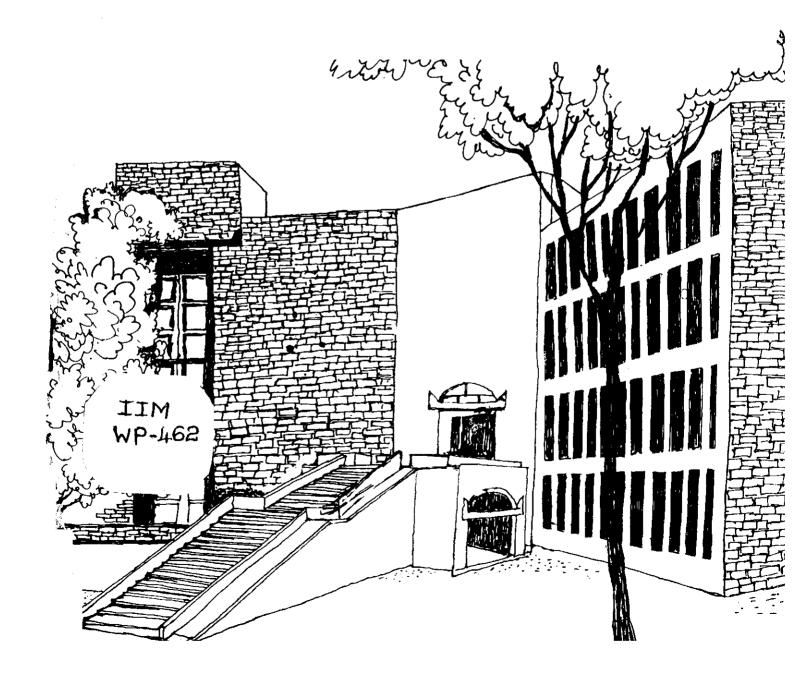# Working Paper

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Public Management Training in
Developing Countries :
A Review

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Training has long been recognized as an important instrument of human resource development. Technical assistance programmes financed by the developed countries and multilateral development agencies have devoted considerable attention and resources to the task of strengthening and upgrading the training capacities of the less developed countries. International assistance to LDCs in the field of training (technical, administrative and other types) amounted to $800 million in 1980 compared with about $50 million in 1960.[1] It is estimated that assistance for public administration training accounted for $20 million in 1960 and $80 million in 1980. Over the past three decades, governments of LDCs have invested heavily in the establishment of a wide variety of educational and training facilities with and without foreign assistance. The World Bank has estimated that the total public expenditure on education by all LDCs combined has risen from $9 billion in 1960 (2.4 per cent of their collective GNP) to $38 billion in 1976 (4.0 per cent of their GNP).[2]

Training in public administration stands out as one aspect of manpower development which was accorded a special place in the early years of technical assistance programmes. Institutions for the training of public servants were set up in many LDCs and foreign experts assisted in their early planning and management. Over 7,000 public servants and potential trainers from LDCs were sent out for

training abroad in the 1950s as part of a strategy to strengthen the
institutional capacities of these countries to manage their new
programmes for development.[3] Though the resources for this form of
technical assistance seem to have declined over the past decade,
training facilities and activities in LDCs have, on the whole,
continued to grow.

While there have been isolated efforts to evaluate the
impact of specific training institutions and programs, it is fair
to say that no comprehensive survey of the growth and impact of
public service training in LDCs has been attempted by anyone so far.[4]
The growing concern about management as a constraint on development
in recent years has once again focused attention on the need to
strengthen the institutional capacity of LDCs in public service
training. Since public service training is an ongoing activity,
it is important to analyze the evidence and assess the strengths and
weaknesses of the existing training strategies and institutional
arrangements before designing new ones.

Objectives and Scope of Study

Public service training usually refers to the training of
all categories of personnel employed by a government. (Though the
development of all types of personnel is important, our focus will be
on the training of only one category of public servants, viz. those
who have managerial and administrative responsibilities.)(Their
training needs and resource requirements differ in important ways
from those of technical personnel who perform highly specialised

functions and clerical personnel at lower levels who perform routine

functions, but do not supervize the work of other public servants. As

their careers develop, it often happens that specialists are also

called upon to play managerial roles. This explains the growing trend

in many countries to blend technical and managerial functions during

in-service training.[5]

The terms "administration" and "management" are sometimes

used interchangeably. Nevertheless, they do have different connota-

tions. In general, management is seen as a positive, opportunity

seeking, and change-oriented concept whereas administration connotes

a greater degree of passivity and orientation towards the status quo.

According to Kenneth Rothwell,[6]

> "Administration is usually thought of t as accepting
> goals from outside the system, as depending upon
> resources from other systems and being instructed
> in the use of means. Management, on the other hand,
> is usually thought of as developing goals within the
> system, using resources over which the system has
> control, and being free in the use of means.
> Receiving its authority from outside (or above) and
> referring its decisions and results elsehwere,
> administration is self-contained and acts as
> principal rather than as agent".

Rothwell's distinction between administration and manage-

ment has tended to become less sharp in the public sector because over

the years, governments have increasingly undertaken development programs

and projects. (There is a growing awareness that public managers res-

ponsible for development tasks must be active and able to influence change

even though they are subject to external policy constraints. Public

administration is no longer concerned solely with "maintenance" and

"implementation", but also with the formulation of goals in the context of given environments) The growing use of the term "public management" underscores the view of the public administrator as a manager with an entrepreneurial and decision making role.

The importance of this role, of course, tends to vary with the level of the public servant in government. It is common practice to categorize managers by senior, middle, and low levels according to the degree of their involvement in the formulation and implementation of policy. A senior level manager responsible for strategic decisions and target setting is more concerned with the goal setting process and monitoring of performance of tasks than with the actual implementation of tasks in the field. The permanent secretary of a ministry or the head of a national agricultural program, for example, tends to play this role in a developing country. The middle level manager is more concerned with the implementation of his program and the control of specific activities than with policy formulation. A regional manager in a national program or a district officer would fall into this category. A low level manager is one whose primary pre-occupation is with implementation and supervision of work in a limited functional or geographical area eg. a village level health supervisor. The role of the public administrator/manager in influencing goals and policies increases with his level in the organization. There is a continuum rather than a dichotomy between policy and administration.

(Public servants, irrespective of their levels in the hierarchy, must possess the conceptual knowledge, skills and attitudes relevant to the performance of their jobs. Training refers to the process of developing or augmenting such knowledge, skills and attitudes in a person with a view to enabling him to apply them in his work situation.) In the case of a factory worker, training could be defined narrowly in terms of specific operational skills, such as weaving, machining, etc. In the public sector, however, the requirements of a person's job may be such that the objectives of training have to be more broadly defined. It is well known, for example, that in military training, strengthening the patriotic and ideological commitment of officers is an important objective. In the corporate world, managers are imparted not only technical skills, but also an appreciation of the corporate ideology and skills in team work.

Similarly, administrative training should not be viewed as a purely technocratic exercise. Its objectives may include, for example, the creation of a commitment in public servants to . national goals and values, and an understanding of the complexity of the national environment to which the specific skills learned must be adapted. The complexity of training objectives tends to increase with the levels of public servants for whom training is to be organised. (While some of these objectives can be met through on-the-job training, more often than not, formal training away from the job may also become necessary.) As the acquisition of knowledge and skills become more general purpose and long term in nature, we tend to call it education rather

than training. However, even if the educational preparation of a public servant is adequate at the time of his entry into government service, training may still be required to induct and adapt him to his new job, and upgrade his skills at different stages in his career to match his changing task requirements.

Both in the public and private sectors, it is possible to distinguish between the institutional arrangements for the education and training of managers. Educational programs are in both cases long term (generally 1—4 years) and prepare students for a degree or diploma. Generally, universities and other autonomous bodies offer such educational facilities. While the same set of institutions may offer training programs for practitioners also, a good part of such training is organized by special institutions established as an integral part of the government. The tendency to set up such captive training facilities is weaker in the private sector as the limited size and resources of many firms make it an uneconomical proposition.

Traditionally, public administration training has focussed on the political, legal and organiza— tional environment of the government, and the development of skills in the functional aspects of administration such as budgeting and accounting, personnel, and organization and methods. General training that covers all these functions as well as specialized courses on any of them are treated as public administration training. In recent years, with the advent of development planning in many LDCs, courses on project appraisal and management have been added

to these traditional subjects. Apart from the use of specialized tools and technologies, theories of organization, largely based on concepts, and applications of behavioral sciences are also found in the training curricula. Given the assumption that policy is outside the purview of the administrator, the dominant tradition in this field of training has emphasized the instrumental role of administrators.)

Management training for enterprises has also given considerable attention to the firm's environment and the application of tools and techniques to the functional aspects of enterprise management such as marketing, finance, production, personnel and industrial relations, and planning and control. The application of economics, mathematics and behavioral sciences to these functional areas has been a major development in management education and training in recent years. Two other features of the management field, however, have no counterpart in public administration. (First, enterprise (business) policy is a proper subject of study in management and provides an integrative framework to pull together specialized functions such as marketing, finance and production. This framework relates enterprise goals to its environment and offers a conceptual basis for integrating the diverse functions referred to above.) Second, the focus of the subject is very much on the decision maker. Application of knowledge to problem solving has, therefore, been a strong tradition in management with its implications for learning (training) methodologies. (In contrast, an integrative framework has been missing in the education for public administration, and training methodologies do not have a strong problem solving and

decision making orientation.[7])

(There are two types of organizations which are known for their strong tradition in training. In all parts of the world, the military is reputed for its emphasis on the systematic training of all its personnel at different stages in their careers. Their training inputs include not only technical, but also administrative and managerial components. Similarly, business enterprises, especially multinational corporations, are well known for their emphasis on training for all categories of their employees.[8] Here again, personnel policies support the training function through the career development and performance evaluation processes. Chandler's recent study has claimed that the significant expansion in the size and decentralization of United States multinationals was greatly facilitated by the increased use of professionally trained managers.[9] The growing demand for formal management training in the United States has been attributed to this phenomenon. According to this study, modern business schools were central to the professionalization of management in the large multi-unit enterprises. In the military as well as business, it is significant that the dominant tasks of performance are pretty strong, the battlefield in one case, and the market place in the other. The serious attention to formal training given by both types of organization may not therefore be entirely accidental !

The focus of this study, however, is not on training in the military and the private sector. It will concentrate instead

on training for those categories of public servants in developing countries who play administrative and managerial roles in their organizations. The term "public management training" (PMT) will be used to refer to this activity. The study will focus on all formal training activities designed to strengthen the knowledge and skills and influence the behavior and attitudes of middle-and senior level public servants in government with a view to improving their task performance.

Most of the PMT activities found in LDCs today may be classified into four categories: (a) pre-entry training (PET), (b) in-service training (IST), (c) project related training (PRT) and (d) self-development (SD). PET refers to training offered to persons prior to their formal entry into the public service. In some cases, PET may follow immediately after their recruitment but before they are placed in their first job. Examples of PET are formal courses in public administration or management organized by universities and foundation courses organized by government training centers for probationers recruited into the service. In-service training (IST) refers to the training given to persons at different stages in their careers after they have been inducted into the service. Examples are mid-career management development programmes at home or abroad, on the job training at different stages in a person's career, and other specialized short-term training programmes. The target groups of both PET and IST are all public servants, though distinctions may be made between the levels and services to which they belong. Thus, PET may

be organized for the elite cadres separately. IST may be organized for those who have completed, say, ten years of service. Project-related training (PRT), on the other hand, focusses on the training quirements of all personnel in a given development project. Distinction between levels here is secondary. Self-development (SD) refers to organized efforts to support individual training through the facilities available outside the government training system. Thus, public servants may be encouraged to undergo specialized training in certain useful subjects at a university. Study leave and other incentives may be offered by government to motivate employees to engage in SD.

Because training is a vast field, the paper will specify the pre-conditions for training effectiveness in the developing countries from a national perspective. It will seek answers to a variety of questions. How has public administration and management training evolved over the years? What patterns and indicators of growth in terms of inputs and outputs can be discerned from published data? Do governments have training policies for their public service? How do institutions perform their training function? What are their major activities and programmes? What is the impact and effectiveness of PMT? What are the lessons to be learned from institutions that have performed relatively well? Do they offer any innovative approaches and modes of training? The conclusions and policy implications

of this state-of-the art survey will be summarized at the end.

A major limitation of this study is its exclusive reliance on published information. Clearly, much valuable, unpublished data are available with governments and donor agencies, but ... are inaccessi-
ble/ Readers are, therefore, advised to bear in mind this limitation
   to others.
while interpreting the findings of this paper.

Effectiveness of Training : The Preconditions

Training has often been prescribed as a panacea for the ills of developing countries. In the heyday of technical assistance during the 1950s, there was a widely held belief that the performance of poor countries could be significantly improved by helping their citizens to absorb the technologies and skills developed in the West. Training was identified as the prime instrument in the transfer process and this in turn provided the rationale for foreign aid to strengthen PMT facilities in a wide range of countries. The slow pace of progress and unexpected barriers to growth experienced by the third world in subsequent years seem to have tempered these over-optimistic expectations and led several international agencies to cut back on their allocations for public administration training. There is probably a greater awareness today that training must be viewed as part of a set of complex, inter-related variables which together determine the pace of development.

At the micro level, the performance of an individual is jointly influenced by his ability and motivation. Even if a person scores high on ability, but is low on motivation, his performance will be lower than will be the case otherwise. The primary contribution of training is in improving ability. It cannot do a great deal to improve an individual's motivation which depends on other factors such as compensation, working conditions, and personality characteristics. Thus, training influences performance through the ability factor and plays only a partial role in determining the overall level of an individual's performance.

There is clearly a relationship between the role of training at the micro and macro levels. To the extent training can be used to augment the abilities of the citizenry, it might help improve the aggregate performance of the country's economy. The supply of training as an input, however, is no guarantee that it will be effectively utilized at/macro level. This is particularly true of public service training. From a policy stand oint, it is important, therefore, to identify the preconditions necessary to ensure the effectiveness of training; the five preconditions are discussed below.

1. Training Policies and Management of Institutions

Training policies of governments and the design and management of training institutions have a direct bearing on the effectiveness of PMT. When training is organized haphazardly, and training concepts, content, and methodologies are borrowed or developed without reference to the socio-cultural features of the LDC environment, training usually fails to make the impact expected of it. A good training policy is a prerequisite for effectiven training. Part of the problem may lie in the ineffective development and management of training institutions. When institutional strategies do not provide for necessary adaptations and are weak in delivering training services to meet changing needs, training effectiveness tends to suffer. A national policy for the design of PMT and the management of PMT institutions is therefore an important precondition for training effectiveness.

2. <u>The Education System</u> : The training system can only build on what the education system can offer; the existence of a sound education system that can back up the training system is essential.

3. <u>The Stock of Educated Manpower</u>: A reasonably good supply of educated manpower is a necessary pre-condition for effectiveness of training. Some LDCs are plagued by a general shortage of educated manpower. This is not necessarily a problem of the education system alone. Demographic factors as well as past policies of development may have led to a condition of continuing manpower shortage which makes it difficult for the public service to attract an adequate supply of educated manpower. Under these conditions, competition for trained manpower becomes intense and a rapid turnover or depletion of personnel in the public sector renders training less effective.

4. <u>Personnel Policies and Systems</u>: Training is unlikely to be effective as long as personnel policies and systems of the government do not support this activity. For example, if training is not integrated with the career development plans of public servants and systems for performance evaluation, it is unlikely that "effective demand" for training will be created. The reluctance of ministries to sponsor people for training and the lack of motivation on the part of public servants to take advantage of training opportunities could largely be attributed to this factor.

5. __The Administrative Culture of Governments:__ For PMT to be
effective, it requires an administrative system that is performance
oriented in its patterns of authority and communication, attitudes to
work, and values. Every government has an administrative culture which
is the combined outcome of informal work socialization and the intera-
ction of complex administrative structures over a long period of time.[10]
Several studies of training in industry have documented the decisive
influence of "organizational climate" on training effectiveness.[11] While
limited tools and techniques of management can be transferred with
relative ease through training, without major changes in its administra-
tive culture, it is difficult to make PMT an effective input for deve-
lopment. In a sense, it is the weight of this broader non-result
oriented administrative culture which inhibits the realignment of
personal policies in many LDC governments.

An analysis of these five preconditions shows that some of
them influence training effectiveness from the supply side whereas
others operate on the demand side. The first three variables - namely,
policies for the management of training, the education system, and the
stock of educated manpower - contribute to effectiveness by improving
the supply of training. The reference here is not merely to the quan-
titative aspect of supply, but more importantly to its qualitative
dimensions. A more appropriate training strategy, for example, leads
qualitatively to better training. On the other side, personnel
policies and administrative culture are variables which promote
effectiveness by stimulating a more genuine demand for training. Thus,

when career development linkages with training are strong, there is a greater incentive on the part of public servants to respond to and internalize training inputs. When the administrative culture is performance oriented, a ministry will demand more training inputs for its personnel if this helps in improving its performance. Training effectiveness is optimized only when both sets of preconditions are satisfied. Even if the preconditions for improving the supply side are
mot while those on the demand/are   ignored, the net result will be suboptimal. The demand pull which would have improved effectiveness is absent in this case. Similarly, if personnel policies are better realigned, but training strategies are ignored, then again, the result will be less than optimal as the supply push which would have improved effectiveness will remain weak.

In brief, attention must be given to the preconditions on both supply and demand sides in order to optimize training effectiveness. It is their combined support that improves the "fit" between the training needs of governments and the actual training services offered. The prescription to expand training activities without paying attention to these preconditions betrays a lack of understanding of the complementarity between the two. More training does not necessarily lead to better or more effective training. Even as they take steps to strengthen PMT activities, governments ought to review their policies which have a bearing on the different preconditions discussed above. The policy implications of these preconditions will be discussed in the following chapters.

Notes:

1. Based on OECD, Development Assistance (Paris, 1901, mimeo);
J. Montgomery and W. Siffin (eds), Approaches to Development : Politics
Administration and Change (New York : McGraw-Hill, 1966), Chapter 6.
OECD countries alone have provided training assistance to LDCs of
$500 million in 1980. World Bank's project related training was of the
order of $100 million in 1980. The total training assistance provided
by the various UN agencies have amounted to $67 million for the same
year. It is estimated that private foundations and other donors
together have accounted for the balance amount.

2. See World Development Report 1980 (Washington, D.C. 1980)
External aid to education accounted for 9 per cent of the total educa-
tion budgets of LDCs. Between 1970 and 1975, external aid for education
and training grew 13 per cent per year at current prices. See World
Bank, Education, Sector Policy Paper (Washington, D.C.1980)

3. Montgomery and Siffin, Approaches to Development, op.cit.

4. Most of the data on training are maintained at the level of indivi-
dual institutions. Aggregate data on training, including expenditures
and outputs, are seldom collected and published by governments. This
makes the task of undertaking a comprehensive international study even
harder.

5. Thus it is now common for training programmes in agriculture and
public health to include components on management training especially
where middle and higher level specialists are involved.

6. K. Rothwell (ed), Administrative Issues in Developing Economies
(Lexington, Mass, 1972), p.3

7. Issues of methodology and control will be discussed in subsequent
chapters.

8. ILO, Multinational Training Practices and Development (Geneva,1981)

9. A. Chandler, The Visible Hand : The Managerial Revolution in
American Business (Harvard, 1977), pp. 464-476.

10. J. Moris, "The Transferability of Western Management Concepts and
Programmes : An East African Perspective", in L. Stifel, et.al.
Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing
Countries (New York : The Rockefeller Foundation, 1977).

11. R.M. Hogarth, Evaluating Management Education (New York : John
Wiley, 1979); H. Baumgartel, et.al., "Management Education, Company
Climate and Innovation," Journal of General Management, No. 4,
1976-77, pp.17-26,

Chapter II

EDUCATION AND GROWTH OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT
TRAINING

Public administration and management training in developing
countries is essentially a post-World War II phenomenon. The number
and variety of training institutions expanded significantly after the
war when many countries in Asia and Africa became independent. This
is not to imply that training activities were non-existent in their
pre-independence days. In Latin American countries, which had won
their independence long before most other developing countries, public
service training, though haphazard, had existed for many years. Legal
training was the dominant influence on their training system which
borrowed heavily from the French tradition.[1] In South Asia, the
British tradition of generalist training had left its mark even in
the colonial days. British as well as Indian officers who joined the
civil service were given education in selected British universities
and special colleges set up for this purpose in/then undivided India.
the
In Africa, facilities for training administrators and managers were
more or less non existent in the colonial days as such positions were
filled almost exclusively by expatriates. Taking LDCs as a whole,
training infrastructure was extremely limited in scope and
rudimentary in nature until three decades ago. Whatever facilities
existed, were a reflection of the systems and practices of the
colonial governments which ruled or influenced them.[2]

Technical Assistance for Institution Building

     The 1950's saw a remarkable shift in the approaches and attitudes towards training in many LDCs. The rapid expansion of the roles and functions of government into new economic and social fields led to a much sharper focus on training. A United Nations Special Committee on Public Administration Problems in 1951 noted the scarcity of highly trained public servants and advocated further study of the availability of "qualified personnel at the intermediate and higher levels".[3] The new upsurge of interest in training was soon reflected in the very first U.N. technical assistance programme which led to the establishment in the 1950s of new institutes of administration in Argentina, Brazil, Burma, Colombia, El Salvador, Ethiopia and Turkey. An even more significant initiative came during the same period from the U.S. technical assistance programme. Several projects for establishing new training institutions in Latin America and Asia were completed in the 1950's under this programme. New institutions with U.S. assistance were set up in Brazil, El Salvador, Equador, Republic of Korea, Mexico, Pakistan, Peru, the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam during this period.[4] At about the same time, in a dozen or more countries, the French government assisted in the establishment of new training institutions patterned after the French Ecole Nationale /Administration.D'[5] Algeria, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Ivory Coast, Mali, Morocco, Niger, Senegal, Togo, Tunisia and Upper Voltas were among the countries in Africa where such institutions were established in the late 1950's and early

1960's. Among the American foundations, the Ford Foundation spent over $23 million in support of "development planning and management" during 1955-59. This accounted for 30 per cent of the foundation's total budget and led to the establishment of public administration institutes in several countries with major involvements in Egypt, India, Indonesia and Pakistan.[6] The U.N., the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and Ford Foundation together are estimated to have spent about $250 million in support of institution building in the third world for public administration and trained over 7,000 persons during the period 1951-62. This new wave of institution building in public administration in the 1950's was aided by both bilateral and multilateral technical assistance programmes which viewed training as a critical ingredient in the development process.

An unusual constellation of factors triggered the boom in training infrastructure building in LDCs in the 1950's. First, the political independence won by a large number of countries and the urgent need to indegenize and modernize their civil service generated a strong demand for, or at least heightened their receptivity to, training. Second, the emergence of the concept of technical assistance supported by important bilateral and multilateral development agencies provided a timely vehicle to respond to this need. Third, the optimism and conviction of professional opinion as well as political leadership during this period that transfer of knowledge and skills from developed countries through training is a valid approach to the development of LDCs facilitated the large scale allocation of resources in support of PMT.

By the end of the 1960's, however, this momentum of institution

building for PMT with international support had begun to decelerate.

USAID for example, took a decision in the mid-1960's to cut back on

public administration assistance to LDCs in the belief that there was

no immediate pay-off in terms of improved development performance.

USAID officials found such assistance "difficult, sensitive and uncer-

tain".[7] It was felt that development administration needed different

approaches and tools from what the U.S. based public administration

models had to offer; the Ford Foundation came to similar conclusions.

So the share of public management related programs in the foundation's

budget declined from 30 per cent in 1955-59 to 19 per cent in 1970-74.

On the other hand, many donors have increased their project related

training (PRT) to LDCs in the 1970s with a strong component of manage-

ment training in their development projects. For example, the World

Bank's PRT has increased from $67.2 million in 1976 to $186.8 million

in 1981.[8] The assistance of the United Nations Development Programme

(UNDP) also increased from $38 million in 1972-76 to $60 million in

the period of 1977-81.[9]

Overseas training of LDC personnel constitutes an important

form of donor assistance. Member countries of the Organisation for

Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) which account for the bulk

of bilateral foreign assistance currently spend nearly $500 million

per year on training assistance to LDCs; major part of the amount

is spent on training fellowships abroad.[10] The number of fellowships

has increased from 82,500 in 1970 to 93,500 in 1978 and 110,000 in

1979. Of the 93,500 training fellowships offered in 1978, 14,000 or nearly 15 per cent of the grants were in the field of public administration.[11] The major trends and problems in this area are the following: first, though the overall number of fellowships offered by the OECD group has increased between 1970 and 1978, the fellowship grants in public administration has declined by nearly 15 per cent. There is thus some evidence that the use of overseas training to strengthen public administration is receiving lower priority than before. Second, requests for training grants from LDCs appear to favour senior-level personnel. Middle-level personnel, whose shortage is severe in many African countries, do not receive the attention they deserve. Women too have received only a negligible number of training grants. Third, there has been a growing tendency on the part of donors and LDCs to organize training for the grantees in their own countries. Use of training fellowships in the home country as a percent of total fellowships has increased from 5 to 13 per cent between 1970 and 1979. Training abroad, however, countines to be the dominant feature of donor assistance by way of fellowships.

Expansion of Training Infrastructure in the 1970s

Quantitative indicators of the growing and significance of PMT in LDCs are difficult to assemble, for several reasons. First of all, training is not a standardized activity with uniform and measurable inputs and outputs. Simple indicators such as number of courses, size of budgets, and number of trainees do not adequately reflect either the

quality dimension or the variations in the input-output relationships among the different types of training. Second, since many institutions are engaged in multiple activities (not merely training), it becomes difficult to allocate inputs and outputs which are jointly utilized or generated. Third, since training is an internal activity, of interest mainly to public servants, public demand for the dissemination of training data is limited. Governments are therefore under no great pressure to undertake detailed studies or public relevant information on the progress of PMT. Consequently, data on training are generally scanty and aggregate indicators of its progress and performance virtually non existent. In view of this data problem, we have pulled together the partial evidence that is available on some dimensions of training and experiences of selected countries.

As the institutional capacities of LDCs as a whole have increased significantly over the past three decades the increase in the number
of growth.
of training institutions is used as an index./ The 1980 Directory of Management and Administrative Institutes prepared by the International Labour Office (ILO), lists 236 PMT institutions in 91 countries;[12] the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) survey found 276 public administration training institutes and schools presently in operation in 91 countries.[13] The major difference between the two lists is that IASIA includes a larger number of university departments which claim to be engaged in training activities; it is more comprehensive than that of ILO whose primary concern is with general management training. However, even the IASIA list must be

regarded as an under-estimate as it does not report most of the ministry/ departmental training centers set up by LDC governments. These training centers generally tend to be more specialized sectorally or otherwise, but do offer PMT to some extent.

Both the ILO and IASIA estimates point to a significant expansion of PMT facilities in LDCs — some 200 new institutions over a 20-year period.[14] This is corroborated by a recent survey of 118 institutions around the world which showed that nearly 85 per cent of them were founded less than 30 years ago.[15] For example, in/Pakistan, six new institutions were established by the government since independence. These are the Academy of Administrative Training, the Pakistan Academy for Rural Development, Secretariat Training Institute, two National Institutes of Public Administration and the Pakistan Administrative Staff College. In addition, two universities have established departments of administrative studies. The first three among these institutions are engaged in probationers' training and supervisory training whereas the last three provide training for upper levels of the civil service. In another Asian country, the Philippines, an Institute of Public Administration was established in 1953 as part of the University of the Philippines. The Philippines Executive Academy was set up within the same University in 1963. Two more institutions, the Civil Service Academy, and the Development Academy of the Philippines were set up as part of the Government in the 1970s to meet the administrative training needs of the lower and upper levels of public servants respectively. The University Institute's primary focus was on pre-service degree programmes.

In Nigeria, there was only one institute of administration before independence (at Zaria) that was engaged in training for the northern regional administrative service. The Government of Nigeria had no central training institution of its own. It was in the 1970s that two new federal institutions, the Centre for Management Development and the Administrative Staff College for senior level training were established. In addition, two university departments of administration were also created. Brazil, on the other hand, established four new institutions in the 1950s. Of these two were autonomous institutions, and the rest were affiliated to universities. Senegal established five new training centers or institutions for administration in the 1960s; four of these were under government auspices and one was part of a university. Most of the expansion in the infrastructure for training seems to have taken place in the larger LDCs; they established multiple training institutions during this period whereas smaller countries typically had only a single training institution.

The number of persons trained in these new institutions has increased significantly in recent years. In Malaysia, the number of persons trained increased from 1000 in 1960 to 9000 in 1980 in India, it was 1,500 and 7,000 respectively (for the Federal Government only). In Bangladesh, on the average, over 5000 public servants   were trained per year in the mid-1970s; In Nigeria, 8,500 persons from the public and private sectors underwent management training in 1976-77. In the Philippines, a single new program started in 1972 trained nearly 20,000 middle level administrators during a period of five years.

This steady expansion of institutional training capacity in
LDCs may seem unusual in view of the declining trend in the donor
support of donor agencies noted in the preceding pages. The explana-
tion lies in the fact that LDC governments financed an increasing share
of the institution-building costs over the years even as international
assistance began to shrink. In the heyday of technical assistance for
public administration (1950-62), the United Nations, USAID, and the
Ford Foundation had assisted in the establishment of 27,45, and 7
training institutions respectively in over 70 countries.[16] The vast
majority of new institutions set up after this period came into being
without any significant dependence on foreign aid. International
assistance, however, continues for the smaller and poorer LDCs.

Developed Country Experiences

The United States has long led the world in public administra-
tion and management training both in terms of the official support
given to such training by government and industry and the vast network
of educational and training institutions engaged in this activity. The
annual expenditure on training in the United States was estimated at
$10 billion in the 1960s.[17] American universities have offered pre-
entry programmes for the public service since the 1920s, and their
graduates have risen to eminent positions in various government depart-
ments in the US.[18] Governments at the national and state levels have
established their own training centers to conduct in-service training
(IST) for their personnel ranging from the training of clerks to those
of officials in the highest professional and administrative echelons.

In relative terms, the involvement of U.S. universities in IST for government has been much less significant than in pre-entry training (PET). At the university level, in recent years the trend has been to move away from training techniques toward greater emphasis on policy and program planning and analysis. Within the U.S. government, the focus on IST has been further strengthened by the passing of the Government Employees Training Act in 1958 which specified Government's training policy and increased the flexibility and financial support for training.[19] It is estimated that one out of four U.S. federal employees benefit from some form of formal training at government expense every year, and that one third of the total training budget is devoted to PMT.[20]

Public service training in European countries has also undergone significant changes since World War II. In Britain, the Administrative Staff College at Henley and universities, such as Manchester, have been active in the training of civil servants for many years, though in terms of the numbers trained, their coverage has not been extensive. On the whole, British universities have not been as involved in PET for the government as their American counterparts. In Britain, which has traditionally believed in generalist education for its civil servants, a major landmark was the establishment of a Civil Service College in 1970 on the recommendation of the Fulton Committee.[21] The purpose of this new training and research institution was to cope with the weaknesses arising out of generalist education by providing in-service training in administration and management to

public servants at middle and higher levels, and to undertake research and consultancy work relevant to public administration.

In France, training is strongly oriented to the development of technocratic elites who are influential in both the public and private sectors. The Government of France is well known for its systematic approach to the training of public servants, especially at the entry level. The new French model , known as the Grand Ecoles type of training, is the basis for access to key positions in the administration and for career promotion. The National School of Administration (ENA) established in 1945, follows a curriculum that emphasizes both practical and theoretical training. Training starts with a year of administrative training in ENA.[22] Recent reforms in ENA have widened the scope of field placements which now also include industry. Subjects of study include administration, budgeting and finance, international relations and law, and economics. Additional field attachments are sandwitched between these studies. Graduates are ranked according to their performance at ENA which in turn determines their first job assignments in government. Middle-level personnel in France are trained at the Regional Institute of Administration. The French approach thus has an exclusive focus on PET, and has significantly influenced the new training institutions of its former colonies.

In France as well as in other European countries, law is still the favored qualification for a public servant. Thus, French universities continue to engage in the teaching of administrative law to the neglect of public management. The Federal Republic Germany and Italy provide IST for their public service through government owned institutes of public administration. A survey shows that most of the training for the public service in Europe is organized by governments and not by universities.[23]

An interesting model of training for the public service is found in Japan which until World War II had emphasized law as the preferred background for its bureaucratic elite. Since the 1950s, the Japanese training system has undergone major changes. Legislation has been enacted by the Government specifying its training policy and the institutional arrangements for public service training.[24] While each ministry plans its own training, the National Personnel Authority (NPA) is the coordinating agency for all training in the public sector. In addition to on-the-job training which has a long history in Japan, systematic training for all categories of public personnel is now organized through a vast network of institutions. Career development and training are closely linked through the NPA. PET and IST (which includes short term training as well as studies abroad) are planned as part of the career development of personnel from the time they join the Government. The government's own facilities such as the National Institute of Public Administration rather than universities play a

major role in IST. The rapid expansion of IST in recent decades
enables the Government to provide a training opportunity to one out
of four public servants every year.[25] The focus of training in Japan
is not merely on the acquisition of technocratic skills, but also on
the creation of a strong sense of nationalism, cooperative work
culture, and an empirical approach to administration.

The foregoing review reveals the diversity of approaches to
PMT among the more developed countries of the world. Despite their
differences, the governments of all these countries, however, seem
to play a growing and proactive role in the training of their personnel;
the coverage is most extensive in the United States and in Japan.
Governments' own training institutions are responsible for most of the
IST in all countries.

Who benefits from Training

Public sector employment has grown substantially in LDCs
during the past three decades. Whether training has expanded to cope
with the increasing needs of the public service is an important issue.
A comparative analysis of experiences of some of the countries in Asia,
Africa, and Latin America reveals the following:

1. Pre-entry training for the elite administrative cadres
is the most systematically organized segment of PMT.[26] In India,
Malaysia, Pakistan and the Philippines, training programmes extending
from nine months to two years are offered by the major training ins-
titutions for all new entrants to the upper-level administrative
cadres. In countries that have public administration degree programs

as part of the university system, in most cases the institutions concerned are chiefly engaged in pre-entry training for the higher level services. Thus, the focus of training, by and large, has been the entry-level needs of the young administrators recruited to the central services.

2. For most officers even in the elite services, the initial pre-entry training is the only formal training they will ever receive in their career. Though there are institutions which offer in-service training - and all report expansion of their programmes - the proportion of public servants who are able to take advantage of such training is small. For India, it is estimated that no more than 20 per cent of the upper-level management group will be trained in service in their entire careers: the experience of Pakistan is similar. Even Malaysia and Philippines, which have substantially expanded their training activities in the 1970s report that the coverage of IST leaves much to be desired. A committee report on Kenya's public service training has also highlighted the inadequacies in IST for different levels of personnel.[27] A World Bank survey of six countries in West Africa has shown that of the 35,000 senior and middle-level managers in their public enterprises, no more than 11 per cent have received any kind of management training. Weak linkages between career development and training, and inadequacies in the training infrastructure are perhaps the most important reasons for the slow progress of IST.

3. Though lip service has been paid to the need for training public servants already in senior positions (as against young entrants who will eventually rise to senior positions), the record of actual training offered to this category of personnel is dismal indeed. With the exception of Malaysia which has organized workshops and seminars for senior officials, the other three countries surveyed in the Asian study have not progressed much in this regard. In fact, a survey of Pakistan's experience shows that middle-level officials get sponsored to attend courses meant for their seniors as the latter do not as a rule respond to such programmes. Surveying the African scene, one observer has recently noted:[28]

> "CAFRAD experience in administrative training in Africa
> is that the very senior civil servants who need help
> most are the most reluctant to come forward for training.
> This is the commonest complaint our trainees make. What
> is the use of acquiring new knowledge, skills and attitu-
> des if our bosses are not going to notice, let alone
> appreciate, the changed performance behaviour?"

The Kenyan report referred to earlier has stressed an urgent need to upgrade the management skills of the senior administrators in government. A U.N. report making a similar observation noted that "if senior managers were exposed to and convinced of the utility of in-service training, it would have beneficial effects on the desire of lower echelon staff to participate in in-service training programmes".[29]

There are, of course, exceptions to this pattern. The
Government of Zimbabwe, soon after independence, initiated its very
first series of training programmes with a week-long workshop for all
permanent secretaries with the Prime Minister being present in the
first session. This workshop was followed by several two week train-
ing programmes for deputy secretaries and under secretaries. In a
period of four months, practically all the senior officers of the new
government (in all over 200 persons) participated in these programmes.
In view of the unique problems of transition in Zimbabwe and its mix
of white and black officers, the political leadership considered it most
important that the reorientation and training processes should start
with the senior personnel in the Government. An external evaluation
of this series of training programmes showed that the participants,
many of whom had never attended such programmes, were overwhelmingly
positive about their training experience. Needless to say, this was
an exceptional case of "top down training" !

4. Training tends to become even more haphazard and inade-
quate at lower levels in the public service. In most countries, such
training is left to individual departments and agencies which may have
no systematic training programmes. As a result, the vast majority of
public servants at lower levels in several countries do not receive
any training at all. In Malaysia, it is reported that in 1978 only
4 per cent of the total federal and state employees received any
training whatsoever. Reports of ministries to the Civil Service
Commission in the Philippines indicate that there are very few

training programmes for the clerical and craft levels of employees. In India, only 30 per cent and 10 per cent respectively of personnel in the lowest two categories are reported to have received any training at all in their entire careers.[30] The Kenyan report also points out that there is a major gap in the training of the lowest categories of personnel. In Latin American countries, lower level training is stated to be the least organized.[31] A study of the training of local government officials in LDCs has shown that though they account for 20-30 per cent of the total number of government employees, only 10-15 per cent of the total government budget for training is allocated to them.[32a.]

An important problem here is that very large numbers of people are employed in LDCs at the lower levels of the pyramid of public bureaucracies.[32] Increasing the coverage of training for the lower levels would involve not only a major reallocation of resources, but also considerably more complex, and decentralized organizational efforts for training. Though "training for all" has been declared a policy objective by several countries, evidence shows that very little progress has been made in meeting this goal.

Training for Public Enterprise Personnel

The rapid expansion of public enterprises, or parastatals as they are commonly referred to in most LDCs, has been a phenomenon of the past decade or two. In planning the new training institutions in the 1950s, neither donors nor/governments seem to have anticipated the special needs of these organizations. International concern about

the training needs of public enterprises (PEs) began to be voiced widely only in the 1970s.[33] Unlike in public service training, there is no single central agency in most LDCs whose primary task is to look after the training of PE personnel, as evidence is hard to gather.

Most developing countries, it appears, draw on the resources of business schools, private management consulting firms, and to some extent, institutes of public administration for upgrading the managerial skills of their public enterprise personnel. In some countries, large public enterprises have set up their own management training centers. For the training of some of their senior personnel, they utilize civil service training centres and staff colleges. Very few LDC governments have set up separate institutions to train managers of public enterprises. Egypt's National Institute of Management Development is one such example and India's Institute for Public Enterprises is another. In Sri Lanka, the National Institute of Management was established originally to serve the needs of public enterprises. Most other management institutes or schools tend to cater to both private and public enterprise needs, though, once again, data are hard to come by on the coverage of training for different levels of PE personnel. But discussions on the training needs of public enterprises and institutional arrangements to meet them are continuing and/number of a experiments in training are under way in different national and regional centers.[34]

Notes:

1. Frank Sutton and Theodore Smith, The Ford Foundation and Public Management in the Less Developed Countries (New York, 1975) mimeo, p.3.

2. In the late forties, much dissatisfaction was expressed in the United Kingdom, the United States and France about inadequacies of their respective training policies and practices. In each of these countries, important reforms were introduced to strengthen public service training which in turn had an impact on many LDCs which had close links with them. For details, see UN, A Handbook of Training in the Public Service (New York, 1966), Chapter 1.

3. Ibid, p.2.

4. United Nations, A Handbook of Public Administration (New York, 1961) p.115.

5. J.J. Ribas, Les Servives de la fonction publique daus le monde (Brussels, IIAS, 1956), pp.110-120.

6. Sutton and Smith, The Ford Foundation and Public Management, op.cit., pp.11-13.

7. USAID, Management Development Strategy Paper : AID's Response to the Implementation Needs of the 1980's (Washington, D.C., June 1981), mimeo.

8. World Bank, Analysis of Lending for Education and Training in World Bank Projects, F482 (Washington, D.C., 1982) (mimeo)

9. Data furnished to the author by UNDP, New York.

10. OECD, Development Assistance (Paris, 1981, mimeo)

11. Ibid.

12. ILO, Management Administration and Productivity : International Directory of Institutions (Geneva, 1981)

13. IASIA, List of Schools and Institutes of Administration (Brussels, 1981), mimeo.

14. United Nations, A Handbook of Training in the Public Service (New York, 1966)

15. E. Engelbert, International Cooperation for Education and Training in Public Administration/Public Management (IASIA; 1980, mimeo)

16. J. Montgomery and W. Siffin (eds), Approaches to Development : Politics, Administration and Change (McGraw Hill, New York, 1966) Chapter 6.

17. R, Lynton and U Pareek, Training for Development (Homewood : Richard D. Irwin, 1967), p.VII.

18. O.B. Conway Jr., "The Teaching of Public Administration" in M. Kriesbug (ed), Public Administration in Developing Countries (Washington D.C.: Brookings, 1965), p.150.

19. R.C. Collins, "Training and Education : Trends and Differences", Public Administration Review, Nov-Dec, 1973

20. U.S. Office of Personnel Management, Employee Training in the Federal Service, FY 1980 (Washington D.C. 1981), pp.2-5.

21. M. Durupty, "Civil Service Training in Europe", in Effective Use of Training Methodologies (London : Commonwealth Secretariat, 1979), p.170.

22. Ibid, p.169.

23. Ibid, pp.168-71.

24. Government of Japan, Public Administration in Japan (Tokyo, 1982)

25. Ibid.

26. A Raksasataya and H. Seidentopf (eds), Training in the Civil Service, Vol.4 (APDAC, Kuala Lumpur, 1980)

27. Government of Kenya, A Committee of Inquiry : Public Service Structure, 1970-71 (Nairobi, 1971), pp.98-102.

28. A. Rweyamamu, "Some Reflections on Training Senior African Public Servants" in Effective Use of Training Methodologies (Commonwealth Secretariat, London, 1979), p.147. The newly independent Zimbabwe offers the rare case of a government which initiated a massive programme for public service training starting with a one-week workshop for its permanent secretaries in 1981)

29. United Nations, Strengthening Public Administration and Finances for Development in the 1980s (New York, 1978), p.33.

30. Raksasatya and Seidentopf, op.cit.

31. UN Advisors familiar with several Latin American countries have conveyed this view to this author in an interview.

32. G. Cochrane, Management in Local Government (WDR Ba kground Paper, 1983, mimeo).

33. In Malaysia and India, the lower levels account for 90 and 98 per cent respectively.

34. The Commonwealth Secretariat has been active in this field and has organized several meetings on this subject. APDAC in Kuala Lumpur has also prepared various studies on this theme.

Chapter III

TRAINING POLICIES

One of the preconditions for effective training mentioned in
Chapter I is the existence of a national training policy for the public
service. When training activities are performed in an _ad hoc_ manner
without the guidance of a policy framework, inefficient use of scarce
resources and duplication of efforts are bound to occur. The training
needs of different categories of personnel and different agencies of
government are numerous and varied. It is imperative, therefore, that
the objectives of training and guidelines for planning, directing and
monitoring this activity be laid down by government as part of an
integrated policy.

Ingredients of a Training Policy

Ideally, a training policy for the public service should state
the objectives and scope of all training activities, approaches to
training needs assessment,   priorities and financing arrangements,
the roles and functions of different categories of training institu-
tions and mechanisms for coordinating their work, linkages of training
to career planning and development, and guidelines for the monitoring
and evaluation of training. Training policies must be based on a
careful assessment of future national tasks and manpower requirements.
Publicly declared training policies help employees understand the
development opportunities available to them. For those who manage
training in government, policies provide a framework within which
to plan their programmes, seek resources, and guide and evaluate

be

performance. On the other hand, policy guidelines should not /so rigid
and detailed that adaptation to changing   circumstances becomes
difficult. The key ingredients of a good training policy   are
enunciated here. LDC experiences are examined against this framework.

    1. <u>Objectives and Scope of Training</u>: One of the responsibi-
lities of a government is to publicly declare the objectives and scope
of public service training and the importance it attaches to this
function so that government's expectations are clear to both the employees
to be trained as well as those who perform training tasks. It is for
the government to relate its objectives for training to the national
goals and environment of the country. Though specific objectives of
    training might vary, most governments expect training to lead to
improved and more efficient public service through the development of
appropriate skills, knowledge, and abilities in their personnel. The
boundaries of training may also be drawn through a policy directive.
For example, a government may assign considerable importance to in-
service training and much less to pre-entry training. It may support
in-service training through its own institutions and assign only a
limited role to self-development of personnel through non-governmental
institutions.

    2. <u>Assessment of Training Needs</u>: An important function of
policy is to offer guidelines on the systematic assessment of training
needs and assignment of responsibility for this task among relevant
agencies so that orderly planning of training activities is

facilitated. Identification of training needs is essential at three
levels: (a) national, (b) institutional, and (c) individual training
programmes. A broad assessment of training needs from a national pers-
pective must be undertaken periodically so that training institutions
can be assigned appropriate training tasks and made to adapt to the
changing requirements of the nation. A national assessment must take
into account both the maintenance and development needs of the govern-
ment. The strategies and priorities of development programmes, train-
ing needs perceived by the different government agencies, and diagnosis
of prevailing administrative inadequacies are among the sources of
inputs for such a national exercise. Given the nature of this assess-
ment, the central agency concerned with training or another appropriate
national body should be assigned the responsibility for this task.

Assessment of training needs at the institutional programme
level must be undertaken within the framework of priorities generated
by the national exercise. Once each training institution is assigned
an area of training responsibility, a more detailed exercise in needs
identification must be undertaken by its professional staff. A
variety of methodologies and techniques of analysis of needs are
available from which institutions must choose an appropriate mix.
Among these methods are contextual analysis which relates needs to the
gaps in specific administrative deficiencies, consultation with client
organizations, feedback from former trainees, systematic field surveys
of training needs, experimental programme as a learning device, and

the critical incident technique. The choice of methods clearly cannot be done through a policy directive. Policy however, must identify the key agencies/institutions most appropriate to perform this important function and assign specific roles and responsibilities so that an integrated view of training needs emerges.

3. Training Plans, Strategies & Priorities: In light of the results of the needs assessment exercise, a policy decision must be taken on the overall training plan for the government, its underlying strategy and priorities in terms of the tasks to be accomplished. Training needs generally exceed the resources available so that it becomes imperative to decide what will and will not go into a plan. This decision implies the choice of a mix of training programmes that best meets the national needs. This is a strategic decision which must be influenced by what resources - human, financial, and organizational - are available in the short run and the long run. Policy guidelines indicating government's priorities and resources are essential to assist institutions in making their choice. Policy decisions on annual-term and long-term training plans must be based on an iterative process of interaction between individual institutions, and the central policy and c coordinating agencies. Here again, while no policy can lay down the content of a training plan, the roles and responsibilities of different agencies in the task and the criteria and processes they must adopt are matters for policy decision. Policy guidelines for financing different types of training, for example, will indicate both to training agencies and public servants the degree of financial support they can expect for training.

4. <u>Monitoring and Evaluation of Training</u>: In most LDCs, training institutions are established and training activities are initiated, but governments do not perform their rightful role in monitoring and evaluating training. Trainers are so involved in the design of curricula and the mechanics of training that institutionalization of evaluation remains a weak area. There are both quantitative and qualitative dimensions to evaluation. First of all, when resources are allocated to approved training programmes, mechanisms must be established for the periodic monitoring of the inputs and outputs (however imperfect) of these activities. They need to be aggregated at the national level and their trends and performance evaluated. Second, qualitative evaluation of individual training programmes and institutions must be encouraged. This is a more complex task and requires the creation of institutional review mechanisms the working of which are monitored by a central agency. There are several methods of evaluation and different levels at which evaluation must be done. From a national point of view, the most important concern is the impact of training on organizational performance. Policy guidelines must specify (a) the criteria and periodicity of monitoring and evaluation, and (b) the roles and responsibilities of different agencies and institutions in this task. Policy reviews of a continuous nature can be attempted only when the monitoring function is strong.

5. 'Career Development Linkages to Training: An important reason for the neglect of the evaluative function in training is the absence of suitable linkages between the broader personnel policies of government and training. The remedy lies in integrating training policy with the relevant aspects of the personnel policies of the government. The key areas for this purpose are career development planning and promotion. As pointed out in Chapter I, training effectiveness is significantly influenced by whether the career development and promotion prospects of public servants are affected by training. If training contributes to their career progress and their training performance is a formal input to their evaluation, their motivation to use training will be strengthened. Policy guidelines specifying the links between these elements are the most effective means to inform public servants on how their career progress will be influenced by training. Relating training to different stages in a person's career, feeding inputs from training into his performance evaluation, and taking training into account in promotion decisions are aspects on which guidelines must be established. The administrative mechanisms for coordinating the implementation of these guidelines must also be stated in the policy.

A comprehensive training policy will contain suitable guidelines on the different dimensions relevant to training discussed above. Operational decisions on training must be taken within the framework of these guidelines. However, since a country's development needs and tasks change over time, there should also be a provision in the policy

for its periodic review and redesign whenever it becomes necessary. A good training policy is dynamic in nature and will, therefore, specify the mechanisms for the review process.

Progress towards training policies in LDCs

A quick survey of the available literature shows that only a small number of LDCs have formally adopted training policies by law or by executive order. In Latin America some countries have passed civil service laws which make references to training, but most do not have any declared training policy.[1] In Africa, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa has mounted a major effort to have governments adopt formal manpower and training policies. No country in the region has, however, passed any legislation or executive orders on its public service training policy in a comprehensive manner. At a recent meeting of the ministers concerned with human resource planning in 23 African countries, a strong consensus emerged on the need to formulate national training policies.[2]

> "Governments should demonstrate their commitment to the
> importance of training by installing definitive training
> policies which would facilitate a more planned and integrated
> approach to human resources planning, development and utiliza-
> tion .... Given the urgency and importance of human resources
> development, governments were urged to enforce political
> commitment by installing training policies and backing them
> with legislative enactments. Governments should establish
> some system for coordinating, directing, monitoring and eva-
> luating the national effort in accordance with nattional
> policy, plans, and programmes."

One African country which has recently attempted a formal exercise to formulate a training policy for the public service is Zimbabwe. The large scale influx of new recruits into the public service after independence, the need to augment the supply of trained manpower to assist in the reconstruction and development of a war-torn economy, and constraints on resources were the major factors which convinced the political leadership to give priority to the formulation of an integrated training policy for the public service. Though the Government of Zimbabwe has gone ahead with the expansion of training facilities in pursuance of some of its policy decisions, the pace of progress has been slow due to manpower limitations. Other countries, such as Kenya and Nigeria, have had Committees of Inquiry whose reports have led to policy decisions on some aspects of training. These decisions, however, do not constitute a comprehensive statement of training policy. In Asia, a recent survey has i highlighted only three countries (Pakistan, Malaysia, and Philippines) as having publicly declared training policies.[3] The Administrative Reforms Commission of India had made comprehensive recommendations on training in 1969, but only a partial adoption of the proposed training policy followed.[4] In the vast majority of LDCs, formal statements of training policy probably do not exist. Guidelines on training, generally seems to have evolved over time, and policy decisions, if any, have been taken only on some aspects of policy. One likely consequence of this approach is that ad hoc decisions tend to prevail and long-term

planning that is essential in human resources development gets low priority.

The adoption of policies does not necessarily lead to their implementation. In Nigeria, a training policy was declared by the Government in 1969, but no action was taken on it for two years.[5] In spite of a policy statement, implementation was reported to be weak in Pakistan; in Malaysia, on the other hand, the training policy is reported to have been more effectively implemented. As in other areas of policy, in training too, successful implementation requires strong and continued political and bureaucratic support. In Malaysia, there was a high degree of commitment and support to the proposals of the new training policy at the levels of both political and bureau-cratic leadership. In contrast, in Pakistan, the degree of support was not strong and stable. According to a review of the Pakistan experience:

> "The network of training institutions proposed in the
> training policy were duly established, but they were
> not provided with financial and personnel support for
> effective functioning. The stipulation linking train-
> ing with promotion remained only a pious hope.[6]

In Pakistan, the frequent changes in the political leadership of the country and the demoralization suffered by the bureaucracy during this period are reported to be among the reasons why the implementation of training policy did not lead to the desired results.

A close integration of public service training with broader personnel policies (such as on promotion, for example) does not exist in many countries. The survey of the four Asian countries referred to

earlier shows that only Malaysia has been able to report some progress
in this respect. In some categories and levels, training is a pre-
condition for crossing the efficiency bar which in turn is a condition
for eligibility for further promotion.[7] The Malaysian policy has also
encouraged mid-level post-graduate training of officers towards specia-
lization in the service by providing funds for this scheme and support
to proper job assignment upon completion and training. Similar develop-
ments have been reported in this area in Guyana and Jamaica.[8]

A recent Commonwealth Secretariat conference of representatives
of eight LDCs unanimously agreed that the absence of policies linking
training to career development is a major barrier to the effectiveness
of public enterprise training in their countries.[9] Clearly, the inte-
gration of training with personnel policies is the hardest to achieve;
this alone could reinforce and fully utilize the potential of training
in improving the quality and performance of public servants. In this
regard, the gap between the military and civilian public service
experiences in LDCs continues to be substantially wide.

Even governments which have adopted formal training policies
have reported the assessment of training needs and evaluation of training
as weak areas. A review of the Philippine experience shows that training
needs are determined by institutions on an impressionistic basis.[10]
Operating managers generally leave this task to the training staff who
tend to focus on what training courses could be offered rather than
what the employees need. Experience in India also confirms this tendency

on the part of training institutions.[11]   Quite often, those responsible for
training fail to undertake systematic surveys of needs over reasonable
periods of time with the result the training curricula become obsolete
or irrelevant to the changing needs of the clientele. The lack of
involvement of ministries and other line agencies in this exercise makes
it even more difficult to get a realistic assessment of training needs.

On the other hand, when a systematic assessment of needs is
attempted, it does contribute significantly to the improvement of
training programmes. In India, an analysis of the development plan
needs initiated by the Planning Commission in consultation with the
Training Division of the Department of Personnel led to the identifi-
cation of a set of new training needs in project appraisal, implementation
and monitoring. New training programmes were designed to meet these
needs and separate funds were provided under the development plan to
organize new training programmes by involving a wider network of ins-
titutions.[12]   In Malaysia, the system of requiring departments to
submit annual training bids to the central Training and Career Develop-
ment Division has been found to be a good way of ascertaining depart-
mental training needs.[13]

In some cases, it is not the lack of interest or the failure
to assign the responsibility for assessment properly, but the use of
inappropriate methods which leads to a wrong assessment of training
needs. In 1974, CAFRAD, the African Regional Center in Morocco had
developed a model curriculum for rural development training on the

assumption that a standard training design would meet the needs of all countries in the region.[14] CAFRAD decided to test this design in two member countries, Ghana and Zambia. In Zambia, advantage was taken of a meeting of 25 rural project managers to explore their training needs based on the current problems .faced by them. The "critical incident" technique which was used in this survey elicited information from the respondents on the incidents in their experience that were "critical" in rendering their performance effective or ineffective. The major findings of this survey was that the training requirements of rural managers in Zambia included several topics which were not covered by the original curriculum. The total number of incidents involving the latter constituted less than 30 per cent of the number of incidents reported in response to the critical incident survey. Thus the CAFRAD curriculum had missed most of the rural managers' real needs. As a result of this finding, CAFRAD devised a new curriculum, tested it in Kenya, and used it for its future training courses in Africa.

No training policy can possibly offer guidelines on the metho-dologies to be used in assessing training needs under diverse conditions. Nevertheless the initiation of such a policy would strengthen the capacity of training institutions to perform this task adequately. In most LDCs this capacity is weak and policies have not been designed or used to remedy this lacuna.

Similarly, there is no evidence that countries that have declared training policies have necessarily been able to evaluate the impact of their training activities more systematically than others. The study of the four Asian countries, referred to earlier, confirms that evaluation seldom goes beyond a questionnaire survey of trainees at the conclusion of their training.[15] Follow-up of the trainees to assess the impact of training they underwent on their job performance, and the broader evaluation of the impact of a set of training activities on the performance of the participant organizations have indeed been rare. The ECA Report on Africa referred to above also has highlighted the lack of systematic evaluation as a major gap.[16] Apart from methodological problems in evaluation and the limits on policy capabilities for evaluation in LDCs due to manpower and financial constraints, a basic problem lies in the fact that the performance evaluation process within governments does not typically seek inputs on training. A major incentive for the systematic evaluation of training and its impact is thus absent in the larger governmental system.

Broad based administrative reform measures preceded the strong interest in training policy found in the four Asian countries (India, Malaysia, Pakistan, and the Philippines). The same has been the experience in other countries such as Brazil, Iran, Lebanon, Nigeria, Senegal and Zimbabwe.[17] Another recent trend has been to relate training directly to ongoing improvement measures accomplished in the context of broader organization and management studies.

Guyana, Jamaica and Kenya are examples of countries following such an approach.[18] In general, a good strategy seems to be to integrate training policy into a broader set of reforms so that it gets reinforced by supportive changes from other parts of the larger system.

Training Policies for Public Enterprises

The literature on training policy related to public enterprises (PEs) is even more limited than that on LDC governments; this is partly due to the fact that among many LDCs, public enterprises are a recent phenomenon, the problems of which are only just beginning to attract public attention. A comparison of public enterprises by the Commonwealth Secretariat and the Asian and Pacific Development Administration Centre (APDAC, UN) highlighted problems that surprisingly were similar to our earlier account of the training policy problems of LDC governments in general. The survey by the Commonwealth Secretariat covered Bangladesh, India, Jamaica, Malaysia, Mauritius, Nigeria, Sri Lanka and Tanzania[19] whereas the APDAC study covered India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippines and Thailand.[20] The major weaknesses in training policy identified by both surveys were:

1. Lack of proper identification of training needs and strong tendency to follow the traditional civil service type syllabi and methods.

2. Absence of a strong and coordinated training policy for public enterprises and laxity in integrating training programmes of different types leading to the inefficient use of resources.

3. Weak personnel policy and failure to link training to the career development of individual managers.

4. General inadequacy of training programmes in terms of meeting expanding needs, inappropriate content and teaching materials.

5. Failure to treat investment in training as a long-term goal and reluctance of government or top management of enterprises to allocate adequate funds for training.

6. Lack of, or ad hoc, evaluation measures to assess the impact and relevance of training both at the enterprise and training institutional levels.

The recommendations of the survey by the Commonwealth Secretariat, however, did not deal with all the policy problems mentioned above. They focussed on (a) the selection of the target groups which should receive training and the broad strategies to be adopted in a planning appropriate programmes; (b) identification of the major subject areas relevant to public enterprise management; (c) specification of the design of training activities in the identified areas (in-house versus external training, duration of training, and so forth); and (d) financial support and commitment to training at the policy-making level. 21

There are three areas of public-enterprise training policy which need special attention. First, at the policy-making level, a distinction should be made between the commonalities shared by all public enterprises in a country and the special needs of individual enterprise in respect

of training. Different strategies need to be evolved to deal with the training requirements arising from this differentiation. Second, even though the distinction outlined in the preceding sentence is valid, there is a case for a central initiative in assessing the total training needs of all public enterprises in a country. Because public enterprises tend to get attached to different ministries, their training needs are seldom viewed and assessed from the standpoint of economizing on the use of resources (such as jointly organizing training). Third, in view of the large number of public enterprises as well as their autonomy, it is important to establish a policy for the monitoring and evaluation of training activities. Policy guidelines in this area should assist governments to oversee their performance in human resource development.

Notes:

1. Based on interviews with UN advisors dealing with Latin American countries.

2. Economic Commission for Africa, Report of the Conference of Ministers' Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization (Addis Ababa, October, 1981, p.47)

3. As reported in Raksasatya and Seidentopf (eds), Training in the Civil Service, vol. 4. (Kuala Lumpur : APDAC, 1980)

4. Ibid, See H.M. Mathur, "Training of Civil Servants in India", p.24-30.

5. O. Adamolakun, "Strategies for Institutionalizing Public Management Education : The Nigerian Experience", in Stifel, et.al., Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries (New York : The Rockefeller Foundation, 1977)

6. I.A. Khan, "Training of Public Servants in Pakistan", in Raksasatya and Seindentopf. op.cit. p.201.

7. F. Ismail, "Training of ₋ivil Servants in Malaysia", in Raksasatya and Seindentopf, op.cit. pp.159-161.

8. UN, Survey of Changes and Trends in Public Administration and Finance for Development, 1975-77. (New York 1978), p.33.

9. Commonwealth Secretariat, National Policies and Programmes for Public Enterprises Management Training (London, 1979)

10. P.A. Segovia, "Training of Civil Servants in the Philippines" in Ratsataya & Seidentopf, op.cit. p.297

11. H.M. Mathur, "Training of Civil Servants in India", op.cit. p.68.

12. Ibid, p.63

13. Ibid, F. Ismail, "Training of Public Servants in Malaysia", op.cit. p.144.

14. This account is based on J. Montgomery, "The Great Training Robbery", (mimeo)

15. Raksasatya and Seidentopf, op.cit.

16. Economic Commission for Africa, op.cit. p.47

17. UN, Survey of Changes and Trends in Public Administration, op.cit. p.33-38; Zimbabwe's experience is based on the author's personal knowledge.

18. Ibid

19. Commonwealth Secretariat, _op.cit._

20. G. Iglesius, et.al. (eds), _Training Public Enterprise Managers_ (APDAC, 1980)

21. Commonwealth Secretariat, _op.cit._ pp.62-65

Chapter IV

TRAINING INSTITUTIONS : THEIR STRUCTURE AND

PROGRAMMES

The network of public administration and management training

(PAM) institutions from 91 developing countries listed in the ILO

Directory can be divided into four main categories:[1] (1) Government-

owned and government-managed institutions primarily engaged in non-

degree training programmes; (2) autonomous institutions engaged in

PMT; (3) university related institutions offering educational and

training (leading to a degree or equivalent) programmes; and (4)

management institutes or schools set up to provide training in et

enterprise management, but which have diversified into PMT. Though

the distinction among these categories is useful it tends to get

blurred in some cases as institutions operate in several areas

simultaneously. Thus, in recent years, the public administration

institutes in Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand have diversified to

become national institutes for both public administration and manage-

ment. Nevertheless, it is useful to divide the institutions into

four categories and by geographical region in order to understand the

structure of the network. Table 4.1 presents the results of this

analysis for 236 institutions in 91 LDCs.

Table 4.1

Institutions by Category & Region

	Asia	Africa	Latin America	Total
University departments or schools of administration	27	20	38	85 (35.5)
Autonomous institutes of administration	11	12	13	36 (15.0)
Government institutions of training	39	44	22	105 (45.0)
Management institutions	5	2	3	10 (45)
Total	82 (34.0)	78 (33.0)	76 (32.0)	236 (100.0)

Note: The figures in parentheses denote percentages.

The numerical distribution of institutions does not, of course, truly reflect the magnitude or impact of their operations. University departments of administration are generally small in most LDCs, and are engaged in undergraduate and graduate teaching, for the most part. Their annual output of graduates, therefore, tends to be small compared to the throughput of government training centers that offer several short-term programmes. A university department or a school of public administration typically has an annual intake of 50 students. A civil service academy, on the other hand, may admit a much larger number for training each year. For example, the Indian National Academy of Administration annually trains 275 probationers in its year long professional course. If the trainees in its short-term programmes are added, the total number trained at this Academy will exceed 1300.[2]

An analysis of Table 4.1 shows that PMT institutions are about evenly distributed in numbers among the three developing regions of the world. But the number is certainly fewer per country in Africa than in Asia and Latin America. This is not surprising given that independence was won by most African countries in more recent years and that their size and population are generally smaller than those of some countries in other regions. The table also shows the overall dominance of government owned institutions (45 per cent) followed by university related institutions (35.5 per cent). In fact, in Latin America, university related institutions form the single largest group. Autonomous institutes have the third place (15 per cent) in all regions and management institutes constitute the smallest category (4.5%).

Private consulting firms also play a growing role in the network of PMT institutions. Agencies such as the World Bank and USAID have provided training assistance to a wide variety of projects in LDCs through foreign consultants. The Project related training (PRT) component in The World Bank's project and programme loans has been an important instrument in this process. However, the practice of using short-term consultants does not necessarily lead to the institutionalization of the training activity within the country. But if local PMT institutions and experts are involved, there is a greater probability that indigenous training capacity will be strengthened over time.

Institutional Categories : Distinctive Features

The four PMI segments listed in Table 4.1 may be further
subdivided into smaller groups with distinctive features of their own.
For example, government owned training institutions in most LDCs
influenced by British or U.S. training models have civil service training
academies or institutes whereas in Francophone Africa the Ecole
Nationale d'Administration (ENA) is the dominant training institution.
Autonomous institutions, include Institutes of Public Administration
as well as Administrative Staff Colleges. Along with full fledged
management institutes, the new sectoral management institutes and centers
must also be considered. In all, seven categories of PMT institutions
have thus been identified even though their numerical distribution is not
fully known. Table 4.2 summarizes the types of training, target groups,
duration of training, and the types of professional staff characteristic
of these categories. Their main features are discussed further in the
remainder of this section.

Table 4.2

A TYPOLOGY OF PMT INSTITUTIONS

Category	Types of training	Target groups	Duration of training	Types of professional staff
1. Civil Service Training Academy (Government owned and managed)	PET, IST (non-degree) classroom work and field attachments.	New recruits to public service - middle and senior level personnel of ministries/depart-ments.	PET - 3-24 months IST - 1-12 weeks short seminars/ workshops	Experienced civil servants on secon-dment and academic trainers.
2. Ecola Nationale D'Administration (Francophone)	PET (prior to recruit-ment)classroom work and field attachments.	Pre-entry candidates mostly for the public service	1-3 years	Experienced civil servants and academic specia-lists.
3. University School Department of Public Admini-stration.	Mostly PET (degree/ diploma programmes) part-time IST.	Students-middle level administrators	1-2 years	Permanent academic faculty and part-time visiting faculty from public service.
4. Autonomous institutions of Public Administration.	Mostly IST, some PET classrooms work and some field projects (sometimes leading to degree)	Middle level personnel in government - public enterprise managers.	1 - 9 months short programmes/ seminars.	Permanent academic faculty and visiting practi-tiqners.
5. Administra-tive Staff College.	IST Classroom work/syndi-cates	Senior and middle level personnel in government public and private enterprise managers.	1 - 12 weeks short seminars for top levels	Permanent faculty with academic & practical experi-ence and some visiting faculty.

Table 4.2 (cont'd)

Category	Types of training	Target groups	Duration of training	Types of professional staff
6. Management Training Institute.	PET, IST, PRT classroom work and field projects/attachments (leading to degree/diploma in PET)	Young people interested in private and public enterprises - middle and senior level personnel from government and industry programme/project personnel	1 - 2 years for PET; 1 - 12 weeks for IST; Short seminars for top level.	Permanent faculty with academic and practical experience and visiting faculty.
7. Sectoral Training Institute/Center	IST, PRT (PET rarely) classroom work and field projects	Middle level and technical personnel programme/project personnel.	1 - 9 months; 1 - 2 years (occasionally)	Academic specialists & practising sectoral administrators.

1. <u>Civil Service Academy</u> (CSA)

This type of institution is heavily engaged in :_ induction
training, long-term pre-entry training for new recruits into the major
administrative cadres of government, and in-service training for mostly
middle level personnel.[3]   Its programmes cover general and functional
administration.   The foundation course for new recruits will have a
strong general orientation (study of the national environment, economics,
law, planning etc.) whereas functional courses in financial management
or project management for middle-level personnel will have a more
specialist focus.   If the institute is meant for a single ministry,
the   technical or specialist orientation in training will be even
stronger.

2. <u>Ecole Nationale D' Administration</u> (ENA)[4]

The typical ENA programme is of the long-term pre-entry
training type.   Its training has a generalist orientation with
emphasis on several subjects such as administrative theories, politics
and economics, personnel management, development planning, financial
management and international relations.   The ENA of Ivory Coast
follows this approach though its orientation is regarded as somewhat
more theoretical and divorced from the realities of the local environ-
ment.   ENA is supervized by the Civil Service Ministry and in some
cases offers also short-term training programmes of a specialized
type.   ENAs in the Gabon and Niger offer short term programmes.

3. University Departments of Administration (UDA)

The primary task of UDA is preparing young graduates for careers in government through pre-entry training. A degree or diploma is awarded to successful graduates. Courses cover both general and functional administration areas. The curricula of most UDAs have been heavily influenced by the U.S. public administration curricula which were exported to LDCs in the 1950s and 1960s. Some UDAs are also active in inservice training, especially by offering part-time courses for administrators. The Philippine College of Public Administration, for example, is engaged in both pre-entry and in-service training. Where governments encourage self development as part of the training policy, UDAs may offer specialized courses (accounting, personnel management, and so forth) for practising administrators and public enterprise personnel on a part-time basis.

4. Autonomous Institutes of Public Administration (AIPA)

Generally, an AIPA will be larger than a university department of administration but smaller in size than most civil service academies. In-service training is the primary task of an AIPA, though some do offer pre-entry training of a degree or diploma type. For example, the Indian Institute of Public Administration is engaged only in in-service training whereas the Saudi Arabian Institute of Public Administration offer pre-entry training as well.[5] Their curricula are very similar to those of UDAs, except that in in-service training, AIPAs have moved into more specialized areas (such as project planning, appraisal and management, and performance budgeting) and adapted new

curricula to suit their needs. To the extent AIPAs are engaged in the training of public enterprise personnel, their curricula have been influenced by enterprise management concepts and tools and frameworks of analysis.

5. Administrative Staff College (ASC)

The ASC is designed as a hybrid institution in most LDCs patterned along the lines of the one in Henley in the U.K. It is exclusively engaged in training senior managers in the service of both public and private sectors. The ASC of India, the East African Staff College (now ESAMI) and the Philippine Executive Academy have followed this model. The Administrative Staff College in Nigeria which has been funded fully by the Government is engaged chiefly in the training of public sector personnel. The curricula of ASCs draw upon both public administration and management and they are known for their extensive use of the "syndicate method" of teaching. Joint programmes on management and policy problems for both public and private sector senior managers are seen as a useful forum for mutual interaction and learning, apart from the substantive acquisition of knowledge and skills.

6. Management Training Institute (MTI)

MTIs have in recent years engaged in training for both public and private enterprises through pre-entry and in-service training. Courses on the contextual problems of public enterprises have been added to their curricula to make training more relevant to these enterprises. Recruitment of graduates of MTIs by public undertakings is now common m in many LDCs. A more recent development is

the engagement of some MTIs in in-service training work for the public

service: the Indian Institute of Management in Ahmedabad and the Central

America Institute of Business Administration in Nicaragua both have

offered this form of training to middle and senior level personnel in

government. In-service training covers both general administration

and management topics based on field research and consultancy experience.

MTIs have also participated in project related training at the invita-

tion of donor agencies and national governments; this follows frequently

from their research and consulting work.[6]

7. Sector Training Institute (STI)

In recent years a number of sectoral training institutions

have been established in LDCs for such sectors as agriculture, rural

development and health. There are no reliable estimates of such

institutes even though they are relevant because in their technology-

oriented PMT is an important component. Thus, the National Institute

of Rural Development and the new Institute of Rural Management in India,

the Nigerian Institute of Agricultural and Rural Management Training,

the Managua Agricultural Management Centre in Swaziland, and the

Agricultural Management Training Institute in Bangladesh are engaged in

PAMT specifically for the agricultural and rural sector. Their main

engagement is in in-service training; their courses emphasize agricul-

tural project management and operations management. Some of their

work arises from project-related training supported by donors.

Some of the existing general management institutes also

cater to the training needs of the agricultural sector. For example,

there is a Centre for Management in Agriculture at the Indian Institute of Management in Ahmedabad. A Rural Development Group at the Asian Institute of Management in Manila offers training and consulting in agricultural management. Such new development in PAMT deserves to be noted, though it is not possible to offer a regionwise break-up of the new institutions.

There are also regional and intergovernmental institutions, of which three have been established under UN auspices. These are the Asian and Pacific Development Administration Centre (APDAC) in Kuala Lumpur, the African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development (CAFRAD) in Tangiers, and the Latin American Centre for Development Administration (CLAD) in Caracas.[7] At the regional and sub-regional level, there are a number of other training-cum-research centers which have been established as inter-governmental institutions with or without external donor assistance. Thus the East and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI) in Tanzania, the Pan African Institute (PAID) with four centers in different parts of Africa, the Central Americal Institute for Public Administration (ICAP) in Costa Rica, and the Carribean Centre for Development Administration (CARICAD) in Barbados, are examples of the latter type. Both types are engaged in PAMT activities though the latter perhaps play a more active role in training the personnel of the participating governments. In addition to training of public servants, they organize training programmes for trainers, seminars and workshops on training related issues, and

disseminate reports and other publications on training. The Economic

Development Institute of the World Bank, through its training programmes

at the regional level, is also collaborating and strengthening national

and regional PMT institutions. In the segment of institutions

discussed above, these institutions are not included since the nature

and scope of their activities are different from those of the seven

categories presented in Table 4.2.

Curricula and Methodologies

In the preceding section, we merely referred to the types

and scope of training in different categories of PMT institutions;

this section will illustrate their curricula and methodologies. The

examples are drawn from an in-service training programme for middle

level administrators, a pre-entry programme for sectoral training, and

a proposed programme for public enterprise managers. These are by no

means representative of all training programmes, but are suggestive of

the range of curricula and methods in vogue.

1. JET-STREAM (Philippines)[8]

The Junior Executive Training - Supervisory Training for

Effective Administrative Management (JET-STREAM) was started in 1972

by the Government of the Philippines to enhance the effectiveness of

middle managers in their thirties who are in important positions in

the bureaucracy by instilling in them a sense of professionalism,

discipline and commitment to development tasks. It was conducted in

two stages, a conceptual part called JET, and a practical workshop

after the JET graduates were back on the job for 6 months. JET was

conducted on saturday afternoons (25 half days). In 1977, after nearly 20,000 persons were trained, this programme was converted into a single three week live-in programme. It makes extensive use of experiential methods of teaching by making classroom learning applicable to work situations.

The curriculum of the programme aims to provide participants a working knowledge of effective management, supervision, and administration within the Philippine environment. The _first_ component of the curriculum provides a perspective on the issues and problems of national development, the Philippine cultural heritage and values, rural-urban dynamics, and the nation's role in international affairs. The _second_ component is designed to teach supervisory role and functions, managerial functions of planning, programming and organizing work, and team management. Managerial tools for planning and control, information systems, budgetary processes and decision making in relation to all these aspects are covered in this segment. The _third_ module focuses on human behaviour in organization. Personnel policies, evaluation, incentives and motivation, grievances and sanctions are among the subjects covered in this part.

The resource persons for this programme are drawn from the government, academia, and business. It makes extensive use of cases, role playing, exercises and films. It entails field visits and weekly examinations. High performers are considered for entry into the higher career executive service. The programme is organized by the Civil Service Academy.

A Programme for Rural Development Managers (India)[9]

The Institute of Rural Management at Anand (IRMA) in India started a new two-year management programme in 1979 for young graduates in their early twenties. Since IRMA was sponsored by the National Dairy Development Board of India, this activity was envisaged as a PET programme to meet the needs of the cooperative segment of the dairy and agriculture sector of the economy. The programme is unique in that 40% of the 80 weeks of study is devoted to field work by students in villages as well as producers' cooperative societies in different parts of the country.

The programme curriculum consists of three parts : (1) a <u>class study</u> segment with four ten-week terms of intensive, case based training in managerial decision making in the context of different functional areas such as production, marketing, finance and personnel; (2) a <u>field study</u> segment to sensitize students to rural realities with two spells of five weeks each during which students stay in groups of 4-6, and study the village structure and possible approaches to social change; and (3) a <u>management traineeship</u> segment with two spells of 10-12 weeks each during which students study under managers of producer cooperatives in functional areas of their choice. Faculty members work together with students in all three components, and also teach additional courses on the rural environment and problems in managing farmers' organizations.

The first batch of 47 graduates received their diplomas and left IRMA in 1980 and are working in 10 different farmer organizations or cooperatives. Early reports indicate that their acceptability in the rural organizations where they have been placed is quite positive. IRMA is probably the first among sectoral institutions in agriculture to launch a PET programme successfully.

3. A curriculum for Public Enterprise General Management (PEGM)

At the initiative of the Common Secretariat, a working group which included six experts from Asian and African countries met in Mauritius to recommend suitable curricula for training in public enterprises.[10] The group identified the eleven areas for the developme of curricula; these included:

1. Macro perspectives of public enterprises.

2. Public enterprise system

3. Organizational structures, institutional patterns and management processes

4. Corporate planning

5. Personnel management

6. Management information and control systems

7. Financing and financial management

8. Performance evaluation

9. Marketing

10. Technological choice

11. Materials management

Each of these areas was further spelt out in detail by the group. It was pointed out that the depth of treatment of these subjects will vary depending upon the target group and its background. The group also recognized that the curriculum will need to be adapted to the specific conditions obtaining in the country. However, no recommendations were offered on the teaching methods, sequencing of subjects and their integration. As may be seen from the topics listed above, except for the first two, all others relate to the functions which normally form part of any standard management training, curriculum. The real question is how to tailor them to the needs of public enterprise and what conceptual knowledge, tools, and practical applications and experience are available to make a new curriculum that is both challenging and relevant.

Training Methodologies

in

The role of training/the ○ mix of activities of the different categories of institutions reviewed in this chapter has varied widely. Government institutions are almost exclusively engaged in training; this does not mean that classroom teaching is their sole activity. In many LDCs, pre-entry training has a field work component. But, by and large, the focus is on training individuals in classrooms, and not on research, consultancy, and related tasks except in Francophone Africa, where a strong tradition of combining classroom learning with practical experience at work exists.[11]

Autonomous and university-related institutes and
departments of administration also devote most of their time and
resources to training and education programmes. Their charter in most
cases requires them to engage in research and consultancy. In practice,
however, since most of their resources are devoted to classroom teaching,
neither research nor consultancy gets much attention. Most of the
training materials and textbooks used by these two categories of
institutions come from foreign sources and lecture is their popular
method of teaching.[12] An analysis of the public administration insti-
tutes in Saudi Arabia and Jordan showed that lectures were the most
popular method and that case study and role playing were the least
used.[13]

The newer types of management training institutes in LDCs have
departed from the classroom-teaching approach to training. While they
do engage in classroom training, increasing attention is devoted to
research and consultancy which feed back into training. The develop-
ment of indigenous training materials through field research is emphasized
by most of these newer institutions and an attempt is made to bring
into the classroom consultancy insights and findings from the field.
It is not that none among the other categories of institutions follows
this approach, but that it has not been their dominant tradition. Among
management institutes, sectoral institutions and consultants involved
in project-related training on behalf of donor agencies, the tendency
to be experiential is more pronounced as they have a stronger

tradition of combining training with field research and consultancy

activities. Their training methodologies, therefore, tend to use

cases, group discussion, action learning, and other participative

methods more often that lectures. A shift towards a similar diver-

sification of training methodologies in the first two categories of

institutions in some LDCs is reported to have occured in recent

years, according to a sample survey undertaken by the Commonwealth

Secretariat.

Notes

1. ILO, Multinational Training Practices and Development (Geneva, 1981)

2. H.M. Mathur, "Training of Civil Servants in India", in Raksasatya
   and Seidentopf (eds), Training in Civil Service.

3. Asian and Pacific Development Center, Country Notes on the Status of
   Training in Government (Kuala Lumpur, 1975)- .The countries covered
   are Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Nepal, Afganistan, Iran,
   and Malaysia.

4. Based on Public Administration Training Institutions in Africa : An
   Inventory (NASPAA & USAID, Washington D.C., 1980)

5. The Indian Institute of Public Administration began with a pre-entry
   graduate programme, but had to abandon it as placement of graduates
   in government posed problems. This institute now is engaged chiefly
   in IST.

6. World Bank, Review of Training in Bank Financed Projects (Washington
   D.C. 1982), Report No. 3834.

7. UN, Changes and Trends in Public Administration and Finance for
   Development, 1975-77 (New York, 1982)

8. Based on P.A. Segovia, "Training of Civil Servants in the Philippines"
   op.cit. pp.283-285.

9. Based on the author's correspondence with IRMA.

10. Commonwealth Secretariat, Training Systems and Curriculum Development
    for Public Enterprise Management (London, 1979)

11. World Bank, op.cit.

12. Ratsastya and Seidentopf, Training in Civil Service.

13. J. Jreisat, "Public Administration and Training : Cases from Jordan
    and Saudi Arabia, Arab Journal of Administration (April 1982)
    p.58.

Chapter V

EVALUATION OF TRAINING

Evaluation is a subject on which a great deal has been written in the literature on training.[1] The million-dollar question that donors and LDC governments frequently ask is whether there are practical ways to measure the impact of training on the performance of the economy. In the case of worker training, it is not difficult to evaluate the impact of training as there are measurable outputs that can be identified and compared with those of employees that have received no training. In the case of PAMT, it is more difficult to identify the relevant outputs and effects of training, since control conditions are not as easy to create as in a factory setting. In the private sector, the response of training to institutional programmes offers a good _market test_ of its effectiveness. If some types of training programmes do not attract an adequate clientele, the under-lying message is loud and clear. In the government sector, however, most training is internally organized so impact cannot be judged through the market test. Similarly, the application of economic cost-benefit techniques to public training activities is rather difficult as earnings differentials of the private market variety have no counterpart in the public sector context.

Nevertheless, PMT institutions seek to influence the behaviour of their public sector clientele with a view to improving the perfor-mance of the administrative systems of government. In evaluating their performance and impact, institutions must ascertain the

degree to which expected behavioural changes have, in fact, occurred and
its influence on the administrative system's level of performance. This
is a difficult exercise for three reasons. First, behavioural changes
and skill development of the clientele may be a small part of the
complex of factors which determine the performance of the administrative
system. Second, the behavioural changes and skills of the clientele
could be rendered less effective by hostile organizational climate in
the larger administrative system. Third, the necessary knowledge and
techniques for evaluation may not exist or be available. A mix of these
factors in varying degrees of intensity prevails in all LDCs. Definitive
impact studies of PAMT are, however, difficult to find, and most studies
reported in the literature are of a qualitative nature.

Focus of evaluation

In view of these difficulties, rigorous studies of the impact
of training on public sector performance have seldom been attempted by
donors   or by LDC governments. The kinds of evaluation studies
typically undertaken by those engaged in training focus on:
(1) individual training programmes; (2) training institutions and
(3) training assistance projects financed by donors. The objectives
of such studies usually determine whether their results are disseminated
to the public. Thus, training programmes are internally evaluated by
institutions in order to feedback results to the faculty as part of a
process of improving future programmes. This explains why evaluation
results of individual training programmes are seldom made public. On

the other hand, the evaluation of institutions, and groups of projects is commonly undertaken by governments or donors. This type of evaluation is in the nature of a post-mortem, the findings of which are sometimes available in the public domain.[2] Unfortunately, unless impact studies of the entire set of training institutions in a country are available, it is difficult to draw any worthwhile conclusions on the effectiveness of training for the country as a whole. The focus of international donors, on the other hand, is on the set of projects with which they are associated. Since these are likely to be distributed over several countries, it is not easy to generate measures of effectiveness for each country out of these studies.

Nevertheless different types of evaluation evidence are reviewed in the following pages. The data and findings have been gathered from three sources. (1) donor agencies which have financed different forms of training assistance and institution building in many LDCs; (2) Western observers/scholars who have attempted an evaluation of   in LDCs; and (3) LDC governments or their spokesmen who have attempted an overview of their training performance and problems. Even though the methodologies adopted by these diverse evaluators are , not fully known, a synthesis of their findings has been attempted to find some interpretation of the lessons to be learnt.

Donor's View of Effectiveness

The Ford Foundation, USAID, the UN, OECD, and the World
Bank have, in recent years, documented their assessment of the impact
of their training assistance to LDCs. Both USAID and the Ford Founda-
tion were heavily involved in technical assistance for public admini-
stration since the 1950s. Their major conclusions on the impact of
their assistance and the effectiveness of the institutions they
financed may be summarized as follows:[3]

(a) Assistance for public administration did not produce the
impact that was expected. The new institutions were able
to cover only a small portion of the administrative cadres
in LDCs. Their contribution to the improvement of
government's administrative capacity fell far below
expectations.

(b) The new institutions were unable to further the cause of
research and consultancy. For some of them that were not
linked to universities, it was hard to earn the prestige
and authority necessary to gain access to government
agencies and top administrators in order to do research
or offer advice.

(c) The limited impact on performance may have been owing
in part to a lack of fit between the model of public
administration being exported from the United States and
the local environment and needs of LDCs.

The summary assessment contained in a Ford Foundation

evaluation report speaks for itself[4]

> The returns from most of our support to public
> administration training have been very limited.
> From an Asian Office we have the report that
> 'University public administration training programs
> lack proper orientation and capability to contribute
> to government management improvements.' And from Latin
> America, ... 'schools of public administration, whether
> lodged within the government or slipped under the
> wings of universities suffer from virtually incurable
> and endemic diseases. ' The number trained are commonly
> too few, the content of the training appears to have
> been too general and lacking in both skills and
> techniques of analysis, and few governments appear to
> have been too general and lacking in both skills and
> techniques of analysis, and few governments appear to
> have given strong support to such training institutions.
> Furthermore, it seems unlikely that institutes of public
> administration can be transformed or rehabilitated by a
> new emphasis on rigorous policy analysis as has been
> occurring in the United States. While they will retain
> some useful training functions, the dismal conclusion
> is that we might well avoid further institutional
> investments and only respond selectively to focussed
> training efforts.

The United Nations Division of Development Administration

(UNDDA) currently has nearly 300 experts in the field assisting different

LDC governments in PAMT. It administers / 3000 overseas training fellow-

ships annually to nationals of LDCs under various schemes of assistance.

Its annual budget for assistance in PMT to LDCs has grown from

$500,000 in 1950 to $12.5 million in 1981. According to UNDDA, demand

for PAMT from LDC governments has been steadily growing although

priorities have shifted from time to time. Thus the decade of the

1950s LDC governments focused on modernization and indigenization of

public service. In the 1960s, development administration attracted

greater attention. It was during this period that regional institutions

and centres were established unc' r U.N. auspices. According to UNDDA,

interest is shifting from middle-level training to senior-level training

in LDCs, especially in Latin America. A recent UN project to

strengthen international collaboration among institutions in this field

testifies to this trend.[5] The demand for in-service training in UN

supported projects continues to be on specialized functions such as

budgeting, personnel, and organization and methods. There has also

been a tendency, of late, to move away from the use of lecture method

to one based more on practical experience.

Despite the expansion of PMT institutions in LDCs,

UNDDA's assessment is that there are several important gaps and

problems.[6] First, availability and quality of trainers continue to be

a major source of concern. Second, the focus of training is still

academic rather than oriented towards employment; the result is that

of PMT institutions have weak links with client organizations. Several

university schools and departments of public administration, in

particular, face this problem. Third, research and consultancy have

not been adequately developed along with PMT. Part of the problem

may be owing to lack of access to data on government related problems

which PMT institutions face. The overall assessment of PMT institu-

tions has been summed up in a recent UN report as follows:[7]

> Training institutions have in many cases also
> functioned in relative isolation from the actual
> problems and needs of the public services and
> this factor explains the diminishing scale of
> influence of some of the institutes and schools
> of administration. These institutions have not
> generally moved as fast as they should to respond
> to the changing demands. They have not been able
> to be of great help to the public services while
> the latter were being transformed from general
> systems to specialized subsystems.

The Development Assistance Committee of the OECD recently completed a comprehensive review of its training assistance focusing mainly on the fellowship schemes. While noting that training assistance has played an important role in developing skilled personnel and upgrading institutions in LDCs, the review also highlighted some of the emerging problems.

1. There is a strong tendency for overseas fellowships to be allocated to the elite – namely those at senior levels in the public service. This may strengthen the capacity of those at top, but does not assist in building up middle and lower levels in the bureaucracy. This is partly a problem of the general educational systems in LDCs which are not effective in preparing junior staff for public service jobs.

2. The neglect of the training component in development projects. It was felt that project-related training should induce donors to work with and strengthen the permanent training structure of the recipient countries.

3. Limited effectiveness of training is in part owing to poor utilization of existing institutions in LDCs. The need is not to multiply the number of institutions, but rather to improve the effectiveness of the existing ones.

The World Bank is relatively new to technical assistance in training in comparison to the donor agencies. Its present involvement in training is dominated by project-related training which has expanded six fold in the past six years. A recent review of the Bank's experience in this area has noted that the effectiveness of its work in training has improved substantially. [9] The findings of this review highlight several areas in which further improvements are needed.

1. The impact of training can be augmented if the Bank adopts a longer term institutional development perspective rather than an exclusive preoccupation with the short-term horizon of project implementation.

2. In several projects, training effectiveness was hampered by the failure to assess training needs in advance. Training results were poor when requirements were considered only during the phase of project implementation.

3. When projects gave low priority to training and the Bank's "supervision missions" ignored training, the effectiveness of training was reduced. In projects where monitoring of training programmes was weak, project-related training was less successful.

4. The Bank's failure to allocate adequate manpower to deal with training has led to the staff neglecting this area. The Bank's long-term commitment to training should be matched by appropriate action to strengthen its staff resources to manage this activity in the field.

Scholarly Assessments

William Siffin sums up four important lessons of the technical assistance experiences in PMT.[10] First, during the 1950s and 1960s, public administration was transferred more readily across national and cultural boundaries, especially the budgetary and financial technologies. In the technological field it was possible to institutionalise arrangements consistent with the values of rationality even when the larger bureaucracy did not subscribe to such values. Second, availability and attractiveness of technologies may have encouraged their misuse because technologies do not include criteria for determining whether or not to use them. Third, efforts to transfer technologies seem to have focused more on maintenance needs than on developmental needs. Fourth, the dominant preoccupation with tools and technologies of administration which were exported to LDCs through education and training led to the neglect of development problems.

The cumulative impact of these factors has been that

Today - after two decades of building institutes
and other arrangements for public administration,
education, training, research, and consultancy -
business schools, industrial engineering schools,
and economic development institutes are preferred
instruments of education and training for managers
and designers of programs and projects in developing
countries. This is unfortunate. These alternative
instruments are unlikely to address the essentials
of the training and education agenda.[11]

Bernard Schaffer, in a study of training institutions in

India, Kenya, Pakistan, Philippines, Turkey and Zambia,   pointed

out that, in general, these institutions performed poorly as catalysts

for administrative reform and innovation. He notes that though

training played a useful role in the indigenization of the public

service in East Africa, the new training institutions failed to forge

effective linkages with their clientele. Training institutions in the

countries he surveyed were "marginal institutions". But he also

recognizes the inherent problems in evaluating their impact.[12]

If training were only about the inculcation of
specific bits of knowledge and skill, then we
could evaluate how far the inculcation had
occurred, for example, by formal examinations.
But we cannot evaluate what the training has
done for changed administrative performance
and what that will mean in the whole situation.
This is the heart of the difficulty. If no
claims for change are being made about admini-
strative training done in institutions in the
new states, then it is difficult for any to see
why they are there or should be there. So we
shall see instance after instance of where just
such claims are therefore made. But when we are
dealing with administrative training which claims
appropriate attitudinal change we come up against
severe evaluation difficulties, particularly when
the administrative training institution itself is
left to do the evaluation. The reformist ideology
of goals and change assists the acceptability of

training institutions and their own official
evaluations. But, at the same time, it makes the
evaluation process political. Those who discuss
evaluation even in simpler situations admit the
difficulties. Few actual practitioners of admini-
strative training in developing societies would
make easy assumptions about the transfers which
flow from administrative training even if other
commentors are more sanguine.

In a more recent evaluation of public management training

in African countries, Schaffer has observed that the existing network

of training institutions is likely to become moribund and irrelevant

unless new modes of training are adopted.[113] He notes that training and

socialization of administrators was preoccupied with permanent, highly

regarded, elite public management cadre. The major problems of African

training in Schaffer's assessment, are: (1) the poor utilization and

low throughput in several institutions and the move towards more

academic training; (2) the increasing inter-generational rivalries which

seem to be aggravated by the hierarchical and generalist trends reinfor-

ced by the training models; (3) the failure of training institutions to

grapple with the real life problems of the client groups (especially

sectoral and decentralized government agencies and programs); and

(4) the lack of innovation in post-entry training, and the virtual

absence of any mid-career remedial training and high-level policy-

related training.

Assessment of Training by LDC Governments

There have been a number of recent country studies in which senior officers or managers concerned with training have attempted a critical review of the national training efforts and their impact and problems. The findings of the reports on Bangladesh, India, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines and Sri Lanka in Asia and Kenya and Nigeria in Africa are presented here;[14] the evidence, however, is partial and not representative of the entire third world.

First, all country reviews confirm that training activities and institutional capacities have expanded significantly in recent years. However, the training facilities at the ministry level and the field level are inadequate when compared with the central training institutions in terms of both quantity and quality. Studies of India, Philippines, and Kenya have made references to this problem.

Second, a major problem area is evaluation of training itself. There is dissatisfaction with the present practice of evaluating training effectiveness solely on the basis of feedback provided by participants at the end of each training programme. The APDAC studies of India, Malaysia, Pakistan and the Philippines have referred to this lack of attention to training evaluation as a major gap, so has the Commonwealth Secretariat survey of training in LDCs. Despite the dissatisfaction, evaluators confess that suitable methodologies for assessing the broader impact of training are simply not available.

Third, the impact of training is certainly weakened by the inability of governments to link training to career planning and promotion policies. Receptivity to training is greatly hampered by a lack of political and bureaucratic support to strengthen such linkages.

Fourth, the effectiveness of training is reduced by the inappropriate manner in which training needs are assessed. In part, this ineffectiveness is a result of the low priority attached to training by government agencies. But an inappropriate assessment of needs tends to compound the problem by generating training programmes which do not meet the real needs of participants. The ECA Report of the Meeting of Ministers and APDAC studies highlight the severity of this problem.

Fifth, there is a serious problem of poor quality in training. Country evaluators confess that a major criticism of public servants is that PMT tends to be academic. A dominance of the lecture method in most training programmes, neglect of field research to produce indigenous training materials, and undue reliance on foreign textbooks, concepts, and approaches have contributed to this repeated indictment of ongoing training activities. A recent IASIA study and Commonwealth Secretariat surveys indicate that these features are found in most LDCs.[15]

Sixth, a critical constraint on the effectiveness of training is attributed to the shortage and low quality of trainers. All countries report this to be a major problem and one which has been aggravated by hiring practices and incentive structures of the institu-

tions. Most institutions either have academics who are innocent of
real world experience and field problems, or practitioners on second-
ment who have only a short-term interest in the training assignment.
The tradition of defense training institutions which attract outstanding
officers to teach and manage training activities seems to be virtually
absent in the civilian training establishment.

In the public service, if training is perceived to be a "low
status activity" , motivation to undergo training or to be posted in a
training institution will understandably be low. If neither good admini-
strators nor good academics find it attractive to work in a training
institution, training quality and effectiveness are bound to suffer.
Sometimes, top administrators who themselves never benefited from any
training are reluctant to support and nurture this activity.

Malaysia is the only country which has reported improvements
in some of these problem areas. Its more systematic training needs
assessment, policies linking career development to training, special
attention to the upgrading of trainers, and attempts to combine research,
consultancy, and training are factors that have led to improved training
effectiveness. Even so, Malaysia's central training institute has been
able to fill only 63 per cent of its approved staff strength.

It is difficult to say whether the results of these country
reviews fit the experience of other Asian, African, and Latin American
countries. The countries reviewed in this paper are certainly among
the pioneers in the third world to develop their institutional capaci-

ties for training. Nevertheless, Schaffer's assessment of public

management training in Africa and some of the findings of donor agencies,

such as the Ford Foundation and the Commonwealth Secretariat, lend some

support to the hypothesis that the pattern of problems and the barriers

to effectiveness listed in the preceding paragraphs in many third world

countries.

The Lessons of Evaluation

The perspective, timing, and orientations of the evaluation

studies reviewed earlier vary a great deal. Some studies have examined

the early experiences of institution building and training in LDCs,

while others have focused on more recent experiences. Donors have based

their judgements on the projects they financed and evaluated their

performance against shorter-term time horizons than the countries are

likely to adopt. Independent scholars have evaluated impact in much

broader terms than managers of training in government; the latter have

confined their attention to the network of institutions for which

they are responsible.

Despite their diversity, one theme that runs through most

is that the impact and effectiveness of training in LDCs have not

matched the institutional capacity that has been created during the

past three decades. LDC governments and their managers of training,

donor agencies, and independent observers are agreed upon the existence

of a wide gap between expectations and achievements, even if they are

not agreed on the answers.

The purpose in reviewing the foregoing studies on the impact of training is not to pronounce a verdict on the record of the donors and LDC governments, rather, it is to highlight the lessons learnt from experience; these are presented below. The first three lessons offer guidelines which are largely within the capacity of training institutions to internalize and apply. The remaining three call for intervention by government in terms of policy decisions and support to institutions.

1. <u>If training needs and training programmes are evaluated skillfully, considerable improvement in the efficiency and effectiveness of training can be achieved.</u>

Malaysia's experience clearly brings this point out. The system of requiring government departments to submit annual training bids to the Central Training and Career Development Division and the establishment of an advisory board for INTAN (the National Institute of Public Administration) were ways of improving training needs assessment. Bringing back participants and their supervisors for evaluation to the Institute a year after completion of training was an improvement on the survey of participants by questionnaire at the conclusion of their training. The World Bank's recent experience with project-related training reaffirms this point: when training needs of projects were assessed in advance and the training component was closely monitored and reviewed, the effectiveness of the training was found to be greater.

2. <u>Increased attention to the problems of client and greater</u> <u>willingness to facilitate learning rather than teaching tend to augment</u> <u>the impact of training.</u>

The basic problem with the earlier U.S. export of public administration training models was not merely that the knowledge and focus were not always appropriate to developing countries but that the training   mode was less adaptable to changing needs and was ill equipped to cope with the problems of practitioners. The experience of American Universities was largely with pre-entry education of the degree type and much less with in-service training. On the other hand, the major need of LDCs was in upgrading the capacity of those at work. The problems and requirements of those at work were clearly different from those of inexperienced youngsters in the classroom. Inadequacies of the imported model in responding to both maintenance and development needs are evident in LDCs. There is no reason to believe that PMT did a better job on the maintenance front than on development. This was in part owing to the inherent limitations of the training modes and methodologies used and the failure to distinguish between teaching and learning. The criticism of the lecture method and the theoretical bias in training repeatedly referred to in country studies highlights this problem.

In contrast, while some of the better management schools in some LDCs also brought in concepts and tools from abroad, they were more effective in training, perhaps, because they paid more attention to their clients and to the use of learning methods more appropriate

to their clients' needs. The focus on the problems of the decisionmaker, the application of concepts and tools to solving problems and the creation of strong links with the real world outside through field research and consultancy and features that seem to have increased the relevance of their training. The OECD's assessment that training should be based more on experience and made less academic reflects this concern. Several institutions in Asia, Africa, and Latin America which have experimented with approaches combining field research, action, and training have reported encouraging results. These experiences are reviewed in a later section.

3. <u>A long-term perspective on the development of training capacity is essential even when planning a short-term development project.</u>

This lesson comes through clearly from the experience of the OECD group and the World Bank. Leaving the training component to the short-term oriented experts who join a project has been found to be an ineffective way of going about institution building, particularly, in countries plagued by severe manpower shortages, as in much of Africa.

4. <u>Design and management of training institutions and the approach to the development and motivation of faculty trainers will have a strong influence on training effectiveness.</u>

Problems of staffing and deficiencies in institutional management are factors which reduce the effectiveness of training institutions. Government controlled training institutions are particularly susceptible to the inhibiting influence of civil service

regulations which are often mindlessly applied. Civil servants who are
appointed for short periods a as trainers and academics whose develop-
ment is ignored over long periods will have little motivation to
perform and innovate. To be effective, these institutions need an
environment that supports innovation, experimentation, and a collegial
atmosphere. The quality and continuity of leaders who manage these
institutions also constitute an essential feature of effectiveness.

4. When high priority is given to training by government
and adequate resources are allocated to strengthen the institutions,
training effectiveness is likely to improve.

In Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria and Philippines, implementation
of some key recommendations of government-appointed committees on
training led to a significant improvement in the training infrastructure
and expansion of training activities. Similarly, raising the status of
trainers and those who manage the institutions will signify the priority
government attaches to this function. Outstanding officers should be
encouraged and even required to serve in a training institution as part
of their career development. Both political and bureaucratic leadership
must first recognize training as an important task. It is not that high-
level policy decisions automatically leads to action. On the other hand,
it is a necessary condition for effectiveness and mobilization of
resources for training.

Among developed countries, both Japan and the United States have enacted legislation, provided financial support, and adopted other policy interventions to promote and sustain training on a long-term basis. In Japan it is reported that nearly 25 per cent of the federal public employees receive some form of training every year and that employees at lower levels receive as much opportunity for training as any other group.[16] In the United States and Japan, governments currently spend nearly one per cent of their total federal salary bills on public service training.[17]

In the private sector, corporations are known to attach high priority to training activities. A recent ILO study shows that large multinational corporations (MNCs) such as Nestles, Siemens, and Unilevers spent 2.6, 4.8, and 5 per cent respectively of their total payroll on employee training.[18] It is significant that these MNCs pay careful attention to the training needs of all levels of employees. It is recognized that without training for all levels, the synergistic effects of this input on productivity cannot be achieved. According to the ILO study, training activities are carefully monitored and evaluated by MNCs.

In contrast, it will be difficult to find systematic data on training in many LDC governments. For example, data on the number of employees trained, number of mandays spent on training, and total expenditure on public service training are seldom reported in country reviews and evaluation studies. The government of Malaysia currently spends 2.75 per cent of its total salary bill on public

service training.[19] The only other available reference to training
expenditures relates to India which according to one report incurred
a total training cost (domestic) equivalent to 0.4 per cent of its
total salary bill for public service training in 1968.[20] Indicators of
the size and relative importance of training budgets, extent of coverage
in terms of personnel, trends in staff resources allocated to training,
and so forth are seldom regarded by most LDC governments as relevant
and helpful in planning and monitoring this important instrument of
human resource development.

    6. Effectiveness of training tends to improve when career
planning and development and other personnel policies are closely inte-
grated with training.

    In the absence of this condition, negative consequences
result for training. Some observers have also stressed the need for
political and bureaucratic commitment in facilitating the integration
between training and personnel policies. Business enterprises, for
instance , are known for paying more systematic attention to this
sensitive linkage. The discipline of the market place, perhaps, puts
greater pressure on enterprises to treat career development needs of
their employees more seriously and use training both as a means of
motivating and equipping them to perform their jobs well. The mili-
tary's tradition of linking career development with training could
also be explained in terms of the profession's strong performance

orientation. The failure of the civilian bureaucracy to show a similar concern for performance orientation is at the heart of the problem in most LDCs. In retrospect, it appears that the over optimistic expectations of donors about the potential effectiveness of training in LDCs in the 1950s were owing partly to an inadequate appreciation of the complexity of this problem in the public sector.

Footnotes

1. We are referring here to the evaluation of all types of training and not merely PMT. Much has been written about the theory and methods of evaluation. But most evaluation studies are internal to the organizations which commission them and are not in the public domain.

2. For example, reports of the committees which evaluated the Kenya Institute Administration, Indian Institute of Public Administration etc. are public do uments.

3. Based on Internal reports made available to us.

4. Sutton, Agenda for Papers for Session IV-2 (Ford Foundation, 1978) mimeo, p.3.

5. UN, Report on the Arusha Working on Curriculum Development, 1982

6. Based on an internal report prepared by the UNDDA for WDR.

7. UN, A Survey of Changes and Trends in Public Administration & Finance 1975-77 (New York, 1978), p.33.

8. DAC, op.cit.

9. OED, Review of Training in Bank-Financed Projects (World Bank, Washington, D.C. 1982)

10. W. Siffin, "Two Decades of Public Administration in Developing Countries," Public Administration Review, January-February, 1976.

11. Ibid

12. B.Schaffer, Administrative Training and Development (Praeger, New York, 1974), p. 54

13. Schaffer, African Public Management and Management Training (Mimeo, 1981)

14. See the following reports : Raksasatya & Scidentopf (eds), Training in the Civil Service vol.4; APDAC, Country Notes on the Status of Training in Government, 1975; Inayatullah, (ed), Management Training for Development : The Asian Experience (ACDA, Kuala Lumpur, 1975); Commonwealth Secretariat, National Policies and Programmes for Public Enterprises Management Training.

15. E. Engelbert, Internation Cooperation for Education and Training in Public Administration/Public Management (IASIA; 1980 mimeo)

16. Government of Japan, Public Administration in Japan (Tokyo,1982)

17. USOPM, Employees Training in the Federal Service (Washington,D.C. 1981) See R. Collins, Training and Education : Trends and Differences," Public Administration Review, November-December, 1973, p.510. The estimate for Japan is based on the auditor's discussion with officials of NPA in Tokyo.

18. ILO, _Multinational Training Practices and Development_ (Geneva,1981).

19. This estimate was prepared specially for the present study   by the Government of Malaysia.

20. Government of India, _Administrative Reforms Commission on Training_ (New Delhi, 1969), p.21.

Chapter VI

DESIGN AND MANAGEMENT OF TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

Inadequacies in the staffing and management of training
institutions have been recognized as a major problem in developing
countries. The inability to attract, motivate, and retain competent
staff; frequent changes in leadership; and a limited capacity to plan,
organize, and control institutional tasks are some of the other
problems. An important lesson of this widely shared experience is that
design and management of PMT institutions in LDCs are as relevant to
their effectiveness as content and quality of their services. In fact,
content and quality of training cannot but be influenced by the strategy
and style of institutional management. In the international survey of
118 PMT institutions, cited earlier, the need to develop and upgrade
faculty has been ranked as the most urgent problem by the vast majority
of the institutions.[1] Schaffer has highlighted the tendency of the
African public management training institutions to become moribund and
weak in their linkages with client groups.[2] A regional study has noted
that institutions that were too narrowly tied down to the existing
power structure failed to become sources of innovation.[3] When public
administration institutes are under substantial government control,
they tend to conform to ministerial directions and avoid experimen-
tation and risks that are so essential to the process of educational
innovation.

Diverse Approaches to Institutional Development

Because training institutions have been established in LDCs under different auspices and influences, the approaches to institution building also vary widely : Three approaches are presented here. First, when a government sets up a training institution and manages it departmentally, the normal tendency is to transfer government's administrative system and practices to the new organization. Thus, recruitment of trainees, distribution of authority, decisionmaking processes, and financial regulations may be based on government's practices which may be quite inappropriate to the institution concerned. Establishment of such practices and systems in the early stages have a long-term impact on the way the institution will be managed.

The second approach is that of an institution spawned by a university; in this case, the operating culture of the university casts a dominant influence on the institution's management. If the university itself is highly bureaucratic and centralized in its management, it is unlikely that the new department will be given any autonomy or allowed to experiment with new ways of planning and organization. The poor performance of some university departments of administration can be attributed to the inadequacies of their approaches to institutional development in their formative years.

Evidence of the third approach is found in the establishment of several autonomous institutions. Whether established under public or private auspices, the institutions show a more sensitive

understanding of the management systems and practices required for their

proper functioning even though, at times, the concept of autonomy has

remained nominal. Much depends also on who the initial sponsors or

collaborators are; the latter may sometimes unwillingly transfer to the

new institutions designs and approaches to management that are basically

irrelevant. This may have happened in some of the early collaborations

in which US schools of public administration designed and developed new

university departments in their own image to impart pre-entry training

whereas the most important local need was for in-service training which

needed a different design and management style.

Similarly when donor agencies collaborate with local insti-

tutions they tend to influence the latter's design and management. A

diversity of approaches may be necessary, but the basic question to ask

is whether the approach selected will contribute to institution

building.   An inappropriate institutional culture can be transferred by

appointing persons from other working cultures with different values.

Thus in some LDCs, appointment in key positions,   or in large numbers

at lower positions, of competent government officials whose experience

is chiefly derived from routine administration in new research and

training institutions or industrial enterprises has created many

problems.[4] A study of public administration training in Jordan and

Saudi Arabia notes   that training institutions which are part of the

University system are inhibited by excessive centralization and an

environment inhospitable to research, free expression, and exchange

of ideas.[5] The same study reports that environments and performance
of the autonomous institutes in these countries are somewhat better.
Examples of this type could be found in all parts of the world.

All PMT institutions in LDCs are not necessarily managed
inefficiently. But the problem is sufficiently serious to warrant
special attention. The ILO has proposed that the process of strategic
planning and management in institutions should be strengthened;[6] this
is not an area in which standard remedies can be prescribed for all. A
good understanding of the institution's goals, environment, constraints,
and resources is an essential prerequisite for the identification and
choice of suitable strategies. One useful device some countries have
adopted is to appoint special committees to look into the problems of
selected institutions and recommend new strategies. The Kenya Govern-
ment's Committee of Review into the Kenya Institute of Administration
(1978-79) and the Indian Government's Review Committee for the Indian
Institutes of Management (1981-82) are examples of this approach. In
other cases, external technical assistance has been sought by govern-
ments to remedy deficiencies in specific aspects of management.

Lessons from High Performers

Two management training institutions which have been widely
judged by outside observers as high performers are the Indian Institute
of Management, Ahmedabad (IIMA) and the Asian Institute of Management,
Manila (AIM).[7] IIMA was founded in 1962 and AIM in 1968. Both were
established primarily for the purpose of education and training in

business administration but soon diversified into the field of public management. The major organizational feature identified as common to these institutions are the following.

1. Organizational Form

The Government of India was responsible for the establishment of IIMA, whereas AIM was established as a private-sec r institution. Inspite of government sponsorship, IIMA operated with a substantial measure of autonomy, much like AIM. The important feature was the absence of inflexible government control rather than the specific structural form. Both institutes had the required autonomy to carry out the evolutionary and flexible programmes that were critical to the changing needs of their environment. In IIMA's case, the government monitored its progress through a Board of Governors on which it was well represented. The Institute, in part, augmented its autonomy through its own performance, and the diversification of its sources of funding. Government sponsorship provided legitimacy to IIMA which may be described as a joint venture between government and industry.

2. Focus on Multiple, but Related Tasks

Both institutes were engaged in training, research, and consulting with a mutually reinforcing relationship among these related tasks. The vitality of teaching in these institutes has been sustained by the linkages that research and consulting provided with practising managers in both private and public sectors. Such linkages have been particularly effective in collaborating with government agencies for

arrangements
Improving systems and practices through long-term/of three to five
years. Management of these multiple tasks is more complex than that
of training as a single activity. Groups of faculty members with
responsibility for different tasks were set up to ensure accountability
for results. Close contacts with client groups reinforced their
performance orientation.

3. Educational Model

Both IIMA and AIM started with a fairly well defined model of
business enterprise management that had a good measure of conceptual
coherence. With an established record of success in this field, they
were able to expand into the field of public management through a
process of adaptation and learning. The tradition of pulling together
several relevant disciplines and applying knowledge to solving problems
in the organizational context are strengths of the model on which they
have built further.

4. Leadership and Internal Decisionmaking

One of the widely shared generalizations about building
organizations is the role of leadership. Though both institutions had
foreign collaboration during the initial period, they also had indige-
nous leaders from the beginning who were able to establish a sense of
purpose and direction in these organizations. These people had the
stature and ability to establish the organization's legitimacy in the
unique political and cultural setting of their countries.

5. A Critical Mass of Faculty

The size of the faculty built up in these institutes was large compared to that of university departments engaged in comparable activities. Too small a group seldom develops the critical mass needed to undertake multidisciplinary activities and experimentation. IIMA has ninety and AIM forty members on their faculty. Internal organizational structures did not become hierarchical. On the other hand, their methods of internal planning and decision making are participatory in nature. The practice of hiring temporary faculty on secondment is uncommon. Investment in faculty development and motivation through performance evaluation are some of the important features.

A combination of events, persons, and strategies which lead to success in one situation cannot always be repeated elsewhere. However, Kamla Chowdhury, who has investigated the development of several other similar institutions in India, observes that the mix of features identified in the preceding paragraphs has been found in other high performers too. [8]

Among the fully government controlled and financed training institutions, INTAN in Malaysia has achieved reputation for its performance. The usual stereotype that government-run institutions are rigid in staffing patterns and approaches to training, plagued by instability in leadership, and consequent neglect of their internal management, does not fit INTAN. Its organizational and management features are more akin to those of other high performer institutions highlighted in the preceding pages.

An important area that often gets neglected is the role of motivation and incentives in improving institutional performance. Compensation policies are critical in this regard. Even though the private sector usually is more flexible in offering monetary compensation as an incentive than government-run training institutions, the latter have, in some cases, introduced innovations in this area. Some institutions offer additional payments when faculty members do consulting work; they have increased the number of posts thereby improving promotional possibilities; accelerated increments are also given to the faculty who perform outstandingly. Since there are limits to monetary incentives, institutions can seek other approaches to motivate their staff. First, several institutions have found an annual performance appraisal of the faculty a useful device to review their output and also to provide them with feedback on their performance. When promotions are based only on seniority and performance inputs are ignored, institutional performance suffers. Second, a periodic evaluation can be a basis for offering nonmonetary incentives, such as recognition of a person's work by the institution, new opportunities for self development, and nominations to prestigious positions. Third, the management style of the leader and the faculty's role in internal decision-making also may contribute to better motivation. A professional organization's performance depends on the extent to which it uses the ideas and collaborative efforts of its staff. The motivation to innovate and collaborate will be strong when the staff is encouraged to participate in the process of institution building.

The ILO refers to the process of creating and sustaining this mix of institutional features as strategic management. The ILO study presents many examples of how pro-active institutions in different parts of the world practise strategic management through a process of defining, redefining, and implementing their basic choices concerning purpose and goals, target sectors and client groups, and resource allocation. They also match their internal organizational structures to the chosen tasks and create planning and monitoring systems to improve the performance of the tasks. There is a need for strategic decisions and actions at the institutional level to be reinforced by good team work by the staff and supported by continuing and close attention to detailed planning and monitoring of individual activities.[10]

Notes

1. E. Engelbert, Internation Cooperation for Education and Training in Public Administration/Public Management

2. Schaffer, African Public Management and Management Training

3. Inayatullah (ed.), Management Training for Development : The Asian Experience (ACDA), Kuala Lumpur, 1975), p.77.

4. K. Chowdhury, "Strategies for Institutionalizing Public Management Education : The Indian Experience," in Stifil et. al. Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries, p.110 and O. Adamolakun, "Strategies for Institutionalizing Public Management and Education : The Nigerian Experience," in Stifel, et.al. op.cit. p.113.

5. J. Jreisat, "Public Administration and Training : Cases from Jordan and Saudi Arabia," Arab Journal of Administration, April 1982. pp.56-60.

6. ILO, Managing a Management Development Institution (Geneva, 1982).

7. The following discussion is based on a comparative study presented in Stifel et.al. Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries, (New York, 1977)

8. Chowdhury, op.cit.

9. ILO, op.cit. Chapter 2

10. Ibid, see chapters 4-6.

Chapter VII

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN TRAINING

The focus, scope, and methods of training in public administration have undergone important changes in developing countries during the past three decades. This evolution has been influenced by the shifts in focus which have occurred in western countries as well as by the changing needs and challenges of LDCs. Certainly, the pattern of evolution has not been identical in all parts of the third world, nor have been the responses of training institutions to these changes. The significance of these recent developments in PMT are examined in this chapter.

Shifts in Conceptual Approaches

Public administration training has been influenced by different disciplines in the course of its evolution. As pointed out in Chapter 2, in the colonial era, the French system of training was dominated by the legal tradition, whereas the British system was based on a generalist concept that emphasized the study of diverse subjects such as political economy, history, and the classics.[1] An important shift took place during the 1920s when a broader approach to public administration which drew upon the concepts of social sciences and scientific management emerged in the United States. The model of public administration training was adopted by many LDCs during the 1950s; it emphasized certain general principles of public administra- tion and specific functions and tools such as public budgeting and accounting, organization and methods and personnel systems and practices.

In effect, this approach was superimposed in many LDCs on their inherited legal orientation or generalist tradition in training.

The emergence of a large number of independent LDCs during 1950s and 1960s led to a new set of concerns in the field of development. Public servants were needed to be well grounded in the concepts and practices of macro-planning and project formulation. PMT institutions responded by offering training programmes in these areas. The disciplines of economics, operations research, and management provided new inputs to the training curricula. Conceptual developments in cost-benefit analysis and macro- and micro level model building facilitated this new trend. Donor agencies reinforced this project-performance orientation as they were involved in financing and promoting development projects and programmes.[2]

The new wave of training was an overlay on the existing general and functional types of training which many LDC institutions continued to provide. It is difficult to assess the magnitude of this additional load. In India, for example, it is reported that about a third of the training programmes organized by the Central Personnel Division during 1950s focused on specialized, development-related subjects.[3] In most degree programmes of public administration institutes, these specialized subjects were added to the curricula. There is no reason to believe that the new emphasis on development administration and project-related training displaced the traditional focus on general and functional training for the central systems of government.

mutual learning. In the Philippines, the Asian Institute of Management

and the Ford Foundation have been engaged in a similar project with the

National Irrigation Agency. With USAID support, an action learning mode

of training has been attempted in a number of LDC organizations,

including Tanzania's Rural Development Bank for the training of trainers

and Jamaica's integrated rural development project. In Malaysia, INTAN

has experimented with action training in its regular training program

for young administrators : the World Bank too has used this approach in

the development of the Agricultural Management Training Institute in

Bangladesh.

Changes in the Targets and Methods of Training

The legal and generalist traditions of training focused on

elite administrators while the social science-based approach included a

larger segment of the public service. Specialists and functional

officers, in addition to general administrators, were also part of the

audience. As increased attention was given to planning and management

of projects, the target group was widened to cover field project personnel

such as planners and project managers.

Recent experiments with the action-learning approach have

shifted the focus of training from the individual to the organization.

The target is no longer the individual or persons in the same level or

category, but all members of the organization who are relevant to total

performance. Involvement of multiple organizational levels and of

implementors and beneficiaries are seen as essential to the process of

learning from joint action.

A recent survey of PMT institutions in different parts of
the world shows that the lecture method still dominates training.[6]
However, another survey, one by Commonwealth Secretariat finds there is
no single dominant method of training in most of its member countries.[7]
It presents evidence that different methods such as case studies,
exercises, syndicates, role playing, games, etc. are in vogue, and that
the responding institutions have found T-group training and programmed
instruction among the least useful methods. None of the surveys,
however, refers to the use of action learning as a method.

An important point that emerges from the study of the
literature is that teaching methodologies associated with the conven-
tional approaches - legal, generalist and social science continue to
dominate even though significant shifts have occurred in the concepts,
approaches and tasks of training. The Commonwealth Secretariat survey
probably points to the emergence of a shift in the mix of methods being
used in some countries. Thus, it is likely that a shift in focus
toward project appraisal and project management training would lead to a
more analytic rather than a descriptive emphasis in teaching and possibly
increase the use of field work, group projects, and problem solving
methods. The development of indigenous teaching materials, however,
is a prerequisite for the use of these methods, but unfortunately,
these materials are lacking. In terms of the action learning approach,
the methodologies used are vastly different from what most PMT
institutions are used to.

In summing this review, it is important to highlight the different phases in the evolution of PMT in LDCs and their problems of adaptation over .time. Though these phases do not necessarily follow a uniform sequence in all countries, they, nevertheless, offer useful insights into the potentials and problems of adapting training to meet the changing needs of LDCs. Table 7.1 presents a summary of ·the phases and their key features.

Table 7.1.

Phases in the Evolution of PMT

Conceptual Orientation	Task Definition	Target of Training	Method/Mode of Training	Institutional Network
-Legal orientation -generalist tradition.	Maintenance of status quo	Individual administrators (elites)	Descriptive/classroom on the job	Special training institution universities.
-Social Science orientation -functional approach	Modernization of the central system of government	Individual administrators	Descriptive/theoretical/classroom oriented.	Government training institutions, autonomous public administration centers, university departments.
-Macro planning focus -project performance orientation	Designing and managing development plans and projects	Individuals and small groups of administrators and managers	Analytic/technical/classroom/field work	Government institutions, universities, public administration centers, management institutes, sectoral institutions, consulting firms.
-Action-learning orientation	decentralized capacity for social/rural development (sectoral and multisectoral).	Organizations and beneficiary groups	collective learning through action/experiential methods	Government institutions (limited role) management institutions, sectoral institutions, consulting firms, donors.

Notes

1. See the reference to these traditions in Chapter II. It is interesting to note that the Francophone and Anglophone LDCs even today bear the distinct imprint of these traditions in training as well as in the broader civil service systems and practices.

2. A good example is the World Bank. Its sectoral and project appraisal methodologies did influence the pattern of training in several institutions. The evolution in the Economic Development Institute's own training programmes and its collaboration with other institutions reflect this trend.

3. See Mathur, "Training of Civil Servants in India," In Rasastya and Seidentopf, Training in the Civil Service pp.54-60. The Indian government allocated special plan funds to support this training.

4. See D. Korten, "Community Organization and Rural Development : A Learning Process Approach," Public Administration Review, 40:5 (1980); G. Honadle and J. Hannah, "Management Performance for Rural Development : Packaged Training for Capacity Building," Public Administration and Development, 1982. This paper lists 23 projects in 18 LDCs where action training has been trained.

5. B.F. Skinner, Science and Human Behavior (New York, MacMillan,1954) Skinner, "The Science of Learning and the Art of Teaching", Harvard Educational Review, 24, 1954, pp.86-97. Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics", Human Relations, Vol.1, pp.2-38; R. Beckhard, Organization Development : Strategies and Models (Addison Wesley, 1968)

6. INTAN in Malaysia which has experimented with a variety of methods reports that still 44 per cent of its programme sessions uses the lecture method. See Ismail, op.cit.

7. Commonwealth Secretariat, Effective Use of Training Methodologies (London, 1979). This finding may have been biased by its rather unrepresentative sample; it is possible also that the relative importance of different methods was not properly measured by this survey.

Chapter 8

CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The Emerging Patterns : A Summary

The problems and gaps identified during the course of this survey of PMT are so overwhelming that one is likely to lose sight of the positive developments in this field. Therefore, an overview of the positive features are presented here.

O There has been a significant expansion in the infrastructure for PMT in the third world during the past two decades. The total number of training institutions has quadrupled during this period. Though many of the newer and smaller LDCs are yet to create the needed facilities, most others have expanded their institutional capacities for training, first with assistance from donors, but increasingly with their own resources in later periods.

O Over the years, the network of training institutions has expanded to include newer types of institutions and modes of training. The establishment of autonomous institutes of administration outside the government, the use of management institutes and sectoral training institutions(for example, for agriculture and rural development), and the trend toward linking project-related training with local institutions are examples of how LDCs have tried to cope with new and changing needs. The establishment of several regional and intergovernmental training institutions, a new trend is of special significance to the smaller LDCs. This is a positive development, one which more LDCs are likely to follow in the future.

O   <u>There is growing interest in the formulation of national</u>
<u>training policies in many LDCs</u>. In several Asian countries, broad
based reviews of public administration systems have led to the formal
adoption of training policies for the public service. In Africa, many
governments have taken active steps, with the help of ECA, to formulate
national training policies as part of a broader strategy to promote
human resource development. This is an important step toward setting
goals and priorities for PMT and creating a focal point within govern-
ment to plan, coordinate, and monitor training activities.

O   <u>Experiments with newer and more relevant modes of training</u>
<u>are taking place in different parts of the third world, often with</u>
<u>assistance from donor agencies</u>. One example is the action-learning mode
which is being used increasingly in the context of field programmes. Its
emphasis on linking training to action, performance orientation, and
organizational focus are features which have elicited a positive response
in LDCs. While it is too early to evaluate the impact of these experi-
ments, they represent a move to make training more relevant to practi-
tioners, particularly in rural and people oriented development programs.
<u>Areas of Concern</u>

The problems and gaps in PMT fall into four categories:

(1) <u>The training infrastructure in LDCs is highly skewed</u>
<u>in favour of elites in the public service and in many cases, the uti-</u>
<u>lization of existing facilities is poor</u>. Training resources are allo-
cated chiefly to meet the entry level needs of public servants, and
that too of the main administrative cadres. This has led to the

relative neglect of in-service training in general, and of the training
needs of lower-level personnel. At the same time, the full potential
of the existing training infrastructure is not being realized partly
because the broader personnel policies of governments (such as the
career development linkage with training) are not supportive of
training, and partly because of the failure of training designs
(curricula, methods and so forth) to match the real training needs of
public servants. This indeed is the great training paradox of LDCs.
In many ways, this phenomenon is strikingly similar to the experience
of many LDCs with their past development strategies. Investment in the
creation of physical production capacity takes place, but its utiliza-
tion remains poor and distribution of benefits skewed in favour of the
elites.

(2) <u>The absence of training policies in most LDCs and the
inability or lack of will to impl ment   policy where it exists represent
a major area of concern.</u> Ad hoc decisions on training, and inconsisten-
cies of the kind inherent in the training paradox can be traced to a
large extent to this problem. The neglect of training needs; the failure
to allocate specific training responsibilities to different agencies;
and inadequacies in the design, planning, and evaluation of training
programmes are manifestations of a lack of well designed training
policies. In some LDCs, the lack of adequate skills within government
to adapt policy over time, and guide and monitor its implementation
tends to make the implementation and review of policy a difficult
task.

3. <u>Problems of institutional development and management</u> <u>is a major cause of poor training performance.</u> An important lesson is that the design and management of PMT institutions are as relevant to their effectiveness as the content and quality of their services. These problems are most severe for government-owned training institutions and university related departments or schools of administration which together account for 80 per cent of all PMT institutions. Inappropriate organizational forms, poor leadership, inadequacies in the educational models followed, lack of attention to faculty development and motivation, and inability to integrate training with research and consultancy are among the factors associated with poor management of institutions. Evaluation studies show that high performers in this field are few, but that the mix of institutional features which led to their success has important implications for all others. The project related training (PRT) activities of donors may also have contributed unwittingly to the neglect of the institutional development when PRT is viewed from purely short-run perspective.

4. <u>Investment in the physical infrastructure of PMT has</u> <u>not been matched by an adequate investment in the development of faculty</u> <u>curricula, training materials, and methodologies.</u> In many institutions, resources have not been provided to build on and adapt the original models, knowledge and tools borrowed from abroad. As a result, training programmes are simply repeated using the same old materials and methods. PMT requires experimentation and innovation in order to evolve new training designs, materials, and training methods. The key resource

for this purpose is the trainer. His status, development, and motiva-
tion have generally not been treated as matters of priority. In fact,
there is hardly any research and development in PMT in most LDCs.

The absence of supportive personnel policies which are a pre-
condition for training effectiveness, the lack of well designed national
training policies and policy capabilities within government, neglect of
institutional development and management, and an inadequate allocation
of resource to upgrade the quality and relevance of PMT are among the
central problems which deserve immediate and urgent attention .

Implication for Policy

There are three broad areas in which new policy initiatives
and actions by LDC governments are called for. First, findings from the
survey of PMT's institutions have important implications for the national
personnel policies and systems of governments. Second, the findings
focus on the urgent need for well designed training policies to provide
a framework for planning and managing training activities. Third,
policy interventions are important to improve the efficiency and
effectiveness of the existing training infrastructure in LDCs. The
emphasis should be on those actions that governments can take in the
short run to better utilize existing resources and improve the poor
performance of some of the training institutions.

Public Personnel Policies and Systems

Personnel policies and systems of LDC governments should reinforce and support public service training activities. The first step is to establish strong link between the career development plans of public servants and their training. There is considerable evidence to show that, when such links are established, training becomes more effective and elicits a more positive response from the trainee. This approach will also facilitate the 'assignment of personnel to areas in which they have acquired new skills and competence. Of course, to implement this policy successfully a greater sense of discipline and cooperation is required of all ministries and agencies to work together with the national personnel authority.

Career development plans must be reinforced by promotion policies and performance appraisal systems which take into account inputs on training evaluation. Making training a precondition for promotion often reduces it to a ritual. It is more important to ensure that the process of performance appraisal takes into account a persons record on training. When promotion policies, performance evaluation reports and so forth make no reference to training, it is a clear signal to the public servant being evaluated that training is dispensable.

Systematic monitoring of public service training activities at the national level is essential to keep the heads of governments informed of the progress being made in human resource development in the public sector. It should be the responsibility of the personnel agency of the government to collect and prepare key indicators of training inputs and outputs for review by the cabinet or head of government. Summary data on numbers trained, proportion of public servants in different categories and levels being trained, costs of training in relation to the total salary bill of government, and key indicators emerging from evaluative evidence on training could be monitored periodically. Corrective actions can be taken at top levels in government as well as by training institutions only when such monitoring and feedback are institutionalized.

Seventy-eight countries in the developing world today have a population of less than 5 million each. National policies of these small countries should support and strengthen regional cooperation in public service training. Since scarce resources and talents are essential for building viable training institutions, it makes sense for these countries with similar problems and cultural and political traditions to pool their resources for training. Research on new training programmes, development of indigenous training materials, training of trainers, and consultancy are activities which require large investments and a scale of operations which will be uneconomical for a small country to undertake. Several regional institutions have emerged in response to this need and they deserve the fullest support of LDC governments and donor agencies.

The policy interventions discussed earlier cannot be implemented without a central personnel agency in an LDC government. They also have **important** implications for other ministries which must collaborate with the personnel agency, and for the ministry of finance or planning which has the responsibility for resource allocation. Training is a function that cuts across ministries and departments. It is for this reason that support for this activity in terms of policies and legislation should emanate from the highest levels in government.

Training Policy : A Framework for Action

There are reasons why every LDC government ought to formulate and continually review its training policy for the public service. A formal training policy can be a useful aid to   identify training needs and set objectives and priorities of the government's training efforts. It will clarify the roles and responsibilities of the different agencies engaged in training and facilitate coordination among them. Though most LDCs today do not have formal training policies, it is encouraging that many are actively engaged in formulating such policies. The following guidelines are being offered as an aid to their policy formulation processes.

A training policy for the public service should specify the objectives and types of training, relating them to the different categories of personnel. Historically, training in LDCs has paid disproportionate attention to the needs of the elite administrative cadres. There is a clear need to broaden the objectives and scope of training so that the needs of all categories of public servants are met adequately.

This makes the task of assessing training needs both urgent and complex. A policy statement ought to emphasize the importance of this task and offer broad guidelines on the subject to the agencies which are made responsible for this function. A variety of methods (surveys, discussions with ministries, job analysis, critical incident method and so forth) are available from which an agency may choose. But first the agency must take into account the changing strategies of the country's development, new systems and practices introduced into the public service, and the general performance problems of various categories of personnel. The emerging needs may range from general management training for higher level personnel to functional training and basic skills development for other categories. Mechanisms, such as advisory committees and workshops, may be specified in the policy document to to facilitate consultations between personnel or training agencies th and   clients.

Training policy should also spell out the institutional arrangements for meeting training needs as determined from time to time. While no policy can specify the designs of training programs, it is important to offer guidelines on the roles that different institutions should play in meeting different types of needs. For example, wherever training needs of ministries, and statutory bodies are common, centralized planning and organization of training programmes for them may be encoura-ged as a matter of policy. PMT will fall into this category in most LDCs. Centralization of training should be preferred wherever the knowledge and skills to be imparted are transferrable across sectors

and organizations, economy in the use of resources and facilities can be achieved through sharing common facilities, creation of a critical mass of trainers is essential, and exchange of ideas and experiences among participants strengthen the learning process. On the other hand, wherever the needs are unique to a ministry or sector, policy may encourage the creation of seperate facilities to meet such training needs. Policy guidelines need not be confined to the creation and use of government owned training facilities. It could well be that universities and other autonomous bodies are assigned responsibilities and resources for certain types of training. In brief, it is the function of policy to define the roles and responsibilities of the network of institutions required to meet the public service training needs, specify the mechanisms for the coordination of their operations, and for monitoring their performance.

Training policy should offer guidelines on the financing of public service training activities. Without adequate financial arrangements, public servants will lack motivation. Government policy should make clear how it will meet costs of participants at government institutions as well as with their sponsored studies abroad or self-development at home. Overseas training fellowships have often been used haphazardly and with little planning and coordination.

Finally, training policy should offer a set of guidelines on evaluation of training. Institutions must be asked to evaluate training programmes on their own; in addition, the central personnel agency should be charged with the responsibility of monitoring and

evaluating the performance of all institutions which offer training
services to government. Since evaluation is a complex matter, the
policy statement may provide for a periodic review of the performance
of government's own training institutions through commissions or task
forces made up of representatives of user groups and ministries and
independent experts. Such mechanisms will not only generate useful
ideas for improving training, but also motivate institutions to constantly
seek ways and means to improve and innovate.

A training policy is essentially a framework that sets out
goals, priorities, and guidelines for action. Depending upon a country's
political system, policy may be formalized through an executive order
or legislation. Irrespective of the form it takes, it is important for
governments as well as public enterprises to recognize the need to
review their training policies continually. The task is not merely to
declare a training policy, but to develop the capacity within government
to design and integrate the various components to ensure their effe-
ctive implementation.

Utilization of Existing Training Infrastructure

As noted earlier, the network of training institutions
in LDCs has expanded significantly in the past three decades, but they
are inadequately utilized. Improving the institutions' utilization
and effectiveness does not have to wait till the long-term policy
initiatives discussed earlier are fully implemented. Where there are
problems on the supply side, such as improper assessment of training

needs, inadequacies in the quality and motivation of trainers, irrele-
vance of training materials and methods, and problems in managing
training institutions, efficiency and effectiveness could be increased
in the short-run through a different set of actions and policy interven-
tions. A reallocation of available res urces, restructuring of organi-
zations, and marginal additions to investment together may result in
significant gains.

Payoff through Reallocation of Resources

Even before a comprehensive training policy is formulated,
a government may wish to undertake a quick survey of the performance and
problems of its existing training programmes and infrastructure. Such
investigations in a number of countries have brought to light important
gaps and imbalances in the existing training efforts such as, for
example an overconcentration of training for the central administra-
tive cadres in most LDCs at the cost of other categories of personnel.
The entry level training also has received a dispr-portionate share of
resources whereas inservice training particularly for senior level
personnel has yet to receive the attention it deserves. The develop-
ment strategies of most LDCs cannot be effectively implemented without
imparting appropriate training to public personnel at all levels and
at different stages in their careers. Though an increased allocation
of resources will be required to cope with these tasks fully, much can
be accomplished through a more efficient allocation of existing
resources. Thus, a careful review of the long-duration training pro-
grammes of one to three years for the elite services in some countries

may lead to a redesign and reduction in the length of these programmes.
The resources and time thus saved could be used for training other
categories of personnel or for more adequate inservice training for the
same cadres.

Increased training requirements could be met also by
mobilising the resources of non-governmental or autonomous institutions
such as universities and management training centres. Widening the
network of institutions in this manner will require only marginal invest-
ments in financial terms. The challenge is more in terms of enlisting
their support and motivating them to contribute to public service train-
ing. In specialized areas such as project formulation and appraisal,
project management and so forth and for part-time training in the
functional aspects of public administration, these institutions could
be of considerable assistance. The central/should identify and assess
potential assistance such institutions can offer, forge linkages with
them, and provide them support and incentives to participate in the
net-work of public service training institutions.

Qualitative barriers to Training Effectiveness

There are many actions that governments can take to
minimize the qualitative barriers to training effectiveness. The
problems include improper assessment of training needs, poor quality
and motivation of trainers, inappropriate training designs and materials
weak training methodologies, and inadequacies in training evaluation.
Unfortunately, investment in the physical infrastructure of institutions
has often received much higher priority than the task of dealing with
these critical problems.

The severity of these barriers, undoubtedly, varies from country to country. In the more developed Asian countries, the quality and availability of trainers may not be as serious a problem as in the newly independent African countries. The schools of public administration in some of the larger Latin American and Asian countries may have developed more relevant training materials and methods than those in the smaller countries. But available evidence shows that these are differences in degree only. There is much that LDC governments can do in the short run to minimize these problems.

First, institutional arrangements (committees, workshops, consultations, and so forth) to bring together the central personnel authority and user ministries or agencies periodically would go a long way toward improving the assessment of training needs. Posting of training officers in every ministry has facilitated this process in some countries. A careful analysis of development programmes and tasks being planned for the medium term also tends to provide useful inputs for mapping future training needs. Second, the central authority and training institutions could significantly improve the designs of training programmes and methodologies by taking into account these inputs. The practice of repeating the same programme designs and methods without assessing the needs and feedback from past participants must be discouraged. Third, depending upon the needs of client organizations and categories of personnel and the new training designs generated, the central authority   might set apart some funds for the development of new training materials. This might encourage trainers

in government and autonomous institutions and university departments to invest some of their time in the field developing new training materials. Fourth, development of trainers must be treated as critical to the success of the interventions mentioned earlier. Raising the status of trainers and upgrading their salary, as has been done in Malaysia, certainly will have a positive impact on the supply and quality of trainers. In allocating overseas training fellowships, training of trainers should receive the highest priority. Acquisition of new knowledge and skills, exposure to new methodologies and designs and opportunities to undertake specialized studies could be enhanced through this process. Training of trainers should be seen as an investment that is complementary to the investment in the physical facilities for training. The resources required for these different interventions are marginal in terms of the government's total budget; nor do they call for major policy reforms. Yet suitable action on these proposals could lead to a perceptible improvement in the efficient and effective use of the existing training infrastructure.

Better Management of Training Institutions

Poor internal management is a major reason why training institutions are unable to   realize their potential fully. The problem, in most cases, can be attributed to inadequate leadership, rigid management systems, and   absence of well planned internal strategies at the level of institutions. LDC governments can play a positive role in strengthening management capabilities of their training institutions. A quick analysis of the   problems of the low performers among these institutions, is a good starting point.

Any attempt to improve the management of a national training institution must start with its leadership. The choice of a competent person with a strong commitment to training and unwillingness to stay on the job for a reasonable period (at least five years) must receive the highest priority. In his institution building task, he will need the support of the political and bureaucratic leadership. In effect, this means that he is given a high status in the government and stability in his job to enable him to fulfil his institutional mission satisfactorily.

A second requirement is that he new leader be given an adequate measure of flexibility in planning and restructuring the institution and its activities to meet the new objectives. A training institution which is expected to innovate and adapt to changing needs will require a greater measure of autonomy than is found in government agencies engaged in routine functions. Separate advisory boards and budgets for such institutions can be useful devices to augment their autonomy. A larger role for the professional staff in planning institutional strategies and programmes will not only increase their commitment, but also reinforce institutional autonomy effectively.

A third requirement is strengthening of institutions' links and interactions with client organizations. A more active participation of institutions in the assessment of training needs will certainly be a useful step in this direction. But more importantly, training institutions should be encouraged to reinforce their training activities by undertaking research and consultancy for

ministries, development programme agencies, and projects. Except for institutions which are engaged exclusively in induction training, most PMT institutions should be able to focus on a multiplicity of activities provided a critical mass of faculty with requisite skills is assembled; this,of course, will call for some additional resources. On the other hand, institutions will also be able to earn some revenue out of their new activities. The net outflow of government funds on this account need not be as large as is often imagined. But the major gain is in upgrading the quality, relevance, and innovative capacity of the staff. This strategy has paid rich dividends in many cases and could be replicated with government support in most developing countries.

Table 8.1

INTERVENTIONS FOR BETTER UTILIZATION OF EXISTING TRAINING INFRASTRUCTURE

Ingredients of training strategy to be influenced	Policy interventions/actions	Key actors or initiators	Nature of resource requirements
Assessment of training needs	Strengthen consultations between the central personnel agency and other ministries; choose appropriate methods for assessment; identify gaps in training, new objectives, and needs.	CPA; client ministries and agencies; training institutions.	Organizational inputs
Design of training programmes and plan	Base design of programmes on results of assessment after reviewing existing curricula; use feedback from past participants; formulate mix of training programmes (plan); reallocate resources and assign priorities.	Training institutions; past participants; CPA.	Technical and planning inputs.
Development of trainers.	Upgrade quality of trainers through formal training; use overseas fellowships for training, if necessary; raise status and salary scales of trainers.	CPA; donor agencies; ministry of finance; cabinet.	Funds Policy Support
Development of training materials.	Identify needs for indigenous training materials through an analysis of training plan; provide funds for training materials in budgets of institutions; support field work and consultancy by trainers.	Training institutions; CPA; different ministries.	Organizational inputs; funds;
Training methodologies.	Derive mix of methods from training programme designs and objectives; encourage experimentation in methods; support experiential methods.	Training institutions; CPA.	Technical inputs.
Monitoring and evaluation of training.	Establish evaluation system for training programmes in CPA; encourage training institutions to set up internal evaluation systems; set up periodic review committees to assess training performance.	CPA; training institutions; client ministries.	Organizational inputs.