barriers to application

According to the ratings of the TA's, two principal factors stood in the way of greater achievement by the participants. One was the participants themselves, their personal problems and the energy they used to apply training. The second factor was their relation to the organization they worked with. The TA's felt that some of them were blocked by their organizations from using their training, particularly by their superiors. The supervisors, however, indicated that these participants were unskilled in presenting their ideas, and did not adjust to job requirements or accept directions. The following table shows these relations in more detail (Tables A91 and A92).

Table 9.21 Evaluation of barriers to utilization, and TA ratings of utilization

<u>TA estimate of barriers to utilization:</u>	Rating of utilization by
	<u>U. S. TA</u>
Participant has personal difficulties	** (-)
Participant does not try hard enough	** (-)
Participant is blocked by his superiors	** (-)
Organization is not set up to use participant's training	** (-)
<u>Supervisor's estimate of barriers to utilization:</u>	
Participant has too many new ideas	** (-)
Participant does not adjust easily to job requirements	** (-)
Participant has difficulty in accepting directions from superiors	* (-)

The TA's tended to give lower ratings to two kinds of persons. First, they rated low the person who they thought was blocked by his superiors and his organization from using his training. Secondly, they gave lower ratings to persons whom the supervisors felt did not make satisfactory adjustments to their jobs or to the authority relationships.

Supervisors rated high participants they helped

Supervisors were asked to indicate the ways in which they assisted the participants in using their training. They gave higher ratings to participants whom they indicated as having helped (Table A79).

Table 9.22 Supervisor support, and supervisor ratings of utilization

<u>Supervisor reports:</u>	<u>Rating of utilization by:</u> <u>Supervisor</u>
Planned the participant's program of activities upon return	**
Gave the participant full use of own initiative and authority	**
Gave the participant an assignment utilizing his training	*

These findings suggest that the supervisors may constitute a target group for activities aimed at increasing the returnee's application of training.

Readiness-to-change of work associates

The acceptance of the participant by his work associates is, of course, a matter of tremendous personal concern to him. From the training program point of view, it has vital consequences for the success of the returnee in applying his new ideas and skills. The data indicate a widespread acceptance of the participant and a general readiness to change on the part of work associates. This does not mean that the participants' co-workers were not at all envious of his experience and suspicious of the practicality of his ideas (Table A38). For the participants reported that the envy of associates, although not a severe disadvantage, was the greatest negative consequence of the training program. The second greatest disadvantage was the hostility expressed to the returnee's suggestions.

Nor does it mean that the returnees found their organizations anxious to try out new ideas. Asked to rate a list of factors that served as barriers to the introduction of new ideas and techniques in his organizations the chief complaint was the lack of trained personnel. Secondly, members of the organizations were seen as much more interested in their personal affairs than organizational objectives. Lastly, and related, the management was not motivated by an image of progress, and was reluctant to change from habitual ways of doing things (Table A39).

These findings point to the necessity for embedding the training of participants in a program of change within the agency. It is not sufficient to simply supply skilled personnel to an organization. The supply of skilled resources needs to be part of a program of change within the organization. The readiness to change on the part of work associates with the background of top management and organization resistance to change points to the necessity for planned change programs within the organization as a prerequisite for sending persons for additional training.

There are several reasons why the participants might not have found themselves easily accepted upon their return by their subordinates, co-workers and supervisors. The participant has often been selected in preference to his associates and upon his return they are anxious to test him for the usefulness and practicality of his ideas. The returnee who expresses a preference for things foreign, or expresses admiration for the "American" way of doing things may find his work associates resentful of the implied negative attitudes toward their own country.

Again, the participant does not find himself occupying as important a role as he had anticipated upon his return in his job and is apt to express some disappointment with his current assignment. These dissatisfactions will be noted by work associates and attributed to the returnees inflated self-importance. Frequently, returnees change in their social orientation and attempt to behave in a manner counter to standards and expectations. These attempts at change contribute to the difficulty of establishing satisfactory social relationships on the job.¹

The relatively satisfactory adjustment of the returnees to the realities of their previous lives can be attributed to the favorable relations existing between the U. S. and the Philippines and the ensuing favorable attitudes. In addition, most of the returnees were carefully briefed on the kinds of difficulties they would encounter in readjusting to their home environments. As a result they were highly sensitive to those aspects of their own behavior that might arouse resentment, and were careful not to exhibit changed behavior patterns that might arouse antagonism.

In fact, the majority of returnees felt they had gained considerable status in the eyes of their colleagues. They felt that they now had more influence on their colleagues, their subordinates, co-workers and supervisors (Table A40). Not only did they feel more influential, they felt that they, in turn, received more respect and recognition from their colleagues (Table A38). Their colleagues frequently consulted with them for technical advice and asked for information about the United States (Table A41) and (Table A42). They did not find that their work associates disapproved of their behavior, but welcomed them back (Table A43). Over four-fifths of the returnees said that their supervisors and co-workers accepted them quite warmly (Table A44).

The returnees reported more than a warm reception; an increase in their influence and status. They found that their work associates were receptive to their new ideas and interested in learning from them and supportive (Table A45). (Also Tables A46 and A47.) Neither the participants, their supervisors or the U. S. Technical Assistants were apt to see the work associates of the participant as blocking him from utilizing his training. (Tables A22, A48, A33 and A8.) The most criticism came from the U. S. Technical Assistants. They asserted that sixteen percent of the participants were blocked from full utilization of their training by their superiors in the agency.

The participants did not see all of their work associates responding to them in the same way. The way he saw them depended on the work associate's position compared to that of the returnee. For example, the returnees felt they gained more respect and recognition from their subordinates, and were more frequently asked to consult by them (Table A49). Their subordinates were also more receptive to new ideas and generally easier to communicate with. Next, in order of decreasing impact, were colleagues at their own level. Their immediate supervisors, and supervisors at a higher level were least likely to accord them increased respect and recognition, consult with them, show interest in and understanding of new ideas. These perceived differences in response to the returnee are familiar aspects of the problems

1. See reference number 2.

of communication between levels in an organization and are not confined to the Philippines. Subordinates are the least source of discomfort, but as one goes up the levels beginning with one's co-workers, then supervisors and higher level supervisors, the participant is increasingly concerned with the behavior of these people to him.

Effective participants are more accepted

The greater the acceptance of the participant by his colleagues, the more likely they are to be influenced by him. The evidence firmly indicates that participants rating their utilization high have high status in the eyes of their colleagues. They felt that their prestige had increased with all of the relevant groups with whom they associated, and particularly with their co-workers (Table A81).

Table 9.23 Respect and recognition, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Participant received increased respect and recognition from:</u>	<u>Ratings of utilization by participant</u>
Co-workers	***
Immediate superiors	**
Other superiors	**
Friends	**
Subordinates	**
Family	**

Effective participants have better communication channels

Effective participants indicated they were frequently asked to consult with colleagues. The relation between consulting and effectiveness was greater for consultation with people working in other agencies (Table A82).

Table 9.24 Consultation, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Frequency of times participant is asked to consult with:</u>	<u>Rating of utilization by participants</u>
People from other agency	**
Immediate superior	**
Co-workers	**

Participants who were more satisfied with the ease of communication with others in their organization, rated themselves higher and were rated higher by the U. S. TA's (Table A83).

Table 9.25 Ease of communication, and two ratings of utilization

<u>Participant satisfaction with ease of getting ideas across to:</u>	Ratings of utilization by	
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>U. S. TA's</u>
Immediate superiors	**	*
Co-workers at the same level	**	**
Upper level management	**	
Subordinates		*
<u>Participant satisfaction with:</u>		
Freedom to introduce ideas	**	*
Ease of exchanging information with persons in related jobs	**	

Effective participants receive support from colleagues

Participants reporting high application of their training were more likely to indicate that they cooperated with persons in related jobs rather than worked alone, and that they received considerable support from their colleagues. Participants who felt that they met with envy, suspicion and resentment from their colleagues were rated low by their supervisors and U. S. TA's (Table A84).

Table 9.26 Cooperation, support, interest and three ratings of utilization

<u>Participant reports:</u>	Rating of utilization by:		
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>	<u>U. S. TA</u>
Persons in related jobs assist one another	*		
Can rely on backing from superior in presenting new ideas	**		
Can rely on backing from co-workers in presenting new ideas	*		
Associates were envious		* (-)	
Work associates suspicious of the practicality of my ideas		* (-)	* (-)
<u>Persons interested in having participant suggest new ideas:</u>			
Subordinates	**		
Co-workers	**		
Immediate superior	**		
Upper level management	**		
Top level management	*		

As shown above, the relation between interest in new ideas and utilization depends somewhat on the status of the persons the participant is reacting to. The relationship is strongest between utilization and the interest of subordinates, weakest for top-level management.

The table also indicates that participants who felt that their work associates were envious or suspicious of the practicality of their ideas received low ratings from their supervisors and the U. S. TA's.

Effective participants were sources of information about U. S.

One of the important objectives of the program is the development of favorable attitudes and accurate information about the U. S. The evidence indicates that participants who were more satisfied with their ability to use their training were much more frequently seen as a source of information about the United States (Table A85).

Effective participants became more influential on the job

Participants were asked to compare themselves with another person as similar to themselves as they could find who worked with them before U. S. training. They were also asked to make similar comparisons after training. The results indicate that the effective participants increased considerably in their influence on their co-workers, subordinates and superiors (Table A86).

Table 9.27 Influence in job, and participant ratings of utilization

Influence on:	Ratings of utilization by participants:	
	Before training	After training
Co-workers	*	**
Subordinates	*	**
Superiors		**

Effective participants are more satisfied with their jobs

Participants high in job satisfaction gave themselves higher ratings on application of training and tended to receive higher ratings from their supervisors and the U. S. TA's. Many of the relationships between participant job satisfaction and supervisor--U. S. TA ratings were positive, but not statistically significant (Table A87).

The phase of job satisfaction most closely related to utilization was satisfaction with the actual job itself, the work performed by the participant, his acceptance as a professional expert in his work area and the opportunities he has to do the things he has trained for.

Table 9. 28 Job satisfaction, and three ratings of utilization

	Rating of utilization by:		
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>	<u>U. S. TA</u>
<u>Satisfaction with:</u>			
Acceptance as a professional expert	***		
Chances to do things trained for	***		*
Progress toward career goals	***		
Recognition of work	***	*	
Present job compared with similar jobs in other organizations	**		
Authority to do the job	**		
Technical ability of people	**	**	

Participant's relation to his organization influenced utilization

Participants who were critical of their organization's lack of interest in increasing organizational effectiveness tended to give themselves lower ratings, were rated lower by their supervisors and by the U. S. TA's. All of the relations were in the same direction, but did not all reach levels of statistical significance (Table A88).

Table 9. 29 Organizational characteristics, and three ratings of utilization

	Ratings of utilization by:		
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>	<u>U. S. TA</u>
<u>Participant description of organization:</u>			
More interested in own affairs than organization	** (-)		
Afraid of trying anything new		* (-)	* (-)
Not much interested in doing a good job			* (-)
Few have had training in modern techniques		** (-)	

Similar findings are reflected in the participant's attitude toward the criteria used in his organization for promotion (Table A89).

Table 9. 30 Criteria for promotion, and two ratings of utilization

	Ratings of utilization by:	
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>
<u>Participant estimate of importance of following criteria for promotion:</u>		
Education	**	*
Quality of work	**	*
Province or town	** (-)	** (-)
Being known to management	** (-)	
Political influence	* (-)	* (-)
Region of origin and dialect	* (-)	

Participants who considered that management based promotions more on criteria reflecting the participant's achievement rated themselves high and were rated high by their supervisors. Those who felt that management used the criteria of "who you were" gave themselves lower ratings and received lower ratings from their supervisors.

Effective participants felt they learned more

Effective participants indicated they had learned more, particularly the skills they needed in their fields. They also felt they had developed broader outlooks, more systematic ways of working at their tasks and more satisfactory ways of working with people (Table A90).

Table 9. 31 Skills learned, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Ideas that helped a great deal:</u>	<u>Rating of utilization by Participant</u>
Special techniques in the field	***
Broad outlook in field	**
Scientific way of thinking	**
New ways of working with people	**

Transplanting ideas and techniques

The techniques and ideas learned in one culture need to be transplanted to another. Other sections in this report have shown that this process is often difficult. Colleagues are sometimes envious of the returned participant's foreign experience but suspicious of the practicality of his imported ideas. The participant may feel he lacks the authority to introduce changes or is blocked by an organization that puts personal benefits ahead of organizational improvement. His behavior is apt to create misunderstanding and resentment.

Transmitting ideas to the public

The participant also feels that there are difficulties in putting across new ideas to the public.

Table 9. 32 Participants' estimates of reasons public resists change

	<u>Percent Checked</u>
Telling is not enough: people must see	78
Afraid to take a chance on new ideas	65
People cling to traditional ways	51
Too uneducated; don't understand	17
People don't trust those from government	8

Number of participants - 433

Participants emphasize the need for demonstration, and feel that people's traditions, rather than their lack of education, accounts for their slowness in accepting new ideas and techniques.

Technical and professional sources of support

Support for this transition process as well as continued maintenance and development of the ideas and skills learned are provided in a number of ways. The feeling that our responsibility to participants does not end with their return is widespread. Involvement with the participants and continued responsibility for them in their role as "culture-carriers" is an avowed concern. American technicians often provide at-the-elbow support. Provisions are sometimes made for the participant to receive U. S. technical publications. Support is offered for local professional societies. Returned participants are helped financially to join U. S. professional societies. The participants themselves may maintain specific channels of communication with counterparts they have met in the U. S. as well as their own professional colleagues.

How much use do the participants make of these sources of support? How valuable does he feel these resources are? How much does he desire to use or contact these sources in the future?

Table 9.33 Technical and professional resources most*
used, valued and desired in the future, in order of preference

	<u>Present Use</u>	<u>Present Value</u>	<u>Desired Use</u>
1. <u>U. S. technical publications in your field</u>	<u>3.84</u>	<u>4.11</u>	<u>4.29</u>
2. <u>ICA and U. S. technicians and advisors</u>	<u>3.48</u>	<u>3.81</u>	<u>3.83</u>
3. <u>Filipino technical colleagues in your field</u>	<u>3.53</u>	<u>3.72</u>	<u>3.91</u>
4. <u>Professional society in the Philippines</u>	<u>3.12</u>	<u>3.33</u>	<u>3.71</u>
5. <u>Correspondence with American professional persons in the U. S.</u>	<u>2.82</u>	<u>3.24</u>	<u>3.77</u>
6. <u>Professional society in the U. S.</u>	<u>2.74</u>	<u>2.80</u>	<u>3.57</u>
7. <u>Technicians from countries other than the U.S.</u>	<u>1.98</u>	<u>2.24</u>	<u>2.81</u>
8. <u>Correspondence courses</u>	<u>1.81</u>	<u>2.06</u>	<u>2.51</u>

Number of participants - 402

Scale: 5. a great deal, to 1., none

The question was: "Indicate the amount of present use that you make of each of the resources listed, your estimate of the present value of each source which you have used, and the amount of desired use or contact that you would like in the future with each."

*Items and figures underlined are very significantly different ($p = .01$ or better) from those below the line.

U. S. Technical Assistants are highly valued

These ratings make it clear that ICA Technical Assistants are viewed as a crucial source of support for the application of new techniques and ideas. The role of the TA's is more fully discussed in another chapter of this report.

Developing returned participant teams for greater impact

Participants also want to have contact with colleagues doing similar lines of work. In considering attempts to form "alumni" associations of returned participants, more attention might be given to developing and supporting returnee teams who work in the same institutions, or have similar occupations.

Studies on the performance in the community of participants in a special workshop indicate that participants recruited from the same community and built into a real team were far more effective than individual community representatives. The performance of team members and their total impact on the community was superior to that of individuals.

The development of returned participant teams might well be an answer to the problem of how to keep participants from vanishing like drops in the sea. The impression of staff members from the interviews is that returned participants often are isolated from their colleagues and more apt to feel frustrated by the difficulties of implementing their training than gratified with the results of their efforts. If the returned participants are to produce catalytic effects within their organizations, they need the social support of persons with comparable experience and influence in the accomplishment of change. In Labor Union leadership, for example, the younger U. S. trained participants formed a mutually supportive group, with the result that members of the group reported considerably increased impact of new ideas learned during training on the direction of the Philippine labor movement.

U. S. technical publications are highly valued

Participants want to maintain and develop their professional abilities through having technical publications from the U. S. available, more than by having correspondence courses.

Keeping in touch with U. S. professionals and friends

Referring back to Table 9.33, it can be seen that participants want to have increased communication with professionals in the U. S. One would expect this to heighten morale, and perhaps also to enhance future utilization of U. S. training.

One possible obstacle to such increased correspondence with U. S. professional persons can be guessed at from the difficulty many participants had keeping in touch with their friends in the United States. Some 76 percent said they were too busy to write, and only 2 percent reported that they had lost interest in maintaining contacts with their friends in the U. S. Part of follow-up might be to encourage participants to write to their friends and to professional persons in the U. S.

Follow-up support and utilization ratings

1. Participants who rated their own utilization high were more likely to say they had a great deal of contact with ICA-U. S. Technicians, valued these contacts, and desired more. The relation between follow-up support by TA's and utilization was greater than for any other kind of follow-up support (Table A93).
2. Overall, participants rating their own utilization high were more likely to have used nearly all of the different forms of follow-up support.
3. Although not all of the relationships were statistically significant, there was a trend for participants rating themselves high to place a higher value on these sources of follow-up support.
4. Again, while not all of the relations reached statistical significance, the effective participants rating themselves high tended to desire more follow-up activities.
5. There was also a tendency for supervisors to give higher ratings to participants who desired more follow-up activities. However, there was no relationship between participants' reported use and value of follow-up activities, and the utilization ratings by their supervisors or U. S. TA's. The relation between supervisor ratings and participants desire for follow-up activities was stronger for participants indicating a desire for membership in a professional society in the Philippines. The relation was in a positive direction, but not significant, for participants desiring U. S. technical publications, contact with Filipino technical colleagues and a professional society in the U. S. In sum, the supervisors tended to give higher ratings to participants who wanted contact with Filipinos, or with Americans at-a-distance via publications and memberships in societies.
6. There was also a trend, but not statistically significant, for the U. S. TA's to rate lower those participants who indicated that they desired more follow-up via Filipino professional societies or Filipino colleagues. This relation was quite small, but in the opposite direction from both the supervisor ratings and the participant self-ratings.
7. The attitude of supervisors and participants seems to be different from that of the U. S. TA's in their attitude toward local sources of follow-up support. It may be that participants who want Filipino support are seen by the TA's as rejecting ICA support, while participants who want ICA support are seen by supervisors as rejecting Filipino follow-up support.

Table 9.34 Attitudes toward sources of support, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Sources of support:</u>	Rating of utilization by Participant		
	<u>Present use</u>	<u>Present value</u>	<u>Desired use</u>
ICA-U.S. Technicians and advisors	***	**	*
U. S. technical publications in your field	**		
Technicians from countries other than U.S.	**		
Correspondence with American professional persons in U. S.	*		
Professional society in U. S.	*		
Filipino technical colleagues	*		
Professional society in the Philippines			**

Other sources of support

Some ideas were not evaluated in this survey, as the participants had little or no experience with them. They might be mentioned briefly here.

a. Development of change skills

Participants need to acquire skills in introducing change without arousing resentment and misunderstanding. Opportunities for thinking through the problems of transition and developing skills in the role of "change-agent" might be placed in the program prior to the participant's return, in a special workshop, or concurrent with his return.

b. Program of short institutes

Short institutes in the content area will support the participant and can often reach strategically placed higher level personnel. These institutes can create a readiness-to-change on the part of the persons whom the participant is dependent on by introducing to them the newer concepts and techniques in the field.

c. Follow-through interviews

Specific channels of communication with the participant may be kept open through "end-use" appraisal of participants' efforts to utilize training. These may be conducted by personal interview by Technical Assistants as part of their regular function or via mailed interviews. Participants view almost any contact with TA's as supportive and helpful. In either case, the interviews should be systematized and suitable for statistical summary by the Training Office as well as individual examination by the responsible program officials.

Factors influencing supervisor ratings of participants

In this section are summarized the factors that can be said to have systematically influenced the rating of the participant by his supervisor. The conclusions are drawn from an examination of all of the items related to the supervisor ratings of participant application of training.

1. Participant characteristics:

Participants rated high by their supervisors were somewhat younger, apt to be higher in social status than their parents. Other members of their families were more likely to have visited the United States.

They did not see themselves as advocates of change. The participants rated high by their supervisors reported making fewer improvements in their jobs prior to their training. In their reports on the kind of changes they might make, they were more apt to describe changes as a direct carry-over of a practice they had observed or learned. Lower rated participants were more likely to describe the modifications necessary to accomplish the change. Interpreting these findings, supervisors rated higher the participants who were less threatening to them.

2. Criteria for selection:

Participants rated high by their supervisors attributed more importance to special needs of the project and their previous work experience, and less importance to seniority and their supervisor's initiative in getting them selected. At the same time, however, high rated participants said that political influence was more important in their own selection. It appears that supervisors gave higher ratings to persons who were qualified to be selected in projects requiring the use of their skills or persons actually having political influence. They gave lower ratings to people who felt that their length of service or supervisor's influence had been chiefly important in getting them selected.

3. Attitudes toward training:

Supervisor's gave high ratings to participants when the supervisor was satisfied with the adequacy of their training.

4. Attitudes toward U. S. experience:

Participants indicating that they were frustrated in non-training desires in the U. S. --they had hoped to see more places or buy more things to bring home--were rated lower by their supervisors.

5. Attitude toward Philippines:

Favorable attitudes toward the Philippines by the participant tended to be associated with high ratings of the participant by his supervisor. The higher rated participant expressed more interest in doing something for his country, or acting as a representative of the Philippines while in the U. S.

6. Assignment of participants:

Ratings of the participant were positively associated with the adequacy of the participant's assignment, as judged both by the participant and his supervisor. A number of different items all point to the same obvious conclusion--the participant needs an assignment which provides him the opportunity to use his training.

7. Attitudes to the job:

Participant satisfaction with his job, was closely associated with his rating by the supervisor. High rated participants were more satisfied with the recognition they received for their work, the authority they had to do their jobs, and the chances to do the work they had trained for.

8. Availability of trained staff and materiel:

High rated participants commented more favorably on the technical ability of people in their agencies and the facilities available.

9. Attitudes toward acceptance of new ideas and practices:

There was a strong association between participant opinions of the acceptance of new ideas in his agency and the supervisor's ratings. Low rated participants complained that their associates were envious and resisted new ideas. They complained that their organizations were not interested in change.

10. Relations to supervisors:

High rated participants were more satisfied with their immediate supervisors and their supervisors were more satisfied with them. They were more satisfied with the ease of communication with their immediate supervisors and their high technical qualifications. In turn, the supervisors compared the high rated participants favorably on a number of work related attributes, such as efficiency, skill and leadership.

11. Dissemination:

High rated participants were more effective disseminators of their skills and knowledge. Supervisors reported them as taking part more often in giving in-service training, developing educational aids, and other forms of spread of ideas.

12. Attitudes toward criteria for promotion:

Participant attitudes toward the criteria used for selection in his organization were strongly related to his supervisor's rating. High rated participants said that education and quality of work were important criteria for promotion. Low rated participants said that being known to management, political influence, seniority, family background and province or town of birth were more important criteria. High-rated participants stressed achievement. Low rated stressed ascription.

13. Desire for follow-up support:

There was some tendency for supervisors to give higher ratings to participants who expressed more interest in further follow-up support activities.

14. Career benefits:

High rated participants were very much more satisfied with the career benefits resulting from their training. Many items were statistically significant in the same direction. Training helped them increase their salaries, get promotions, get better jobs, and so on.

15. Learning:

High rated participants reported learning more from their training, both specific skills and a broader outlook in their fields.

16. Changes in social behavior:

Participants reporting having changed in their social behavior, either on or off the job, were rated low by their supervisors. Participants reporting that their co-workers approved their attitudes were rated high. Participants who said they learned habits and attitudes their friends and family disapprove of were rated low. In general, items indicating change in social behavior were negatively related to the supervisor ratings.

Summary

Participants rated high by their supervisors tended to be younger, socially mobile members of families that had humble social origins but now had members who traveled abroad for their education. They were not zealous advocates of change, and were much less likely to report having changed their social behavior as a result of observing the host culture. They approved of their supervisors and their supervisors approved of them. They were satisfied with their training, their job assignments and very satisfied with career progress. They were satisfied with their training experience, and less likely to feel they had

missed opportunities while in the U. S. They had favorable attitudes toward their organizations, the qualifications of their colleagues, their technical ability, interest in change, the availability of suitable facilities, and the fairness of the criteria used for promotion. They tended to be a little more identified with the Philippines, were more active in disseminating the ideas they had learned, and a little more interested in follow-up support activities.

Factors influencing the TA ratings

1. TA ratings were influenced by the participant's attitude to his job:

An examination of the relation between the U. S. TA rating, the supervisor rating, and the statements made by the participant show a much more intimate and systematic connection between the supervisor ratings and the participant's statements than was true for the TA rating. Nevertheless, the participant responses related to the TA ratings of application indicated one systematic factor that appears to have influenced the TA's ratings of participants.

2. From the participant data we find that TA's tended to rate high those participants who were more satisfied with the opportunities provided by their jobs. They gave higher ratings to persons who were:

- Satisfied with their jobs
- Benefited from their training more than they expected to
- Free to introduce ideas
- Satisfied with chances to do things trained for
- Confident in their skills and abilities
- Able to rely on co-workers to back them up
- Satisfied with ease of communications with subordinates, co-workers, and immediate superior.

3. TA's tended to give lower ratings to participants who complained about the organization's lack of interest in using their training. The low rated participants were more likely to say that:

- Subordinates and co-workers are not interested in receiving training
- Training should be more directly related to the job
- Organization is not much interested in doing a good job
- Work associates are suspicious of the practicality of my ideas
- Organization is afraid to try anything new

4. TA ratings were influenced by supervisors' opinions of the participant

An examination of the items in the supervisor questionnaire and the TA rating of the participant indicate that the supervisor's opinion of the participant influenced the TA's rating.

a. The TA's gave higher ratings to participants described favorably by the supervisors as having:

- Leadership skills
- Ability and intelligence
- Ability to work with others

b. The TA's tended to give lower ratings to participants described unfavorably by supervisors:

- Has too many new ideas
- Has personal characteristics that prevent his using training
- Doesn't adjust easily to job requirements
- Has difficulty accepting directions from superior

Although the TA ratings were related to supervisor opinions and evaluations, they were not related (or related in some way not yet clear) to supervisor reports of the participants' actual performance. That is, there was either an absence of relation or a negative relation between supervisor description of ways the participant used his training and TA ratings. As an example of the latter, participants whose supervisors reported that they had given in-service training or taught classes outside of their regular jobs were rated lower by the TA's.

5. TA ratings influenced by exposure to participant and supervisor opinions:

This finding of the influence of participant attitudes toward his job and supervisor opinions of the participant on TA ratings, and lack of relationship between TA ratings and characteristics of the participant or his performance as related by himself and his supervisor, lead to the following conclusion:

The U. S. TA's evaluations of the participant were influenced chiefly by exposure to the opinions and attitudes of the participant about his job and the opinions of the supervisor about the participant. The TA evaluations do not seem to have been influenced, by, or in any systematic way related to characteristics of the participants, or their job performance as seen by participants or their supervisors.

6. Participant characteristics and TA ratings:

Although the U. S. TA rating of the participant was influenced mostly by participant attitudes toward his job, there were several other factors related to the TA ratings that are suggestive:

a. Participants rated higher by TA's tended to be:

- Younger **
- Perceived greater increase in their social standing, compared with their parents *
- Earn lower salaries *

b. Participants rated higher by the TA's tended to see themselves as less influential.

The higher rated participants had less interest in politics, were less likely to cite political influence as important in their selection, said they had less influence on their co-workers (*) and subordinates, had less family connections and prestige.

- c. Participants rated lower by the TA's were more overtly oriented to the United States. They were more likely to attribute favorable attitudes to the Philippines on the part of Americans. They were somewhat more likely (not statistically significant) to recall having spent time with Americans in the U. S. in various activities. They were more likely to say that their friends think they are "too American." (Note that those persons rated low by the TA's were not differentiated on the basis of having adopted specific American behavior patterns, but were more "American" in their pictures of themselves.)

Summarizing, the data indicate the TA's tended to rate the younger, lower earning, socially mobile participants higher. They rated the participants who claimed to be influential and overtly more "American" lower.

Agreement among raters

Was there any tendency for the raters--the participant himself, his supervisor, and the U. S. Technical Assistant, to agree about the conditions that lead to high or low employment of training? We examined all the factors that showed an association with the ratings by any of the three and picked out those that were either statistically significantly related to utilization for all three raters, or for which the relations, while not all statistically significant, were in the same direction.

The findings all point to one conclusion. All of the factors on which the three raters show some degree of agreement are related to (1) the participant's abilities and skills on the job, (2) his attitudes toward the benefits of his training, (3) his attitudes toward his job, and (4) the opportunities he has received to use his training. The items on which there is agreement show a coherent picture. They are the mutually consistent kinds of participant behaviors which can most readily be observed and noted by all of the raters.

1. Abilities and skills:

Those participants who were judged by their supervisors as having more skills and ability on the job were rated highest by their supervisors, the participants and the U. S. TA's. The relations between these ratings of participant skills and abilities by the supervisors and participant self ratings of employment of training were high and all but one statistically significant. The least relationship showed between the supervisor ratings of skills and abilities and the U. S. TA ratings of utilization of training (Table A106).

The specific skills and abilities rated by the supervisors were:

- Initiative
- Contribution to morale
- Leadership ability
- Ability to work with others
- Ability and intelligence
- Prior work experience

2. Benefits of training:

The participants attitudes toward the benefits derived from the training experience were also associated with the ratings of utilization. Participants' who said they gained more skill and knowledge than they had expected to, and who, overall, gained more from their overseas sojourn than they expected to, rated themselves highly, and tended to be rated more highly by the other two raters (Table A108).

3. Opportunity to use training:

Opportunity to use training on the job was also associated with high utilization ratings. Two factors were related: Participants' ratings of their opportunity to use their training in their present jobs, as compared to the ones they had before they left, and their ratings of their own opportunity to employ their training, compared to other persons with similar training (Table A109).

4. Satisfaction with job:

Another cluster of participant attitudes associated with the ratings indicates that participants who are satisfied with their jobs, rated themselves as high utilizers as well as receiving high ratings from the others. First, their jobs and attributes indicating a high degree of receptivity to the participant's new skills and know-how. The people he works with have technical ability; he finds it easy to communicate with his immediate superior; and he does not feel that his organization is afraid to try anything new.

Secondly, the participant is satisfied with the work itself. He has a chance to do things he trained for; he gets recognition for his work. Third, he is satisfied with the benefits he gets from doing his job. He has received considerable increase in salary; his promotion chances are better than others, and he is making headway in the direction of his career objectives. On an overall composition index of job satisfaction, he shows more satisfaction (Table A110).

Summarizing the important points where the three raters agree

1. Supervisor ratings of participant work-related skills and abilities suggests that supervisor ratings can be used in the selection of participants.
2. Adequate job assignment following training is a necessary condition for full employment of training.
3. Participants who might realistically be expected to gain skills and knowledge, as well as other benefits, from the training experience are more likely to be successful advocates of their skills and know-how.
4. Selection should aim at people who are moving ahead or who show promise of career benefits from the training, salary increases and promotions. The training experience should fit the personal goals of the participants.
5. Utilization is highest when it is encouraged by the organization, when the immediate supervisor of the participant is interested in supporting the participant and communicating with him, and when other trained persons are available to facilitate the new ideas. The transference of ideas requires accessible channels of communication between the communicator and the potential recipient. Transference also requires an attitude of acceptance on the part of the recipients.

10. IMPACT ON THE PARTICIPANT

In the last chapter we examined the fate of the new skills and knowledge with which the participant returned in the context of his immediate work environment. But in the last analysis, the transfer of ideas is a matter of the particular relationship between the carrier of new ideas and a potential receiver or adopter to whom the ideas are unknown or relatively alien. It comes down to a matter of communication and influence between people.

Under what conditions does the returned participant become an active advocate, a vigorous promulgator of the ideas he has learned? His foreign experience, although relatively brief, has shown him considerable contrasts in behavior in the host culture and his own. Upon his return to his previous cultural environment he learns the extent of change in his tastes, behavior and ideology as he notes his own behavior and the reactions of others to him. To the extent that the returnee has changed, he finds himself straddling two ways of life. He is not entirely content with either. He does not like everything he saw in the U. S., and he wants to make changes in his own culture. He wants to enjoy the indigenous satisfactions he has always enjoyed and at the same time introduce changes that are more to his liking.

The potential recipients are confronted with the advocate of ideas stemming from a different but friendly culture. Their acceptance of innovation depends, among other things, on their attitudes toward the innovator himself, the effects the practice might be expected to have on important values for the recipient, and the recipient's attitude toward the country of origin of the new ideas.

The vigor and extent of advocacy of his new knowledge by the homecoming participant is then a matter of his motivation to promulgate this knowledge, his identification with these new skills and associated attitudes, and the esteem of the potential recipients for the innovator, his specific skills, and the country of origin of the innovations. These are some of the determinants of the personal relations between advocate and recipient, and upon them depends the successful transfer of ideas from one culture to another. In this section we examine some of these determinants:

From our evidence we think there are a number of types of effects which contribute to the participants employment of his training. These are:

1. Changes in the career of the participant and his influence potential. The training may have no effect, a retarding effect, or may move the participant forward at a much faster rate in his career. These important changes are associated with his training and will effect both his capacity and motivation to utilize the training.
2. Changes in social prestige, recognition and perceived expertise. The prestige of the homecomer with his work associates in the area he has been trained in is decisive in acceptance or rejection. What is the influence - position of the returned participant? With what groups does his influence increase?
3. What is the value of the training experience in the eyes of the participant and his work associates? Is the educational opportunity considered a means of enjoying foreign travel at minimum expense, or a real opportunity to gain needed and wanted skills and knowledge? What is the meaning of this foreign experience to the individual and to the work and social community from which he came?

4. Changes in authority relationships and cooperation among work associates.

Acquisition of more democratic standards of behavior is not an incidental consequence of the program. Attitudes that promote supportive relationships between superior and subordinate and that lessen the vast social cleavages between superior and subordinate facilitate the transfer of training. Similarly, the development of more friendly, cooperative, interested relationships among co-workers at the same level will increase the exchange of information and actual helping relationships.

5. The development of pro-productivity attitudes. The use of new skills demands the learning of associated attitudes. The use of skills requires increased initiative and industriousness, a higher value placed on work, and the organization and integration of behavior for the achievement of objectives beyond the immediate future.

6. Development of pro-American attitudes. Do the returnees develop a genuine interest in U. S. Philippine cooperation?

Changes in the participant have important consequences for the effectiveness of the program. They are intimately related to the participant's ability to enjoy his new skills and know-how. As the returnee moves into better positions, he has greater potentiality for using his training. Similarly, the respect and recognition given him make him more influential. A high evaluation of his educational experience by work associates increases his acceptance as an expert. Enhancements of his social skills increase his ability to work with other persons and gain their acceptance of his ideas. Most important, the acquiring of technical information and know-how will have little effect if it does not have an underpinning of personal interest and motivation to contribute to productivity. Increased motivation needs to be imbedded in work attitudes which encourage systematic planning, disciplined effort, realistic time perspective, greater organization of activities and simplicity of procedures. Finally, the development of pro-American attitudes and feelings is not an incidental effect of the program, but instrumental to the maintenance of successful relations with Philippine organizations.

Extent of change

New experiences, unless drastic or compelling, do not change people. They tend to bring out existing dispositions, channel them and reinforce them. The American experience served to crystallize existing tendencies rather than convert. The interviewers, rating each of the participants, on the amount of change which the U. S. experience seemed to have brought about, estimated that only five percent of the participants, on the basis of what they said and did during the interview, might be regarded as having changed a great deal. Fifteen percent of the returnees were rated as having changed somewhat.

In addition to the amount of change in participants brought about by the training experience, the interviewers were asked to make an overall judgment of the ways in which the returnee had changed.

Table 10.1 Ways in which interviewers saw participants as changed

	<u>Percent</u>
Most changes in skills and knowledge, with some personal, social and attitude changes	38
Both changes equal	47
Mostly personal, social and attitudinal change, with some changes in skills and knowledge	16

For a substantial number, the experience resulted chiefly in changes in their technical ability. A small number was considered to have changed for the most part in their personal and social behavior. Half of the participants changed in both ways. Considering the length of the training experience, the amount of personal and social change is quite remarkable. Sixteen percent of the participants said they had not changed at all. One third indicated that their friends, families, and work associates had noted no changes at all in them (Table A50). Forty-one percent indicated that nothing they had learned or observed resulted in their behaving or feeling in any way differently than their friends, families and associates. The differences described were rarely sources of conflict between them and others.

The participants moved back into their social and job orbits with little difficulty, and experienced little conflict as a result of their experiences. The changes that took place in them were mainly beneficial. Their careers were jogged along a notch. Their skill assets increased. Their social capital rose. They changed socially in personal character and work attitudes in ways they personally approved, and which met with little active resentment from others (Table A51). Along with the intrinsic enjoyment of the new experiences in the U. S., the long range benefits were also favorable (Table A52).

Career value

The returnees felt that their U. S. training had improved their life chances, but not as much as they had expected. The table below illustrates this finding:

Table 10.2 Expected and actual benefits of U. S. training

	Percent responding "a great deal"	
	<u>Expectations</u>	<u>Actual benefits</u>
Improve promotion chances	63	49
Get better job	47	34
Increase salary	46	31

Number of interviews - 434

Many of the participants expected that the additional training and experience would be of great value to them in their careers. For many participants these expectations were fulfilled, but a substantial number were disappointed.

What was the actual situation of the returnees? At least half received promotions upon their return. Of the 167 persons previously evaluated by the Technical Assistants, a content analysis of their comments in the USOM biographical files indicates that approximately half of these received salary increases and promotions. Similarly, almost half of the participants themselves reported that the jobs they returned to represented a promotion (Table A53). The returnees also reported that their present grades or salaries were higher than the position occupied when they left for training (Tables A54 and A55).

Despite this obvious improvement for many of the returnees, they were typically less satisfied with the career benefits than some of the other consequences of training (Table A5). There are several reasons why this may be so: First, the participants seem to have had unrealistically high expectations about the job gains to be expected from U. S. training. Secondly, a comparison of the discrepancies of their own standard of living, salaries and jobs with their U. S. counterparts may have induced some dissatisfaction with their own lot. Third, they may have been dissatisfied with their own rates of progress in the government bureaucracy, or industry, particularly relative to others in similar jobs who did not receive U. S. training.

The data indicate that the participants did indeed have higher expectations about the value of their U. S. training than were subsequently realized.

Table 10.3 Help expected from U. S. visit, that actually received, and net gain or loss: selected career items.

Item	A	B	Net loss (-) or gain (+)
	Help expected mean	Help received mean	
Increase salary	4.82	4.12	-.70
Get better job	4.73	4.30	-.43
Increase promotion chances	5.44	5.02	-.42
Obtain academic degree	2.96	2.66	-.30
Gain social prestige	4.85	5.20	+.35

Number of participants - 423

Scale for A and B: 7, a great deal, to 1, not at all

Participants expected some help from the U. S. visit in getting increased salary. In terms of the help they felt they actually received, they suffered the greatest loss on this item. Similarly, they felt they had actually received less help than they expected in getting a better job, increasing their promotion chances and obtaining an academic degree. They felt they gained more social prestige than they expected to, however. (Table A5.)

Comparison of their lots with that of their U. S. counterparts, was a sensitive topic for many. Very few returnees indicated that the trip had resulted in improving their standard of living, as the obstacles to getting an improved home and electrical appliances are formidable. At the same time in a measure of job satisfaction, most dissatisfaction was expressed toward salaries (Table A34).

What were the career values of the U. S. experience? First, ninety-percent of the participants reported they had gained in professional skills and knowledge. Not only did they see themselves as having increased their technical resources, they felt that other persons considered them as experts in the fields in which they had studied or observed. As reported previously, the returnees indicated that they were frequently consulted by their work associates and had more influence, and received increased respect and recognition. For some of the participants, this proved somewhat embarrassing. A number commented that the expertise assigned to them by their work associates was far greater than that they actually achieved.

Secondly, the returnees felt they had significantly improved their life chances as a consequence of their additional training. They had advanced their careers and improved their promotion chances. In the opinion of their supervisors, they also had high potential for promotion (Table A56). Although the kind of person selected for training is also likely to be promoted, the skill improvement is probably a direct cause of their feelings of career improvements. Education and quality of performance were considered to be the two most important criteria for promotion by the returned participants (Table A57). Finally, for at least one-third of the sample, these career gains were already reflected in higher job status and salary increases (Table A52).

The participants evidently returned to their jobs and readjusted with little difficulty or little sign of overt conflict. They did not feel that their experience had made them significantly different from their work associates. In answer to a series of questions and probes about the acquisition of attitudes and behavior that were different from their work associates, friends and family, a large number, forty percent, replied that they did not think or behave differently in any way. Of those who described differences, very few described discrepancies that their work associates would not approve (Table A58). Most described differences that would be approved by their fellows, but contrasted with current practices. These were differences in the efficiency and organization of work behavior, and adoption of egalitarian practices in the office, socially and in the family. The greatest difficulty, although not considered as very much of a difficulty was the reaction of their co-workers. Their associates were first, envious of their experience, and second suspicious of the practicality of their ideas.

Certainly, the time spent in training away from home and their jobs was not considered to be a professional handicap. Very few persons reported that they lost contact with persons of influence or lost opportunities for advancement while they were away (Table A38). However, there is a self-selective factor operating. Persons who are afraid they may lose out while they are away are less likely than others to consider additional training. In the Philippines at least, losing opportunities for advancement was not an unanticipated unfavorable consequence of foreign training, as has been reported for trainees from some other countries.

Finally, we can gauge the participant's attitude toward his career from a set of questions about factors influencing his satisfaction with his job. The evidence indicates that he is more satisfied with the way other people behave toward him, his standing, or job status, than he is with the actual performance of the work he does, or the financial rewards. He is most satisfied with the esteem, recognition and authority granted him. He is less satisfied with his actual job, the chances to do things he trained for, and the technical ability of the people he works with. He is least satisfied with his salary.

Table 10.4 Satisfaction with aspects of present job

	<u>Mean</u>
Recognition of work	5.51
Acceptance as professional expert	5.47
Authority to do job	5.23
Progress towards career goals	5.22
Present job compared with similar jobs in other organizations	5.18
Chances to do things trained for	5.09
Technical ability of people	4.95
Present salary	3.87

Number of participants - 429

Scale: 7, very well satisfied, to 1, very dissatisfied

Effective participants received many career benefits

Participants who reported receiving considerable advantage in their careers as a result of the additional training gave themselves higher ratings and received higher ratings from their supervisors on their application of training. Utilization of training requires that participants be highly motivated and interested in using their training. These findings suggest that one of the main criteria for selection of a participant for training should be the extent to which he is likely to benefit in his career from the training.

High self-raters made less money from their main jobs prior to selection (Table A99). The participant's present salary was also negatively related to their ratings of utilization. The Industrial Development Center participants, who had the highest salaries, received the shortest training and were lower than average in their self-ratings of utilization. In contrast, the U. S. TA's gave higher ratings to participants with higher salaries.

With respect to changes in salary level and promotions the ratings were consistent. Participants receiving increases in salary were rated higher by all three groups. Participants who received promotions upon their return gave themselves much higher ratings on application of U. S. training and were also rated higher by their supervisors.

Similar findings were obtained for the participants' attitude toward his chances for promotion and the overall impact of the training on his job and career (Table A103).

Table 10.5 Career benefits, and three ratings of utilization

<u>Career benefits:</u>	<u>Ratings of utilization by:</u>		
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>	<u>U.S. TA</u>
Present salary	** (-)		*
Increase in salary	**		
Present grade or salary compared with that before leaving	**	**	
Received promotion upon return (file data)	*		
Received promotion upon return	***		
Chances for promotion compared to others after training	**	**	
U. S. training helped improve pro- motion chances	**		
U. S. training helped get better job	**	**	
U. S. training helped advance parti- cipant's career	**		

Social capital

The returned participant shifts roles from student to worker, and his influence relations also change. Learning new skills and ideas as a visitor abroad, the participant must allow himself to be influenced by his teachers. We have indicated that the more favorable an attitude the visitor has toward Americans, and toward the professors and staff of plants where he is observing, the more likely he is to accept and associate himself with the techniques and attitudes he is learning. Back in the job, the participant is the source of influence; similarly, the more acceptable he is to his work associates, colleagues and friends, the more likely they are to accept him as a source of influence.

The evidence clearly indicates that the returnees have made large gains in their social capital. In fact, this gain far surpassed their expectations. Comparing a rating of expected benefits to be derived from the trip to the U. S. with a list of actual benefits derived, the largest gain was in increased social prestige (Table A5). The returnees were pleasantly surprised by this change in the attitudes of their family, friends and work associates. In answer to a question about the advantages accrued to them personally, one-third specifically described the fact that their social value had been considerably enhanced.

Along with the glamor of foreign experience, the acquisition of new skills and knowledge, and increased social prestige, the returnees felt they had gained considerable skill in relating to other people. Moving from a familiar environment where the rules of social behavior were clear, the visitors found themselves confronted daily with the task of dealing with strangers in a foreign land. As a result, many felt they had gained social skills far beyond what they would have achieved without being subject to this stress experience.

These gains in technical and social skills accompanied by increased social prestige were reflected in the everyday life of the returned participant. He felt more confident of himself in relation to both his work and to other persons. He felt more comfortable in social situations. Most of the participants led fairly narrowly circumscribed social lives and their associations with other persons were limited. Now they felt more equipped to deal with strangers and experienced less discomfort in new situations (Table A59).

Associated with these changes in skills, increased social and self-esteem, and social ease, many of the participants felt they had increased their capacities to express themselves, to speak in favor of their own ideas, and to carry out their activities in an organized manner. In sum, these social and personal gains increased the influence potentiality of the returnees. It increased both their own capabilities for exercising influence and the acceptance of that influence by the associates of the returnees. These changes in influence potential cannot be disregarded in any planned program of social change, unless the conditions are such that acceptance of the returnee on the basis of a need for his technical competence alone can be assured. Where the returnee must use his skills in an environment which is not receptive, the returnee's influence potential and the change-readiness of his work associates is crucial. The problem remains, however, of converting this influence potential into the actual exertion of influence. The returnee is likely to accept the rewards of his increased technical and social skills without endangering his position by advocating unpopular changes. There are two possible areas of solution: increasing the motivation of the participant to introduce changes, or increasing the acceptance and motivation for change by others in his work environment, in a program of planned change.

Educational value

The Filipino is intensely eager to acquire additional education.¹ Currently, there are several good universities and technical schools, and a number of "diploma mills" which attempt to satisfy the desire for education with the all-important degree. The desires of the participants for additional training and degree acquisition must be seen in the light of this striving for education and the symbol of learning provided by a degree. For lower and middle class persons, the main channel of mobility is education. Although education is not the criterion for promotion, it is a certification of eligibility. There are still relatively few industries and manufacturing plants and therefore little opportunity to change one's status in life through industrial channels. For the white-collar worker, the main source of employment is the government. The government jobholder is often the main source of support of his extended family, as many as twenty or so person

Government jobs are a natural mobility channel. The machinery of government has always been in the hands of the upper class. It is also highly centralized, providing a clear-cut image of power and wealth at the top of the structure. Civil service jobs are low-paying, but public office is seen by some as providing opportunities for private exploitation.

The very fact of being selected for training in the U. S. , and the training experience, increased the status of the participants. Since, at present, the educational institutions in the Philippines are not equivalent to those in the United States, the foreign educated are not targets of hostility from graduates of domestic institutions. It is conceivable that if U. S. -Philippine relations deteriorate, if the Filipinos become more nationalistic, and if a better system of higher education is developed, a U. S. education may become less of an asset and even a liability. Comparable difficulties have been observed at different periods for the foreign educated in other countries such as Japan, and more recently Egypt.

The returned participants in the Philippines at the time of the survey in 1958, valued highly the U. S. educational experience and the mark of distinction this conferred upon them. They felt they had acquired a broad outlook in their vocational fields, and secondly acquired special techniques in their field, new skills at working with people and a more scientific way of thinking (Table A60). More generally, the participants felt they had broadened their social and cultural outlook. Nearly half of them mentioned this broadening effect in the oral interview. Let us examine, however, what lies behind this term. How broad did their outlook become?

The evidence is scanty and based on surmise from the interviews and questionnaire where the participants were asked a number of broad questions to allow them to state what effect the U. S. experience had on them, as they saw it, and as they saw it reflected in the eyes of their families, friends, and work associates. First, the returnees placed considerable stress on their learning about the U. S. One-fifth of the sample mentioned this as one of the chief ways they have changed, their increased knowledge about Americans, the people and the way of life. In another series of questions, "Knowledge of the U. S." turned out to be one of the chief benefits derived from their U. S. experience (Table A5). This finding replicates those of other studies of the visitor returned from abroad. Conspicuously absent, however, in contrast to the usual remarks of returnees, is the statement that the trip abroad has given the visitor new insight and perspective into his own country. Returnees from other countries have often stated that they found their own country while visiting another. From the perspective of contrast they could see clearly delineated the features of their home country. Although we gave them ample opportunity to say so, in the written questionnaire and the oral interviews, there were few such

¹See bibliographical reference number 9.

comments. In fact, when we asked the participant to compare himself before and after training with other persons on the basis of a number of criterion, there was least average change from before to after training, in "knowledge of political, social and economic factors in the Philippines." Similarly, there was little indication on the part of the participants that they had gained increased perspective on international relations, or U. S. -Philippine relations.

Changes in social behavior

Next to changes in skills and know-how, the most frequently reported change in the participants was in the area of interpersonal relationships. Three-fifths of the participants spontaneously reported in the oral interviews that they had learned new ways of behaving toward other persons either in work relations with their superiors, subordinates and colleagues, or towards their friends and family. How did these changes in attitude and behavior toward other persons come about?

As we have described in reporting on the participants' experiences in the U. S., many of his observations of American interpersonal behavior struck him as clearly contrasting with standards of behavior in the Philippines. He noted the egalitarian patterns of superior-to-subordinate relationships, the general friendliness and willingness to help expressed among colleagues and friends regardless of status distinction. In the family, he noted the sharing of influence and responsibilities and the social closeness of husbands, wives and children.

In contrast, the Philippine pattern seems to lie between U. S. patterns and those characteristics of Asian countries in general. Superior-subordinate relations are characterized by authoritarianism, -- deference and even subservience toward one's superiors, and disdain for subordinates. Obligation and concern for members of the extended family are deep and real, but feelings of helpfulness and interest do not generally extend to strangers. Similarly, the family relationships are characterized by a strict division of labor, domination of the patriarch of the extended family, and deference for males and elders. Children fall at the bottom of the status ladder at a point very distant from the male elders.

Some of the participants commented amusedly at their own skills in adapting to American culture and the insight gained in visiting American homes. After dinner, they put on aprons and helped the American parents dispose of the dinner dishes. Such an action is nearly impossible for the Filipino at home. He or she is likely to have a servant to accomplish the physical tasks. Physical labor in the home is considered as degrading in status, and males seldom share the household responsibilities.

A measure of attitudes and social approval

Some participants noted these differences between the Philippines and the U. S. without feeling any pressure to change in the direction of U. S. patterns of behavior. It was our impression that the increased prestige and status afforded by the training experience may even have supported and strengthened their authoritarian behavior. But the majority evidently felt some pressure to change in the direction of American standards. The extent to which these verbal reports of changes made to Filipino interviewers were accompanied by actual changes in behavior is difficult to estimate. The changes that actually take place in behavior are in those areas of life where the participant has the most power and meets with the least resistance from other persons.

Measurements were made of the position taken by the participant on a set of statements for which one might expect differences of opinion between Americans and Filipinos. On each statement the participant was asked to express his own attitude on a scale (Table A61) and indicate what position he thought the following groups would take with respect to that same statement: his family, friends, co-workers, superiors and Americans he knew best. Secondly, we asked him to indicate on a scale the extent to which these persons would approve or disapprove of the position he took. The participant's statement of how he had changed will be discussed along with this measure of the extent to which he felt these changes made him different from Americans and other Filipinos, and their resultant approval or disapproval of his attitudes.

Changes in interpersonal relations

One-third of the participants mentioned that they had changed in the area of superior-subordinate relations. The examples given specifically cited changes in behavior toward subordinates rather than superiors. The returnees cited their increased egalitarianism, friendliness of behavior and encouragement of independence in their subordinates. On the question of formality or informality as the preferred mode of relation between superior and subordinate, the participants were, on the average, in the middle of the scale. They indicated that their co-workers were entirely in agreement with them on this issue. They saw their friends, family, and American associates as being alike and advocating more informality. Their superiors, however, wanted a good deal more formality in these relationships. How did the participants estimate the responses of others to his position? They felt that their families would be most approving, and considerably more approving than his American acquaintances. Their superiors were estimated to be least approving of their attitude. This confirms the guess that changes in superior-subordinate relations mentioned by the returnee were more likely to be changes in his behavior toward his subordinates.

The participants also mentioned having developed more friendly outgoing attitudes toward their co-workers and work associates at their own level. With respect to how quickly one should show friendliness toward strangers in a work situation, the participants reported themselves as being similar to Americans in showing friendliness more quickly than would the other Filipino groups. They also felt that Americans would be more approving of this attitude.

On the issue of the importance of complete understanding among co-workers, the participants indicated that they felt it was the most essential. Their American acquaintances and co-workers were closer to their opinions and their friends the furthest away. Their friends were also the least approving.

One-third of the participants reported that the emotional tone of their relationships to other people had changed. They were more tolerant, broadminded, more friendly, pleasant, congenial, and interested in people. Other persons, they reported, had noted this change in their manner, their friendliness and pleasantness. This increased friendliness in interpersonal relations has been also reported for students returning to India from the United States. Evidently this is one of the values in the U. S. which the visitor may incorporate into his own behavior.

Changes in family relationships

The kinds of changes cited by the returnees in their behavior toward family members centered principally about children. They noted that the children in American homes they visited were treated as little adults. They had a high status position in the home. Their remarks were listened to. They shared the table with their elders. For the Filipino, children, while a source of pride, joy, and concern, are considered socially inferior. When company visits, they are supposed to be out of sight. The visitors were impressed by the social skills of American children and some indicated that they were now nicer to their children, not as punitive, more tolerant.

With respect to the family as a whole, they commented that they were less patriarchal, more inclined to share responsibilities, and had a greater love for their families. Significantly, nothing was said by the males about changes in their conception of the role of women. The Filipino wife characteristically does not have an active role outside of their home. If invited to social functions, the wives stay together. The role of women is generally subservient to the male. While this conservative view has broken down in many respects, the Filipino male is likely to convey his impression that women in the United States have far too prominent a role. Some of the participants already had a partnership relation with their wives, characteristic of the young couple in the United States, with both working. None of the others mentioned that the U. S. experience had changed their attitudes toward the role of women.

Change in work attitudes

Over half of the participants talked about the ways in which they had changed in the direction of greater systematization and management of their work and personal affairs, as well as greater energy expenditure. They indicated a greater degree of order, of organizational planning, increased time perspective. As one shop superintendent commented, he now has all of his tools organized, in the order in which they will be used with a definite place for each. Or an engineer remarked that whereas he used to start a job at the beginning without a specific plan for the entire job and a time schedule, his observation of similar procedures in the U. S. has led him to be more detailed in his planning.

Increased industry, drive and initiative in their work, was a frequent comment. We have no data on the impact of this increase in zealotness on the tenacity to which Philippine organizations cling to established procedures. Our observations of the impact of American eagerness on Philippine organizations leads us to feel that the main result for the U. S. Technicians was an increase in their sense of frustration. It may well be that the Filipino is more apt at converting this increased motivation into accomplishment.

Along with increased energy, the participants commented on their increased skill in channelling that energy. They were more efficient, worked faster. They also adopted standards of behavior that lead to higher productivity, greater punctuality, and simplicity of procedures. They were more responsive to new ideas, advocated the selection of personnel on the basis of merit.

Selection on the basis of merit contrasts with the nepotism which is still considered almost a family obligation by many in the Philippines. Participants, when given a list of statements and asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement, disagreed the most with the idea of a man

using his power or influence to secure jobs for his families and relatives. They were also asked to indicate how others feel about these questions. Following is the order of disagreement with the practice of nepotism: (1) the participant (most disagreement); (2) American friends; (3) superiors; (4) family, co-workers, and friends (least disagreement). The participants also felt that they and Americans were more likely to feel that it was essential to be on time, than did co-workers and friends. The participants indicated they were most likely to agree with the notion that the mark of the successful man is efficiency. Superiors and Americans were seen to share this point of view, but friends and co-workers less in agreement with the former group.

In sum, the participant saw himself as closest to Americans in these work attitudes, followed by his superiors. Family, co-workers and friends were viewed as most distant from the participant's opinions. The participant feels that the Americanization of his work attitudes is more in consonance with his superiors than it is with his co-workers on the job. Outside of the job, his family and friends are the most different. It may well be that his increased industry and efficiency is viewed as meeting the approval of his superiors, but viewed by co-workers as foreign-inspired enthusiasm and "rate-busting." For his family and friends it is a break with traditionally approved modes of behavior.

Similar comments were reflected in the returnees' evaluation of changes in his character and behavior. Participants commented that they dealt more honestly and frankly with other persons, were generally more analytical, adopted simpler patterns of eating and dressing, were more thrifty and budget conscious in their home management. Again these traits contrast with the characteristic enjoyment of lavish hospitality and banquet meals, ornate clothing and decoration, and spending behavior based more on impulse than design.

Table 10.6 Ways participants changed upon return: summary of interview comments

	<u>Percent Frequency of mention</u>
Increased knowledge and skills	87
Increased organization of activities	51
Broader social and cultural outlook	50
Increased friendliness of interpersonal relations	34
Increased job opportunities, salaries, promotions	32
Increased social prestige	32
Improved superior-subordinate relations	30
Improved relations with family	28
Better knowledge of American way of life, people	20
Improved personal character	19
Improved social relationships	18
Adopted specific American social patterns	13
Increased self-confidence, courage to express self	8
Improved standard of living	3

Number of interviews - 434

Effective participants changed more in job-related characteristics

The self-ratings of participants can be compared to the interviewer global ratings of the extent to which the participants training experience had led to significant changes in his life, and whether these changes were personal or related only to his job. Participants with higher self-ratings of application were rated as having changed more. But, the kind of change was more likely to be technical, in terms of their skills and know-how. Moreover, if we look at the statements made by the participants themselves, it also appears that they changed in their personal behavior in factors that were job-related. For example, the effective participants were more likely to report having changed in their relations to subordinates, being more democratic and informal. There was also some tendency, not statistically significant, for them to report being more organized and systematic in their behavior (Table A104).

Effective participants became more valuable resources

Participants rating themselves high on application felt they had increased considerably in their job abilities, and experience, although they also compared themselves favorably to other persons before training in their skills and ability, technical know-how, work experience, and so on. In comparing themselves to other persons after training, the relationship between estimation of own abilities and self-rating of utilization was significantly higher (Table A105).

Effective participants are more satisfied with their jobs

Effective participants felt their chances for promotion increased and were more satisfied with their jobs as a result of training. These feelings had some basis in reality. Participants indicating greater satisfaction with their jobs and promotion chances received higher ratings from their supervisors (Table A105).

Effective participants gained prestige

Effective participants felt that they gained in personal as well as family prestige as a result of their training. Participants reporting more political influence rated themselves lower and were rated lower by their supervisors (Table A105).

Effective participants increased in their interest in Philippine development

Effective participants tended to show more interest in Philippine development following their training (Table A105). They also were more likely to be more closely identified with the Philippines and to have more favorable attitudes toward their country (Table A100).

Table 10.7 Attitude toward Philippines, and participant ratings of utilization

<u>Attitudes toward Philippines:</u>	<u>Rating of utilization by participant</u>
Hoped to do something for country	**
Told people in U. S. about Philippines	**
Advantage to have people know country of origin	*

Supervisor gave low ratings to participants reporting changes in their personal behavior

A number of studies report that participants who change too much in the direction of the host culture's patterns of behavior may find themselves alienated from their host culture when they return. Some evidence on this point appears in our study, specifically with respect to the attitudes of supervisors to changes by their subordinates. Subordinates who reported having changed in ways that their friends and families did not approve of, or who changed in their social or family relationships in the direction of more equalitarian procedures, were more likely to be given low ratings on application of training by their supervisors. A possible explanation is that persons whose behavior patterns are negatively evaluated come to be negatively evaluated themselves. They are not viewed as acceptable sources of technical innovations, as their personal behavioral deviates from acceptable standards (Table A107).

Supervisor's views of effective participants

Supervisors were asked to rate the participants on a number of characteristics. In general, supervisors who rated the participants favorably on these characteristics gave the same participants high ratings on utilization. Participants rated favorably on these characteristics by their superiors also rated themselves high on utilization. There was also a relationship between these ratings and the U. S. TA's evaluation of participant utilization of training. Supervisors with favorable attitudes toward participants were reflected in the favorable self-ratings and TA ratings of the participants (Table A106).

Table 10.8 Supervisor appraisals of participants, and three ratings of utilization

<u>Superior's appraisal of participant characteristics:</u>	<u>Ratings of utilization by:</u>		
	<u>Participant</u>	<u>Supervisor</u>	<u>U. S. TA</u>
Initiative	**	***	*
Contribution to group morale	**	**	*
Contribution to improve work efficiency	**	***	
Academic training	*	**	
Pleasing personality	*	**	
Leadership ability and potential for promotion	*	**	*
Ability to work with others	*	**	*
Adaptability to local work conditions	*	**	
Previous work experience	*	*	*
Ability and intelligence	*	**	*

11. RELATIONSHIPS WITH U. S. TECHNICAL ASSISTANTS

The U. S. technicians and advisors in the ICA Mission, Technical Assistants or TA's as they are called in the Philippines, are the Americans with whom participants and their superiors have most frequent and meaningful contacts in the joint program of economic and social development. While material aid from the U. S. is important, it is to a considerable extent on the technical ability, teaching skill and personal qualities of these TA's that the U. S. contribution to this joint effort depends, and is judged.

References to the role of the TA's has been made in other sections of this report. This section is to summarize the information coming out of the survey which relates to U. S. Technical Assistants, even though this means some repetition. We feel it desirable to have most of these data in one place for those who are especially interested in this aspect of the participant training program.

Participant ratings by TA's

At the time of the survey, there were some fifteen TA's directly associated with the projects forming the eleven type-of training groups studied. As was mentioned in the section on method, projects, for study were selected partly on the basis of the availability of TA's associated with them. These TA's gave ratings to most of the participants in these 11 groups, evaluating 399 in all, of whom 294 were interviewed. In about three-quarters of all the TA ratings, personal knowledge of the participant, his work and his environment was found most useful in making the ratings. Quite a number of participants, including all those in industry were simply not rated because TA's did not feel they had personal knowledge of the participant and his environment. In one-fourth of the cases TA's reported that their personal knowledge and the examples of utilization given by participants were more or less equally useful. In a negligible number of cases utilization examples were considered more useful than personal knowledge.

About three-fifths of the participants interviewed reported that there were ICA Technical Assistants assigned to their agency or project at the time of their selection for U. S. training. One fourth said there were no TA's and the remaining 15 percent did not know whether there was a TA or not, or gave other answers (Table A123). Of those who said a TA was assigned to their agency or project, just over one-third (35 percent) did not know to what extent the TA had influenced their selection. Seventeen percent said that TA's had nothing at all to do with it. The remaining half (48 percent) thought that the TA's did influence the selection, most of them a good deal.

Participants apparently felt that TA's had quite an important role in their selection, but that their superiors and others in their organization had the major responsibility and influence. Superiors felt that the role of the TA in selection should be about the same or somewhat less than it is.

TA's themselves also commented on the selection process. They seemed to feel that selection had been fairly well-handled except in a relatively few cases. In connection with needed improvement, factors mentioned most frequently were that some participants had personal difficulties, and that some did not try hard enough. Other factors mentioned as related to selection which prevented greater utilization of training are listed in the section on selection.

detail below.

Table 11.2 Present use, present value, and desired use of TA's by participants

<u>Scale for A and B</u>	<u>A. Present Use</u>	<u>B. Present Value</u>	<u>Scale for C.</u>	<u>C. Desired Use</u>
	(percent)			(percent)
4 = a great deal	30	36	4 = a good deal more	40
3 = quite a bit	26	33	3 = quite a bit more	27
2 = some	20	14	2 = somewhat more	13
1 = a little	11	10	1 = about the same	16
0 = none	13	7	0 = less	4
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>		<u>100</u>
Number of responses	421	415		417
Mean scale score	2.48	2.80		2.83

A somewhat higher percentage of participants want a good deal more use of TA's than are making such high use at present, but in general these findings show quite a satisfactory relationship between TA's and participants, as seen by the latter.

Satisfaction with TA's

Further information about TA's was obtained by asking participants their frank opinion as to whether TA's were technically qualified or not. Of those who responded, the great majority said yes, as shown below.

Table 11.3 Technical qualification of TA's

<u>TA's are technically qualified:</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Yes	67
Some yes, some no	14
No	2
Don't know	12
	<u>100</u>

Number of participants - 424

When asked how most other people in their agencies feel about TA's, 58 percent of the participants interviewed reported them moderately or very satisfied; 14 percent said there was some satisfaction and some dissatisfaction; 11 percent said people were moderately or very dissatisfied, and 16 percent didn't know how people in their agency felt. These results are very

similar to the participants own reactions and are undoubtedly influenced by them. However, they do show that participants are conscious of slightly less favorable attitudes toward TA's among their associates than they themselves hold. Participants gave a number of reasons for the satisfaction or dissatisfaction with TA's within their agencies.

Table 11. 4 Participant reports of how other people in their organization feel about TA's

<u>Satisfied because of</u>	<u>Percent frequency of mention</u>
Good personal relationships	25
Close cooperation between TA and agency	25
General improvement through joint efforts	25
TA available when needed	12
High qualifications of TA's	5
Interest of TA's in agency and projects	2
All other reasons	8
	<hr/>
	87
 <u>Dissatisfied because of</u>	
Poor relations between TA and agency	7
TA's not qualified	3
TA's not available when needed	2
TA's not adapted to local conditions	2
TA's services no longer needed	2
Failure to secure materials, equipment	1
All other reasons	8
	<hr/>
	25

Number of participants - 388

In general, the relatively low frequency of mention of reasons for dissatisfaction, as compared to the much more frequent mention of reasons for satisfaction, confirms that TA's are well thought of by the agencies in which participants are located.

Supervisors were well satisfied with the assistance TA's had given their U. S. trained participants after their return. Over half said they were well-satisfied, about 40 percent were moderately satisfied, and only 5 percent expressed little or no satisfaction with TA's.

Improving the relationships with TA's

Participants, even though well-satisfied with TA's, mentioned a number of ways in which they felt the relationship between TA's and their agencies might be further improved.

Table 11.5

Ways relationship between TA's and agencies might be improved

	<u>Percent frequency of mention</u>
Having frequent conferences	32
Assuring TA's adapted to local conditions	12
Assigning more TA's and with appropriate qualifications	10
More TA participation in selection	10
More facilities and aids to agency through TA	10
Assuring that TA's have genuine interest in projects	7
Assuring TA's stay out of politics	2
Defining duties of TA more clearly	2
All other ways	<u>24</u>
	109*

Number of participants - 388

*Some participants mentioned more than one way

Supervisors of participants, similarly, had a number of suggestions as to the ways in which ICA and the TA's should improve their relations with the participant and his work. Their average views on these suggestions are described on the table.

Table 11.6

Supervisor's suggestions of ways ICA and TA's should improve relations with participant

<u>With respect to:</u>	<u>Supervisors wanted:</u>
Supplies and equipment	considerably more
TA adaptability to local conditions	somewhat more
Moral support, encouragement, backing	somewhat more
Joint planning of work programs	somewhat more
Contacts and work conferences	somewhat more
Attention given to TA qualifications	somewhat more
Advice by TA's on specific problems	somewhat more
Inspection and check-up	about the same
TA's participation in selection	a little less
TA's involvement in politics	considerably less

Number of supervisors - 234

Combining all supervisor's suggestions and how strongly they wanted more or less in each case gives an index of supervisor's need for improvement of TA-participant relationships which can be described as quite high.

How long are TA's needed?

Even though supervisors have many suggestions for improving TA-participant relations, they do not seem to feel that TA's are needed very long after participants return from their U. S. training. When asked how soon after U. S. training they thought their subordinate participant was or would be able to do his work effectively without assistance from TA's, the average response was this was possible in less than one year.

Table 11.7 When supervisors think participants
no longer need TA's

<u>No longer need TA's:</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Immediately after U. S. training	60
One year after U. S. training	26
Two years after U. S. training	9
Three years after U. S. training	3
Other replies	3
	<hr/>
	100

Number of supervisors - 231

It seems clear that supervisors believe TA's can be dispensed with much earlier than do participants themselves, although participant's feelings on this question must be inferred from other findings since they were not asked directly. Supervisor's feelings about the length of time TA's are needed, by the eleven fields of training, are shown in appendix table (A160).

Summary

1. U. S. Technical Assistants, asked to judge the use participants have made of their U. S. training and to evaluate the problems participants face, found they must have direct personal knowledge of the participant, his work and his work environment. Information coming out of the survey itself, such as examples of utilization provided by participants, was not considered very useful as a substitute basis for judgments. This suggests that if TA ratings are to be involved in such surveys, TA's must have, or be given the opportunity for developing this personal knowledge.

2. Participants recognize that TA's play an important, but not the major role in their selection. They approve of this and quite a number would like to have TA's involved even more. Supervisors, on the other hand, feel that the TA's should have about the same or slightly less responsibility and influence in participant selection.

3. TA's are also seen by participants as very helpful generally in preparing for their trip to the U. S., but less helpful in relating their training to their jobs after training.

4. Most participants make good use of TA's and consider TA's as very helpful to them in their back-home application of training. They place special value on the TA's moral support, encouragement and direct help on their jobs and would like quite a bit more such assistance. Participants report that others in their organizations are generally well-satisfied

with TA's, although less so than they are themselves. Supervisors also say they are well-satisfied, but see somewhat greater need for improvement in TA-participant relationships than do participants.

5. Participants appear to want a longer continuing relationship with TA's than do supervisors, who feel that participants would be able to work effectively without TA's soon after their return home from U. S. training.

PART IV
GROUPS BY FIELD OF TRAINING

Participants by field of training

In previous chapters of this report the entire participant sample of 445 individuals was the subject. Here we are concerned with participants in the eleven occupational groups or fields of training, which made up the sample. Within each of these groups there is a wide range of type of training and professional specialization. This accounts in part for the variability of responses within each group. However, there are real differences between groups, many of which are statistically significant and seem operationally important.

A profile of each of these eleven occupational groups follows, pointing out notable characteristics of participants in each and the ways they differ from other field-of-training groups. Reference can be made to the appendix tables which show the average scores of each of the eleven groups in a given characteristic, for more detailed comparisons between groups. In general, only those tables have been included which show statistically significant differences between groups within the sample. Comparisons with the total participant sample can be made by reference to appropriate chapters of Part III, and to the appendix tables dealing with the total sample.

An attempt is made to integrate and evaluate the outstanding features of each occupational group. They are related first to the training experience in the U. S. and secondly to the fate of the training effort on the job in the Philippines.

12. AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION

Among the first persons to be sent from the Philippines to the United States for training were government workers from the Department of Agriculture. They received additional training in agricultural schools or the extension units of the Federal and State governments. Of the 41 persons receiving such training 33, or roughly 80%, were interviewed. They present a picture of high resistance to change efforts both within their own agency and on the part of the agricultural workers whom they are trying to influence.

These agricultural extension workers tended to be older, with more job experience and higher salaries than other government workers. As a result they felt very confident of themselves as reflected in their responses to many of the questions. For example, from an objective point of view, the occupations of their parents would put them in the lowest socio-economic level and fewer members of their families had traveled to the United States. Subjectively, they felt quite proud of their own and their parents' social status, and particularly their own political influence. They were men who had come a long way from the humble starting point provided by their parents.

In their opinion, the personal characteristics that influenced their selection for this training program were their own high qualifications, personal and social--work abilities, seniority, academic training, personality, and their high status. With respect to the persons responsible for their being selected, they placed much less emphasis on their own initiative in attempting to become members of the training program, and much more to their being singled out by the U. S. Technical Assistants.

As for the training program itself, the average time they spent in the United States was seven months, an interval considered quite adequate. The chief complaints they leveled against the training program were that the training should be (1) more carefully planned, (2) more specifically related to their jobs and (3) more specialized, allowing them to spend more time in one place. Their general experience in the United States reflected their age and maturity. They were less likely to become involved in American culture. They spent less time socializing with Americans and instead spent more time with other members of their training groups. They communicated fairly often with their colleagues on the job at home.

One source of distress to this self-confident group was the difference between their own financial status and that of Americans they met. Except for that, they felt themselves the equals, at least, of Americans. Much more serious than this financial discrepancy were their encounters with racial segregation. Although their general attitudes toward American may be described as favorable, four out of five bitterly recalled personally disturbing experiences in which they either observed or were themselves the objects of racial discrimination.

As a result of their relative maturity and high standing in their jobs, they did not expect this additional training to net them much advantage in their careers. They saw the training as more of a contribution to their country's welfare than to themselves personally. Upon returning to their jobs they were very satisfied with the opportunities they had to use their training and to train others. In contrast to this expressed satisfaction with opportunities to employ their new skills, was the pattern of usage over time. Whereas persons in other occupational areas often saw a constantly increasing opportunity, for them the opportunities to use their training remained fairly stable each year after their return. The main barriers they saw to increased use of their training were traditional ways of doing things by farmers, and resistance to efforts to create change. In their own organizations they saw as the chief barriers the lack of facilities and equipment and trained personnel.

Their supervisors presented a far different picture of the agency, much more pessimistic about the agricultural extension worker's opportunity to employ new skills and ideas. They drew a picture of an agency impeded by political influences, indifference among personnel, lack of freedom of action and inability to accomplish the kinds of administrative changes that would help the agency progress. The participants showed some agreement in pointing out the excessive importance of political influence, region and dialect of the employee and knowing the right people as significant criteria for selection and promotion in the agency.

The role of the U. S. Technical Assistants has been important in this area. TA's were assigned to most of the participants' organizations both at the time of selection and return. As pointed out previously, they played an important part in the selection of participants. The agricultural extension workers credited the TA's with being very helpful, particularly in providing material assistance. They and their supervisors showed interest in having the TA provide at-the-elbow help to returned participants in their efforts to employ their training.

13. ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM

Among the most recent persons to enter the training program were participants from the field of education in a project called Elementary Curriculum Development. Training for these teachers and teacher supervisors was in the organization and development of elementary school curriculum, curriculum improvement, in-service teacher education, adult education, textbook writing, administration of normal schools, educational testing and measurement, library services, and similar fields. The 34 persons interviewed represented nearly 100% of the participants in this field.

The personal and social characteristics of these educators of teachers was one of the chief determinants of their U. S. experience. Generally they tended to be older, averaging 44 years in age, more experienced in their fields, and professing a great interest in the development of their country. Their parents tended to be government workers in the lower social economic level, but other members of their family had visited the United States. Although they had progressed in occupational status beyond their parents, they showed little desire to excel, to push out far in front of the crowd. As an example of this trend, they showed interest in politics and claimed to be active, but were not particularly influential. Like other teachers they belonged to many organizations, but unlike the agricultural teachers, they did not place much value on these professional associations.

To demonstrate further the lack of assertiveness of this group, they were much more likely to claim they were chosen on the basis of what they were rather than their capacity to be influential. The factors they emphasized as important in their selection were a pleasing personality, ability, intelligence and special needs of the project. They were very unlikely to suggest that they had been selected on the basis of specific experience, their social standing or their own initiative.

One of the chief personal motives of this group was to gain an additional degree. Although their training period was about the longest, twelve months, they would have preferred a longer period, with more opportunity for academic studies as well as more travel and observation. The educators were very well satisfied with the entire training program. They discussed the project thoroughly with their supervisors before undertaking the training, and were most satisfied to find that the program planned for them in the U. S. was exactly what they had been led to anticipate. They were very well satisfied with the context of the training program, the per diem, and recreational and social opportunities.

Very favorable in their attitudes to the United States, they claimed to have learned a great deal about the United States. Their English ability was excellent and they spent much time with their American colleagues in discussion and studies, relatively little with other foreign students or their own compatriots. Like the agricultural teachers, they felt that they suffered a great deal in academic status in comparing themselves to the Americans they met. Since their own esteem rested on their academic accomplishments, and their American counterparts tended to have advanced degrees, their self-esteem suffered to some extent during their sojourn. Like the other groups, many also reported uncomfortable encounters with racial segregation.

Not only did the participants proceed directly to jobs which required their training, they spent a great deal of their time transmitting their training by engaging in consultant activities, seminars and discussion groups; writing technical materials, and providing in-service training. A great many even taught regular classes in other institutions outside of their regular jobs.

The teachers often were resource persons supplying expert knowledge in workshops, conferences or seminars, or conducted workshops themselves. They used their training in the preparation of resource bulletins, teaching units, courses of study, and other instructional materials. They improved methods of instruction in the normal schools.

Among the more specific innovations which showed a good deal of initiative are: forming of local school committees to influence the public and get support for the school program; allowing teachers in the field to participate in the evaluation of textbook materials and conducting remedial reading instruction and establishing reading clinics.

The overall picture of satisfactory utilization is marred by several disturbing facts. First, on a sheer quantitative basis, the teachers presented comparatively fewer examples of innovations introduced into their work as a result of their learning experience. Secondly, they presented a great many examples of attempts to introduce new techniques or ideas that failed. The barrier cited most often as interfering with the introduction of new procedures was the lack of facilities, funds and equipment.

Why, then, were the teachers not more dissatisfied with their opportunities to use their training? Several reasons may be adduced. Although they were less able to influence procedures outside of their own sphere of influence, as teachers they were able to modify their own work to accommodate their new learning. Secondly, they were not especially ambitious men and had already achieved status in their fields. Therefore, they tended to express less dissatisfaction than would persons whose ambitions were greater and positions less secure.

Few U. S. Technical Assistants have been assigned to work with the educators. Those assigned at the time of this study were not well acquainted with the participants, and expressed more pessimism about their opportunity to use their training than did the participants or their supervisors. The TA's tended to feel that the organization was not ready to use new skills and ideas, and shared the participants views that facilities and equipment were more inadequate.

From the participant's point of view there were several difficulties they encountered. First was the difficulty of breaking through the status barrier. A considerable gulf exists between different ranks in the educational system and the teachers were most impressed by the informality they encountered in the U. S. and determined to emulate it. Secondly the teacher finds himself in relative isolation from his colleagues. Communication and coordination, two of the prime necessities of effective organizational functioning, are lacking. The teachers found it hard to get together and exchange ideas with their colleagues. Similarly, people in related jobs have little opportunity to assist one another. The educational system appears handicapped by its strong hierarchical system.

Although few TA's have been associated with this area, they were considered to be useful in providing consultative services. The teachers indicated they would welcome conferences with well qualified TA's.

14. VOCATIONAL INDUSTRIAL TRAINING

Vocational industrial training represents teachers and administrators in one of the three projects studied in the field of education. Training was provided in the administration of teacher training, machine shop, woodworking, sheet metal work, electric motors, printing and related subjects. The 58 participants interviewed, about 90% of the total, were far different from the teachers in vocational agricultural training or elementary curriculum development. To fulfill their own objectives, they vigorously put their new learning into use on the job.

The most unusual attribute of these teachers is their high need for achievement, their upward-directed drive in Philippine social-economic life. They are starting from the very bottom of the white-collar group. Their average age is about 40, with approximately 15 years of experience behind them. They tend to have little formal education, and currently earn quite low salaries, compared to other government white-collar workers in our study. Their fathers were in the lowest social-economic group (excluding the agrarian masses) and few members of their families had been to the United States prior to their own trips. They have little political influence.

Yet these men were ambitious. They attributed the fact of their selection to their work experience and their own initiative. They placed very little emphasis on the efforts of their supervisors, or co-workers, or their own academic training and records, as factors in their selection.

Their training was among the longest, academic in nature, and averaging eleven months. They emphasized the need for more careful planning of the program and were nearly unanimous in wanting a program of longer duration. However, the group was divided on how the additional time should be spent. One-half asked for more travel and observation and half suggested more specialization in one place.

One of the most uncomfortable aspects of their training resulted from their lack of prior academic training and relatively poor English facility. They felt their prior training and experience did not adequately prepare them for this training experience. Despite this difficulty they extracted everything possible from it. According to their own assessment they acquired considerable new knowledge and skill, and became a great deal more helpful to their country.

In their social activities outside of formal training, language difficulties did not prevent them from spending more time with Americans than any other group. They actually spent less time in the company of their compatriots than any of the other participants. Overwhelmingly favorable in their attitudes to the United States, a very few reported having distressing racial discrimination experiences. They did report spending a great deal of time with American families in their homes, sharing housing arrangements, sharing meals and refreshments, joining organizations and sports activities. As a result of this social experience with Americans these upwardly mobile teachers reported many changes and improvements in their social behavior. The American experience also strengthened their motivation to get ahead, and increased the importance of becoming a financial success.

Back on the job they reported a great deal of opportunity to use their training and increasing opportunities as time went by. The U. S. Technical Assistants concurred in this judgment. They changed the physical layout of their shops and the physical conditions of their plants in general, reflecting the more systematic orderly arrangements they had observed in the U. S. Their supervisors and the TA's agreed that lack of facilities, equipment and supplies was one of the greatest barriers to fuller employment of human resources. There was little complaint about political interference, and only in a few cases were supervisors seen as blocking the participants from using their training. One change the participants have not been able to accomplish in some vocational schools, and which the TA's felt was badly needed, is organizational and administrative reform. For example, procedures involved in the application and enrollment of new students are crude and tend to be inconsiderate of students. Such administrative reform under the present system needs to be accomplished via top-level directive.

The vocational teachers, unlike the agriculture and elementary curriculum teachers, felt less isolated in their jobs. They felt it was easy to get together and exchange information and ideas with persons in related jobs. Their supervisors consulted with them very often. In addition they felt that the school policies were fair. Promotions for example, are based on civil service eligibility, seniority and education.

Few TA's have been assigned to this project, but the vocational teachers considered them quite helpful. They were most enthusiastic about the consultative services provided. They would like to see more TA's assigned to their area, and their supervisors reported that a fairly long period of at-the-elbow support by TA's was needed to insure full utilization of training.

The vocational teachers recalled with pleasure their experiences in the United States and now enjoy considerable prestige with their co-workers and subordinates who have not had this experience.

15. VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURAL TRAINING

The occupational group with the longest time to review the impact of their U. S. training on their subsequent work were the teachers of agricultural subjects for the Department of Education. Overall, they felt quite pleased with the impact of the training on their work and on their own careers. The fourteen persons interviewed, one-fifth of the total in that project, had been back an average of three years. They had received additional training in such subjects as animal husbandry, vocational agricultural teacher training, and agriculture curriculum development.

The vocational agricultural training participants showed some striking similarities and dissimilarities to the agricultural extension workers. They both tended to be older, highly experienced, coming from families of low social standing with few persons from their families having visited the United States prior to their own visit. The differences reveal the factors salient in the career patterns of the men of action as compared to the teaching group. The teachers were much lower paid, showed little interest in politics, reported little political activity and had little political influence. They did belong to many associations and valued these memberships.

Again, like the agricultural extension participants, the agriculture teachers felt they had been chosen for training on the basis of their own considerable qualifications. They cited the importance of their academic training, leadership ability, previous work experience, seniority, pleasing personalities and social standing. As for the persons responsible for having them selected, the extension workers felt they had been selected; the teachers attributed greater importance to their own efforts as well as that of their supervisors and colleagues in their being selected for the program. In sum, everything, their superior qualifications, the influence exerted by themselves and their own associates, as well as the obvious needs of their project, pointed to their being selected.

The training program, mostly academic, lasted an average of eleven months. The participants in vocational agriculture predominantly observed that the program could be improved by more travel and observation.

The self-esteem of the agricultural extension workers was based largely on their financial status and they were more sensitive to the discrepancy between themselves and Americans they met. For the agricultural teachers, who were proud of their academic training, the advanced academic training of their American counterparts was a sore point. However, this did not stop them from participating a great deal in American activities, spending time in religious organizations and actually sharing housing arrangements with Americans more than other participants. All of them, however, reported having unfavorable experiences with racial segregation.

Upon return the teachers were most enthusiastic about their opportunities to use their training in their own work and to transmit innovations to others, an enthusiasm shared by their supervisors. In evaluating the characteristics of their work environment which might facilitate or impede the employment of their training, the participants and their supervisors did not see any serious barriers anywhere. Only one note struck by the participants hinted at an organizational deficiency--they were deeply impressed by the informality of superior-subordinate relationships in the educational system in the United States and wanted to replicate it in their own workplaces.

In contrast to this bright picture of full employment of training, the U. S. Technical Assistants gave a less glowing report. They were much more pessimistic about the participants' opportunities to utilize new skills and ideas, the readiness of the agency to absorb innovations, and mentioned particularly the blocking of the participants by their supervisors.

A possible accounting for the failure of the participants to share this view was the satisfaction they felt resulting from their personal career achievements. As older, experienced teachers, they already have high status, and felt that the U. S. sojourn had launched them to even better jobs and salaries.

The participants felt kindly toward their organization as they had personally been fairly treated. For example, they felt that promotions were based on civil service eligibility, seniority, education, and quality of work. They felt that where you came from, your region and dialect, and whom you knew, were all very unimportant.

As might be expected of older, more mature and experienced persons, the experience in the United States did not change them very much personally. They did learn a great deal about the United States and felt they had become more scientific and systematic in their ways of working and approaching problems.

Although few TA's have been assigned to this agency, participants did consider the TA's very helpful in their back-home application of training. They particularly appreciated the consultative services provided. They asked for more future help from TA's suggesting that TA's who were knowledgeable about local conditions could provide more expert help on their special problems.

16. HEALTH

The participants who felt most frustrated by their own management in their attempts to employ their training, and least helped by the U. S. Technical Assistants were in Public Health. The participants in health training and education are involved in several different occupational areas. The 69 participants interviewed comprise nearly ninety percent of all of the participants in nursing education, public health administration, hospital administration and other health education programs. We can describe only those features common to all of these participants, not the individual details as we did in the case of the sanitary engineers who were also part of the health project.

The health participants had been back an average of one year from their experience in the United States. On the average, they were younger, age 37, with less prior experience, well-educated, but with comparatively low salaries. These participants did not have a high striving for personal attainment; although their parents economic status was high, other members of their families had been to the United States, and they belonged to many organizations. They had little interest in getting ahead via political influence, and expressed less interest than the other participants in achieving success for themselves. However, they are proud of their professional identity and valued greatly their membership in U. S. professional societies and correspondence with American professionals.

They felt they had been selected for training on the basis of their personal attributes and their academic training, rather than seniority or family influence. Their training programs were among the longest allowed, twelve months, mostly academic, and appeared to them well-planned and quite satisfactory. The health participants were more interested than the others in getting a degree and were successful in these degree efforts.

The health participants were very satisfied in their relations with Americans. Their English facility was excellent and they spent a great deal of time with Americans in many different academic and social activities. Unlike most of the participants who felt that their American counterparts were much better off financially, the health participants felt better off in this respect than the Americans they met. They learned a great deal about life in the United States from these experiences, and personally, felt they had improved their own social behavior by modeling themselves more after the Americans they met. However, three-fourths of the participants did report being dissatisfied with the racial segregation they encountered.

Back on the job they reported some success in employing their training, particularly with respect to reorganization and establishment of more systematic administrative procedures, and secondly, with respect to reorganizing the physical conditions in the hospitals and other agencies where they worked. In addition to improvements in the work methods and physical plant, the health participants reported improving their internal training program, as in nursing education, and their public health training programs.

The participants indicated that their work was impeded considerably by inadequate organizational procedures, resistance to change among the people who used their services, and especially the interference of political considerations in the operation of their agencies. The U. S. Technical Assistants placed a great deal of responsibility for lack of utilization of new skills on the supervisors who were blocking the participants from introducing innovations.

Although the U. S. Technical Assistants indicated considerable familiarity with the work of each of the participants, the participants themselves were very dissatisfied with their relations to the TA's. Of all of the projects considered in this study, attitudes toward TA's was least positive in health training and education. The participants claimed that personal relations with TA's were poor and wanted very little help from TA's in the future.

17. WATER SUPPLY AND ENVIRONMENTAL SANITATION

One of the least successful projects involved eighteen participants in the health training and education program who were given additional engineering training in water supply and environmental sanitation. The thirteen participants interviewed had been back in the Philippines an average of two-and-one-half years, and were extremely disappointed with the consequences of their training. The engineers were older, averaging 43 years, and had a considerable amount of previous work experience in their fields. They were well-educated and well paid, and indeed felt that their academic and financial standing placed them above their friends and acquaintances in the Philippines. Their families were well up on the socio-economic ladder, their fathers holding good jobs. Frequently they reported that other members of their families had been to the United States.

However, these men were characterized by a high need for achievement, an ambition to excel, and they were not at all satisfied with their current positions and their salaries. Unlike the agricultural extension workers, for example, they were not trying to get ahead on the basis of influence, but on the basis of their academic standing, their skills and knowledge. They professed to have practically no political influence, and felt they had been selected for this additional training by their supervisors on the basis of their academic training and seniority. They decidedly did not feel they had been selected on the basis of specific personal qualities such as leadership or intelligence. Nor did they feel their selection was based on their influence or the influence of their family and friends.

Before leaving for the United States, few of these men discussed the project goals with their supervisors; however they did write back frequently to their colleagues and supervisors. Their training averaged ten months, including both academic and observational experiences, and they were generally satisfied with their programs. They did not have any complaints about the training, were satisfied with its length, and felt that the administration of the program was quite satisfactory. One improvement they stressed was skill in working with others. As engineers they felt they needed more than technical ability. They needed skills to communicate their learning to other persons and to increase acceptance of modern engineering designs. Their own insistence on formality in superior-subordinate relations may have been partly responsible for this difficulty in working with others.

Although they were generally favorable in their attitudes to the United States, they did not spend much time mingling with Americans. Nor did they feel they had learned a great deal, in the way of new skills and information. They did feel better informed about the way of life in the United States, and their attitudes toward racial discrimination were divided, half expressing favorable and half unfavorable opinions.

Upon their return to the Philippines few were given assignments using their training. They did not find their training relevant to their jobs; they did not foresee any opportunity to use their training; nor were they able to transmit the skills they had learned to others. In their jobs, they felt quite isolated. They did not feel that they were asked for advice or consultation by their superiors. Nor did they have much contact with their colleagues. It wasn't easy for them to get together and exchange ideas with persons in similar jobs. In fact, they reported, persons doing similar jobs rarely helped one another.

These engineers were very dissatisfied with the management of the organizations they worked for. They felt that political considerations weighted most of the decisions, and that the quality of a man's work hardly counted as a criterion in promotion. Their supervisors agreed with them that there was too much political interference in the decision-making of the organization. The supervisors also pointed to the inadequacy of supplies, facilities and equipment.

The sanitary engineers in the water supply project group were personally extremely disappointed with the results of their training. They had expected to acquire skills and knowledge, do something for their country, and at the same time enhance their own careers. They had accomplished none of these objectives. In fact, they reported that they would now have better jobs if they had not gone to the United States for training.

As for the U. S. Technical Assistants, the Water Supply participants did not feel they had been helpful to them in applying their training, nor did they desire future assistance from them. In sum, these participants had once entertained high hopes about the benefits of the training program, and were now disappointed and disillusioned on all counts.

18. INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT CENTER

The Industrial Development Center was one of the two projects which dealt with participants from the private sector of the economy, most of the other projects studied being those in government agencies. The IDC project consisted of participants sent for training and observation in selected industrial processes considered important for Philippine economic development. Some participants were members of productivity teams, such as those concerned with the plywood industry, use of heavy equipment, industrial building equipment, shoes, iron smelting and bulk sugar handling. Others went for individual specialized training in a wide range of subjects--logging, fish net manufacture, industrial chemicals, textiles, foundry, marketing, and industrial management warehousing. The seventy-two participants interviewed made up over 80% of the total number in this project who had been back at least six months.

These participants tended to be younger men, averaging 35 years, with less formal education on the average, but representing a wide range of education. They had much higher salaries, as might be expected, than the participants in government agencies. Overall, they can be divided into two categories, a very high status wealthy group of owners and managers, and a group of supervisory personnel, such as plant superintendents and engineers. The first category came from families high in socio-economic position. Many had previously visited the United States one or more times on business, and over half had members of their families who had also been to the United States. Overall the entire group professed little personal political interests or influence.

The basis for their selection was not discovered in this survey. The members of the project attached little importance to the needs of the project they were sent on, their own personal qualities or initiative, or the influence of their supervisors or colleagues, as factors in their selection. Understandably many of these men may have been very reluctant to leave their jobs or their businesses for additional training or observation tours.

Their tours varied considerably in length, averaging four months, with some as short as six weeks. Considerable dissatisfaction was expressed both with the length of the tours and the amount of specialized observation accomplished. Over ninety percent wanted longer training programs with more opportunity to do specialized work in one place. Possibly as a result of the brevity and fast-moving nature of their programs, they spent little time socially with Americans. They did report more favorably on their experiences with racial segregation than most participants.

They did not report acquiring much in the way of technical knowledge or skills as a result of their tours, and they did not feel they learned much that was useful to them in their current positions. This smaller amount of learning may be attributed to the brevity of their programs. However a number of factors mitigate against this being the only consideration. They did not feel that their previous training and experience prepared them for their tours. Many returned to jobs unrelated to their training. Many of the participants in the lower bracket positions were promoted or transferred to jobs not directly related to the field of training for which they received additional training. Similarly, they had little opportunity to transmit what they had learned to others. The nature of their jobs did not provide opportunities to train others.

Both the participants and their supervisors attributed considerable importance to indifference and resistance among the colleagues of the participants, as a barrier to use of new techniques and ideas. Their supervisors described many of the returned participants as having little freedom of action to introduce new ideas.

As a result of their considerable prior experience with Americans, the participants in this project were least influenced in their personal attitudes and behavior by their American experience. This finding contradicts the widely held assertion that industry leaders should be sent to develop more favorable pro-American attitudes, as well as learn productivity techniques. This may be true only when previous contacts with Americans have been infrequent.

The interviewers' overall rating of the extent to which this trip had been a significant experience in the lives of the participants indicated that it had been least important to the IDC participants. The interviewer ratings confirm the participants' own statements that they learned little of use to them in their jobs or personally. It should be noted that this overall conclusion describes the total picture for IDC participants. There were some exceptions, particularly among the younger line personnel who reported gaining considerably from the experience.

It should be noted that the few innovations introduced by these participants may have substantial consequences. The kinds of improvements cited by these participants include the introduction of new work methods and techniques, better machinery and equipment, improved quality of products, increased production, improved labor-management relations, more incentives for labor, and improved work group systems.

19. LABOR DEPARTMENT

The story of the government employees sent for training in a project called Labor Department illustrates many of the difficulties in the way of success of training programs and is a marked contrast to the vigorous use of training made by the labor union leaders. The employees of the government, working in various aspects of labor relations, received training in labor management relations, labor law administration, legislation and enforcement, manpower utilization and labor statistics. The thirty-four participants interviewed, 90% of the total in this project who had been back at least six months, presented a pessimistic picture, for the most part, of their current employment of training and future possibilities. At the time of the survey they had been back an average of two-and-one-half years, and were generally very discouraged about the opportunities available to them to introduce new ideas and techniques into the government's operations.

The average age of these participants was close to the average age of most participants, just under forty years. On the average they had been working for thirteen years before being selected for this training. The Labor Department participants came from families of moderately high social-economic standing. Their father's occupations put them in the upper middle class, and half of the participants, more than any other occupational group, reported that other members of their families had been to the United States. They also tended to be well-educated. This picture of the comparatively high social-economic standing of the Labor Department participants and their high level of formal education contrasts with the much lower social positions of the labor union leaders. However, the Labor Department participants had salaries only slightly higher than the labor union participants. They were also much more dissatisfied with their salaries.

They did feel, like the labor union participants, that they occupied positions of importance. Most said they were interested and active in politics, and two-thirds professed to have some political influence.

Again in startling contrast to the labor union participants who felt they had been selected for the program on the basis of their outstanding leadership qualities, the Labor Department participants ascribed their selection to their academic background and record, and gave less than the usual importance to their previous work experience and leadership. Whereas the labor union people presented a dynamic picture of movement up from the lower class and direction of the labor movement, the Labor Department personnel selected presented a static picture of people taking more comfort from their previous records and standing than their current achievements.

They reported that the TA's had been very helpful to them in preparing for their training programs, which was mostly observational, lasting an average of seven months. The most frequent suggestions they made for improvement of the program were (1) more careful planning and (2) more specialization in one place. While they were in the U. S. during their training program, they communicated very infrequently with their co-workers and colleagues on the job back-home, an early indication that the training experience was not likely to be used fully back home.

In general, this group was not too happy about the training program. They were more dissatisfied than most with the administration of the program, particularly the per diem. They were also more disgruntled about the lack of social opportunities. Although their English facility was excellent they had the least contact with Americans of any occupational group. They tended to speak their own language and communicate with their compatriots much more frequently than any of the others.

Their attitudes toward the training may be in part a reflection of their dissatisfaction upon return to their jobs back home. Only half found their training directly related to their present jobs. Overall they reported having little opportunity to use their training in their current jobs, or to train other persons in what they had learned. On all counts the program was a big disappointment for them. As far as their personal careers, the training had not helped them get better jobs, promotions, salary increases or additional academic degrees. Nor did they feel they had learned additional skills and knowledge which increased their usefulness to their countries. They reported their work environment as being unready to accept new ideas and techniques, a characterization not unlike that presented by the agricultural extension workers. The Labor Department participants saw themselves as having little freedom of action to introduce change. They felt that the people around them were completely indifferent. Their co-workers rarely consulted them on technical matters and their colleagues did not seem at all interested in receiving additional training. Further, there were very few formal provisions made on the job for them to communicate what they had learned to others. The organization, they indicated, was completely dominated by the top-level hierarchy, and decisions were made on political considerations, rather than to meet the explicit objectives and goals of the agency. Decisions on promotions, they reported, were governed by a man's political influence, his region and dialect, and knowing the right people. Little attention is paid to seniority, education or quality of work. Altogether, the participants were a highly frustrated group, reporting that many of the changes they had attempted to introduce had been stopped for political reasons.

On the positive side, the participants did report some accomplishments in improved procedures, mostly of a technical nature which did not require the cooperation of others, but could be carried out by one man. For example, they prepared a dictionary of occupational titles, model labor union constitutions and management-labor agreements, and an organization and procedures manual; they introduced a system of collection and analysis of statistical data on labor, labor surveys of key industries; they promoted increased efficiency in settling cases, and developed more informal methods of conciliation and adjudication.

In their relations with TA's, over 90% reported that there was a TA assigned to their agency at the time of their selection and that these TA's were helpful in planning for their training programs, and in applying their training upon return. But they expressed little desire for future help from TA's. Although they mentioned close cooperation between the TA's and their agencies, neither the participants nor their supervisors felt that follow-up support by TA's in the employment of training was needed to any great extent. They did not have much correspondence with Americans they met in their fields, nor did they see much value in such correspondence. Neither did they belong, or see much worth in belonging to professional groups either in the U. S. or the Philippines.

The attitudes of the participants toward the training program and its consequences were evidently picked up by the interviewers. They rated the participants in this group as having been least changed as a result of this experience.

The consequences of the training program for these participants indicates the need to increase the readiness for change of the organization in which they are working.

20. LABOR UNIONS

The Labor Union leaders sent to the United States for training in labor education, trade union leadership, administration and labor management relations found the additional training and observations extremely valuable to their work in the labor union movement. Observation of the more mature labor unions in the U. S. impressed upon them the necessity for labor to work with management in increasing the contribution of industry to the economy. Coming from a setting where union-management relations were newer and more antagonistic, their observations in the U. S. gave them a broader viewpoint of the functions of the labor unions.

The twenty-seven Labor Union leaders interviewed, over four-fifths of those who had received this training, were highly devoted to their work in the labor movement. Younger men, averaging 12 years of work experience prior to their visit to the United States, they had the least formal education of all of the participants. One-third had gone no further than high school. Three out of five had parents in the lowest socio-economic group, and the rest came mostly from families where the fathers had low level government jobs. Fewer of the family members had visited the United States than any of the other participants interviewed. It is interesting to note that even then one out of five reported members of their immediate families having made trips to the U. S.

Their salaries were low, and although they had been back in the Philippines an average of three years following this additional training, their salaries had not increased very much. In fact, asked to rate their socio-economic status in the Philippines, the Labor Union leaders did not rate themselves much higher than their parents, whom they ranked very low on the scale. This low salary scale was not a source of sharp dissatisfaction, as they had little motivation for personal financial success. They felt strongly that they were contributing to economic and social development in the Philippines.

The Labor Union leaders expressed a great deal of interest in politics, professing to be quite active and having some political influence. In the internal politics of the labor unions, these men were the "young Turks" of the labor union movement. In fact, their common U. S. experience helped to crystallize their relationship to one another and band them into an informal group with similar objectives, and mutually supportive interests.

Asked to consider the reasons for their selection for this program, they stressed the importance of their leadership, and minimized such factors as personality characteristics, academic training, seniority, ability and intelligence, or the influence of their supervisors in having them selected. It is clear that they felt they were selected predominantly on the basis of their outstanding leadership qualities.

The Labor Union leaders had a high degree of personal involvement and interest in the training program. Before leaving they discussed the objectives of the program with their superiors in the labor union movement, and in the United States they communicated frequently with their supervisors and colleagues back home. Their programs averaged 7 months in length, mostly non-academic, and they predominantly favored having a longer program. They were quite satisfied with the per diem and the administration of the program, but did indicate that it could have been improved by more careful planning of the content of the program.

They did not expect to accrue great personal benefits from this experience, in terms of better jobs, promotions or salaries, but were very much interested in learning more about the

United States during their visit. Actually, they were somewhat disappointed in this expectation. Although the members of this group were often invited to visit families at the different places they visited, they did not seem to have the same opportunity for informal social relations with Americans enjoyed by the other groups. As a result of their lack of formal education, their English facility was low, and they spent a great deal of their spare time with their countrymen speaking their native dialects.

Upon return, they felt they had considerable opportunity to put to use the ideas and techniques they had learned. For one thing, they were often in positions of authority and were able to improve the administration and management of their unions. Secondly, they were able to expand considerably the value of membership in the unions by securing increased benefits. They cited such examples as establishment of a joint management-labor welfare fund, profit-sharing system, family medical plans, standardization and increase of salaries, insurance of members by the company, and establishing a rotation basis for jobs. Third, they were able to improve the training of leaders and union members. As a result of their U. S. training, they became more influential with the rank-and-file union member, who now considered them as more "certified experts." Finally, the Labor Union leaders described a change in their own attitudes toward management-labor relations in the direction of increased cooperation. One union leader cited the establishment of a moratorium on wage increases worked out with the company to allow it to obtain needed capital equipment.

The main barrier to the introduction of new ideas and techniques, according to the labor union leaders was the attitudes of the people they dealt with, both the members of their unions and management personnel. They felt that people were very uninformed about the nature of labor unions and didn't understand them. As a result they were afraid to take a chance on the new ideas presented.

However, the Labor Union leaders were in close touch with the other younger Labor Union leaders, constantly exchanged information and ideas with them, and assisted one another. These men seemed to be forming the spearhead of an advanced labor union movement, enthusiastic about their progress to date, devoted to their union work, members of the same social economic class as the union members, and evidently lacking in any motivation to exploit their leadership for personal gain. Their attitudes toward the U. S. Technical Assistants was favorable and they indicated that more conferences with them and other kinds of help would be welcome.

21. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The participants in Public Administration came from a number of government agencies and were in a variety of Public Administration activities. As a result of this heterogeneity, it is difficult to characterize them as a project group. Participants were selected for study from the following sub-projects: government management and procedures improvement, modernization of budget and accounting, wage and position classification, Civil Service improvement, and government finance (revenue administration). The persons interviewed, 50 in all, represented 83 percent of the total number in the first four of these sub-projects, but only five percent of those in government finance (revenue administration). The Customs Administration in this sub-project, was under investigation at the time of the study, and few participants were willing to be interviewed.

Participants in these Public Administration projects received additional training in personnel policies and management, public utilities regulation and administration, legislative research, records management, Civil Service procedural training, budget administration and analysis, accounting and auditing, customs appraisal and investigation, and other subjects.

The government workers in Public Administration were about the same age as the other participants, with two-thirds of them between 40-49 years. They had an average of 18 years of previous experience before their U. S. training, and a high level of formal education. Except for the industrial participants, they were the highest paid participants in the sample. Not only were their salaries higher at the time of selection, they had received the largest salary increases since their return, and expressed more satisfaction with their earnings.

In contrast to their own high levels of education, high level jobs and good salary, the occupations of their fathers indicated that many of them had improved their life positions considerably about that of their parents. Half of them reported that their fathers had occupations which would place them in the lowest socio-economic class, and half in the middle socio-economic class. Substantiating this evidence of the lower socio-economic status of the families of these participants is the fact that only one in five reported that other members of their families had been to the U.S.

Surprisingly, only six percent of this group said they were active in politics. Approximately one-fourth, a smaller percentage than any of the other occupational groups, indicated having any political influence. In contrast to their own statements, their supervisors reported that these men had more political influence than persons in comparable positions who had not been selected for U. S. training. It appears that Public Administration participants are more sensitive than any of the others to questions concerning their political activity and interest, and perhaps underestimate these factors.

They attributed their selection in the program to the efforts of their friends, relatives, superiors and co-workers. As for the personal qualifications that influenced their selection, they emphasized educational background and record, work experience, ability and intelligence.

Their training programs averaged seven months, and was more likely to be observational than academic. They expressed a great deal of dissatisfaction with the planning of the training programs. They also learned much less about life in the United States than they had expected. As a result of the fact that many traveled with other persons from the Philippines they spent less time with Americans and a great deal more time with their countrymen speaking their native languages.

The outcome of their efforts to employ their training upon return is somewhat obscure. The participants indicated having considerable opportunity to use their training, with seven out of ten reporting that they had returned to jobs which made direct use of their training. Similarly, their supervisors reported that the participants were able to use their training. The U. S. Technical Assistants, who felt that they knew nearly all of these participants personally, had quite a different view. They were very pessimistic about the participants' use of training.

A possible explanation for this discrepancy in opinion is that the participants have reached their personal career objectives and do not feel personally frustrated by difficulties in their attempts to make changes. They did report making many changes in the organizational set up, but at the same time they felt that their colleagues were not receptive to new ideas and that their agencies were heavily influenced by political considerations.

Except for on-the-job training and conferences, they did very little to transmit their training inside their organizations. However, three out of ten reported using what they had learned in formal teaching which they did outside of their regular jobs. They were more likely to report that training others was not a part of their regular jobs.

Personally, they were not much influenced by the American experience. Mature, sophisticated and confident, they were less likely to report having changed their personal behavior or attitudes as a result of their sojourn in the U. S.

These participants felt moderately satisfied with their relationships to the TA's, felt that they were qualified, but did not express much interest in follow-up support by TA's.

22. HIGHWAYS

Participants in the highway improvement project were enthusiastic about their opportunity to employ their training directly on their jobs; saw their agencies as most receptive to the new techniques and skills they had learned; and felt that the U. S. Technical Assistants had been very helpful and supportive throughout the period of their relationship.

The highway improvement project included participants in the Bureau of Public Highways, an agency which has had close contact with American Technicians and considerable material support from the U. S. for many years. A relatively large proportion of the engineers and administrators in the Philippine highway agency have been trained in the U. S.

Highway improvement participants received training largely in Federal or State highway organizations, ranging from mechanics and equipment and shop operation through highway and bridge design engineering to photogrammetry, cost accounting, and materials research. Of the 46 participants sent for study in the five years preceding this survey, 41 or 89 percent were interviewed.

On the personal side, the training program was not as advantageous as they had expected. The average age of these men was close to all participants, about 42 years, and they averaged 14 years of prior service before entering the training program. Half of them had parents in the middle socio-economic category, and half in the lower socio-economic group, a reflection of the fact that the participants were evenly divided among higher and junior level supervisors. Their salaries were higher than that of other government workers, but they expressed much more dissatisfaction with their earnings. It was most important for them to be financial successes, and they did not feel the training experience had helped them as much as they would have liked.

Those in the Bureau of Public Highways have learned to live with political considerations. For example, each month the payroll in the provincial highway systems includes a roster of persons recommended for a few days work by politicians. However, these political influences are not felt by the participants as a barrier to effective technical performance by the agency. Participants feel that political influence should be accepted as the normal state of affairs. For example, the highway participants were least likely to disagree with the idea that an influential person should secure jobs for relatives.

The importance of personal influence was reflected in the reasons they gave for their being selected for the training program. Although they placed some emphasis on their previous work experience and leadership, they placed much more emphasis on the persons who had influenced their selection than their personal attributes. Their selection resulted primarily from the initiative of their supervisors and the U. S. Technical Assistants.

At the same time, the participants did not feel personally influential politically. They belonged to few organizations, expressed little political interest and professed to be both politically inactive and uninfluential. The participants saw themselves as beneficiaries of influence, not active influentials.

While they were very involved in the training program, and discussed the goals of the project with their supervisors before leaving for the States, they were very disappointed with the planning of the program upon their arrival in the United States. Their training programs were mostly observation tours, a large majority were dissatisfied with the planning and organization of these tours. In contrast to this strong expression of dissatisfaction with the planning of their training, they did not feel that the type and content of the r training was preventing them in any way from using their training. Nor were they dissatisfied with the length of the training program. Their lack of satisfaction with the per diem leads us to believe that they were more dissatisfied with the administration than the content of the training.

Although their English facility was low, compared to other participants, the highway visitors spent a great deal of time visiting with American families. Since one-half of them traveled as individuals, rather than in groups, they may have received invitations to visit from their hosts in the State and Federal highway departments. They reported spending little time visiting their own countrymen or speaking their own language.

Upon return they found that their training was directly useful in the jobs to which they were assigned, but reported much less opportunity to transmit their training to others, except the persons they supervised, in informal on-the-job training. They felt they had sufficient freedom of action to implement the techniques and ideas learned, and also received considerable support from their supervisors and co-workers. The kinds of improvements they reported making included: improved management of shop, office, or depot; increased use and improved maintenance of heavy equipment; improved public and internal relations conduct of in-service training programs; research on use of local materials for construction.

They reported more frequent relations with the U. S. TA's than did other projects. TA's had been present at their selection, influenced their being selected, and were helpful in arranging the travel itinerary and training program. Similarly they received help from TA's in back-home application of their training. They described the personal relations with TA's as very satisfactory, and reported that the TA's provided considerable help, both as consultants and intermediaries in providing material help.

PART V

23. NEEDED RESEARCH

In spite of the research that has been done to date on problems of cross-cultural learning, the surface of this complex subject area has scarcely been scratched. However, this section is limited to a brief outlining of several areas of needed research which are suggested by this survey and by the interest in evaluation which prompted it.

Evaluation implies, and indeed in practice consists of, measuring performance against predetermined goals. Defining all program goals more specifically should, by providing better criteria, greatly facilitate the task of evaluation. However, good evaluation studies must also strive to detect unanticipated "side effects" of a program as well as progress toward stated objectives. Ideally they should seek to measure long-range as well as immediate effects of both kinds.

Research on the other hand, is inquiry into the nature of the processes involved. Evaluation studies of operating programs should have a research orientation, so that the specific factors contributing to the success or failure of a given program can be discovered. Administrators of training programs need to know not only what personal and situational factors, methods, and procedures seem to make a difference in a given program situation, but why a particular approach is or is not effective. When this kind of knowledge is conceptualized in terms of working hypotheses and general theory, it becomes more readily available to others, and may be applied with appropriate modifications to other situations.

Longitudinal and predictive studies

One limitation of this follow-up survey was that it consisted largely of measurements taken at one point of time, after participants had returned home. In effect, information from participants, including their feelings about their selection, their orientation, and their U. S. training experience, was reconstructed from memory and probably influenced somewhat by their subsequent experiences. Measurements at another time might show different results. Another limitation was that no factors could be experimentally changed to see what effects this would have. Differences among participants and their experiences that could be observed and measured were, of course, correlated with use made of U. S. training to see if relationships existed. It would be extremely worthwhile to set up several evaluation research projects which are longitudinal, providing for tests and measurements at several points of time during the training process and the period of back-home application. Such studies could test the predictive ability of those responsible for selection and training, or could be designed to test experimentally some of the hypothesis relating to successful training, under controlled conditions.

This is not the place for elaborate details on such studies, but a rough outline of two will illustrate what might be involved. Assume that one is primarily interested in testing the selection procedure, for example. In country X, persons who are selected for U. S. training might (for test purposes) be divided into those who should be expected to fall later into high-medium-low success categories on the basis of age, intelligence, social mobility, personality, language facility, experience, and any other meaningful criteria that have been suggested and on which ratings or judgments can be made. Several subsequent measures, by interviewing or questionnaire techniques, both during the training program and at intervals after return home,

would provide a basis for seeing how accurately success can be predicted at the time of selection and what factors need further study.

Similarly, it is believed by some that special training in becoming a successful "change agent" will be helpful to participants in applying their technical training. Such a program might include training in communication and human relations skills. A longitudinal research study could be designed to test this belief. Participants in the same fields of training from selected countries might be divided in two groups, prospective "highs" and "lows," at time of selection. Half of the participants in each of these two groups, randomly selected or on some basis of matched pairs (education, work experience, etc.) would be given this special training in communication and human relations skills, and the other half of each group would be the control, not receiving this training. Subsequent measures of the back-home utilization made of U. S. training might well show what difference, if any, the special training made. There are, of course, many other designs possible, depending on the questions to be examined.

Comparative studies

As training programs grow in maturity and as the numbers of participants increase, it is only natural that legislators and administrators in both the United States and in the other countries concerned should expect that these programs will build on past experience and improve through the application of increasingly systematic knowledge. Those in positions of responsibility have every right to inquire whether the taxpayers, or others paying the bills, are getting their money's worth, and will be increasingly restive where the benefits of training programs continue to be justified on the basis of faith and hunch alone. Those who are familiar with the fact that social science techniques have been increasingly used in other parts of government and even more widely in business to measure the effectiveness of on-going operations, may be especially insistent on having better evaluation studies. It would be of great benefit, both to program administration and to social science, to have new studies in different countries coordinated in some way so that data are comparable. The efforts of the ICA in suggesting certain "standard" information to be obtained in future evaluation studies of training programs by its field missions is to be especially commended for this reason.

Studies of the organizational environment

One of the more striking findings of this survey is the importance of the participant's organizational and work environment in determining the extent to which his U. S. training is used. Participant's actions depend to a large extent upon the attitudes of those around and especially above them. This observation, which seems so obvious, is borne out by many other studies of employees in business and government organizations. It seems likely that studies of the organizational environments in which returned participants work will add appreciably to our knowledge of the forces influencing the participant. This should point to ways in which participant's use of specialized technical training can be increased, and how participants can in general become more effective change-agents.

The diffusion process and the adoption of new ideas

There has been some important research within the last several years in the United States on the ways new ideas and practices are diffused through rural and other segments of the population and adopted by various groups. Since participants are in a sense innovators, and are concerned with seeing that new ideas and techniques are more widely used, it would be extremely valuable to know more about how the diffusion process works in other countries, and what factors influence the speed and spread of new ideas and practices. Such knowledge should increase the transmission of training to others, and thereby the multiplier effect of training which is so strongly desired.

Third country training

Most U. S. sponsored programs have involved training in the United States, without examining explicitly the advantages and disadvantages of training in some third country. The ICA has, however, markedly increased its third-country training, in recent years. Such training is often very much less expensive, can be done in situations more closely approximating home-country conditions, and often lessens the problems of personal adjustment for participants. It is less clear what effects third country training has on the attitudes and value systems of participants. Research comparing the short and long-term effects of training in third countries versus the United States would help determine more clearly the relative advantages and disadvantages of each, in terms of various program objectives.

Liaison between operations and research

These few examples of needed research should also point up the need for closer liaison between those engaged in cross-cultural research and those administering training programs. There is a gap that needs to be narrowed between research findings and the practical rules and operating procedures used by operators in this field. Further cooperation between social scientists and administrators should help to increase awareness and control of the factors found to make for successful training, help avoid costly mistakes, and increase the effectiveness of participant training in national programs of economic and social development.

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