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TRAINING STRATEGIES FOR INTERNATIONAL PARTICIPANTS

A WORKSHOP REPORT

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I. INTRODUCTION

Water Management Synthesis Projects I and II (USAID-funded) have included training programs since their inception in 1977 and 1982, respectively. A major training component of the projects has been Irrigation Systems Diagnostic Analysis Workshops¹ held in the USA, Egypt, Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and Nepal. Formal on-campus training has involved single discipline or interdisciplinary summer shortcourses² and special programs for groups from a single country.³ The latter programs may or may not have been directly sponsored by WMS projects but have supported project objectives. Three-month to two-year programs also offer on-campus academic degree and nondegree training for specialists.⁴

¹Diagnostic Analysis workshops objectives are to introduce participants to the concept of an interdisciplinary approach in the identification of problems in irrigated agriculture. The training program consists of lectures and video films in the classroom, data collection in the field, and team preparation of reports.

²A seven-week shortcourse entitled, "Social and Technical Aspects of Improved Irrigation Organizations" is an example of an interdisciplinary course that emphasizes learning by doing. It provides an analysis of physical tools and the social-organizational rules necessary for irrigation system management.

³During the past two years, training programs tailored for the specific needs of Indian and Indonesian groups have been conducted on campuses of Colorado State University and Utah State University. These programs included instructors from a number of university departments, and non-university specialists who assisted in field trips and off-campus instruction.

⁴A large number of international students receive instruction in regular academic courses. Advisors are assigned to each student to assist in tailoring the course selections to the students' needs. Both degree and nondegree programs normally involve six months to two years training. The International School for Agricultural and Resource Development at CSU has had a large part in this type of training as well as in training country groups.

Through the interdisciplinary approach to training, experience has been gained about how to present concepts of different disciplines to participants with varied backgrounds and abilities. Issues critical to training have been encountered and dealt with creatively. Valuable information has been learned to make future workshops more effective and useful.

The Training Strategies Workshop was conducted on campus at Colorado State University on October 3-4, 1985. The purpose of the workshop was to bring together people of varied disciplines who had had training experience in WMSII and other international projects so that they might identify training issues considered critical. To assist in focusing workshop group discussions on training as a communication process, Dr. James King of the Department of Agricultural Communications, University of Nebraska, was invited as a consultant to make a formal presentation and to participate in workshop group discussions. Dr. Eugene V. Martin, a consultant with International Development Management Center, University of Maryland, College Park, participated in workshop discussion groups and provided information about the OICD, USDA Team Planning Meeting (TPM) methodology which has been used for more than sixty training teams sent abroad for USAID-funded projects. (See Appendix A for details about TPM).

A major emphasis in the workshop was the direct participation of nineteen people in small and large group discussion and work sessions. These water management and agricultural development specialists represented the disciplines of civil engineering, agricultural engineering, agronomy, sociology, agricultural economics, technical journalism and animal science. (See the detailed list of participants and their affiliation in Appendix B).

This Training Strategies Workshop was built upon the Training of Trainers Workshop held at CSU August 19-21, 1985. The schedule of the two-day Training Strategies Workshop is presented in Appendix C.

II. IDENTIFICATION OF CRITICAL TRAINING ISSUES

All workshop participants took part in a two-hour group brainstorming discussion session during which they identified the issues considered to be most important to successful training. As background for this session, the participants had access to the lists of Training Issues developed during the previous Training of Trainers Workshop. (See Appendix C for these lists). Other background for this session was the presentation by Dr. King on intercultural communication in training. (See the summary of his presentation in Section IV of this report).

The critical training issues are identified below. No effort was made to rank them by importance. The first seven were discussed in small group sessions (see Section III).

1. On-campus adult training (nondegree programs).
2. Selection of the training audience. This selection is influenced by potential participants' present position, educational background and future employment. The final selection is largely decided by USAID and host country administrators.
3. Expectations of trainees vs. objectives of trainers. Determination of who is the client that must be satisfied.
4. Identification of training needs for improving irrigated agriculture.
5. Follow-up after training.
6. Evaluation during planning, training and post-training phases of training activities.
7. Team composition. Consideration must be given to age, country of origin, experience, sex, attitude, whether facilitator or technician, leader or follower.
8. Institutionalization of training. Each country in which training takes place has the desire to conduct training with nationalist staff.

9. Place and time of training. Shall the training be conducted in a host country or at a U.S. university? Shall training be continuous or at various times? What is the duration of the training period?
10. Cultural sensitivity of trainers. How do we teach trainers to work effectively with people of different cultures?

III. LESSONS LEARNED ABOUT CRITICAL ISSUES

Summary of Small Group Discussion Topics

During work sessions of the workshop, participants were divided into small groups for two-hour periods. Each group was assigned to discuss one of the critical training issues identified in an earlier general session. However, there was not time during the two-day workshop to discuss all issues. Small group spokesmen summarized the topic conclusions of their groups and led discussions by all participants. The summary and conclusions of the participant work sessions follow.

A. Critical Issue: On-Campus Adult Training (Nondegree Programs)

Participants in the training strategies workshop had taken part in on-campus training of foreign nationals that involved at least four alternative designs or combinations of programs. Descriptions of the four types of programs and summaries of lessons learned about these different training strategies follow.

1. Special courses designed for specific clientele. These courses varied in length from a few days to two semesters. Two recent programs developed for India and Indonesia provided lessons about this type of training strategy.

Results of training oriented toward participants from India suggest that selection of appropriate participants needs to be more closely evaluated in regard to their age and education. While older people in the later stages of their careers performed satisfactorily in the special courses, they sometimes seemed rather disinterested in the content presented. They were not as enthusiastic nor as keen on detail as their younger colleagues. Greater attention may be given to differentiating training into at least two categories: a) providing the younger technicians with more discipline oriented technical training, and b) providing the senior managerial people training that will more directly apply to improving managerial skills.

Multidisciplinary academic courses require selection of relatively well-trained people. It is a challenge to present useful training and maintain the interest of all trainees when there is a wide spectrum of disciplines. This seems to be accomplished through courses which provide "hands-on" experience of

the different disciplines working together such as in the Diagnostic Analysis workshops.

A program for Indonesians was two months in length and involved twenty-five faculty members. There was some concern about the continuity of subject matter presented. Many subjects were covered but not in the depth desired by a few individuals. The trade-off between breadth and depth of material presented must always be closely evaluated.

In specialized program development at universities, consideration should be given as to whether or not sufficient use is being made of off-campus programs, instructors and agencies.

In spite of some expression of dissatisfaction about training for individual groups, most trainees have felt positively about their experience in these special programs.

2. A second on-campus adult nondegree training program is that of selecting regular academic classes based on trainees' individual needs. Advisors were assigned from the appropriate discipline to provide direct guidance to each person in his/her program development. The training period for many of the participants for this type program is six months to one year in length.

Workshop participants concluded that a program built on a selection of academic courses is useful for those with proper training. Some trainees have felt that they were more qualified than they were for upper division or graduate level courses. Consequently, courses were selected which were too difficult and low grades were received. In a few cases, trainees were not pleased with regular academic classes that advisors selected for them. This was most often because prerequisites were lacking for courses that advisors felt would be good for professional improvement and that would enable specialists to function better in irrigated agriculture. Too often in academic courses, participants do not want to take the time to learn the specific material required.

3. Field trips were a third component of training strategies for adult training at universities. These varied in length from one day to three weeks. The field trips were local, within one state, among multiple states, or international and all included on-tour seminars. Field trips are a vital part of training and generate goodwill for the host country. They provide an opportunity to see technology in operation, talk to practicing

professionals and see a new culture. It is important to select the right people to see at the sites visited.

4. The fourth type of training on-campus was special short-term courses of four to eight weeks in length. These were usually conducted during the summer or between academic terms.

Generally, participants were selected with the specific course in mind and were, therefore, relatively qualified for the course. However, candidates for these courses are never rejected due to lack of qualification if their language ability is satisfactory. Participant response to these specialized courses has been excellent.

Greater emphasis should be given to breaking these specialized shortcourses into modular segments. This would allow host countries to choose the desired segment for in-country instruction.

B. Critical Issue: Selection of Training Audience

The selection of participants can be influenced by trainers or the agencies conducting or sponsoring training. A relatively direct method of influencing the selection of training candidates is to write a job description which indicates the kind of trainee wanted for the course. However, trainers cannot dictate who can or cannot be selected; the host country and funding agency will make the final choices. Universities are basically organized for academic degrees. The selection of persons who enroll in regular courses is limited to those who have the background for the course. The negative impact of not following this policy has been previously discussed.

When it is possible to identify the audience in advance, courses can be developed that will meet specific needs. This is especially applicable for adult education. The training needs of foreign students are generally the same as for U.S. students.

Highly technical academic courses are satisfactory for new engineers, economists, agronomists, sociologists or those of other disciplines. They are the specialists who are at the utilization level and who will apply academic concepts and principles. However, older people in middle management positions often have their own useful academic concepts and principles and believe they no longer need highly technical training. This explains the disinterest a few senior people have shown for some of the technical training courses. These people, for example, are not going to design canals or develop computer simulation models. Similar needs for management training exists for U.S. irrigation consultants or

Agricultural Research Service (USDA) people, for example, in this age category.

C. Critical Issue: Expectations of Trainees Versus Objectives of Trainers

Trainees have concepts which they want reinforced and expanded upon while trainers often have a different view of what should be learned. When trainer views conflict with what the trainees expect, resistance can arise. When trainers reinforce preconceived concepts, there will be good response even when there is not much increase in learning that takes place. Therefore, trainers must insure that the learning of participants is pushed beyond their preconceived concepts. In WMSII training programs, assessments of participants' expectations have been conducted at the start of the training course. Efforts have then been made to reach goal agreements between trainers and trainees. Frequently, there is a need for different training than expected by participants in order to bring about changes in a system. Trainers must start with the fact that there is a training program imposed on a system which, if successful, will generate conflict between the training program and the training participants. However, conflict is not necessarily bad because old ways are being challenged and new techniques are being introduced.

Training conducted by CSU for the WMSII project has taught concepts of an interdisciplinary view of irrigation systems. Individual training efforts have been adapted to the needs of host countries. This has resulted in an interactive experience oriented approach to training where participants learn to adapt and to learn basic technical skills as they gain experience. Training experiences were designed to help participants understand different ways of looking at and doing things. The results have been impressive as indicated by improved operation of irrigation systems and interdisciplinary cooperation. In terms of professional improvement, participants know that what they learned has importance to their country and is valuable to themselves.

The main lesson learned is that one should not look at conflicting objectives as negative if training deals with these issues in an appropriate manner. Another lesson learned is that there is a positive feedback process between participants and trainers and between participants themselves. Each person looks at problems differently and approaches solutions in different ways. When communication is maintained, learning by both trainers and participants is accelerated and can continue long after training workshops are conducted.

D. Critical Issue: Identification of Training Needs for Improving Irrigated Agriculture

Interdisciplinary diagnostic analysis of irrigation systems has been used in several countries to facilitate the understanding of a system's operation and the identification of constraints under which systems must function. Diagnostic analysis workshops have also been a very powerful tool for training. Findings from these workshops can be used only as guidelines towards future research or other training efforts. The short time for on-site data collection and evaluation does not provide sufficient information to give detailed answers to the questions required for long range planning. It should be emphasized to USAID missions that more planning time and resources are needed for in-depth diagnostic analyses of irrigation systems than is available for a training workshop.

Future needs in training are to develop clients for workshops of the following types:

1. Senior officials workshop. The type conducted in Nepal was very effective in creating understanding and support among senior officials. This workshop included high level administrators from different agencies. Less than one week was spent in reviewing results and procedures of a modified diagnostic analysis workshop. Some field exercises were included. Orientation of senior officials after a DA workshop should be emphasized more as an integral part of training. This instruction will aid future implementation of new techniques and facilitate follow-up activities.
2. Irrigation systems oriented workshops. One workshop would be oriented around data management; the training would emphasize the use of microcomputers as a tool. A second workshop should stress procedures for monitoring and evaluation of irrigation systems.
3. Workshops or seminars with project and AID Mission/ Washington personnel. These should deal with issues to support water management improvement and agency coordination.

E. Critical Issue: Follow-Up After Training

Follow-up to training involves providing additional expertise and assistance to facilitate the use of training within agencies where trainees are functioning. It includes reinforcing subject matter taught and providing additional training when needed. Follow-up also includes an evaluation of the effectiveness of training. There are two levels where influence may be exerted to increase the probability that training will be effectively applied on the job. The first level of influence is on the individual and the second level is on the institution. Host country personnel who served as co-trainers in programs are potentially the most appropriate positive force for influencing the application of training by both individuals and institutions. However, direct contact between trainers and trainees should also be encouraged.

Follow-up must be planned and budgeted for. The biggest limitation to follow-up in many projects has been a lack of funding for this important activity. Creative Associates evaluation of the diagnostic analysis process is the nearest thing to training follow-up that the WMSII Project has accomplished to date.

Possible activities for follow-up include the following suggestions:

1. Conduct a needs assessment of trainees by letter. This could also include offers to provide learning materials, a newsletter, and direct assistance.
2. Educate host country agencies about the need for follow-up and identify particular areas of follow-up needed.
3. Build into training activities a process whereby the perceived future needs of the trainees can be identified.
4. Explore what others have done or are doing in the area of follow-up.

F. Critical Issue: Evaluation

The discussion about evaluation dealt with the three phases of training: planning, training and post-training.

Evaluation During Planning

What to evaluate will be guided by the type of training activity. Evaluation will include:

1. Proposed program content,
2. Proposed training methods, and
3. Trainers' records of performance and leadership.

Evaluation will be made during and at the end of the planning period and again at the end of the training workshop to identify planning deficiencies. The evaluation can be done by formative evaluation during planning and by a formal questionnaire used at the end of the planning period.

Evaluation During Training

The aspects of training that should be evaluated and who should do the evaluation are listed below:

1. Trainers should be evaluated by trainees.
2. Trainees should be evaluated by trainers. The trainees' progress should be monitored frequently.
3. Content of workshop should be evaluated by trainers, trainees and funding agencies.
4. Administration and logistics of training should be evaluated by all involved directly or indirectly.
5. Schedule and agenda of training should be evaluated by trainers and trainees.

How to evaluate during training includes:

1. Formative evaluation throughout the training.
2. Formal evaluation by use of questionnaire at the end of training.

3. Oral presentations by individuals or teams throughout the training.
4. Written reports at the end of training by individuals or interdisciplinary teams. These provide a useful insight into how new skills or methods are understood.
5. Skill tests at the beginning and end of training.
6. Observation by trainers or outside evaluators.
7. Self-evaluation by trainees.

Evaluation During Post-Training

From six months to one year after training, the following areas should be evaluated:

1. The impact of training on individuals. What changes have been made in the way problems are identified and solutions reached.
2. The changes that have occurred in organizations upon the return of trainees to their countries.
3. Effectiveness of training programs. How have trainees used the skill and information they have learned when they return to their jobs?
4. The relevance of the planning phase of training and its contribution to the success of training and follow-up.
5. Training phase. Improvements or changes that may be suggested from a perspective of hindsight.
6. Networking success and follow-up activities.

Evaluation may be accomplished through using various methods:

1. Formal questionnaires mailed to people who have received training with the request that questionnaires be returned.

2. Informal letters from on-site or mission people, or graduate students from countries where training has occurred.
3. Evaluation teams sent to missions by donor agencies.
4. Observation that trainees are utilizing new techniques taught during training.
5. Observation that additional requests from countries are being made for training programs.

There has not been as much evaluation of training programs as is desirable. Reasons for gaps in evaluation are lack of resources and time constraints and other obligations of trainers, trainees, and administrators of host countries and USAID.

G. Critical Issue: Team Composition

For an interdisciplinary team, members must have the ability to lead or they must be willing to integrate into a team as followers. These traits must be combined with expertise in his/her discipline.

The process for selecting leaders is to identify objectives, prioritize the needs to meet objectives, and evaluate people for team leadership considering resources available and the time constraints of candidates.

WMSII project training experience demonstrates that it is not desirable to send one-person teams. (Of course, it is recognized that there are occasions when time constraints and conditions make it necessary to send one broadly based person.) When possible, at least four-person training teams should be used. Each person should represent a different discipline. When this is not possible, then a physical scientist (such as an engineer or agronomist) and a social scientist (such as an agricultural economist or sociologist) should at least be included. Even multi-person teams should have one individual who appreciates and understands some of the techniques of the other disciplines. In interdisciplinary training workshops, it is difficult to have the team leader represent one of the disciplines in training as well as care for all of the administrative details. It would be better to have the leader manage and to have an assistant perform the discipline training activities.

It is difficult for the training team leaders to clearly explain to others what will be sacrificed when the number of team members needed are not funded. Technical or social factors critical to improving irrigated agriculture may be left out of training. There are occasions when the request for training must be declined if people needed are not approved.

Donor or host country administrators have expressed a number of concerns about individual characteristics of the members of interdisciplinary teams. A discussion of these follows:

Age and Experience

The relatively young age of some team members has been seen as a possible problem. Frequently, youth is equated with lack of experience or training. There is a need to better communicate to others the professionalism exhibited by young team members in prior workshops and technical assistance. The younger members of a team sometimes are better qualified to teach new technology than are the older members. The age issue should be dealt with prior to training or technical assistance activities.

Attitude

Team members for many types of training and technical assistance activities must be oriented toward interdisciplinary training. They must also be culturally sensitive as they deal with trainees from many countries.

Nationality

There has been some criticism by the host country administrators when people other than USA natives have been included on teams even when they have been trained in the USA. The specific reasons for objections have not been ascertained. However, post-training feedback from missions has been positive about these well qualified individuals. To alter perceptions about the nationality of team members, consideration should be given to including more host country graduate students on teams to help with training or technical assistance. Their competence will be demonstrated early in their careers.

Women In Development

On two diagnostic analysis workshop teams, a female was assigned as a team member to represent WID in the training. Tight budgets will limit the inclusion of WID trainers on DA teams in the future; however, women's role in development topics will be handled

by either the sociology or agricultural economics team member. Women will continue to be included on teams as technical people in disciplines such as engineering, agronomy, sociology, agricultural economics or technical journalism.

Role of Trainer

Trainers must be facilitators to the learning process of trainees. There are different styles of training and these should be matched to the style and role most acceptable to trainees.

When teaching students from other countries, U.S. trainers must be concerned about whether learning is taking place. They must be sensitive to the ways in which these people differ in their learning style from U.S. students. The American style of education is much more informal and practical than the trainees are used to. While they have most often been used to instruction directed specifically toward examinations, U.S. training style emphasizes "hands-on" practical experience. Many of the trainees are not used to asking instructors questions; in order to know that trainees are understanding and learning the material, the trainer must be sure to ask direct questions. Foreign students are not accustomed to a relationship with a teacher in which they might visit his office for clarification of material; trainers must be sure to emphasize to trainees that they are welcome to do so.

Participants in workshops oriented toward improving irrigated agriculture are not just involved for what they can get out of the training for their own personal achievement. They have an objective to improve the functions of their organizations. Trainers must modify their materials to meet the specific needs of a particular country.

Trainers will use multimedia in training, but will be sensitive to the apprehension that there may be a potential overuse of video. This medium needs to be locally relevant and well-done. Written handout materials should accompany visual aids. Role playing and demonstration are part of visual instruction also.

IV. TRAINING TO BRING ABOUT CHANGE

A Presentation by James W. King, Ph.D.
Department of Agricultural Communication
University of Nebraska, Lincoln

The following is a summary of information presented during a special session conducted by Dr. King. Appendix D contains the handout relating to the topic discussed.

A. Introduction

Training must focus on people.

Business as usual is not satisfactory when there is failure in training.

Nobody has all the answers in training nor the final answer in communication.

What we are trying to accomplish is to improve training.

Training is one tool to be used to bring about learning.

B. The Training Process

There are five key steps in the training process:

1. Planning

- * In what areas is training required?
- * Who is the audience?
- * Is the message meaningful?
- * Is the method a training technique that is appropriate?
- * How will training be evaluated so that improvements can be made and success can be measured?

2. Presentation

The trainers must know what trainees expect and what their capabilities are.

3. Practice

Hands-on experiences must be provided since there is no way to accomplish what participants want to do without practice.

4. Performance

Participants must have an opportunity to do what they have learned and then must receive feedback by being tested in some way.

5. Follow-Up

Training is not a one-time effort, but continues with adaptation when the trainees return to their jobs. Therefore, follow-up support should be provided by newsletters and professional journals. A networking system can gradually be developed to keep trainers and trainees in touch.

C. Criteria for Effective Training

The following are criteria which when satisfied will bring about more effective training:

1. Specific objectives must be written in behavioral terms. Most people want to know what is expected of them during and after training.
2. A multi-media experience should be provided in each training workshop. This can include printed material, visual aids, fieldwork, group discussions and individual study or activity.
3. Documents should be provided each participant. These can be handouts, training manuals, and tests to which reference can be made at later times on the job.

4. Training must include a person in close proximity to trainees who has credibility and can answer questions.
5. Rewards should be provided for participants. They want to know what they will get out of a particular training program. This could include a certificate of course completion, a publication, or a letter of compliment. They can look forward to promotion and increased pay when they return to their jobs after effective training.

D. Training Commitments

There are commitments that must be made at different levels for successful training activities:

1. Sponsoring Organization Commitment

Sponsoring organizations (USAID and host country) are expected to utilize trained people on development projects. Trainees will be provided the opportunity to apply new techniques and skills in the field.

2. Trainee Commitment

Trainees must be made aware that they are chosen for training programs with the expectation that they will apply the new information to their jobs. They should also be committed to continued improvement of their skills and be receptive to participating in training follow-up activities.

3. Training Organization Commitment

Training organizations are committed to selecting good trainers and making continued evaluation of their performance. These agencies must also commit to training trainers for specialized projects.

E. Communication

Key observations about communication:

1. We know what we mean but do the students?
2. Meanings are in people and not in words; culture provides the meanings.

3. Do not assume that people of differing cultures get the same meaning from visuals.
4. Each person sees the world in many ways and through his own frame of reference; reality is subjective for each person. Problems are seen differently and frequently a distortion of information occurs.
5. People tend to ignore information they do not like. As a consequence, trainees sometimes will avoid certain information by failing to attend training sessions.
6. To achieve significant results, trainers almost have to get inside the minds of the people they are working with.
7. We communicate to influence people and to change behavior. Planning must take place so that we know the audience we wish to influence.

F. Principles of Human Learning

Several principles of human learning that can be used in any training program are listed below. A more detailed discussion of each principle can be found on pages 8 and 9 of Appendix D.

1. **Meaningfulness.** A person is likely to be motivated to learn things which are meaningful to him. People learn when they are ready to learn.
2. **Prerequisites.** A person is more likely to learn something new if he has the prerequisites. People tie their learning to what they already know.
3. **Modeling.** A person is more likely to acquire new behavior if he is presented with a model performance to watch and imitate.
4. **Open Communication.** A person is more likely to learn if the presentation is structured so that the trainer's messages are open to participants' inspection. People need to understand what they learn.

5. Individual Differentiation. A person should be given the opportunity to learn the best way suited him.
6. Graduated Sequence. A person may proceed through training step-by-step, and each step may be more difficult than the previous one.
7. Active, Appropriate Practice. A person is more likely to learn if he takes an active part in practice geared to reach a training objective. This is learning by doing.
8. Distributed Practice. A person is more likely to learn if his practice is scheduled in short periods and distributed over time. People learn one thing at a time.
9. Fading. A person is more likely to learn if teaching prompts are withdrawn gradually.
10. Pleasant Conditions. A person is more likely to learn if training conditions are pleasant.
11. Knowledge of Results. As a person practices, he must know whether he is performing correctly or not.
12. Novelty. A person is more likely to learn if his attention is attracted by relatively novel presentations.

G. Culture

Culture is a way of seeing and perceiving. We must learn how others see us and how we see ourselves. Barriers to effective intercultural communication are:

1. Language. There are known and unknown meanings behind words.
2. Nonverbal meanings. Gestures, postures and facial expressions can be "read" differently by those in intercultural groups.
3. The overgeneralized belief. People try to fit new experiences into previous patterns.

4. Evaluation of behavior. Trainers and trainees judge one another based on background culture.
5. Anxiety and Stress. Unfamiliar situations and experience create anxiety and mar performance.

V. TEAM PLANNING MEETINGS

Presentation by Dr. Eugene V. Martin, Consultant
International Development Management Center
Division of Agricultural and Life Sciences
University of Maryland, College Park

Dr. Martin was invited to the Training Strategies Workshop to formally instruct participants about the Team Planning Meetings (TPM) developed by the Office of International Cooperation and Development, USDA.* All agencies who send teams to foreign countries want them to provide excellent training programs or technical assistance. The TPM is a formalized method for increasing the potential for positive team performance and thus has elements with potential direct application to the WMSII activities.

Dr. Martin's initial assignment to the workshop participants was to identify problems associated with short-term technical assistance and training teams. The following list was developed:

1. Complexity of Communication. Problems occur when coordination is conducted among a team, university, USAID/Washington, host country USAID mission, and host country agencies. Each of these entities also has different levels at which communication occurs.
2. Identification of appropriate people in regard to their availability, trainer experience and relevant expertise.
3. The need for clear understanding of the terms of reference as well as the scope of work. Attention must be paid to the identification of tasks,

* For a detailed discussion of the TPM, see the Development Project Management Center Publication, Team Planning Meeting (TPM) Reference Handbook, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Office of International Cooperation and Development, Technical Division in cooperation with U.S. Agency for International Development, Bureau for Science and Technology.

schedules and drafts of reports. There must then be a synchronizing of what everyone expects from the team.

4. A technical assistance team's understanding of the system. This may be superficial because time is short. To initiate activities in a country where prior work has not been done, the team must visit individuals who have a working relationship with the system to be evaluated. From these people, one can gain information about the administrative structure for the system, identify working relationships among agencies or people, and determine where conflicts might occur.
5. Requests for teams to operate outside areas of their expertise. Frequently, major problems are not properly dealt with because the appropriate people are not on the team.
6. Poor team cohesion. Often team members are unknown to one another, and lack of time rules out getting together prior to the travel date. This may result in personality conflicts or inability to make proper use of expertise.
7. Inadequate support system. Too frequently USAID and host countries are not prepared to give teams the logistical support required such as transportation and clerical assistance.
8. Team leadership. It is critical to have good leaders who take care of administrative details and resolve conflicts that may arise among team members.
9. Staggered working time. It can happen that team members never work together as a group in a host country because of time and distance constraints.

In the TPM Handbook, team problems are summarized into the six general categories listed below. It is evident that the nine problem areas identified by workshop participants are encompassed by these six categories.

1. Finding the right people for the activity.

2. Problems in the orientation of team members to the host country culture and to the job expected.
3. Difficulties with providing support and backstopping to the team.
4. Lack of, or inadequate awareness of, the existing needs: type of training to be provided and the specific focus areas of research.
5. Uncertainty of individual team members about the role of other team members.
6. A lack of team cohesion. Frequently, team members have not had prior experience in working together.

Dr. Martin indicated that the TPM approach was developed to improve technical assistance to host countries by directly dealing with these problems. The following information extracted from the Reference Handbook summarizes the information presented about the TPM method.* (Appendix A contains the handout relating to TPM.)

TPM is an organized process by which a group of persons responsible for an assignment come together in a concentrated effort to define, plan for, and mobilize to accomplish the work. TPM covers two dimensions: TASK FUNCTIONS, i.e., what is to be done and how, and TEAM BUILDING, i.e., melding the members into an effective temporary organization. The objectives of TPM include:

- Assuring that all logistical and administrative arrangements are understood and in place.
- Achieving agreement concerning objectives, strategy, roles and responsibilities for both the team and for each member.
- Establishing processes for reviewing the work and for redirecting the effort as necessary to reach the objectives.

* Ibid.

- Developing awareness and sensitivity to cultural characteristics and organizational factors influencing the team's performance.
- Resolving any organizational representation issues involved with the assignment and reflecting the interests of the multiple organizations and individuals participating on the team (e.g., AID, USAIDs, USDA, universities, host country institutions, consulting firms).

TPM sessions involve all members of both the field and broader team who can be brought together in an intensive effort to:

- become acquainted, share their backgrounds, experience, motivations, perceptions, and expectations of the assignment;
- review the history of the assignment to understand how it fits into broader program and project activities;
- identify the constellation of "clients" involved in the assignment, understand their relationships and legitimate interests, and determine how the team fits into his picture;
- review the team and individual scopes of work so there is agreement and understanding by the team and the sponsoring organizations;
- establish clear and agreed-upon strategies, objectives and outputs, and modes of team operation;
- establish a tentative action plan, including means for reviewing objectives and validating work with field personnel, clients, and members who may join the team in the field;
- agree on specific assignments, responsibilities, and deadlines for individual assignments;
- create guidelines and standards for on-going formative evaluations of the effort and steps for redirection if necessary;

- share personal preferences and expectations for the use of "private" time as well as work time; and
- reach consensus on team norms so behavioral expectations are clear and comfortable to all.

Clearly, if a project team jointly tackles these issues up front, they will be prepared to "hit the ground running" and deliver better results.

The length of the TPM will depend upon the nature of the assignment, team size and composition and other influencing factors. The core process requires approximately 20 hours which can be extended for complex assignments to as much as 35 hours or more. Although the TPM is usually conducted in a concentrated block of time close to the team's departure, it can be scheduled to accommodate the requirements of the team and/or sponsoring agency.

Conceptually, TPM is organized into interrelated modules. Based on these modules, the TPM design is flexible to respond to individual team characteristics and specific needs. Nine core modules are considered standard for all teams:

1. getting acquainted and expectations sharing activities;
2. relevant history/background of the project and assignment;
3. team assignment objectives and scope of work;
4. individual roles and responsibilities;
5. action planning;
6. review, feedback and evaluation plans;
7. team interaction dynamics: strengths and difficulties;
8. institutional representational issues; and
9. administrative support: requirements and procedures.

Traditionally, sponsoring organizations give an "orientation" to persons undertaking a field assignment. TPM differs from the typical orientation in five significant ways:

- focus on both team and individual results,
- concern with the process of achieving results as well as the end output of the assignment,
- building good management practices for the team to follow in their work,
- start-up of substantive project work, and
- activation of a team function for assignment.

A concluding remark for this session of the Training Strategies Workshop was that the only way to know the benefit of TPM (relative to costs) is to try one and then evaluate it.

VI. CONCLUSION

Many important aspects of training were considered during the Water Management Synthesis Project's Training Strategies Workshop. These included methods of presentation of information to bring about change, team planning, alternative training programs, evaluation of training and follow-up to training. Particular emphasis was given to a need for more planning and funding directed at follow-up activities so that a greater multiplier effect from past WMS project training would result.

The information developed by workshop participants in group work sessions is of value in improving future training strategies because it drew upon the lessons learned in varied training experiences. The participants thought that they benefited because the material presented and discussed during the workshop had direct and immediate application to their present training activities in LDCs and university academic courses. (See Appendix E.)

All participants in the workshop contributed to its success by their enthusiasm and active, informed discussion of the relevant issues.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT CENTER
OFFICE OF INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMS
DIVISION OF AGRICULTURAL AND LIFE SCIENCES
UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND COLLEGE PARK

An Introduction to Team Planning Meetings (TPM)*

May 1984

Each year thousands of persons are sent abroad on technical cooperation programs. These persons may play many different roles, often simultaneously, including: US representatives, technician, communicator, administrator, "diplomat," advisor, negotiator, supervisor, organization representative, and so on. The performance of these persons influence profoundly their sponsoring institution's reputations, relationships with other organizations and countries, and future cooperative programs.

Technical cooperation efforts are a critical component of most development programs and are at the center of many intergovernmental relationships. When there is dissatisfaction with the success or effectiveness of technical cooperation, the organization providing assistance or consultancy is often held responsible for the outcomes. This puts the sponsoring institutions in a vulnerable position, and places enormous pressure on technical cooperation teams and individuals. Often preparation for carrying out complex assignments is inadequate. Individuals are selected solely on the basis of technical qualifications and little attention is given to other dimensions which may have a dominant influence on the overall performance and client acceptance.

In carrying out technical cooperation assignments, an immediate challenge is to integrate technical knowledge with a work process that is culturally and organizationally appropriate. In fact, organizational and cultural skills are often the key to give more attention to this aspect of technical cooperation. One of the lessons of experience is that the quality of our programs can be improved by better preparing persons and teams for their assignments. This is especially important when persons are only temporarily affiliated with a technical cooperation effort, but is equally important everytime a team is formed to carry out a new assignment.

*Adapted from "OICD Team Planning Meetings (TPM) Background Packet" by Merlyn Kettering of the Development Project Management Center of OICD/USDA, July 1983.

TEAM PLANNING MEETINGS (TPM) help ensure that individuals and teams are prepared for their assignments. TPMs provide the basis for doing a better job in the field and a better job in representing their sponsoring institutions. TPMs focus on clearly understanding the nature of expectations and relations with client organizations and the need to integrate technical knowledge with organizational and process skills. TPMs provide an opportunity to get early agreements on goals, strategies, expected products and internal work arrangements. These agreements are the basis for success for a technical cooperation effort and if not reached at the beginning, can be costly in terms of time, harmony, and quality of the final product of an effort.

Traditionally, preparation for technical cooperation activities has focused primarily upon technical information relevant to the assignment and "administrative" related to logistics and survival. TPM incorporates these areas, but goes beyond them to:

- become acquainted with all team members and persons associated with the assignment (including, for example, AID staff or support persons from USDA or private firms);
- review the history of the assignment and reach an understanding of how it fits into the broader programs and project activities of all related organizations;
- identify the interests, relationships, and concerns of the "clients" for this assignment;
- review and discuss the team scope of work as well as individual scopes of work, so there are agreements in terms of overall objectives, interrelationships, and specific outputs;
- create tentative action plans, responsibilities, and schedules as well as processes for internal management, including reviews of progress and replanning; and
- create guidelines and standards for performance during and at the end of the assignment.

The experience with TPM to date has been very positive. This approach has been developed and tested by the Development Project Management Center in OICD/USDA over the last few years. Teams and individuals, even those with previous experience on technical cooperation efforts for OICD, judge these planning sessions to be very valuable and recommend that their use be expanded. The responses from the field have also been very favorable. One client noted that the team was really ready to work when they arrived ("hit the ground running") and required much less supervision than was the norm. It is clear that TPMs make a difference! There is a difference in the operations of the teams and how the work is carried out. There is a difference in how the expectations of clients are met. There is a difference in the final product and how it is received. TPM is a natural

way to begin any technical cooperation effort; it addresses essential performance issues before they become critical.

A. TEAM PLANNING MEETING GOALS

The Team Planning Meeting (TPM) is designed to assist you and your technical assistance team's preparation for its overseas assignment. It provides an opportunity for you to:

- 1) understand the larger context in which your work must be carried out, thereby increasing its effectiveness in the field.

As appropriate to the assignment, discussion during the TPM will review donor agency development objectives, any special policy considerations relevant to the assignment and the relationship of this effort to longer term development goals in the region. Basic background information on any assignment related socio-economic, cultural and political settings, and the involved governmental structures will be discussed.

- 2) Explore the team's scope of work and develop initial action plans to address it.

During the planning meeting the team will clarify and explore the expectations of its key clients, identify expected final products and outcomes of the assignment, and develop standards and success criteria for its work. Team members will develop a current understanding of the assignment, identify remaining information needs and how needed information will be acquired. Additionally the team will define a sequence of activities that will support their work toward producing the expected team product in the available time frame.

- 3) Understand the roles and expected contributions of each team member in carrying out the assignment.

Role differentiation and its understanding by each member of the team is critical to the team's working relationships in the field and to the successful fulfillment of the scope of work. During the TPM, a common understanding will be reached about each team member's responsibilities and expected contributions to the technical and non-technical aspects of the work (e.g. specific technical expertises; interface with the host government and donor representatives; monitoring progress of the team; coordinating administrative concerns; and maintaining team focus).

- 4) Understand how to represent your sponsoring institutions effectively during the assignment.

Team members will be encouraged to view themselves as representatives of their sponsoring institution, and to this end will be briefed as to the institutions overall role in technical cooperation efforts. Expectations for interactions with host country representatives, U.S. Government officials, and other donor agency representatives will be explored.

- 5) Understand the team approach to the assignment and form an effective work group.

The team actually begins its assignment during the TPM. It will identify team functions, and establish an initial schedule for team activities. Members develop a team approach to work in the field, and make tentative decisions about how they will work together and support each other professionally and personally. Tentative guidelines for team functioning are expected to emerge during this process including norms for interaction, frequency of meetings, progress reviews, identification of and solving problems, resolving conflicts, etc.

- 6) Understand requirements and procedures and complete any necessary travel and administrative support arrangements related to the assignment.

Time will be made available to assure that team members are aware of and respond to administrative requirements and procedures related to such things as invoices, vouchers, payments, health requirements and assistance, per diem and reimbursable expenses, emergency contact persons, travel including logistics, passport and visa requirements, etc.

B. BASIC TEAM PLANNING MEETING SCHEDULE
 2 1/2 Day Model -- Short-Term Assignment

Day 1	Day 2	Day 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Welcome . Introductions . TPM Overview . Getting Acquainted & Expectations Sharing . Agenda & Schedule Assignment . Clarification: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Purpose(s) - Product(s) - Major Tasks - Major Issues - Individual Roles & Contributions - Team Roles . Review Information Needs TPM & In-Country . Info Sharing & Policy Briefings: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Donor Agency - Sponsoring Institution - The Country, Region and Assignment . Administrative Support Materials Distribution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Check-In . Admin. Support Questions & Answers . Planning for Initial In-country Activities & Practice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Start-up - Initial Donor Meetings - Initial Host Country Client Meetings . Team Assignment Planning: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review of Purposes, Products, Tasks, Issues, Roles - Individual & Team Task and Planning Scheduling . Team Work Review 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Check-In . Admin Check . Final Team Planning Review <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Start-up - Info Needs & Strategies . TPM Evaluation . Closure

C. TPM VARIANTS

1. Short-Term Teams

- a. Basic model can vary from 1 day (1 person team) to 3 days (6 person or larger).
- b. The length can be extended for in-depth technical or administrative briefings if required by scope of the particular assignment or any special conditions related to carrying it out.

2. Long-Term Teams

- a. Basic model can vary from 2 days (1 person team) to 10 days depending on team size and scope of work.
- b. Briefings and/or orientations from other organizations can be included.
- c. Special sessions aimed at families and their overseas adjustment can be included.
- d. Special modules can be included as required by the assignment (e.g. cross-cultural skills, dealing with culture shock and stress, U.S. bilateral policies specific to the assignment, Moslem cultures, institution building, project planning, evaluation methodologies, etc.)

D. EVALUATION SUMMARY OF PILOT TPMS

What Do Participants Think About The TPM?

For three of the pilot Team Planning Meetings, a brief evaluation for was completed at the end of the sessions. After each, participants were asked: "Overall, please rate the TPM as a way to prepare technical assistance teams to go into the field." On a scale of 1 (low) to 10 (high) the average overall response was 8.7.

Two of the teams were asked to rate the TPM on six additional, specific items. These items and average responses were:

	<u>Average</u>
The degree to which the TPM helped me to:	
1. Understand the large context in which the team's work must be carried out.	9.4
2. Explore its scope of work and develop initial action plans to address it.	9.6
3. Understand the roles and expected contributions of each team member.	9.1
4. Understand how to represent sponsoring institutions effectively in the field.	9.3
5. Understand the team approach to the assignment and form an effective work team.	9.5
6. Understand and be able to complete administrative/logistical arrangements for assignment.	9.6

One team was asked specifically to evaluate the design of the TPM, and the average rating was 8.1.

Each team was also solicited for general comments upon completion of the meeting. Below are some recurring themes.

Most Helpful/Most Beneficial

- Presence of/or some specific action of facilitator
- Role playing led to greater confidence
- Getting to work with/comfortable team members
- Clarifying of expectations for whole team

Least Helpful/Least Beneficial

- Very long and tiring days
- Meeting room not adequate
- Team members going in and out
- Lack of more information before TPM

Team members varied widely in prior experience on assistance teams. For some this was a first assignment; others were "old hands." When first notified of the TPM, several of this latter group questioned why such an unusual experience ought to be undertaken. After the experience, they were uniformly supportive of the TPM and indicated they'd recommend its use for future assignments.

In three cases, unsolicited comments were received from host country clients expressing satisfaction and appreciation at the high degree of preparedness reflected by the teams.

International Development Management Center

September 1985

FACT SHEET

Mission:

Drawing on the extensive resources of the University of Maryland, the International Development Management Center generates and disseminates appropriate technologies for managing agricultural programs and for strengthening institutions.

Strategy:

IDMC views development management as an evolving and dynamic process encompassing performance improvements, capacity building, and knowledge generation. Our strategy is to incorporate these three perspectives in all of our efforts through an integrated approach to:

- Research and development on management theory and practice;
- Human resource development and training for individuals, teams, and organizations; and
- Technical cooperation and consultation in agricultural program and project design-implementation-evaluation and institutional strengthening.

Organizational Setting:

IDMC was created in 1982 through a cooperative agreement between the University of Maryland and the United States Department of Agriculture's Development Program Management Center in the Office of International Cooperation and Development. Because of IDMC's focus on agricultural and rural development it is housed in the Division of Agricultural and Life Sciences, Office of International Programs, on the University of Maryland's College Park campus.



THE UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND

Activities:

The Center engages in a variety of activities to implement its development management strengthening strategy:

- Research and Development
 - Developing systematic and rigorous research methodologies
 - Carrying out state-of-the-art reviews of existing knowledge
 - Preparing case studies and technical reports
 - Elaborating alternative theories of development management
 - Consolidating and disseminating lessons learned
- Human Resource Development and Training
 - Conducting seminars, courses, and workshops
 - Training management trainers and institutional development specialists
 - Assisting with the selection, preparation, and support of technical cooperation specialists and teams
- Technical Cooperation and Consultation
 - Providing management related technical assistance to domestic and overseas organizations involved in international development work
 - Assisting with the design, implementation, and evaluation of development activities

Major Collaborating Institutions:

In carrying out its activities, IDMC works closely, both domestically and overseas, with a number of organizations, including:

- Office of International Programs, Agricultural and Life Sciences/University of Maryland College Park
- Development Program Management Center, Office of International Cooperation and Development/USDA
- Office of Rural and Institutional Development, Science & Technology Bureau, Agency for International Development/Washington
- South-East Consortium for International Development (SECID)
- International Program Development Office, Washington State University
- Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture, Costa Rica

Publications and Working Papers:

The Center publishes and distributes books, reports, articles, and monographs for use by development managers, scholars, and others interested in the development management field. Publications and working papers prepared by IDMC staff and members of collaborating institutions include:

- Brinkerhoff, D. & Klauss, R. (1985). Managerial roles for social development management, Public Administration and Development. Vol. 5, No. 2, 145-156.
- Brodman, J. (April 1985). Microcomputer adoption in developing countries: Old management styles and new information systems. A case study of microcomputer adoption in Kenya and in Indonesia.
- Development Project Management Center, Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture/Costa Rica & International Development Management Center. (1983). Guidance System Improvement: An emerging approach for managing agricultural and rural development. Working paper.
- Ingle, M. (March 1985). Integrating management and production: Improving performance in Portugal's Ministry of Agriculture. Working draft.
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- Smith, K. A. (1984, May). Project design, implementation, and evaluation workshops: An integrated approach to managing agricultural and rural development efforts. A report on workshops for Oregon State University.
- White, L. G. (1984, March). Lessons in development project management. Working paper.

Staff:

The International Development Management Center operates with a small core staff augmented by university personnel, associates, and short-term consultants as follows:

- Coordinator Marcus Ingle, Ph.D.
- Research Faculty Derick Brinkerhoff, Ph.D.
 Andrea Jones, M.A.
 Barton Sensenig, Ph.D.
 Kenneth Smith, M.P.I.A.
- Associate Staff Lee Jennings, M.A.
 Terry Schmidt, M.B.A.
- Graduate Assistants Carol Adoum, Research Assistant
 Gaye Wagner, Research Assistant
- Administrative Paul Adams, Financial Manager
 and Support Staff Arti Kennedy, Office Manager
 Denise Smick, Office Assistant

* * *

APPENDIX B

Participants in Training Strategies Workshop

<u>Name</u>	<u>Department</u>
James W. King	Agricultural Communication, University of Nebraska
Eugene V. Martin	International Development Management Center, University of Maryland
Albert Madsen	Agricultural and Natural Resource Economics
Terry Podmore	Agricultural and Chemical Engineering
Ramchand Oad	Agricultural and Chemical Engineering
Oguz Nayman	Technical Journalism
Mohammed Haider	Agricultural and Natural Resource Economics
Dick Tinsley	Agronomy
Tom Flack	Self-employed Soil Scientist
Tim Martin	Agronomy
S. Sritharan	Civil Engineering
Paul Wattenburger	Agricultural and Chemical Engineering
Dan Lattimore	Technical Journalism
Wayne Clyma	Agricultural and Chemical Engineering
W. R. Schmehl	Agronomy
Jim Oxley	Office of International Programs
Duane Johnson	Agronomy
Tom Sheng	Civil Engineering
Jim Warner	Civil Engineering

APPENDIX C

TRAINING STRATEGIES WORKSHOP
COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY
OCTOBER 3-4, 1985

Thursday, October 3

- 8:00 Special Topic: Intercultural Communication in Training.
Specialist - Jim King, University of Nebraska-Lincoln
- 10:00 BREAK
- 10:15 Identification and ranking of critical training needs which will
be dealt with during the workshop
- 12:00N LUNCH
- 1:15 Design training and management strategies for selected critical
training needs
- 3:15 BREAK
- 3:30 Design training and management strategies for selected critical
training needs
- 5:00 Adjourn

Friday, October 4

- 8:00 Special Topic: Team Building for Training Teams - Methodology
developed for USAID/USDA Training Activities. Specialist -
Eugene V. Martan, Consultant for the International Development
Management Center, University of Maryland
- 10:00 BREAK
- 10:15 Design training and management strategies for selected critical
training needs
- 12:00N LUNCH
- 1:15 Design training and management strategies for selected training
needs
- 3:15 BREAK
- 3:30 Closure and Evaluation
- 5:00 Adjourn

TRAINING ISSUES

I. Trainer Characteristics

- * Good instructors
 - Selection procedures
- * Development of leadership
- * Sensitivity to:
 - felt needs
 - other disciplines
 - cultural norms
- * Flexibility without negligence
- * Willingness to learn/be informed
- * Decision making capabilities
- * Genuine concern/development of rapport

II. Organization Framework

- * Decision-making
- * Relationships, funding agencies & host country organizations
- * Sequence of activities
- * Development of leadership
- * Selection procedures (trainees, trainers, co-coordinator, host country orgs.)
- * Pre-assessment
- * Evaluation/feedback

III. Physical/Logistics

- * Location
- * Accommodation
- * Logistical support
 - Material procurement - vehicles, audiovisuals, etc.
 - Quality of materials and tools
- * Content determines methods (use of suitable technology)

IV. Presentation of Procedure

- * Appropriate content
- * Practicality (direct application)
- * Proper evaluation and feedback techniques
- * Decision-making procedures
- * Teaching techniques
 - establish rapport
 - horizontal teaching
- * Audiovisuals, training materials
- * Sequence of activities
- * Good leadership and instructors

V. Trainee Characteristics/Problems

- * Rapport trainers/trainees
- * Motivation
- * Trainee background and knowledge
- * Pre-assessment
 - Felt needs of learners
- * Understanding cultural norms
- * Coping with language issues
- * Social/political differences
- * Selection procedures
- * Horizontal teaching
- * Re-entry

Critical Training Needs Identified in Previous
Training Trainers Workshop

- * Making training teams truly interdisciplinary
- * Planning interdisciplinary training workshop
- * Prior training participants so that they have the ability to use new information
- * Developing institutional arrangements so that trained interdisciplinary teams can function
- * Strategies for identifying the critical training needs - long-term and short-term as well as in-country or out of country
- * Identification of the training strategy menu available to developing countries
- * Identification of the chronological order for training different types of participants
- * Strategies for motivating participants in training programs to apply knowledge learned
- * Use of appropriate teaching techniques
- * Proper evaluation of training
- * Strategy for selecting the appropriate content of training courses

APPENDIX D

INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION IN TRAINING:
AN OVERVIEW

James W. King, Ed.D.
Associate Professor

Department of Agricultural Communications
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Lincoln, NE 68583-0918

The purpose of this paper is to examine the effect of intercultural communication on training. Three concepts, training, communication, and culture will be defined and interrelated. We will select from this mix issues related to intercultural communication and training, pointing out several useful viewpoints for the designer of international training programs.

OVERVIEW

Mosher (1981) in his publication, Three Ways to Spur Agricultural Growth, suggests improving the efficiency of regular agricultural agencies as one way to accelerate a nation's rate of agricultural growth. He cites six instrumental means for achieving that objective. They are:

1. Promote professional staff growth
2. Provide incentives for more efficient staff performance
3. Create more appropriate patterns of organization
4. Improve agricultural planning
5. Adopt more efficient operating procedures
6. Use appropriate styles of administration

Taken as a whole, these means suggest the need for a training component to ensure their actualization (ILACO B.V., 1981; Woods, 1982, 1984). Individually, each of these six items would require specific training tactics and strategies to be realized. Thus, training can be viewed as an important component in the process of agricultural development (Castillo, 1976; Shaner, Philipp, and Schmehl, 1982).

This section will present an overview of three interrelated ideas: training, communication and culture.

Training

Writing for UNDP's Asia and Pacific Programme for Development Training and Communication Planning, Khemmani (1981) defined training as job related, adult education.

Training is a planned communication process which results in changes in attitudes, skills, and/or knowledge in accordance with specified objectives relating to desired patterns of behavior. (p. 3).

From a communication perspective, Hickerson and Middleton (1975) define training as:

Learning designed to change the performance of people doing jobs.
(p. 4)

Training is part of a larger learning process and is, at its simplest and most complex, helping individuals learn (Herm and Komarakul, 1979; Werner and Bower, 1982).

Training needs are usually identified when a discrepancy exists between actual/real behaviors and desired/ideal behaviors (Hickerson and Middleton, 1975; Khemmani, 1983). We can see that the audience for training are those individuals who lack information or whose "knowledge, attitudes and practices have been identified as preventing them from carrying out their jobs or tasks properly" (Khemmani, 1983, p. 3).

Training is then developed and conducted for individuals so they will have the resources needed to make free choices in the way they respond and behave. Training is also implemented so individuals will respond properly and correctly to specific situations and directions.

These "changed behavior" concerns or new individual responses are turned into training programs. Training designers face many problems in tackling these concerns (French, 1984) and Davis et al. (1974) have identified direction, evaluation, content and sequence, method, and constraints as major types of problems. The five types of training problems are not entirely independent for they do overlap somewhat, as noted in Table 1.

Table 1. Types of Training Problems

TYPE OF PROBLEM	DESCRIPTION	CONSEQUENCES
Direction	Goals or objectives are not known by participants	Participants try to outguess the training program
Evaluation	Evaluation procedures are not known by participants	Unfair testing and feedback procedures; participants' dissatisfaction
Content and Sequence	Content is weak; there is no attempt at logical sequence or structure	Training is perceived as trivial, irrelevant, or disorganized
Method	Poor conditions to motivate and promote learning	Participants are not motivated and are not learning
Constraints	Resources such as trainer skill, participant abilities, and university's resources are ignored	Excess demands made on trainer's abilities and participants' abilities; failure to utilize available resources

(Based on Davis et al., 1984)

Solomon et al. (1981) have developed an approach to training in intercultural settings incorporating solutions to these problems: having host

country personnel assume responsibility for objectives and activities, modifying management practices, training at various organizational levels, using on-going task oriented interdisciplinary teams while participants are still being trained, and employing a variety of training means and actual work simultaneously.

Training: The Process

Implementation of the training process includes five key steps. The first of these is planning. Kaufman (1977), writing on systems management and educational technology, states: "It has come to me as a growing conviction that we must first identify and assure the usefulness and reality of our problems before we choose solutions."

The planning step in an intercultural training program should identify and assure the usefulness of certain problems; that is, symptoms of problems should not be confused with real problems. It is only when problems have been identified that training can be thought of as a solution. Training is only one of many resources to be used to solve problems. Designers, of course, need to identify "training for what" (Woods, 1984). Needs assessment techniques of both organizations and individuals can be used to determine discrepancy gaps in existing performance and desired performance, as well as to highlight future directions.

If a needs assessment highlights a problem and training is considered to be part of a solution, then another activity related to planning, specifying objectives and participant outcomes, should be undertaken. A training program can then be engineered and implemented with specific objectives in mind to solve a well defined problem. While important and a key activity, these objectives must also be written with an eye on back home applications faced by the trainees. Thus, objectives should be job related as well as knowledge based. Objectives are vitally important to guide both trainers and program designers. Objectives set the stage and organize the learning environment.

The second part of the training process is to present the necessary information. This process briefs trainees on the expectations of the program, defines the tasks to be covered, explains the importance of the training, presents the information, and answers questions. Trainees should also be involved in this process; their objectives and expectations should be checked in order to ascertain the correctness of the training objectives and to develop common course goals. Interactive ice breaking exercises with individuals, small groups, and large groups can be used to help participants state their expectations and objectives. Lectures, demonstrations, readings, field trips, exhibits, audio-visual aids, lab work, greenhouse experiments, and peer teaching are some general ways to present the training information.

Participant practice comes next and is interlinked with the presentation of the information. This part of the training process includes drills, exercises, and problems necessary to assist the trainees in acquiring the specific behaviors which were identified in the planning phase objectives. Techniques for participant centered training include job instruction, case studies, role playing, field work, small group methods, programmed instruction, computer assisted instruction and others.

Practice stipulates that the participants receive feedback regarding the adequacy of their performances. Practice usually consists of presenting

material to the trainees and then requiring a response (Merrill and Goodman, 1972). All practice should be organized and done with emphasis to its on-the-job application. Training must have real-life application and participants should be making the link between their job environment and the practice.

The fourth phase of training evaluates performances. In the planning phase, specific objectives for the trainees were developed in behavioral terms. Now these behaviors are evaluated by the trainers to ascertain whether the participants have yet achieved the required skills. For the participants, this testing process also underscores the serious nature of the training program and emphasizes the application of the new behaviors to their work situations.

Follow up, the final part of the training process, is one often overlooked training step. A check should be made on participants to verify the quality of learning, trainer performance, and the relevance of the training program for real, on-the-job needs. This check should occur when the participants have returned to their jobs and have been functioning there for some time. Post training questionnaires, site visitations, and follow-up meetings are some useful techniques. This is the true evaluation of training.

Follow-up also includes the development of networking activities. Professional development is always an objective of a training program, and the linking of participants to each other through networking provides technical support and a way to monitor future assistance needs (Conteh, 1983).

Training: Criteria for Designing Programs

Since the planning process is so crucial to the success of training programs, there are some criteria which can be used to design such programs (Casey, 1976). These criteria include:

1. Specific objectives written in behavioral terms. These are the objectives the participants will be working toward with explicit descriptions of the target behaviors the trainees should demonstrate upon mastery.
2. A multimedia experience. At each stage of the training program, participants should be exposed to many types of media and presentation styles in order to facilitate learning. During the presentation, practice, and performance stages, a variety of techniques should be used to deliver information, drill and practice, and evaluate individuals.
3. Document to which participants can refer. This document could be a training manual, a book of readings, or a text. This document may be used by trainees as a reference before, during, and after the course.
4. A person in close proximity. Someone, the trainer or content expert, needs to be in close proximity to the participants during the training program to answer questions and clarify procedures. Training requires that a person be available to assist participants when necessary.
5. Reward for accomplishment. Individuals desire and need some form of recognition. Before the training program begins the sponsoring

organization should also consider the criteria of reward to participants who will successfully complete training, whether it be an immediate or a delayed reward. Certificates of completion, notations in personnel files, or letters from upper management are some ways to reward accomplishment.

This last point - reward - brings another training issue to the front, and that is the commitment of organizations and individuals involved in the agricultural training process (Bawden, 1983; Smeltzer, 1983). The sponsoring organizations needs to be committed to training in terms of participant and financial support. Organizational commitment also means consideration of rewards for participant placement after the course and future rewards for improved performance. Organizational commitment also means an openness to follow-up evaluation and participant network development.

A second commitment is on the part of the trainees. A recent publication in the Wiley Professional Development Programs (nd.) notes, "the success of a training program is enhanced by voluntary participation. And it is well established in modern management theory that involvement leads to commitment." Some of the training techniques mentioned in this paper which stress interaction can be used to develop and enlarge participant commitment.

Finally, a third commitment needed is from the trainers. They must be willing to localize programs and develop materials for special audiences. Whether the trainers are internal or external to an organization, they need to be committed to the training process and to the success of the program in the overall management plan.

Communication

After all is said and done, it will be our ability or inability to communicate information about agriculture that will directly influence the impact we seek--to increase agricultural productivity throughout the developing countries (Woods, 1977).

Communication comes from the words "community" and "common." Community can be thought of as participation in common or interests in common. Community of interests imparts the feeling of sharing. The other word, common, is defined as shared by all, belonging equally to everyone, prevalent, and widespread.

Both community and common are derived from the Latin for "exchange" or "share." Thus communication is rooted in an exchange or sharing of commonalities. Communication in the training arena can be thought of as "the process of sharing meanings."

"The process..." Process implies ongoing development, continuous activity; communication is a process because it is always developing, depending on the experiences of the people involved and communication is a people process.

"...of sharing meanings." Communication also implies an exchange or sharing, not only speaking but also listening, not only writing but also reading. What is shared by people engaging in the communica-

tion process is meaning, an intent or purpose to words, visuals, or actions.

International training efforts attempt to inform, develop attitudes, and shape behavior by sharing information with specified audiences. This information is coded in special words and precisely designed visuals. Problems arise when the intended audiences do not share or understand the meanings used in words or visuals. This is one reason agriculture is in the realm of science--the precision involved in the definitions of the language, and while these definitions may not be perfect, their use fosters an environment in which better communication can be attained.

However, as research becomes more widely diffused into practice, communication problems will increase (Hornik, 1980). Our audiences are now being enlarged and are changing from solely other researchers to policy makers, field workers, extension agents, and of course, the farmers themselves. How will meanings be shared between such diverse groups of individuals?

Communication processes will be used to bridge the gap between audiences and messages by creating shared meaning. When meanings are shared between and among people, communication occurs.

Communication: Three Ideas

There are three major communication ideas which need to be considered in developing training programs. These ideas deal with influence, meaning, and subjectivity.

The first tenet is that "the purpose of communication is to influence people." Needs and problems exist. Organizations devise programs to solve such problems. Training programs are often staged to influence special audiences which are somehow involved with a particular program.

Communication, then, is more than simply concocting a message. Actually, the message is a means of influencing a particular outcome, and not an end in itself. Communication encompasses the effect of that message, its influence in bringing about change.

The second major idea for international training programs to keep in mind is that - 'meanings are in people, not in words or visuals.' While dictionaries provide definitions, each member of the audience actually supplies his own individual interpretation for each word, or visual. Meanings, therefore, will vary widely from one person to another.

In planning training programs, designers should try to predict the meaning an audience will find in certain messages. They then will choose strategies that are most likely to influence the audience to reach the stated objectives and goals.

The third communication idea is that "reality is subjective; people create their own realities." Many communicators often assume that what exists for them is interpreted in precisely the same way by the audience. Actually, audiences tend to distort, ignore, or avoid messages that do not conform to their own points of view. And, since meanings are in people and not in words or visuals, it follows that each person's reality is subjective. For inter-

national training programs, planners must try to see the world through the intellectual, emotional, and physical "eyes" of the audience.

Communication: Linked to Training

Gerbner (1956), a researcher and communication theorist, developed a communication model linkled to research questions. We believe it is a useful structure for training designers. Briefly, his model is:

1. Someone
2. perceives an event
3. and reacts
4. in a situation
5. through some means
6. to make available materials
7. in some form
8. and context
9. conveying content
10. of some consequence.

Linking the training arena to Gerbner's communication model, the model and the parallel training issues are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Training issues linked to Gerbner's communication model.

Communication Model (Gerbner, 1956)	Training Arena
1. Someone	1. Trainer; trainee; organization
2. perceives an event	2. Perception; needs assessment
3. and reacts	3. Effectiveness; goals and objectives, methods, constraints
4. in a situation	4. Physical and social setting
5. through some means	5. Channels; media; controls over facilities
6. to make available materials	6. Administration; distribution; access to materials
7. in some form	7. Structure; organization; style; pattern; message design
8. and context	8. Communication setting; sequence
9. conveying content	9. Content analysis; meaning; learning
10. of some consequence	10. Overall changes; evaluation

These ten issue groups cover the traditional communication processes Lasswell (1948) described: "Who says what to whom by what means with what effect." It also fits Berlo's model (1960) of source, message, channel, receiver, and effect. Training designers can use this information as an organizing tool and as a checklist of training issues. While these concerns imply great detail and depth of which most of us can only approximate, they are nevertheless the stuff of good training programs.

Communication: Improving Training

How can training in intercultural settings be improved through the use of communication? One specific approach would be the application of learning theory to the design of intercultural training programs.

Several principles of human learning, derived from psychological experimentation and data (Clark, 1980; Hickerson and Middleton, 1975; Davis et al., 1974), that can be used in any training program are listed below.

1. Meaningfulness: a person is likely to be motivated to learn things that are meaningful to her. Therefore: a) relate training to an individual's experience; b) relate training to a person's interest

and values; and c) relate training to an individual's future; d) relate training to the specific behavioral objectives being taught; e) develop and relate purposes near the beginning of training.

PEOPLE LEARN WHEN THEY ARE READY TO LEARN

2. Prerequisites: a person is more likely to learn something new if he has all the prerequisites. Therefore: a) identify the prerequisites needed to teach the subject matter, and b) discover the audience's background and learning regarding the subject matter.

PEOPLE TIE THEIR LEARNING TO WHAT THEY ALREADY KNOW

3. Modeling: a person is more likely to acquire new behaviors if she is presented with a model performance to watch and imitate. Therefore: a) label important aspects of the behavior being modeled as it is being demonstrated, and b) model both technical and social skills.

THOSE WHO KNOW, TRAIN BY MODELING;
THOSE WHO DON'T KNOW, TRAIN BY TELLING."

4. Open Communication: a person is more likely to learn if the presentation is structured so that the trainer's messages are open to the participant's inspection. Therefore: a) state objectives to the trainees; b) point out relationships, and give cues and prompts; c) avoid talking about something in its absence; d) stimulate all sensory channels by structuring visual and auditory media; and e) ask questions to verify communication.

PEOPLE NEED TO UNDERSTAND WHAT THEY LEARN

5. Individual differentiation: a person should be given the opportunity to learn in the best way suited to her. Therefore: a) differentiate participants in some of the following ways: intelligence, speed of learning, previous learning or educational background, interests, special talents, sex, age, job designation, trainees' own preferences, language ability, other; b) give extra attention and instruction to trainees who are having trouble; c) give extra practice on particular points to different trainees; d) give extra assignments for outside of class; e) re-set objectives for different groups.

DIFFERENT PEOPLE LEARN DIFFERENTLY

6. Graduated sequence: a person may proceed through training step by step, and each step may be in some way more difficult than the previous step. Therefore: use the following dimensions: a) simple to complex; b) easy to difficult; c) known to unknown; d) familiar to unfamiliar; e) highly motivating to less motivating; f) individual parts to the complete whole; g) individual units to a combination; h) doing something with help to doing it alone; i) theory to practice.

PEOPLE LEARN BETTER WHEN THEY PROCEED FROM EASY TO DIFFICULT

7. Active, appropriate practice: a person is more likely to learn if she takes an active part in practice geared to reach a training

objective. Therefore: a) require trainees to do all specific actions called for in all the objectives; b) give all the trainees a chance to practice; c) practice should come before the final evaluation; d) require participants to answer questions; e) ask participants to organize or reorganize information found in their readings; and f) change objectives if resources are scarce.

PEOPLE LEARN BY DOING

8. Distributed practice: a person is more likely to learn if his practice is scheduled in short periods distributed over time. Therefore: use short practice sessions spaced over time.

PEOPLE LEARN ONE THING AT A TIME

9. Fading: a person is more likely to learn if training prompts are withdrawn gradually. Therefore: as participant proficiency improves, systematically withdraw or fade out the prompts.

PEOPLE LEARN MORE WHEN THE RESULTS ARE SATISFACTORY TO THEM

10. Pleasant conditions and consequences: a person is more likely to learn if training conditions are pleasant. Therefore: a) set challenging tasks during training; b) give participants knowledge of results, and c) reward participants' efforts.

STIMULATING ENVIRONMENTS ARE STIMULATING

11. Knowledge of results: as a person practices, she must know whether she is performing correctly or not. Therefore: a) tell the participant how she is doing for every activity she performs; b) give each and every person knowledge of results; c) give knowledge of results to the trainee as soon as possible after performing the activity.

PEOPLE LIKE TO KNOW HOW THEY ARE DOING

12. Novelty: a person is more likely to learn if her attention is attracted by relatively novel presentations. Therefore: vary the style and means of presentation, practice, and evaluation.

VARIETY IS THE SPICE OF LIFE

Culture

Many authors have used and defined culture. And as a concept, culture has proven itself an exciting area of study. But for practical reasons, we need to look at a definition of culture which is a useful tool for training Kohls (1979) provides such a definition. He states that culture is: "...the total way of life ..." (p. 17) of a people. The "total way of life" includes: food, clothing, shelter, family organization, social organization, government, defense, arts and crafts, knowledge and science, and religion. People who experience similar situations or share a culture can generally be expected to act and react in similar ways. Because they share similar meanings for the

objects and events in their environment, they communicate rather easily. Yet within one "culture," many sub-cultures exist.

The sharing of meaning with more than one culture is intercultural communication. This happens not only across national borders, but with ages, sexes, occupations, ethnic groups and so on. In fact, most communication situations can be seen as intercultural exchanges even though we tend to think of "intercultural" as between two countries (Gudykunst and Kim, 1984).

Some cultural concepts which should be included within the study of intercultural training are cultural bias, cultural conflict, culture shock, perception, stress, and values. Pedersen (1984) provides useful definitions and examples of these concepts in her paper on Cross-Cultural Concepts, and they will not be described here.

Culture: Communication Barriers

As would be expected when studying culture, there are barriers to effective intercultural communication. Several such communication blocks have been identified by various authors (Gibb, 1961; Grey, 1957; Gumpert and Cathcart, 1983; Harris and Moran, 1979; Lopez, 1984; Kohls, 1979; Merriam, 1983; Prawl et al., 1984; Ricks, 1983).

Language, the known and unknown meanings behind the sound symbols, is the first communication block. Learning a little of a foreign language may make a person a "fluent fool" and one of the previous communication ideas needs to be noted here in relation to language: that of "meanings are in people, not in words..." Misconceptions abound and no word means the same thing twice. Next is the nonverbal language of gestures, postures, expressions, and environment. Nonverbal communication is so automatic that most people may not be conscious of their actions. Nevertheless, these actions "may be read" differently by others in an intercultural situation. The nonverbal effects of the environment are the "messages" transmitted to trainees by environmental factors such as color, lighting, arrangement, and comfort. Environmental factors effect trainees' behaviors.

The third intercultural communication barrier is the over generalized belief, the preconditions and stereotypes, in which we attempt to fit new experiences into previous patterns (Pederson, 1984). Another related barrier is the tendency to evaluate behaviors. Making judgments of good and bad, based on one's own culture, interferes with understanding and the sharing of meaning.

Fifth, the level of anxiety and stress in intercultural situations is a major barrier. Unfamiliar situations and experiences create anxiety in individuals. Anxiety and stress may mar the individual's performance in such situations.

Culture: Training Variables

From an intercultural communication perspective, there are six major variables which can be used to test the effectiveness of international training programs. These variables are attraction, comprehension, acceptability, self-involvement, recall, and behavior (Bertrand, 1978; Cain and Comings, 1977; King, 1977; 1983; Palmer, 1981; Qureshi and Kinnaird, 1977; Reed, 1974).

1. Attraction - Attraction can be defined as the interest, appeal, attention, and enjoyment that the program stimulates in the audience. The four major concerns for a training designer are:
 - a. Does the program contain specific elements to interest the participants?
 - b. Do these program elements appeal to the trainees in an acceptable and inoffensive manner?
 - c. (Based on its interest and appeal) Does the training program hold the attention of the audience?
 - d. Are the program elements enjoyable to the audience?
2. Comprehension - Comprehension is the level of understandability of the program as perceived by the trainees. Issues for training include:
 - a. Is the program at a level of understandability and pacing commensurate with that of the trainees'?
 - b. Can the program's major points be understood by the audience; that is, are the major points interpreted correctly, clearly, and logically the the participants?
3. Acceptability - The program's credibility and believability, and the extent to which trainees can identify with and be subjected to, repeated exposures to the program and its content comprise its acceptability. General questions which comprise "acceptability" are:
 - a. Is the source of the training program perceived as credible, trustworthy, and competent by the participants?
 - b. Does the program contain information that the trainee perceives to be believable?
 - c. Is the training content identified by the audience as being consistent with their own experiences?
 - d. Do any of the program components become irritating after repeated exposure to the trainees?
4. Self-involvement - For agricultural training programs, self-involvement is the level to which the participants find the program personally involving. Basically, a designer would be interested in knowing: Is the program perceived to be personally relevant to the trainees?
5. Recall - The level to which a trainee can remember the content is termed recall. To test recall the concern is: Can the major ideas of the program be remembered and applied after training?
6. Behavior - Behavior is the level to which a participant is convinced to follow the program's behavioral suggestions. (Behavior and the

former variable, recall, are related to learning and skill acquisition.) The main issue for this variable is: Does the program convince the audience and given them the skills necessary to do the suggested behavior?

In summary, we need to broaden our definition and expectations of intercultural communication for international training programs. By looking at culture as the total way of life of a people, we can see how intercultural communication is an important issue in international training. We can also see how the barriers of language, nonverbal communication, overgeneralized beliefs, evaluation, and anxiety interfere in the communication process.

SUMMARY

While it does have its limitations, intercultural communication is an extremely useful tool for the developer of training programs. Any type of training effort may be examined to ascertain its effectiveness in terms of intercultural barriers. Components of effectiveness are attraction, comprehension, acceptability, self-involvement, recall, and behavior.

For the trainer, intercultural communication generates "creative hunches" and suggests "nuances" for program design. The ideas described in this paper involve the target audience, are consistent with communication thinking, and make good sense.

In this age of tightened budgets and limited resources, intercultural communication is a readily available, low-intensity tool. For individuals developing training programs in international agricultural work, intercultural communication is an invaluable component of the general communication and training processes.

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APPENDIX E

Results of Workshop Evaluation

At the end of the workshop, a one-page evaluation questionnaire was distributed to participants. The first two questions requested participant opinions about the activities in the workshop that they felt were the most and least beneficial. The instruction on intercultural communications and the Small group discussions were considered to be the most beneficial activities. Few participants were willing to identify a least beneficial activity, but some felt that instruction about the Team Planning Meetings (TPM) seemed a little like an advertisement for the service.

The third question asked how participants will use what they learned in their present work. All respondents thought that they could apply concepts and material obtained in the workshop to their present teaching and training activities. They believed that much of what was discussed was applicable to university academic courses as well as to training in LDCs.

The fourth question asked if the workshop met expectations as stated on the first day of the workshop. The major response was "yes" or "for the most part." Others elaborated by indicating that there was insufficient time to deal with all issues identified and to have the opportunity for full group interaction to small group conclusions.

The fifth question asked for suggestions on how the workshop could be improved. The suggestions included:

- * provide more handouts.
- * provide more time to share personal experiences.
- * continue the practice of having experts guide discussions.
- * hold future workshops during the January interim period or after spring term.
- * provide more opportunity for all individuals to discuss all identified training problems.
- * provide opportunities to select topics a small group will discuss rather than be assigned topics.

- * provide more detailed prior information on the structure and organization of the workshop.
- * include a session on team organization, management and decision making.