The purpose of this study was to develop a manager's planning guide to aid in the development and improvement of international training projects through the use of the Total Project Acculturation (TPA) concept. The use of TPA promotes comprehensive learning through the use of project specific and culturally adaptive learning and teaching methodologies.

The study focuses on individual differences, as they pertain to learning and teaching styles, and their interaction with individual subjective cultures. The TPA concept assert that once individual differences have been identified, training projects can be effectively designed and taught to accommodate them.

TPA, as conceptualized by the author, visualizes all training projects as having three areas of major influence: 1) project management; 2) project learning; and 3) project culture. Within this context, TPA asserts that there is an
intense relationship between individual subjective cultures, learning and teaching styles and comprehensive learning and teaching experiences. When the TPA concept is properly implemented, project personnel, training project designs and training methodologies can be culturally as well as characteristically matched to promote more effective learning.

A comprehensive Project Manager’s Planning Guide was developed to act as a pathfinder for providing logical direction to the design and implementation of a totally acculturated training project. It was designed to be implemented with both new and existing international training projects. The guide describes a step-by-step sequence that allows the user to track the acculturation process as it is being developed.

The Project Manager’s Planning Guide is designed around an Acculturated Learning Component which divides international training into four primary areas: 1) project inputs; 2) project personnel; 3) project planning and design; and 4) project learning. Each area is designed to complement the TPA concept.

This study suggests that Total Project Acculturation can enhance the effectiveness of international training projects by:

1) Characteristically and psychologically matching the international training project management, technical assistance teams, project designs and methodologies to the training participant’s individual learning styles

2) Perfecting the project’s learning and teaching proficiency by encouraging the “learning to learn” concept through the design and
implementation of whole brain learning opportunities that promote
equal practice in each of Kolb’s (1976, 1985) four learning
dimensions

3) Utilizing project specific, culturally adaptive learning and teaching
methodologies throughout every phase of the training project to
include staff and training participant selection and development,
project planning and design activities, learning environments and
teaching and learning methodologies.
A MANAGER'S PLANNING GUIDE FOR
INTERNATIONAL TRAINING USING TOTAL
PROJECT ACCULTURATION: CULTURALLY ADAPTED
MANAGEMENT AND LEARNING METHODOLOGIES

by

Pieter H. Blood

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Redacted for Privacy
Professor of Postsecondary and Technological Education in charge of major

Redacted for Privacy
Chair, Department of Postsecondary and Technological Education

Redacted for Privacy
Dean, College of Education

Redacted for Privacy
Dean, Graduate School

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I. CONTEXT AND PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

The demand for international training projects in lesser developed countries (LDCs) is steadily increasing as these countries strive for parity with the industrialized nations of the world. In support of rigorous technology transfer and indigenous economic programs, many LDCs are actively engaging in technical assistance training projects as well. Unfortunately, many of these projects are falling short of the LDCs stakeholder expectations.

Although there have been many international training project successes (e.g., Campeche Agricultural Mechanics Education Project, 1987; Tanzania Training for Rural Development, 1979; Turkey USDA/OSU Wheat Research and Production Project, 1975), there have been many failures as well (e.g., Goldsmith, 1988; Halpern, Ingle & Brinkerhoff, 1988; International Development Management Center, 1988; Agency for International Development, 1987). In most cases reported in the literature these failures occurred because the projects did not provide the inputs that were needed in a culturally acceptable manner and at the time when needed most.
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The past four decades have witnessed a marked increase in the number of foundations, universities and individuals throughout the world that are actively involved in the design and implementation of training projects in lesser developed countries (LDCs). These training projects are generally concerned with altering and/or improving the social, economic and political environment and strive to bring about improvements in the basic conditions under which the nationals in these countries must live.

In order for international training projects to be effective, they must be culturally sensitive and individually specific (Levine et al., 1984). However, in an effort to operate within definite economic, time and resource restraints, training projects have tended to concentrate more on the larger, more visible LDC national goals at the expense of individual constituency (stakeholder) issues (Levine et al., 1984). International training projects too often are simply not doing a beneficial job of addressing the individual needs and expectations of project participants such as technical assistance team members, host country colleagues and host country short-term training participants.

Currently there is not enough emphasis being placed on the need to introduce acculturation techniques into all phases of international project management and planning. Influencing factors such as individual preferred learning styles, individual preferred involvement in learning activities, thinking patterns, learning environments, individualized curriculum and training
methodologies are not being adequately addressed. In other words, most international project design processes do not take seriously the implications associated with having a totally acculturated design or Total Project Acculturation.

**TOTAL PROJECT ACCULTURATION (TPA)**

Total Project Acculturation (TPA) was conceptualized by the author of this thesis. Total Project Acculturation makes the assertion that all training projects can be divided into three major areas of influence. These areas are: 1) project management; 2) project learning; and 3) project culture. Within this framework, TPA recognizes the effects that individual subjective cultures, individual learning styles and learning environments have on the effectiveness and sustainability of training projects in LDCs (see Figure 1).

Within the context of international training projects in LDCs, TPA refers to the use of culturally adapted management and learning methodologies throughout every phase of the project’s design, development and implementation. Total Project Acculturation refers to the inclusion of all project components within the acculturation process.

Total Project Acculturation is a commitment to making every training component project specific. All project participants (administrators, technical assistance teams, support staff, and learners), course goals and objectives, course materials and aids, learning environments, as well as the program design,
Figure 1. Total project acculturation: Culturally adapted management and learning methodologies
development and implementation processes, are systematically aligned to facilitate a common linkage among the project stakeholders.

Total Project Acculturation means addressing all individual stakeholder needs and expectations. It is the next logical extension of existing international training project design. Total Project Acculturation should become the basis for future LDC training project design and retrofit undertakings because of its propensity for lending further support to long-term project and program sustainability.

In practice, the major factors affecting project design, development and implementation are the management, learners, and subjective cultures of LDCs. These factors are interrelated and overlapping in any training situation. Considered individually, each factor unto itself is not capable of producing project specific endpoints. As a result, long-term project effectiveness is compromised. Considered collectively, these influences provide a sound basis for establishing a project specific learning environment. Total Project Acculturation serves as the catalyst that binds the processes and components of a project and which ultimately create a culturally acceptable training project.

Webster (1986) defines a canopy as the chief supporting surface for a parachute. In much the same manner, TPA acts as the supporting surface for international training projects in LDCs.
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to develop a manager's planning guide to aid in the development and improvement of international training projects through the use of the TPA concept. The study focuses on how individual differences, as they pertain to learning and teaching styles, are affected by individual subjective cultures. Once these differences are identified, the TPA concept allows for their effective accommodation within the boundaries of most new or existing training project planning models.

The study also discusses the intense relationship between project management, project learning (individual learning and learning environments) and individual subjective cultures. In other words, how classroom management and individual cultural up-bringing can affect the degree of learning that takes place during training situations. In keeping with the TPA philosophy, culture is presented as the "catalyst" for effective international training projects (see Figure 2).

BACKGROUND

In January of 1949 President Harry Truman announced that the United States was starting a world wide program to "...fight mankind's age-old enemies--hunger, ignorance, and disease" (Butterfield, 1982). The causes represented by Truman's program have since been taken up by many other countries and organizations throughout the world to aid in economic stabilization and
Figure 2. Relationship between project management, project learning and individual subjective cultures.
development efforts in LDCs. During the past four decades international development programs have varied almost as much in breadth and scope as the host country cultures in which they operate. According to Butterfield (1982), the focus of international development programs has changed accordingly.

During the 1950's foreign aid packages emphasized the transfer of ideas, tools, and techniques--also known as technology transfer (Butterfield, 1982). It was also a period when the framers of foreign aid packages mistakenly believed that Western technology was equally as appropriate for LDC applications as it was for the industrialized nations of the world. Providers believed that the transfer of Western technology was the fastest and most efficient avenue to economic, social and political reform in developing countries (Butterfield, 1982).

The decade of the 1960's witnessed a shift in project emphasis from the transfer of ideas and skills to outright capital assistance. The projects were based more on macro-economic theories and the development of LDC infrastructures. International development emphasis was shifted away from the people oriented projects of the 1950's (Butterfield, 1982).

In the 1970's, international development projects experienced a swing back to people and technology. This redirection was due mainly to Third World LDCs failure to respond to the macro-economic development efforts of the 1960's. Development in the 1970's evolved into a cooperative union between the technical/people programs of the 1950's and the capital assistance programs of
the 1960's. Essentially, this was a return to development basics with more host
country participation and inputs regarding the program goals and needs.

Development during the 1980's was a continuation of the 1970's
capital/technical blend of assistance. There was additional emphasis; however,
placed on the management of host country natural resources, on helping entire
host country populations and on who would actually be benefiting most from the
projects. During the 1980's a new actor also appeared in the foreign aid arena--a
recipient known as the Fourth World. The Fourth World country designation was
used as a method for identifying the least developed (Fourth World) of the lesser
developed countries (Third World). The majority of current donor funding is now
focused on those Fourth World countries (Butterfield, 1982).

Training Project Effectiveness

Historically, training project effectiveness in LDCs has been less than
perfect because they: 1) have lacked positive cost/benefit ratios; 2) have lacked
quality assurance checks and balances; and 3) in general, do not adequately
address the project participant's individual needs (Goldsmith, 1988; International
Development Management Center, 1984; International Development Management
Center & International Program Office, 1984; Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984).
In the past, training projects in LDCs have tended to present what they (the most
influential project stakeholders) perceived as being correct and right--with little
regard to what the true or root needs of the LDC might be. "Basically,
professionals have done development to people" (Butterfield, 1982). In the past, development practices have not allowed for cooperative stakeholder inputs (Acker & Kearns, 1988). Lessor Developed Countries have not been allowed to take part in their own evolution. As a result, many of these projects have not been sustainable over the long term (United States Agency for International Development, 1987; Goldsmith, 1988; Halpern, Ingle, & Brinkerhoff, 1988; International Development Management Center, 1988).

Recent Improvements to Training Project Design Methodologies

An ongoing goal of the international training project manager has been to bring about improved design and implementation strategies within their training projects. The result of these efforts has been a continual up-grading of the scope, breadth and instructional capabilities of international training in general. Measures such as improved project evaluation techniques have been developed, methods for matching management and technical assistance teams characteristically to international training projects have been adopted and comprehensive reviews of "lessons learned" have become standard policy (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984; MacKinnon, 1975). Design teams comprised of specialists from the sciences, education, anthropology, technology and economics now work collectively in cooperative efforts to improve development project effectiveness.
Since the 1930's, research studies have been addressing the implications of culturally and psychologically matching employment candidates with specific jobs and/or tasks (Kelly & Goldberg, 1959; MacKinnon, 1960, 1946; Murray, 1938). Since that time, such placement techniques have become widely accepted throughout U.S. business and industry and have tended to improve the success rates of expatriate managers (Hogan & Goodson, 1990). Similar techniques have subsequently been adopted as management tools for matching international development project technical assistance teams to specific program cultures (Consortium for International Development [CID], 1986; Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984; MacKinnon, 1975; White, 1984). Collectively these efforts have tended to improve international training project effectiveness; however, not in a manner which is consistent with the TPA methodology.

Training Projects Lack TPA

In spite of expert inputs, refinements, and lessons learned most projects do not achieve their full potential. They do not adequately address the individual needs of the project participants (management, learners and technical assistance team members) in LDC training efforts. Many projects do not address the cultural specifics that are so critical to project success.

In addition to culturally and characteristically selecting technical assistance team members to align with specific projects, managers must begin thinking more in terms of the subjective cultures and their psychological implications with regard
to differences in individual learning styles and learning environments. Managers must begin to think more in terms of TPA.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Current research and theory supports the notion that culture does make a difference in learning situations (Hayes & Allison, 1988; Kolb, 1984; Sugarman, 1985). The implications for future international training projects suggest that effective, sustainable training projects will need to be even more culturally specific. Managers and designers will need to do more than merely address the normative administrative, instructional and environmental issues involved with international training projects; they will need to become involved in the cultural and psychological aspects of international training as well. Project managers and technical assistance cadre will need to be more cognizant of individual learning styles and learning environments, and how they are affected by individual subjective cultures (Hayes & Allison, 1988).

Without cultural recognition a mismatch of learning styles and learning environments will result in poor learner performance. Conditions that create effective learning and learning environments in one culture will not necessarily have the same effect in another; and possibly, not even the in the next class in that same culture. Project managers need to be assessing more closely the relationship between individual learning styles and learning environments, not
only across cultures, but within cultures as well (Gay & Abrahams, 1973; Hannerz, 1969; Hofstede, 1984).

For quality learning to occur, it is imperative that all training projects be culturally specific. Managers must look closely at the materials being presented as well as how they are being presented. In addition, the individuals doing the presenting as well as those being presented to must be assessed. There are also implications that managers and stakeholders need to rethink their organizational design, the design of the training projects being implemented and the type of technical assistance personnel being selected for international training efforts (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Hofstede, 1980; Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984). In the macro-sense, international training must be equivalent for all cultures; in the micro-sense, it must be equivalent for all individuals.

ASSUMPTIONS

For the purpose of this study the following assumptions were made:

1. Development is concerned with helping the poor, equitable growth, participation by the public, and meeting stakeholder and individual needs

2. Project management is delineated to training and related technical assistance activities

3. A training project is a component of a larger program

4. A training project is an agent of change
DELIMITATIONS

This study was delimited to considering the improvement of international training projects in lessor developed countries (LDCs) through the use of culturally adapted management and learning methodologies. It deals only with the training project aspect of international development. It does not consider any detailed curricula and is not vocation or project specific.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

All-Stakeholder: a term used to indicate that a cooperative consensus is needed among the primary project stakeholders. For example, an all-stakeholder agreement indicates that the stakeholders have acted in concert regarding a certain issue.

Appropriate Technology: technology that meets the individual, political, cultural and social needs of an LDC.

Assessment Center Activities: a method of psychologically and characteristically matching project managers and technical assistance teams to specific international training projects (Mackinnon, 1975).

Benefit/Cost Analysis: an analysis of economic, or other benefits, or degree of goal attainment of a project in comparison with the cost of delivering those benefits; a comparison of the relative benefits and costs of a project (CID Project Management Handbook, Vol. II, 1986).
**Culture:** a group's characteristic manner of perceiving its social environment. The learned patterns of thought and behavior characteristic of a population or society (Harris, 1971). The unspoken pattern of values that guides behavior in work groups and organizations. Culture regulates behavior and thereby influences individual performance (Sredl & Rothwell, 1987).

**Donor Agency:** the organization that provides the funding for foreign aid. Donors may be government agencies, foundations, or private sector organizations.

**Evaluation:** a retrospective analysis of what happened in a development project and why; the making of judgements about the success or failure of a project; the assigned value of something (CID Project Management Handbook, Vol. 1, 1986).

**Effectiveness:** the degree to which a project has attained its stated goals and objectives; the degree to which a project meets stakeholders' agendas.

**Efficiency:** the degree to which a project is able to achieve its stated goals and objectives while at the same time maximizing its beneficial results at the least cost.

**Emic:** an applied research method in which data are collected in the form of verbatim text from native informants from within the culture being studied (Pelto, 1970). It is an attempt to discover and describe the pattern of a particular language or culture in reference to the way in which the various elements of that culture are related to each other in the functioning of a particular pattern (Pike, 1954).
Etic: an applied research method in which data regarding a particular culture are collected and synthesized through the eyes of an alien from outside the culture being studied (Pelto, 1970). An etic analysis is external in the sense that it stands far enough away from the culture being studied to see its separate events in relation to their differences, as compared to events in other cultures.

Expatriate: a project participant living, working or attending training in a foreign country.

External Factor: the factors, conditions or other influences outside the control of the project manager, but which have an important effect on the degree of success or failure of a project (Acker, 1986).

Goal: the target toward which the efforts of the stakeholders (donor, host country, contractor and beneficiaries) are directed. Goals are stated in terms of broad economic, political and social terms. Project goals are generally stated in support of a larger development program (CID Project Management Handbook, Vol I, 1986).

Host Country: the host country is the lesser developed country in which a development project is taking place.

Inputs: the flow of resources, such as technology, capital, goods and training into a project with the expectation of producing certain results or outputs.

International Development Program: a method designed for helping lesser developed countries through the use of foreign aid packages provided by a single donor or donor consortium. Foreign aid usually includes a method for
transferring some combination of ideas, tools, techniques and capital investment from a donor organization to a lessor developed country (Butterfield, 1982).

**Learning Environment:** a physical place where individual learners receive new knowledge and/or instruction.

**Learning Styles:** an individualized preferred method for perceiving and processing information. Each individual has a preferred learning involvement or role (active, reflective) and a preferred learning situation (concrete, abstract) in which they experience their most effective learning. Learning styles are directly affected by individual cultures (Kolb, 1976, 1984, 1985; Sugarman, 1985).

**Lessor Developed Country (LDC):** the designation given potential recipients of foreign aid packages. Lessor Developed Countries are identified through such indicators as per capita gross national product (GNP), percentage of manufacturing contribution to GNP and population literacy rates. Most LDCs do not have infrastructures capable of supporting their needs. They are usually designated as Third or Fourth World countries, with the Fourth World being the designation for the poorest of the poor (Butterfield, 1982).

**National Culture Differences:** the objective or national differences such as transportation, industry and technology (infrastructure) that are naturally evident between different countries (Triandis et al., 1972).

**Outputs:** the intended objectives or accomplishments directly resulting from the input resources of a project.
**Program Administrator:** the role of ensuring that the facilities, equipment, materials, participants and other components of a learning event are present and that program logistics run smoothly (Sredl & Rothwell, 1987).

**Project:** a project is a discrete activity that can be separately designed, approved and implemented (White, 1984). A project is an organized effort for change; an integrated activity or set of activities which converts resources or inputs (e.g., personnel, material, finances) into outputs, purpose and goal (CID Project Management Handbook, Vol. I, 1986).

**Project Design:** a comprehensive plan for the development and implementation of an international training activity. A design lends itself to being statistically evaluated (CID Project Management Handbook, Vol. 1, 1986).

**Project Learning:** the act or degree of learning that takes place throughout a project. For this thesis, project learning refers to training outcomes and the degree of learning achieved by the project training participants.

**Project Manager:** an in-country manager who is responsible for procuring and managing the project resources (personnel, funds, equipment, facilities and information) in such a way as to insure that they will be available at a specified place and at the time required (Acker, 1986).

**Project Participants:** all individuals that are physically taking part in the actual training project, including the project manager, all technical assistance, host country colleagues and host country training participants.
Stakeholder: governments, private sector organizations and individuals having a vested interest in a project. These include the host country, contractors, donors and beneficiaries (Acker, 1986).

Subjective Culture: a set of intangible external factors such as social values, norms, roles and beliefs that affect the way an individual perceives and responds to his or her surroundings (Triandis et al., 1972).

Team Planning Meeting (TPM): a final phase of technical assistance team selection and orientation (Kettering & Levine, 1986).

Technical Assistance Teams: a group of highly skilled content specialists working collectively to provide training and technical advice within the guidelines of an LDC training project environment.

Technology Transfer: as it relates to international development and foreign aid programs, the transfer of ideas, tools and/or techniques to a lessor developed country from a donor organization.

Total Project Acculturation: the use of culturally adapted management and learning methodologies throughout a training project’s design, development and implementation phases.

Training Participants: those individuals who are the actual beneficiaries of the training project. Usually this term is used to identify host country national training participants.
II. MANAGEMENT OF TRAINING

INTRODUCTION

International training projects are characterized by many individuals, often from more than one country, working collectively to reach a common goal through the careful orchestration of a number of interrelated activities. Due to individual and cultural differences each of these individuals is unique. Each individual perceives and reacts to similar environmental stimuli quite differently (Hayes & Allison, 1988; Kolb, 1976, 1984, 1985; Triandis et al., 1972). It is for this reason that all projects must be culturally specific. In addition to designing each project component in such a way that it supports all other project components, the project must also be designed to accommodate the uniqueness of the each individual and their culture (Levine et al., 1984).

DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

A project is a discrete activity that can be separately designed, approved and implemented (White, 1984). A project is also a smaller part of a larger program. Within this framework, most individual international development activities are known as projects. Each project has its own unique culture, philosophy, goals and objectives which are representative of the various stakeholder’s cumulative interests. As such, it is essential that all projects be designed, developed and implemented in a manner which will ensure that they are
(and remain) culturally, socially and politically acceptable at all times (Axelrod & Magisos, 1987). In other words, a project must remain culturally aligned with the host country in which it is implemented.

In the working paper "Implementation planning workshops: Starting up projects on the right foot," Kettering (undated) discusses five generic elements that he believes are necessary to achieving project success. These elements include: 1) a commitment to the objectives and strategies by all stakeholders; 2) realistic and agreed upon work plans, budgets and schedules; 3) well defined roles and responsibilities for all tasks and activities; 4) appropriate mechanisms to direct, coordinate and control project task execution; and 5) suitable monitoring, evaluation and adaptive learning mechanisms to assess progress and respond to project changes and lessons learned (Figure 3).

A project generally requires that many individuals having varied backgrounds, cultural and environmental experiences, work closely and harmoniously together in unfamiliar, complex situations (Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984). For example, a project staff might include a donor country project director, an in-country project manager, a cadre of content experts representing a wide breadth of technical skills and vocabularies, their host country counterparts and the training project learners. It is therefore of the utmost importance that a project design consider all of the associated individual and cultural influences and their implications regarding project outcomes (Levine et al., 1984).
Figure 3. Kettering's five generic elements for achieving project success

Source: "Implementation Planning Workshops: Starting up projects on the right foot," Merlyn Kettering (undated).
The design of a project is the result of a complex, interactive and interdisciplinary process involving many agencies and often many opposing (and/or competing) perspectives and objectives (CID Project Management Handbook, Vol. 1, 1986). During the project design, development, implementation and evaluation processes it must be recognized that there are many different organizations, individuals, conceptual foci and objectives represented. Each entity is driven by a different set of motivating influences.

As a result, all stakeholders have their own agendas (hidden or otherwise). These agendas may range from a host country's desire to increase the GNP, to the host country national whose main concern is providing enough food for their family on any given day. To be successful, projects must remain sensitive to these agendas at every level of the design, development and implementation process. In planning for avoidance of, and/or dealing with potential project conflict, managers must guide project stakeholders in identifying the "commonalities" in all situations and to convert these commonalities into project opportunity.

STAKEHOLDER INTEREST RANGE GAP

International training projects typically involve four (or more) key parties known as stakeholders. Project stakeholders are those individuals, governments and organizations who have a vested interest in a particular development project. Project stakeholders could include the host country's representative government agency; the donor organization(s), who provide project funding and support
services (banks and foundations); the contractors, who design, develop, implement and evaluate the projects (universities and/or private sector organizations); and finally, the beneficiaries, for whom the project (training) is designed (Acker, 1986).

As with any marriage of ideas and ideals, when there are partners involved, there are also differences in perceptions, opinions and priorities. Each partner has a distinct vision as to what inputs are necessary to make a certain project succeed (Figure 4). Many times these visions are not aligned. According to Acker (1986), when major differences of opinions or expectations occur, the project manager can be caught at the center of a nearly unmanageable stakeholder system.

Stakeholders have great influence on the project's environment, and the project's success is greatly influenced by its environment. For example, the host country's governmental support and the donor organization's expectations of the host country would both be considered components of a project's environment. Each of these environmental components has the ability to influence a project's outcome (Rondinelli, 1984).

International training project managers need to establish working relationships with all relevant organizations and political groups (stakeholders). Such links are necessary if a consensus among stakeholders is to be reached. Additionally, these links serve to expand the resources available to the project, reduce the possibility for subversion of the project's goals by some lessor
Figure 4. Stakeholder interest range gap.
interested party and increases the opportunity for the project's continuance and sustainability beyond its normal ending (White, 1984).

Expectations of the various host country stakeholders (political and social) may also widely differ. For example, a host country government may feel that large scale mechanized farming is needed to better support the country’s infrastructure. The perceived need and expectation of the host country national, however, might simply be to acquire a new hoe and the manual skills necessary for small plot subsistence farming. In the one instance, the stakeholder is clearly dealing in "macro-solutions" and long-term planning. On the other, the nationals may not be able to look past "supper time." Their agendas are more representative of thinking in the most micro-sense--a solution for survival. These differences are known as the stakeholder interest range gap (Figure 4).

A project's degree of ultimate success depends directly upon how well it addresses the development goals of the host country government, the goals and expectations of the donor agencies and the contractors. Of equal importance, the project must be able to meet the needs and expectations of the national beneficiaries. The degree of project success is directly affected by the degree to which the stakeholder interest range gap can be reduced.

PROJECT DESIGN

Each project has specific goals and objectives which have (hopefully) been agreed upon by its stakeholders. From those agreed upon goals and objectives,
program framers are able to arrive at a series of reasonable phases and processes which will successfully guide the project to its conclusion. Such a scenario is called a multi-stage project planning process. An excellent example of such a planning tool is the "Logical Framework Approach" developed by Practical Concepts Incorporated (1979) and subsequently adopted by USAID and the Consortium for International Development in their 1986 Project Managers Handbook (Figure 5).

The Logical Framework Approach assumes that all development projects are instruments of change and that each is selected from among a list of possibilities as being the most potentially cost-effective approach to achieving the desired project results. The Logical Framework Approach further accepts that there is inherent uncertainty in all development projects and deals with this uncertainty by systematically identifying the nature of the uncertainty through a process known as the "development hypotheses" (Practical Concepts Incorporated, 1979).

The Logical Framework Approach methodology represents a way of collecting and organizing information and activities in a manner that allows for three different points of view to be considered simultaneously: the program management, the basic scientific method and systems analysis (Practical Concepts Incorporated, 1979).

Management View: the Logical Framework Approach recognizes that there are three basic levels of responsibility: inputs, outputs and purpose. The
Figure 5. The logical framework approach to project design.

Source: Practical Concepts Incorporated, 1981
inputs are the resources consumed and the activities undertaken throughout the life of the project. The outputs are the stated results or expectations of the project. Finally, the purpose is the reason for producing the outputs or those higher-level objectives that caused the investment in the production of project outputs.

**Basic Scientific Method:** all human activities are uncertain. Therefore the project is viewed as a set of interlocking hypotheses: if inputs, then outputs, if outputs, then purpose (CID Project Management Handbook, Vol. II, 1986).

**Systems Analysis:** establishes the project's relationship with the larger program or system goal.

Defining the larger system involves using a fourth dimension of the Logical Framework Approach known as the "Goal Level." The Goal Level dimension is described in the 1986 version of the CID Management Handbook, Vol II., as: "the higher-level objective immediately above project purpose. That is, the 'then' statement for which the project purpose, plus purpose-level assumptions, must provide a plausible 'if'" (p. 6-3). Within the context of the Logical Framework Approach, the goal level is able to relate the project's objectives to the individual interests and objectives of those stakeholders who may not be as deeply committed to the system's long term mission. This tends to create an improved project atmosphere in which all stakeholders are actively engaged in an aggregate effort and working toward a common goal.
TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE CYCLE

An integral part of any project design is the technical assistance cycle. The working paper, "Getting The Right People On Board," (Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984), outlines a seven stage systematic approach to delivering technical assistance to developing countries (Figure 6). Each stage is essential to a project's ultimate success. The technical assistance cycle as outlined by Levine, Razak, and Kettering (1984) consists of seven steps:

1. **Identifying the Need**: a formal needs analysis conducted by content area experts to determine that the type of technical assistance being requested is actually the type of technical assistance needed. The needs analysis should address such issues as determining if the request for training is the result of skill or knowledge deficiencies, it is concerned with new or existing technology and does it outline what types of formalized training (if any) will be needed (Mager, 1984). The training needs analysis must be completed prior to any project design functions.

2. **Requesting Assistance**: a written request for technical assistance made by the host country to the donor agency. Draft a project agreement that specifies the responsibilities and obligations of the host country government and the donor agency (CID, 1986).
Figure 6. Technical assistance cycle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Identifying Need</th>
<th>Requesting Assistance</th>
<th>Defining and Writing Scope of Work</th>
<th>Identifying TA Team</th>
<th>Carrying Out Technical Assistance</th>
<th>Evaluating Technical Assistance</th>
<th>Following up Technical Assistance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary Responsibility</strong></td>
<td>1,2</td>
<td>1,2</td>
<td>2,3,4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1,2</td>
<td>1,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Major Secondary Roles</strong></td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2,3)</td>
<td>(1,2)</td>
<td>(3,4,5)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organization of key actors:
1 - Host Institution in LDC
2 - Donor Agency Field Office
3 - Donor Agency Headquarters
4 - Technical Assistance Contractor or Agency HQ
5 - Members of Technical Assistance Team

Source: "Getting the right people on board," David B. Levie et al., 1984.
3. **Defining and Writing the Scope of the Work:** identification and documentation of what needs to be done, who will be doing it, and when it will be done. All-stakeholder agreements on who will provide which project resources, when they will be provided, in what quantity and of what quality. All-stakeholder agreed upon job descriptions and selection criteria for each technical assistance position must be developed (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Poley, 1985; White, 1984).

4. **Identifying a Technical Assistance Team:** technical assistance teams recruited and selected in accordance with all-stakeholder agreed upon selection criteria. Technical assistance teams must be selected in consideration of individual technical and interpersonal skills which will compliment the project culture in which they will be working.

5. **Carrying Out Technical Assistance:** comprehensive project and training designs must be completed, altered or updated. Host country colleagues must be selected and trained, host country training participants must be selected, instructors must be trained and the training must be implemented (Levine et al., 1984).

6. **Evaluating Technical Assistance:** conduct early, consistent and frequent technical assistance evaluations. Conduct in-house and contracted formative evaluations throughout the life of the project.
Conduct a contracted summative evaluation at the completion of the project. Document findings for use as lessons learned and planning tools for subsequent projects (CID, 1986).

7. **Follow-Up on Technical Assistance**: conduct formal follow-up to the mid-term and final evaluation. Document formal responses to the findings, conclusions and recommendations from a project perspective. Implement the required changes (CID, 1986).

Levine et al. (1984) proposed that each stage of the technical assistance cycle must be accomplished in support of the overall process if a project is to experience success. For example, a technical assistance team must be "project specific" and take into account the actual needs of the host-country. If a "generic" assistance team approach is used, sustained project success may be jeopardized. However, at the same time, a "project specific" technical assistance team that does not communicate and utilize evaluation on a routine and timely basis may be nothing more than a "reactive body" without the benefit of direction. A lack of communication tends to promote a maze of patchwork fixes that ultimately will end up burdening the project with inefficiency, loss of credibility and low morale among all stakeholders (Levine et al., 1984; Poley, 1985).

A flexible or rolling project design consisting of a well agreed upon, communicated and documented technical assistance cycle must be an integral part of any international development project. Project management is most successful when it is designed as a learning process. Instead of thinking of a project as a
fixed series of chronological steps, managers and designers must integrate the planning, implementation and evaluation stages to allow learning and change to occur continually throughout the entire process (White, 1984; Poley, 1985). Projects must have built-in "structured flexibility" (Meiman et al., 1987). A lack of these characteristics greatly reduces the productivity and success factor for any project.

ACCULTURATION AS A MANAGEMENT TOOL

As international development project management continues to come of age, the technology, support systems, cultures and working environments have become increasingly more sophisticated and complex. This phenomenon will be further exacerbated by the most recent round of social changes throughout the world. Social change has resulted in LDCs demanding a greater role in deciding their destinies (Acker & Kearns, 1988); LDCs are no longer satisfied to "just accept" foreign aid and development packages without having more say in how the aid is distributed.

Host country officials are now better educated in the matters of political policy, economics, commerce and agriculture, as well as social and cultural preservation. They want to play a greater role in the design, implementation and operation of their development programs. These changing attitudes are mandating that each development project be viewed separately, on its own merits,
and that project managers begin rethinking their approach to international training projects (Acker & Kearns, 1988).

In their paper, "Getting projects started," Acker and Kearns (1988) outline seven key characteristics which they believe international development projects need to consider in order to meet present and future host country expectations. These characteristics include better educated host country colleagues; more reliance on lessons learned from past projects; recognizing that developing nations are taking charge of their own destinies; acute awareness of actual economic need by both the donor and host country; more emphasis placed on what is actually being received for the dollars invested; a larger role in the decision making loop being played by the host country; host-country colleagues insistance on expanding their involvement in all decision making processes.

Many of the current writings regarding international project development tend to stress the importance of a more human-orientated approach to project management--an approach that features smaller and more diversified technical assistance teams (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Kettering, Razak, & Levine, 1985; Poley, 1985). Managers and technical assistance team members will no longer be able to rely solely upon their disciplinary skills. Future international training project managers and technical assistance teams will be required to take on the additional roles of partner, confidant, mentor and helper while serving as the sponsoring organization's ambassador. In essence, future project managers and technical assistance teams will have to be "people persons."
THE HUMAN SIDE OF PROJECT MANAGEMENT

As the world tends toward a more humanistic orientation, the international development arena is trying to align itself similarly. The practice of stakeholders relying solely upon the technical skills of the project technical assistance team to satisfy all project needs is rapidly becoming unacceptable. Prudent project stakeholders are developing a vast awareness of, and a demand for, the use of the people skills that have become an integral dimension at every level of international development.

Current international training projects are more complex due to the practice of utilizing many short-term content experts who "do what they do well" but are not necessarily well prepared to work in a team-oriented environment. Many times these experts have not been given the necessary orientation to enable them to consider the big picture. Often these individuals are not accustomed to working closely with other content experts of equal stature and have not been adequately prepared for the cultural, political and social interaction expected of them. Acceptance of the "expert" and "do what they do well" mentality generally results in decreased cost-effectiveness and project achievement. In addition, limited learning from evaluations of project performance, loss of credibility by the implementing and donor organizations and high staff turnover rates often result (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984; Poley, 1985).

Moran (1988) wrote of the importance of empathy to both the adjustment and success of international managers. Moran believes that the ability to express
empathy varies. While some individuals clearly display a sense of empathy, others are unable to project even the slightest superficial interest.

Moran (1988) uses the Japanese word *omoiyari* to express the idea of empathy. In general, *omoiyari* means "understanding." However, through the use of body language, the ability to listen and personal actions, it also implies a communication of non-verbal rapport and acceptance. The empathetic manager has the ability to recognize and accept international cultures as they are and is additionally able to communicate that acceptance in meaningful and appropriate ways.

A study investigating the major dimensions of intercultural effectiveness suggests that the affective component of an expatriate's cross-culture attitude can be conceptualized as the "degree of third-culture perspective" (Gudykunst, Wiseman, & Hammer, 1977). This third-culture perspective is a psychological perspective that the expatriate uses in interpreting and evaluating intercultural situations. This approach is neither the host country's perspective or the expatriate's perspective. Rather, it is a frame of reference for understanding intercultural interactions in general. The third-culture perspective acts as a psychological link between the expatriate's own cultural perspective and the perspective of another culture. The seven most prominent third-culture perspective elements are: open-mindedness toward new ideas and experiences; the ability to have empathy for people of the host culture; accuracy in perceiving differences and similarities between the expatriate and host culture; being non-
judgmental; astute non-critical observations of their own and other people's behavior; the ability to establish relationships with people in the host country; and being less ethnocentric. The implications of the study by Gudykunst et al. (1977) suggests that empathy for, and the ability to communicate with, host country nationals should be of primary concern when planning intercultural training programs.

Ruben and Kealey (1977) have listed empathy, or the ability to develop and maintain a positive human relationship in the cross-cultural context, as one of their seven representative interpersonal and social communication skills. Empathy was described by Ruben and Kealey (1977) as "...the capacity to put oneself into another's shoes--or to behave as if one could." The implications of their study are that communication-behavior assessment methods may well prove to be invaluable in the development of recruitment, training and selection of personnel for international training projects (Ruben & Kealey, 1977). Empathy also appears to be of major importance to the development and maintenance of positive human relationships in cross-cultural situations (Cleveland et al., 1960; Gudykunst et al., 1977).

THE PROJECT MANAGER

Project managers are responsible for all of the activities and resources connected with the development project. A manager's job is to have all project resources in the right place at the right time (Acker, 1986). Project managers are
responsible for the success of projects. More specifically, project managers are charged with producing the agreed upon outputs within the specified time and cost restraints (CID, 1986). Additionally, project managers are expected to meet all stakeholder expectations (or at least address them in a satisfactory fashion) and be able to deal with the cultural, social and political issues as they occur. Project managers need to possess the expertise and finesse necessary to ferret out any hidden agendas which might have the tendency to impede project activities. Throughout all of this, project managers must remain flexible and be willing to work with what is, as opposed to what they think ought to be.

In his paper, "Selecting an international project manager: Understanding the management environment," David Acker (1986) discusses a phenomenon which he refers to as the "stakeholder system." The stakeholder system is composed of organizations and agencies who have a vested interest and ownership in the development project and are, in some way, able to influence the project manager's decision-making process. Acker (1986) identifies two components of a stakeholder system that he believes have the greatest potential for influencing a project manager's decision making process: bureaucratic component and orientation component.

The bureaucratic component recognizes that organizational environments and philosophies from within the stakeholder system tend to create excessive policy and regulation restraints (Figure 7). The orientation component acknowledges that cultural, economic, philosophical, political and social
differences can influence stakeholder expectations of the project deliverables (Figure 8).

It is of paramount importance to a project’s success that each project manager be able to identify, understand and effectively deal with these stakeholder influences and expectations. It is equally imperative; however, that the project manager be able to remain oriented, flexible and accommodating to all individuals, in all situations, at all times.

Each project takes on a personality of its own and is unique in that it has its own set of characteristics, goals and objectives. If a project is to be successful, it must meet these goals and objectives in a resourceful and timely manner and yet still meet the needs and expectations of all the stakeholders. It is essential that the project manager be able to demonstrate skill in both the technical and interpersonal areas of project management (Acker, 1986; Poley, 1985).

Acker (1986) also introduced a five step "Project Manager Selection System" which is designed to help project framers match the characteristics and skills of a prospective manager to the requirements of the development project. The five steps of this process are to develop the job description, analyze the biodata, interview the candidates, conduct an assessment center activity, and select the project manager.

Managers who have been characteristically matched to a specific training project tend to be more supportive of the project’s mission, goals and objectives. Additionally, they are highly regarded by the stakeholders and are well suited to
Figure 7. The relationship of project manager to stakeholder: bureaucratic influence.

Figure 8. The relationship of project manager to stakeholder: orientation influences.

participate in the selection of a compatible technical assistance team (Acker, 1986).

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TEAM

Of equal importance to the success of an international training project is the selection of a competent, highly skilled, "people oriented" technical assistance team. Technical assistance team members must possess individual behavioral characteristics which lend themselves naturally toward working with and for people from other cultures with varied backgrounds and beliefs. An assistance team’s coherence and style upon arrival in a host country will have great bearing upon how that team is perceived and accepted by the host country nationals (Kettering, undated; Kettering & Levine, 1986). It is for this reason that technical assistance teams must be closely matched to each project (Kettering, undated; MacKinnon, 1975).

Due to the very nature of international development projects, it is almost a certainty that problems will arise throughout the entire technical assistance cycle. Whether these problems are stakeholder or technically based makes no difference. Ultimately, the technical assistance team’s ability to adjust, improvise and remain open to all possibilities and alternatives that will make the difference between project success and project failure (Poley, 1985).

Selection of the right technical assistance team is imperative to international development project success. Unfortunately, it is the identification
and selection of these teams that is most often underfunded or ignored by the stakeholders (Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984).

In their paper, "Getting the right people on board," Levine et al. (1984) identify five implementation phases of a technical assistance team selection process known as the RASP program, an innovative approach to recruiting, assessing, selecting and preparing technical assistance persons and teams (Figure 9). The five phases are: planning and establishment of selection criteria; recruiting and screening candidates; assessment center activities; selection of the technical assistance; and preparation of the technical assistance. Each phase is essential to the selection of highly qualified technical assistance team personnel.

The ability of candidates to meet or exceed the job criteria on paper and during the interview can no longer be considered sufficient clarification as to an individuals acceptability as an assistance team member. Project directors and managers have come to realize that just possessing certain credentials can no longer be acceptable documentation; the candidate must be able to actually employ those credentials (Kettering, 1984).

Hawes and Kealey (1981) concluded in a study that the best indicator of an individual's overseas technical assistance effectiveness was their command of interpersonal skills. Furthermore, individuals lacking in interpersonal skills were less likely to be effective in the transfer of knowledge and skills to the host country nationals.
Figure 9. Phases of RASP

Technical Assistance Stages

C

Defining and Writing Scope of Work

D

Identifying TA Team

E

Carrying-out Technical Assistance

RASP PHASES

1
Planning and Establishment of Selection Criteria

2
Recruitment and Screening of Candidates

3
Assessment Center

4
Selection of TA Team

5
Preparation of A Team

ASSESSMENT CENTERS

Anytime more than one individual or organization is involved in a project, there will quite naturally be just as many ideals, interpretations and expectations as to what aspects of the project are most important. This phenomenon is no less true when it comes to staffing technical assistance teams for international training projects. Each individual stakeholder has a certain vision as to what a technical assistance team should emulate. These visions must all be synthesized and a popular vision agreed upon by all parties. Additionally, there are political, cultural and social expectations associated with each project which also must be addressed and agreed upon. If the technical assistance team is not shaped according to the cultural criteria, chances for its (as well as the project's) continued success are greatly diminished (Kettering & Levine, 1986).

While good interpersonal skills are essential, there is no absolute guarantee that candidates will be able to cope with the rigor and stress of multi-cultural situations. Primitive living conditions, poor communication abilities and the isolation felt during many international assignments lend further credence to the necessity of establishing and implementing technical assistance team assessment centers. Assessment centers must be an integral part of the selection process for technical assistance team members (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Kettering & Levine, 1986; Poley, 1985; White, 1984). MacKinnon (1975) defines assessment as:

[A] method for the psychological evaluation of individuals that involves testing and observing of individuals in a group setting, with a multiplicity of tests and procedures, by a number of staff members. Through a pooling of test scores and subjective impressions, the assessors formulate
psychodynamic descriptions of the assesses' behavior in certain kinds of roles and situations (p. 1).

The assessment center methodology is a popular process which readily accommodates the need for all-stakeholder participation in the team selection process. The assessment center strategy lends itself nicely to the need for matching individual, team and project characteristics to the host country culture. Assessment centers allow for an in-depth assessment of how each candidate's overall qualifications and characteristics match-up to a specified position, in a specified situation, and under specified circumstances. Assessment center activities allow the interviewers an opportunity to determine the candidate's attitudes, management qualities, cultural sensitivity and other related qualities (Acker & Kearns, 1988). Assessment centers also allow for the easy assessment of actual and/or simulated on the job tasks and technical skills. In addition, information on team interaction skills, how the individual will react to specific cross-cultural themes and, in general, how well the person responds to being a good will ambassador and organizational representative can be determined (Levine, Razak, & Kettering, 1984).

Prior to any actual assessment center activities taking place, however, stakeholder representatives (who may also act as the candidate assessors) must meet to establish job descriptions and the criteria for each position to be filled. This step is likely to be one of the most important, as it allows for clear understanding, clarification and the establishment of position expectations that will be common to, and accepted by, all stakeholders. By agreeing to specific job
descriptions and assignment criteria up front, stakeholders have also laid out a framework of objectives and goals for the assessment center activities. In the words of Levine, Razak, and Kettering (1984), "In general, candidates will be required to participate in activities that demonstrate their abilities to interact with organizations and political structures relevant to the assignment" (p. 26).

During the first phase of assessment center analysis each assessor must review and synthesize data regarding the candidate each are responsible for. The assessor then presents each candidate's profile to the rest of the assessment team. The second phase is conducted as a common effort among all assessors. During this phase all data are discussed, and differences in perception among assessors are completely addressed. The result of this analysis process is the selection of the best qualified candidate for each position to be filled (Levine et al., 1984).

All assessment center activities are structured around the specific project and are presented in the context, spirit and culture of that project. As a result, in addition to providing a reliable method for candidate selection, assessment centers acquaint the successful applicants with initial project information and training needs. At the close of an assessment center activity, successful candidates will have already progressed through that period of adjustment generally needed for indoctrination into new roles, relationships and situations. By the time of selection, team members will have proven that they are capable of working well together as a unit and, as such, will be better suited to addressing the tasks at
hand as a functioning team rather than a disjointed group of individualists (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Poley, 1985; White, 1984).

A final benefit of the assessment center methodology is that the centers can be adapted and designed to address almost any condition, circumstance or special situation that may be desired to accommodate final candidate selection. Assessment center activities should not be viewed as an adversarial experience between the assessors and candidates but rather as a method for identifying potential problem areas which can then be addressed and reacted to accordingly.

TEAM PLANNING MEETINGS (TPM)

To further promote team building and better project understanding the technical assistance team must be provided with a detailed orientation of the program's "big picture," a formalized project description, individual role expectations and assignments and the cultural and social implications associated with the new assignment. This phase actually acts as the catalyst for bringing together and bonding the stakeholders and technical assistance teams (Kettering & Levine, 1986). Through this interaction of vested parties, agreements are struck, and goals, strategies and expectations are agreed upon. In essence, a common language is established, a philosophy is adopted and a sense of shared mission is developed (Poley, 1985).

Acker and Kearns (1988) in their paper, "Management and implementation of development projects: Getting projects started," discuss the importance of pre-
departure orientation and team building. They believe that team dynamics are critical to the initial technical assistance team development process. The team building process should include clear definition of areas of responsibility, team building exercises, case study approaches to technical assistance, techniques for communication with the host-country national and an objective understanding of the project outcome (Acker & Kearns, 1988). One method of accomplishing this orientation is through the use of team planning meetings (Kettering, 1984).

Team planning meetings (TPMs) are a logical extension of the assessment center activities. Through the use of TPM it is possible to develop a systematic approach to linking interventions to organizational programs while at the same time preparing individuals for specific assignments (Kettering & Levine, 1986).

Without proper orientation, technical assistance teams inevitably run into many "preventable" or at least manageable problem areas. Technical assistant professionals of different disciplines have different problem-solving and work techniques, different expectations and different communication styles and skills. The lack of proper orientation and pre-assignment training for these professionals will likely encourage multiple problem areas which will ultimately affect the credibility, effectiveness and morale of the entire project. Through the use of TPM, differences can be addressed up-front and melded into non-issues. Technical assistance teams are then able to work effectively and efficiently as a single body and in a unified effort (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Kettering & Levine, 1986; Poley, 1985).
In their paper, "Team planning meeting (TPM) methodology: A strategy for improving the effectiveness of consulting, action planning and team building in international development," Kettering and Levine (1986) define the TPM methodology as an organized and facilitated process by which a group of persons responsible for an assignment come together in a concentrated effort to define, plan for and mobilize to accomplish work. They further describe the two principal TPM dimensions as the task functions or what needs to be accomplished and how, and team effectiveness or the melding of team members into a synergistic temporary organization.

The major objectives of team planning meetings are: to achieve agreement about all aspects of the project; to reach a common understanding of the overall program and project context; to develop an awareness and sensitivity to cultural characteristics and organizational factors; to establish team process and linkages with sponsoring organizations and clients; to resolve organizational issues; and to assure that logistical and administrative arrangements are understood and in place (Kettering, 1984; Kettering & Levine 1986).

Team planning meetings take a third-party stance and serve as a buffer zone when the participants are trying to reach common ground and understanding regarding certain issues. Team planning meetings also provide for placing the project, individual and organizational obligations into context with the larger program. Finally, TPM fosters the building and maintenance of team efforts, have a tendency to build upon prior assignment knowledge that was initiated during the
assessment center activities, and tend to stress anticipating possible problems, solutions, implications of those solutions and alternatives (Kettering, 1984; Kettering & Levine, 1986).

The structural elements of TPM methodology as outlined by Kettering and Levine (1986) are the start-up; creating a common context and background; clarifying the assignment; clarifying individual and team roles; developing initial workplans; developing team operational norms, team building and team strengthening; identifying and addressing administrative, logistical and contractual issues; and identifying and planning next steps and resolving loose-end issues. A major benefit realized from the use of the TPM methodology is that the team (which has already been chosen and organized) develops as a single unit and is better prepared to function cooperatively in the field. The overall result of this heightened team spirit is that morale and effectiveness are increased. The technical assistance team is made aware of the up-and-down sides of the project, knows how to anticipate and correct probable problems and is versatile, flexible and adaptable. A major benefit of the TPM methodology is that teams come to the assignment site informed, resigned and committed to the project.

THE TRANSFER OF APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGY

For the purpose of this guide, appropriate technology is defined as any tool, idea, or technique that is able to meet (at least in part) the individual, political, social and cultural needs and expectations of the lessor developed
country into which it is being introduced (Butterfield, 1982). Culture is a group's characteristic manner of perceiving its social environment. It consists of the learned patterns of thought and behavior characteristic of a population or society (Harris, 1971). Culture directly affects each society's social, political, religious and moral beliefs. This is especially so in the non-Western cultures commonly associated with LDC training projects (Goulet, 1977).

Culture is a learned event; it is not genetic. Children are born without culture and therefore must be taught the structures and expectations of their particular culture. Culture must be learned by new members of a society in order for cultural traditions to be carried forward. For the transfer of appropriate technology to take place, both formal and informal educational experiences are necessary to provide children with the skills, attitudes and outlook on life necessary to participate as adults in their culture (Derr, 1968).

Within the context of culture and the transfer of appropriate technology to LDCs, three very important influences come into play: the appropriateness of technology is directly related to the stakeholder's perceived needs, a culture base in support of the technology must be established through education and as the purveyors of technology transfers, international training efforts should be considered the agents of change within the host country culture (Goulet, 1977).

Many times the transfer of a technological event triggers a bitter-sweet response. Most transfers result in some ecological, economic or social benefit to the culture to which it is being transferred. However, a disadvantage is that
generally a portion of the receiving culture’s belief and value structure may need to be sacrificed, or at least altered, in order to accommodate such transfers. In many cases these deep-seeded cultural, religious, political and social beliefs are ignored during project design in favor of the more popular Western efficiency stance (Goulet, 1977).

A society’s rate and direction of change are greatly affected by the needs its members perceive. For example a culture’s subjective appreciation for a certain technology will directly translate into its perceived appropriateness. All training projects hosted in support of the technology will be affected in a like manner as well.

In order for any society to accept and maintain new technologies, a sound recipient cultural base must be developed in support of each specific technology. The LDC society needs a background of prior knowledge in order to utilize fully the potential of new skills and ideas. Given a strong cultural base, the LDC society is then not only able to use the technology more efficiently, but in addition, it will be able to transfer those ideas and skills toward the development and improvement of other technologies (Goulet, 1977).

Finally, as purveyors of training projects which support technology transfer, managers should be cognizant of the “change agent” factor. As agents of change, many international training projects may be viewed by the host country nationals as threatening because they are involved in what is perceived as a disruption to the cultural continuity that has lasted, in many cases, for hundreds or thousands of
years (Derr, 1968). For this reason, great care must be taken in the design and implementation of international training activities. Tradition is a powerful force in most world cultures. In many cases a training project involves a certain amount of tampering with tradition. Managers must be certain that training projects are designed and implemented in such a manner that they enhance, rather than threaten, the cultural beliefs and values of the host country.

An imposed training project which does not take into account these cultural factors will either fail miserably or have drastic negative effects on the long-term stability of the host country culture. Two examples of this are the Hopi of Northern Arizona (Eggan, 1987; Mahan, 1987; Whiteley, 1988) and the Cook Islanders of Polynesia (Beaglehole, 1957, Graves, 1978). In both cases the educational projects introduced were a part of the traditional American system and did not conform to the traditional patterns of life in the host cultures. Due to a lack of cultural sensitivity (i.e., Total Project Acculturation) both the Hopi Tribe and the Cook Islanders suffered cultural, economic and personal sacrifice.
III. LEARNING AND CULTURAL IMPLICATIONS

INTRODUCTION

More than fifty years ago the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia entered into what may have been one of the most aggressive technological build-ups in modern times. There were two factors that contributed most significantly to the start of this build-up: 1) the 1938 discovery of one of the world's largest known oil reserves, and 2) the gift in 1945, of a twenty passenger Douglas DC3 airliner from President Roosevelt to King Abdoul Aziz. The discovery of oil provided the Kingdom with a badly needed export commodity and the introduction of the airplane revolutionized transportation both within as well as across Saudi borders. Within a window of less than eight years, a little known, grossly underdeveloped country located on one of the hottest and least productive peninsulas in the world began its technical trek into the future.

In order to grasp the magnitude and swiftness of Saudi Arabia's technical evolution, consider the information related in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total National Revenue</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1945</td>
<td>20 million U.S. $</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>120 Billion U.S. $</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To achieve this unprecedented gain in national revenue, the Saudi government has relied heavily on imported technology, foreign developed training programs, foreign trainers and foreign technical assistance and supervision. Over five decades have passed since their technical trek began, yet the Saudis are still heavily dependent on expatriate assistance to guide much of their development efforts (The Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia, 6th Ed, 1983). How could this be?

The explanation lies neither in the complexity of the imported technologies or its support systems nor in the intelligence factor of the host country training project participants. Rather, the researcher believes that the solution may lie in the processes used for the planning and design of their foreign developed training projects. The preparation and orientation of technical assistance team members and the training of the participants are critical to any success.

In order for a learning situation to be effective, it must be culturally relevant and learner friendly. Research (Kolb, 1976, 1984, 1985; Kolb, Rubin, & McIntyre, 1979) suggests that the most effective learning is that which emanates from personal experiences. It is the researcher’s belief that many international training organizations are failing to reach their full potential simply because they are not acculturating their learning environments, curriculum, training materials and technical assistance efforts to the host country’s culture.
TOTAL PROJECT ACCULTURATION (TPA) AS A LEARNING TOOL

During the past two decades the increased internationalization of industry, and of society in general, has prompted much research in the areas of cultural differences and organizational trends (Malpass, 1977; Triandis, Malpass & Davidson, 1973). Despite this on-going research, little in the way of definitive policy and procedure has been formalized. This is mostly due to a lack of agreement on adequate standards for the measurement of cultural differences (Barrett & Bass, 1976; Roberts, 1970).

International training project designers have customarily designed their projects to take into account only host country national differences—the cultural differences internationally. Research that takes into consideration the individual subjective cultures and their effects on individual learning has largely been ignored. Furthermore, many projects are failing to recognize the implications of the intangible and subjective aspects of the diverse cultural environments in which they operate. Training projects are failing to fully address the relationship between subjective cultures, learning styles and learning environments.

Total Project Acculturation (TPA) involves expanding project design and development efforts to include consideration of individual cultural differences and the impact that those differences have on learning styles and leaning environments (Figure 10). Not only does TPA consider national differences across countries, it addresses the subjective culture systems (beliefs and values) within a particular segment of society as well.
Figure 10. Acculturation as a learning tool

TOTAL PROJECT ACCULTURATION

Culturally Adapted Management and Learning Methodologies

Individual

Learning Styles
Subjective Culture
National Culture

Adaptive Learning Environment

Project

Management Instruction
Project Culture

IMPROVED EFFECTIVENESS & PROJECT SUSTAINABILITY
Research (Hayes & Allison, 1988; Kolb, 1976, 1984, 1985; Kolb et al., 1979; Sugarman, 1985) suggests that culture does in fact play a major role in the manner in which all individuals perceive and internalize information. The purpose of this chapter is to support the premises that: 1) subjective cultural differences do affect learning styles of the international adult learner and 2) through the use of the TPA methodology, these differences can be identified and accommodated within boundaries in any new or existing international training project design model.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

Previous research has concluded that in regards to cultural differences and organizational activities the definition of culture has been too broad. The tendency of empirical literature has been to view the term "culture" simply as a synonym for nation. What has been called cross-cultural differences have really been cross-national differences (Bhagat & McQuaid, 1982).

Triandis et al. (1972) suggested a clear distinction between the two types of culture. According to Triandis et al., national differences such as transportation, industry, technology and ecology (infrastructure) are classified as objective or national culture. More intangible external factors such as values, norms, roles and beliefs are considered to be subjective culture. This definition of subjective culture tends to provide a more rigorous basis for the distinction and interpretation of differences between people (Bhagat & McQuaid, 1982).
Strong cultural differences can be found among groups within the same country (Bhagat, 1979; Graham & Roberts, 1972; Miller, 1965; Roberts, 1970; Triandis, 1976). Two national groups may enjoy similar language, climate and ecology but have major differences in their subjective cultures. These subjective cultural differences result in differences in their beliefs, attitudes, facts, values and ideological systems. A case in point are African-Americans who exist in a cultural world sufficiently distinct from most realms of life to be usefully regarded as a separate culture rather than a subculture (Hannerz, 1969).

Triandis et al. (1972) defines subjective culture as a group’s characteristic way of perceiving its social environment. How an individual perceives their immediate surroundings. Most international training projects approach culture as an analysis of the differences between nations with little regard to national, regional or individual subjective cultural differences.

**LEARNING THEORY**

A precursor to understanding the subjective cultural affects on individual learning styles is to understand the learning process. Kolb’s (1976, 1985) theory of experiential learning helps to provide such an understanding.

The underpinnings for Kolb’s theory of experiential learning are two dimensional: a concrete-abstract dimension which indicates the learners preferred type of situation in a learning activity and an active-reflective dimension which represents the preferred type of learning role. The concrete-abstract dimension
ranges from involvement that is tangible, well defined and concrete to involvement that is highly analytical or abstract. The active-reflective dimension's domain lies between a strictly observational role to one of active participation.

Kolb's Model for Experiential Learning (1976, 1985) describes a sequential, four stage, effective learning (or teaching) cycle (represented by the outer perimeter of the diagram in Figure 11) in which new experiences are translated into concepts. Identified concepts are then used to guide the choices for additional new experiences. Each stage of the learning cycle requires the learner to use a different set of skills. These skills require the learner to function in either the left-brain (analytical) or right-brain (involvement) hemisphere. For example, Kolb suggests that an immediate new experience is the basis for the reflection and observation (RO). Reflective observation leads to the assimilation of concepts and ideas or the abstract conceptualization stage (AC). A conceptual understanding of the experience (AC stage) leads to the active experimentation (AE) stage in which testing of the concepts occur. Finally, it is this testing and practice of the ideas and concepts that leads to the concrete experience (CE) stage in which the new knowledge and skills are adapted to yet another new experience and the cycle starts over again (Figure 11).

Accordingly, for effective learning to take place, the learner must: 1) approach a new experience openly and without biasness (CE); 2) be able to analyze and conceptualize the experience (RO); 3) understand and incorporate the ideas and concepts into a logical theory (AC); and finally, 4) test those
Figure 11. Kolb's model of experiential learning and the four learning style preferences.


INDIVIDUAL LEARNING STYLES

Using his Model for Experiential Learning as a basis, Kolb developed a learning taxonomy called the "Four Learning Style Preferences." The purpose of this taxonomy is to show the relationship that exists between Kolb’s four learning domains and the preferred learning styles of four characteristically different types of individuals. These individual types are identified through type indicator testing as: 1) divergers; 2) assimilators; 3) convergers; or 4) accommodators. The individual types are represented by the terms inside the Experiential Learning Model in Figure 11.

The horizontal axis which connects the active-experimentation and reflective-observation domains indicates the individual’s preferred involvement in a learning situation. The vertical axis extending between the concrete-experience and abstract-conceptual dimensions indicates the individual’s preferred type of learning situation. These crossed axes form the four preferred learning style quadrants, or Kolb’s Four Learning Style Preferences. Each quadrant keynotes a preferred learning style.

When Kolb’s Four Learning Style Preferences are superimposed over Kolb’s Model of Experiential Learning (Figure 11), it is quite easy to reference the characteristics of each preferred learning style. For example, by examining
the upper right quadrant it can be determined that a diverger personality would prefer a reflective to active involvement in a concrete to abstract learning situation. A similar process is used to profile the learning characteristics for convergers, assimilators, and accommodators.

Because each learner is different, learning style preferences will vary along both the involvement and situation axis. Each preference clearly indicates a different approach to learning (style) and a different type of involvement in the learning process.

No single position on the dimensional range is better or worse. Each position has its own strengths and weaknesses and its appropriate place within the learning cycle. Every individual has certain ways in which they tend to learn best, and not every individual is comfortable using every dimension. As a result, each person develops an individual preferred method for learning (Kolb, 1976, 1984, 1985; Kolb et al., 1979).

Kolb believes that each individual is capable of learning to learn by using any of the four dimensional domains. He further suggests that individuals are capable of adapting to almost any learning situation but that one dimension of learning may not be as effective or motivating as another. According to Kolb, effective, comprehensive learning requires flexibility. During a typical learning experience, learners must move through all of the dimensional phases of the learning model "...from being active to observers and from being directly involved to being analytically detached" (Sugarman, 1985, p. 246).
Honey and Mumford (1982) describe learning by experience as a four-stage process: 1) having the experience; 2) reviewing the experience; 3) concluding from the experience; and 4) planning the next step. It is similar in structure to Kolb's theory in that it suggests that certain learning situations require certain learning styles. Other studies have also generally supported Kolb's theory of learning (Boot & Boxer, 1980; James, 1980; Morris, 1980); however, unlike Kolb, Honey and Mumford do not believe that effective learning is necessarily a sequential process.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND LEARNING STYLES

A study conducted in 1988 by Hayes and Allison explored the effects that cultural differences have on the learning styles of individuals across national boundaries. The target population for this study was a group of mid-career managers from three different countries: East Africa, India and the United Kingdom.

The implications of their study suggests that there are important differences in the learning styles between these three countries. For example, in the two learning style dimensions of action and analysis, there were clearly differences demonstrated by each culture. India rated much higher in the analysis dimension than did either East Africa or the United Kingdom. The British rated higher in the action dimension (Hayes & Allison, 1988).
The Hayes and Allison study was unique in that it adopted the suggestion of Bhagat and McQuaid (1982) in considering cross-cultural differences (subjective culture) rather than national differences as a barometer of beliefs, values and attitudes. This approach is thought by Bhagat and McQuaid to be most effective because it is concerned with the systematic study of the behaviors and experiences of organizational participants in different cultures.

Also supporting the learning style and subjective culture theory is a cross-cultural study conducted by Hofstede in 1984. Hofstede developed a framework for analyzing similarities and differences of work related values by analyzing 60,000 individuals working for a single multinational company in 40 countries.

Through his study, Hofstede clearly identified four distinct dimensions along which national cultures tend to exhibit differences: 1) power distance (concerned with human inequality); 2) uncertainty avoidance (the tolerance for uncertainty); 3) individualism/collectivism (relationship between the individual and the collectivity of a given society); and 4) masculinity/femininity (the extent to which the dominant values of the society are masculine).

Both Hayes & Allison, 1988 and Hofstede, 1984 clearly support the theory that cultural differences do affect individual learning styles and that these cultural differences are identifiable and measurable.
LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Effective and comprehensive learning requires flexibility on the part of the learner. To achieve comprehensive learning, the learner must progress through and spend equal amounts of time in all four dimensions of the learning cycle (Kolb, 1976, 1984, 1985; Kolb et al., 1979; Sugarman, 1985). In other words, throughout any learning cycle, if comprehensive learning is to take place, the learner must traverse the entire domain of the learning situation dimension, from concrete experience to abstract conceptualization. In a similar fashion, the learner must experience the entire domain of the learning involvement dimension, from active experimentation to reflective observation.

Subjective culture affects each individual’s perception of, and reaction to, their surroundings (Hayes & Allison, 1988; McCarthy, 1990). In other words, a learner’s prior knowledge base, social or religious influences, as well as individual interests and background relevancy, will all have an effect on how the individual approaches problem solving and learning. These preferred interests and approaches will in turn influence the individual’s preferred style for learning. Progression through the learning cycle places different levels of skill demands upon the learner and requires the use of both the right-brain (involvement) and left-brain (analytical) hemispheres (McCarthy, 1990).

Not all learners are comfortable or skilled at working within all dimensions of the learning cycle. As a result, preferred learning styles encourage the learner to pass quickly through those learning dimensions in which they are
uncomfortable or unskilled in favor of working longer in those dimensions in which they are the most comfortable. Unfortunately, this does not lead to comprehensive learning (Kolb, 1976, 1984, 1985; McCarthy, 1990).

To be effective, learning environments must not only be matched with individual learning styles, but they must encourage learning to take place in all dimensions of the learning cycle. Individuals can learn to learn, and, as with any other skill, learning can be improved upon with practice. Curriculum and activities must be employed as well as diverse learning strategies which will allow for this all-dimensional type of practice. According to McCarthy (1990), "Learners must sense and feel, they experience, then they reflect, then they think, they develop theories, then they try out theories, they experiment" (p. 33).

CURRICULUM AND EVALUATION

In many Western societies, cultural change is anticipated and even encouraged. In many Western industrialized societies, cultural change is considered a signal of economic benefit and gain. However, this generally does not prove to be the case in most non-Western cultures.

Cultural change, as viewed by non-Western society, is seen as a discontinuity of the cultural values, beliefs and underpinnings of a way of life that has preceded them by thousands of years in many cases. Even more threatening to these societies are the voids created by efforts of project planners to eliminate and/or alter certain cultural components without due consideration of the short
and long term implications. Many Western societies have comparatively shallow roots with the past and have no real understanding of what it means to be a member of a society with strong cultural ties to their past (Goulet, 1977).

Forcing cultural change without regard to history, tradition, or cultural ties has not been effective in the past and is not likely to be in the future. Spindler (1955) stated:

Culturally transitional populations...are characterized by conflict, and in most severe forms, demoralized and disorganized. Institutions are in a state of flux. Contradictory views of life are held by different groups and persons within the society. Hostilities are displaced, attacks are made on one group by another (p. 138).

If international training projects are to be effective and sustainable, they must be responsible to the participant's individual culture and needs.
International training project cost-benefit calculations must involve more than just a synthesisization of project resources on a monetary basis; they must additionally consider the long and short term subjective cultural balances.

**EMIC VS. ETIC: UNDERSTANDING THE HOST COUNTRY CULTURE**

When developing a cultural specific project it is essential that project designers have a thorough understanding of the host country culture. In most cases this requires the establishment of an empirical evaluation of that culture. In addition to conducting a study of the national differences effecting the culture, this analysis should also include a study of the host country's beliefs, values, religious implications, ideologies, task descriptions and all of the other intangible
variables that make up the host country's subjective cultural structure. During the past five decades much controversy has been generated as to the appropriate and most credible methodology for gathering this information. At the crux of this controversy is the appropriateness of the emic-etic approach to the study of cross-cultural aspects (Harris, 1971; Pelto, 1970).

Traditionally, cross-cultural studies have addressed the ideal versus the actual behavior of a culture. The ideal/actual approach assumes that there is one set of patterned regularities stating what people say or believe they should be doing, and another set stating what they actually do (Harris, 1971). This approach does not readily lend itself to the verification of data stated by the evaluator. In other words, is the cultural analysis of the researcher accurate? Does this assessment actually measure what is taking place in the host country culture?

The methodology used in cross-cultural studies may be as important as the study itself. The type and accuracy of the information received is greatly dependant upon the research approach. This is especially relevant in the study of subjective culture. The etic-emic approach to the study of culture is a two-dimensional assessment: one dimension considers the host country informant's appraisal and the second assessment is made by an external observer.

Simply stated, the etic approach to cross-cultural study strives to describe social phenomena in relative, culture-free, universal terms, using variables that can be generalized across cultures. The emic approach attempts to describe a culture by examining in depth the historical and social developments that have
caused the culture to evolve as it has (Bhagat & McquaId, 1982; Pike, 1966). The basic concept of the etic-emic approach to cultural research suggests that the etic deals with cultural materialism, while the emic deals with cultural idealism (Harris, 1971).

These definitions of the etic and emic approach to cross-cultural study give rise to a natural, logical link to the subjective and objective cultural distinctions (Triandis et al., 1972). The etic (materialistic) approach takes on a third party, external observational stance. It aligns itself with the study of the objective or national (infrastructure) culture. The emic (idealistic) approach deals directly with the observations of an informant from within the host-country culture and appears to be well suited for the study of a society or individual’s subjective culture.

An inherent danger with any research is that in the quest for unbiasness, the research may become skewed and so sterile that it does not reflect the true nature of the conditions as they really are. For example, a strictly etic approach may tend to gloss over a particular ideology or value that has great significance to the underpinnings of a specific culture. Similarly, information retrieved through an entirely emic approach, from the so called “informed” informant, may well be a one-sided, individualistic perception of that society. Depending on this individual’s perceptive qualities, this may or may not be representative of the culture (Harris, 1971).
Training project cultural studies must be fitted with a system of checks and balances which will avoid such misconceptions. Pelto (1970) stated:

While emic studies, through componential or other semantic analysis, often provide significant guides to realistic "native" definitions of units of observation, these must be fitted to the researcher's cross-cultural (etic) concepts in order to test general propositions about human behavior (p. 86).

The etic/emic approach to the study of culture offers such a system of checks and balances.
IV. A MANAGER’S GUIDE FOR PLANNING INTERNATIONAL TRAINING USING TOTAL PROJECT ACCULTURATION (TPA)

FOUNDATIONS FOR DEVELOPING THE GUIDE

The foundation for the Project Manager’s Planning Guide is based on the Project Management Institute’s PMI Taxonomy as published in 1983, the 1987 Axelrod & Magisos model for project management and the Total Project Acculturation (TPA) theme developed in Chapters I, II, and III of this thesis. The PMI Taxonomy content for international project management includes: 1) project scope; 2) time management; 3) cost management; 4) product quality; 5) human resource management; and 6) communications. Three additional content areas of significance to international project management, identified by Axelrod and Magisos (1987), were also included in the base model. These content areas are: 1) cultural aspects; 2) legal requirements; and 3) procurement policy. Collectively, these nine content areas represent the infrastructure for a generic international project management model as it is visualized in this thesis.

Within the context of this model, the Total Project Acculturation concept advocates the incorporation of a tenth content area called the "Acculturated Learning Component" (see Figure 12). Whereas the first nine components (represented by those components illustrated above the broken line in Figure 12) address international development project management functions in general, the
Figure 12. Model for international project management depicting the acculturated learning component and total project acculturation

Acculturated Learning Component addresses the training related aspects most often associated with international development projects.

THE ACCULTURATED LEARNING COMPONENT

The Acculturated Learning Component promotes four basic project phases which have been designed in support of each other and are permeated with a common cultural element. The four phases are: 1) project inputs; 2) project personnel; 3) project planning and design; and 4) project learning.

Project Inputs: project inputs are the culmination of agreed upon cooperative agendas and commitments of the project stakeholders. The inputs are commitments by individual stakeholders to provide project specific activities, funding, management, procurement support, technical assistance and other related services at specified times, quality and quantity.

Project Personnel: the project personnel phase is concerned with the human or "people" related matters associated with the training project. This phase addresses the selection, activities and responsibilities of the management team, host country colleagues and the technical assistance team. Major steps within this phase include establishing selection criteria and the selection process for all training project cadre, assessment center activities, team planning meetings, personnel orientations and personnel acculturation training.

Project Planning and Design: the project planning and design phase is concerned with the development of course curriculum, training materials and
learning activities. Each step within this phase places the utmost importance on addressing both national and subjective cultural differences. Within this context, all training materials and techniques are made project specific, while at the same time remaining sensitive to individual learning styles. Each step is designed toward promoting a more positive relationship between individual learning styles, project curriculum and learning activities.

Project Learning: the project learning phase involves all learning related areas. This phase stresses the development of culturally acceptable presentation methodologies, safe learning environments and the selection of appropriate training participants. Methods for conducting appropriate individual participant evaluations are also developed.

Each phase of the Acculturated Learning Component is designed to take into consideration individual cultures, learning styles and learning differences. The entire Acculturated Learning Component is self-perpetuating in that ample feedback and evaluation opportunities are provided throughout allowing for continual project adjustments, revisions and upgrade opportunities for all individual and project concerns.

USING THE PROJECT MANAGER'S GUIDE

The Project Manager's Planning Guide is designed to be used as the pathfinder for developing a totally acculturated infrastructure for new or existing international training projects. A series of seven flow diagrams are used to
describe a step-by-step sequence that allows the user to keep track of the acculturation process as it is being developed.

It must be remembered that the Total Project Acculturation concept centers around design flexibility, cultural responsiveness and attention to individual and project specific needs. Therefore, although the planning guide's diagrams present the process as being linear and straightforward with sequential steps, many of the steps may be rearranged or altered to facilitate the acculturation efforts.

Total Project Acculturation is not a rigid formula. Because each project and its participants are unique, users must remain open-minded and forward-thinking. Users may rearrange, alter, add or delete steps as needed to coincide with project specific acculturation needs.

Each phase of the guide consists of a series of steps. Each step is composed of three basic component blocks: 1) the question/decision block; 2) the project special consideration block; and 3) the influence block. Successfully transitioning through these blocks and steps will result in a totally acculturated management phase.

The Question/Decision Block: the question/decision blocks (isometric diamonds in the center of the diagram) contain the actual steps (or activities) to be accomplished within a phase. The activity question is stated in a simple yes or no iterative format. A positive (or yes) resolution to the question signals the user
to move on to the next step in the phase, while a negative response allows an opportunity for feedback and reassessment of the step.

**Project Specific Special Consideration Blocks:** the special consideration blocks (represented by the issue listings on the right side of the diagram) are project specific concerns which should be given special consideration when answering the question block. Obviously, users should identify and list as many project specific issues relating to the question (step) as possible.

**Influence Blocks:** if answering the question results in a negative (or no) response, the user then proceeds to the influence block represented by the isometric rectangular clusters on the left side of the diagram. The influence block highlights certain project variables that have the potential for influencing the outcome of the question being answered. A review, investigation and/or reconsideration of the identified variables may reveal a solution for reaching a positive response to the question.

Always address as many project specific special considerations and influences as possible when working through a step. This will tend to increase the chances for achieving Total Project Acculturation. Also, when reviewing a step, do not be deceived by the first possible cause for a negative finding. Many times these influences are cumulative in nature; therefore, the most obvious may not always be the total solution.
PHASE I: PROJECT INPUTS

1.0 Stakeholder Project Inputs (See Appendix A)

1.1 Develop Agreement on Project Mission: it is essential that each project adopt a goal or mission statement which will provide orientation and direction for all project activities and decisions. All-stakeholder involvement in the development of the project mission statement promotes a clearer, mutual understanding of the project's breadth and scope, identifies a common project goal and provides a sense of early host country ownership of the training project (International Development Management Center and International Program Development Office, 1984; Poley, 1985; White, 1984; Acker & Kearns, 1988).

When stakeholders experience difficulty reaching agreement on the project mission statement, examine the obvious external influences present. Carefully evaluate such influences as individual stakeholder agendas, language barriers and any political cultural, and/or social leverages which might be impeding progress. Examine the stakeholder interest range gap. A substantial interest range gap may indicate a lack of commitment to a portion (or all) of the project by one or more of the stakeholders.

Once the cause(s) for disagreement are apparent, it is then normally possible to work through to a satisfactory conclusion. Achieving stakeholder agreement on one or two elements of lesser importance will greatly enhance the
chances for continued progress that will ultimately yield a suitable project mission statement.

1.2 Develop Agreement on Objectives: project objectives define a series of intended results and/or actions which will ultimately lead to achieving the project’s goal(s). Without clearly defined objectives there is no basis for a meaningful project design process (Mager, 1962, 1975, 1984). Meaningful, all-stakeholder involvement in establishing the objectives will promote stronger commitment to the mission and lead to better understanding of the overall project design needs (Poley, 1985).

When stakeholders fail to reach consensus on specific project objectives, it is important to review the goal or mission statement, analyze individual agendas (hidden or otherwise) and investigate any political, cultural and social implications which might be adversely influencing the process. Misinterpretations and disagreements regarding processes and outcomes have the potential to waste valuable project resources. Clearly defined objectives help to promote project understanding and the preservation of project resources.

1.3 Develop Agreement on Strategies, Workplans and Schedules: a full understanding of the relationship between project strategies, work plans, budgets and schedules are crucial to the project’s effectiveness and long-term success (Axelrod & Magisos, 1987; Acker 1986). During project planning consideration of all related cultural, political and social aspects are of prime importance. Allowing extra time for dealing with the stakeholder bureaucratic and orientation influences
will help preserve the project's resources and avoid misunderstandings later on (Acker, 1986).

It is important that all agreements are based on a synthesis of stakeholder perspectives. In many cases, the stakeholders lack of a relative knowledge base will prevent a full understanding of a certain technique, schedule or work plan (Goulet, 1977). When this happens, a review of the project goals, objectives and individual stakeholder agendas may help to promote consensus building and agreement. Such a review will also provide the basis for alternative planning and answering the difficult "what if" questions.

1.4 Develop Agreement on Resource Inputs: the type, quantity and timing of project resources is crucial to project effectiveness and success. An advance, concise understanding of who's responsible for what (equipment, funding, manpower, and facilities) is essential. General project resource input commitments should be outlined early in the planning process and the final commitments agreed upon before project implementation (Poley, 1985). Alternate resource input plans should also be drafted early.

External influences such as economics, agendas, level of commitment and politics may affect the negotiations for agreed upon stakeholder resource inputs. The extent to which these influences affect the individual stakeholders ability (or willingness) to commit specific project resources should be thoroughly investigated. Lack of stakeholder commitment identified early on may prevent a crucial deficiency of resources later in the project.
1.5 **Develop Agreement on Policy and Responsibilities:** every project must have an ultimate decision-maker with clearly defined policies and levels of responsibility. For the sake of efficiency and effectiveness these agreements must be reached early in the project cycle, be jointly arrived at and totally agreed upon by all stakeholders (Kettering, undated).

When establishing project policy and hierarchy it is important to remain cognizant of the host country culture, as well as its technical and professional expertise. Political and personal agendas that might tend to adversely influence the cooperative stakeholder decision making process should also be investigated.

Stakeholder inputs are the basis from which all projects are composed. These inputs provide the underpinnings for all that is to come from within the project. Lessons learned from past international training projects indicate that early cooperative stakeholder involvement and consensus building efforts play an important role in the long-term efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability of international training projects (Acker & Kearns, 1988; Poley, 1985; White, 1984).

**PHASE II: PROJECT PERSONNEL**

1.0 **Select Project Manager** (See Appendix B)

1.1 **Develop Agreed Upon Job Description:** the ultimate success of a project depends in part upon a highly qualified, well informed project manager (Acker, 1986). In some cases cultural, political and interpersonal conflicts can lead to the project manager's total ineffectiveness. Possessing the desired
technical, professional and interpersonal skills is no longer an adequate measure of a candidate's capabilities; they must be characteristically and psychologically suited for the assignment as well (Acker, 1986; Levine, et al., 1984).

All-stakeholder participation is desirable when drafting the project manager's job description. An agreed upon list of optimal qualifications which closely align with the technical, interpersonal and professional skills and knowledge required for the assignment is essential. The job description should identify a set of minimum acceptable qualifications for the position as well. In some cultures, special position requirements such as language, gender and religious beliefs, may be factors. These conditions should also be made clear. In an effort to reach stakeholder agreement concerning project manager position qualifications, stakeholders should review the project mission statement or goal(s), all applicable project documentation and lessons learned and project evaluations from comparable projects.

1.2 Develop a Qualified Candidate Pool: qualified project manager candidates may be recruited through a number of sources. Start the recruitment process with an in-house search for qualified candidates; issue personal invitations for application to the position. Networking with other organizations, advertisements in local and regional newspapers, industry publications and professional journals are also an efficient way in which to recruit qualified candidates.
Failure to establish an adequate pool of qualified candidates should lead to a review and/or revision of the minimal and optimal position qualifications. It may be possible to alter (or even omit) certain special job description requirements without compromising the integrity of either the project or the manager's credentials.

1.3 **Develop Favorable Biodata Analysis**: review all vitas to determine those candidates who meet the minimal job description requirements. This may mean re-review until the list has been narrowed to the strongest three to five candidates. Confirm candidates interest in the position and arrange for initial interview (Acker, 1986).

1.4 **Develop Favorable Type Indicator Testing**: by using type indicator testing such as the Learning Styles Inventory (LSI); (Kolb, Rubin, & McIntyre, 1979), the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI); (Myers, 1975) or Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ); (Honey & Mumford, 1982) it is possible to inexpensively determine individual learning and teaching styles and interpersonal attributes (Hayes & Allison, 1988; Honey & Mumford, 1982; Kolb, Rubin, & McIntyre, 1979; Sugarman, 1985). When used as a personnel placement tool, type indicator testing allows project implementers to better match individuals, activities and/or prospective project managers characteristically with a specific international training project. Type testing is also useful in determining what types of training individuals may best respond to. When the perspective manager's preferred type of learning involvement is known, it is possible to present pre-departure
orientations and other project specific training in the most individualized, learner friendly format.

1.5 Develop Favorable Initial Interview: interviewing should be accomplished by two to five individuals. Interview questions should be prepared prior to the interview and each interviewer should record reactions to all questions asked (Acker, 1986). Questioning should encompass an all-stakeholder perspective. All interview data should be analyzed and compared across candidates, as well as across interviewers. Based on this final analysis, make a final determination of those candidates who will take part in the assessment center activities. Release unsuccessful candidates from project consideration.

1.6 Develop Favorable Assessment Center Activity: assessment center activities are designed to help identify the best match between the prospective managers and a specific training project. By using project specific criteria, assessment center activities can (and should) be structured to approximate the actual circumstances under which the candidates will be working. Trained assessors should be used to develop, monitor and assess the candidate's effectiveness to interact with the project specific exercises (Acker, 1986). Such exercises might include examining the candidate's ability to work effectively with/for host country nationals, cross-cultural training frustrations, host country and donor political issues, conflict resolution and emergency situations. Candidates should also be observed working in both group and individual situations.
Assessment center activities, as outlined by Howard (1972), should strive to measure the following behaviors and skills: 1) decision making; 2) organization and planning; 3) initiative; 4) oral and written communication skills; 5) leadership qualities; 6) persuasiveness; 7) originality; 8) analytical ability; 9) controlling; 10) resistance to stress; 11) self direction; 12) behavioral flexibility; and 13) overall potential.

1.7 Develop Favorable Supplemental Information Review: contact all prospective managers listed references. Be cautious about interviewing only current references (these references may be influenced by legal considerations or in-house partisan behavior). Review all assessment center observations, writing samples and any newly acquired supplemental information.

1.8 Develop Favorable Final Analysis and Evaluation: in many cases the "just right" candidate may not be that much different from those candidates not chosen. No matter how objectively the selection process is conducted, the final selection will be influenced to a certain degree by the evaluator's subjectivity. With this in mind, final selection should be made from the composite findings from numerous assessor evaluations. Failure of the candidate to be chosen for the manager's position should in no way be considered a final measure of the candidates worth to the project. Non-selection should be viewed as a case of not needing the candidate at this time for this specific position. All candidates not selected at this level should be considered for alternative project positions such as technical assistance team members or outside project consultants.
2.0 Technical Assistance Team Selection and Training (See Appendix C)

2.1 Develop Agreed Upon Position Descriptions: develop a detailed description for each job classification required for project technical assistance. Descriptions should be technically orientated yet possess much the same rigorous professional and interpersonal requirements that were outlined in the project manager’s position description. The technical assistance team qualifications should be agreed upon by all stakeholders and should reflect the project goals and objectives (Levine et al., 1984).

A review of all appropriate project papers, as well as the project goals and objectives, will serve as a helpful guide when stakeholders are working toward agreement of the job criteria for each technical assistance discipline.

2.2 Develop Qualified Candidate Pool: candidate recruitment for technical assistance should begin with a review of alternate or released project manager candidates and a survey of past technical assistance team members from comparable training projects. Recruitment efforts should include an in-house survey and invitations to apply, where appropriate, industry networking and advertisements in appropriate industry publications and professional journals.

If a shortage of qualified candidates for any project discipline occurs, consider overlapping the job descriptions. This will allow for subtle changes to be made in the minimal qualifications required for a specific job description while at the same time promoting content area depth and additional project flexibility.
2.3 **Develop Favorable Biodata Assessment:** use the same guidelines as those required for the project manager's biodata assessment.

2.4 **Develop Favorable Type Indicator Testing:** due to their direct contact with project training and the training participants, type indicator testing may be even more critical to the selection of technical assistance members than to the selection of a project manager. Type indicator testing can be used to indicate not only how an individual learns best, but also be of value in indicating how an individual will best be able to present material in a teaching situation. Type indicator testing is also valuable as a team building tool by assisting members to know themselves better and gain a better understanding of their team mates and counterparts (Poley, 1985).

2.5 **Develop Favorable Candidate Interview:** candidate interviews should be conducted in much the same manner as when interviewing for a project manager. Additional emphasis should be placed on technical skills, teaching experience and multi-cultural interpersonal skills and experiences.

2.6 **Develop Favorable Assessment Center Activity:** assessment center activities should be conducted in much the same manner as the assessment center activities for project manager (in some cases, the manager and technical assistance team assessment center activities can be conducted as one). Greater emphasis should be placed on technical skills, teaching practices, multi-cultural experiences and interpersonal skills. Emphasis should also be placed on team efforts and group activities. In order to further the team experience the project manager (if
he/she has already been selected) should also be included in all technical assistance assessment center activities.

2.7 **Develop Favorable Supplementary Information Review:** use the same guidelines as used for the project manager’s supplementary information review.

2.8 **Develop Favorable Final Analysis and Evaluation:** when completing the final analysis for the selection of each technical assistance member, it is important to consider any overlapping content area experiences. An entire team’s cumulative overlapping technical experiences may more than make up for a slight short-fall of experience in one or two content areas. Overlapping technical experiences also promotes overall technical assistance team depth.

Filling short-falls with overlapping individual technical expertise tends to foster team work, while at the same time diminishing the individualism that is so often encouraged through the use of specialist job descriptions. When all other job specific standards are met, selected remedial training may also help fill a qualification short-fall. Additionally, after the final selection process has been completed, the technical assistance team should continue to take part in frequent team planning meetings, project specific pre-departure orientation sessions, organized team building efforts and comprehensive, project specific, acculturation training efforts.
3.0 Host Country Colleagues Selection and Training  (See Appendix D)

3.1 Develop All-Stakeholder Agreed Upon Selection Criteria: training project host country colleagues should be selected using basic criteria that are equal in rigor to that used in the selection of all other project cadre (Poley, 1985). Academic accomplishments, career objectives, commitment to the project and technical proficiency should all be taken into consideration.

A review of project goals, objectives, and required technical skills may be helpful in developing agreed upon host country colleague selection criteria. A review of the criteria used in the selection of the project manager and the technical assistance team may also provide needed direction.

3.2 Develop Qualified Candidate Pool: it must be remembered that many times political and cultural agendas may greatly influence the selection of the host country colleagues (Consortium for International Development, 1986). When a candidate fails to meet the specified selection criteria it will be necessary to: identify the most likely cause for the qualification short-fall(s), work through those short-falls by agreeing on minor changes to the position requirements, and provide limited remedial training as needed. In extreme cases, it may be necessary to arrange for an associate or assistant with requisite expertise or renegotiate the nomination of unqualified candidates.

3.3 Develop Favorable Biodata Assessment: it may be necessary to weight the data assessment process in accordance with the cultural aspects of the training project. Quite often evaluation methods are not reliable across cultures (or within
cultures for that matter). This does not mean that the overall qualifications need to be diminished but only modified slightly in order to be more representative of the culture involved.

3.4 **Develop Favorable Candidate Interview:** the candidate’s initial interview should be centered around the agreed upon project qualifications. Effectiveness and long-term stability may ultimately depend on the commitment of host country colleagues to the project’s mission statement and goals. This interview should explore with the candidates their willingness to return to the host country to fulfill their project obligations upon completion of their training cycle. The candidates must also indicate a willingness to enter into non-traditional employment situations, many times with little or no community support (Consortium for International Development, 1986). If the candidate is unsure about making such bold commitments to the project, they should be reassigned or released from the project.

3.5 **Develop Favorable Type Indicator Testing:** each of the candidates should undergo type indicator testing to determine preferred learning styles, how the candidates compare characteristically with the project’s environment and how they might interact with other technical assistance members in the project. These test results are also useful when designing project orientations, team building exercises and the individual candidate’s foreign country training curriculum.

3.6 **Develop Favorable Assessment Center Activity:** to the extent possible, host country colleagues should be included in assessment center activities. Ability
to work and interact with expatriate technical assistants and managers is crucial to the projects success. Because actual project conditions and activities are simulated during assessment center activities, host country colleagues are given an excellent opportunity to actually experience the project before they are put into a decision making role.

3.7 Develop Favorable Final Analysis and Evaluation: a review and analysis of all data concerning each candidate should be conducted before the final selection. If appropriate, remedial training in areas of concern should be provided to those candidates that do not have a favorable final review. Prior to departing for a foreign country training situation the host country colleague should be given comprehensive pre-departure orientations and acculturation training. The candidate should take part in as many project-related team building exercises as possible before departing for their foreign training assignments. Continued orientation, acculturation, and team building support should be given during the entire time that the candidate is involved in the second- or third-country training situation.

PHASE III: PROJECT PLANNING AND DESIGN

1.0 Curriculum, Materials, and Equipment (See Appendix E)

1.1 Develop Identifiable Training Needs: all training curriculum, material and equipment should address the identified training needs. A training needs analysis conducted by content experts, design professionals and host country
representatives should be used as the basis for identifying training needs. Such factors as the project's mission, goal(s) and objectives and the desired training outcomes should be given special consideration during the analysis. A review of the project goal(s) and objectives, any cultural and political implications and desired outcomes may aid in reaching agreement on establishing project training needs.

1.2 Develop Project Specific Training Design: host country colleagues should be included in the design process. If training is to be meaningful it must be presented in a manner which reflects the participant's cultural background and previous knowledge base. Host country colleagues will help guide the training design in a direction that will ultimately identify and accommodate the culturally and socially preferred learning and teaching methodologies. A cooperative design effort will help ensure a training design free of language, cultural and social conflicts (Poley, 1985).

1.3 Produce Training: training modules should be produced to be both culturally acceptable and project specific. For example, it may be necessary to produce training materials in more than one language, add iconic job aids to instructional equipment or produce several different presentation models for the same materials. In addition to addressing individual learner needs, the training design must also take into consideration who will be doing the presenting, under what conditions and where they will be taking place.
1.4 Develop Favorable Testing of Training: to the extent possible, training curriculum should be tested under the same conditions in which they will be administered. Materials should be presented to a control group of host country national participants (students/instructors). The content should be checked for clarity and relevance. Feedback from all participants is important at this point. Problem areas should be addressed and retested prior to a formal release of the project training materials (Dick & Carey, 1990).

1.5 Release Training: after all revisions and adjustments have been made to the training package, a formal trainer seminar should be conducted for the purpose of introducing the finalized materials to the course instructors. The observation, feedback and revision cycle should continue throughout the life of the project. After the initial introduction of the material has been satisfactorily completed periodic observations and feedback opportunities may be reduced, but certainly not eliminated.

1.6 Conduct Training Evaluation: continual training evaluations should be conducted throughout the life of a training project. Barometers such as test scores, student feedback, training outcomes and achievement of established training goals should be considered as evaluation standards. Course content and presentation strategies should be adapted as needed.
PHASE IV: PROJECT LEARNING

1.0 Host Country Training Participants (See Appendix F)

1.1 Develop All-Stakeholder Agreed Upon Selection Criteria: there should be all-stakeholder agreement on the selection criteria to be used for recruitment of the training participants. Because of the political, social and cultural influences that many times tend to affect participant nominations, selection requirements should be agreed upon well in advance of any recruitment efforts (Consortium of International Development, 1986). It must also be remembered that a "common sense" approach should prevail when establishing the selection criteria. A stakeholder review of such factors as the project goal(s) and objectives, desired training outcomes and a realistic assessment of the cultural, social and political influences involved should help produce agreement on a credible set of selection criteria.

1.2 Recruit Qualified Participants: it may be difficult to recruit the host country training participants that have been targeted to receive the training. Reluctance to make change, failure to understand why the training is needed and concerns for their familys' welfare in their absence are but just a few of the reasons why the training may not be popular. For this reason, much attention must be given to the job of promoting the project at both the local and national government levels. Visual backing, not just a local stamp of approval, is essential. The higher the level of official involvement (political and/or social prominence),
the better the chances are that the training will be accepted by the host country participants (White, 1984).

Positive motivators on a more personal level should also be considered. For example training completion certificates, uniforms, lapel pins or badges might all be considered useful participant enticements. In other cases, transportation, food, lodging and gratuities for families may also be required to encourage participation.

1.3 Develop Biodata Assessment: biodata assessments may provide valuable clues as to individual participant needs. Indications of previous experiences and prior knowledge and skill bases are essential if the training is to be acculturated to meet individual needs.

1.4 Conduct Type Indicator Testing: knowing how the training participant prefers to become involved in a learning situation, knowing how participants approach problem solving and knowing personality characteristics are all integral to the Total Project Acculturation methodology.

1.5 Develop Final Analysis and Evaluation: the final analysis should be used as an opportunity to bring together and synthesize the participants' biodata and type indicator testing. The results are then logged in an individual, easy-reference "participant profile."

By carefully consulting the information contained in the participant profile, a strong conclusion regarding a participant's individual learning styles and across-class learning differences is possible. It is from this information that the
appropriate individualized instructional materials and techniques can be designed.

2.0 Learning Environment (See Appendix G)

2.1 Identify Participant Learning Style: learning is greatly influenced by the project's ability to establish a totally acculturated learning environment. In other words, meeting the training participant's needs and expectations. Type indicator testing makes it possible to develop student profiles which identify individual learning styles, preferred involvement in learning activities and other important psychological characteristics. From this profile, technical assistance instructors are able to design individual learning packages that remain project specific and yet still take into account the effects of the participants subjective and national cultures.

2.2 Identify Teaching Style: teaching styles are an integral part of creating safe participant learning environments. Identifying the instructor's teaching style provides a baseline for matching participant training expectations with the instructor's presentation skills. When technical assistance members are cognizant of their normal presenting methodologies, as well as the learning styles of the individual training participants, it becomes more possible to produce effective, totally acculturated training packages on an individual basis.

1.3 Address Language Differences: language barriers should be addressed early in the training materials design process. For example, course materials, if possible, should be duplicated in the appropriate host country dialect, instructors
should speak slowly and use active verbs. All translations should be relevant and well defined.

1.4 **Develop Acculturated Presentation Techniques:** presentation techniques should be sensitive to the training participants' perception of what schooling should look like (lecture, activities, group efforts, etc.). All learning activities should be sensitive to culture and individual learning styles. Presentations should include plenty of pictures, culturally familiar training aids and familiar gestures. Present important content in several different ways and repeat it often. Allow for additional time for practice and make all training relative to past experiences and cultural knowledge bases.

1.5 **Develop Appropriate Trainee Evaluation Methods:** many times evaluations do not accurately reflect the across-class culture. In much the same manner as the training itself, evaluations must also be versatile and flexible. Individuals may not respond in the same way to similar external stimuli. Individual evaluations may require extra time and resources (e.g., specialized expertise) and for this reason each evaluation should be examined to be certain of its appropriateness. Each evaluation must answer the following question: does the evaluation measure what it was intended to measure, in a way that is responsive to the participant's learning style?
V. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

International training projects may not be reaching their fullest potential. Effectiveness and long-term sustainability are being compromised because projects are not doing an adequate job of addressing the individual needs and expectations of its participants (both learning and teaching). Due to economic and time restraints, past management emphasis has been directed at the more visible national related project goals and outputs. Individual influences such as learning styles, learning environments, individualized curriculum and training methodologies have largely been ignored by project designers. Most project designs do not take seriously the implications associated with these individual issues. As a result, most projects lack comprehensive acculturated teaching and learning methodologies; most projects lack Total Project Acculturation (TPA).

TOTAL PROJECT ACCULTURATION IN SUMMARY

TPA makes the assertion that each international training project can be divided into three major areas of influence: 1) project management; 2) project learning; and 3) project culture. These areas are distinct, yet interrelated. Each influence may be either positive or negative in nature and each is capable of directly influencing the outcome of a project.

The TPA concept is synonymous with the promotion of comprehensive learning through the use of culturally adaptive learning and teaching
methodologies. The TPA concept is also synonymous with adapting all project resources, throughout every phase of a project, to the cultural conditions in which they will be expended. Finally, the TPA concept is synonymous with the commitment to making every training component and project resource as individualized and project specific as possible.

Central to the TPA concept is the practice of adapting all project related learning and teaching methodologies so that they better match the project participant's favored learning style. The TPA concept also recognizes the intense relationship between individual subjective cultures, learning styles and comprehensive learning experiences. The researcher believes that it is this relationship which is ultimately responsible for the success of the learning experience.

**CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND LEARNING STYLES**

Subjective culture, as defined by Triandis et al. (1972), is a measure of an individual's background and up-bringing. It is the individual attitude that is shaped by the more-or-less intangible external environmental influences such as family values, social norms, religious considerations, personal moral fiber and by who people "think" they are. Subjective culture is the way individuals perceive their immediate surroundings.

Subjective culture results in each individual reacting differently to similar external stimuli. It affects an individual's approach to learning and problem
solving. These preferred interests ultimately influence an individual's preferred learning style.

Recent research (Honey & Mumford, 1982; Kolb, 1976, 1984, 1985; Kolb et al., 1979) suggest that learning is a cyclical, four stage process. For comprehensive learning to take place, each learner must traverse through the entire learning cycle. For example, for comprehensive learning to take place an individual must: approach a new experience with an open mind, analyze and conceptualize, be able to understand, organize and conceptualize the experience into theory, and finally test those theories by using them in decision making and problem solving situations.

Using his Experiential Learning Model as a back-drop, Kolb (1976, 1984, 1985) devised a four-dimensioned taxonomy of preferred learning styles. Each dimension of the learning-style taxonomy corresponds with a specific stage in the learning cycle, thereby establishing definite behaviors and skills required of the learner as they progress through the learning cycle.

The most comprehensive learning requires flexibility because it requires learners to involve themselves in activities utilizing both the left-brain (analytical) and right-brain (involvement) hemispheres. Due to subjective cultural differences, every individual has certain ways in which they tend to learn best. These individual learning differences are manifested in terms of how a learner both perceives the learning experience they are involved in and how they process the information associated with that experience. As a result, individual learners may
feel more comfortable lingering longer at one stage of the learning cycle than at another. In other words, learners tend to use their preferred learning styles.

The inherent problem with all of this is that learners tend to pass quickly through the stages that they are uncomfortable working with to those learning cycle stages in which they are more comfortable. Because the most effective learning requires whole-brain activity and necessitates devoting equal time to every stage of the learning cycle, quality learning can be easily compromised.

The underlying premise of the TPA concept is that if individual learning styles can be identified they can be designed and taught to. It is through the TPA concept that the Manager's Planning Guide strives to encourage more whole-brain comprehensive learning experiences.

**PURPOSE**

The purpose of this study has been to develop a project manager's planning guide that provides logical direction aimed at improving the management, design and learning processes most commonly associated with international training projects. The guide attempts to promote project management and design characterized by the use of culturally-adapted learning, teaching and management methodologies throughout all phases of a training project. In consideration of individual learning and teaching styles, the guide stresses the integration of individualized curriculum designs, training materials and
teaching and learning technologies into personalized learning environments. This philosophy is consistent with the TPA concept.

THE ACCULTURATED LEARNING COMPONENT

The Acculturated Learning Component was designed in consideration of the training portion of international development. In the hierarchy of international development the manager's planning guide suggests an Acculturated Learning Component that concerns itself with only those aspects directly associated with the training portion of international development projects.

The Acculturated Learning Component promotes four basic project phases: 1) project inputs, 2) project personnel, 3) project planning and design, and 4) project learning. In support of the TPA concept, these phases are designed to be individually and culturally sensitivity as well as project specific.

The Project Inputs phase represents a culmination of agreed upon cooperative agendas and commitments by the project's stakeholders. Inputs are commitments by individual stakeholders to provide specific project resources at a particular time and place and of a certain quality and quantity.

The Project Personnel phase is concerned with all of the human or "people" related matters. This phase addresses the selection, activities and responsibilities of all management and technical assistance personnel. The phase also deals with establishing appropriate personnel job descriptions, selection criteria and training requirements.
The Project Planning and Design phase is responsible for the development of course curricula, training materials and learning activities. Each step in the phase is designed toward promoting a more positive relationship between individual learning styles, project curriculum and learning activities.

Finally, the Project Learning phase addresses all learning related areas such as methodologies, learning environments and selection of the host country training participants. Methods for conducting appropriate individual evaluations are also addressed.

Each phase of the Acculturated Learning Component is designed toward encouraging a positive relationship between individual subjective cultures, learning styles and learning environments. The entire Acculturated Learning Component is iterative and self-perpetuating in that ample feedback and evaluation opportunities are provided throughout. This tends to enhance project flexibility by making allowances for altering, revising and updating materials and methodology relating to individual and project concerns.

THE PROJECT MANAGER’S GUIDE

The Project Manager's Planning Guide is designed to be used as a pathfinder for developing totally acculturated training projects. It is designed to be implemented within both new and existing international training projects. The guide describes a step-by-step sequence that allows the user to keep track of the acculturation process as it is being developed.
The Project Manager's Planning Guide consists of a set of seven flow diagrams representing the major phases and sub-phases of the Acculturated Learning Component. Each phase is comprised of a series of steps. To better guide the acculturation process, each step is composed of three basic component blocks: 1) question/decision, 2) project special consideration, and 3) influence block.

The Question/Decision block contains the actual activity required of the step written in a simple question form. A positive response to the question allows the user to proceed on the next step. A negative response requires further consideration of the step.

The Project Specific Special Consideration block contains a listing of concerns which should be given special consideration when working through the step. Each user should identify and deal with as many of these project specific concerns as possible.

Finally, the Influence block highlights certain project variables that may have the potential for influencing the outcome at a step. If a negative conclusion is reached, each of these variables should be thoroughly investigated as to their potential for affecting the step's outcome.

The TPA concept is centered around design flexibility, cultural responsiveness and attention to the individual and project specific needs. To be consistent with the TPA concept, the guide is likewise designed. TPA is not a rigid formula but flexible in a way that allows for the uniqueness of each project
and participant. Therefore, to better coincide with specific project acculturation needs, the user should feel free to rearrange, alter, add or delete the guide steps as needed.

**HUMAN FACTOR**

Generally, there is no single identifiable cause for a project’s poor showing or failure. In much the same manner as project success, project failure is a cumulative process. The success of each succeeding step depends on the success of the preceding step. At the very least, each step influences the deliverable end. The seeds of failure are usually planted early during the project’s design and planning phases and continue to manifest themselves throughout the entire exercise.

Many project problems are human based. These problems are givens and will have to be dealt with in virtually all phases of the project. Many of these problems may be minimized through prudent project planning and design. It is possible to deal with many on a day-to-day basis, just so long as the project’s technical assistance team and participants have been judiciously selected and are functioning effectively in their roles.

One such human-related problem is the stakeholder "interest range" gap. Unless all stakeholders are able to reach a common synthesis of all the various stakeholder needs and expectations (agendas), the project will almost certainly lack the definition and structure needed for success.
Each stakeholder must develop a feeling of ownership in the project, the earlier the better. This is essential to project success. One method for achieving this early ownership is to seek all-stakeholder involvement at the outset of the project. Encouraging stakeholders to take part in establishing project goals and objectives, defining job descriptions and training participant selection criteria and to actually take part in the selection of project personnel will contribute greatly toward ownership.

In reality, the degree of success associated with international training projects has been less than desirable. Many times these successes have been jeopardized by external factors not previously planned on. However, solutions and alternatives to these problems are found through the cumulative negotiating efforts of a dedicated project-orientated stakeholder element.

International training projects are individualistic unto themselves. Each project has its own set of special circumstances and characteristics that creates its own unique personality. It is within this framework that the human element associated with a project contributes the most to a project’s success. As with any union, if all of the components are not compatible, the chances of a project reaching its full potential are greatly reduced. However, through the use of project acculturation techniques these components can many times be returned to their intended purpose.

The human factor in a training project tends to be the most variable and unpredictable. On the positive side, it may be one of the easiest factors to alter
and manipulate. Through the use of individual type testing, totally acculturated screening and selection processes, highly complex and compatible technical assistance teams and eminently qualified host country participants can be routinely matched characteristically with each project.

Currently, the assessment center and team planning meeting methodologies are popular avenues for technical assistance team selection. Through the use of these tools, assistance teams are generally better prepared to assume the challenges of their assignments in the host countries. Each individual comes away from the activity having a better understanding and working knowledge of their role in the project.

Technical assistance team members are selected and trained as a team. They are conditioned to function in support, rather than independently, of each other. Assessment center and team planning meetings (including a number of well founded team building exercises) tend to create team unity and project alliance. If the technical assistance team is project specific, orientated and unified, they will tend to be more attentive to the training participant’s role, needs and expectations. Project planners and designers must work closely with host country counterparts throughout every phase of course planning and design. Every aspect of the training must be assessed as to its validity within the given culture. All international training projects and learning environments must be acculturated and project specific.
Directors, managers, technical assistance teaching personnel and host country colleagues must be carefully screened. Individuals must be selected psychologically to align with the host country and project culture. Most importantly, they must be selected, trained and orientated to work as a team.

All trainers and training programs must remain flexible. When working within other cultures, training programs must deal with what is as opposed to what ought to be.

**TOTAL PROJECT ACCULTURATION: THE NEXT LOGICAL STEP**

International training project managers should be willing to take the "next logical step" as an integral part of the evolution of international training project management. The "next logical step" is directed toward the development of training project designs which take into consideration individual learning styles, learning differences and subjective cultures. The "next logical step" is Total Project Acculturation.

Total Project Acculturation recognizes that subjective culture affects individual learning styles. It also recognizes that there is a positive correlation between individual learning and the degree to which individual learning styles are accommodated through the use of adaptive learning and teaching methodologies.

Total Project Acculturation makes the assertion that the effectiveness of all training projects are influenced by three major components: 1) project management, 2) project learner, and 3) project culture. They are interrelated and
overlapping in all situations. When implemented independently of each other they will not lead to any meaningful project endpoint. However, when considered in its entirety, they provide a sound basis for a totally acculturated project.

Total Project Acculturation is designed to be the catalyst that bonds the project components and processes together and creates a culturally acceptable training project. Total Project Acculturation is the "next logical step" in international training project design.

**IMPLICATIONS**

Current research tends to support the notion that international project managers should be examining their organizational designs, the implementation and design of training projects and the types of individuals selected for technical assistance teams, host country counterparts and even host country training participants. Additionally, current research and theory support the notion that subjective cultural differences do in fact affect the development of an individual's learning style. Implications for future international training projects are that successful and sustainable training projects will need to be more project specific, individualized and culture responsive.

Managers will need to be looking closer at the relationship between learning environments, individual learning styles and learning differences. Not only will these factors have to be examined with regard to national cultural differences, they will have to be examined with regard to subjective cultural
differences as well. Trainers, as well as training participants, have preferred learning styles. These preferred styles will have to be considered to the extent that they are reflected in course material and presentation designs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Research tends to support the assertion that cultural differences do in fact affect the way individuals perceive and react to different situations. Research also supports the fact that each of us has a preferred way of dealing, coping and learning. No single way is better or worse. In much the same manner that any other skill is perfected, learning styles can also be perfected. Although we are able to function in any of the four different learning styles, most of us are more comfortable with our chosen or favorite style. Therefore, in order for a training situation to be its most effective, it must accommodate the preferred learning style of each individual.

Total Project Acculturation is representative of a concept which is supported by relevant research, working papers and lessons learned. It is a hypothesis waiting to be tested. Field research is needed regarding its appropriateness to both new and existing training project models. The TPA concept should be carefully documented, analyzed and evaluated. The Total Project Acculturation field guide should be tested and evaluated, and project specific supporting theory and practice should be implemented into the concept as it becomes available.
The Total Project Acculturation approach to project management and design places additional demands on the training project's time and financial resources. It therefore becomes essential that all project stakeholders be schooled on the positive affects that can be directly associated with the implementation of the TPA concept.

An equally interesting challenge is suggested by Kolb's (1976, 1984, 1985) assertion that all individuals are capable of learning in all four of the learning dimensions. However, most persons tend to prefer one dimension or style over others and work mostly in the environment in which they are most comfortable. It is believed by Kolb that through ample practice opportunities, equal proficiency in using each learning style is possible.

Given that assumption, a challenge for further research should include work in the area of perfecting the host country learners' expertise in the use of each learning dimension. Every realm of training falls within one of Kolb's four learning dimensions. If each learner were to attain proficiency in every learning dimension, more effective learning might become synonymous with less need for individualized instruction.


Appendix A. Project Manager's Guide--Project Inputs: Stakeholder

**PROJECT INPUTS**

**STAKEHOLDER**

Influence Box

- **Agenda**
  - Language
  - Interest Range Gap
  - Interpretation
  - Relative Knowledge Base
  - Review Objectives
  - Review Goals
  - Political
  - Economic

Special Considerations

1. Agreement on Project Mission
   - Political
   - Cultural
   - Technology

2. Agreement on Objectives
   - Intended Results
   - Mission or Goals
   - Cultural
   - Political
   - Social Perspective

3. Agreement on Strategies, Workplans, Schedules
   - Project Commitment
   - Economic
   - Availability
   - Access

4. Agreement on Resource Inputs
   - Technical
   - Political
   - Culture

5. Agreement on Policy & Responsibilities

Proceed to Personnel Selection Phase II
Appendix D. Project Personnel - B: Selecting Host Country Colleagues

Project Personnel
Host Country Colleague Selection & Training

Influence Box
- Physical
- Role & Objective
- Lack of Technical Understanding

Special Considerations
- Project Team:
  - Technical Focus
  - Minimal & Initial Objectives

Review Criteria
- Alternate Assignment
- Release

Favorable Biodata Assessment
- Background
  - Technical Expertise
  - Academic History

Favorable Candidate Interview
- Learning Style
  - Communicative
  - Technical
  - Team Work
  - Problem Solving

Favorable Assessment Center Activity
- Many Criteria
  - All Stakeholder Agreement
  - Remedial Training

Favorable Final Analysis & Evaluation

Make Final Host Country Colleague Selections

Predeparture Orientation & Acculturation Training

Project Related Team Building Exercises

Continued Team Building, Orientation, And Acculturation At Foreign Training Institute

Proceed to Project Planning Design Phase III
Appendix E. Project Manager's Guide: Project Planning and Design

Project Planning & Design
Curriculum, Materials, & Equipment

Influence Box

- Review Criteria
  - Culture
  - Political

- Review Criteria
  - Language
  - Social
  - Cultural

- Review Criteria
  - Production
  - Economic

- Review Criteria
  - Adaptability
  - Presentation

Identifiable Training Needs

- Project Goal
  - Training Objectives
  - Training Outcomes

- Cultural Knowledge
  - Worldview
  - Social Knowledge
  - Learning Role

Project Specific Training Design

- Language Needs
  - General Knowledge
  - Learning Styles
  - Test Scores

Product Training

- Project Objective
  - Training Strategy
  - Resource Allocation

Favorable Testing of Training

- Training
  - Test Scores
  - Feedback
  - Training Outcomes

Positive Training Evaluation

Proceed to Host Country Short-Term Training
Participant Selection Phase IV
Appendix F. Project Manager's Guide: Project Learning

Project Learning

Host Country Training
Participant Selection

Influence Box

POLITICAL
AGENDAS
TECHNICAL UNDERSTANDING

MOTIVATIONS
SELECTION CRITERIA

All-Stakeholder Agreed Upon Selection Criteria

Recruit Qualified Participants

Biodata Assessment

Type Indicator Testing

Final Analysis & Evaluation

Proceed To Learning Environment
Phase IV A

Special Considerations

Technical Skills Project Goals

Selection Criteria Individual Agendas Project Commitment Motivations

Prior Experience Background Technical Knowledge Base

Learning Styles Learning Differences Characteristics Thinking Patterns

Meets Criteria All-Stakeholder Agreement Remedial Training