Management Training Needs and Goals in the Escap Region: Toward Collaborative Efforts

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Working on the premise that management training can enhance administrative capacity for plan formulation and implementation, this article identifies problem areas in existing training programs as a basis for working out an agenda of collaborative undertakings in the ESCAP region. A serious problem is the adoption of training programs that are inconsistent with people's needs or incongruent with clientele size. This problem can be traced to the inadequate assessment of actual training needs and specification of training goals. Such need and goal identification provides the focus for spelling out collaborative efforts towards making management training more relevant and responsive.

Introduction

Commitment to Development Goals

Since the attainment of political independence, most Asian countries have accepted the commitment to achieve development goals and objectives, i.e. economic and social prosperity and the improvement of the quality of life of the people. These goals and objectives have guided the efforts and energies of governments in the region and served as bases for developing criteria of progress and success.

Development goals and objectives have tended to be place- and time-specific. In most countries in Asia, the main concern has been to promote economic growth and to increase production and output to satisfy the country's requirement for capital equipment, foodstuffs, housing, other consumer goods and social services. In some countries, the emphasis is on social justice or equity goals that would lead to a more equitable distribution of national income and a more balanced development of various parts of the country. The concern is to give more opportunities and benefits to the disadvantaged members of society. In other countries, the greater concern is to achieve national unity and to wield together people with diverse cultural and racial backgrounds so that they may feel that they have common aspirations, problems and tasks as well as a common destiny. In some countries, there is also a desire to promote development within the context of a political system that would allow greater participation by the people in the process of governance.

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Asian countries are guided not by any one of these goals or objectives but by all of them in varying degrees. The political decision-makers establish the order of priority in the achievement of these goals. For example, the Four-Year Development Plan (1972-1975) of the Republic of Vietnam aims at (1) economic stabilization through increased production, export promotion, and control of inflationary rate within 10% per annum; (2) full employment by providing more jobs in the expended production sectors; (3) more equitable income distribution; and (4) increased social services. The objectives of the Four-Year Development Plan (1974-1977) of the Republic of the Philippines include: (1) the promotion of social development; (2) the expansion of employment opportunities; (3) the attainment of a more equitable distribution of income and wealth; (4) the acceleration of economic growth; (5) promotion of regional development and industrialization; and (6) the maintenance of price stability.

The goals and objectives stated in the development plans of the other countries would, more or less, follow the same pattern. It seems that economic and social development goals are given the greatest weight in Asian countries, although the attainment of national integration is a very important consideration in a number of these countries, e.g. Indonesia, Bangladesh and Malaysia. In addition, the democratic ideal is still a source of inspiration in some of them, e.g. the Philippines, India and Thailand.

Political and Administrative Problems in Plan Formulation and Implementation

The political systems in Asian countries vary in terms of the degree of differentiation of political infrastructures (e.g. political parties and legislatures) and the degree of people's participation in the political and governmental process (e.g. in the selection of political decision-makers and in the formulation and implementation of development policies and programs). Some countries in the region have a competitive, multi-party political system; other countries have a dominant political party in control of the government. The political system in still other countries is characterized by authoritarian rule.

In some countries in Asia, the basic problem is a fundamental lack of consensus about values and goals among the people and the existence of a bifurcated structure that separates the ruling elite from the masses. There is no effective linkage between the government leaders and the people in general. In other countries, there is political instability and a war situation which affects adversely the promotion of economic and social progress.

Administrative problems have also impeded the attainment of development goals. These include, among others, the concentration of power and decision-making in central government agencies, the lack of coordination between the central planning agency and other government agen-

cies and among various government agencies involved in the same program areas, the inadequacy of communication systems, the weakness in personnel administration and cumbersome procedures in accounting and auditing.

The Need for Administrative Reform

Countries in the region have recognized the urgent need for administrative reform to increase the capabilities of their administrative systems for carrying out economic and social development and other national goals. It has often been observed that the above-mentioned deficiencies in the administrative machinery constitute a major obstacle to the effective implementation of development plans.

Thus, a Working Group of Experts who met in Bangkok in October 1965 to discuss major administrative problems of Asian Governments observed that "The improvement for administration was. . . a problem which needed the same priority as planning for economic and social changes." The participants in another seminar also held in Bangkok in October 1966 to discuss the administrative aspects of economic development planning suggested that countries concentrate on effective administrative reform "to greatly improve the chances of success of their economic development plans." Another Group of Experts, meeting in New York City in January 1967 to review the United Nations program in public administration, concluded that "Often basic reforms in public administration are essential to the success of measures for economic and social development."

Administrative reform or improvement in public administration has been a continuing concern of all countries in the region. The growing complexity of modern life in an age of rapid technological and social change has increased the role of government in the regulation of relationships, the provision of services and the promotion of economic activities in the society. The need for administrative reform is more urgent and compelling in the developing countries where the changes in the functions of government are more fundamental and the desire for economic and social progress is greater and more directly related to the establishment and maintenance of a nation-state.

Most countries in the region have undertaken programs of administrative reform. Several major administrative reform efforts are underway in some countries, e.g. the Philippines, Indonesia and India. These administrative reform efforts include, among others, the reorganization of the executive branch of the government, the simplification of administrative regulations and procedures, and the institution of training programs designed to effect changes in the attitudes, skills and general behavior of government personnel. These efforts are aimed at increasing the capacity of the administrative system for accelerating the attainment of development goals.

Management Needs

The need for improving administrative capability in the Third World countries including those in the Asian region can be succinctly articulated in what may be labelled as development management, which is concerned with the efficient and effective utilization of resources in the planning, implementation and control of development programs and projects. The type of personnel to meet this management need is aptly described in one United Nations publication which states that developing countires "need a type of personnel that is in very short supply... the professional administrator, who... should have a broad understanding of the new concepts of economic and social development and should be able to relate them to the political and administrative principles underlying the management of the business of the State. He should also have a broad knowledge of the political and social sciences and a solid grounding in economic theory, and be thoroughly versed in administrative techniques."[1]

This need for increasing administrative capability is felt more specifically in program formulation, communications, coordination and evaluation, project analysis and management, and personnel administration.

The absence of good planning in program formulation may be reflected in the inconsistency of program substance with the people's needs or the incongruence of the scope of a program with the size of clientele. It is not uncommon to have programs that are too grandiose on one extreme or too modest in scale on the other extreme.

A program may be neatly designed and well planned but directives of implementation may be deficient. Because of the tendency towards centralized decision-making (which is one of the trademarks of a typical administrator in a developing society) red tape occurs, the discretion of the program implementor gets cramped, implementation bogs down, and finally, service delivery is impaired. Very often, directives and instructions for operationalizing a project born out of a research effort are unclear and incomprehensible. Emanating from the central headquarters, these communications do not clothe the administrator in the field with sufficient authority to make decisions. The implementation of many a program may also suffer when standard operational procedures do not reach the implementing units or instructions are distorted because of faulty communications.

The problem of coordination partly stems from the proliferation of bureaucratic agencies, ad hoc committees, councils, commissions and authorities that duplicate each other's functions and engage in institutional rivalry, operating along parallel lines rather than in a unified pattern. The number and variety of participating

[1]"Administrative Aspects for Economic and Social Development in Latin America," *Administrative Aspects of Planning: Papers of a Seminar* (New York: United Nations, 1969), p. 186.

agencies in a particular program are not only costly and wasteful but also make it difficult to identify and pinpoint specific responsibilities.

One of the most significant problems of program management is the inadequate system of monitoring and evaluating the implementation of a program to ensure that policies and standards are observed and directives are complied with. In most developing countries such sophisticated management technology as program budgeting, work measurement, and input-output analysis are either unknown or still unacceptable. Some administrators would like to introduce these modern management techniques, but they lack the staff with the expertise and training necessary. Line-item budgeting, which for purposes of managerial control, is hardly useful, is still the preferred system because it is easier to comprehend and prepare; besides, it enables managers to identify the number and classes of positions, together with their corresponding compensation levels.

Another handicap of managers as far as program evaluation is concerned is their inability to set up realistic and meaningful performance standards against which the extent of implementation can be measured. The usual technique is on-the-spot or periodic inspection, which is rather costly as well as subjective.

The problem in project analysis and management is the lack of careful planning in the design of development projects. Many do not satisfy actual needs because of the absence of adequate knowledge of conditions in the regions or localities affected and the lack of thorough studies to determine the feasibility of projects in all their aspects.

Basic to the issue of upgrading administrative capacity through management training are the answers to the following questions:

(1) What are the major objectives of management training?

(2) In order to accomplish these major training objectives, what are the specific management needs which can be met through training?

Major Training Objectives and Programs

Review of Existing Programs in the Regions

One common pitfall in management training for developing countries is the tendency to adopt training programs that may not be suitable for the kind of administrators needed. Lifted from standard courses formulated in developed countries, many of these programs lack relevance in that they are not consistent with the conditions and needs of a developing nation. A management training course that relates management principles to the formulation and implementation of development programs would have more relevance than a course that discusses the principles in abstraction and from the traditional approach — what they are,

their characteristics and attributes, what authorities say, etc.

Another weakness of some management training programs is their lack of realism in the sense that what can be learned from them can hardly be applied in a country with very meager resources. A case in point is a training course in computer science. The course may not be of practical value to government agencies and private companies which cannot afford to rent, much less buy, computer machines. Besides, a developing country, suffering from a high rate of unemployment and adhering to a labor-intensive economic policy, would not favor the eventuality of work force displacement resulting from the computerization of operations. A training program in realty tax administration that advocates the extensive use of aerial photogrammetry for tax mapping, would not be realistic in a country too poor to bear the high costs of that particular technique.

One reason why many of the management training programs do not cater to the real needs of administrators and managers in the developing world is the inadequate asessment of actual training needs. More often than not, what are offered are replications of programs contained in brochures disseminated by business-oriented training institutes. What more could be expected of so-called training programs, but the adoption of stereo-typed canned courses like techniques of supervision, office management, systems and procedures

analysis, human relations, and the like?

That these programs are designed and introduced by foreign consultants or by specialists who were trained in Western institutions is another reason why many of these management training programs lack relevance and realism. Asian participants in overseas training admit that many of the courses they have attended are designed and structured within the context of problems and circumstances in the Western world that definitely differ from those in their home countries.

The UN publication[2] cited earlier makes the following observations which are valid for developing countries:

(1) Training programs are seldom based on a proper diagnosis, analysis and quantification of the kind and amount of training still needed for civil servants.

(2) Training is often given haphazardly without establishing essential priorities according to the needs of development plans, programs and projects.

(3) Since there is no research into or analysis of the training, very general courses are given to persons who often have no opportunity of applying the knowledge they acquire.

(4) Almost nothing is known about

[2]*Ibid.*, pp. 11-18.

the type of training that should be given to the different levels of public administration.

(5) There is often complete ignorance of the difference between academic training in the science of public administration and in-service training. Although both are essential and complementary, it frequently happens that only the second type of training is used to make good the shortage of human resources in administrative development.

(6) In-service training also leaves much to be desired. Programs are often organized without considering priorities, and without allocating the resources to the sectors and levels where the best results could be obtained.

(7) In-service training has been conducted more on the lines of courses for staff in subordinate positions. The countries have had little or no experience in training executive and supervisory staff, who are so important for national development.

Training Goals and Objectives

Management needs may be categorized into two major parts. The first category would be those that could be met through changes or improvements in organizational structure and in management processes. This category embraces needed improvements in the lines of command, communication, and coordination, and in the processes, methods and techniques of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. The second category would include changes and improvements in the behavior of management personnel. These needs may be met through a system of training that can effectively and efficiently provide the necessary knowledge and skills and lead to the development of the proper attitudes that are important in achieving organization goals and objectives.

Training is defined as the conscious effort by the management to bring about change in an individual, a group, or an organization. Training goals are expressed in terms of the changes to be effected in training. Goals originate from recognized needs which are not being met by an organization.

It has been suggested that there are three major goals of any training program.[8]

> The first goal is to increase a trainee's set of alternatives. Through appropriate training, he can add new strategies that he may never have thought of or strategies that are infrequently entertained because of skills or confidence deficiences.
>
> The second goal is to provide the trainee with the necessary criteria to select from an expanded set of alternatives. If the habit of selecting particular alternatives can be shifted to a habit of examining alternative choices in light of appropriate criteria pro-

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[8]Huber Ellingsworth, Terry Walden, and Florangel Rosario, "An Approach to Training in Population Education" (Paper No. 1, East-West Communications Institute, May 1972), p. 10.

ficiency is increased.

The final goal of training is to make the trainee his own consultant when it comes to adapting existing alternatives to new situations. Training must focus on situations not wholly predictable from the training context, and it is the trainee who must adapt as conditions and/or situations change.

These three goals are of course too broad to be of meaningful consequence to actual training programs. A more specific categorization is needed and this may be done by specifying expected results of training which generally are: (1) those in the cognitive domain, namely knowledge and information; (2) those in the psychomotor domain, which may be habits or skills; and (3) those that fall under the affective domain, which are the development of desirable attitudes and appreciation.[4]

Training objectives are the more precise statement of training goals. These objectives constitute the heart of the training program and the degree to which they are adequately stated will affect many of the instructional decisions to be made. Objectives should be expressed in unambiguous and precise terms to forestall different interpretations. They should clearly describe what the trainee must be able to do, the conditions under which he must be able to perform, and the standard or criteria of eval-

uation during the development of job skills and at the end of the training program.

This paper, in part, identifies major training goals in the ESCAP region. These are training goals instead of specific, precise statements of objectives, "describing the changes in behavior or performance that are desired outcomes of trainee and instructor activity and interaction," and they are neither statements expressing "the skills, abilities, knowledge, attitudes, and the like that are the desired outcomes of specific training activities."[5]

From February 27 to March 5, 1974, the Asian Center for Development Administration hosted a Conference of Major Training Institutions in the ESCAP Region. At this Conference, the invited Directors of Training Institutions presented papers that discussed the establishment, goals and activities of their respective institutions.

Among the major training goals identified in the various papers are:

(1) Train public administration executives and specialists to become development- and goal-oriented and enable them to acquire basic skills which they can use in effecting desired changes.

(2) Design training programs with content and methodology that extend

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[4]See Benjamin S. Bloom (ed.), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives I: Cognitive Domain* (New York: David McKay Inc., 1964) and D.R. Krathwohl, B.S. Bloom and B.B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives Handbook II: Affective Domain* (New York: David Mckay Inc., 1964).

[5]William R. Tracey, *Designing Training and Development Systems* (New York: American Management Association, 1971), p. 82.

management principles in carrying out the goals and objectives of socio-economic development.

(3) Train top officials of national ministries and local governments in the techniques of problem-solving and rational decision-making.

(4) Keep senior civil servants abreast with the latest trends on administration; make them conscious of the management problems in developing countries.

(5) Equip young capable officers of various government ministries and agencies with a broad administrative vision, high level managerial abilities, and provide them with a thorough understanding of social problems.

(6) Develop managerial skills particularly in the areas of planning, coordination, control and evaluation of development programs.

(7) Develop the ability of managers and staffmen to apply research skills, instruments and techniques in socio-economic surveys, program management and project feasibility studies.

(8) Provide opportunity to discuss, compare, analyze, and apply processes, concepts, approaches, tools and techniques in development administration.

(9) Discuss and analyze various training concepts, approaches and strategies and those principles of learning that could be applied in adult education and training programs.

10) Inculcate upon administrators proper job attitudes and a broadened outlook in their managerial responsibilities.

Types of Training Programs Needed

The management training programs that should be considered most relevant and vital for administrators and managers in a developing society are those that contribute to the solution of the problem of shortages of managerial and technical know-how. These training programs may fall within the following categories: (1) those designed to develop managerial capabilities; (2) those that stress the development of technocratic skills (or technical "know-how" in certain areas of specialization); and (3) for both types of training, a complementary course designed to bring about behavioral or attitudinal changes.

Managerial capabilities. A training program on management capabilities should emphasize the development of the administrator's ability in making decisions on the allocation of resources for development programs, in guiding and directing the formulation of realistic plans, and in achieving concrete results in the implementation of these plans.

Basically, the course may focus on organization and management techniques and on the managerial functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. It should be a variation from the conventional approach of highlighting principles and dealing with abstract concepts and instead, it should provide adequate opportunity for applying these prin-

ciples and concepts to concrete development management situations. The administrators should, in the process, gain the facility and wisdom of translating his management knowledge acquired in training into productive accomplishments when he returns and resumes his work in his organization.

In specific terms, the manager should develop planning capabilities in formulating achievable plans, deciding priorities that are based on rational criteria, making reliable forecasts of expected income to finance development programs and estimating as accurately as possible operating capital and budgetary requirements. This is the kind of planning that is needed to optimize the output of scarce resources.

The management training to develop the administrator's organizing ability is relatively broad in scope. It must be designed particularly to increase the administrator's capacity to mobilize political, administrative and clientele support for development programs; to establish and direct a stable and responsive organizational machinery for development; and to select, utilize, train and motivate competent personnel. The administrator's ability to gain support for development programs may be correlated with his being ever conscious of the peculiar conditions and prevailing social values in a developing society. One social scientist mentions personalism and particularistic orientation as a typical social value in a transitional society that can be used to ad-

vantage by the administrator, for it can help him "win group support, prevent conflict with policy makers and facilitate acceptance of plans."[6]

The capability to establish and direct a stable and responsive organization for development particularly refers to the administrator's capacity to design and redesign an administrative structure, recruit a competent development staff, and improve organizational performance to make it a more effective instrument for integrating and carrying out plans and programs for development. The managerial ability for organizing also includes the capacity to staff the organization with people carefully selected and whose skills and services must be fully harnessed and provided with adequate training and sufficient incentives.

In a training course, to develop the managerial functions of control, emphasis must be on the techniques of programs evaluation. The administrator must acquire the ability to establish realistic and reasonable yardsticks or standards in terms of which the success or failure of the implementation of a project may be assessed. He must be able to devise a strategy for insuring that deviations from approved plans are avoided and that rules and regulations are observed by the operating people. Training on management control should also aim at developing the manager's

[6]Abelardo Samonte, "Desirable Attitudes of a Manager," *The Role of Management Education in Development* (Singapore: RIHED, 1972).

capacity to measure outputs in relation with inputs, accomplishments in relation with manpower used, and benefits in relation with costs.

Technocratic skills. The administrator can only be as effective as his advisory and supportive staff is technically competent. He utilizes their technical expertise to facilitate and enrich his decision-making function. The role of the expert vis-a-vis that of the administrator/manager is very crucial in development management. Operating on the principle of "completed staff work," the administrator relies heavily on his technical staff's assessment of problems within their sphere of specialization and avails himself of their knowledge and the results of research investigation in certain fields of discipline. Normally, the advisory and auxiliary staff officials go — or should go — to the manager "with" and not "for" a decision, which means that, in the actual dynamics of management, technocrats are the decision-makers.

It is for these reasons that a special training on technocratic skills should be included as an integral part of a management training program. The augmentation of the cognitive abilities and technical expertise of the supportive staff is as essential as the improvement of the line manager's functions.

What is conceived of as a training program on technocratic skills is one that deals with the techniques of program formulation, socio-economic survey, financial and statistical analysis, capital budgeting, PPBS, PERT/CPM and other allied areas. In addition to the development of technocratic skills, the participants would gain a better appreciation of the staff role as distinguished from the line.

In the plethora of management courses, most of which emphasize administrative capacity and the manager's role, improving the technical competence of the advisory and supporting corps tends to get neglected. The economist, statistician, financial expert, project analyst and the like — these are the very people who assist the administrator in conceptualizing and operationalizing programs of development.

Attitudinal and Behavioral Change. The final test on how effective the learning process has been in a training program is the extent to which the knowledge and the skills that have been learned are being applied by the managers when they return and resume their jobs. It is common knowledge that in training programs, many a participant demonstrate that he has learned almost every new item of knowledge and acquired the basic skills, and yet when this participant goes back, no appreciable degree of transference of what has been learned can be noted in his performance.

While there are a lot of constraints that a returned participant faces, one of the causes of his failure to deliver the expected improvement in performance is the fact that while he had new knowledge and skills, he probably has

not been imbued with the attitudes and values that would predispose him to apply what he has learned.

The teaching of cognitive or psychomotor skills alone is no guarantee that these will be used by the participant when he returns to his job. In the Philippines, for example, there was once a crash program to train key local government officials in the formulation of capital improvement programs (CIP). The evaluation of these workshop-seminars indicated that the participants had learned the process of CIP very well. But back on the job, these key officials did not draw up their own capital improvement programs as expected of them.

If trainers want assurance that knowledge and skills acquired in the training situations are transferred to the work situation, every effort must be exerted so that the complementary changes in attitudes and values are developed in the participants.

There probably are no generalized approaches to the development of desirable attitudes and values, but the first step is to determine the types of attitudes which should oe promoted and developed. This brings us to the subject of the affective domain. It has been observed that as a student moves from the lower levels in the affective domain, the behavior of the student changes from passive to active, involuntary to voluntary, transitory to stable, inconsistent to consistent, and from neutral (or negative) to positive.

We cannot provide an elaborate discussion of the affective domain in this paper. Nonetheless, we suggest that a complementary management training on attitudinal or behavioral change must consider the affective domain as a first step in developing attitudes, predispositions, values and beliefs that are supportive of acquired managerial capabilities and technocratic skills. And so, for a deeper probe into the affective domain, it may be relevant to cite the following levels in the hierarchy of the affective domain.[7]

1.0 RECEIVING
   1.1 Awareness
   1.2 Willingness to Receive
   1.3 Controlled or Selective Attention

2.0 RESPONDING
   2.1 Acquiescence in Responding
   2.2 Willingness to Respond
   2.3 Satisfaction in Response

3.0 VALUING
   3.1 Acceptance of a Value
   3.2 Preference for a Value
   3.3 Commitment

4.0 ORGANIZATION
   4.1 Conceptualization of a Value
   4.2 Organization of a Value System

5.0 CHARACTERIZATION BY A VALUE COMPLEX

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[7]From the *Peace Corps Program and Training Journal*, Vol. I, No. 6 (June 1973).

5.1 Generalized Set

5.2 Characterization

Regional Cooperation in Training

Training in the ESCAP Region to pursue the goals ,and objectives expressed in this paper to meet management training needs can be approached through the collaborative efforts of the training institutions in the region. With a view towards promoting closer coordination among the ESCAP regional training institutions and maximizing the investment in resources, the following areas of possible inter-institutional collaboration are suggested, with the hope that these suggestions might stimulate further discussion and might point to possible directions for others to pursue.

Possible Collaborative Undertakings

Training exchange program. Trainers tend to work as individuals within training institutions and professional contact with other colleagues is limited. There is still marginal collaboration in the use of training approaches, evaluation of training effectiveness, and support for experimentation and adaptation.[8] If it is true within individual training institutions, then inter-institutional collaboration is being done even to a lesser degree.

There are two advantages in this recommendation. Firstly, this exchange will enable most institutions to take advantage of the expertise of visiting trainers, and secondly, it will enable the trainer to broaden and enrich his training perspectives beyond the opportunities that his own training institution may be able to offer.

Training of trainers. To help meet the shortages of managerial and technical know-how, participants in training programs should be able to transfer what they acquired in training to others in their organization when they report back to work. But this is easier said than done. One study points out that the transfer and adaptation of advanced managerial know-how have lagged behind in developing countries. This is partly attributed to (1) the lack of agreement among management scholars concerning the feasibility of such transfer, (2) divergent socio-cultural environments, and (3) the lack of appropriate conceptual schemes by which such transferability and adaptability can be ascertained.[9]

In many instances, training programs concentrate on the technical aspects and very little if any is devoted to the behavioral dimensions. If returning participants are expected to transfer their training to others, they at least should have some understanding of the psychology of adult learning, of human drives and motives, as well as individual and group behavior. They should know and be able to use applicable training methods and acquire basic training skills.

[8]Rolf R. Lynton and Udai Pareek, *Training for Development* (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, 1967), p. 327.

[9]Anant R. Negandhi, "Advance Management Knowhow in Underdeveloped Countries," *California Management Review,* (Spring 1968), p. 53.

Extending institutional facilities for visiting participants and training staff members. Another area for possible collaboration is the assignment of participants to different training institutions for on-the-job training; field visits and observations; and using host institutions as operational bases for gathering data in support of training programs and activities. The host institutions could have visiting trainers and participants by extending the use of training facilities; providing clerical and logistical support whenever possible; and perhaps most important of all, by lending the institutions' prestige to enable visiting trainers and participants to more effectively accomplish the objectives of their visits.

Inventory-analysis and a quarterly journal on training and development. Another possible area of collaboration is a project on inventory analysis of regional training resources. This project could start with a list of trainers and fields of specialization; annotated listing of training references, materials, and audio-visual aids and equipment; and training programs offered and possible sources of financial support. Complementing this project would be a quarterly ESCAP training and development journal where reports of activities, studies, and developments in regional training may be included. The aim of these complementary projects is to provide trainers and training institutions continuing feedback on vital aspects of training and development. It is also hoped that with these vehicles for communication, closer coordination among the different training centers in the ESCAP region would be brought about.

Regional training manual. Another complement to the project on inventory-analysis of training resources and the suggested quarterly training and development journal could be a regional manual on training. A training manual is always an important reference for trainers. This manual, aside from providing a much broader training perspective, could supplement the training manuals put out by individual training institutions.

Providing financial support. Basic to any collaborative undertaking between or among the regional training institutions is the availability of supporting funds. Agencies and organizations providing financial support to particular institutions do so for certain programs such as training on population and family planning, labor education, and development planning. These financial backers probably could be convinced to dedicate portions of their funds for collaborative programs and projects. Another method of generating funds is for the collaborating institutions to set aside a certain percentage of their respective yearly budgets which could go into a regional pool to finance joint ventures on regional training or related projects and activities.

Training of consultants/experts/advisers. Many consultants, experts and

advisers are hired by developing countries in the expectation that these technocrats may help facilitate the process of modernization and development. In many cases, however, the reports of these technocrats, incorporating important recommendations for implementation, are left gathering dust in the filing cabinets of client organizations. This is partly due to the fact that the experts fail to train key personnel of client organizations to identify and solve their own problems after the experts leave.

This failure of experts may also be attributed to the inadequacy of their training skills to effect a transfer of their knowledge and expertise to their client organizations. It may also partly be due to what the Peace Corps has experienced in its training programs where trainers are employed but who have limited or no experience with particular countries. "The more sketchy the information at their disposal, the more likely they are to give free reign to their own judgments which are probably going to reflect their own biases and backgrounds far more than the needs of training program participants."[10]

It is therefore suggested that the training institutions in the ESCAP region collaborate on a training program for consultants, advisers and experts who need skills in the training and development of those expected to take over after these technocrats leave.

[10]*Peace Corps Program and Training Journal, op. cit.,* p. 13.

Evaluation and follow-up. A very important aspect of the training process is the evaluation and follow-up of participants after they have returned to their country organizations. Compounding the problem of formulating reliable evaluation methods and instruments, is the problem of reaching participants from a country other than where the training institution is established. Fortunately, many of these institutions are based in different countries making possible a regional collaboration in the evaluation and follow-up of returning participants. For instance, the United Nations Regional Center in Nagoya, Japan could undertake the follow-up and evaluation of participants in that country who attended training programs at the Asian Institute of Management or the Philippine Executive Academy in the Philippines.

Long-range planning for training. Given the common and broad objectives of training for economic and social development, there seems to be a value towards an integrated and coordinated effort to identify regional training needs in terms of the goals and priorities of member nations; to assess regional training resources; design training programs taking into account areas of common concern where collaboration may maximize results; and to provide a scheme of coordination so that sectoral and technical training areas of individual institutional concern would support and reinforce other areas.

Training of a "critical mass." One

of the widely-recognized problems of of training programs is the transfer of training from the training situation to the work situation. Many a returning participant fail to introduce meaningful changes in his work environment for lack of sympathetic support from peers and superiors. To help solve this problem, certain training authorities have recommended the training of an adequate number of participants from the same organization to form a "critical mass" who already share common expectations and therefore may be expected to more effectively generate sympathetic support to ensure the transfer and application of acquired training from the institution to the work situation.

The difficulty in pursuing the "critical mass" strategy is the fact that most developing countries may be able to send only one or two participants at any given time to a training program. This is so, not only because of the training costs involved, but also because of the lack of personnel to take over the jobs of participants who would be away for certain periods. However, the same countries, aware of the need for various types of training, may send other participants to other training institutions in the region to undergo training in other areas of development. It is with respect to the possible collaboration in the training of a "critical mass" of participants that this suggestion is made. Aware of the transfer-of-training problem of returning participants, training institutions may agree on a common strategy to develop this critical mass.

Management Training Needs Identification

A comprehensive project on identifying management training needs for the ESCAP countries has yet to be undertaken. What has been written about so far are what writers believe to be the principal management training needs of this region. Are the assumptions of these writers valid? The answer to this question can only be objectively answered through a comprehensive survey to identify these management training needs.

The ESCAP countries can collaborate in undertaking such a comprehensive project. This collaborative effort can be worked out through the following stages:

(1) Workshop to develop a research design for the ESCAP Comprehensive Project on Management Training Needs Identification;

(2) Administration of data-gathering instruments including tabulation and initial analysis of results by collaborating countries;

(3) Workshop-Conference to take up reports by collaborating countries and to integrate country reports;

(4) Publication and dissemination of the Collaborative Project Report.

This collaborative project should include, among others, a complete inventory of training institutions, capabilities, resources and facilities, including on-going programs on management training, and it should incor-

porate designs of specific training courses to meet identified training needs.

Androgogy and Training Methodology

The use of training methods must be made on the basis of careful analysis of the training situation from several standpoints: training objectives, course content, trainee population, instructional staff, space, facilities, instructional materials, time and costs.[11]

In management training, there is the prevailing consensus among training authorities that pedagogy, the art of formal classroom teaching, is inadequate to cope with the needs of the adult learner. There is an evolving technology of adult learning which is called "androgogy," a term coined by Professor Malcolm Knowles of Boston University.[12]

A person, as he matures, develops the feeling that he should be treated with respect; that he makes and is responsible for his own decisions and therefore resists impositions, including learning situations which are not in consonance with his concept as an adult individual. It is only when there is "a connection between the educational experience and the world he toils in on a day-to-day basis" that the adult individual begins to learn. It is through androgy that those

involved with training and development can make the adult learning process effective and interesting.[13]

While there is already a growing body of androgogical methods which include seminar/discussion, p a n e l work, case studies, field exercises, conferences, management games, role-playing, simulations, and in-basket exercises, there is still a need for research on how effective these methods are when applied in countries of the Third World.

Training is a dynamic process and there is always the constant search for the proper "mix" of training methods to use. Furthermore, there is a dearth of indigenous materials utilizing these androgogical methods and there is always the question as to whether training materials developed in the more developed countries are applicable in developing countries, particularly those in the ESCAP region. A related ESCAP collaborative project, therefore, it would seem, is to develop indigenous materials applying adult learning methods and to revise and adapt to the existing cultural conditions those materials which have been effective in the West and may yet be as effective if the necessary adjustments can be made.

Training Evaluation

The evaluation of management training is just beginning to receive serious concern. Evaluation enables management to determine whether training pays off in terms of improved

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[11]Tracey, *Designing Training and Development Systems,* p. 87.

[12]Frederick E. Fisher, "Give a Damn About Continuing Adult Education in Public Administration," *Public Administration Review,* Vol. XXXIII, No. 6 (November-December 1973), pp. 489-490.

[13]*Ibid.*

on-the-job performance to maximize the accomplishment of organizational goals. Likewise, evaluation is a devise that helps trainers determine how efficient, effective and useful training is in bringing about desired changes in behavior. Given the results of evaluation, subsequent training programs may be better designed and conducted.

Management training evaluation must consider several factors such as the assumptions and principles, the process, problems, approaches and items that are critical to successful evaluation. The magnitude and diversity of training programs suggests a regional approach whereby the expertise and resources of the region can be pooled together in finding ways and means of drawing up and conducting evaluation instruments "consistent with the purposes, objectives, and goals of the training activity and in accordance with the principles of evaluation."[14]

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[14]William R. Tracey, *Evaluating Training and Development Systems* (New York: American Management Association, 1968), pp. 11-29.