Key understandings and skills : a content guide in the preparation of overseas technicians
by Thomas Floyd Trail

A thesis submitted to the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION in Education
Montana State University
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Abstract:
The purpose of this investigation was to determine the curriculum divisions and subject matter areas basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. A survey of 150 training program syllabi, training literature, and interviews with authorities in the field of technical cooperation were utilized to determine the basic curriculum areas. A questionnaire was constructed and administered to 100 authorities in the field of technical cooperation to gather data respecting curriculum priorities. Several findings were revealed by the study.

1. The consensus of authorities in the field of technical cooperation indicated that the basic curriculum divisions and subject matter areas determined in the study were basic to the preparation of overseas technicians.

2. A survey of training program syllabi of technical cooperation training programs clearly indicated that the majority of programs do not provide orientation in the curriculum areas deemed essential to technician preparation by training specialists.

3. Training specialists emphasized that the curriculum areas of the philosophy and objectives of the agency, administrative considerations, cultural adjustment, language skills, inter-cultural relations, institution building, and technological change should receive top training priorities in the preparation of overseas technicians.

4. Training experts in their comments indicated that all, of the curriculum areas listed in the questionnaire should be incorporated into current training programs. The specific area skills and understandings known to contribute to technician effectiveness were also reported by training specialists to be essential in technician orientation.

From the summary findings the following conclusions were drawn.

1. Most U. S. technical cooperation training programs have not adequately prepared technicians for overseas service. The inadequate attention given in training programs to certain basic curriculum areas such as cross-cultural and developmental processes has made it impossible to do an effective job in preparing technicians.

2. In the basic curriculum areas the lack of provision for the development of specific key understandings and skills for technician preparation is characteristic of most current training efforts. Until training programs stress the understandings and skills known to contribute to technician effectiveness, U. S. training programs will continue to inadequately train their overseas representatives.

3. A planned and, integrated approach to the design and development of training program curricula is paramount if training program directors are to successfully guide technicians in learning the key understandings and skills contributing to overseas effectiveness. Thus an organized drive for improved

curriculum offerings is a great necessity in the preparation of today's overseas technicians.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the curriculum divisions and subject matter areas basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. A survey of 150 training program syllabi, training literature, and interviews with authorities in the field of technical cooperation were utilized to determine the basic curriculum areas. A questionnaire was constructed and administered to 100 authorities in the field of technical cooperation to gather data respecting curriculum priorities. Several findings were revealed by the study.

1. The consensus of authorities in the field of technical cooperation indicated that the basic curriculum divisions and subject matter areas determined in the study were basic to the preparation of overseas technicians.
2. A survey of training program syllabi of technical cooperation training programs clearly indicated that the majority of programs do not provide orientation in the curriculum areas deemed essential to technician preparation by training specialists.
3. Training specialists emphasized that the curriculum areas of the philosophy and objectives of the agency, administrative considerations, cultural adjustment, language skills, inter-cultural relations, institution building, and technological change should receive top training priorities in the preparation of overseas technicians.
4. Training experts in their comments indicated that all of the curriculum areas listed in the questionnaire should be incorporated into current training programs. The specific area skills and understandings known to contribute to technician effectiveness were also reported by training specialists to be essential in technician orientation.

From the summary findings the following conclusions were drawn.

1. Most U. S. technical cooperation training programs have not adequately prepared technicians for overseas service. The inadequate attention given in training programs to certain basic curriculum areas such as cross-cultural and developmental processes has made it impossible to do an effective job in preparing technicians.
2. In the basic curriculum areas the lack of provision for the development of specific key understandings and skills for technician preparation is characteristic of most current training efforts. Until training programs stress the understandings and skills known to contribute to technician effectiveness, U. S. training programs will continue to inadequately train their overseas representatives.
3. A planned and integrated approach to the design and development of training program curricula is paramount if training program directors are to successfully guide technicians in learning the key understandings and skills contributing to overseas effectiveness. Thus an organized drive for improved curriculum offerings is a great necessity in the preparation of today's overseas technicians.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Technical cooperation activities have been carried on by American governmental, religious, voluntary, business, and educational groups in every part of the world. The early roots of the technical cooperation movement can be found in the efforts of American missionary and voluntary organization work of the 19th century. The pioneer work of these organizations set the stage for the rapid expansion of technical cooperation activities after the end of World War II.

Toynbee in 1960 pointed out the significant expansion of technical cooperation activities since the end of the Korean war. He reported that the rapid expansion of technical cooperation activities to the newly developing countries of the world is both man's greatest challenge and contribution of the 20th century.[1]

The rapid expansion of technical cooperation activities since World War II has accelerated the demand for overseas technicians. Cleveland[2] in 1960 reported that as American institutions expanded their overseas activities the demand for qualified technicians had become acute. Cleveland[3] further asserted that a million and a half American civilians live abroad

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[1] Toynbee, Arnold, Interview on Meet the Press, NBC, July 7, 1960.

[2] Cleveland, Harland, The Overseas Americans, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, 1960, p. 194.

[3] Ibid., p. 3.

as a result of private and government employment. Two years later Esman[4] reported that approximately 40,000 individuals are carrying out technical assistance activities in underdeveloped countries under governmental programs and that many thousands more are under private auspices. Esman[5] also predicted that this total may double or triple in the next 10 years. The acceleration of technical cooperation activities indicates an increasing demand for technicians in the future. Lauback expresses the future needs of technical cooperation agencies for qualified technicians in these words:

> We must offer our technical skills, asking neither favor nor profit in return. We must show them how to get ten times or a hundred times as much from their land as they get now. We must show them how to conquer those diseases and insects that kill their crops, animals, and children. We must show them how to conquer malaria, hookworm, dysentery, venereal disease, and plague. We must help them as they struggle out of their hell. We must go to their sides and help them. There is no substitute for the real, loving person rubbing elbow to elbow with the people who toil. We must have 100,000 technically trained men of unimpeachable integrity over the world, to help people help themselves.[6]

The future requirements of technically trained personnel for overseas agencies appears to be a major problem.

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[4]Esman, Milton J., Needed: An Education and Research Base to Support America's Expanded Commitments Overseas, University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburgh, 1962, p. 8.

[5]Ibid., p. 9.

[6]Albertson, Maurice L., Rice, Andrew E., and Birky, Pauline E., New Frontiers for American Youth, Public Affairs Press, Washington, D. C., 1961, p. 6.

Another major problem facing technical cooperation agencies is the preparation of overseas technicians. To a certain extent the success of technical cooperation activities is dependent on the performance of the overseas technician. In order to insure the success of the technician many American agencies have developed training programs to prepare their technicians for overseas service. However, until 1960 the design and initiation of these programs had been a sporadic and haphazard affair.[7] The majority of these training programs consisted mainly of program content relating to agency procedures and philosophy.[8] Authorities in the field of technical cooperation noted there had been no systematic attempt to determine what areas of understandings and skills were essential for incorporation into training programs in order to insure the successful performance of the overseas technician.[9]

Recently such educational institutions as the American Foreign Trade Institute, Syracuse University, and Montana State University have pioneered the idea that an intensive training program can prepare a technician to do a more effective job overseas. Each one of these institutions has designed a study program which supplements the regular

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[7] Noffsinger, Dr. J., Interview with Peace Corps Consultant, Washington, D. C., (July 10, 1964).

[8] Ibid.

[9] Ibid.

technical course of study. Courses in language, history, communications, economics, humanities, anthropology, and the social sciences comprise the international relations field.[10]

The rapid expansion of training programs in technical cooperation has led to a whole new training field, and copious literature now appears from most of the organizations training technicians. Unfortunately, there appears to have been little exchange of information between training institutions preparing technicians for overseas service. In this respect Baty[11] noted the majority of the training programs have evolved independently of each other, and the lines of communication between the various institutions conducting such programs have been inadequate. This inadequate communication between training agencies has contributed to a lack of sharing of ideas and experiences which could be used to build a stronger training program.

Cleveland has pointed out that little research has been done to guide the training officer or training program director in his efforts to construct a realistic and objective type of training program. In 1960 Cleveland reported about the lack of research concerning the problems facing training program directors and the understandings Americans should have for overseas work. Cleveland expressed his concern about the lack of

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[10] Trail, Thomas F., Curriculum of the International Cooperation Center, (Unpublished Report), Montana State University, Bozeman, 1963. pp. 3-5.

[11] Baty, Dr. Harvey, Interview with President's Representative for Overseas Programs at Purdue University, Bozeman, Montana, (July 31, 1965).

research pertaining to the preparation of overseas technicians in the following manner:

> The experiences of Americans abroad, remaining largely unanalyzed, have yielded little guidance to the training officer on whose judgment so much depends. Nor is the American educational system providing, as yet, a pool of Americans who, in addition to their vocational skills, are known in advance to have the understandings necessary to survival in overseas work. As a consequence the present arrangement in all the major types of overseas service is for hiring agencies to select people for their vocational skills and to provide training for overseas work, if at all, after the employee is already on the payroll. In spite of the cost of failure, there has been little systematic effort to even define the elements of success in overseas service. With some noteworthy exceptions, training officers have been flying blind.[12]

Winslow has also reported that the basic understandings needed for overseas work are largely unknown, and that basic understandings essential for effective overseas performance are not found in the majority of training programs.[13] It appears that research in the area of key understandings and skills for the preparation of overseas technicians has been limited.

In 1960 Cleveland reported that although considerable advance had been made in the design and initiation of training programs many agencies remained dissatisfied with the results.[14] Esman reported in 1962 that with each passing day new recruits to international operations were entering the

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[12] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 169.

[13] Winslow, Anne, "The Technical Assistance Expert," International Development Review, Vol. IV. No. 3, (September 1962), p. 19.

[14] Cleveland, H., op. cit., pp. 265-285.

fold no better prepared for their tasks then those who first ventured upon the international scene a decade or more ago.[15] The major programs of technical cooperation agencies have been designed and initiated without sufficient educational and research activities according to Esman.[16] Other authorities also concur that training programs have not been designed to meet the needs of the technical cooperation agencies.

The major problem revealed in the literature is the question of what key understandings and skills a technician should be familiar with in order to better prepare himself for overseas service. Noffsinger,[17] Schmidt,[18] and other authorities in the field of technical cooperation are generally agreed that understandings and skills gained from certain subject matter areas presented during training programs are important in the preparation of overseas technicians.

One essential understanding in the preparation of overseas technicians is the understanding of the culture of the host country. The importance of understanding the host culture is illustrated by the following story related to Baty by an engineer who spent four years abroad.

> My first major project was the construction of a housing project in Iran. I built the housing project as though I were working in the U. S. From a technical and construction standpoint it was a number one job. However, none of the Moslem

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[15] Esman, M., op. cit., p. 7.

[16] Ibid., p. 8.

[17] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[18] Schmidt, Warren, Interview with FAO Specialist, Washington, D. C., (July 10, 1964).

> families would live in the houses. The first families who came to live in the project soon returned to their dirty hovels. We could not understand the reason for the outright rejection of the new homes by the Iranians. Finally an Iranian friend told me the real reason. The latrines had been built facing east. It was traditional in this part of the world to construct latrines facing to the west because of the Moslem custom of praying westward to Mecca. We then rebuilt all of the latrines facing to the west. The housing project was soon filled.[19]

The preceding story emphasizes that an understanding of Iranian culture and the Moslem religion would have enabled the engineer to avoid this mistake. Baty reports that a key understanding is to comprehend fully the implications of a set of circumstances in a cross-cultural situation and to develop a consequently tolerant or sympathetic attitude.[20]

Certain key skills have also been reported to be essential in overseas job performance. Good has reported that a skill can be anything the individual has learned to do with ease and precision; it may be either a physical or a mental performance.[21] The language skill of the technician can be demonstrated by his competency in the use of the language. Skills may also be the application in the overseas environment of key understandings learned by a technician during the training program.

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[19] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[20] Ibid.

[21] Good, Carter V., The Dictionary of Education, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1959, p. 503.

Authorities feel that certain key understandings and skills are essential for the preparation of overseas technicians. There appears, however, to be a decided lack of emphasis in the treatment of key understandings and skills in current U. S. technical cooperation training programs for overseas technicians. There is also evidence as revealed in training reports by training specialists in the field of technical cooperation that certain curriculum areas from which basic understandings and skills can be developed should be assigned training priorities. Many training directors have indicated there is a great need to know which curriculum areas should receive higher training priorities in the preparation of overseas technicians.

Mosher expressed his concern about the essential understandings and skills contributing to overseas success or failure, and reported that a major study is needed to see what elements and areas of knowledge of the training program contribute to the success or failure of the program in the field.[22] It was also indicated by Winslow that efforts are being made to find what key understandings and skills contribute to overseas success. She has noted that research still is lacking upon which training program directors can design and carry out adequate training programs for training overseas technicians.[23]

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[22] Mosher, Arthur T., "Research on Rural Problems," Development of the Emerging Countries: An Agenda for Research, The Brookings Institute, Washington, D. C., 1962, pp. 110-111.

[23] Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 23.

Out of the experience of the writer and substantiated by reports of training program authorities the following inadequacies in the preparation of overseas technicians seemed to stand out:

1. That the majority of the programs for the preparation of overseas technicians fail to treat essential curriculum areas from which basic understandings and skills can be developed.

2. That curriculum areas and skills presented in current training programs tend to be ill-defined and meaningless to the participating technicians.

3. That curriculum areas and skills covered during the U. S. training programs are not the curriculum areas and skills considered to be important by authorities in the field of technical cooperation for the preparation of overseas technicians.

These inadequacies indicated clearly to the writer that a planned and integrated approach to the design and development of training program curricula was of the greatest importance, and that a planned and integrated approach was necessary to successfully guide technicians in learning key understandings and skills.

Authorities have indicated that little research concerning the curriculum areas from which key understandings and skills can be developed has been carried out in the field of overseas education. The writer felt that the determination of the key understandings and skills essential to the preparation of overseas technicians would make a useful contribution to the field of training technical cooperation technicians.

Statement of the Problem

Authorities in the field of technical cooperation are generally agreed that technicians who will be working overseas need some type of training before they leave the United States. There is a wide range of opinion among authorities as to what basic understandings and skills should be developed during the training program. The major problem of this investigation was to ascertain what key understandings and skills are considered basic in preparing technicians for overseas service. The problem resolved itself into determining the answers to the following questions.

1. What is the nature of technical cooperation work?
2. What are the types and current status of technical cooperation training programs?
3. What are the curriculum areas considered important in the preparation of overseas technicians?
4. What are the curriculum areas and skills deemed basic for the preparation of overseas technicians?
5. What are the curriculum areas and skills encompassed in current training programs?
6. What training priorities should be assigned to training curriculum areas in preparation of technicians?

Procedures

To answer the questions presented under the statement of the problem, six procedures were used:

1. Literature and training program syllabi were reviewed to determine major curriculum divisions, curriculum areas, and understandings and skills deemed basic on the preparation of overseas technicians.

2. Correspondence and interviews with authorities in the field of technical cooperation were conducted to validate the major curriculum divisions, curriculum areas, and understandings and skills developed from the review of literature.

3. A questionnaire on the curriculum areas and key understandings and skills from the review of literature and training program syllabi was constructed to gather data regarding the curriculum areas and key understandings and skills basic to the preparation of overseas workers.

4. One-hundred authorities were surveyed to determine the curriculum areas and key understandings and skills which were considered basic in the preparation of overseas technicians.

5. One-hundred training authorities were surveyed to determine the training priorities which should be assigned to key curriculum areas in the preparation of overseas technicians.

6. One-hundred and thirty training program syllabi were examined to determine the treatment accorded the curriculum areas deemed basic in technician preparation by training specialists.

Definition of Terms

A number of terms have been used in this study which are often subject to different interpretations. They are defined in this section to clarify their meaning.

Acculturation--it is the process of culture change that occurs when a culture undergoes drastic alterations in the direction of conformity to another culture from which it borrows numerous traits or principles.[24]

Bilateral Aid--technical assistance given to one country by another. The Point Four program of the U. S. and the agreements entered into between Soviet block-nations and certain less-developed countries are examples of bilateral aid.[25]

Checklist--a checklist is a prepared list of items that may relate to a person, procedure, building and so on, used for purposes of observation and or evaluation; on which one may show by a check mark or other simple method the presence, absence or frequency or occurrence of each item on the list.[26]

Communication--Communication is defined as the giving and receiving of information, signals or messages by talk, gestures, writing, signals, and it involves the sharing of experience with others. The testing of communication comes when the other person acts on the ideas given.[27]

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[24]Hoebel, E. A., Man in the Primitive World, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1958, p. 606.

[25]Gable, Richard W. (ed.), "Foreward," The Annuals, Vol. 323 (May 1959), pp. 87-88.

[26]Good, Carter V., Dictionary of Education, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1959, pp. 87-88.

[27]Albertson, M. L., Rice, A. E., and Birky, P. E., New Frontiers for American Youth, Public Affairs Press, Washington, D. C., 1961, p. 83.

Concept--a concept is a thought, an opinion, or a mental image of a thing formed by generalization from particulars; a thought or opinion.[28]

Cooperating Country--refers to the geographic focus of a program rather than any implicit participation in the program by an organized group from that country.[29]

Culture--a shorthand term for the rules that guide the ways of life of the members of a social group. More specifically, culture can be thought of as the common, learned way of life shared by the members of a society, consisting of the totality of tools, techniques, social institutions, attitudes, beliefs, motivations, and systems of value known to the group.[30]

Cultural Acceptance--the fundamental anthropological fact that in cultural transference a trait or complex will be evaluated and rejected, or accepted and modified in terms of the meaning it has for the receiving people is a basic principle in anthropology.[31]

Cultural Anthropology--the study of the customs and patterns of social behavior.[32]

Cultural Empathy--the ability to perceive the inner logic and cohesion of an alien culture and to evaluate behavior within its own economic or ideological context.[33]

Cultural Shock--a malady, an occupational disease of people who have been suddenly transplanted abroad. Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing ones familiar cues.[34]

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[28] Webster, G., New Collegiate Dictionary, G. and C. Merriam Co., Springfield, Ill., 1951, p. 171.

[29] The International Programs of American Universities, Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1958, p. 7.

[30] Foster, George, Traditional Cultures and the Impact of Technological Change, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1962, p. 2.

[31] Hoebel, E., op. cit.

[32] Ibid., p. 7.

[33] Rosengrant, John, Assignment Overseas, Thomas Cromwell Co., New York, 1960, p. 152.

[34] Foster, G., op. cit., p. 187.

Curriculum--Western civilization has come to think of the curriculum as, a collection of subject matter that the pupil is to study in some order of sequence toward some general goal, though such a goal may be vague or poorly defined.[35]

Development Program--refers to all the development projects or proposals in a country under some substantial measure of control and planning by a coordinating body concerned with allocating resources. Private investment would be part of a development program if it is subject to control and planning by a government agency.[36]

Economic Development--the study which involves the application of economic principles developed in the West on the basis of societies permeated by a money economy, culture, and society which are largely individualized to countries whose economy, culture, attitudes and institutions are significantly different from those with which we are familiar. The meaning of economic development must include the definition of an underdeveloped country and a knowledge of development as a process.[37]

Exchange--the term exchange is confined to programs in which the same kinds of persons or things are sent and received from both sides of an international program.[38]

Institution--an establishment, organization, or association, instituted for the promotion of some object.[39]

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[35]Bossing, Nelson L., Principles of Secondary Education, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 1955, p. 362.

[36]Papanek, G. F., Framing a Development Program, Brookings Institute, Washington, D. C., 1960, p. 308.

[37]Brown, L. B., Interview with Economic Adviser to the President, Washington, D. C., (January 11, 1963).

[38]The International Programs of American Universities, op. cit., p. 6.

[39]Webster, G., op. cit., p. 436.

Institution Building--The principle job of the technical consultant is working to help build a viable social institution which will carry out the function with which he is concerned. In this respect it is the building of a complex social system which incorporates values and discharges services to the community. The elements of institution building are: (a) establishment, adaptation, and communication of institutional values and services and purposes, (b) recruitment, behavior and succession of leadership, (c) internal structure, (d) mobilization and allocation of resources, (e) interaction with the environment, and (f) program performance.[40]

Multilateral Aid--technical assistance given to a country by two or more countries or an international agency such as the U.N.[41]

Program or International Program--it is the activity that involves the sending or receiving of persons or things between an American institution and a cooperating country for which the American institution accepts institutional responsibility over a period of time.[42]

Program Development--it is an intensive broad effort on the part of the action agency to assist the people of an area in their attempts, collectivity, to analyze their major problems and to build an educational program directed toward the improvement of agriculture and community living. Program development is an educational process and an attempt to do a thorough and systematic job of longer-range programming with the people. In short, it is a continuous cooperative process of analyzing situations, setting objectives or goals, establishing priorities, implementing action and evaluating.[43]

Questionnaire--a set of questions for submission to a number of persons for getting data for evaluating.[44]

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[40] Esman, M., op. cit., p. 29.

[41] Gable, R., op. cit., p. vii.

[42] The International Programs of American Universities, op. cit., p. 1.

[43] Cosgriffee, H., Problems and Policies in Cooperative Extension, Paper written for Agricultural Education 558. Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana (April 4, 1960), p. 1.

[44] Webster, G., op. cit., p. 171.

Role--a set of expectations applied to an incumbent of a position in a particular social system and a particular set of social relationships.[45]

Skill--anything that the individual has learned to do with ease and precision; may be either a physical or a mental performance. Example--language skill--the demonstrated competency in the use of language.[46]

Social Structure--breaking down social groups into parts or institutions such as the family, religion, political and economic systems, and the like, each of which harbors a great number of statuses--the positions people occupy vis-a-vis each other which in turn have a corresponding role, the behavior forms deemed appropriate to each status.[47]

Society--the study of groups of people. Society has a structure or an organization, a patterned arrangement of relationships which social scientists discern in the behavior they observe, a system which is to define and regulate the mode of everyday intercourse among the members of the group.[48]

Sociotechnological Development--technological development accompanied by corresponding changes in the attitudes, the thoughts, the values, the beliefs, and the behavior of the people who are affected by the material change. The cultural, social, and psychological process which accompanies either a material or nonmaterial change.[49]

Syllabus--a condensed outline or statement of the main points of a course of study.[50]

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[45] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[46] Good, C., op. cit., p. 206.

[47] Foster, G., op. cit., p. 11.

[48] Ibid., p. 10.

[49] Ibid., p. 2.

[50] Good, C., op. cit., p. 544.

Technician--a person skilled in the technical details of a job, trade, profession or subject.[51]

Technological Development Program--programs representing planned culture change.[52]

Technological Change--the effect upon a culture and society brought about by the introduction of a new innovation.[53]

Technical Cooperation--the sharing of scientific and technical knowledge and skills among people. Helping each other adapt and use such knowledge and skills to achieve greater productivity and better utilization of resources, increase incomes, and raise levels of living.[54]

Technology--the study of technics. Technics cover a great range of material objects. It is so comprehensive as to include all objects of a material culture.[55]

Topic--a short phrase or sentence with reference to a subject used in an outline.[56]

Training Program--that period of orientation given a technician by an agency involved in technical cooperation. The orientation is given the technician in the United States before his departure to the country of assignment.[57]

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[51] Webster, G., op. cit., p. 871.

[52] Foster, G., op. cit., p. 12.

[53] Allen, Francis R., Technology and Social Change, Appleton-Century Crafts, Inc., New York, 1957, p. 9.

[54] National Policy Association. Programs of Technical Cooperation. Public Administration Service, Chicago, 1952, p. 39.

[55] Allen, F., op. cit., p. 8.

[56] Thorndike, E. L., and Barnhard, Clarence L., High School Dictionary, Scott Foresman and Co., New York, 1957, p. 944.

[57] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

Underdeveloped--areas characterized generally by (1) the low per capita income of their inhabitants in comparison with those of North America and Western Europe; (2) the high ratio of agricultural to other forms of employment; (3) high birth rates and rapidly growing populations; (4) badly balanced and inadequate food diets; and (5) widespread illiteracy and disease associated with rudimentary educational and health facilities.[58]

Understanding--to comprehend fully the implication of a situation cross-cultural and have a consequently tolerant or sympathetic attitude.[59]

Limitations of the Study

There were two limitations in this study: (1) the study was restricted to training for U. S. overseas technical cooperation programs conducted in the U. S., and (2) the determination of curriculum areas were confined to the consensus of judgments of authorities and training program directors in the field of technical cooperation.

The first step in the investigation was to determine from the literature and interviews with authorities the nature of technical cooperation work. The results of this review are presented in Chapter 2.

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[58] Sharp, Walter R., International Technical Assistance, Public Administration Service, Chicago, 1952, p. x.

[59] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

CHAPTER II

THE NATURE OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION WORK

One of the important problems reported in Chapter 1 concerned the nature of technical cooperation work. It was deemed necessary to review in some depth the nature of technical cooperation work and the activities in the field of technical cooperation of the overseas U. S. agencies. The review of technical cooperation work and the activities of the agencies involved will serve to improve the reader's understanding of the essential characteristics of technical cooperation work, and scope and range of overseas technical assistance activities.

Characteristics of Technical Cooperation Work

Technical cooperation work is characterized by a number of important elements. The first element is the principle underlying technical cooperation. The principle underlying technical cooperation is simple. It is the sharing of technical knowledge and skills among the peoples of different countries.

Such sharing goes far back into history. Individuals and voluntary groups in the United States and the developing countries have been sharing knowledge and skills for a long time. Religious groups have pioneered in dispensing technical assistance along with their missionary activities. U. S. businessmen have brought to the "developing countries" not only commerce and industry but also significant technical improvements. U. S.

universities and foundations have also made distinguished contributions of direct technical assistance.

Public programs of technical cooperation are of recent origin. When World War II broke out in Europe and threatened to spread across the Atlantic, the U. S. government in seeking closer ties with the developing areas began to cooperate with many republics in programs to increase the production of food and materials, and to improve the health and welfare of their peoples.

In 1949, the announcement of what has come to be known as Point 4 aroused interest throughout the free world. The following year Congress converted the idea into law. By passing the Act for International Development, it initiated a new level of organized governmental technical exchange in peace time. Since that time the United States has taken the lead in worldwide technical cooperation although facing serious challenges from the Soviet Union.

Government technical cooperation was generally accepted as an official policy of the United States for a variety of reasons according to Gaylord.[1] There were practical considerations such as a wish to see the economies of other nations develop and international trade increase. There was the hope that a rising standard of living in underdeveloped nations would lead to peace and political stability and reduce the spread of communism. There was also a genuine desire to help the peoples of Africa, Asia, and Latin America. While the people and government of the

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[1] Gaylord, Clinton, Interview with Former Director of Far East 4-H Programs, Fort Collins, Colorado, (June 31, 1965).

United States should not make too much of their virtues, their support for the adoption and continuation of the policy contains a substantial ingredient of generosity and altruism.[2]

An early outcome of the philosophy of the American people to assist the peoples of other countries became expressed in the establishment of technical assistance programs with the developing countries. Raising the standards of living in the developing areas of the world has gradually become a part of U. S. foreign policy. When the United States first became involved in these early technical cooperation programs the planners of U. S. foreign policy considered such programs to be only temporary in nature. But experience quickly revealed that continued efforts over a long period of time were required to achieve substantial economic and social development. The differences in levels of living between countries tend to keep increasing unless there are continuing programs to help the less developed economies keep accelerating their production. The mutual benefits from technical cooperation are greater after programs have been in operation for some years than they are at the beginning. Thus technical cooperation programs that started on a temporary basis become an integral part of the long term U. S. commitment toward the social and economic development of the emerging nations.

Technical cooperation--public and private--has proved itself. This is evidenced by the tributes and praise by the leaders of the underdeveloped

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[2] Ibid., (Interview).

countries toward the idea of technical cooperation. The majority of the developed countries and a number of international agencies have incorporated the idea of technical cooperation into their overseas technical assistance programs. The acceptance of this policy by the developing countries is further evidence of the worldwide acceptance and recognition of the value and benefits of technical cooperation programs.

Technical cooperation is recognized and accepted as a long-range and effective instrument of U. S. foreign policy. Noffsinger reported in 1964 that the majority of U. S. technical cooperation agencies now focus and direct the attention of their efforts in supplementing those of U. S. government programs in technical assistance.[3] The combined efforts of U. S. and other technical cooperation agencies are now recognized as being concerned with long-range objectives of U. S. foreign policy as indicated in the following statement by Noffsinger:

> In the long run, a main object of U.S. foreign policy is to develop relationships so that the peoples of all countries can live peaceably together, while sharing increasing welfare in an atmosphere of genuine democracy and freedom. Technical cooperation is an instrument adapted to this long-range policy. Technical cooperation programs should be expanded and improved.[4]

Other authorities besides Noffsinger have repeatedly indicated that technical cooperation is now a part of U. S. foreign policy.

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[3] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[4] Ibid.

Technical cooperation is a two-way exchange of knowledge and skills between two participants or countries. Unquestionably, with the great physical resources and technical knowledge of the United States, the bulk of the flow of money and materials has been toward the underdeveloped areas; but as time has gone on the reverse flow has become apparent. Sometimes the flow to the United States has been in scientific lines, as in the control of diseases and pests; sometimes in cultural lines, such as striking developments in architecture. Sometimes the flow has been less tangible as in the advantages of really learning about the cultural achievements of peoples in neighboring countries. For example, the thousands of returning Peace Corps volunteers are well-versed in the language and culture of their host countries after two-years of overseas service. These volunteers are serving the United States in various overseas assignments with government and private agencies. The language and cross-cultural skills now utilized by these volunteers are directly attributable to their experiences in other countries.

The idea of technical cooperation as the systematic sharing of knowledge and skill between two countries is something quite different from what is known as economic aid. In technical cooperation, the U. S. contributes men and experience, and only the dollars that are necessary to make them effective agents. In some countries the lack of capital for economic development may make it futile to share only knowledge and skills unless elemental needs for capital are also met. Some countries receiving loans and grants for economic aid and developmental assistance need technical

cooperation in order to use the funds effectively, and in some countries technical cooperation cannot be effective without simultaneous economic aid. In the experience of the writer the National Electrification Program in Ecuador is such a case.[5]

In 1963 the government of Ecuador requested a loan from the U. S. to improve urban and rural electrification facilities. The request also included provisions for the training of Ecuadorian engineers and other personnel connected with the project. The Agency for International Development (AID) worked closely with the Ecuadorian government in surveying the needs of this request. In 1964 a loan of approximately 10 million dollars was granted the Ecuadorian government. It soon became apparent that the Ecuadorian electrification personnel would be able to carry out only a small part of the program. This was attributed to the lack of skilled engineers and other personnel.

In order to expedite the electrification program the Ecuadorian government requested the State Department to provide engineers and other personnel to assist in the development of the project. This request was then presented to AID. This agency then requested the assistance of the Peace Corps in recruiting a team of electrical engineers and other qualified personnel to assist with the project. A team of approximately 20 such people was recruited and trained at Montana State University.

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[5] The writer spent 1963-1965 in Ecuador working with Heifer Project/ Peace Corps. The examples of technical cooperation work in this chapter are based on his experience.

Today these Peace Corps volunteers are working side-by-side with Ecuadorian counterparts in carrying out the National Electricification Plan. This is a classic example of the need for technical cooperation--the necessity of bringing in qualified outside personnel and knowledge to assist in implementing a program made possible by an economic loan.

The immediate benefits of this program have been evident in Ecuador. However, the U. S. will also benefit in the long run from the same project. In another year there will be 20 Peace Corps volunteers who have gained skills in Spanish, skill in development of engineering programs of an emerging country, and an awareness of the differences between two cultures. These returning volunteers will find their way into academic, government, and private ranks, and in the long run they will be able to make effective contributions during their careers based on two years of experience in a technical cooperation program.

The example of technical cooperation between Ecuador and the United States illustrates that the benefits of technical cooperation are in fact something much more than can be measured in dollars or quantities of materials. The promotion of hospitals, health education, and training centers shows the way for the peoples in developing nations to improve their own economic and social conditions. Cooperative research in agriculture and in demonstration and extension work makes it possible for them to improve their own production. Cooperative teacher training institutions help the countries to meet their own needs for increasing literacy. Technical cooperation emphasizes family welfare, home economics, and programs for farm women.

in order to help satisfy the demand for higher levels of living. Projects in public administration and aids to industrialization have the same purpose--that of helping the people of host countries to advance their own cultural and economic development.

The technical cooperation programs in the developing countries differ greatly from country to country and from area to area as programs need to be tailored to the different situations. An illustration of the different approaches needed by a technical cooperation agency within a single country can be characterized by the operation of the Heifer Project, Inc. program in Ecuador. Heifer Project is a non-denominational program concentrating on the livestock improvement of developing areas.

From 1950 to 1961 the primary emphasis of the Heifer Project program in Ecuador was the upgrading of livestock on a local basis. The upgrading and introduction of livestock and poultry programs on the local scale was successful; however, in 1961 AID and the Ecuadorian government requested that Heifer Project become involved in the development of livestock and poultry improvement on a national scale. The involvement of this technical cooperation agency on a national basis signified that the diffusion and spread of animal husbandry technology and skills could be achieved more rapidly and successfully with the involvement of all the cooperative agencies in the development of livestock plans on a national scale.

In cooperation with the Peace Corps and Montana State University approximately 130 volunteers trained in agricultural and home economics skills worked under the supervision and administration of Heifer Project

in Ecuador from the period of 1962 to 1966. These volunteers worked with the National Extension Service, universities, agricultural schools, FAO, local schools and communities, and with many other agencies. Heifer Project with the assistance of AID brought in more livestock and poultry. The Ecuadorian government increased its financial contributions to the program, and through its facilities assisted in the training of volunteers.

The outcome of this coordinated effort has been impressive. Peace Corps volunteers working together with Ecuadorian counterparts have enabled the Extension Service to double the coverage of the areas serviced by the agency. Volunteers have assisted in the diffusion of agricultural and home economics skills to Ecuadorians representing all segments of society. Heifer Project concentrated on the establishment of four agricultural experimental stations, two artificial insemination centers, and the development of a national poultry plan. An impressive number of Ecuadorian extension agents gained new skills and training in agricultural and home economics.

The combined efforts of all the agencies concerned has been credited with the increased agricultural and livestock production in a number of areas. AID personnel feel that within the near future the need for further contributions of Heifer Project will not be needed because the Ecuadorian government will be able to carry out all agricultural programs with its own resources. This will enable Heifer Project to devote expenditures and staff to other more needy countries. Thus the livestock development program described clearly illustrates how technical cooperation agencies need to tailor programs to meet different situations.

The technical cooperation activities of overseas agencies on a world-wide basis often follows the pattern illustrated by the institutions working on the area of livestock improvement in Ecuador. However, the different types of technical cooperation agencies reflect a wide scope and range of technical assistance activities. The activities of the technical cooperation agencies are discussed in the next section of this chapter.

Agencies Involved in Overseas Technical Cooperation Work

An exploration of the early history of technical cooperation gives one an idea of the impact and direction of the work of technical cooperation agencies. It is, however, necessary to investigate the activities of the various types of agencies in order to more fully understand the development and scope of their technical cooperation activities. The activities of the technical cooperation agencies will be discussed in the following order: (1) government, (2) religious, (3) voluntary, (4) business, and (5) university.

Technical Cooperation Activities of U. S. Governmental Agencies. The U. S. government is deeply committed in the underdeveloped nations. On the economic side of the government's overseas establishment, it is even clearer that a technical cooperation program implies the deepest kind of involvement in the internal affairs of other nations--with their permission

and within limits which their governments ultimately must set.[6] In this respect the late Reverend Davies said:

> There are some people who still trot out the trite canard that loving our neighbor means that we do in direct relationship with him and that we cannot love him through acts of Congress. This is just a tired platitude. In the modern world we cannot even do our ordinary duty to our neighbor except through acts of Congress. This is true within our own country, as we have begun to recognize, and it is also true of our duty to the world.[7]

There is little doubt that the U. S. commitment in technical cooperation involves it deeply in the affairs of other countries.

Technical cooperation, which the historian Toynbee[8] has called "the greatest single idea in foreign policy to emerge from the twentieth century," brings Americans into contact with thousands of local and provincial leaders and with specialists in many fields who are far removed from the recipients' Foreign Office. These Americans deal with a society at its most sensitive point, at the very center of its rising expectations--teaching people to recognize their needs, helping them to be more articulate in demanding what they want from their own political leaders. By demonstrating what people can do for themselves once they set their minds to the task, technical cooperation in the first instance increases the very gap

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[6] Vaughn, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[7] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 75.

[8] Toynbee, A., op. cit.

between reality and expectations which is a prime cause of political ferment in every underdeveloped area.[9]

The first stimulus to U. S. government bilateral technical cooperation came in the 1930's when the United States was seeking closer and more effective relationships among the underdeveloped countries. A second came during World War II, when there was an urgent need to use the resources of underdeveloped countries more effectively. This decade of experience was backed up and sharpened by the third stimulus--Point Four. At this point, the example of bilateral technical cooperation between Latin America and the United States, will serve as the model in depicting the evolution of the concept of technical cooperation activities with an underdeveloped area since 1940.

During the 1940's the United States conducted a program of bilateral technical cooperation in Latin America. This program was carried out through the Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Organization, started in 1939. This was a loosely organized coordinating committee, made up of representatives of more than 25 bureaus of 18 government departments and agencies, each of which was directly responsible for planning and administering the programs assigned to it by the Committee. This program committee concentrated mainly on technical assistance in the fields of health, education and agriculture.[10]

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[9] Smith, R. F., Interview with Deputy Director Point Four, Quito, Ecuador (February 17, 1965).

[10] National Planning Association, Technical Cooperation, Public Administration Service, Chicago, Ill., 1952, pp. 42-50.

During the war, a few U. S. troops were stationed in Latin America. Some U. S. workers were located in tropical and jungle areas helping to produce rubber and extract minerals for use in connection with the war. Agricultural production and public health programs were initiated to help meet the needs of the U. S. nationals in Latin America. In addition, the Institute for Inter-American Affairs started programs to replace foods formerly imported by Latin American countries for which ocean shipping was not available during the war.

During World War II technical cooperation was looked upon as mainly one phase of the war effort. When the war ended, many people in both the legislative and executive branches of the government felt that U. S. participation should be ended. As a result, appropriations for the Institute for Inter-American Affairs were reduced from 10.6 million dollars in 1945 to a low of 4 million dollars in 1949.[11]

In June 1950, Congress implemented the Point Four proposal in the Act for International Development, which authorized technical cooperation programs with all peace loving peoples for the international interchange of technical knowledge and skills. The Act made a clear distinction between technical cooperation and large scale grants or loans for economic aid or development of host countries. Thus, bilateral technical cooperation, as it had evolved through the years with Latin America, was offered to the peoples of underdeveloped areas in other parts of the world. After passage of the Act, appropriations for technical cooperation again increased, and

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[11] Ibid.

the cooperative programs throughout the world grew in number, size, and variety.

During the 1950's health, education, and agriculture continued to receive the greatest amount of attention in the bilateral-technical cooperation programs. However, the programs were spreading to other important fields--public administration, industry, mining and labor, transportation, communications and power, and community development.

President Kennedy's pronouncement of the Alliance for Progress further accelerated the emphasis on bilateral-technical cooperation for Latin America. A portion of the one billion dollar a year appropriation was scheduled for technical cooperation activities such as housing, agricultural development, community development, and many of those activities expanded during the 1950's and 1960's. Thus today the U. S. government is firmly committed to the idea of technical cooperation programs with the underdeveloped countries of the world.

Technical Cooperation Activities of Religious Agencies. More than 300 church and other religious agencies in the United States send missionaries or other types of representatives abroad. The total number of such representatives is currently estimated to be between ten and fifteen thousand.[12] For example, in the Latin American countries there were about 5,300 representatives of 175 groups or agencies in 1953.[13] Noffsinger has estimated

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[12] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[13] Ibid.

the number of religious representatives abroad to be approximately 20,000 in 1964.[14]

Activities of religious groups have been studied rather intensively. Such activities fall under three main categories. Again using Latin America as a model of an underdeveloped area, one can note the first technical cooperation activity of primary concentration is the establishment and maintenance of schools. This is found mostly at the primary level. About 1,300 to 1,400 such schools existed in Latin America in 1953; about 1,000 of these were primary schools, located mostly in industrial and rural areas.[15] There were a few outstanding secondary and high schools around the larger cities, serving upper-class and foreign students.

Second, religious agencies provide agricultural training, usually on large farms where there is some elementary experimental and demonstration work. These farms are often associated with vocational schools, rural missions, or hospitals. In addition to these three main types of activity, there are others such as the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, and settlement houses. These types of activities are characteristic of religious activities throughout the underdeveloped areas of the world.

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[14] Ibid.

[15] Maddox, James G., Technical Assistance by Religious Agencies in Latin America, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1957. pp. 27-40.

Much of the religious effort, probably about 60 per cent, is devoted to religion. It is estimated that in Latin America that about 40 per cent of the time of 5,300 people was being devoted in 1953 to activities that could be classified as technical cooperation--the equivalent of about 2,100 people on a full time basis, or three to four times as many as Point Four has serving in the Latin American region.[16] This estimate is still valid today according to Noffsinger.[17]

General objectives of the activities of the religious agencies overseas apart from those that are strictly religious, are raising the level of living and encouraging people to develop democratic forms and procedures in their societies. The minimum conditions for the achievement of the objectives of improving levels of living are an increase in technical and administrative knowledge: increased capital, including durable goods, some of which may come from abroad but most of which must come from within; and an increase in the willingness of people, both as private citizens and as government officials to take risks, to risk doing something differently in the interest of improving themselves or their country financially or in other ways, according to Braun.[18]

Perhaps the largest problem facing the religious agencies is the change in the conditions under which they work in recipient countries. At

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[16] Ibid.

[17] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[18] Braun, Gene, Interview with Agricultural Missionary for the Presbyterian Church, Quito, Ecuador. (January 16, 1965).

one time these agencies were leaders in the education field. Now governments have taken over the leadership. A similar trend is taking place in the field of curative medicine, although it has not progressed as far in many developing countries.[19] Thus the religious agencies are faced with the need for careful study and re-evaluation of their activities, and perhaps with the need to develop some new approaches.

During the past century, upwards of 75,000[20] American citizens have served overseas as missionaries of one kind or another. Perhaps 80 per cent of these were Protestants; most of the remainder were Roman Catholics.[21] It would be difficult to measure the impact which these people have had abroad, or the extent to which they contributed to international thinking within the United States. Literally millions of Americans have had their only contact with foreign lands through overseas nationals who have spoken in Sunday schools or before women's missionary societies. To a greater extent than with many overseas Americans in other occupations, missionaries have kept close contacts with their friends abroad.

The missionary movement represents the outreach of the church. In this regard, Krepps[22] reported that the missionary movement has led in the attack against slavery, ignorance, superstition, economic injustic, disease,

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[19] Maddox, J., op. cit., pp. 27-40.

[20] Braun, G., op. cit., (Interview).

[21] Ibid.

[22] Krepps, George, Interview with Brethren Agricultural Missionary, Quito, Ecuador (December 8, 1964).

and other evils in Asia and Africa. It has sought to mitigate the injustice in colonialism and the arrogance which comes with imperalism.

The term "a missionary" covers a wide array of service. Only a quarter are ordained ministers who are directly engaged in evangelistic work as such. Maddox has noted that missionary groups have sent teachers, doctors, agriculturists, radio and television specialists, social workers, business managers, architects or scientists to the underdeveloped areas of the world.[23] In a sense, the missionary movement represents the projection of American culture and its diffusion abroad.

Missionaries are those commissioned by a church in one country to be of service to a church in another land. If this sentence is an adequate definition, it deserves some attention. The function of the missionary is often defined as seeking to establish "indigenous, self-propagating self-supporting, independent, national Churches."[24] Where these did not originally exist, and today where they are still weak, the traditional assignment of the missionary was spiritual conversion. This is seldom regarded as enough, for to create a Christian society also means to improve health, education, and economic standards.[25]

More than 200 American agencies currently send out missionaries. There are two dozen large Boards representing the major denominations, plus

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[23] Maddox, J., op. cit., pp. 27-40.

[24] Ibid.

[25] Ibid.

many smaller groups.[26] The total number of personnel in the late 1950's approximated 29,000. Statistics for Protestant groups reached an all time total of 22,692 missionaries in the field in 1956, with 1955 expenditures of $130,000,000.[27]

The affiliations of the Protestant missionaries in 1956 may be divided as follows: Those related to the Division of Foreign Missions of the National Council of Churches number 10,475, representing 85 Boards and a 1955 expenditure of some $74,000,000. The Evangelical Foreign Missions Association, with 46 members, counts 4,382 missionaries and spends some $19,000,000. The Interdenominational Foreign Missions Association lists 4,796 missionaries divided among 35 Boards, with expenditures of some $12,000,000. The number of Protestant missionaries from the United States has increased rapidly since the beginning of the century; in 1911 the total was 7,239.[28] Today almost all of the missionaries are in the underdeveloped areas of the world with 27 per cent of them in Latin America.

Catholic missionaries from the United States number 5,126, backed by an expenditure of some $50,000,000. This represents a large increase since the establishment of the Catholic Foreign Mission Society of America in 1911. In total number of missionaries from all countries, Roman Catholics probably exceed Protestants.[29]

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[26]Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 63-97.

[27]Ibid.

[28]Ibid.

[29]Ibid.

Thus the number of overseas missionaries and the total monetary budget of the overseas technical cooperation church agencies is substantial. The activities of these religious agencies is varied and extends to almost every sector of the underdeveloped countries.

Technical Cooperation Activities of U. S. Business Agencies. Over 3,000 U. S. firms have branches and subdivisions overseas.[30] This is a vast, heterogenous, and nearly indefinable group of companies, the members of which have only one clearly unifying trait--the profit motive. Business activities cannot be classified as technical cooperation, in the usual sense. They do, however, provide capital, (American business has approximately $32,000,000,000 invested overseas),[31] training in both the technical and the managerial fields, and other benefits that contribute substantially to economic development in the countries in which they operate.

The firm that invests overseas seeks an environment that permits flexibility to meet changing conditions in its market. It fears runaway inflation and is naturally suspicious of any technical assistance activity that may encourage inflation. The businessman's real objection to socialism and communism is that they have built-in controls that reduce flexibility.[32]

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[30] Donnelly, Howard, World Wide Involvement in Business Activities, International Cooperation Center, Montana State College, Bozeman, Montana, p. 1.

[31] Ibid., p. 2.

[32] Ibid., p. 3.

Brown[33] reported that the typical businessman is interested in and supports overseas programs that are aimed at economic development, security, and political freedom and stability. Many businessmen and firms display humanitarian impulses. They are becoming increasingly aware of the problems in underdeveloped areas, and many firms have programs aimed at improving the living conditions of their local employees in other countries.

Quite apart from any humanitarian impulses that business firms may display, it is true that they often work in closer contact with people of other countries than do the local and foreign officials who handle government aid programs. In the normal course of establishing and managing a business the firm that operates overseas does a great deal of on-the-job training at both technical and managerial levels, and many firms are taking active steps to develop local employees to the point where they can take over managerial responsibilities. As a side effect of these training activities, some local employees start their own businesses.

It is not the presence of American business overseas, but the extent of it, that is the recent phenomenon. United States' direct investment abroad was already on the increase before World War II. It has risen from .6 billion dollars in 1897 to 7.9 billion dollars in 1943.[34] The war and its aftermath produced a striking increase in U. S. foreign investment. By 1950, the value of direct investments abroad had reached 11.8 billion

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[33] Brown, L., op. cit., (Interview).

[34] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 101.

dollars and by 1957 the total was up to 23 billion dollars--this does not include the billions of dollars in government grants and loans to foreign countries much of which American businessmen also helped manage. From 1950, when the annual net private capital outflow was 1.3 billion dollars, the rate almost tripled to an annual figure of 3.2 billion dollars in 1957.[35]

Why is such a large amount of investment capital and business effort being exported? Basically it is because American companies have found that in spite of the difficulties and dangers of doing business in strange places and under demanding conditions, profits are still rewardingly high. In a 1957 survey by Mandell and Stanley,[36] of 93 major U. S. companies which have plant investment abroad, more than half reported receiving up to 20 per cent of their total net profits from their overseas operations, and over 30 per cent of the companies reported they derived from 40 to 100 per cent of their net profits from their foreign affiliates.[37] Sometimes American companies, when building a plant or establishing a distribution market overseas, are able to proceed on the basis that the investment can be completely paid off within four to five years; from then on the operation is pure profit.

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[35] Ibid., p. 102.

[36] Mandell, M. M., and Stanley, A. O., Investments of U. S. Business Overseas Operations, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1957, pp. 1-10.

[37] Ibid.

Clearly then the dollars are coming back in proportions that tend to accelerate further growth of American international business operations. To guide and manage the investment, U. S. corporations are sending out technicians to manage and administer the various overseas business enterprises. The number of U. S. business representatives working abroad is impressive. In 1957, the 646 American companies that replied to a survey questionnaire sent out by Syracuse University reported that 24,659 U. S. citizens and 1,280,000 foreign nationals at work for their firms in overseas establishments. Counting wives and families, the total American business population living abroad certainly exceeds 100,000.[38]

Profit-making concerns and their activities do not normally enter into discussions of technical cooperation. However, the U. S. Act for International Development defined technical cooperation as "programs for the international interchange of technical knowledge and skills."[39] An examination of the interchange of technical knowledge and skills between the United States and the underdeveloped countries reveals that a large amount of it takes place within the normal processes of business and trade. In order to more fully explore the activities of U. S. business in relation to technical cooperation activities, a survey of such activities in Latin America will merit attention.

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[38] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 104.

[39] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

According to Freeman, AID Development Officer, the total investment of U. S. firms in Latin America in 1963 was 12 billion dollars as compared with slightly over 3 billion dollars in 1946.[40] About 27 per cent of this 1963 investment was in the petroleum industry, 20 per cent in manufacturing, 18 per cent in public utilities, 16 per cent in mining and smelting, 10 per cent in agriculture, and 6 per cent in trade. In 1950, there were 800 branches of U. S. companies in Latin America, and about 1,200 Latin American companies in which U. S. firms owned a controlling interest.[41]

Part of the effect on technological advance of direct U. S. investments in branch plants of the firms of other countries is a result of the traditional U. S. business practices which firms take with them when they go abroad. Most of them operate at home in highly competitive markets. Such firms are constantly carrying on research and are continuously modifying products and methods. When they carry these practices abroad, they set an example for domestic firms.

Parent firms send supervisors and technicians to introduce methods and techniques and adapt them to their operations. Technicians from the United States often install machinery and equipment and train local employees of the overseas branch or subsidiary in its operation and upkeep.

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[40] Freeman, R., op. cit., (Interview).

[41] Ibid.

Substantial numbers of nationals are sent to U. S. plants for training in skills and professions, ranging from simple machine operation to executive and management functions. Informal on-the-job training to upgrade the skills of local employees is practiced continuously by many companies. A considerable number of companies have organized training courses, lasting from a few days to several months, in a wide variety of fields.

Fellowships and scholarships have been provided by some business firms for university study in the United States. A number of firms have also constructed schools, health centers and hospitals to serve their employees. The findings of the research and development laboratories of U. S. firms are often made available to developing countries. These are but a few examples of the interchange of services, training, and ideas which benefit the developing countries.[42]

It is in the area of trade that U. S. firms have made notable contributions to technological improvements in the developing countries. Tomas Guerrero, Ecuadorian Agronomist has stated in regard to the contributions made by U. S. Business to the technological development of Ecuador the following:

> In Ecuador, U. S. businesses and their firms buy bananas and other fruits for export, livestock for their packing plants, cotton for ginning and processing, sugar cane for their mills, components

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[42] National Planning Association, op. cit.

> for machines which they manufacture, and many other products. Many of these firms give technical advice and assistance to the suppliers to enable them to increase both the quality and quantity of their products. These developments have greatly assisted the technological development of my country.[43]

Guerrero's statement illustrates the contributions of U. S. business to the economic development of an underdeveloped country.

Private U. S. research agencies and management and technical consulting firms are hired by firms of the developing countries to do technological and management research on such subjects as petroleum extraction, ore refining, and the milling of corn. Firms of developing countries also import technology through licensing agreements under which they manufacture products patented by U. S. firms, or use patented techniques and services in plant construction and operation, and in training employees.

Thus, private U. S. firms have been transferring techniques to the developing nations for many years. These activities have increased as U. S. private investment has grown in volume and has become more diversified. While not carried on primarily to transfer knowledge and skill, private business is an effective means to this end.

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[43]Guerrero, Tomas, Interview with Coordinator of Heifer Project/ Peace Corps Programs, Quito, Ecuador (June 15, 1965).

Technical Cooperation Activities of Voluntary Agencies. For many years, the private foundations and philanthropic organizations have been cooperating in the application of new ideas and techniques to the developing nations. The birth of voluntary agency technical cooperation started during the 19th century.[44] During this period early missionary effort in China, Japan, India, and Latin America led to the establishment of schools designed not only for religious instruction but to teach literacy and other elements of fundamental education. A sense of humanitarian urgency resulted in the sending of private voluntary agencies into some areas of the world well in advance of official U. S. government programs.

The First World War, and the urgent human problems it left behind, provided the impetus and marked a trend in the establishment of non-missionary international programs. Thousands of laymen were sent abroad by voluntary and other agencies to dispense food and medical supplies in Germany, Belgium, Russia, and other war-ravaged countries, and to aid refugees fleeing revolution or persecution.[45] Recognizing that relief needs were of such magnitude that voluntary effort alone could never cope with them, voluntary agencies urged speedy government intervention. Some of the outstanding voluntary personnel then assumed an active role in government sponsored programs while continuing their own independent efforts well into the postwar period.

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[44] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[45] Ibid.

Baty[46] reported that after World War I voluntary agencies organized secondary and trade schools. In the 1930's voluntary agencies organized institutions for advanced general and professional education. These beginnings marked the founding of colleges and universities, many of which became independent of church control. In fields as agriculture, engineering, medicine, and teacher training, voluntary agencies abroad have often provided the only specialized educational opportunity in an entire country or region.

Between the two wars, voluntary relief and emergency programs were in several notable instances converted into longer-term international programs. These stressed much long range aims as peace-making, reconciliation of people, and the building of lasting social institutions in countries lacking essential services.[47] Good-will missions, work camps, peace caravans, study tours, and the linking of American and foreign educational institutions for interchange of goods, funds, ideas and, above all, personnel were initiated on a small scale. Hospitals and other health services, and student fellowships through agencies like the Institute of International Education, slowly gained acceptance.[48] The depression of the thirties and the outbreak of the Second World War largely interrupted these efforts in Europe and Asia; but war's end in 1945 saw the beginning of another great expansion of international voluntary activity.

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[46] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[47] Ibid.

[48] Institute of International Education, Annual Report-1960, The Institute of International Education, New York, 1960, pp. 1-17.

The Second World War provided the impetus for the enlarged concept of voluntary international service out of which most of the major current programs developed. According to Hoffman[49] virtually every religious, business, labor, professional, fraternal, and service organization nurtured international projects between 1942 and 1947 as each new need developed, and both religious and secular organizations responded with funds, clothing, supplies, and personnel.

During the postwar period, both the U. S. government and the U. N. have accepted and institutionalized the pioneer notions of service developed by the volunteer agencies and which are now known as technical assistance, technical cooperation, and self-help projects.[50] These begin typically with a problem as defined in the country or community concerned, not with a service worked out in advance in the United States. They are inherently cooperative and designed to help local nationals help themselves. This whole approach has its roots in prewar projects such as those of the Rockefeller Foundation in Latin America.

In 1914, the Rockefeller Foundation initiated its first health program in Latin America. During succeeding years, it developed cooperative health programs in a total of 23 countries and dependent territories. It was the dominant technical cooperation agency in Latin America in health

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[49] Hoffman, E., Interview with Deputy Peace Corps Director, Quito, Ecuador, (August 28, 1964).

[50] Barnard, Dale, Interview with Heifer Project, Inc., Director, Philadelphia, Pa., (July 25, 1964).

and sanitation until the U. S. bilateral program was launched.

The Foundation's program began with campaigns to control hookworm, but soon programs to combat yellow fever and malaria were added. It became clear that, if the spectacular gains from these campaigns were to be preserved, the Latin American governments would need to develop permanent health organizations with large numbers of trained personnel. Thus, the program was expanded. Some governments were helped in improving their health services. A fellowship program for Latin American health workers was started. The Foundation helped to create and operate schools of public health and nursing in several countries. Through 1952 the Rockefeller Foundation spent somewhere in the neighborhood of 16 million dollars on medical and health programs in Latin America.[51]

The principles set up by the Rockefeller Foundation for its own guidance early in its operation have been important to the whole concept of technical cooperation. These were: The Foundation was a partner not a patron. It would work through government and under its authority and direction. The country was also required to be sufficiently interested to risk something, to follow the plan critically, to take over the cost of the work gradually but steadily and within a reasonable period to assume the entire burden of direction and expense of such programs.[52]

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[51] Rockefeller Foundation, Annual Report. Rockefeller Foundation, New York, 1953, pp. 1-210.

[52] Ibid.

The example of the work of the Rockefeller Foundation is typical of the activities of many other voluntary agencies. From steadily expanding two-way program thousands of Americans and foreigners have benefited, sharing ideas, experiences, and techniques with each other.

Technical Cooperation Activities of U. S. Universities. American universities have been participating in the field of technical cooperation for a number of years. In the past university operation in the developing countries has been of two basic types. First is the university to university cooperation, whereby a U. S. university cooperates with a university in another country in strengthening its faculty and facilities so that it will be a training and research center adequate to serve the needs of the country. An example of this type of arrangement was the Montana State University and University of Paraguay contract. Montana State University sent staff members to the University of Paraguay, trained Paraguayan students, and helped develop facilities at the University. The second type is the contractual agreement, under which a university renders particular professional services in a program jointly administered by the governments of the U. S. and the host country. These types of agreements have increased steadily since 1947.[53]

An example of university cooperation with developing nations is that of American universities. In May 1951, the first U. S. government-university contract for operations in Latin America was signed. By May 1955, there were

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[53]Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

19 contracts under which 15 U. S. universities were carrying on activities in Latin America. Today a total of 63 contracts, including those in Latin America, are now in operation under which 43 U. S. institutions are working in 31 countries.[54]

One of the major tasks of American universities is the training of nationals of host countries. Their specific objective is to prepare themselves for professional services in technical cooperation or other developmental programs of the host countries, rather than academic training as such. The expenses of these trainees are paid from technical cooperation funds of the U. S. and host countries.

In the fiscal year 1963, about 7,500 trainees were brought to the U. S. from all over the world at a cost of about $20 million dollars.[55] The majority of the trainees were in the fields of agriculture, public administration, and industry.

Many authorities in the field of technical cooperation agree that inter-university cooperation designed to strengthen existing universities in the host countries can become a very important phase of continuing technical cooperation programs.[56] Many leaders of the developing nations agree that most of the training for leadership to improve technology and to advance economic development should be done in the universities of their

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[54] Ibid.

[55] Ibid.

[56] Hoffman, E., op. cit., (Interview).

own countries. Much of the research designed to yield results directly applicable to local problems and conditions should be carried on there. These leaders also recognize, however, that most of the universities of the developing nations are now providing little or no training in technological fields, nor are they conducting research aimed at faster development.[57] There is a growing awareness in the developing countries of the importance of such activities as more of the long-established academic centers have come to realize the opportunity and challenge for greater service.

The experience of U. S. universities in technological training and research and in diffusion of knowledge and skills among the people is exportable. Many U. S. universities feel they have a public duty to advise and work with their counterparts in other countries.[58]

The experience of these universities, if carefully adapted to the needs of the developing nations, can speed up the process of planning new curricula and teaching methods, inaugurating or expanding research designed to yield results directly applicable to special problems of economic and social development, and devising ways and means for translating learning into action.

In turn, the U. S. universities will benefit in many ways. Those who take part in the programs will learn at first hand much about the host

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[57] Martin, Dr. Andrade, Interview with Minister of Education, Quito, Ecuador, (December 6, 1965).

[58] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

countries in which they work--about the characteristics and customs of the people, the organization and administration of the government, and the institutions with which they are cooperating. In addition, the university in the host country may have technical knowledge useful in the United States, or research carried on cooperatively in the host country may yield results which can be applied in the United States.

Summary

The illustration of a technical cooperation project in Ecuador has shown the essential characteristics of technical cooperation in action. The operation of Heifer Project in Ecuador was originally set up as a temporary program. However, experience over a long period of time clearly demonstrated that the Heifer Project program needed to be planned and carried out on a long term and continuous basis to be effective.

The example of the technical cooperation project in Ecuador has shown how government, voluntary, and university organizations have assisted in the spread of technology to a developing country. Heifer Project, a voluntary agency, supervised Peace Corps volunteers in agricultural programs and contributed livestock and technical advice concerning the establishment of animal reproduction centers and artificial insemination centers. Montana State University trained the volunteers who assisted with the project. Peace Corps and other U. S. government agencies contributed money and other materials. The Ecuadorian government contributed agricultural agents, money, training facilities, and transportation to assist in the

successful completion of the project.

The establishment of artificial insemination centers and experimental farms in Ecuador has also demonstrated that technical cooperation is the sharing of scientific and technical knowledge and skills among peoples helping each other adapt and use such knowledge and skills to achieve increased productivity and utilization of resources, increased incomes, and higher standards of living.

The development of a National Ecuadorian Livestock Plan demonstrated that the task of technical cooperation is twofold in purpose. The first task was to accelerate economic and social development already underway. The second task was to initiate economic and social development. Originally Heifer Project initiated livestock improvement through the imports of purebred livestock from the United States. In 1963 Heifer Project combined forces with U. S. and Ecuadorian agencies to accelerate livestock production through the development of a national livestock plan. Thus the example of technical cooperation work in Ecuador has shown the essential characteristics of technical cooperation in action.

An examination of the technical cooperation activities of business, government, university, religious, and voluntary agencies has demonstrated the overseas involvement of these organizations. Government agencies have been carrying out substantial technical assistance programs in the developing areas of the world since 1945. U. S. business firms have shared skills and technology with other countries through the channel of overseas business establishments. Voluntary and religious agencies have made outstanding

contributions in the field of education, public health, and agricultural development. U. S. universities have cooperated with sister institutions of other countries in the development of new curricula and the building of new educational facilities.

Technical cooperation agencies have also participated together in joint programs in many of the underdeveloped countries. Each of the agencies has had its individual objective and purpose in participation in the various technical assistance programs. However, while the programs of the technical cooperation agencies have attacked problems in varied fields, differing a great deal from country to country, all of these programs have had the same objective--to assist the developing countries to speed up economic and social development.

Part of the challenge to technical cooperation agencies encompasses the training of U. S. personnel to carry out the mission of the employing institution. The development of training programs for the personnel of these agencies is an important element of technical cooperation work. One of the major questions in this study concerns the types of training programs for overseas technicians and the current status of such programs. Information concerning the types and status of technical cooperation programs is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF TYPES AND STATUS OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION TRAINING PROGRAMS

The determination of the types and status of technical cooperation training programs was the second important question to be answered in this study. Authorities in the field of technical cooperation have expressed concern about the training and preparation of overseas technicians. Technicians are exposed to a variety of training situations in the U. S. setting and the preparation of these technicians varies from program to program according to training authorities. Therefore, a necessary step in this investigation was an examination of the different types of technical cooperation programs and the status of such programs. The primary sources of information regarding the types and status of training programs have been derived from the following sources: (1) literature relating to training programs conducted in the U. S., (2) training program reports, and (3) correspondence and interviews with authorities in the field of technical cooperation.

Description of Types of Technical Cooperation Training Programs

Evidence from authorities in the field of technical cooperation revealed there are five types of technical cooperation training programs. The types of training programs generally recognized to be operating in the U. S. are: (1) government, (2) business, (3) university, (4) religious,

and (5) voluntary. It should also be pointed out to the reader that several points concerning the status of technical cooperation programs will be reflected in discussion of the types of training programs. The training programs of U. S. government agencies will first be discussed.

U. S. Government Technical Cooperation Training Programs. Authorities in the field of technical cooperation have reported that government agencies engaged in overseas technical assistance work have conducted training programs for technicians. The first government agency to become actively involved in the training of technicians was the Foreign Service.

Until World War II no systematic overseas training existed for the professional Foreign Service officers of the United States. Many diplomats studied French, German, or Spanish for a few years. But in the majority of cases their proficiency was not outstanding, and in-service training was negligible. The assumption was that a broadly educated generalist could climb the career ladder of diplomacy without special training for particular jobs and different cultures. Since the war, the new tasks of the Foreign Service, together with the new agencies operating with the Foreign Service in the field, have forced attention to the problem of special training for government service abroad. Although the Rogers Act of 1924 had made the Foreign Service a merit system, it was not until the passage of the Foreign Service Act of 1946 that problems of recruitment and training for the Foreign Service were attacked directly.[1]

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[1] Barnes, W., and Morgan, J. H., The Foreign Service of the United States, Department of State: Washington, D. C., 1961, pp. 300-323.

Among other things, the Act of 1946 established the Foreign Service Institute based upon the Division of Training Service that had been set up in the State Department in 1945. The intention was to provide a system of overseas representation that would serve the interests of the United States abroad by providing adequate incentives for recruitment of able personnel. It also provided for economists and other academically trained professionals to work with the diplomats, who sometimes regarded themselves more as political or administrative specialists than as old-time generalists.[2]

For the ensuing decade, the Foreign Service Act was the vehicle for a considerable expansion of the career corps. As time went on, the earlier insistence that an interning candidate for the Service should have had some language training in college was dropped. Soon, however, the low state of language learning, especially the non-Western tongues that were becoming more and more relevant to American foreign relations, became a national scandal.[3] It became widely known, for example, that of the 285 officers entering the Service in 1956 only about 25 per cent had a useful-to-the service proficiency in any foreign language.

If the Foreign Service were slow to develop relevant training programs, the newer U. S. overseas operating agencies were even slower. The United States Information Service and the several agencies of the foreign

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[2] Taylor, Paul. Interview with Peace Corps Associate Representative, Quito, Ecuador (June 15, 1965).

[3] Ibid.

aid program have had a brief series of orientation lectures for new employees almost since they began to hire people; but at first the orientation was concentrated with information about the agencies' own internal procedures and advice--often badly out of date--about living conditions in the field.[4] An inspirational lecture or two had to serve as training for political sense and the building of institutions.

Taylor[5] reported that visits with experts recently returned from foreign areas were the substitute for the systematic study of foreign cultures; and language training was generally left to the new employee's own energy and initiative. The teaching materials were even more primitive than the teaching; case studies and general theory about cross-cultural operations were in conspicuously short supply. The training of military aid administrators could not even be described as primitive; until the late 1950's, officers assigned to the Military Assistance Advisory Groups, responsible for administering two or three billion dollars worth of military aid a year, received no special training at all.

This sorry state of affairs, dramatized in the public mind by the lack of language officers in the Foreign Service, produced during the 1950's a series of major reforms. The milestone in this process was the Secretary of State's Public Committee on Personnel, headed by President Henry M. Wriston of Brown University, which not only expanded the Service by

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[4] Department of State,"In-Service Training," Department of State Bulletin, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.: 1958, p. 3.

[5] Taylor, P., op. cit., (Interview).

transferring many of the State Department's Washington employees into it, but also called for an expanded system of recruitment and a major overhauling of the training of Foreign Service officers during their careers. Spurred by widespread public and congressional interest in the subject, the Foreign Service Institute was reorganized, with a new director, Harold Hoskins.[6] Other government technical cooperation agencies started to use the Foreign Service Institute's courses to supplement their own orientation programs. These agencies gradually came to realize that United States foreign operations were not a temporary affair, but a permanent addition to the functions of the federal government. As a consequence, long-range training policies began to be born.

The programs of the war and postwar period gave great impetus to the development of training for technical cooperation agencies within the government. New curriculums and new training methods were developed. In this regard advances in language and area studies have proved especially valuable. Noffsinger has reported that the majority of the government agencies are continually re-evaluating their training programs and incorporating new ideas in the training program curriculum.[7]

Today the training of government workers for overseas service is a rapidly developing field. Such agencies as USIA, AID, Public Health, FAS, the Foreign Service, and others have developed complex training programs.

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[6] Noffsinger, J., Interview with Peace Corps Consultant, Washington, D. C. (January 11, 1963).

[7] Ibid.

This compares to no training at all during the pre-war period. One of the most successful training programs is that of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA). The CIA program is one of the most difficult for other agencies to copy because of the security screen of the organization. But even among the other agencies, there is a growing awareness of the limits of no training whatsoever, and the consequent broadening of the kinds of educational experiences to which Washington top administrators are willing to expose their subordinates.

Religious Technical Cooperation Training Programs. Technical co-operation authorities have reported that missionary groups have trained technicians for overseas service since the early 1900's. These training programs have generally been inadequate in the preparation of missionary technicians. The problems of training missionaries is evidently serious.

A 1957 survey of Protestants who had quit foreign service for one reason or another indicated that 83 per cent lacked training in cultural orientation and 77 per cent were without training in a foreign language.[8] There seems, moreover, to be a positive correlation between the success of missionary selection and training and rate of missionary turnover. Available statistics combined from various sources show that about 25 per cent of missionaries either do not complete their first tour of duty or do not return to the field after their first furlough. About half this loss is considered to be avoidable.[9]

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[8] Moyer, K. E., A Study of Missionary Motivation, Training, and Withdrawal, 1932-1952. Missionary Research Library, New York City, 1955, p. 34.

[9] Ibid., p. 35.

The typical missionary is a college graduate; in fact this is normally a minimum requirement. To this often is added a master's degree, or theological seminary training. There is an increasing tendency for the academic training to include area studies such as the geography and history of the country of one's interest. Individual skills and professions cover a wide range. Only a third of the appointees are seminary graduates.

Most missionaries apply for appointment while in college, and many are under consideration by their Board for one to three years before final approval. In addition to the usual application forms and letters of recommendations, full medical and psychological measurements are employed, and in some cases psychiatric tests are used. Interviews are always required. Only a selected few receive final appointment, but even so, mistakes are still made.

According to Krepps[10] there is an increasing tendency for candidates to have had specialized experience in the United States before going abroad. The average age at appointment is thus rising. Whereas there was once a tendency for young people of miscellaneous backgrounds to feel a missionary call and to volunteer, today the Boards are taking the initiative in seeking specialized personnel to fit specific requests from overseas churches.

Until the postwar period, the training of U. S. missionaries going overseas seems to have been concentrated primarily on languages. Since

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[10]Krepps, George, Interview with Director of the Brethren Church Overseas Mission, Quito, Ecuador (April 17, 1965).

1945, however, there has been a trend toward developing in the missionary an attitude of mind and providing him with a knowledge of the overseas environment which will enable him to fit easily and naturally into his new overseas community.[11] The curriculums of missionary training programs now include study of the culture, social, religious, and educational institutions, and the traditions, and literature, and the art of the country to which the missionary is assigned.

The training period frequently lasts about a year. Though practices vary widely, an increasing amount of this training is apt to be given in the overseas locality. There is among certain mission organizations a growing conviction that overseas training centers have a number of advantages, and there is some insistence by native churches overseas that the use of local centers be increased.

A typical general course for new missionaries is that given by the Kennedy School of Missions in the Hartford Seminary.[12] It is a two-semester course that includes the study of appropriate European languages and linguistics as an aid in learning local languages and dialects. The study of missionary methods at the school includes analysis of various techniques of working with local peoples--for example, the techniques of literacy training and welfare and public health work.[13] There is also a

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[11] Ibid.

[12] Sayre, W., Training for Mission Personnel, Public Administration Service, Chicago: 1952, p. 46.

[13] Hartford Seminary, Preparation of Overseas Missionaries. The Missionary Press, Hartford, Conn.: 1960.

growing emphasis on the study of anthropology.

In addition to the training of missionaries for general assignments overseas, there are a number of programs for specialized training. One of these is offered by the School for Rural Missionaries sponsored by Agricultural Missions, Inc. The curriculum consists of courses in agriculture, soils, land economics, animal husbandry, rural sociology, rural education, nutrition, and home and country life.[14]

Another example of specialized training is the program offered by the Christian Medical Council, which provides training both for non-medical personnel and doctors. The program for non-medical personnel, which has been in operation for seven years, is intended to give missionaries elementary training in simple medical and public health practices.[15]

The program for medical personnel is more varied. Most doctors appointed by mission boards study for at least one semester at a seminary or other educational institution. This instruction includes languages, area study of the country to which the doctor is assigned, and religious study for doctors; anthropology is now being introduced into these courses. Some doctors take special training in tropical medicine and public health.[16]

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[14] Agricultural Missions, Training For Agricultural Missionaries, Agricultural Missions, Inc., New York, 1961, pp. 2-21.

[15] Christian Medical Council, Medical Missionaries Overseas, Christian Medical Council, New York, 1957, pp. 5-17.

[16] Ibid.

In carrying out these and other training programs, most of the Protestant missionary societies coordinate many of their activities through the Committee on Missionary Personnel of the Division of Foreign Missions of the National Council of Churches.

Braun[17] reports the emphasis in the training of missionaries today is on alerting the new appointee as to the new relationships and to the attitudes he must have to operate effectively in his role as partner. There is still attention to information and techniques but this has become secondary to skills in communication and identification with an alien culture. The new missionary training thus tries to help the appointee to enter imaginatively into the nationalistic problems and revolutionary feelings of the people whom he will meet when he goes abroad. It is not enough that the missionary be a person of fine character and high attainments; special attitudes and abilities suitable to the change role of the American missionary are essential.

One board has attempted to develop these special attitudes and skills with its own semester long, seminar type, Study and Fellowship Workshop.[18] This program is designed not only to prepare people for service in a different culture but also to detect any lack of adjustability or weakness in temperament. Not until near the end of this seminar are approved

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[17]Braun, Gene, Interview with Assistant Director of Overseas Missions, Quito, Ecuador, (December 28, 1964).

[18]Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

candidates given final appointments. Even so, some missionaries turn out to be misfits, but the percentage of resignations or requested withdrawals has been lessened.

On arrival overseas, missionaries usually spend at least a year in full time language study. This usually takes place in formal language schools which commonly include lectures on the culture of the area. The second year abroad usually involves half-time language study, with provisions for continued progress in subsequent years. Failure to develop a mastery of the local language often results in a cancellation of the appointment. During the first furlough period back in the U. S., many missionaries devote their full time to graduate studies, perhaps with work toward a doctorate.

Any American with a passport and a visa may go abroad as a missionary. Some missionaries proceed without any organized backing and depend on faith for continuing support from personal friends or scattered churches. For these there are no qualifying standards. At the other extreme are the major denominational Boards, each with hundreds of appointees and procedures similar to those already described.

The contrasts in preparation for missionaries are wider than with any other group of Americans working in technical cooperation activities. At the same time, the majority of missionaries probably have a more adequate introduction to life abroad and competence in local languages than any other large group. The motivations and attitudes of missionaries are also unique; for the most part they are prepared to live abroad indefinitely.

Voluntary Agency Technical Cooperation Training Programs. The voluntary agencies training technicians for overseas service have been plagued by many of the same problems which religious agencies have faced. Today the critical problem confronting voluntary agencies is the recruitment and training of personnel in sufficient numbers.

A recent report of the American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service complains that "A critical problem exists in the recruitment and training of suitable personnel in sufficient numbers."[19] The same report described the qualification which the voluntary agencies insist staff members possess for overseas work:

> They must, says the Council, be persons who have humility, modesty and an ability to meet and deal effectively with other peoples and to impart their knowledge. They should be free from prejudice, have sensitivity and adaptability. They need personal maturity of judgment, objectivity and ability to pioneer."[20] A member of the Council has added, "They need to be the kind of people who can make do with the local resources available, who can gain the confidence of the local community, and whose sincerity is self-evident and unquestioned."[21]

Other important factors are also involved in the attitudes which voluntary workers must develop to perform effectively overseas. The voluntary technician must be able to work with American government personnel and with

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[19] American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service, Annual Report of the American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service. New York, 1961, pp. 5-17.

[20] Ibid.

[21] Ibid.

indigenous leaders, taking the initiative while refraining from any form of political activity. Noffsinger, Peace Corps Consultant, has noted other qualities expected of the voluntary worker:

> The voluntary technician must be fully qualified professionally for the job he undertakes, but also willing to perform any task at hand, however menial. He should know a great deal about the history, culture, religion, geography, economy and political structure of the country, and, in most cases, be able to speak the language. While acquiring all this background, he must at the same time be consciously trying to work himself out of a job, by turning over his functions as rapidly as possible to local persons.[22]

These exemplary qualities will not make the technician rich. True, agencies financed by foundations or government contracts can come close to competing with government and normal professional salaries. But in many of the voluntary agencies the applicant must be willing to work on a maintenance basis, or at best for a very small salary. It is little wonder that a critical problem exists in the recruitment of suitable personnel in sufficient numbers.

Yet, competent staffs for voluntary agencies have been recruited and are on the job. They include some outstanding physicians, engineers, professors, trained social workers, and administrators. In 1953 alone, 2,840 technical cooperation projects of voluntary agencies were reported, representing at least as many workers in the field.[23] Since that time the

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[22] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[23] Braun, G., op. cit., (Interview).

number of projects and field workers has increased considerably.[24]

All new overseas personnel need special training to fit them for their assignments according to the Council study previously cited.[25] In this respect the Council report suggests that:

> Facilities for training in technical cooperation should be expanded: education in colleges should include courses suitable for technical cooperation careers which would give competence in cultural understandings. Technical knowledge does not necessarily give a body of knowledge of how to work with people nor an understanding of how much this technical knowledge can be used in other countries. Personnel interested in technical assistance should be aware of the social accompaniments of technical change. They should be able to see technical cooperation as part of a great whole, with emphasis on breadth of vision of a sociological and pyschological nature.[26]

The establishment of a training program for voluntary agencies as suggested by the council report is indeed a very large order.

Voluntary agencies face many of the problems that are common to all technical cooperation organizations. These pressing problems--the critical shortages of skilled personnel, the eternal questions of too many useful subjects and too little usable time--face all of the technical cooperation agencies.

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[24] Ibid.

[25] American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Services, op. cit., pp. 2-10.

[26] American Friends Service Committee, Orientation for Voluntary Workers, American Friends Service Committee, Philadelphia, Pa., 1962, pp. 1-26.

U. S. Business Technical Cooperation Training Programs. Business organizations have trained overseas technicians since American commercial interests first went abroad. Much of this early training consisted of on-the-job training. Key understandings were notably absent from these early programs.

American business corporations with permanent overseas interests and staffs have become increasingly aware, especially in the postwar period, of the need for training programs to equip their staffs for effective work in overseas environments.[27] There is every indication that these needs will increase as U. S. world leadership and participation in international technical cooperation programs bring about wider economic relationships.

The training of the overseas staffs of business corporations is a somewhat different problem from the training of the overseas staffs of government or other types of technical cooperation agencies. The corporation typically has more time in which to select its overseas representatives. It is usually able to recruit its senior representatives from among its own experienced employees, and it can thus send its newly recruited junior representatives to serve a reasonably complete apprenticeship under the supervision of executives overseas who have had a long experience with the company and its overseas work. Sayre[28] has noted that even where this pattern of recruitment for overseas work is not feasible, the corporation

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[27] Sayre, W., op. cit., pp. 45-46.

[28] Ibid.

ordinarily is concerned with sufficiently small numbers of new overseas representatives and is usually sufficiently in control of its timetable of operations to be able to select more carefully and train over a longer period of time than can the typical government or voluntary agency. Not all corporations have these advantages, of course, and not all make full use of their opportunities; in such cases, their problems in training their overseas staffs resemble more closely those of the other technical cooperation agencies.

The differences suggested do not alter the fact that in most respects the business corporations and the other technical cooperation agencies have common problems and common interests in the development of satisfactory forms of orientation training for staffs going overseas to work in strikingly different cultural, social, economic, and technological environments. These common problems and common interests have not yet led to joint consultation, systematic exchange of ideas, and sharing of facilities between business and other technical cooperation agencies. However, some recognition is developing that such arrangements might be mutually profitable.[29]

The pattern of training of a large banking institution with extensive operation in other countries is perhaps typical. This corporation systematically recruits young men who are interested in foreign trade and commerce,

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[29] Ibid.

especially their banking aspects. These recruits, who in general are college graduates with a broad educational preparation, are first assigned to work for six months in the U. S. headquarters organization. The recruit is then sent overseas as a junior staff member to serve for three years at one post. In this period he is expected to become thoroughly acquainted with the country's culture and economy and relationship of the economy to his firm and to acquire a fluent command of the language of the country. There is no formal training program for the junior member, although he may be sent to a language school for a brief period; rather, he is made to understand that these training objectives are among his main responsibilities in these three years, and that his career with the firm depends largely upon how successfully he accomplishes them. The training process of this firm thus consists of a carefully planned apprenticeship of three and one-half years which places greatest emphasis upon training overseas.[30] This type of training is also characteristic of other business organizations.

The growing awareness of U. S. business corporations that their overseas staffs need special training has led to the establishment of at least one training institute which has built its curriculum around these training needs. This is the American Institute of Foreign Trade, located at Thunderbird Field, Phoenix, Arizona. Founded in 1946, and supported in part by a group of business corporations interested in the development of trained

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[30] National City Bank, Training Program for Overseas Executives, New York City Bank, New York, 1962, pp. 1-13.

overseas staffs, the Institute has a three-part curriculum: foreign languages, area studies, and the business administration of foreign trade. Admission is open to students who have completed two years of college work. The program offered consists of two semesters or thirty-two semester hours of instruction. Specializing primarily in Latin America languages and area studies, the Institute since 1947 has graduated several hundred students who have been employed by business corporations seeking junior representatives for overseas work.[31]

These representative illustrations of training programs used by U. S. business corporations for the preparation of their overseas staffs depict a wide range of training programs. Many corporations have experienced the need for some kind of training program, and many of them--perhaps a majority have attempted to develop training programs for overseas technicians.

U. S. University Technical Cooperation Training Programs. U. S. universities have traditionally been concerned with the preparation of area study specialists and students who would one day enter the Foreign Service.

U. S. universities and colleges have not been closely associated with the training of overseas technicians of the various technical cooperation agencies despite their extensive association with such training during World War II. The Public Health Service program at Harvard in 1951, is an outstanding exception.[32]

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[31] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 46.

[32] Ibid., pp. 5-15.

There are several reasons for this lack of participation in short term training programs. The universities and colleges are largely concerned in the task of developing more effective kinds of long-term training programs, with emphasis upon area research and upon the training of area specialists who will constitute the seed for the further expansion of fundamental research, publication, and teaching in the fields where the needs of knowledge about the rest of the world are greatest. The universities and colleges have also been hard pressed to supply in sufficient numbers the area and foreign affairs specialists needed for the career services of the government agencies. Finally, until recently, government agencies have failed to define how universities and colleges might participate in the training of technicians.

The resources of the universities and colleges for area research and for the long-term training of area specialists have been thoroughly evaluated in three studies. These studies are: The Social Science Research Council Report,[33] A Survey of Asian Studies,[34] and Language and Area Study Programs in American Universities.[35] These studies revealed both the great potential and the sharply felt needs in university resources for such work, and have indicated there are many opportunities for useful university

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[33] Bennett, W., Area Studies in American Universities, Social Science Council, New York, 1951, pp. 75.

[34] Spaeth, C., A Survey of Asian Studies, Stanford University, Palo Alto, California, 1951, pp. 102.

[35] Department of State, Language and Area Study Programs in American Universities, Washington, D. C., 1962, pp. 142.

participation in the short-term training of technicians. They also have warned that careful planning is needed to avoid conflicting priorities and pressures upon scarce university resources. According to the President's Council on National Goals,[36] it is essential to the national welfare that universities and colleges achieve a proper balance among the needs for basic area and related studies, the training of research and teaching talent, the production of career specialists in foreign affairs work, and the provision of training technicians for other agencies concerned with technical cooperation work.

The federal government has established an interdepartmental committee, with a chairman from the Civil Service Commission, to work out a stable pattern of relationships with university centers of area studies. No such machinery has yet been established to concentrate on working out cooperative government-university relations in meeting the training needs of technical cooperation agencies.[37] It would appear there are many opportunities for directing the training needs of technical cooperation agencies into the current programs of universities without in any way jeopardizing their scarce resources. Where this meshing of needs and facilities is done with foresight, it can serve to enrich the experience and capacities both of the institutions and of the agencies.

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[36] State Department, President's Council on National Goals. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1958, pp. 1-167.

[37] Ibid.

There are some resources that are not being fully used, especially at the institutions not already committed to heavy obligations in area studies. For example, the graduate curriculum in social and technical assistance curriculum of Haverford College shows the possibility that a number of well situated and comparably staffed institutions might be brought into useful working relationships with the training programs of several types of specialized technical cooperation agencies.[38] The School for Advanced International Studies, now a part of the Johns Hopkins University has conducted many seminars for special technical cooperation groups. John Hopkins University also has the special advantage of a location near Washington.

Since 1958 the trend has been increasingly toward cooperative relationships between universities and the technical cooperation agencies. Grants from the Carnegie Foundation enabled Syracuse University and Montana State University to set up specific study programs for the training of overseas technicians. The Montana State program enables a student with a B. S. degree to work toward an advanced degree in a technical field. A cross-cultural curriculum component , and other related subjects are taken by the students. A three-month experience in Mexico has provided opportunities for students to study and work in a different cultural setting.[39] Many other universities and colleges are developing similar study programs.

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[38] Post, D., Interview with Peace Corps Staff Assistant, Washington, D. C., (January 12, 1963).

[39] Trail, T. F., op. cit., p. 3.

The outgrowth of such programs has been a closer working relationship between universities and technical cooperation agencies. One of the most notable trends has been the training of Peace Corps volunteers for the U. S. government by universities and colleges.

Another important component of university programs has been the training of university staff going overseas with a university-government or private organization contracts in technical cooperation work. Texas A & M has developed a typical training program for its staff members working with AID contracts in Pakistan. Staff members participate in a two-month program. Chief emphasis is placed on language. A total of 90 hours of Bengali and Urdu are offered coupled with intensive courses in the culture, society, religion, and politics of the area.[40]

The current trend is for the strengthening of cooperative bonds between universities and colleges and the technical cooperation agencies involved in overseas work. An outgrowth of this trend has been the establishment of specific training curricula for overseas technicians and the training of university staff members engaged in overseas technical cooperation activities for the university involved. Probably the most important conclusion to draw from the experience of universities in technical cooperation work is that while the scarce resources of universities and colleges need to be carefully guarded in the face of competing demands, they are now used insufficiently in the important task of training of technicians for technical

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[40]Gray, Jack, Staff Training for Pakistan, Texas A & M College Press, College Station, Texas, 1962, pp. 2-10.

cooperation agencies which are carrying out so many of the nation's most crucial overseas responsibilities.

Status of Technical Cooperation Training Programs

Authorities in the field of technical cooperation have expressed concern about the current status of many training programs preparing technicians for work overseas. Evidence revealed in the literature and reports of training authorities has indicated that current training efforts fail to adequately prepare technicians for effective overseas service. In order to give the reader a greater understanding of the current training efforts of technical cooperation agencies it was deemed necessary to investigate the status of training programs conducted in the U. S. The discussion of the status of training programs will be focused on four important points. These are: (1) the need for training programs, (2) the design of training programs, (3) the curricula of training programs, and (4) inadequacies and persistent problems of training programs.

The Need for Training Programs. There is now almost universal recognition in overseas programs of the need for some training for technicians according to Baty.[41] There is now general acceptance that a technician needs more than just his professional skills to perform effectively

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[41] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

overseas.[42] A technician needs to learn certain understandings and skills in areas such as cross-cultural relations in order to accomplish his job successfully overseas according to Winslow.[43] Thus authorities in the field of technical cooperation express their concern for the need of training technicians for overseas service.

In order to prepare a technician for effective overseas service he must be trained. The "ideal" technician is the goal of most training programs. Whether one can train the "ideal" technician or select him before training is a question which has brought out much questioning but few answers. The "ideal" technician has been described in the following terms by Asher:

> Our ignorance regarding the personal qualities needed by instigators of social change is even greater. The preparation of laundry lists of desirable qualities has become a favorite occupation; but, alas, all that emerges is an ideal man who does not exist. We do not know how to create him, and we might not recognize him if we saw him. He must be cultured and cross-cultured. He must be disciplined and interdisciplined. He must be well stocked with empathy and anti-freeze. He must be a model himself, and he must know about model-building, institution building, and body building.[44]

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[42] Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 23.

[43] Ibid., p. 20.

[44] Asher, Robert E., "In Conclusion," Development of the Emerging Countries: An Agenda for Research. The Brookings Institute, Washington, D. C., 1962, p. 239.

Authorities in the field of overseas training have reported that it is impossible to select the so-called "ideal" technician. Therefore, it is necessary to train him. The need for training programs preparing overseas technician for service abroad becomes apparent when placed in this context.

Design of Technical Cooperation Training Programs. The rapid expansion of training programs in technical cooperation has led to the development of a new educational field. Copious literature now appears from most of the organizations training technicians for overseas service. However, authorities training overseas technicians have reported that little research has been conducted into the design of programs preparing technicians for overseas service.

The lack of communication between the various training agencies in the exchange of ideas dealing with program design emerges as one of the major problems facing technical cooperation agencies. The inadequate communication between training agencies has been summed up in the following manner by Baty: "The majority of the training programs have evolved independently of each other, and the lines of communication between the various institutions conducting such programs have been inadequate."[45]

The lack of communication between training agencies has also been pointed out as a major problem by Winslow.[46] The communication of ideas concerning training and the sharing of common experiences and problems appears to be basic in designing more adequate training programs.[47]

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[45] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[46] Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 19.

[47] Ibid.

Cleveland[48] pointed out that although some advance has been made in the design of training programs few training agencies are satisfied with the results. In this regard, Esman has noted that with each passing day new recuits to international operations are entering the fold no better prepared for their tasks than those who first ventured upon the overseas scene a decade or more ago.[49] The lack of research into the design of training programs is summarized in this manner by Esman:

> No sane person would attempt to put a space ship in orbit without elaborate supporting educational and research activities. Yet this is precisely what we have attempted on the more subtle and complex areas of overseas operations.[50]

This speaks discouragingly of the research efforts in the design of training programs.

Another problem area is the relation between goals of the technical cooperation program and the training program. Research by Winslow[51] has pointed out the discrepancy between program design and actual accomplishment in the field. It appears that much can be done to strengthen the design of existing training programs in the field of technical cooperation.

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[48] Cleveland, H., op. cit., pp. 265-285.

[49] Esman, M. J., Needed: An Education and Research Base to Support America's Expanded Commitments Overseas, University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburgh, 1961, p. 8.

[50] Ibid., p. 8.

[51] Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 20.

One factor operates in favor of strengthening the designing of training programs. This is the recognition on the part of technical cooperation training personnel that the designs of most training programs are in the experimental stage. The experimental attitude in designing and carrying out training programs, according to Baty,[52] has enabled many newly developed programs to operate in a much more flexible manner to meet the needs of the trainees and the overseas situation which they will face. In this regard, insofar as time, staff, and resources allotted to them will permit, the best of current programs are tailored to meet the expressed needs of the technicians. Evaluation of the courses by technicians at Montana State University, for example, has played a prominent part in making adjustments, within the framework of course objectives, to more fully meet the needs of individual technicians. This is an approach which holds promise for the future.

Such training programs as the International Cooperation Center at Montana State University have also been revised in the light of the work experiences of the technicians. When such a program has been in operation long enough to permit systematic surveys of its impact and results, it has been revamped as the evidence has come in.

In due time, training officers should be able to make some definitive decisions on the basis of this evidence as to the parts of present training efforts that are irrelevant and can be discarded, the parts that need to be

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[52] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

strengthened, and the new materials that need to be added. This will help in the design and construction of future training programs.

Curricula of U. S. Technical Cooperation Training Programs. The lack of training curricula to prepare technicians for effective overseas service has been reported by training authorities to be a major problem facing training agencies. Traditional training curricula which have stressed administrative considerations instead of cross-cultural understandings needed for effective overseas performance have failed to adequately prepare the majority of overseas technicians according to many training authorities. The content of many training programs has been based to a great extent upon the opinions of authorities who have had little overseas experience.

Today important questions facing technical cooperation agencies are: What should the technician know about? What understandings should he incorporate into his "cultural baggage?" What basic understandings and skills should he be familiar with to better prepare himself for overseas service? Authorities in the field of technical cooperation have many ideas in respect to these questions.

An overseas expert obviously needs to know about the agency employing him according to Winslow.[53] Many of the details which a technician needs to know about the agency are summed up in following manner by Winslow:

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[53] Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 20.

> The technician needs to know its principles and how it works administratively: what authority will be delegated to him, what support he can expect, what channels of communication and reporting he will be expected to use. It goes without saying that before he is hired, he should know in full detail all the conditions of service and should be given a sober, realistic picture of his mission.[54]

Few authorities would disagree as to the value of such knowledge.

An understanding of the language and customs of a country is deemed important by many overseas authorities. The aim of technical cooperation training programs should be the creation of a body of well-motivated, technically competent representatives who are knowledgeable in the language and customs of countries in which they will be located according to McCloy.[55] Other training authorities have also reported that training in the language and customs of a country are basic to the preparation of overseas technicians.

Cross-cultural understandings are another important area of concern for the technician. The time devoted to training in cross-cultural areas in such programs as the Peace Corps and many of the voluntary agencies is apparent. Rice pointed out the value of such preparation in the following manner:

> If they are to have the personal and professional skills suggested as important for effectiveness overseas, they should

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[54] Ibid.

[55] McCloy, John J., "Foreign Economic Policy and Objectives," Goals for Americans, The American Assembly, Washington, D. C., 1960, p. 347.

> begin preparing themselves as undergraduates in useful professional fields and in other subjects related to international service. Or, if this is not possible, they should be prepared to go through a special training program which not only increases and adapts their professional skill to an overseas situation, but adds the cross-cultural understandings contributing to effectiveness.[56]

The importance of cross-cultural understandings has also been reported by many training program directors to be essential in the preparation of technicians.

Many training programs try to incorporate the entire spectrum of basic understandings into a period of a week or less of intensive training. Technicians are expected to become knowledgeable in the following areas during a short training period, according to Winslow:

> Ideally all personnel would probably benefit from six months to a year of training, but this is clearly utopian. For technicians, the feasible range lies somewhere between two weeks and two months. In this period they are supposed to learn about their new employer; familiarize themselves with technical co-operation in general, understand how their project originated, what results it is expected to yield, and what program it fits into; glean the essentials regarding the value systems of the host country; acquire a knowledge of the typical situations and conditions they will face and an understanding of their role as instruments of social change. Even these basic ingredients tend to get squeezed out in the press of departure.[57]

Unfortunately the type of training described by Winslow is all too characteristic of current training efforts.

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[56] Rice, Andrew E., "Training Programs in International Development and Overseas Service," International Development Review. Vol. III, No. 1, (February 1961), p. 45.

[57] Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 21.

Much needs to be done in regard to defining the basic understandings and skills which can be learned within an optimum time and which can be regarded as an absolutely essential part of the training curricula. Many phenomena are not adequately explained in the application of technical skills of the technician to a project in a changing society. Universities, governmental agencies, and foundations all have a responsibility to investigate experiences in the overseas field, and to try and define those areas of knowledge which can best be applied in a training program to prepare the overseas technician.

U. S. universities bear the primary responsibility for the development of a body of knowledge which can be used to train overseas technicians, according to Esman:

> The attempt in many overseas training programs is to study not only the technical aspects, but also the psychological and cultural motivations of the society, in order to discover how to introduce changes more successfully. The universities must bear a primary responsibility for developing theories against relevant experience, and a body of professional knowledge and practice which can form the nucleus of educational programs to prepare those who will participate in overseas operations.[58]

The development of a body of professional knowledge and practice which can form the core of an educational program to prepare overseas technicians is indeed an urgent need.

It appears that training, which is so obviously called for, must be structured to the overseas situation. Traditional training programs are

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[58] Esman, R., op. cit., p. 8.

not sufficient and new perspectives are often needed in revitalizing a change of direction. Programs training overseas technicians must remain in touch with the times and continually evaluate their role in preparing the agent of change to do a more constructive job. In no place is this more necessary than in the technical cooperation programs being conducted in the developing areas of the world.

The types of understandings that should be gained in a training program for overseas work apparently remain largely unknown. Educated "hunches" or opinions of the understandings necessary for effective overseas performance are still the primary guide in the construction of training programs. In support of this statement a recent report from Rome[59] cited the fact that at present there is little or no criteria by which to judge the "success" of a project in the field. The report further stated that the criteria by which to judge the "success" of the expert in the performance of his job is even less plentiful.[60] If the elements of success in the field cannot be effectively judged or measured at this particular date, then it appears that understandings needed for successful overseas performance are only at best the judgmental insights of the authorities in the field.

At present employing agencies preparing overseas technicians should

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[59] Food and Agricultural Organization, Report of the United Nations Technical Assistance Training Conference, Rome, Italy (mimeographed report), 1963, p. 3.

[60] Ibid., p. 4.

concentrate on those aspects of training that can be meaningfully covered within the length of the training program, according to Winslow:

> Until a generation of authorities can be given in their formal education the requisite basic orientation and knowledge, the employing agency should, however reluctantly, accept the fact that its experts are going to fall below the ideal and concentrate on those aspects of training that can be meaningfully instilled with the allotted time. This will require field research in cooperation with experts and with host governments--on the types of knowledge and attitudes that make for success. It will require research of the agencies to capture their experience and make it available to the researcher. Upon the findings of such investigations, it should be possible to determine what can and must be taught during the training program.[61]

Thus it appears that the knowledge and understandings needed for successful overseas performance are questions that have stimulated much debate and discussion and that are still in a highly unscientific stage of conclusion.

Many American institutions and agencies have contributed to the development of the training program curricula. These agencies have done pioneer work in the field of curriculum development. The pioneer efforts of such institutions the Foreign Service Institute, Agricultural Missions, American Foreign Trade Institute, AID, and Syracuse University represent only a small sample of those institutions and agencies that have contributed to the development of such programs. It is also apparent that many other agencies have sacrificed development of their training program curricula to other detailed aspects of their programs. Frank and Helen Trager pointed

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[61]Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 24.

out the following anecdote in respect to the sacrificing of key elements in training to other program considerations.

> The recruit who probably has spent many months waiting for security clearance, not knowing whether to sublease his home, ask for a leave, prepare his family for an overseas move, or to otherwise do or not do the thousand and one things of a normal living while he is being investigated and before getting the firm appointment which, at the last minute, could fail to come because of program changes, suddenly finds himself rushed to Washington with or without his family, a recruited technical assistant. Once there and on the federal payroll, Washington is most anxious and somewhat impatient to send him to the country of his assignment, which, of course, has been waiting his arrival for six to fifteen months. At best, therefore, he is offered a brief noncompulsory training period lasting two to four weeks, during which time he is also expected to familiarize himself with his new project and agency, learn about and visit other related Washington agencies, finish taking his shots, arrange for his and the family's transportation, acquire passports and otherwise manage himself and his family.[62]

The training described by Trager is almost worthless in terms of gaining understandings which might possibly help a technician in his overseas job. Unfortunately, many training programs skim over basic curricula areas to deal with minor program considerations.

It is also apparent that a training program designed and conducted under such circumstances as described by Trager might be somewhat inadequate. A recent Carnegie report also suggested that overseas training programs have glossed over essential understandings during the course of training

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[62] Trager, F., and Trager, H., "Exporting and Training Experts," The Review of Politics, Vol. 24, No. 1. (January 1962). p. 95.

resulting in the shoddy preparation of technicians:

> Too many of the programs for study or work abroad have been shallow in conception and shoddy in execution, leading at best to a gloss of cosmopolitanism to adorn the student and at worst to the false belief that he has acquired more than a superficial notion of what the world is all about.[63]

The reports of other authorities in technical cooperation also indicated that the development of training curricula to fit the needs of agencies and technicians has been generally inadequate.

American universities have contributed to the curricular development of overseas programs. However, to some authorities, the universities have not always succeeded at their task. Well informed observers have stated: "American colleges and universities do not produce graduates who are adequately informed, interested, realistic, sensitive, and responsible so far as events and conditions outside the United States are concerned."[64] It is apparent the contributions of U. S. universities toward training of overseas representatives can be improved.

American universities have often failed to analyze their curriculum in light of the importance of preparing technicians for overseas service. This would also apply to those students who may one day enter into the foreign service or some similar type of organization. The American

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[63]Carnegie Corporation, "Young Americans Abroad," Carnegie Corporation of the New York Quarterly, New York, January 1961, p. 1.

[64]Northwestern University, Report of Discussions of Advisory Group at Northwestern University, Chicago, Ill., April 12, 13, and 14, 1956, pp. 5-10.

university is in the habit of adding new courses, rather than analyzing how the old could be altered to accomplish a new purpose. This is deeply ingrained in nearly every academic community, according to Cleveland.[65] The responsibility in re-evaluating the curriculum of the American university in light of preparing students for possible overseas work is best summed up by Bidwell:

> Certainly, the international complications of our time demand a thoroughly enlightened citizenry and I am sure that we could find in all curricula some courses which are of less significance than this particular objective. It may be necessary to deemphasize, if not abolish more traditional courses the need for which, though it may still exist, is not nearly as great as the need for the study of new areas. It is always a painful process to sweep out of the curriculum the items that have outlived their usefulness.[66]

Continued research and evaluation of the curricula of universities and technical cooperation agencies will, no doubt, help to improve the quality of graduates that will one day venture forth into the overseas environment. Greater attention is focused on the curriculums of overseas training programs in Chapter 5.

Inadequacies and Persistent Problems in Training Programs. The barriers to improved training programs are not inconsiderable. They arise

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[65] Cleveland, H., op. cit., pp. 265-285.

[66] Bidwell, P., op. cit., p. 120.

basically out of the emergency character of the technical cooperation programs, with their demands for speed and results, and the failure on the part of top executives and central personnel agencies to recognize that the training of staffs is central to the success of these programs. The barriers to improved programs from the failure to develop an adequate training curriculum; the lack of adequate training materials; and the need for improved training methods.

Many technical cooperation programs have been developed and launched under the pressures of speed and the necessity for immediate results. Shuart[67] reported that so great have been some of these pressures that specific programs were still being developed at headquarters while missions were already on their way to their overseas posts.

Other factors which contribute to keeping technical cooperation programs in a flux are: (1) delays in obtaining finances, (2) delays in completing agreements with the countries in which the programs are to be conducted, and (3) the difficulties of obtaining staff. All of these factors contribute to the pressure on technical cooperation administrative personnel to cut down the time allotted for training.

The training curriculums for technical cooperation agencies reflect the great need for a more adequate concept of the scope of the training that

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[67] Shuart, E., Interview with Point IV Livestock and Development Specialists, Quito, Ecuador (June 11, 1965).

should be given. In his doctoral dissertation, Thurber has noted three areas of the curriculum which should be strengthened for technical cooperation programs.[68] These areas are intercultural relations, the international role of the United States, and the economic and political setting of the host country.

Another major problem is the scarcity of training materials. The training of technicians for overseas work presents a new and somewhat unique problem in education. Few materials have been developed that are directly relevant to such training, and few people have had experience in planning or conducting such programs. People who plan and conduct the training program must also take into account the unusual character of the people with whom they are dealing and develop programs that will involve the technical specialist actively rather than passively in the training process.

At present, according to Baty,[69] insufficient written materials are available for technical cooperation technicians during the training program, and most of the materials that are supplied are only partially effective. There is great need for new training materials prepared for the special purposes of the training programs. But any plans for making more extensive

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[68] Thurber, C., Training of Point IV Technicians, Pennsylvania State University, College Park, 1962, pp. 350-68.

[69] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

use of written materials should ensure that they are geared into the oral presentation of the training program. The training program staff needs to explain why the written materials have been developed, the role they have in the training program, and the uses that can be made of them during the program and overseas according to Thurber.[70]

The net result of these factors--scarce training materials, insufficient training staffs, and an unusual training audience--is to emphasize the need for comprehensive planning to make the most effective use of scarce resources and to increase these resources in several ways. There is need for a long-range program for the preparation of training materials, the development of additional skilled training staffs, and the careful exploration and development of training techniques which are deliberately shaped to the training needs of the technical cooperation agency.

There is also a need for improved training methods. The methods of present training programs leave much to be desired. Cleveland[71] has reported that many programs have settled into a fixed routine. Some programs initially designed to fill a need that has been greatly changed have not been reoriented to meet the new needs.

Cleveland[72] also reported that the atmosphere of the classroom with its formal lecture predominates the majority of the training programs.

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[70] Thurber, C., op. cit., pp. 350-368.

[71] Cleveland, H., op. cit., pp. 264-285.

[72] Ibid.

There have been only a few attempts to use such devices as the group project method and the problem-solving method. There is no systematic use of case studies. Standards of trainee performance have not been developed and little use is made of the training experience to evaluate the suitability of the technician. It appears that much remains to be done to overcome the inadequacies and persistent problems of U. S. technical cooperation training programs.

Summary

A survey of 150 training program syllabi and interviews with 50 authorities in the field of technical cooperation indicated there were five major types of agencies conducting programs for the preparation of overseas technicians. These were government, business, voluntary, university, and religious organizations training overseas workers.

Government training programs are of more recent origin, and were initiated shortly after the end of World War II. There is a growing awareness among government personnel of the value of orientation for overseas service. Authorities connected with overseas training programs generally agree that the majority of government training programs have been especially well-adapted to meet the specific needs of the overseas technicians, and that government training programs have reached a high stage of development. Government programs have received feedback from the overseas programs and this type of evaluation has resulted in the revamping and redesigning of specific agency training programs.

Prior to 1957, evidence indicated that the majority of religious training programs for overseas technicians were poorly developed. One report which surveyed the religious training programs cited the fact that the majority of technicians who quit overseas assignments lacked training of any type. The same report specifically noted that training in the language and cultural areas was especially deficient. Since 1957 a number of the major religious training agencies have initiated or redesigned their training programs. Evidence indicates religious training efforts today are being directed toward a rapid expansion of the important curriculum areas considered basic in the preparation of technicians for technical cooperation work.

Voluntary agencies have also been faced with similar problems in training technicians that have troubled religious agencies. Evidence indicates that voluntary agencies have the poorest training programs among the five major types of technical cooperation agencies. The voluntary groups have been severely limited in mounting training programs because of financial and staff limitations. Evidence in 1965 indicates the majority of the voluntary agencies have either failed to initiate training programs for overseas technicians or the training efforts have not substantially changed during the past 20 years.

American business corporations with overseas interests have become increasingly aware of the need to equip their staffs for effective overseas work. Business organizations have more time to select overseas staffs, and part of the training usually consists of on-the-job training in the

U. S. or host country environment. The current trend is for business organizations to arrange the training of employees with U. S. universities. Training efforts of U. S. business organizations are generally considered to be advancing toward the improvement of important curriculum areas essential in the preparation of overseas technicians.

The resources of U. S. universities have only recently been concentrated in the training of overseas technicians. The primary emphasis has been the training of technicians for private and public agencies and traditional academic programs for the preparation of students who are interested in overseas service. Evidence indicates that university training programs are among the most highly developed of any of the various types of training agencies. University programs have served as training models for the other technical cooperation agencies concerned with the preparation of overseas technicians.

Today there is almost universal recognition of the need for some training for overseas technicians. Authorities representing every major type of agency indicated this need.

The problem of designing training programs to meet the challenge of preparing more effective overseas representatives faces all of the technical cooperation agencies. Unfortunately, the majority of the training programs have evolved independently and a lack of communication between the agencies involved has resulted in a failure to share common problems and solutions. One factor operating in favor of strengthening existing programs is that the design of most programs are in the experimental stage. Experimentally

designed training programs tend to operate in a more flexible manner than traditional programs. Consequently many of the new experimental programs meet more fully the needs of the agency and the technician.

The curricula of many of the recently designed training programs have been largely based on the opinions of authorities in the field of technical cooperation. There is evidence to indicate the curricula of many programs reflect the experiences and ideas of the representatives of the agencies involved in overseas work. Traditional areas of the curriculum are being questioned by many training officials as to their usefulness in the preparation of technicians. Evidence reported by authorities reveals that areas of the curriculum need to be more clearly defined, changed, and re-evaluated in light of more fully meeting the needs of the trainees and agencies involved in overseas work.

The barriers to improved training programs are considerable. Pressures to develop "quick-result" programs have resulted in questionable preparation of many technicians. Scarce training materials, insufficient training staffs, and an unusual training audience emphasizes the need for comprehensive planning to make the most effective use of the resources available.

The types of training programs of technical cooperation agencies have been reviewed. An investigation of the status of training programs indicated that a number of inadequacies characterize the training efforts of these agencies. Evidence revealed by authorities in technical cooperation emphasized the major problem facing training program directors today is the

development of program curricula which will more effectively prepare technicians for overseas work. Key understandings and skills deemed important in the preparation of overseas representatives are either ill-defined or not included in the majority of the training programs.

The inadequate development of curricula for the preparation of overseas technicians clearly indicated to the writer that a planned and integrated approach to the design and development of training program curricula was of greatest importance, and that a planned and integrated approach was necessary to successfully guide technicians in learning key understandings and skills. Little research in defining the curriculum areas necessary for preparing overseas technicians has been reported. Authorities in technical cooperation have also indicated there is little information available to provide training guidelines for program directors. The third question concerning the writer was to determine the major curriculum areas regarded as basic in the preparation of overseas technicians. The determination of the basic curriculum areas for the preparation of overseas technicians is discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

CURRICULUM AREAS CONSIDERED IMPORTANT IN THE PREPARATION OF OVERSEAS TECHNICIANS BY AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION

The major objective of this chapter was the determination of the curriculum divisions and subject matter areas basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. Authorities planning training programs have expressed concern over the lack of information concerning curriculum guides which could be utilized in designing of improved overseas training programs. Thurber[1] and Noffsinger[2] have reported that little research has been conducted in the curriculum areas basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. This has also been indicated by other training authorities.

To determine the basic curriculum divisions and subject matter areas, the writer (1) examined the program syllabi of 150 training programs, and (2) reviewed training reports written by authorities in the field of technical cooperation. The findings of the survey of training program syllabi follows.

Important Curriculum Areas Revealed By Training Program Syllabi

The first approach to determining the important curriculum divisions

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[1] Thurber, C. E., Training for Specialized Mission Personnel, Public Administration Service: Chicago, Ill., 1952, p. 85.

[2] Noffsinger, J. S., op. cit., (Interview).

and subject matter areas basic to the preparation of overseas technicians was the examination of the training program syllabi of 150 U. S. technical cooperation organizations. These agencies represented government, business, voluntary, university, and religious organizations involved in the training of technicians.

Five sources provided information with respect to the training programs of the five major types of training agencies. These were: (1) U. S. Government Agencies in Technical Cooperation,[3] (2) The Technical Cooperation Programs of U. S. Religious Agencies,[4] (3) Training Programs of U. S. Universities,[5] (4) The American Voluntary and Non-Profit Agencies in Technical Assistance Abroad,[6] and (5) Training U. S. Business Representatives.[7] These five publications list the major training programs of overseas agencies.

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[3] Doke, C., U. S. Government Agencies in Technical Cooperation, (Paper written for the International Cooperation Center), Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana, 1961, pp. 1-7.

[4] Trail, T., The Technical Cooperation Programs of U. S. Religious Agencies, (Unpublished report), Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana, 1963. pp. 1-10.

[5] State Department, Training Programs of U. S. Universities, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1964, pp. 245.

[6] Zwayer, W., American Voluntary and Non-Profit Agencies in Technical Assistance Abroad, Clearing House, New York, 1963. pp. 219.

[7] Durstan, Jane, Training U. S. Business Representatives, Council for International Progress in Management, New York, 1962. pp. 275.

The directors of the training programs listed in the five sources were sent a letter requesting that they send a copy of their training program syllabi to the writer. This letter was sent to 165 training program directors. A copy of the letter is to be found in Appendix C. One-hundred thirty training program syllabi were returned by the directors. The types of training program syllabi ranged from detailed training reports to one-page curriculum outlines, with the average length approximately 2 pages.

Information concerning the training program syllabi of 20 other programs was obtained through 3 other means: (1) interviews with training program directors, (2) correspondence with training program directors, and (3) the examination of training program syllabi located in the Library of Congress. Through the various methods already mentioned information with respect to the training program syllabi of 150 training programs was obtained.

The training program syllabi were examined for major curriculum divisions and subject matter areas. For example, the training syllabus of The Agency for International Development (AID) revealed three major curriculum divisions. These were: (1) professional and technical considerations, (2) cross-cultural understandings, and (3) developmental processes. Under each curriculum division there appeared a number of subject matter areas which formed the core of the AID curriculum.

The training program syllabi of 150 syllabi were then examined. The major curriculum divisions or headings were then tabulated and summarized. Three major curriculum areas were characteristic of the syllabi of 115

training programs. These were: (1) professional and technical considerations, (2) cross-cultural understandings, and (3) developmental processes. The survey of 35 other training syllabi indicated treatment of only professional and technical considerations.

In a like manner the training program syllabi were examined to determine the subject matter areas under each curriculum division. The subject matter areas were categorized and placed under the appropriate curriculum divisions. A number of supporting subject matter areas were reclassified and placed under major subject areas. Such an example was the reclassification of the subject matter area of Technical Assistance. The majority of the training syllabi indicated that Economic Development was a major subject area. Technical Assistance was treated as a supporting area by the majority of the training programs. Therefore, the supporting area of Technical Assistance was reclassified and placed under the subject area of Economic Development. The same procedure was utilized in the classification and reorganization of all subject matter and supporting areas under the major curriculum headings.

The survey of the 150 training program syllabi showed that there were 3 major curriculum headings and 16 major subject areas. The detailed nature of the curriculum divisions and subject matter areas are treated as skills and understandings in Chapters 5-7. The following major curriculum divisions and subject matter areas were characteristic of the program syllabi examined by the writer.

I. Technical and Professional Considerations

1. Objectives and Philosophy of the Agency.
2. Procedures and Methods of Operation of the Agency.
3. Resources of the Agency.
4. Adaptation of Technical Skills.

II. Cross-Cultural Understandings

1. Cultural Adjustment.
2. Language.
3. Group Dynamics.
4. History and Culture of the U. S.
5. History and Culture of the Host Country.
6. World Ideologies.
7. The Culture Concept.

III. Developmental Processes

1. Technician-Counterpart Relations.
2. Institution Building.
3. Program Development.
4. Technological Change.
5. Economic Development.

An examination of the general literature with respect to technical co-operation training programs also indicated the major curriculum areas and supporting subject matter areas were characteristic of U. S. training agencies.

Important Curriculum Areas According to Authorities in the Field of Technical Cooperation

The second approach in determining the important curriculum divisions and subject matter areas basic to the preparation of overseas technicians regarded the reports of authorities in the field of technical cooperation.

Several recognized authorities in the training of overseas technicians have reported in training literature several organized approaches to training program curricula. Noffsinger reported that the major curriculum divisions for the training of voluntary workers should consist of (1) program philosophy and administration, and (2) cross-cultural understandings.[8] Thurber reported that major curriculum divisions for the training of government workers should consist of (1) professional and technical considerations, (2) cross-cultural understandings, and (3) developmental processes.[9] The curriculum divisions suggested by Noffsinger and Thurber were very similar to those curriculum areas suggested by Baty. Baty recommended that training program directors should utilize the following curriculum divisions in planning a training program. The curriculum divisions recommended by Baty were: (1) professional and technical considerations, (2) cross-cultural understandings, and (3) developmental processes.[10] The subject matter areas recommended by Baty also were essentially those suggested by Noffsinger and Thurber.

The consensus of most authorities, as revealed in training literature, indicated basic agreement with Noffsinger, Thurber, and Baty as to the important curriculum divisions and subject matter areas needed in the training of overseas technicians.

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[8] Noffsinger, J. S., op. cit., (Interview).

[9] Thurber, C., The Problems of Training for Service Abroad in U. S. Government Programs, Pennsylvania State University, College Park, Md., 1962. pp. 370-80.

[10] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

The major curriculum divisions and subject matter areas recommended by authorities in the training field corresponded essentially with the divisions and areas revealed by the survey of training program syllabi. These curriculum divisions and subject matter areas were cited previously in this chapter. The curriculum areas developed earlier in this chapter were utilized in this study. These important curriculum areas which encompassed the essential understandings and skills deemed basic to the preparation of overseas technicians were then submitted to 50 authorities for validation.

Validation of Curriculum Guide

The next step in the investigation was the validation of the important curriculum areas. Fifty authorities were interviewed for their judgments with respect to the adequacy of the curriculum areas that have been selected. The criteria for selecting these authorities were as follow: (1) three years of overseas experience with a technical cooperation agency, (2) involvement in the training of overseas technicians, and (3) significant publications concerning the training of technicians. A list of the 50 authorities who cooperated in the study will be found in Appendix A.

The summary of the opinions of the 50 authorities revealed significant agreement on the importance of the major curriculum divisions and subject matter areas. One-hundred per cent of the authorities interviewed

reported that all major curriculum divisions and subject matter areas listed were basic to U. S. training programs for preparing overseas technicians. There was one exception. Ten per cent of the authorities indicated the subject matter area of technological change should be included under the subject area "Culture Concept." A summary of opinions of the 50 authorities appears in Table 1. The consensus of the 50 authorities regarding the importance of the major curriculum divisions and subject matter areas indicated to the writer that the curriculum areas formed a logical instrument to use in the design and planning of overseas training programs.

Another of the important questions to be answered in this study concerned the key understandings and skills basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. Using the curriculum areas reported in the preceding sections, the writer decided the logical approach was to treat separately the key understandings and skills basic to the preparation of overseas technicians under each major curriculum division. The treatment of professional and technical, cross-cultural, and developmental processes understandings and skills are to be found in Chapters 5-7. The presentation of professional and technical skills and understandings follows in the next chapter.

TABLE 1: VALUE OF MAJOR CURRICULUM AREAS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR THE PREPARATION OF OVERSEAS TECHNICIANS ACCORDED BY 50 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION.

Major Curriculum Areas	AUTHORITIES INDICATING IMPORTANCE OF CURRICULUM AREAS*		
	Basic	Not Basic	No Opinion
I. Professional and Technical			
1. Philosophy and Objectives of the Agency	100.0		
2. Administrative Considerations	100.0		
3. Agency Resources	100.0		
4. Adaptation of Technical Skills	100.0		
II. Cross Cultural			
1. Cultural Adjustment	100.0		
2. Language	100.0		
3. Group Dynamics	100.0		
4. Culture and History of the United States	100.0		
5. Culture and History of the Host Country	100.0		
6. World Ideologies	100.0		
7. Culture Concept	100.0		
III. Developmental Processes			
1. Technician-Counterpart Relations	100.0		
2. Program Development	100.0		
3. Institution Building	100.0		
4. Technological Change	90.0	10.0	
5. Economic Development	100.0		

*Figures presented in percentage form

CHAPTER V

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS

One of the major problems of the study was the identification and determination of the major curriculum areas considered important in the preparation of overseas technicians. The need for such a study has been evidenced by technical cooperation authorities who have repeatedly reported that U. S. overseas agencies have failed to define and identify the major curriculum areas essential for technician orientation. So it was then considered important by the writer to report in depth the 3 major curriculum divisions cited in Chapter 4. The major curriculum divisions revealed in training program syllabi and by training authorities were: (1) professional and technical considerations, (2) cross-cultural understandings, and (3) developmental processes. In this study each major curriculum division will be treated in a separate chapter, and these major curriculum divisions will be reported in relation to the important understandings and skills which contribute to overseas effectiveness.

The identification of the basic professional and technical skills and understandings needed to prepare technicians is one of the most significant curriculum responsibilities facing overseas training agencies. The important professional and technical areas cited by training authorities to be essential in technician orientation were: (1) orientation to the objectives and philosophy of the agency, (2) procedures and methods of operation of the agency, (3) agency resources, and (4) the development and adaptation of technical skills.

In this chapter the key professional and technical understandings and skills important for technician orientation will be treated in relation to each of the four professional and technical subject matter and supporting areas. As pointed out previously in Chapter 1, key understandings and skills are learned by technicians from important subject matter areas presented during overseas training programs. In terms of training technicians, a key understanding is considered as being able to develop an awareness and to become cognizant of the relationships and implications of a set of circumstances.[1] A skill is anything the individual has learned to do with ease and precision; it may be either a physical or mental performance.[2] Skills may also be the application of key understandings learned by the technician during the training program.[3] The presentation of the orientation of the philosophy and objectives of the agency follows.

Orientation to Agency Philosophy and Objectives

Training authorities have indicated that a technician must have a basic understanding of the employing agency's philosophy and objectives. This is pointed out by Winslow in the following manner: "Obviously, any expert needs to know about the agency employing him. He needs to know

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[1] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[2] Good, C., op. cit., p. 503.

[3] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

its objectives and principles."[4] The majority of training authorities agree that a technician should be knowledgeable in the area of agency philosophy and objectives.

Several authorities have commented that training programs have always provided some orientation in respect to agency philosophy and objectives. The philosophy and objectives of the particular agency have almost always received attention in training programs, according to Sayre.[5] Schmidt supported Sayre's assertion in the following manner: "Training programs in technical cooperation tend to cover in great depth the various aspects of program philosophy and objectives while on the other hand neglecting other major areas of concern."[6] Orientation in respect to program objectives and philosophy has centered around three supporting areas: (1) historical background and development of the agency, (2) the long and short run agency goals, and (3) the policy making relationship of the agency. The historical development and background of the agency follows in the next section.

Historical Background and Development of the Agency. The training training program must brief the expert fully of the nature of his tasks and the history and background of the agency according to Winslow.[7] Orientation

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[4]Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 20.

[5]Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 67.

[6]Schmidt, W., op. cit., (Interview).

[7]Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 22.

in this area should adequately cover the history and background of the agency in the U. S. and of its overseas operations. Other authorities besides Winslow have also indicated that current training efforts must assist the technician to develop essential understandings of the historical background and development of the agency.

Goals of the Agency. The majority of U. S. training programs provide orientation in respect to the goals of the agency. According to Sayre,[8] the long and short range goals of the agency should be stated in concrete terms and premises and proposed working methods should be subjected to critical examination. Experience with similar missions should be assembled and discussed with the technicians so that they may learn by the mistakes and accomplishment of others. Sayre thus points out the importance of basic orientation regarding the development of understandings of the short and long range goals of the program.

Policy-Making Relationships of the Agency. The policy-making relationship of the agency is another phase of training considered basic by training authorities. The importance of such orientation is noted in the following manner by Schultz: "It is extremely important that a technician be fully aware of the policy-making relationships of his agency. The policy-making relationships of his agency are especially important in the implementation of the mission in the host country."[9] Other authorities in

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[8] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 67.

[9] Schultz, Donald, Interview with AID Specialist, Quito, Ecuador, (June 23, 1964).

technical cooperation have concurred with this statement.

Evidently the failure to fully comprehend the policy making relationships of the agency has been responsible for the failure of many technicians in successfully implementing overseas agency programs. The success or failure of many international programs can be traced to the lack of understanding of the policy making relationships of the agency, according to Schmidt.[10]

Authorities have indicated the importance of including the history and development of the agency, short and long term goals, and the policy making relationships of the agency in U. S. training programs. In support of the importance of incorporating these understandings in training programs, 30 authorities in the field of technical cooperation were asked to respond to the question as to whether or not these understandings were basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. Their responses are listed in Table 2.

All of the authorities indicated that the three supporting areas should be included in U. S. training programs. Several authorities reported that while such orientation should be given at the discretion of the agency such understandings should still be included in U. S. training programs if time were available.

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[10] Schmidt, W., op. cit., (Interview).

TABLE 2. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF AGENCY PHILOSOPHY AND OBJECTIVES ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area A: Agency Philosophy and Objectives Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. History and Development	100.0		
2. Long and Short Run Goals	100.0		
3. Policy Making Relationships	100.0		

Agency Procedures and Methods of Operation

Training authorities feel that orientation in respect to agency procedures and methods of operations should be a basic part of the U. S. training program. The training in the area of agency procedures and methods of operation, according to Sayre, should include an explanation of the framework of administration within which technicians will operate. The technician should know in detail how their agency is organized and administered to supervise the mission. The training program, therefore, should provide a description of how programs are developed in the agency, how agency decisions are made, what decisions are delegated to the mission, and what responsibilities the mission has for reporting its decisions, progress, and problems, and the information which it acquires.[11] Orientation in the area of agency procedures and methods of operation should include the following supporting areas: (1) inter-organization operations, (2) agency administrative techniques and procedures, (3) assignment of the agency, and (4) role of cooperating institutions. A report of agency administrative techniques follows.

Agency Administrative Techniques and Procedures. A technician needs to understand the administrative techniques and procedures of the agency in order to assist him in carrying out his assignment. Winslow

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[11] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 68.

has reported that the expert needs to know how the agency works administratively, what authority will be delegated to him, what support he can expect, what channels of communications, and what reporting he will be expected to use. The technician should know in full detail all the conditions of service, and should be given a sober, realistic picture of the mission.[12] Hoffman has also observed that it is the obligation of any agency to provide agency technicians with instruction and training in the various aspects of administrative techniques and procedures.[13] Thus orientation with respect to agency administrative techniques and procedures is considered basic by training authorities in the preparation of overseas technicians.

Inter-Organization Operations. Inter-organization operations are another phase of training which have been reported to be basic in the preparation of technicians. The organization for achieving the objectives of the agency has always received attention in training programs, according to Sayre.[14] More than the statutory and formal aspects of this area needs to be created. In addition to the lessons of the organization chart, with its emphasis upon division of work and lines of authority, the technicians need to understand the informal functioning of the organization and how the whole is knitted together. Hoffman[15] and other training authorities have

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[12] Winslow, A., op. cit., p. 20.

[13] Hoffman, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[14] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 67.

[15] Hoffman, E., op. cit., (Interview).

also reported that the supporting area of inter-organization operations should be included in U. S. training programs.

Assignment of the Agency. Another segment of training often overlooked by training program directors is the assignment of the agency in the host country. This lack of training is noted in the following manner by Noffsinger: "Many technicians arrive in the host country with no concept of what is expected of them or their agency. Basic orientation must include a description of the assignment of the agency."[16] The assignment of the mission is one of the most important segments of the training program. The assignment needs to be spelled out in detail. This part of the program is, in effect, a systematic explanation and evaluation of the instructions under which the mission will work.[17] Thus training authorities consider the assignment of the agency in the host country to be basic in training overseas technicians.

Role of Cooperating Institutions. The majority of technical cooperation programs are joint efforts with the host country, U. S., and other international organizations. A technician must understand the role and relationship of all of these cooperating programs if he is to successfully coordinate these efforts and carry out the mission of his agency.[18]

An understanding of the role of these organizations can assist the

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[16] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[17] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 67.

[18] Smith, J., op. cit., (Interview).

technician in carrying out cooperative programs in the host country. Training should explain the relationships of the mission with other U. S. agencies at home and in the field and how these relationships are to be conducted and reported.[19]

Authorities have indicated the importance of covering agency procedures and methods of operation, inter-organization operations, the assignment of the agency in the host country, and the relationship and role of cooperating institutions in U. S. training programs. Thirty authorities then responded to the question of whether or not these supporting areas were basic to U. S. training programs. Their responses are listed in Table 3.

All of the authorities indicated that understandings of administrative techniques and procedures, inter-organization operations, and the assignment of the agency should be considered basic to U. S. training programs. Sixteen per cent of the authorities commented that the majority of training programs did not have sufficient time to cover the role of cooperating institutions in depth, and that such training should be conducted in the host country.

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[19] Smith, J., op. cit., (Interview).

TABLE 3. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF AGENCY PROCEDURES AND METHODS OF OPERATION ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area B: Agency Procedures And Methods of Operations	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
Supporting Understandings	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Administrative Techniques and Procedures	100.0		
2. Inter-Organization Operations	100.0		
3. Assignment of the Agency	100.0		
4. Cooperating Institutions	83.5		16.5

Resources of the Agency

An examination of the literature indicated that a technician should have a basic understanding of the resources of the agency both at home and in the field. Shuart has indicated the importance of such knowledge. A technician should be fully aware of the available resources both in the U. S. and in the host country. Government and private contract technical assistance programs need to assess the problem of resources in several different ways. A knowledge of available resources, identification and utilization of resources, and the context within which resources will be allocated is essential for the execution of any technical assistance program.[20] Unfortunately, according to Brown, many training programs either fail to cover program resources or gloss over them rapidly during the orientation period.[21] Other authorities also indicated that an understanding of the resources of the agency should receive priority treatment in the U. S. training setting. Orientation in this area should include: (1) the availability of resources, (2) the identification and utilization of resources, and (3) the context within which resources are allocated.

The Availability of Resources. Several authorities, including Brown[22]

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[20] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[21] Brown, L., op. cit., (Interview).

[22] Ibid.

and Smith,[23] have reported that every technician should have a basic understanding of the resources of the agency. These resources include those available in the field, with cooperating agencies, and in the home office. Many agencies do not include this component in their training programs here in the U. S., but assume this area will be covered in the host country. The training program should include a description of the resources which the agency can provide to the particular mission while it is in the field. This description should note the availability of research information, materials, and equipment. Orientation should also describe how this assistance can be requested.[24]

The Identification and Utilization of Resources. Another major problem facing a technician is the identification and utilization of resources. The majority of technicians apparently have some knowledge of the resources of their own agency.[25] However, many technicians are at a loss when it comes to identifying the resources available for program development. This is especially true, reported Aguirre,[26] when there are resources available at the local level and with cooperating agencies. Aguirre[27] also pointed out that although technicians may be cognizant of

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[23] Smith, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[24] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 67.

[25] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[26] Aguirre, M., Interview with Associate Peace Corps Representative, Loja, Ecuador, (June 6, 1965).

[27] Ibid.

resources available, they often are unable to utilize these resources to any great degree. The inability to utilize local resources often is an indication of a lack of communication between the parties involved and the failure of the technician to follow-up once the resources have been identified.

Sayre[28] recommended that agency staffs should be informed concerning the resources of other U. S. agencies which can be made available to them through headquarters or through the field offices of the agencies overseas. He also recommended that staff members should know how to identify and utilize resources from non-governmental agencies.[29] This may include the resources of host country agencies. For example, Peace Corps volunteers working with Heifer Project in Ecuador received intensive training in the identification and utilization of resources before their overseas departure. Training of this type is considered important by many overseas agencies.

The Context Within Which Resources are Allocated. Technicians need to be informed about the context of resources within which they will be carrying out the assignment of the agency. The purpose of this emphasis upon the resources available to the agency is at least twofold: to make certain that the agency does not proceed unaware of its full opportunities for assistance and to guide the agency in making realistic commitments in

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[28] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 67.

[29] Ibid.

dealing with its problems.[30]

The unrealistic allocation of resources has resulted in the failure of many technical assistance programs. Gaylord cited the following example demonstrating such failure:

> It has been my observation that the failure of many voluntary technical assistance programs has been the unrealistic allocation of resources for program development. There have also been classic examples of U. S. government aid--money and material--being allocated to projects without the slightest regard to the fact this was duplicating existing projects or that money and materials had already been designated and approved. It is typical of many American technicians to 'bull-through' a project without investigating its feasibility or whether or not local organizations can do the job.[31]

Clearly then some training within the area of the context by which resources should be allocated deserves attention in the training environment.

An understanding of the resources of the agency at home and in the field appears to be an important consideration for any technician working overseas. Authorities reported that training programs should encompass supplemental orientation in respect to the utilization and identification of resources, the context within which resources will be allocated, and the availability of resources for carrying out the program of the agency.

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[30] Ibid.

[31] Gaylord, C., op. cit., (Interview).

Thirty authorities responded to the question of whether or not these supporting areas were basic to U. S. training programs. Responses of the cooperating authorities are cited in Table 4.

A majority of the authorities indicated that training programs should include orientation concerning the resources of the agency. Sixteen per cent of the authorities reported that the agency concerned with training should include an agency resource component in the overseas training program rather than in the U. S. The reaction of one authority to such training was: "I have no doubt that every training program should include the area of agency resources in their program; however, I seriously question whether most agencies have sufficient time to cover this area in stateside training. In certain respects this area is more ideally suited to overseas training."[32] Another important area basic to the preparation of technicians is training in technical skills.

Training In Individual Technical Skills

The technician is the front-line soldier in the technical cooperation program. He is the field worker, the man who participates most actively and continuously in the sharing of technical skills and knowledge. In technical cooperation he usually works within a defined project for the accomplishment of a limited purpose. Projects vary

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[32] Brown, L., op. cit., (Interview).

TABLE 4. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF AGENCY RESOURCES ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area C: Agency Resources	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
Supporting Understandings	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Availability of Resources	83.5		16.5
2. Identification-Utilization of Resources	83.5		16.5
3. Context Within Which Resources Are Allocated	83.5		16.5

greatly. They may run all the way from an agricultural project to introduce green manuring, to an educational project to establish teacher training institutes for high school teachers, to a survey project for the improvement of rural roads.[33]

It is evident that anyone going abroad to work in a technical cooperation field must be able to do something useful--he must have a technical skill. Cleveland described the value of technical skills in the following manner:

> In case after case of the Americans we rated on over-all job performance abroad, technical skill loomed as a critical factor; the rating on this factor also showed the highest correlation with the job supervisor's rating. This may seem obvious, but we are convinced on the basis of our investigation that too many Americans who are being sent abroad are not competent at their particular jobs. Many foreign nationals frankly said that some American technicians did not know as much about their work as the local people. In discussing an individual with his co-workers, we found a remarkable degree of consensus as to whether or not the man knew his job. Undoubtedly more than technical skill is required for effective overseas performance, but without proficiency in the fundamental requirements of the job itself--the chances of success at the job abroad are minimal.[34]

Thus Cleveland illustrated the importance of skills in the overseas performance of technicians. The vast majority of overseas technicians are hired on the assumption they have some type of technical skill which the employing agency can utilize. This was illustrated when Noffsinger

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[33] International Cooperation Agency, "Functions of the Program Office," Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.: 1959, pp. 1-2.

[34] Cleveland, H., op. cit., pp. 128-9.

indicated the primary consideration until 1960 in the employment of a technician was the simple fact--did he have a technical skill.[35]

Many training programs supplement previously acquired technical skills. The majority of such programs have attempted to help the technician gain greater skill proficiency in his field or have tried to help the technician gain a greater understanding of how to adapt this skill to the new working environment. Orientation in this area includes: (1) adaptation of technical skills, (2) problem solving, and (3) differences in the working environment.

Adaptation of Technical Skills. Gaylord[36] has reported that further technical skill development should provide the technician with the understanding of how to adapt these learnings to the host country. The publication, Interprofessional Training Goals for Technical Assistance Personnel Abroad, reported that not only should the professional know how to do his job, but he must have an understanding which enables him to adapt his technical skill.[37] The Peace Corps training programs have been concerned with this problem. Post reported that in Peace Corps programs concerned with training volunteers for underdeveloped countries emphasis has been placed on adapting technical skills to conditions in the host country.[38]

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[35] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[36] Gaylord, G., op. cit., (Interview).

[37] Sanders, I. T., Interprofessional Training Goals for Technical Assistance Personnel Abroad, Council on Social Work, New York, 1959. p. 42.

[38] Post, D., op. cit., (Interview).

It was also pointed out by Cleveland that technical skill includes the skill to adapt.[39] Authorities generally agree that training in the adaptation of technical skills should be included in training programs.

In essence the literature indicated that the task for further training in individual skills is essentially the ability to adopt past and present acquired skills and information to projects designed for a predominately non-technological culture. The publication, New Frontiers for American Youth,[40] reported that adapting technical skills to the host culture requires the ability to improvise, hence to detect in problem situations the potentialities of locally available materials, and prevailing attitudes for projects which will improve the level of living. Training programs often incorporate the area of problem-solving in U. S. programs to facilitate these types of understandings and skills.

Problem Solving. The basic ability for problem-solving is one which many Americans acquire at an early age, but unless it is pointed out to them as a technical skill they may not understand the basic science behind it nor its practical application. Problem-solving can be broken down into the following steps as related to work activities for technicians.

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[39] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 181.

[40] Albertson, M., Rice, A., and Birky, P., New Frontiers for American Youth, Public Affairs Press, Washington, D. C., 1962, p. 212.

1. Analyze and define the problem so it is clearly understood.
2. Plan and design the solution to the problem.
3. Organize the resources to solve the problem.
4. Act to solve the problem according to a schedule which meets the demands of the local situation.[41]

Each step should be taken in close cooperation with the host country participants.

The application of the principles of problem-solving must be applied within the host country cultural context. The successful completion of technical cooperation projects demand that the technician be able to understand the basic essentials of problem solving. He must realize that differences between cultures necessitates planning and application of problem-solving principles in a somewhat modified manner.[42] An understanding of the problem-solving process is a logical inclusion in training programs for overseas service.

Differences in the Working Environment. Evidence from the reports of authorities indicated that the poor performance of many technicians is their inability to adapt to the new working situation. Braun[43] has observed that many technicians enter into the new working environment carrying with them the idea that all of the characteristics of their profession and job are directly transferable to the new situation. It soon

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[41] Ibid., p. 85.

[42] Nichols, L., op. cit., (Interview).

[43] Braun, G., op. cit., (Interview).

becomes apparent that preconceived ideas regarding the new job situation may promote problems in adaptation to the host country environment. Characteristically each country has a different way of organizing projects and carrying out technical cooperation activities. The cultural context of each country determines what the working conditions will be. A training program should attempt to describe in detail the differences in the working environments.[44] The majority of training programs do not deal with this area in the U. S. training situation. However, such programs as the Lutheran Church World Service and The Agency for International Development have attempted to train workers in the area of differences in the working environment during the course of overseas training programs.

There is a realization by training authorities that further training in technical skills is primarily concerned with enabling the technician to understand how to adapt past and present skills and information to projects designed for a predominately non-technological society. Supporting areas under technical skills should include the development of technical skills, problem solving, and determining the differences between the U. S. and host country working environments. Thirty authorities responded to the question of whether or not these understandings and skills were basic to U. S. training programs. The responses of the authorities are given in Table 5.

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[44]Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

TABLE 5. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF TECHNICAL SKILL DEVELOPMENT ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Development of Technical Skills Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Adaptation of Skills	100.0		
2. Problem Solving	100.0		
3. Differences in the Working Environment	33.5		66.5

All of the authorities indicated that adaptation of technical skills and problem-solving should be a basic part of U. S. training programs. Sixty-six per cent of the authorities revealed that training in the determination of differences in the working environment should be given at the discretion of the agency. They recommended that such training be given in the overseas setting.

Summary

The determination of the basic professional and technical understandings and skills needed to prepare technicians for effective overseas service is one of the most significant curriculum responsibilities facing overseas agencies. The important professional and technical areas cited by training authorities were: (1) orientation to the objectives and philosophy of the agency, (2) procedures and methods of operation of the agency, (3) agency resources, and (4) the development and adaptation of technical skills.

Information regarding key professional and technical skills and understandings was obtained from three sources. These were: (1) training program syllabi, (2) training program literature, and (3) interviews with authorities in the field of technical cooperation. A brief summary of the key professional and technical understandings and skills follows.

Training authorities have indicated that a technician must have a basic understanding of the employing agency's philosophy and objectives. Evidence revealed in the literature indicated every training program

included this area in its orientation programs. Orientation with respect to program objectives and philosophy has centered around three supporting areas: (1) historical background and development of the agency, (2) goals of the agency, and (3) the policy making relationship of the agency.

The procedures and methods of operation of the agency have been reported by training authorities to be essential in the training of overseas technicians. The training program should provide a description of how programs are developed in the agency, how agency decisions are made, what decisions are delegated to the mission, and what responsibilities the mission has for reporting its decisions, progress, problems, and the information it acquires. Orientation in this area should include the following supporting professional and technical areas: (1) agency administrative techniques and procedures, (2) inter-organization operations, (3) assignment of the agency, and (4) role of cooperating institutions.

An examination of the literature indicated that a technician should have a basic understanding of the resources of the agency. Technical cooperation agencies need to assess the problem of resources in several different ways. A knowledge of available resources, identification and utilization of resources, and the context within which resources will be allocated is essential for the execution of any technical assistance program. Training authorities have reported that many training programs fail to cover program resources or gloss over them rapidly during the orientation period.

The development of technical understandings and skills has been reported by technical cooperation authorities to be important in the preparation of overseas technicians. In overseas programs the technician is the front-line soldier in the technical cooperation program. He is the field worker, the man who participates most actively and continuously in the sharing of technical skills and knowledge. In technical cooperation he usually works within a defined project for the accomplishment of a limited purpose. Projects may vary all the way from an agricultural project to introduce green manuring to the establishment of a teacher training college.

It is evident that anyone going abroad to work in the technical cooperation field must be able to do something useful--he must have technical skills. Many training programs supplement previously acquired skills. The majority of such programs have attempted to help the technician gain greater skill proficiency in his field or have tried to help the technician gain a greater understanding of how to adapt this skill to the new working environment. Training authorities indicated that orientation in this area should include: (1) adaptation of technical skills, (2) opportunities at problem solving, and (3) experiences in different working environments.

Thirty authorities in the field of technical cooperation were interviewed to determine whether or not the 4 major professional and technical curriculum areas were basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. The consensus of authorities indicated that the development

of these understandings and skills should be included in technician training programs.

Another crucial area of concern in the training of overseas technicians has been reported by training authorities to be the identification and determination of the major cross-cultural understandings and skills. Training authorities within the second training curriculum division have reported the identification of cross-cultural understandings to be of more concern than in the two other major curriculum areas. The treatment of cross-cultural understandings now encompassed in technician training programs has also been reported to be very inadequate in current training efforts. Therefore, the following chapter is concerned with the identification and determination of the key cross-cultural understandings basic to technician preparation.

CHAPTER VI

CROSS-CULTURAL UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS

There has been a great deal of concern in recent years expressed by leading training authorities with respect to the cross-cultural division of the training curriculum. The cross-cultural understandings and skills which are developed from key areas in the cross-cultural division have been indicated as the most important part of the training curriculum by Noffsinger,[1] Baty,[2] and Sayre.[3] These same training specialists have also reported that the cross-cultural areas of the training curriculum remain largely unidentified and unknown in comparison with the other two major curriculum divisions--professional and technical considerations treated in Chapter 5 and developmental processes reported in Chapter 7. The important areas of the technical and professional curriculum division for overseas training programs have been identified, and training agencies now devote from 60 to 75 per cent of the training curriculum to cover this major area.

Unfortunately, the past treatment of the cross-cultural division in U. S. training programs has been very limited. Many of the business, religious, and voluntary agencies do not even treat the cross-cultural division or at best devote 10 per cent of training time to the development

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[1] Noffsinger, J. S., op. cit., (Interview).

[2] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[3] Sayre, W., op. cit.

of cross-cultural understandings. There is increasing evidence that training program directors and authorities are coming to realize that the development of cross-cultural understandings and skills should be paramount in every training program. The time devoted to the cross-cultural training in such programs as the Peace Corps, Agency for International Development, and the many university programs for technician preparation has substantially increased during the past five years. These training programs allot at least 60 to 75 per cent of their program time to the treatment of the cross-cultural areas. Thus there is a strong trend toward recognition of the value of training technicians in the cross-cultural areas.

It, therefore, became quite apparent to the investigator that actual training program practices did not meet the realistic needs of training in the very important curriculum division--cross-cultural understandings and skills. Reports of leaders in the training field were almost unanimous in their indication of the need for training in the cross-cultural areas to develop the personal and professional skills the technician should have. Their attitudes are very well-expressed in a statement by Rice:

> If they are to have the personal and professional skills suggested as important for effectiveness overseas, they should begin preparing themselves as undergraduates in useful professional fields and in other subjects related to international service. Or, if this is not possible, they should be prepared

> to go through a special training program which not only increases and adapts their professional skill to an overseas situation, but adds the cross-cultural understandings contributing to effectiveness.[4]

Thus the importance of preparing the overseas technician not only in his professional field but adding the cross-cultural skills and understandings contributing to his effectiveness has been recognized by training authorities.

The determination of the cross-cultural areas basic to the preparation of technicians then emerged as a major problem. An examination of the training program syllabi and the reports of training authorities revealed a considerable difference of opinion as to the basic cross-cultural areas which should be incorporated into training programs. The first approach used by this writer in the determination of the cross-cultural areas basic to technician preparation was an examination of the opinions of training specialists. A number of the representative ideas of the leading training authorities with respect to the important cross-cultural areas follows: Saunders recommended the following areas which should be included in the cross-cultural component.

1. Understandings and skills in analyzing foreign culture as a social system, and designing activities that will bring about the greatest change in the system at the least cost.

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[4] Rice, Andrew, "Training Programs in International Development and Overseas Service," International Development Review, Vol. III, No. L, (February 1961), p. 45.

2. Understandings and skills of two-way communication, not only to get an understanding of the culture and develop plans, but to interpret what one is doing or trying to do.

3. Understandings and skills in representing the U. S.: being able to discuss intelligently its social structure, its dynamics, its cultural achievements, its economic system, its foreign policy, as neither superior nor inferior to the country where one is working.[5]

Thurber has suggested that cross-cultural understandings need to be advanced by up-grading standards of language achievement and by improving understanding of cultural factors in development, both with respect to the host culture, and to American culture. He has recommended training emphasis in these three areas:

1. Language training.

2. Training in areas and cultures.

3. Training in American culture and development.[6]

Other authorities have recommended different types of areas to be included in a cross-cultural component. Sayre has proposed five basic cross-cultural areas:

1. A broad knowledge of the general conditions of social change.

2. A broad knowledge of the general theory of public opinion and propaganda.

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[5] Sanders, I., op. cit., p. 50.

[6] Thurber, C., op. cit., p. 365.

3. A general knowledge of the major foreign policies of the U. S. and of the other great power nations.

4. A general knowledge of the currently available scientific techniques for precise evaluation of program content.

5. An introduction to the language, history, social structure, customs, politics, and communication media of the country.[7]

These recommendations for training in the cross-cultural division suggest that training should stress the areas of cultural change, mass media, and a knowledge of program evaluation, language, American culture, and a knowledge of the host country.

Spence has recommended that technicians selected for foreign assignments receive orientation in the following areas:

1. History and background of the country of assignment.

2. Objectives of the United Nations.

3. Living conditions of the host country.[8]

On the other hand authorities such as Mangone have noted five key areas which should be included in a cross-cultural component. These are:

1. The arts and skills of human relations.

2. Cultural amthropology.

3. Decision-making process.

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[7] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 22.

[8] Spence, A., "A Resident Representative's View of Technical Co-operation," The Annals, Vol. XI (September 1962) p. 14.

4. Language.

5. Training of wives and children.[9]

Laurentie has reported that technicians in the field of technical cooperation should become aware of:

1. The United Nations.

2. Technical assistance.

3. The adjustment of the technician to the host country.

4. Technological change.[10]

To the previous cross-cultural areas mentioned by authorities, Spence and Laurentie have added cultural anthropology, the decision-making process, technological change, and a knowledge of the United Nations.

Sanders has described the desired cross-cultural content of a training program in a series of questions. These are:

1. Why are you in the host country?

2. How can America be best interpreted?

3. How do you understand the social setting in which your program operates?

4. What changes will your program bring about in the total way of life?

5. What are some of the complex interrelationships with the developing society where you are working?

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[9]Mangone, G., The Art of Overseasmanship, University Press, Syracuse: 1961, pp. 78-79.

[10]Laurentie, H., Post-Entry Expert Briefing, Carnegie Foundation, Rome, Italy, p. 14.

6. How does one motivate local people?

7. How does one survive and broaden one's experiences?[11]

The cross-cultural areas recommended by Sanders are essentially the same as other training specialists have suggested.

Training authorities are in basic agreement on the value of training in the cross-cultural division of the training curriculum. The ideas of these specialists with respect to the areas which should be incorporated into the cross-cultural division of training programs shows that there is agreement as to the value of certain cross-cultural areas. Noffsinger, a leading training specialist with 60 years of overseas training experience, has developed the most comprehensive list of the cross-cultural areas which should be treated in training programs. These cross-cultural areas are:

1. Cultural adjustment.
2. Language skills.
3. Group dynamics.
4. History and culture of the U. S.
5. History and culture of the host country.
6. World ideologies.
7. Inter-cultural relations.[12]

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[11] Sanders, W., op. cit., pp. 54-55.

[12] Noffsinger, J. S., op. cit., (Interview).

A very careful study of these cross-cultural areas as proposed by Noffsinger revealed that this list encompasses the ideas of the leading training specialists with respect to this type of training. The ideas of the other training authorities reviewed in this chapter with regard to the cross-cultural areas were grouped and classified. Their recommendations for cross-cultural training coincided exactly with those recommended by Noffsinger. Noffsinger's list of cross-cultural areas also corresponded with the important cross-cultural areas revealed in the training literature and training program syllabi reported in Chapter 4. Since Noffsinger's recommendations for the cross-cultural areas were the most comprehensive to date, the writer selected this list to use as the cross-cultural curriculum guide for use in determining the key cross-cultural understandings and skills basic to technician orientation. A report of the area of cultural adjustment follows.

Cultural Adjustment

Overseas Americans need to develop understandings and skills in order to adjust to the foreign environments which they are exposed to for the first time. They must develop the prerequisite understandings and skills of adaptation to work effectively and to utilize their professional skills in the overseas setting. The social and cultural environments encountered by U. S. technicians are by no means uniform.

The developing nations are nearly all representative of non-western cultures. Most of them are located in tropical, sub-tropical or arid regions. The climates of these countries are hot and wet or hot and dry. Material conditions of life are poor. Dirt and insects are frequently prevalent, and health conditions sometimes risky. The society is sharply divided according to status and income, and between urban and rural elements. There is frequently a small upper class, composed of the higher-levels of royalty, government, the Army, and business. The population, which is almost invariably increasing, is by and large poverty stricken, and makes its living primarily by agriculture. There is often a teeming, starving proletariat in the cities, swollen by refugees from the villages and from the continuing threat of starvation produced by marginal agricultural practices.

The governments of developing countries are newly established, having only recently achieved independence. Few of them have had an opportunity to develop the skills and traditions of public service and administration. In the developing society, there is almost no middle-class, although here and there elements of a beginning may be seen. The lack of a well developed middle-class, and of middle-class values, may be important with respect to the social adjustment of Americans. In any event, the high standard of living of most Americans abroad automatically casts them, in the eyes of the host culture, as members of the wealthy class. Possible exceptions to this may be missionaries, voluntary workers, and Peace Corps volunteers.

The response of Americans to the non-western, developing countries forms a remarkably similar pattern, something that might be called a "cultural adjustment syndrome."[13] Many Americans attempt to import their own culture with them. They bring their own furniture, import autos and air conditioning units, build their own homes, and establish commissaries. More is involved than the attempt to preserve American standards of living abroad. The process of Americanization of the foreign environment is a way of dealing with an unfamiliar culture and a way of adjusting to it.

There is nothing like the first assignment in a developing country for a technician. The problem of adjustment is frequently severe.[14] The difference in the physical, social, and cultural conditions of life are dramatically different.

"Cultural Shock" is a term, derived by anthropologists, to describe the impact of a new and different culture, especially a traditional or primitive culture on the individual. Foster has defined the symptoms of culture shock as excessive preoccupation with drinking water, food, and dishes, great concern over minor pains, fits of anger over delays and other minor frustrations, a fixed idea that people are cheating you, delay and outright refusal to learn the language of the country, a feeling of hopelessness and a desire for the company of people of one's own

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[13] Foster, G., Traditional Cultures and the Impact of Technological Change, University Press, Berkeley, California: 1962, pp. 187-94.

[14] Ibid., pp. 187-88.

nationality. The malady of culture shock is caused in part by communications problems. Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all one's familiar cues according to Foster.[15]

The question is sometimes argued as to whether it is helpful to know about cultural shock in advance and to be prepared for it. Foster[16] has noted that most overseas technicians agree there is a difference between knowing about cultural shock and experiencing it, and that knowing about it would not prevent cultural shock from occurring. Most Americans working overseas agree that it is far better to know about cultural shock than to be ignorant of it.[17] It is better to know that the causes of this phenomenon are essentially subjective, and subject to correction by the individual, rather than be confronted by a hostile environment. This point is well brought out in a book published by USOM.[18] The value of knowing about cultural shock was pointed out in the following manner by Hockett:

> It makes a great deal of difference if you know that your trouble is due to your own lack of communications media, to a

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15 Foster, G., Interview with California Anthropologist, Bozeman, Montana, (November 1962).

16 Ibid.

17 Gray, Bob, Interview with AID Program Specialist, Quito, Ecuador, (September 17, 1963).

18 Consultation In The Brazil-USOM Health Program, 1942-1960, Division of Health, Welfare and Housing, Institute of Inter-American Affairs, Rio De Janeiro (1963), p. 36.

> basic short-coming in your ability. If you recognize this lack in yourself you will also realize that you yourself can acquire the techniques of communication and the sooner you do this the sooner you will adapt yourself to the ways of the new social and cultural environment. Once this adjustment is made, cultural shock disappears.[19]

The implications of cultural shock make it necessary for overseas training programs to assist technicians in developing the understandings and skills to adjust to the overseas environment. Orientation in the cultural adjustment area according to training authorities should include: (1) maintaining cultural identity, (2) understanding health problems, and (3) facilitating family adjustment.

Maintaining Cultural Identity. Maintaining one's cultural identity while adapting to the new culture appears to have important implications for training programs. This training includes personality development, the maintenance of emotional stability, and the necessity of maintaining one's primary culture patterns in the new environment.[20] Training programs must devote appropriate time in the future to creating the understandings which will prepare the overseas technicians to maintain their cultural identity while adjusting to the new overseas environment according to Baty.[21] This

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[19] Hockett, Charles, "Language Study and Cultural Attitudes," Linguistic Reporter, Vol. I. No. 5 (December 1959), p. 4.

[20] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[21] Ibid.

involves awareness of what constitutes American culture and the meanings and workings of the American way of life.

The necessity of maintaining one's cultural identity has been pointed out by Gene Baird, Peace Corps Director in Peru. He reported that volunteers failing to maintain their cultural identity fall into two classes. One is the volunteer who goes "native" rejecting almost completely the cultural patterns of his country. The other extreme is the volunteer who suffers from cultural shock and rejects completely the host culture. The job effectiveness of both types is generally poor.[22]

Establishing and maintaining effective cross-cultural relations is a key area of concern for training. It has to do with a willingness to accept differences, and avoidance of judgments based on American cultural values--to learn the whys of these differences and avoid imposition of values which may be unworkable in other than an American setting. This understanding is often called "cultural empathy."

Rosengrant has defined cultural empathy as: "The ability to perceive the inner logic and cohesion of an alien culture and to evaluate behavior within its own economic, cultural, and ideological context."[23] This does not mean that an American must approve or even like the goals, habits, or practices of other peoples of the world. He becomes empathic

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[22] Baird, G., op. cit., (Interview).

[23] Rosengrant, John, Assignment Overseas, Thomas Cromwell Co., New York: 1960. pp. 39-40.

when he gets the feel of another society through an understanding of its norms, its communications, and its values. In consequence, the empathetic American will tend to weigh his judgments about another culture, to moderate his own ethnocentrism, and to conduct himself accordingly, both in his work and family life, when in a foreign country.

Cleveland[24] has reported that within broad limits of personality there is reason to believe that cultural empathy needed by Americans adjusting to work overseas can be learned. A wise Chinese named Liu Shao, more than 1,700 years ago, wrote in The Study of Human Abilities that a man can recognize in others only the qualities he himself possesses. This simple observation, according to Cleveland[25] may be the key to the training of cultural empathy. Saunders[26] has commented that the training program should be directed to training the technician for a way of looking at another culture, with the hope this will lead to empathy. It appears that appropriate and realistic situations created during the training period can assist the technician when experiencing a completely different kind of culture, and help him to anticipate the reactions and responses that he must make in a different culture in order to retain his effectiveness.

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[24] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 137.

[25] Ibid.

[26] Saunders, W., op. cit., p. 46.

Understanding Health Problems. It is generally recognized that the relatively antiseptic conditions common to the environment in the U. S. do not prevail in most regions where technicians are stationed overseas. The failure for the adjustment of many technicians and their families can often be traced to preoccupations concerning health hazards.[27] For this reason many training programs include a training component covering: (1) awareness of health hazards, (2) preventive measures, and (3) survival techniques.[28] The attendance of both the technician and his wife are required in these sessions.

It is interesting to note that relatively little time is lost overseas through illness. Cleveland[29] has reported that the overseas wife is primarily concerned with the dread of what would happen in the case of a serious illness. He also disclosed that neurotic fear of disease can create almost as much trouble for the administrators of overseas programs as the actuality of ill health.[30] He cited the interesting case of a mining executive in Chile who imported his own drinking water from New York City.[31] Training technicians and their families in how to deal effectively with health problems deserves attention in the orientation program.

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[27] Gaylord, C., op. cit., (Interview).

[28] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[29] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 50.

[30] Ibid., p. 50.

[31] Ibid.

Adjustment of the Family. The adjustment of the family of the technician is also a crucial factor in the adjustment and performance of the overseas worker. Jones reported in 1959 that the adaptation of the employee's wife and children to a foreign environment warrants fully as much consideration as that of the employee. Behavior of a wife and children can more than undo an excellent contribution. Conversely, the family can and does make a highly significant contribution toward achievement of over-all objectives of the program when its attitude is positive.[32] The failure of the family to understand the many problems encountered and then make the necessary adjustments has probably induced more failures than any other single factor. This is why a number of training programs require the attendance of the wife and older family members.

Authorities agree that technicians and their families need to be given training which will help prepare them for the adjustment overseas. Basic understandings to be developed in this area include: (1) maintaining cultural identity and the development of cultural empathy, (2) understanding health problems and survival techniques, and (3) family orientation. Thirty authorities responded to the question of whether or not understandings in these supporting areas are basic to U. S. training programs. The responses are given in Table 6.

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[32] Jones, R. W., "Personnel Management for Technical Cooperation," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. XXI (May 1959), p. 107.

TABLE 6. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area E: Cultural Adjustment Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Cultural Identity and Development of Cultural Empathy	17.5		83.5
2. Understanding Health Problems	17.5		83.5
3. Family Orientation	50.0		50.0

Seventeen per cent of the authorities reported that training should be carried out in the development of understandings basic to maintaining cultural identity. Eighty-three per cent of the authorities indicated that such training should be given at the discretion of the agency. Over 80 per cent reported that understandings in the area of health problems should be carried out in overseas training programs. A minority of 17.5 per cent of the responding authorities felt this should be handled in the U. S. setting. Assuming families were being sent abroad with a technician, fifty per cent of the authorities reported that understandings basic to problems the family would face in the overseas environment should be included in U. S. training programs. Fifty per cent of the authorities felt that such training should be given at the discretion of the agency.

Language Skills

The language skills needed by technicians is one of the most debated questions of training programs. Some observers argue that no specialist should be hired who cannot speak the language of the area assignment; however, experts with such language ability are frequently unavailable. Other authorities feel that language is important but should be learned upon arrival in the host country. There are also those supporters of the view that language should be learned based on scientific linguistic analysis of its structure.

The ability to speak a foreign language has been one of the basic criteria of religious and certain business groups. However, until 1958 proficiency in foreign languages had not been regarded as essential for the majority of U. S. overseas technical assistance personnel.[33] At this point the foreign language fluency of U. S. Foreign Service Officers and U. S. ambassadors became a problem of concern at the highest levels of government. In March of 1958 the Advisory Committee of the Foreign Service Institute met with the President to discuss the situation. Reston of the New York Times summarized the situation in the following manner:

> Fifty per cent of the entire Foreign Service Officer Corps do not have a speaking knowledge of any foreign language. Seventy per cent of the new men coming into the Foreign Service are in the same state. Only one U. S. Ambassador in an iron curtain country or the Middle East speaks the language.[34]

Congress belatedly recognized that for effective conduct of foreign affairs language skills were essential. This was the basis for the federal subsidies made available in the National Defense Education Act of 1958.[35] Private industry, religious groups, and voluntary agencies stepped up their language training about this same time.

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[33] Thurber, C., op. cit., p. 316.

[34] Reston, James, "Foreign Service Woes," The New York Times, March 19, 1958, p. 14.

[35] New York Herald Tribune, October 31, 1960, p. 15.

Two of the leading authorities in the international field had somewhat different interpretations of the "language crisis." Cleveland interpreted the crisis in the following manner:

> What has really created a sense of national crisis in the language field is the discovery that most overseas Americans are not able to deal with foreigners in the local languages. For the first time in our history, language proficiency has indeed become a valid professional qualification for hundreds of Americans.[36]

Peyre approached the language crisis from a slightly different view point. Peyre's interpretation of the language crisis was:

> The true problems facing international cooperation today are not economic or social, but psychological. The best key to the understanding of the problems of another country and to their solution is the study of language. Only if we know another language besides our own shall we be able to perceive what divides other people from us and also the basic similarities underlying such differences.[37]

In essence, the lack of language skills among overseas technicians was cited as a major problem by leading overseas authorities.

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[36] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 201.

[37] Peyre, Henri, "The Need for Foreign Languages in America Today," Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association, Modern Language Association, Boston: (February, 1961), p. 33.

One government agency, ICA, immediately arranged with the Foreign Service Institute to set up intensive language training for all technicians.[38] The acceleration of language training since 1958 is now characteristic of most overseas programs. There is the eternal debate regarding theories and methods of teaching languages; however, it is well established that language is an important consideration for any overseas assignment. Language training normally includes the development of: (1) grammar skills, (2) written communications skills, (3) skills in the utilization of mass media, and (4) understandings of the influence of cultural cues on behavior in the process of communications.

Structure of the Vernacular Language. Language authorities are generally agreed that an understanding of the grammatical structure of a vernacular language assists an individual in gaining further comprehension of the language. Authorities such as Leon have noted that an understanding of the language structure is essential to comprehension.[39] Other authorities in the field including Ochoa[40] and Castilla[41] have supported the belief that a great deal of time needs to be devoted to developing

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[38] U. S. Senate, Committee on Foreign Relations, Hearings, Mutual Security Act of 1958, 85th Congress, 2nd Session, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., pp. 240-41.

[39] Leon, Jaime, Interview with Spanish Instructor, Cuenca, Ecuador, (October 11, 1963).

[40] Ochoa, Gonzalo, Interview with Language Professor at the University of Cuenca, Cuenca, Ecuador, (November 1, 1963).

[41] Castilla, Jaime, Interview with FAO Specialist, Quito, Ecuador (June 7, 1964).

understandings and skills in basic language structure. Such training programs as the United Brethern Church[42] have devoted the majority of the time alloted to language study in the development of grammatical understandings and skills. This is also the trend in a number of government and university training programs.

Written Communications in the Vernacular Language. The overseas technician working at the local level has the greatest need for oral language skills and understandings. However, there is a growing realization that both field workers and administrative personnel need to achieve skills in writing the vernacular language. Letters, reports, and other communications written in the vernacular language are becoming an even more important aspect of the technicians job. Guerrero has indicated that Peace Corps volunteers working with the Ecuadorian Extension Service need to develop basic skills in written communications.[43] Volunteers submit monthly reports to the National Extension Director which are concerned with many responsibilities that require written communication skills. Few overseas agencies include this type of training in their programs, but leave the achievement of such skills to the individual.

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[42] United Brethern Mission, Overseas Training Program for Missionaries, New York: 1964, pp. 4-11.

[43] Guerrero, T., op. cit., (Interview).

Mass Media of the Host Country. Technicians involved in technical cooperation work are becoming increasingly involved in the use of the mass media of the host country to promote projects and programs. In Ecuador 350 missionaries utilize the various types of mass media in the country.[44] A survey[45] conducted in the same country in 1965 reported that 125 Peace Corps volunteers have promoted projects and programs through the means of mass media. The utilization of mass media in the host country, of course, assumes that a technician has a basic knowledge of the language. To date little attention has been given the utilization of mass media in overseas training programs. The U. S. Information Service and the Agency for International Development training programs are two of the exceptions. The development of understandings and skills in the utilization of mass media remains a deficient area in most U. S. training programs.[46]

The Influence of Cultural Cues on Behavior in the Communications Process. Language has been promoted to a postion as a primary element of overseas success. However, language alone does not assure adequate cross-cultural communication. While language is a medium of communication,

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[44] Krepps, G., op. cit., (Interview).

[45] Trail, T., Activities of Peace Corps Volunteers in Ecuador, Heifer Project, Inc., Quito, Ecuador: 1965, p. 6.

[46] Krepps, G., op. cit., (Interview).

effective communication is more than the knowledge of and skills in grammar.[47] Training for overseas work must include training in the processes and methods of communication according to Albertson.[48] In training skills of communication a technician should learn what happens in the process of communication and the techniques of communication.

An important part of this training should emphasize an understanding of the cultural cues which influence the use of the vernacular language. Every culture or subculture contains its own set of cultural cues which when correlated with the language, condition the resultant action or response. This is illustrated in the following statement by Mangone:

> At the root, however, many cross-cultural strains upon individuals come from a failure of communications. Words are spoken and acts take place that are simply not intelligible without the same cultural wave length. To illustrate, a Russian clasps his hands over his head or applauds himself in an American audience after delivering a speech. We think he is arrogant or vain; he thinks he is showing the communion of the group.[49]

This illustration demonstrates the problems that result from a failure of communications in a cross-cultural setting. It is evident that training programs should emphasize the processes and methods of communication with

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[47] Albertson, M., op. cit., p. 83.

[48] Ibid.

[49] Mangone, G., "On the Nature of Training for Overseas Service," The Texas Quarterly, (Spring 1962), p. 18.

particular attention given to the development of understanding the influence of cultural cues on behavior. The implications for training are significant.

Authorities agree on the importance of language in the training of technicians. Their recommendations include developing skills and understandings in the following supporting areas: (1) language structure, (2) written communications, (3) mass media, and (4) the influence of cultural cues on behavior in the communications process. Thirty authorities responded to the question of whether or not understandings and skills in these areas were basic to U. S. training programs.

All of the authorities indicated that some training should be given technicians in the U. S. in developing skills and understandings of the structure of the vernacular language. One third of the authorities reported that training in the area of written communications and mass media should be conducted in the U. S. setting. Fifty per cent of the authorities felt that such training should be carried out overseas. Sixteen per cent of the authorities indicated that such training was not feasible. In the area of developing and understanding of the effects of cultural cues on behavior in the communications process a substantial majority of the authorities indicated that such training should be carried out in the U. S. Sixteen per cent of the authorities felt that such training should be given at the discretion of the agency.

TABLE 7. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN THE AREA OF LANGUAGE ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area F: Language Skills Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Structure	100.0		
2. Written Communication	33.5	16.5	50.0
3. Mass Media	33.5	16.5	50.0
4. Communication (Cultural Cues)	83.5		16.5

Group Dynamics

At a recent Interprofessional Conference on Training of Personnel for Overseas Service, the participants reported that understandings and skills in the area of group dynamics should be stressed in overseas training programs.[50] Recommendations stressed training in both the group dynamics and human relations areas. This group cited the work of the National Training Laboratories as an example of what can be done in this area.[51] The development of group dynamics understandings and skills in the overseas situation according to training authorities should include the following supporting areas: (1) group action and interaction, (2) ways of motivating people, (3) the role of perception, and (4) the decision-making process.[52] A number of U. S. training programs have devoted considerable time to the preparation of technicians in these areas.

Group Interaction. The technician working at the village level cooperates with people and groups of people who are carrying out development projects of the agency. Evidence has indicated that a technician should develop understandings and skills in the processes and methods of group action. Baty[53] has reported that group dynamics understandings and skills should be developed in four specific areas. These are:

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[50] Sanders, W., op. cit., pp. 57-58.

[51] Ibid.

[52] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[53] Ibid.

1. Understanding of the forces determining the behavior of members in a group and of the group.

2. Understanding of the conditions of group growth, and skill in facilitating such growth.

3. Understanding of the interrelationships between the group and the larger social environment and skill in helping to relate group action constructively to the social forces affecting it.

4. Understanding of the interrelationships between the individual members and the group and skill in relating personal needs and purposes to group needs and purposes.[54]

These areas of understandings and skills merit the attention of all U. S. training programs.

Role of Motivation in Change. As an agent of change, the technician must be able to motivate people in the direction of the desired change. This implies he must have a comprehension of the interpersonal relations of the people and of the means of motivating them. Lewis in his account of the Mexican village of Tepoztlan has described some of the characteristics of a rural village which technicians directing change may encounter.

> Gossip is unrelenting and harsh. Facts about people are unconsciously or maliciously distorted. Relatives and neighbors are quick to believe the worse, and motives are always under question. Successful persons are popular targets of criticism and malicious gossip.[55]

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[54] Ibid.

[55] Lewis, Oscar, Life in a Mexican Village: Tepoztlan Restudied, University of Illinois Press, Urbana, Illinois: 1951, p. 429.

His description reveals the individualism of the villages' character and institutions. It also reveals the schisms within the village, and the pervading quality of fear, envy, and distrust in inter-personal relations. It is within this type of environment that many technicians direct programs of change. It is essential, therefore, according to Baty,[56] that technical cooperation agencies should stress orientation in the area of how to motivate local people and skills in their implementation.

The Role of Perception. Another obstacle encountered by the overseas technician working with people of another culture is the difference in perception between people of different cultural backgrounds. Lee has reported that the foreign agent of change labors under a double handicap. He perceives according to his own familiar categories, and he is perceived according to unfamiliar categories.[57] Lee related the story of a young Hopi schoolboy to point out the differences in perception between subcultures. The boy was the Christian son of a Christian mother who had attended a white mission school. On one occasion the boy asked a white visitor to what clan she belonged.[58] Many technicians make this same mistake when evaluating behavior from their own perceptual viewpoint.

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[56] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview)

[57] Lee, H., "The Cultural Curtain," The Annals. Vol. XXI, No. 6, (May 1959), p. 126.

[58] Ibid.

What the innovator perceives as a decided and obvious advantage may be seen entirely differently from the viewpoint of the recipient. For example, Walsh,[59] a former Peace Corps volunteer, reported that in Ecuador people may build latrines, not because of the health advantages, but because they anticipate the prestige they will receive for their progressive ideas. Lee further pointed out that our own acts, our own motivation, are usually perceived not as we see them but according to the cultural framework of those who see us.[60]

The Sioux chief, Sitting Bull, interpreted the achievements of civilization in the 1870's in the following manner:

> They claim this mother of ours, the Earth, for their own use, and fence their neighbors away from her, and deface her with their buildings and their refuse. They compel her to produce out of season and when sterile she is made to take medicine in order to produce again. All this is sacrilege.[61]

The statement by Sitting Bull indicates that the difference in perception between two cultures means that an innovator in order to stimulate change must present new ideas and techniques verbally, visually, and conceptually so that the recipient may perceive the advantages about in the same manner

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[59] Walsh, John, Interview with Peace Corps volunteer, Loja, Ecuador, (May 27, 1965).

[60] Lee, H., op. cit.

[61] Eastman, Charles A., Indian Heroes and Great Chieftains, Little, Brown and Co., Boston: 1927, p. 120.

as the innovator. This does not mean the recipient will accept the program, but he will be able to evaluate it more realistically from his own perceptual view. The implication for training is that a technician should develop an understanding of perception and how it structures beliefs, values, and inter-personal communications.

Knowledge of the Decision-Making Process. Saunders, in his report of the Interprofessional Conference on Training of Personnel for Overseas Service, indicated that overseas technicians should develop an understanding of the processes of decision-making and skill in communicating these understandings to others.[62] The importance of developing an understanding of the decision-making process has been pointed out by Gswhend as essential to the work of Peace Corps volunteers working in community development.[63] Training in the decision-making process should include a knowledge of the steps involved in this process:

1. Procedures for successful decision-making.
2. Participants in the decision-making process.
3. Problems involved when individuals of unlike cultural backgrounds are involved in decision-making.
4. How problems can be anticipated, solved, or avoided.[64]

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[62] Saunders, W., op. cit., pp. 57-58.

[63] Gswhend, B., Interview with Associate Peace Corps Representative, Guayaquil, Ecuador, (May 28, 1965).

[64] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

Authorities such as Baty[65] and Noffsinger[66] have indicated that overseas technicians should develop understandings in the decision-making process and the skills in communicating these understandings to others.

The development of understandings and skills in the field of group dynamics has significance for the U. S. training setting. Components of such a program include an understanding of group action and interaction, methods of motivating people, the role of perception, and the steps involved in the decision-making process. Thirty authorities responded to the question of whether or not understandings and skills in group dynamics were basic to U. S. training programs. A summary of these responses is given in Table 8.

A majority of the authorities indicated that group action and interaction and motivation should be included in the U. S. training program. Two of the authorities (6.5 per cent) indicated the development of skills and understandings in these areas should be left up to the discretion of the training agency. The development of understandings and skills in the area of the role of perception and the decision-making process were deemed basic to U. S. programs by 83.5 per cent of the authorities. Sixteen per cent of the authorities felt that such training should be conducted in the overseas training environment.

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[65] Ibid.

[66] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

TABLE 8. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN THE AREA OF GROUP DYNAMICS ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area G: Group Dynamics	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
Supporting Understandings	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At the Discretion of The Agency
1. Group Interaction	93.5		6.5
2. Motivation	93.5		6.5
3. Perception	83.5		16.5
4. Decision-Making Process	83.5		16.5

U. S. History and Culture

One of the unanticipated results of an extended period of living abroad is the new perspective it gives technicians of their own country. Host country nationals often ask many questions about the United States; new ways of doing things abroad bring reflections about practices at home. Sometimes the contrast causes an exaggerated reaction on the part of the overseas technician. Many times before the American has come to terms with the new culture, and has adjusted to it, he is frequently observed comparing many aspects of the new country unfavorably to the U. S.[67]

In the long run, the new perspectives often develop in the American a deeper interest in the United States, its history, and cultural traditions. According to Pines[68] just as the new environment of the host country raises in the American's mind many questions about its workings, so the new perspective on the U. S. tends to force the American into a re-examination of his own culture. Saunders[69] reported that overseas technicians need training in developing the necessary understanding and skill

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[67] Ibid.

[68] Pines, Jim, Interview with Assistant Peace Corps Officer for the Latin American Regions, Quito, Ecuador, (May 21, 1965).

[69] Sanders, W., op. cit., p. 50.

to represent the United States: being able to discuss intelligently its social structure, its cultural achievements, its economic system, and its foreign policy, as neither superior nor inferior to the country where one is working. The essence of training in this area was indicated by Lassey in the following statement:

> Probably one of the first essentials to a proper interpretation of the role of an American overseas is thorough understanding of his own cultural heritage and democratic traditions. He should be aware of the historical, economic, social and political development of the U. S., our diplomatic and foreign policy history with its blunders and triumphs, the philosophy of democratic process as it has been interpreted by us; and certainly our revolutionary tradition, declaration of independence, constitution--with their great meaning to many of the emerging nations.[70]

Training authorities have indicated that such training is essential for overseas work.

It is apparent that authorities feel that overseas technicians need to develop the necessary understandings and skills in the area of the historical development of the U. S., American culture, U. S. foreign policy, and the relation of the U. S. to the United Nations.

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[70] Lassey, Bill, Employment Opportunities in Technical Cooperation, Masters Thesis, Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana, (June 1961), p. 9.

Historical Development of the U. S. The overseas technician needs to develop understandings of the historical development of the U. S. Technicians will be working in developing countries which are undergoing many of the same developmental problems experienced by the U. S. during its historical evolution. Albertson[71] has reported that training in this area should especially deal with problems of social and economic development with special emphasis given to the experience of the U. S. as a developing country. Such orientation should include the problems encountered and overcome, the successes, and the failures. Current problems should likewise be analyzed in this context.

Implications of the development of the U. S. from a country of vast potential resources, small population, and a low level of living, to a country with greatly increased population density and affluent living should be indicated and related to the currently developing countries. The experience of the U. S. is but one example to illustrate that the level of living is not merely a function of the population and natural environment, but varies with these institutional characteristics which define the potentialities of both human and natural resources. Emphasis should also be placed on the parallel development of democratic traditions. Brown[72] and other authorities have concluded that it becomes increasingly clear that

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[71] Albertson, M., op. cit., p. 79.

[72] Brown, S., Memo to Overseas Americans, Syracuse University Press, Syracuse: 1961, p. 48.

training programs must devote greater attention to adapting the study of American civilization to the needs of the overseas American.

American Culture. Baty[73] among other authorities, has stated that technicians need to develop a greater understanding of American culture to become more effective representatives abroad. Brown[74] in 1964 noted that in the course of a three-year study at Syracuse University, one often heard the charge that the real trouble with Americans abroad was not their lack of understanding of foreign countries, but their faulty knowledge and appreciation of the United States. A businessman with years of experience in Japan described the Americans' lack of knowledge of the U. S. as very inadequate in representing the U. S.:

> If you stay out here long enough you worry less about what the local people think and more about what the Americans are thinking, if they're thinking at all. One of the reasons why the U. S. government has had such a hard time is these so called ambassadors of good will are badly brought up and poorly educated.[75]

This indicates that training in the area of American culture has been sadly deficient in the training of overseas Americans. In conclusion, Mangone[76] reported that as Americans bound for overseas assignments become more perceptive about other cultures, they inevitably come to a

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[73] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[74] Brown, S., op. cit., p. 42.

[75] Mangone, G., op. cit., p. 21.

[76] Ibid.

deeper appreciation of the U. S., with its complex, even paradoxical, value structure. The development of understandings in this area appear to be basic for U. S. training programs.

U. S. Foreign Policy. An important component of many training programs is the development of understandings in the basic objectives of U. S. foreign policy. Baird reported that every technician going overseas needs to learn about U. S. foreign policy and objectives.[77] Technicians working overseas are often required to carry out activities within the framework of U. S. foreign policy. Each technician is also regarded as a representative of the U. S., and will be asked to explain the objectives and methods of U. S. foreign policy. This is illustrated by Albertson in a statement with respect to the training of Peace Corps volunteers:

> Making volunteers aware of the program and objectives of the Peace Corps, and their relation to U. S. foreign policy to the developmental plans of the host country, and their own individual relationship to the program as a whole, is one of the most important aspects of orientation. A volunteer should be aware of the U. S. foreign policy and be prepared to explain it. Unless volunteers are able to understand the role of U. S. foreign policy in such a program they can only be minimally effective.[78]

The development of understandings of U. S. foreign policy are thus indicated by knowledgeable authorities to be basic in the preparation of technicians.

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[77] Baird, G., op. cit., (Interview).

[78] Albertson, M., op. cit., p. 81.

Prior to 1960 most overseas training programs took for granted the fact that recruits to overseas programs were well versed in the knowledge of U. S. foreign policy. According to Sayre[79] it seemed that overseas technicians generally appreciated the forces that in less than a decade changed the foreign policy of the U. S. from isolationism to international cooperation. Observations have shown there is no such understanding.[80] It is important that trainees in U. S. training programs understand the current international role of the U. S. Sayre[81] has reported the curriculums of training programs should be critically examined and where necessary modified, to insure this goal is accomplished.

U. S. and U. N. Relationships. Overseas technicians are frequently involved in cooperative programs of the United Nations and related agencies. There has been an increasing tendency to combine the programs of the U. N. and American agencies to attack common problems in developing countries. The U. S. as an international leader has a great interest and commitment in programs of the U. N. and its special agencies. Kassenbaum[82] indicated in 1965 that technicians should receive training in: (1) the development

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[79] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 59.

[80] Ibid.

[81] Ibid.

[82] Kassenbaum, F., Interview with Director of FAO, Quito, Ecuador, (June 23, 1965).

of U. N. programs, (2) relationships of U. S. programs to the U. N. and its specialized agencies, and (3) the relationship of the combined programs with the national developmental plan of the host country. Other authorities have reported that technicians need to develop the appropriate understanding of the U. N. and its relationship to the U. S.

Authorities agree that technicians need to develop understandings and skills in how to interpret and understand the historical development, cultural heritage, foreign policy, and the relationship of the U. N. to the United States. This is the function of the U. S. training program. Thirty authorities were asked to respond to the question of whether or not understandings and skills in U. S. history and culture were basic to U. S. training programs. A summary of their responses is presented in Table 9.

A consensus of the authorities indicated that the historical development and study of American culture should be included in U. S. training programs. The development of understandings and skills in these areas was considered more appropriate for the overseas setting by 16.5 per cent of the authorities. Two-thirds of the authorities reported that understandings and skills in the areas of U. S. foreign policy and U. S. - U. N. relationships are basic to U. S. training programs.

TABLE 9. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN THE AREA OF U. S. HISTORY AND CULTURE ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area H: U. S. History and Culture Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Historical Development	83.5		16.5
2. American Culture	83.5		16.5
3. Foreign Policy	66.5		33.5
4. U. N. Relationships	66.5		33.5

History and Culture of the Host Country

Authorities in technical cooperation have long recognized the value of area or specific country study for overseas technicians.[83] Area studies have been components of the training programs of religious and voluntary agencies for a number of years. However, area programs in American universities are primarily the outgrowth of academic experience during World War II, when universities provided area and language training for military governments in occupied areas, the Army Specialist Training Program, and others.[84] In the post-war period, university area programs have not been widely used for government training purposes although a trend in that direction is now evidenced.[85]

Cleveland has argued there are three primary audiences for area studies: the future academic specialist, the technician in a subject matter field who expects to work in a foreign area, and regular undergraduate and graduate students who need exposure to a foreign area as an essential part of their general education.[86]

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[83] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[84] Carroll, John, The Study of Language, Harvard University Press, Cambridge: 1959, pp. 173-176.

[85] Hoffman, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[86] Cleveland, H., "The Virtues and Vices of Area Studies," Paper Prepared for the 46th National Foreign Trade Convention, New York City, November 16, 1959 (multilithes), p. 9.

He has also reported that area study programs have not yet reached their full potential. The importance of area studies for the overseas technician is emphasized in his publication, "The Virtues and Vices of Area Studies."[87]

One of the most important skills a technician can achieve is an understanding of another culture. From the point of view for education for overseas service Cleveland has observed:

> The best way to start is by learning about one culture alien to our own. To break the cultural barrier one must learn to think differently--one must become aware of the ideologies and the patterns of thought that have developed over the centuries in another cultural tradition. For this understanding history, art, literature, and philosophy are the core disciplines. Neither the politics of a country nor indeed its language can be understood by the foreigner who does not have some acquaintance with its intellectual traditions.[88]

This indicates the importance of knowing another culture as basic to the training of technicians.

Authorities have reported that technicians should develop the necessary understandings and skills in the following elements of an area studies program: (1) a view of the historical development of the host country, (2) the host country culture, (3) foreign policy of the host country, and (4) host country - U. N. relationships. This classification

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[87] Ibid.

[88] Cleveland, H., The Overseas American, op. cit., p. 204.

will serve as the basis for discussing the key areas suitable for an overseas training program.

Historical Development of the Host Country. Authorities have pointed out the overseas technician needs to develop understandings and skills to interpret the historical development of the host country. The technician needs to understand what historical factors have influenced the development of cultural, economic, and political institutions. A knowledge of these factors may provide the technician with opportunities upon which to build the program of the agency.

An understanding of the historical factors and their influence on the various country institutions has resulted in many major accomplishments for the Agency for International Development program around the world, according to Shuart.[89] Sayre[90] reported that the historical information provided technicians must be highly selective because of the limited time available for the training program, but that it should include at least three main areas of emphasis: the events and value to which historians and the people of a region attach great importance; the relationship of the area with attitudes of the people toward the past and present foreign policies of the U. S.; and the specific historical context within which the mission and its assignment will be viewed in the country. The development of understandings and skills to interpret these areas hold forth important implications in training of technicians.

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[89] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[90] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 69.

Host Country Culture. One of the major tasks of any overseas technician is assisting host country nationals in the realization of their personal and collective wants and needs, according to Albertson.[91] To do this requires that these wants and needs be understood within their own cultural context.

It is significant that authorities such as Noffsinger[92] and Baty[93] have ranked the study of the host culture as one of the basic areas of training programs. Training of this order should give the technician orientation in the areas of the arts, religious, political structure, customs, economy as well as the culture of the entire region or continent of which it is a part. Emphasis should be placed on giving the technician an understanding of the social structure. This understanding should be based upon knowledge of the social values which are central to the culture and of the religious systems, social classes, educational system, level of professional and religious systems, level of professional and scientific development, capacity of the social structure to absorb new technological assistance programs, role of the family, and general distribution of power in the social structure, according to Sayre.[94] The development of these understandings is basic for U. S. training programs.

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[91] Albertson, M., op. cit., p. 75.

[92] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[93] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[94] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 69.

Foreign Policy of the Host Country. Another area of the training program frequently omitted by agencies is the development of understandings of the foreign policy of the host country. Smith[95] has indicated, for example, that Peace Corps volunteers should develop understandings of the host country foreign policy and the skill to interpret these policies.

The technician frequently works with other U. S., non-governmental and international programs in the host country. These programs are often instigated under political rather than sound economic and developmental premises. Developing countries frequently become involved in certain programs imposed on them by the U. S. or other countries. According to Shuart, the State Department still talks about noninterference in the internal affairs of other nations. But in most instances this ancient principle does not represent present reality. Any powerful nation today deeply affects the internal affairs of many less powerful neighbors. The foreign policy of these developing countries is often a reflection of the subtle and sometimes inconspicuous pressures brought to bear by the more powerful nations. On the one hand there are the internal pressures to maintain national identity and integrity, and on the other, the political and economic pressures from outside sources.[96] The foreign policy of many countries may appear to the technician to be a picture of confusion and

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[95] Smith, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[96] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

paradox. However, an understanding of the historical development and factors influencing the foreign policy of the host country will provide the context for evaluating implications affecting U. S., non-governmental, or international programs of development within the host country. The development of understandings in this area merit attention in training.

Host Country-U. N. Relationships. Developing countries have become actively involved in the programs of the U. N. and its related agencies. The U. N. also becomes the platform from where representatives of these countries can give opinion to national and international issues. Many benefits are derived by developing countries in participation with the programs of the special agencies of the U. N. In this respect Standley[97] indicated in 1964 that such programs have assisted many new nations in developing new programs, institutions, and services. It is understandable that programs of the U. N. are often accepted with little question while programs with the developed countries may raise serious question or even cries of exploitation.[98] Technicians should receive training which will help them gain understandings of the implications of the relationship of the host country to the U. N.

Authorities are agreed that technicians should gain the appropriate understandings in the basic elements of area studies. Understandings and skills should be developed in the following supporting areas: (1) historical

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[97] Standley, Robert, Interview with Deputy Peace Corps Director in Brazil, Quito, Ecuador, (May 21, 1965).

[98] Ibid.

development of the host country, (2) host country culture, (3) the foreign policy of the host country, and (4) host country-U. N. relationships. Thirty authorities responded to the question of whether or not understandings and skills in the history and culture of the host country are basic to U. S. training programs. Table 10 summarizes the responses of the authorities.

The consensus of the authorities indicated that the understandings and skills in the areas of the historical development of the host country, the host culture, and the foreign policy of the host country should be developed in U. S. training programs. Only 33.5 per cent of the authorities reported that the understandings and skills of host country-U. N. relationships should be covered in the U. S. training situation.

World Ideologies

Overseas technicians are at work in areas of the world where the battle for the minds of men are underway. The development of many ideologies during the past century is now concentrated in the struggle for minds, countries, and spheres of influence. This struggle is carried on in the economic and political arenas of the developing countries.

The major change in U. S. operations and policy has been the emergence of the U. S. as a major political, economic, and commercial power. The focus of attention has changed from observation to direct participation in foreign affairs. Much of this change has come about since the end of World War II.

TABLE 10. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN THE AREA STUDIES ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area I: History and Culture of the Host Culture Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Historical Development	100.0		
2. Host Culture	100.0		
3. Foreign Policy	100.0		
4. Host Country-U. N. Relationships	33.5		66.5

The acceleration of technical knowledge and industrialization has opened up great differences between the "have" and "have not" nations according to Brown.[99] These differences are chiefly reflected in the ability of the "have" nations to produce goods and services for all, to control the environmental forces which hinder development, and to invent institutions which control the new forces which man through his technology has released. On the other hand Brown has noted that the developing countries are still hindered by all the problems that have plagued mankind since the beginning of time.[100] There is little evidence the developing countries are closing the gap. Indeed, Brown has pointed out the gap is widening at an ever increasing pace.[101] Even the inputs of over 100 billion dollars by the U. S. in foreign aid to the developing countries have not closed this gap.

The psychology that man could not improve his own destiny is now ancient history. People of the developing countries now know that man can conquer flood, famine, and pestilence. The idea that man can control his own destiny is prevalent among the populations of the "have not" countries.[102] People of these countries are looking toward their

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[99] Brown, L., op. cit., (Interview).

[100] Ibid.

[101] Ibid.

[102] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

governments for the solution of these problems. They have entered the age of the revolution of rising determination to be free.[103] The current trends of the growth of the U. S. power and strength, the age of rising expectations, and the emergence of Soviet Russia and Communism as a world power are primary factors in the ideological struggle of the uncommitted world. The implications are that the development of understandings of world ideologies are a prerequisite to U. S. training programs. Supporting areas in training, according to training authorities, should include: (1) the psychology of ideologies, (2) nationalism, (3) communism, and (4) colonialism.

The Psychology of Ideologies. Mangone[104] noted that Americans are being sent overseas in this decade to participate in revolutionary battles that involve clashes of ideology and a disruption of value systems. The great goal of economic growth sought so fiercely in some countries of the world is simply not possible without cultural and psychological changes. The implications from Mangone's "Memo to Overseas Americans" is that overseas Americans must have some comprehension of the psychology of the many ideologies competing in the uncommitted world. Albertson[105] has also observed that orientation programs for overseas service must take into consideration the definitions of ideologies held by the peoples of an area--not just our own interpretations. This involves the development of understanding

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[103] Ibid.

[104] Mangone, G., op. cit., p. 22.

[105] Albertson, M., op. cit., p. 80.

the psychology which underlies the ideologies of other nations. A discussion of some of these ideologies now follows.

Nationalism. Authorities believe that overseas technicians should develop an understanding of nationalism and its emergence in the newly developing countries. Albertson indicated the importance of developing of an understanding of nationalism in the training of Peace Corps volunteers in the following statement:

> The Peace Corps mission in terms of bringing about changes to satisfying unfulfilled desires for security, opportunity and self-respect is clear. Practically all of these unfulfilled desires have arisen from contact with and awareness of western civilization. Not only everyday social patterns and institutions, but the major ideas which today animate the developing lands are largely western in origin. Nationalism, for instance, is a driving force in the new countries at a time when it may already be a declining ideology in its original homeland of the Atlantic community. A volunteer must know about nationalism and the various forms of governments and economic systems in the world in all their crude, refined and subtle significance. His work will throw him often in particular close contact with the young and articulate generation of each emerging nation, the very people most responsible to the pull of new ideas.[106]

The understandings described by Albertson have also been reported by Torres[107] as basic for overseas technicians.

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[106] Ibid.

[107] Torres, Tom, Interview with Associate Peace Corps Representative, Quito, Ecuador, (March 10, 1964).

Agents of change can often utilize nationalism to bring about change. A conscious appeal to nationalistic feelings has in many situations promoted change. Tannous tells how in the Near East the evoking of the "glorious past" stimulates the farmer to improve agricultural practices. He found that showing slides of Arab monuments still standing in the Middle East, lecturing on the Arab contribution to world civilization, and giving a stimulating description of their country's ancient, successful agricultural practices contributed significantly to extension work.[108] Among the Zulu, where diet had deteriorated over the years, the aims of a comprehensive health program were further stimulated by pointing out to the people the values of the old diet, and by stimulating their pride in past ways and their desire to maintain former standards.[109] Developing an understanding of nationalistic pride and feeling may assist the technician in the implementation of the desired change.

Communism. The greatest competitors in the technical cooperation field are the Russians. According to Brown,[110] total inputs by the Russians in the field of foreign aid have exceeded 50 billion dollars since the end of World War II. The Soviet Union has emerged as a second world power in the past forty years by making an underdeveloped economy into an

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[108] Tannous, Afif, "Extension Work Among the Arab Fellahin," Applied Anthropology, Vol. III No. 3:1-12, 1944, p. 8.

[109] Cassel, John, "A Comprehensive Health Program Among South African Zulus," in Health, Culture, and Community, Russell Sage Foundation, 1955, p. 24.

[110] Brown, L., op. cit., (Interview).

industrial one. The chief Communist challenge has been the use of political power to bring about an economic transformation in the Soviet Union itself--followed by a vigorous and well-managed attempt to isolate the West from its former dependencies in Asia and Africa. The Soviet technical aid program is a part of this challenge.

Sayre[111] proposed that training programs for government personnel need to attain understandings of the fundamental issues between the free world and its opponents. He proposed that U. S. technicians should develop an understanding of these issues on which parts of the missions help to provide the base upon which they may build stronger relations between the U. S. and cooperating countries. Training which emphasizes bonds of mutual confidence and mutual interest will serve to improve the capacity of the agency in fulfilling its most fundamental task of contributing to the collective strength of the free world.[112]

In conclusion, authorities have indicated that overseas technicians must develop understandings of the nature of communism, its history, philosophy, development, how it operates, its threat to the world and its role in technical cooperation programs.

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111 Sayre, N., op. cit., p. 67.

112 Ibid.

Colonialism. The developing areas have only recently emerged from the colonial rule of the western world. Colonial rule characterized by western ideas disrupted traditional order and culture. Cultural patterns, economic institutions, and total ways of life were swept away by the so-called innovations of the colonial rulers. Brown has related that in India where the British by introducing the ownership of land fee swept away systems of land use on which the family's economic security and its right in the community depended.[113] Colonial rulers humiliated religious and group leaders. The colonial rulers did these things in the name of progress. More important, according to Knerium,[114] the colonial rulers typically treated the people of the conquered nations as inferiors, who by virtue of their skin color were unworthy and might be appropriately humbled. The emotional impact of all this cut deep.

These relationships are of the immediate past and present, not of history. They were characteristic of colonial rule by the French, Spanish, Belgians, Dutch, British, and Portuguese. There were differences in the degree of harshness of administration, but little in the fundamental impressions conveyed to the conquered peoples.

The overseas technician is likely to encounter a deep sensitivity on the part of the people both toward him and his program. Thurber has

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[113] Brown, L., op. cit., (Interview).

[114] Knerium, George, Interview with AID Village Development Specialist, Washington, D. C., (July 11, 1964).

described how U. S. technicians should develop effective relationships with peoples of ex-colonial countries when he said:

> The dark-skinned ex-colonial people are extremely sensitive about imperialism and colonialism as attitudes. Be friendly and American, but start out with some degree of reserve and dignity, letting down into informal behavior only with those you know well enough to understand you.[115]

Technicians working in ex-colonial areas should develop understandings of the nature of colonialism, its history, development, and implications in the current attitudes of people toward technical assistance programs.

Authorities in the field of technical cooperation agree that technicians should develop appropriate understandings and skills in the area of world ideologies. Supporting areas should include: (1) the psychology of ideologies, (2) nationalism, (3) communism and, (4) colonialism. Thirty authorities in the field of technical cooperation were asked to respond to the question of whether or not understandings and skills in the area of world ideologies are basic to U. S. training programs. Their responses are given in Table 11.

A consensus of the authorities indicated that the development of understandings in the area of the psychology of ideologies and nationalism should receive treatment in U. S. training programs. Six per cent of the

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[115] Thurber, C., op. cit., p. 202.

TABLE 11. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS IN THE AREA OF WORLD IDEOLOGIES ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area J: World Ideologies Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of the Agency
1. Psychology of Ideologies	93.5		6.5
2. Nationalism	93.5		6.5
3. Communism	83.5		16.5
4. Colonialism	83.5		16.5

authorities felt the agency should handle this type of training at its own discretion. A majority of the authorities reported that development of understandings in the areas of communism and colonialism are basic to U. S. programs.

Inter-Cultural Relations

Thousands of American technical specialists, some well oriented and others much less well oriented in the factors and principles of inter-cultural relations, have been sent overseas during the past fifty years. Thousands more will be sent in the future. For all of them there will be the dramatic discovery of conspicuously different cultures.[116]

One of the principal handicaps to present training efforts is the lack of any generally accepted doctrine, concept, or understanding to serve as a guide in shaping training programs.[117] Sayre also has observed that so far as any single concept has emerged, it is the need for understanding intercultural relations. This is a valid concept that has provided training programs with new insights. In some programs the presentation of the concept of intercultural relations has been too abstract and academic and too little related to concrete region, country and operational situations.[118]

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[116] Cousins, N., "Confrontation," Saturday Review, Vol. 4 No. 12: 30-32, 1961, p. 30.

[117] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 58.

[118] Ibid.

Hillsman has pointed out that the concept of inter-cultural relations, which has been accepted by universities as basic to the study of foreign areas, has not achieved wide acceptance in the foreign affairs agencies of government. In a study based on interviews with U. S. government personnel, Hillsman illustrated the lack of acceptance of the concept of inter-cultural relations by government agencies:

> There is little in their statements to indicate these officials place any special value on the idea that peoples of other cultures have different habits of thought, different values, and different motivations. They apparently reject the idea that someone who has an intimate knowledge of cultural differences has any particular usefulness. This tendency seemed to be rather widespread, and was accompanied by a tendency to feel that for practical purposes one could assume the basic motivations of Americans were almost universal.[119]

Similar attitudes have also been attributed to officials of other overseas agencies.

Egger took a somewhat different approach and defined the problem of cultural differences in the following terms:

> Area work at most institutions tends to become an end in itself, rather than a useful tool which facilitates the process of adaptation to a foreign environment. Area work is mainly valuable insofar as it develops ability and establishes a "proneness" to bring together the knowledge a person requires to do his work perceptively. A man with Latin American or Near Eastern area specialization is well on his way toward a Far East

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[119] Hillsman, Roger, Strategic Intelligence and National Decisions, The Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois: 1956, pp. 103-105.

> specialization if his employment should direct his efforts to that region. The primary benefit conferred by an area specialization is still in its acquisition; the substantive aspects are in part obsolete by the time the training is completed.[120]

Egger by expressing the view of the area generalist poses the following question for area studies: Is there a skill of area or cultural analysis, separate from the analysis, of a specific area or culture, which can be learned and taught? It is relevant that anthropologists have discussed a method of cultural analysis they believe has a close relationship to operational tasks.[121] Spicer in his discussion of the conceptual tools for solving problems emphasizes the need for a primary frame of reference for planning and directing a program of change. This frame of reference is spoken of by social scientists as the concept of culture. It is simply the understanding that all people everywhere behave in accordance with patterns which they have learned in the process of growing up in society and which makes sense to them as an overall design of living.[122]

Technicians need to gain the prerequisite understandings of this basic concept. Each technician must establish and maintain effective cross-cultural relations to be effective in his work with people of the host

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[120] Egger, R., op. cit., p. 148.

[121] Spicer, Edward (ed.), Human Problems in Technological Change, Russell Sage Foundation, New York: 1952, pp. 57-60.

[122] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

country as indicated in the following statement by Mock:

> The technician must attempt to establish and maintain the kind of relationships that reduce the anxiety and defensiveness in those areas he serves, so that the people being influenced can develop new patterns of thought, attitudes and behavior.[123]

In this relationship a technician must be attuned to the communication pathways of the culture or face the prospects of program failure.

Perhaps a proposed program runs completely counter to the religious tenents of a people. For example it is reported that the Girl Scout manuals which were sent from the U. S. to a school in Indonesia were thrown away unused. The people to whom they were sent were Moslems, and they explained that as Moslems they found it disgusting to have human beings equated with bears, beavers, and wolves, and to have girls urged to name themselves after animals.[124] Sometimes the technician does not take into account the social groupings of culture. In this country, when Navahos were resettled on irrigated farmland, the arrangements went counter to their established grouping. They were reestablished as individual families of parents and children, far from their relatives, despite the fact that they had been accustomed to working their fields cooperatively in larger units, along extended kinship lines. For these and similar reasons

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[123] Mock, Robert, Brethern Volunteer Service As Seen By A Training Director, Brethern Service, New Windsor, Md.: 1961, pp. 1-10.

[124] Goodfriend, Arthur, Rice Roots, Simon and Schuster, New York, 1958, p. 47.

the project failed.[125]

Noffsinger[126] believes that overseas technicians must know the psychology, values, social customs, and all cultural aspects of a people. It is also important for a technician to understand the motivations of a people or his efforts may bring no change or even harm.

Training authorities indicate that a technician must gain basic understandings of the principles developed by cultural anthropologists, in the belief, as Sayre[127] has noted, that if technicians understand these principles they can adopt them to fit any specific culture in which they find themselves. In the field the technician must act with consideration and understanding of the cultural problems and differences involved if he is to effectively work with the people of another culture. A review of these basic principles is now in order.

Principles of Culture. The training approach to culture is based on the recognition that culture is a systematic and integrated whole. Culture is defined in this way as an abstraction from the body of learned behavior which a group of people who share the same tradition transmit to their

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125 Spicer, E., op. cit., pp. 97-111.

126 Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

127 Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 23.

children, and in part, to adult immigrants who become members of the society. Culture includes not only the arts and sciences, religions and philosophies, to which the world "culture" has historically applied, but also the system of technology, the political practices, the small intimate habits of daily life, such as the way of preparing or eating food, or of hushing a child to sleep, as well as the method of selecting a prime minister or changing the constitution.[128] Lindesmith and Strauss have also discussed culture in these terms.[129] Utilizing the definition of culture as reported by Mead, an examination with respect to the principles underlying culture is in order. These points are discussed in their relationship to directing change.

Culture is learned. The behavior patterns that constitute a specific culture are not genetically or biologically determined. Every normal infant has a potential to learn any culture. The one that he comes to share is a matter of chance, the accident of his place of birth.

Herskovits[130] has noted that through the process of socialization the child acquires the prevailing attitudes and beliefs, the forms of

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[128] Mead, Margaret, Cultural Patterns and Technical Change, Mentor Book Co., New York: 1962, p. 350.

[129] Lindesmith, A., and Strauss, A., Social Psychology, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York: 1961, pp. 159-193.

[130] Herskovits, Melville, Man and His Works, Alfred Knopp, New York, 1948.

behavior appropriate to the social roles his occupies, and the behavior patterns and values of the society unto which he is born. The cultural environment and life experiences of no two people are identical. Chance alone determines one's society and status within that society--these in turn affect the individual learning process.

Although a culture produces similar products, these products are not absolutely uniform. No two people act and react in exactly the same way. According to Linton,[131] each person has a unique personality--the organized aggregate of psychological processes and states pertaining to the individual. Linton indicated that personalities will vary in relation to the society and culture. However, the culture will determine the specific behavior of its owner. This indicates that within a culture certain people may be more psychologically disposed to try new ways.

A culture is a logically integrated, sense-making whole. Mead[132] has noted that culture is not an accidental collection of customs thrown together by chance. Each institution, religion for example, reflects the dominant values of the total culture, and the beliefs and activities that constitute religion articulate with other aspects of culture at a thousand

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131 Linton, Ralph, The Cultural Background of Personality, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York: 1945, p. 84.

132 Mead, M., op. cit., pp. 12-17.

points. Lindersmith and Strauss[133] reported that philosophical, social, and economic phases of a culture cannot be fully understood without an understanding of religious forms which, in turn, are expressed through special speech patterns, social rites, music and material culture.

An overseas technician needs to take into consideration the function of each cultural trait as an integral part of the cultural whole. No trait is too small or unimportant to be manipulated safely without repercussion. Rose has related an anecdote which illustrates the repercussions on the culture of the Yir Yoront when missionaries gave tribal members a steel axe to replace traditional stone axes.

> Earlier in this century, an apparently slight and insignificant change was introduced among the Australian Yir Yoront. A mission was established among them and the missionaries gave steel axes as gifts to adult men and women and to young people of both sexes. The axe was not new to the Yir Yoront; they already had stone axes. Yet this one friendly gesture is probably responsible for the eventual destruction of the entire internal structure of the group. The ownership of an axe had been up to then, a badge of adult masculinity. Traditionally, only adult men could own them. Axes were loaned by an adult man to a younger man, and by a man to a woman; and along these established lines of axe borrowing fell the relations between man and wife, older and younger brother, father and son. Now axes were owned by women and young men, and the established relations became confused. The symbol of authority was lost and authority itself became unclear; this gave rise to confusion, and to the insecurity and uncertainty. In addition, the stone for the axes was quarried far to the south, and was traded north along a route of trade partners,

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[133] Lindersmith and Strauss, op. cit.

> who also participated in the ceremonials of one another's groups. All these relations, all this participation in the rich life of the ceremonials of other groups, was now lost.[134]

This illustration points out that the small and obviously desirable change from stone to steel axes turned out to be neither insignificant nor beneficial. The importance of an understanding of culture as a functional, sense-making whole should be obvious to the technician. Significant change in any social institution or phase of a culture cannot occur without accommodation in those institutions or phases that impinge upon it, and the degree of possible change is limited by the extent to which these accommodations occur. A careful and intensive study of the consequences of any proposed change is implicit in any economic or social developmental program.[135]

All cultures are constantly changing; no culture is completely static. Every culture produces inventors and discoverers who are, in a sense, agents of change. It is through the exchange and exposure across tribal, group, and cultural borders to the tools, techniques, and ideas of other groups, their readiness to recognize advantages in ways and forms not their own, and their opportunity to accept these ways and forms, should they

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[134] Rose, Paul, Interview with Former U. S. Ambassador to Nepal, Washington, D. C., (January 11, 1963).

[135] Mead, M., op. cit., pp. 5-20.

so desire. Baty has noted that it is to the credit of our ancestors over the countless generations to see merit in the ways of other people and to adopt these ways as their own when they saw advantage in doing so.[136]

The technician must consider that change is fundamental in culture.[137] Mead[138] observed that in the long run forces that promote innovation predominate over the forces of conservation. Today the traditional cultures undergoing pressures from the age of rising expectations have called upon their governments for rapid change and improvement to help conquer man's age old enemies of hunger, flood, and disease. The balance or cultural stability of these traditional societies is undergoing much stress and strain in the struggle between the elements of change and conservatism. The technician must be aware of these internal struggles and pressures in order to guide programs of successful change.

Every culture has a value system. This value system gives stability to a culture. It can be thought of as a balance wheel. According to Baty[139] the value system justifies the participants actions and assures them that they are behaving as society expects. Their rightness of life is thereby validated. Behavior which significantly deviates from the norms set up by the value system will be met by appropriate punishment, and that behavior

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[136] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[137] Linton, Ralph, The Study of Man, D. Appleton-Century Co., New York: 1936, pp. 326-327.

[138] Mead, M., op. cit., pp. 262-282.

[139] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

which conforms with the norms will be rewarded. Lindersmith and Strauss[140] pointed out that the majority of participants in a society find security in conforming to the standards of their culture's value system. Mead[141] also noted that a value system helps play an important role in preserving a society.

It appears that values change more slowly than many other aspects of a culture. The reluctance to change in the face of rapid advances often induces serious stresses. The forces of conservatism of values tend to act as a brake on uncontrolled change. In this sense, conservatism slows the process to the point where new innovations can be assimilated without threatening its basic structure. Greater effort should be made in training programs to develop the understanding of the importance of cultural values and the role they have in the implementation of programs of change.

Authorities in the field of technical cooperation agree that technicians should develop understandings of the culture concept and skills in applying these understandings. Spicer[142] and Mead[143] have developed this concept of inter-cultural relations and the principles which should be utilized by technicians in promoting programs of change. Sayre[144] observed the understanding and application of these recognized principles can assist

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[140] Lindersmith and Strauss, op. cit.

[141] Mead, M., op. cit.

[142] Spicer, E., op. cit.

[143] Mead, M., op. cit.

[144] Sayre, W., op. cit., (Interview).

a technician in planning and implementing programs of change. Thirty authorities were asked to respond to the question of whether or not the concept of culture and applying principles was basic to U. S. training programs. The four general principles are inherent to the cultural whole, and authorities were not asked to rate them on a separate basis. The responses of the authorities are given in Table 12.

One-hundred per cent of the authorities indicated that the development of understandings of the concept of inter-cultural relations and the skill in applying its principles was basic to U. S. training programs. Again it should be pointed out that authorities were not asked to respond to each of the principles basic to this concept. These principles are integral components of the general concept.

Summary

The determination of the areas of the cross-cultural division basic to overseas technicians has concerned training specialists. There is overwhelming evidence of the value of cross-cultural training; however, current training efforts either omit cross-cultural areas from training or allot 10 to 15 per cent of the training time to the development of basic cross-cultural understandings and skills. Training programs such as the Peace Corps and the Agency for International Development, recognizing the value of such training, currently devote as much as 75 per cent of the training curriculum to the cross-cultural division.

TABLE 12. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF THE CULTURE CONCEPT ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area K: Concept of Inter-cultural Relations	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Concept of Inter-Cultural Relations	100.0		

In determining the key cross-cultural understandings and skills basic to technician preparation, the writer surveyed training program literature and syllabi. This survey revealed a universal recognition of the value of training in the cross-cultural division; however, training specialists evidenced considerable difference of opinion with respect to the areas which should be stressed within this major curriculum division. This composite list of recommendations for training in the cross-cultural areas cited by Noffsinger encompassed all of the areas considered important by other training authorities. Noffsinger's list also corresponded with the cross-cultural areas indicated as important to technician preparation in the review of training program syllabi cited in Chapter 4. After the extensive review of the opinions of training specialists and the cross-cultural areas revealed by the training program syllabi, this writer decided to use the composite list derived by Noffsinger. All of the important cross-cultural areas were included in his list. The cross-cultural areas found to be important in the development of understandings and skills for effective overseas performance are:

1. Cultural adjustment.
2. Language skills.
3. Group dynamics.
4. History and culture of the U. S.
5. History and culture of the host country.
6. World ideologies.
7. Inter-cultural relations.

The development of cross-cultural understandings and skills are treated in relation to each one of the areas noted above. This writer then decided to present an intensive summary of the major cross-cultural understandings and skills. The basic purpose of this summary is to acquaint the reader with the essence of each major cross-cultural area. If the reader is interested in learning more about each specific cross-cultural area, he can then refer to the descriptive report of each cross-cultural area in Chapter 6. The summary of the important cross-cultural understandings and skills now follows.

There is nothing like the first assignment in a developing country for a technician. The problem of adjustment is frequently severe. The difference in the physical, social, and cultural conditions of life are dramatically different. "Cultural Shock" is a term, derived by anthropologists, to describe the impact of a new and different culture, especially a traditional or primitive culture on the individual. The symptoms of culture shock are excessive preoccupation with drinking water, food, and dishes, great concern over minor pains, fits of anger over delays and other minor frustrations, a fixed idea that people are cheating you, delay and outright refusal to learn the language of the country, a feeling of hopelessness and desire for the company of people of one's own nationality.

The malady of culture shock is caused in part by communications problems, and it is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all one's familiar cues. Authorities have pointed out the great value

of knowing about culture shock. If a person recognizes this deficiency, he can strive to acquire the techniques of communication which can assist him in adjusting to the new culture. Authorities have indicated that training in the cultural adjustment area should include the following supporting areas: (1) maintaining cultural identity, (2) health problems, and family adjustment.

The language equipment needed by technicians is one of the most debated questions of training programs. Some observers argue that no specialist should be hired who cannot speak the language of the area assignment. Other authorities feel that language is important but should be learned upon arrival in the host country. There are also those supporters of the view that language should only be learned based on scientific linguistic analysis of its structure. No matter whatever the training method used, the development of language skills is necessary for effective overseas work.

The ability to speak a foreign language has been one of the basic criteria of religious and certain voluntary groups. However, until 1958, proficiency in foreign languages had not been regarded as essential for the majority of U. S. overseas technical personnel. Congress belatedly recognized that for effective conduct of foreign affairs that language skills were essential. This was the basis for the federal subsidies made available in the National Defense Education Act of 1958. Private industry, religious groups, and voluntary agencies stepped up their language training about this same time.

For the first time in U. S. history language proficiency had become a valid professional qualification for overseas Americans. The value of language training was thus recognized by overseas authorities. Technical cooperation authorities have indicated that language understandings and skills should be developed in the following supporting areas: (1) grammar of the vernacular language, (2) written communications, (3) mass media, and (4) the influence of cultural cues on behavior in the process of communications.

Training authorities have also reported that understandings and skills in the area of group dynamics should be stressed in overseas training programs. Their recommendations stressed training in both the group dynamics and human relations areas. Group dynamics understandings and skills should be developed in the four specific areas:

1. Understanding of the forces determining the behavior of members in a group and of the group.

2. Understanding of the conditions of group growth, and skill in facilitating such growth.

3. Understanding of the interrelationships between the group and the larger social environment and skill in helping to relate group action constructively to the social forces affecting it.

4. Understanding of the interrelationships between the individual members and the group and skill in relating personal needs and purposes to group needs and purposes.

The development of group dynamic understandings and the skills to implement them should be directed toward the specific areas of: (1) group action and interaction, (2) ways of motivating people, (3) the role of perception, and (4) the decision-making process.

The development of understandings of the history and culture of the U. S. has been stressed by authorities as very important in the preparation of overseas technicians. It has been illustrated earlier in this chapter that one of the unanticipated results of an extended period of living abroad is the new perspective it gives technicians of their own country. Host country nationals often ask many questions about the United States; new ways of doing things abroad brings reflections about practices at home. Sometimes the contrast causes an exaggerated reaction on the part of the overseas technician. Many times before the American has come to terms with the new culture, and has adjusted to it, he is frequently observed comparing many aspects of the new country unfavorably to the U. S.

In the long run, the new perspectives often develop in the American a deeper interest in the United States, its history, and cultural traditions. Just as the new environment of the host country raises in the American's mind many questions about its working, so the new perspective on the U. S. tends to force the American into a reexamination of his own culture.

Training authorities have reported that the overseas technician needs training in developing the necessary understanding and skills to represent the United States: being able to discuss intelligently its social structure, its cultural achievement, its economic system, its foreign policy, its relations with the U. N., as neither superior nor inferior to the country where one is working. It is essential that such training be conducted in the U. S. setting.

Authorities in technical cooperation have long recognized the value of area or specific country study for overseas technicians. Country studies have been components of the training programs of business and religious agencies for a number of years. However, area programs in American universities are primarily the outgrowth of academic experience during World War II, when universities provided area and language training for military governments in occupied areas, the Army Specialist Training Program, and others. In the post-war period university area programs have not been widely used for government training purposes although a trend in that direction is now evidenced.

From the point of view for education for overseas service the best way to start is by learning about an alien culture. To break the cultural barrier one must learn to think differently--one must become aware of the ideologies and patterns of thought that have developed over the centuries in another cultural tradition. For this understanding history, art, literature, and philosophy are the core disciplines. Overseas technicians must develop basic understanding and skills in the following areas: (1) the historical development of the host country, (2) the host country culture, (3) the foreign policy of the host country, and (4) the host country--U. N. relationships.

Overseas technicians are at work in areas of the world where the battle for the minds of men are underway. The development of many ideologies during the past century is now concentrated in the struggle for minds, countries, and spheres of influence. This struggle is carried on

in the economic and political arenas of the developing countries.

It is evident that the psychology that man could not improve his own destiny is now ancient history. People of the developing countries now know that man can conquer flood, famine, and pestilence. The idea that man can control his own destiny is prevalent among the populations of the "have not" countries. People of these countries are now looking toward their governments for the solution of these problems. They have entered the age of the revolution of rising determination to be free. The current trends of the growth of the U. S. power and strength, the age of rising expectations, and the emergence of Soviet Russia and Communism as a world power are primary factors in the ideological struggle of the uncommitted world. The implications as related by international authorities are that the development of understandings and skills in world ideologies are a prerequisite to U. S. training programs. Orientation in this area should include: (1) the psychology of ideologies, (2) nationalism, (3) communism, and (4) colonialism.

Thousands of American technical specialists, some well-oriented and others much less well-oriented in the factors and principles of <u>intercultural relations</u>, have been sent overseas during the past fifty years. Thousands more will be sent in the future. For all of them there will be the dramatic discovery of conspicuously different cultures.

One of the principal handicaps to present training efforts has been the lack of any generally accepted guide to serve in shaping training programs. So far as any single concept has emerged, it is the need for

understanding inter-cultural relations.

The question concerning inter-cultural relations is: Is there a skill or area or cultural analysis, separate from the analysis of a specific area or culture, which can be learned and taught? It is relevant that anthropologists have discussed a method of cultural analysis they believe has a close relationship to operational tasks. Spicer[145] in his discussion of the conceptual tools for solving problems emphasizes the need for a primary frame of reference for planning and directing a program of change. This frame of reference is spoken of by social scientists as the concept of culture. It is simply the understanding that all people everywhere behave in accordance with patterns which they have learned in the process of growing up in society and which makes sense to them as an overall design of living.

Technicians need to gain the prerequisite understandings and skills in applying the basic principles of this concept. The training approach to culture is based on the recognition that culture is a systematic and integrated whole. Culture is defined in this way as an abstraction from the body of learned behavior which a group of people who share the same traditions transmits to its children. The principles which technicians must learn in directing change have been derived by Mead.[146] These principles

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[145] Spicer, E., op. cit.

[146] Mead, M., op. cit.

must be viewed from the standpoint of the technician who is directing change. He must understand that to effect change he must develop an understanding of the culture concept and its underlying principles.

Training specialists were asked to indicate whether or not the major cross-cultural and supporting areas were basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. The consensus of authorities was that all of the seven key cross-cultural and supporting areas should be treated in U. S. training programs.

A third important curriculum division in the preparation of overseas technicians concerns developmental processes. This curriculum division is of recent origin in the preparation of technicians. The determination of the developmental processes areas from which understandings and skills are developed follows.

CHAPTER VII

DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESSES: AN IMPORTANT AREA IN TECHNICIAN PREPARATION

The developmental processes area was the third important division of training programs determined to be important in technician preparation. The term "developmental" has generally been applied in terms of economic development in past training programs. Economists use the term "developmental" to indicate the deliberate, rational, and continuous efforts by governments to accelerate the process of development and to channel it into desired direction by means of the comprehensive and detailed choice of objectives and the determination and allocation of the resources necessary for their achievement.[1] In this study the term "developmental" is used in a much broader context.

In programs preparing overseas technicians, the term "developmental" is applied to those fundamental processes of economic and social development in which a technician will take an active part during the course of his overseas assignment. Each technician is involved in the process of building host country institutions, assisting with economic projects, helping local people plan programs, establishing relationships with counterparts and other host country nationals, and in introducing new techniques and ideas into the host country. A technician must develop the appropriate understandings and skills of application of the fundamental processes of

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[1] Smith, F. R., op. cit., (Interview).

economic and social development which will help him to relate his own role, and his field of service, to the broader problems of growth and modernization in the developing countries.[2] This is the context within which training in the development of understandings and skills of application of developmental processes must take place, according to Baty.[3]

The determination and identification of the major "developmental processes" in this curriculum division has concerned many training specialists such as Cosgriffee.[4] Historically speaking, this division of the training curriculum is of recent origin. Today there are fewer than 10 per cent of the major training programs that have incorporated "developmental processes" into their curriculums. Many of the basic ideas and concepts in the subject areas within this division have only recently been derived.

It, therefore, appeared to this writer that the subject matter areas of this division of the training curriculum should be clearly identified. From these areas the understandings and skills of application needed for effective overseas performance could then be determined.

In identifying these subject matter areas, the writer decided to use three approaches. This included a review of training syllabi, review

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[2]Thurber, C., op. cit., p. 167.

[3]Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview)

[4]Cosgriffee, H., Interview with Washington State Assistant Extension Director, Pullman, Washington, (June 15, 1963).

of training literature, and interviews with training specialists. The major developmental processes areas revealed by these sources were summarized and tabulated. The survey of the three major sources revealed that the major areas of the developmental processes division of training programs are: (1) technician-counterpart relations, (2) institution building, (3) program development, (4) technological change, and (5) economic development. The prerequisite developmental processes understandings and skills of application can be determined from these five subject areas according to such authorities as Noffsinger.[5] An examination of the subject matter areas of the developmental processes division of the training curriculum follows.

Technician-Counterpart Relations

Uribe, National Extension Director in Ecuador, reported that the development of successful Peace Corps volunteer-extension counterpart relations was essential for the successful execution of joint U. S. - Ecuadorian efforts.[6] This indicates that technician-counterpart relations are an important phase of any successful overseas program.

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[5] Noffsinger, J. S., op. cit., (Interview).

[6] Uribe, German, Interview with the National Director of the Ecuadorian Extension Service, Quito, Ecuador (November 6, 1964).

The majority of overseas technical cooperation programs involve relationships with national counterparts. Within this framework the relationships can vary greatly. A technician may assume the role of an adviser delegating the majority of responsibilities directly to a counterpart. The relationship may be a shared experience or the technician may work directly under a host national as a sub-adviser. Many technicians have no "so-called" counterpart; however, evidence indicates that regardless of the type of program involved, that technicians deal in everyday relations with host country technicians, community leaders, innovators, administrators, and educators.[7] These relationships place the technician in a consultant type role, and his achievements within this relationship may be of greater importance than if he worked directly through a counterpart. Authorities indicate training in the technician-counterpart area should develop understandings of: (1) the sharing of technical skills of knowledge, (2) the technician in the consultant role, and (3) the factors influencing the formation of the consultant role.

Sharing of Technical Skills and Knowledge. Aguirre observed that a mutual sharing of technical skills, knowledge, and information between the counterpart and technician are basic to the successful implementation of any technical cooperation program.[8] The American technician is

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[7] Torres, T., op. cit., (Interview).

[8] Aguirre, M., op. cit., (Interview).

selected primarily for his technical skill and knowledge for the overseas assignment. The trend of most training programs in the past has been to cover the basic aspects of the assignment, but to pass over any orientation in regard to the possible technician-counterpart relations which may be encountered during the course of the overseas job.

This is most unfortunate because in the majority of cases the technicians relationship to his counterpart is ill-defined and has to be worked out on a personal basis.[9] This type of situation poses many problems. Both the counterpart and technician face the problems of differences in language, professional background, and perceptions of the job to be accomplished. On occasions the American finds himself working with a counterpart who has superior knowledge and skill. This sometimes requires a difficult adjustment on the part of the American.

There are many facets in the method of establishing good working relationships with a host country counterpart. Evidence indicates that failure to establish satisfactory relationships has more often been the fault of the American.[10] One criticism expressed of American technicians is their insensitivity to the insecurities of their counterparts. Thurber described in the following manner how Americans should establish personal

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[9] Ibid.

[10] Ibid.

relationships with counterparts:

> With his superior education and experience, a foreign adviser should take care not to give his counterpart an inferiority complex. There is a natural fear in every counterpart's heart that he will be shown to be either incapable or foolish by his foreign adviser. Even though the counterpart is not well educated, he is usually a capable man. The Americans should be careful not to "show him up" by handing out authoritative views.[11]

Unfortunately many Americans have not developed the understandings and skills needed to establish effective relationships with counterparts.

The failure to establish effective technician-counterpart relationships has often been the fault of the American technician. Many criticisms of his failure to establish effective counterpart relations have been made by host country nationals. Their most common criticisms have been summarized in the following manner by Gray:

1. Americans have a feeling of superiority. They know the answers to everything.
2. Americans want to take the credit for what is accomplished in joint programs.
3. Americans are frequently unable or unwilling to learn to respect and to adjust to local customs and cultures.
4. Americans fail to innovate in terms of the needs of the local cultures.
5. Americans fail to work through normal administrative channels.

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[11] Thurber, C., op. cit., p. 91.

6. Americans tend to lose their democratic way of working and acting when they get in a foreign assignment.[12]

These criticisms of American technicians have also been reported by other host country nationals. The failure on the part of the American technician to understand how to establish effective relationships with host country counterparts indicates clearly that training programs must assist the technician in gaining the prerequisite understandings in the establishment of effective relationships with host country nationals.

The establishment of successful technician-counterpart relations is a difficult process and tends to be handled on a personal basis between the participants. Successful technician-counterpart relations can best be accomplished if there is a mutual sharing of technical skills, knowledge, and information between the two participants.

The Technician in the Consultant Role. The normal technician-counterpart relationship assumes that the technician is fulfilling an adviser's role.[13] However, as Thurber pointed out, the deviations from the normal role in overseas practice were great.[14] The variations within the framework of a normal adviser's role was noted by the Director of the American staff of a university contract as being his major problem in dealing with staff. This director reported that every American should realize that

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[12] Gray, Jack, The Most Common Criticisms of American Technical Assistants by Their Foreign Co-Workers, Texas A & M College, College Park, Texas: 1957, (Mimeographed).

[13] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[14] Thurber, C., op. cit., p. 120.

he is in the host country to assist and not to run. It is the common failing on the part of American personnel to attempt to control rather than to advise. Everything must be done to assure national counterparts the responsibility for running the institution is theirs.[15] The evidence is that Americans do not easily accept the overseas consultant role. Smith commented in 1964 that Americans tend to assume control of technical co-operation projects rather than mutually develop the project together.[16]

In other cases where the host country has failed to provide a counterpart, the technician is left largely to his own resources to relate himself to existing needs and desires.[17] It is then clear there are many deviations from the consultant or adviser role, and as a consequence, new relationships and problems emerge. Ideally the technician's consultant role assumes the adviser is asked to advise on the technical aspects within his professional competence. It also signifies, as Saunders observed, that the technician has the responsibility to advise about the ways and means of getting his suggestions carried out.[18] The training program needs to emphasize the role of the technician, and assist in the development of the skills for establishing effective counterpart relationships.

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[15] Ibid.

[16] Smith, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[17] Glick, Phillip, Speech before the Society for International Development, New York, (January 7, 1960).

[18] Saunders, W., op. cit., p. 37.

Factors Influencing the Formation of the Consultant Role. It has been previously observed that the adviser role is influenced to a degree by the personal relations formed between the counterpart and technician. Other important factors shaping the consultant role are the technical co-operation agency, the requirements of the task to be fulfilled, and the host government.

Noffsinger[19] has indicated that the technician discovers the agency concept of his role in a composite of diverse objectives, assumptions and attitudes. Agency procedures, varying regulations, and idiosyncracies of the program administrators are the types of factors which may influence the agency concept of the technicians job. The implications for training are that the technician needs to know at an early stage the conceptual view of his role by the agency.

This also holds true with respect to the requirements of the task to be fulfilled. It is the responsibility of the agency to brief the technician and to clarify his role in the task to be carried out. It is in the planning of the project and in the selection and briefing of the technician that shared objectives of the task must be outlined at least in general detail.

The host country also plays an important part in shaping the consultant role. The original request for the technical cooperation program

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[19] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

and the technician often comes from the host country. According to Shuart,[20] the host country frequently outlines its expectations of the requested specialist. A list of responsibilities or duties are usually attached to the program request.

The real problem emerges when there are discrepancies between the written request and the situation as it is encountered. Problems also emerge when the deeply ingrained cultural values of the host country or agency indirectly and unobtrusively influence policies and attitudes in the institutional framework within which the technician works. The technician may fail to interpret these policies and attitudes correctly because he has not perceived the cultural forces that make them intelligible. This again has implication for U. S. training programs.

In summary, the role of the technician is influenced by a number of elements: (1) definition of his task by the agency employing him, (2) the requirements of the task to be fulfilled, and (3) the receptivity in the host country where he is to work. When related in a mutually consistent manner, these elements provide for clarity of decision as to what the technician should do--when, where, and how. But if these elements are inconsistent or in conflict with another, the technician will at best experience frustration and at worst he will experience failure.

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[20] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

Thirty authorities responded to the question of whether or not the development of understandings and skills in the area of technician-counterpart relations were basic to U. S. training programs. These understandings were in the areas of: (1) the sharing of technical skills and information, (2) the technician in the consultant role, and (3) the factors influencing the consultant role. Table 13 lists the responses of the authorities.

The consensus of the authorities reported that understandings and skills in the areas of sharing technical skills and the factors shaping the consultant role were basic to U. S. training programs. Some 16.5 per cent of the authorities felt that such training should be given at the discretion of the agency. Fifty per cent of the authorities indicated that an understanding of the technician in the consultant role should be covered in U. S. training programs, and fifty per cent of the authorities indicated this training should be given at the agency's discretion. A number of authorities reported that such training should be carried out in the overseas setting.

Institution Building

An important responsibility of the technician is that of institution building. In whatever field a technician is working, his principal job is to assist in the process of building viable social institutions which will carry out the function with which he is concerned. In this manner an extension agent from the U. S. may be engaged in the development of an agricultural extension service in another country. In the process of

TABLE 13. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF TECHNICIAN-COUNTERPART RELATIONS ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area L: Technician-Counterpart Relations Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion Of The Agency
1. Sharing of Technical Skills	83.5		16.5
2. The Technician in the Consultant Role	50.0		50.0
3. Factors Shaping the Consultant Role	83.5		16.5

building the new extension agency, he may be engaged in recruiting extension agents, training extension leaders, mobilizing agency resources, developing extension philosophy and methods of operation, and organizing the direction and focus of the new organization. Many of these important responsibilities are, in a sense, a part of the organizational ability of the individual. According to Doke,[21] in the overseas environment the technician is much more in the institution building business than he would be here at home. He doesn't build bridges, but builds an organization to build a bridge. In this sense he reverses normal professional behavior, for in the U. S. he is trying to work his way into, not out of a job. This is the basic idea of institution building. There are also a number of elements involved in the institution building processes which will be treated later in this section. It is necessary to now consider some of the experiences which may enable a technician to do a more effective job of institution building.

Cleveland has related the story of a highly qualified malaria control specialist, who was assigned to organize an anti-malaria campaign in a South East Asian country. The specialist worked for twelve months at organizing a nationwide mass spraying campaign. He trained hundreds of people to spray village huts and walls with DDT. When the malaria control specialist returned to Washington, he told his superiors that the qualifications he had on paper and for which he was chosen had very little to do

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[21] Doke, Cliff, Interview with Program Director of International-Voluntary Services, Bozeman, Montana, (November 11, 1965).

with the job as he found it in the field. He said that they did not need a highly qualified technical specialist for the job. "Look," he said, "for this job of mass spraying, I needed to know just three technical facts: that malaria is dangerous, that it is carried around by mosquitos, and that if you get enough DDT on a mosquito, it dies."[22]

The doctor was then asked what was it about his education and experience as an American that did make a contribution to his ability to get the job done. "There was only one experience that really stood me in good stead," the doctor replied. In his home town, he had tried very hard to organize a council of special agencies. This activity had taught him something about community organizations and institution building. It was this experience that had provided insights into the organizational problem he faced abroad, and helped him organize the hundreds of people needed in the Southeast Asian country, to weld it into an effective organization for conducting an anti-malaria campaign.[23]

This anecdote indicates that organizational experience in the process of institution building here in the U. S. may be helpful background to an overseas technician engaged in institution building. Essentially the technician is faced with a job of social invention overseas according to

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[22] Cleveland, H., "Institution-Building: Some Lessons from Foreign Aid," Speech to the New York Trade Council, (May 1, 1961).

[23] Ibid.

Standley.[24] Cleveland has illustrated the change that many technicians make when they switch from their professional fields in the U. S. to their new role in the overseas environment: "The educator abandons his departmental field to energize the building of schools and the training of teachers. The agronomist forsakes his seedbed and chemical laboratory to advise on building an agricultural service."[25] They are all engaged in institution building.

The technician is accustomed to carrying out his responsibilities in a highly institutionalized and structured society. Usually the technician works within a situation where the relationships are clearly defined. However, when the technician goes overseas he finds the type of organization as he knows it at home simply does not exist. Cleveland observed the technician is forced to help build, sometimes almost singlehandedly, the organizational structures that will gradually help to get things done without constant intervention from the outside. In order to build this kind of organization, the American must be able to fit himself into a variety of situations, plugging holes as they develop, fitting the whole operation together and in most cases he must do this while acting as an adviser, not as the boss.[26]

The ultimate test of institution building is after the technician leaves the host country--what is left behind. Will the work of the

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[24] Standley, R., op. cit., (Interview).

[25] Cleveland, H., op. cit., The Overseas Americans, pp. 157-8.

[26] Cleveland, H., op. cit., The Art of Overseasmanship, pp. 99-100.

technician be regarded only as a memory or an institutional legacy? One of the primary conditions for successful institution building is that the local people must cultivate some sense of identification with the institution and take over its leadership. New host country institutions must be built from within. The technician must plant ideas from within and by indirection. It takes time for institutions to grow and become firmly established in a new country. Their growth is usually sporadic and the end product will probably appear in a somewhat altered form from the original concept of the technician. Shuart[27] reported this phenomenon in the development of the Ecuadorian Extension Service.

Institution building in a foreign country is not just a matter of avoiding pride of authorship, important as this is. It requires a creative act of applied anthropology, a fitting together of elements of two or more cultures that cannot be accomplished except by an American who has taken the trouble to understand both his own values and techniques and the new environment to which he presumes to bring them.[28] Training for the understandings and skills in institution building are possible, for as Cleveland observed, "Institution builders are made, not born."[29]

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[27] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[28] Cleveland, H., op. cit., The Overseas Americans, pp. 159-60.

[29] Ibid., p. 165.

Elements Involved in the Institution Building Process. The idea of institution building as a concept is of recent origin. The literature revealed little research into the area. Studies by Esman indicated the efforts to locate empirical studies of institution building have been quite spare.[30] However, at a recent doctoral seminar at the University of Pittsburgh an attempt was made roughly to conceptualize the institution building process. A group of significant elements was identified. There were grouped into six major sections, each focusing on a basic process in institutional development. Esman[31] reported the result was a provisional guide, outlining the first rough approximation of factors which seem significant for the description, analysis, and understanding of institutional development. This guide attempts to combine elements essential both to effective internal structure and environmental relationships.[32] These are:

1. Establishment, Adaptation and Communication of Institutional Values and Purposes. This group of variables focuses on the formulation and enunciation of the values and purposes of the institution; on the evolution of a doctrine which communicates these values and purposes; on the normative effect of doctrine on the behavior of persons associated with the institution; and on its utility in promoting and protecting institutional interests.

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[30] Esman, Milton, "Institution Building in National Development," International Development Review, Vol. IV. No. 4 (Dec. 62), p. 28.

[31] Ibid., p. 28-29.

[32] Ibid.

2. Recruitment, Behavior, and Succession of Leadership. This deals with the composition and behavior of top leadership, a critical element in all social systems.

3. Internal Structure. This focuses on the internal distribution of roles and energy and on the staffing function. Institutions which are unable to mobilize the strength to manage their program commitments in a competitive environment.

4. Mobilization and Allocation of Resources. Developmental institutions are likely to be competing for scarce resources. The problems of resource mobilization may virtually affect programming decisions. Program choices, in turn, may directly condition ability to mobilize resources. These interrelationships are essential to the analysis of institutional development.

5. Interaction with Environment. Institutions function in a social environment and in relation to complementary and competing institutions which they are attempting to influence in the direction of change. At the same time the environment may be imposing constraints or providing opportunities for institutional development and for the diffusion of modernizing values and services. How to influence and adapt to a changing and not entirely predictable environment is a major element in institution building.

6. Program Performance. Institutions are essentially instruments for providing modernizing services within societies.[33]

These are the elements involved in the institution building process. There is no doubt that institution building is a phenomenon which has important implications in the growth and development of the newly emerging countries.

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[33] Esman, M., op. cit.

Nichols[34] and Baty,[35] among other authorities have reported that technicians should develop understandings of the institution building process. Thirty authorities were asked to respond to the question of whether or not the development of understandings of institution building process. Thirty authorities were asked to respond to the question of whether or not the development of understandings of institution building were basic to U. S. training programs. These responses are given in Table 14.

A great majority, (83.5 per cent), of the authorities reported that training in the area of institution building is basic to U. S. training programs. About one-sixth reported that understandings in this area should be left to the discretion of the agency. They were not asked to respond to each of the elements underlying theprocess of institution building because each of these elements is an integral part of the entire concept.

Program Development

The development of understandings and skills of application of the nature and function of program development has been reported by such training authorities as Cosgriffee[36] to be one of the basic developmental

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[34]Nichols, L., op. cit., (Interview).

[35]Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[36]Cosgriffee, Harry, University Training of Graduate Students for International Cooperation, Washington State University, Pullman, Washington, 1962, p. 11.

TABLE 14. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF INSTITUTION BUILDING ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area M: Institution Building	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Elements of Institution Building	83.5		16.5

processes areas basic to technician preparation. Program development is an intensive and broad effort on the part of the technical cooperation agency to assist the people of an area in their attempts, collectively, to analyze their major problems and to build an educational program directed toward the improvement of agriculture and community living.[37] It is an educational process and an attempt to do a thorough and systematic job of longer-range programming with the participating people. Training specialists such as Shuart,[38] Brown,[39] and Kassenbaum[40] report that training for overseasmanship must include an understanding of program development and the basic elements which comprise it.

Basic Elements Involved in Program Development. There are a number of basic elements in the program development process. Training specialists such as Cosgriffee[41] have reported that overseas technicians must develop understandings of the elements involved in the program development process in order to effectively implement agency programs. The basic elements involved in the program development process are:

1. Understanding of how to determine, analyze and evaluate situations.

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[37] Trail, T., op. cit., p. 16.

[38] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[39] Brown, L. B., op. cit., (Interview).

[40] Kassenbaum, F., op. cit., (Interview).

[41] Cosgriffee, H., op. cit., (Interview).

2. Understanding of how to set program goals and objectives.

3. Understanding of how to identify, clarify and give priority to problems.

4. Understanding of how to organize and carry out a plan of action.

5. Understanding of how to evaluate the program of the agency.[42]

The establishment and acceptance of guidelines or standards for each of the five elements is an objective and reliable basis upon which to plan and conduct an action program. To carry out an action program, the following assumptions are basic to the establishment of guidelines or standards for the program.

1. Action programs which are planned and executed on a coordinated and integrated basis result in greater total accomplishment.

2. The five basic elements of program development have general application in all areas.

3. Every area or group of people has some organization and procedure for planning action efforts.

4. Technical cooperation work is a continuous educational process based upon objectives and consisting of a sequence of steps or activities, all of which are essential to maximum effectiveness.

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[42] Ibid.

5. An effective action program is planned--it just doesn't happen.

6. The change agents (technicians or counterparts) provide the professional leadership for the initiation, planning, action, and evaluation phases of the technical cooperation program.

7. Accomplishments are greater when local people participate in the initiation, planning, action, and evaluation of the action programs.[43]

The five elements of the program development process and the assumptions upon which they are based are the essence of program development. The development of understandings of program development and skills in its implementation have relevance for overseas training programs. Thirty authorities were asked to respond to the question on whether or not the development of understandings of program development was basic to U. S. training programs. These responses are listed in Table 15.

A great majority, (83.5) per cent, of the authorities indicated that the development of understandings and skills of implementation in the area of program development was basic to the training of overseas technicians. The minority (16.5) believed that such training should be left to the discretion of the agency.

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[43]Porter, Ward, Interview with Federal Extension Evaluator, Washington, D. C., (July 12, 1964).

TABLE 15. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area N: Program Development	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Elements of Program Development	83.5		16.5

Technological Change

Programs of technical assistance are not new. Most of the world for hundreds of years has been aiding backward areas, yet it is an anomaly that so little is actually recorded as to how to develop such areas. Even though the development of the underdeveloped areas has been in operation for a long time, something new has been added in recent years. What is new is the assumption of responsibility by the "have" nations to bring the benefits of technical knowledge to the underdeveloped areas of the world, and to accept the responsibility for the results of such introduced changes. This new motivation is stated this way by Mead:

> Technical change is not new; it is as old as civilization and since time immorial the ways of life of whole peoples have been transformed by the introduction of new tools and new technical processes, as inventions like the plow, the domestication of animals, writing, the use of steam, the factory assembly line and the internal combustion engine, have been diffused from one country to another. Relationships of relative dominance between two peoples, population balances, dynasties and whole religious systems have been upset by some change in technology, just as the inventions which underlie technological change have themselves arisen from changing conceptions of nature and man. What is new is the assumption, on an international scale of responsibility for introducing changes which are needed among peoples in areas of the world which can visibly benefit from the knowledge which the peoples of other areas have--of techniques which will increase production and conserve natural resources. New also is the recognition and willingness to deal scientifically with the resultant effects of such a change.[44]

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[44] Mead, M., op. cit., p. 13.

The recognition of the responsibilities for introducing change into predominately non-technological societies has great significance for the preparation of technicians.

Programs for overseas service have recognized the significance of introducing change into a developing country. Sayre[45] mentioned, in his review of early U. S. government training programs, that nearly every program contained topics concerned about the problem of introducing new ideas and techniques into a culture. Authorities such as Schmidt[46] speak in training of the idea that technological development programs represent planned cultural change, recognizing that social change, always present, is subsumed under this definition. Overseas technicians, therefore, intend to help specific groups of people change some of the aspects of their culture. The importance of introducing change is related in the following manner by Gaylord:

> As a result of this experience, some of our own cultural forms will change. Everyone who has worked overseas is quite different because of this experience. If we are helping to change culture, and are changing ourselves, it is wise to have a good idea of what it is that is changing.[47]

Technological development is recognized as a complex process. The expression, as Foster[48] noted, is misleading, for strictly speaking, there

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[45] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 32.

[46] Schmidt, W., op. cit., (Interview).

[47] Gaylord, C., op. cit., (Interview).

[48] Foster, G., op. cit., (Interview).

can be no such thing as technological development in isolation. Foster has suggested using the term sociotechnological development. Foster describes sociotechnological development in the following terms:

> The use of the term sociotechnological development would clarify out thinking, for development is much more than the overt acceptance of material and technical improvements. It is a cultural, social, and psychological process as well. Associated with every technical and material change there is a corresponding change in the attitudes, the thoughts, the values, the beliefs, and the behavior of thepeople who are affected by the material change. These nonmaterial changes are more subtle. Often they are overlooked or their significance is underestimated. Yet the eventual effect of a material or social improvement is determined by the extent to which the other aspects culture affected by it can alter their forms with a minimum of disruption. In newly developing countries the introduction of factory labor brings changes in family structure. If the workers and their families can accept these new social patterns and reconcile their attitudes toward family obligations which are traditional with new conditions, industrialization need not be disruptive. But, as we know, such reconciliation is often difficult, and the process of development is accordingly slowed.[49]

The foregoing explanation by Foster illustrates the complexity of technological change in terms of sociotechnological development.

There are certain principles which may be utilized during the process of technical change. These principles have been derived by Margaret Mead in her classic study Cultural Patterns and Technical Change. In the field of technical change Mead has made the only organized attempt to set down principles which can be applied by the technician in the field.

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[49] Ibid.

These principles have important implications for training overseas technicians, and they will serve as a guide in directing the survey of technical change and the principles involves. An examination of the first principle involved in technological change follows.

Principles Involved in Technological Change. The agents of change must realize that their own behavior, beliefs and attitudes are not universal and axiomatic. They must realize their ways of counting, reckoning time are--like the behavior, beliefs and attitudes of those whom they are helping to change--learned and traditional.[50] This is the first principle derived by Mead.

Technicians frequently forget that the behavior, beliefs and attitudes of other people have a deep meaning and are valid for that particular culture. Schmidt[51] has observed that many overseas technicians operate within the framework that U. S. cultural beliefs, attitudes, and behavior are superior, and the people of developing areas are eagerly waiting for these to be shared with them. The fallacy of this idea has resulted in frustration and failure in the operation of many overseas programs.

In discussing the experience of the Agricultural Missions program in terms of introducing change into a developing area, the Wisers offered this advice:

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[50] Mead, M., op. cit., p. 270.

[51] Schmidt, W., op. cit., (Interview).

> A mistake which most of us have made when we have gone straight from our town environment to the village is that we have expected the villagers to react like college graduates or sophisticated town dwellers. And we have criticized them when they have fallen short of our expectations--while the fault lay with us. Gradually we have learned what others before us have learned, that the ordinary village farmer is the victim of circumstances, not the master. His life is pervaded and pressed down by his fear of the forces which control him, and before we can do much to help him, we must consider the source, the power, the utility or harmfulness of these forces. The maladjustments which many of us have caused in the past, when we were sincerely trying to help, have been due to out consideration of the villager as a free individual, and our oversight of the circumstances which dominate his life.[52]

The inability of the technician to comprehend these differences in the result of a lack of understanding of the culture of the host country. However, a profound knowledge of the culture may help the technician to rest his proposed change upon the basis of the cultural values, and even to enlist these in his work. This has been done by perceptive change agents. In India when a technician suggested green manuring as a means of greater agricultural production, the village leader countered by rejecting all improvements:

> Our culture teaches us not to be greedy or anxious for more economic production. Remember that Kabir, the saint, prayed to God, 'Give me only so much wealth that my family may meet its average needs, that I may not remain hungry, and that the saints or beggers may not go away from my door hungry.[53]

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[52] Wiser, William, Agricultural Activities in India, Agricultural Missions, Inc., New York, 1955, p. 15.

[53] Ibid.

The technician versed in the principles of Brahmanism, argued convincingly that it was important to increase production, since most villagers found themselves unable to meet these sacred obligations.

The obstacles presented by cultural differences have often been overcome. Planned change is also being brought about by people working in their own countries who know the culture they are dealing with, its symbolism, its values, and its pattern of perception. So Ibn Saud quoted the Korean over the radio and telephone when inaugurating these systems,[54] and the Chinese Communists reinterpreted Confucianism in support of Communist ethics.[55] In these countries technicians are studying the results of these changes.

The beliefs and attitudes of the people among whom the agents of change are working must be seen as having functional unity.[56] This is the second principle derived by Mead.

The beliefs and attitudes of a people are not thrown together by chance but they are related in some way to each other within the cultural framework. Each fulfills a definite function in relation to the other and

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[54] Taylor, Carl, Experience with Human Factors in Agricultural Areas of the World, USDA, Extension Service Bulletin No. 1028, 1949, p. 19.

[55] Nivison, David, Communist Ethics and Chinese Tradition, MIT, Cambridge, Mass: 1954, pp. 18-20.

[56] Mead, M., op. cit., p. 276.

is essential to the normal functioning of the culture as a whole. Each draws upon all other aspects of the culture as a whole. Each draws upon all other aspects of the culture in some way for its own continued existence, and its growth and development are dependent upon corresponding growth and development in the culture as a whole. And as Baty[57] has noted, the beliefs and attitudes of a people are reflected in the institutions of the culture. The technician must understand their functional unity and the effects of change upon them in the technological change process.

The importance of perceiving the attitudes and beliefs of a people as having a functional unity was pointed out in another way by Mead:

> For each individual, they give continuity to his personality, permit him to feel that he is a named, identified person, the same person--only older, or more important, although fatter, or just elected to office--than he was yesterday. They permit him to perceive his experiences as of the same order, to recognize a series of different activities as gifts, as changes as insults to be resented, or as expressions of deference. So he will hold on to his beliefs and practices because they help him to direct his daily behavior and solve his daily problems by relating himself to other people. If the teacher or extension agent recognizes such clinging to old beliefs and practices as having real usefulness for an individual, rather than interpreting it as evidence of stubbornness, uncooperativeness, ignorance, mobility to learn,... so he will be able to introduce change.[58]

The ability to promote change within this framework is essential to effective technical cooperation work.

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[57] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[58] Mead, M., op. cit., p. 270.

In recent years technicians have often been confronted with the statement that it is the job of technical cooperation to give technical help, but that this must be done without disturbing the local culture. Noffsinger[59] reported in 1964 that acceptance of this as policy would immobilize technical cooperation programs. Every technological change is a cultural change. Some have such a slight effect on values that they seem practically neutral, but many such neutral changes have a substantial cumulative effect. The technician must concern himself chiefly with changes that, in the first instance, are reasonably neutral in their cultural effects, leaving to other national agencies the job of handling problems of development in which traditional beliefs and attitudes are immediately challenged. Instead of operating on the false assumption that attitudes and beliefs are not involved in technological change, the tenable position is that the technician must be content to work with changes where the impact on traditional beliefs and attitudes is gradual.[60] The third principle proposed by Mead involves the examination of technological change from the point of view of the participants.

Any change must be examined from the view of the individuals who are exposed to the change.[61] Mead has related the importance of examining change from the point of view of the people affected by it in the following

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[59] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

[60] Ibid.

[61] Mead, M., op. cit., p. 270.

statement:

> Where a change may seem to the expert to be merely a better way of feeding cattle, or of disposing of waste, to the people it may seem to be a rejection of the commands of the gods, or a way of giving their welfare and safety into the hands of sorcerers. An improved form of a house may also be a house without the proper magical screen to baffle the demons who may enter and make one ill. Substitution of a more or less destructible cooking pot may be seen as lowering the value of a bride because of a change in the cost of her dowry.[62]

All too many program failures can be traced to the lack of understanding of the technician who tried to impose his own solution to a local problem.

For example, it was clear to technicians in South Africa that when infants nursed until they were two or more they exhausted their mothers physically and interferred with their work. Bottle feeding was introduced. Soon the mothers were even more exhausted, because they began to bear children every year. The taboo of intercourse during lactation no longer worked to space their children at intervals of three or four years. Infanticide and head hunting, as well as the poor sanitation attending childbirth, were eliminated as evils. The agents of change never considered the results of such eradication and were unprepared for the enormous increase in population in areas where population and food resources had previously been kept in balance. The consequence of this change was overcrowding, malnutrition, and eventual migration away from their traditional homelands.[63]

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[62] Ibid.

[63] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

The agents of change had not known what they were doing. They knew nothing of the cultural framework of the society with which they were dealing; and they tampered in ignorance with one of its sustaining parts. It is always necessary to ask: How does this change look to those whom it will directly or indirectly affect?

The agent of change is involved with decisions which have ethical significance to himself. Authorities such as Shuart[64] and Smith[65] have reported that technicians must consider some reasonable ethical stand because of the consequences of technological change. The long term consequences of such change have often meant a shattering of values or economic penetration by other nations. Foster[66] reported that the ethic of helping people change their culture includes knowing what culture is, what its characteristics are, what it means to a society, and what the processes of change include.

A technician must also be aware that a technological change has social and economic consequences that may or not be deleterious. The ethics which a technician must consider in the introduction of any change into a predominately non-technological society are described in the following manner by Foster:

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[64] Shuart, E., op. cit., (Interview).

[65] Smith, F. R., op. cit., (Interview).

[66] Foster, G., op. cit., p. 269.

> The ethic of helping people change involves restraint and caution in missionary zeal. It means that developmental personnel should be careful not to plan for people, but to work with them in searching for realistic answers to their problems. The helpful technician is the one who knows how to explain the range of alternatives possible in a given situation and to explain the probable consequences of each one. He encourages people to try new things when he believes they will solve problems and when they will not be excessive to a total way of life. He discourages them if they wish to try new things which seem incompatible with reality. But above all he leaves the decision to the people themselves; in the long run they, not he, are the ones who must be pleased.[67]

The technician must not only examine the proposed change from the viewpoint of the people involved, but he must also consider the ethics of planned change. The fourth principle derived by Mead concerns the instability introduced into any culture by some new change.

Any significant change in the life of an individual tends to introduce some degree of instability or disharmony in the way his life activities, his beliefs and attitudes, are organized.[68] This can also be applied to cultures. It has previously been pointed out that no change will occur in isolation. Any induced change will produce other changes over a wide area. The impact of an introduced technological trait will extend in widening circles until its effect is felt in areas of culture far removed from the

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[67] Ibid.

[68] Mead, M., op. cit., p. 272.

point of contact.

The extent to which changes can be introduced depend on other changes taking place or changes that can be made to take place. These in turn will influence the reception accorded the innovation. The effect of these changes is often produced at a social cost. Foster has summarized some of the major trends where social cost is implied because of technological change. These are:

1. Major shifts in the economic basis of livelihood are almost always followed by significant changes in the nature of family organization.

2. The introduction of cash crops and the increasing use of money tend to destroy traditional rural cooperation work patterns.

3. Dietary deterioration frequently follows a shift from a subsistence to a monetary economy.

4. Rapid acculturation frequently promotes village factionalism and divisive tendencies become more apparent than when tradition alone is the controlling factor in community cohesiveness.[69]

These major trends demonstrate the multitude of adjustment, changes, and problems involved in technological change. The technician must understand, therefore, that changes whether in the context of cultures or individuals within that culture tend to produce disharmony and instability. The instability creates tension within the individual and the culture and barriers to change often emerge as a consequence.

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[69] Foster, G., op. cit., pp. 29-39.

The idea of technological change and the principles which may be utilized during its process have been reviewed. Authorities such as Foster[70] and Post[71] have indicated the importance of technicians developing the basic skills and understandings in this area. Thirty authorities were asked to respond to the question of whether or not the inclusion of an area encompassing understandings and skills in technological change was basic to U. S. training programs. The authorities were requested to respond only to the concept of technological change since the principles outlined form an integral part of the whole idea. Their responses are cited in Table 16.

Authorities were almost unanimous in their indication that understandings in the area of technological change must be emphasized in U. S. training programs. Only a few recommended that such training be given at the discretion of the agency.

Economic Development

The urgency of economic development in the developing areas of the world is now generally agreed on. There is agreement that technicians working in the overseas environment should have a general understanding of

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[70] Ibid., pp. 29-39.

[71] Post, D., op. cit., (Interview).

TABLE 16. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area O: Technological Change	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion of The Agency
1. Principles Involved in Technological Change	93.5		6.5

economic development. Authorities such as Daughters[72] and Baird[73] have pointed out the importance of orienting technicians to the factors involved in economic growth so that these overseas workers may better visualize their roles in the total complex of development. The study of economic development involves the application of economic principles, developed in the West on the basis of societies permeated by a money economy and which are largely individualistic and industrialized, to countries whose economy, culture, attitudes and institutions are significantly different from those with which the West are familiar.

Wanless[74] reported in 1965 that training of technicians in economic development should try to create the following understandings: (1) development is primarily an economic problem, (2) the principles of economic development that have been discovered in the West have something of a universal validity, and (3) they can be applied in non-western societies if the differences of such societies from the non-western world are understood.

Other authorities such as Brown[75] and Standley[76] indicated training in the economic development area should include: the economic

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[72] Daughters, D., Interview with the Director of AID in Ecuador, Quito, Ecuador (March 2, 1965).

[73] Ibid.

[74] Wanless, Bill, Interview with CUNA Representative in Ecuador, Quito, Ecuador, (October 12, 1965).

[75] Brown, L. B., op. cit., (Interview).

[76] Standley, R., op. cit., (Interview).

character of the area; description and appraisal of the ways in which the people make a living; patterns of production, distribution, and consumption of goods; the distribution of wealth and income; the pattern of capital formation; the performance of the entrepreneur function; the state of technological development; and the major economic resources.

All these economic factors should be viewed in relation to the special perspective of the technician and his program. According to authorities there are four primary areas of which all technicians should develop understandings. These are: (1) characteristics of an underdeveloped country, (2) implications of change from a traditional to a modern society, (3) relationship of investments in education to future economic growth, and (4) the impact of U. S. technical assistance. These areas will be discussed in that order.

Characteristics of an Underdeveloped Country. Technicians are working with technical assistance programs in countries which have been classified by economists as "underdeveloped." A survey of the reports written by such training specialists as Brown[77], Braun[78], and Sharp[79] revealed that there is an urgent need that technicians develop an understanding of what characterizes an underdeveloped country. The reports mentioned above noted that

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[77] Brown, L. B., op. cit., (Interview).

[78] Braun, G., op. cit., (Interview).

[79] Sharp, W., op. cit., p. x.

underdeveloped areas are characterized generally by (1) the low per capita income of their inhabitants in comparison with those of North America and Western Europe; (2) the high ratio of agricultural to other forms of employment; (3) high birth rates and rapidly growing populations; (4) badly balanced and inadequate food diets; and (5) widespread illiteracy and disease associated with rudimentary educational and health facilities. Training should stress the development of understandings of these characteristics of predominately non-technological areas in which technicians will be working with technical assistance programs with economic implications.

Implications of Change from a Traditional to a Modern Society. One of the characteristics of a traditional society is that of the extended family as the basic unit of social and economic interaction. The psychological, social, and economic security of the individual stem from his membership in this grouping. In today's world the emergence of a monetary economy is changing these relationships. Cash crops for sale are replacing subsistence crops and increasing opportunities for wage labor. The traditional family ties are breaking down. Hamburger, for example, reported that in Brazil, the extended family is rapidly giving way to the conjugal one, family ties are growing weaker, and the trend is toward individualization.[80] At a more advanced stage of change the same trend continues.

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[80] Hamburger, Adelaide, "A Familia Numa Pequena Communidade Paulistia," Sociologia 16:284-292 (Sao Paulo: Escola Livre de Sociologia e Politica), 1954, p. 287.

The demands of urbanization, industrialization, and a monetary economy are changing the extended family groupings of traditional people. This is one of the changes of a traditional to a modern society.

Another trend noted by economists is that the introduction of cash groups and use of money tended to destroy rural cooperative work patterns. Erasmus found a high correlation between the commercialization of agriculture and the use and availability of money and the reciprocal agricultural work patterns.[81] In many cases cooperative forms still continue but generally because of social rather than economic values.

Another trend that is evident in the change to a modern society is the increasing importance of the cities as focal points of change. It has been traditionally viewed that the majority of economic and social change begins with the upper classes and then spreads to the countryside. There appears to be considerable downward diffusion of ideas from the city to the rural areas according to Foster.[82] Cities are the most important centers of cultural change. This is where the political, economic, and intellectual elite live and formulate economic and government policy. Capital accumulation and population growth are also emerging characteristics. An understanding of this trend is important.

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[81] Erasmus, Charles, "An Anthropologist Views Technical Assistance," The Scientific Monthly, 78:147-158, 1955.

[82] Foster, G., op. cit., pp. 29-39.

Other trends which characterize the changes from a traditional to a modern society are: (1) the emergence of nationalism, (2) dietary deterioration which follows a shift from a subsistence to a monetary economy, (3) an increase in the social mobility of the population, (4) increased governmental control in development and planning, (5) increased financial inputs into industrialization, education, transportation, military, etc., and (6) change from a relatively stable political situation to increased political instability. These are some of the trends which characterize the emergence of an underdeveloped country to a modern nation.[83] Smith indicated that training for overseas service should develop understandings of those characteristics of countries emerging from traditional societies.

Role of Education in Economic Development. Economists recognize the importance of expending capital inputs into the fields of education and human resources development in underdeveloped countries to spur the rate of social and economic development. The primary role of education in a developing country is to supply the trained manpower which will assist in the implementation of economic and social development projects. Schultz reported that in the early stages of economic growth that programs of development of education and human resources should receive high capital

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[83] Smith, F. R., op. cit., (Interview).

priorities.[84] Other authorities such as Ruales[85] and Smith[86] have also reported as the importance of assigning a high priority to human resources development in the early stages of economic growth.

Findings of authorities point out the importance of examining the processes by which education may enter into and react with other factors in economic development. There are problems of not only getting educational programs off the ground, but also of sustaining educational diffusion as well as economic growth. Evidence has indicated that a high percentage of literate people is no guarantee of progress in the developing areas.[87] There can be wasteful expenditures in education as in any other emphasis of development. It has been observed that many countries with high literacy rates or a trained corps of educators fail to make effective use of these human resources.[88] Development planners and economists will continue to debate the role of education in economic development, the capital inputs involved, and the priorities within development plans which should be assigned to it. Training authorities feel that technicians should develop an understanding of education and its role in economic development.

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[84] Schultz, Theodore, Technical Assistance and Economic Growth, International Affairs Seminar, Washington, D. C., 1961, pp. 1-2.

[85] Ruales, Leo, Interview with Food for Peace Officer, Quito, Ecuador, (October 3, 1964).

[86] Smith, F. R., op. cit., (Interview).

[87] Geertz, Clifford, Concerning the Role of Education in Development, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1964. pp. 1-65.

[88] Brown, L. B., op. cit., (Interview).

The Impact of U. S. Technical Assistance Programs. U. S. aid programs have had a great impact in the economic and social development of many countries. The host country nationals of these areas have requested further U. S. technical assistance to accelerate the development of their countries. This is evidence through the revolution of rising expectations. New wants and desires have been created, and the U. S. response has been in the form of economic and technical help of many kinds. America has responded to the needs of the emerging areas with dollar inputs exceeding 100 billion dollars.

The American technician plays an important role in U. S. technical assistance efforts. Generally speaking, the technician who participates in this endeavor is well trained in his professional field. Technicians know how to do a good job. At its best, American technical assistance has demonstrated how technical cooperation programs can ameliorate social and economic problems of the developing nations. Yet in spite of the competence in skills of the technician, recognition of the need, the desire for help, the fact remains that American aid programs have fallen short of the goals set for them.[89] This is the general situation of U. S. technical assistance programs today.

It has also been recognized that the technician needs to develop an understanding of the role and impact of U. S. technical assistance

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[89] Smith, F. R., op. cit., (Interview).

programs.[90] Smith has also indicated that technicians should gain an understanding of the role of his agency within the total development program of the host country.[91] These considerations must be handled in the U. S. training program.

Training programs should strive to assist the technician to gain an understanding of the criteria and general guidelines that are available to assist in deciding on the composition of a technical assistance program. Such criteria and guidelines have been developed by Papanek. These are:

1. The priority of a technical assistance project depends on two major factors--the priority of the development project being assisted and the usefulness of technical assistance in carrying out that development project.

2. Technical assistance should be provided on the basis of the intrinsic usefulness of projects, and agencies should be strengthened so they can carry their share. However, in the short run, the effectiveness of technical assistance is inevitably affected by the differences in the interest and support of sponsoring agencies.

3. The benefits of technical assistance can be measured by the losses in terms of costs, benefits, and time that would be incurred on the corresponding development project in the absence of technical assistance.

4. Costs of technical assistance are not only financial, but also social, political, and broadly economic.

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[90] Brown, L. B., op. cit., (Interview).

[91] Smith, F. R., op. cit., (Interview).

5. Three types of technical assistance projects can be distinguished--assisting in operations, in teaching and training, and in institution building.[92]

An understanding of these criteria and guidelines for developing technical assistance programs has important implications for training the overseas technician.

Technical assistance programs play an important role in the developmental process taking place in the emerging nations. The complex process by which an economically less developed country moves ahead to a more productive economy is by no means clearly understood, but certain elements are clear and this includes a need for both greater capital resources and development of human resources. Government grants and loans have been the major way the developed nations have provided material wealth. The major role of the technical assistance programs has been the way through which skills and knowledge have been transmitted to improve human resources.

The impact and scope of technical assistance programs have been reviewed. Authorities feel that understandings of economic development should be presented to overseas technicians. Major supporting areas cited by authorities include: (1) the characteristics of an underdeveloped country, (2) the process of change from a traditional to a modern nation,

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[92] Papanek, Gustav, Framing a Development Program, Brookings Institute, Washington, D. C., 1963, p. 37.

(3) the role of education in economic development, and (4) the impact of U. S. technical assistance programs. Authorities were asked to respond to the question of whether or not understandings in the area of economic development was basic to U. S. training programs. These responses are cited in Table 17.

The consensus of the authorities indicated that understandings in the areas of characteristics of an underdeveloped country and the implications of change from a traditional to a modern country need to be treated in U. S. training programs. Some 33.5 per cent of the authorities reported that such training should be left to the discretion of the agency. Sixteen per cent of the authorities felt that understandings of the role of education in economic development should be covered in U. S. training programs; however, a majority, (83.5) per cent, noted that such training should be left up to the individual agency. All of the authorities reported that an understanding of the impact of U. S. technical assistance programs were basic to technician preparation. The impact of U. S. technical assistance programs have important long-term economic and social development implications in the development of the newly emerging countries.

TABLE 17. OPINIONS OF 30 AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF TECHNICAL COOPERATION REPORTING ON WHETHER OR NOT UNDERSTANDINGS IN THE AREA OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT ARE BASIC TO U. S. TRAINING PROGRAMS.

Area: P Economic Development Supporting Understandings	PER CENT OF AUTHORITIES INDICATING BASIC NATURE OF UNDERSTANDINGS IN TRAINING PROGRAMS		
	Should Be Included	Should Not Be Included	Inclusion At The Discretion Of The Agency
1. Characteristics of an Under-developed nation	66.5		33.5
2. Implications of Change	66.5		33.5
3. Role of Education	16.5		83.5
4. Impact of Technical Assistance Programs	100.0		

Summary

Developmental processes, the third important curriculum division of training programs were examined in this chapter. In this study the term developmental was applied to those fundamental processes of economic and social development in which a technician takes an active part during the course of his overseas assignment. Every technician is involved in the processes of building host country institutions, assisting with economic development projects, helping local people plan programs, establishing relationships with counterparts and other host country nationals, and in introducing new techniques and ideas into the host country. It is about these fundamental processes of economic and social development that a technician must develop the appropriate understandings and skills of application which will help him to relate his own role, and his field of service, to the broader problems of growth and modernization in the developing country.

Training specialists have indicated that this division of the training curriculum is an important part of any training program preparing overseas technicians. However, these same specialists report that the areas of the developmental processes division remain largely unidentified and that the basic understandings and skills related to these areas have not been determined.

In identifying the important developmental processes areas, the writer used three approaches previously described in Chapter 4. These three approaches were: (1) review of training program syllabi, (2) review of training literature, and (3) interviews with training specialists. The survey of these sources revealed that the five major subject areas of the developmental processes division of training programs from which understandings and skills of application can be developed are: (1) technician-counterpart relations, (2) institution building, (3) program development, (4) technological change, and (5) economic development. The basic understandings are reported in relation to each one of the developmental processes area. A summary of the five developmental processes subject matter areas follows.

The development of effective technician-counterpart relations has been reported by the majority of training authorities to be essential in the successful execution of overseas assistance programs. The majority of overseas technical cooperation programs involve relationships with national counterparts. It is evident that a mutual sharing of technical skills, knowledge, and information between the counterpart and technician are basic to the successful implementation of any technical cooperation program.

Overseas authorities have pointed out that a major problem in establishing effective relationships with a counterpart revolves around the fact that too often the relationship is ill-defined. This type of situation poses many problems. Both the counterpart and the technician face the problems of differences in language, professional background, and

perceptions of the job to be accomplished. On occasions the American finds himself working with a counterpart who has superior knowledge and skill. This sometimes requires a difficult adjustment on the part of the American. Overseas technicians must develop a sensitivity to the strengths and weaknesses of their counterparts. Too often authorities have indicated that the failure to establish effective counterpart relations has been the fault of the American.

Training in technician-counterpart relations must also stress the development of understandings of the elements which shape this role. These factors are: (1) definition of his task by the agency employing him, (2) the requirements of the task to be fulfilled, and (3) the receptivity in the host country where he is to work. When related in a mutually consistent manner, these elements provide for a clarity of decision as to what the technician should do--when, where, and how. But if these elements are inconsistent or in conflict with another, the technician will at best experience frustration and at worst he will experience failure.

An important responsibility of the technician abroad is that of institution building. In whatever field a technical consultant is working, his principal task is to help build a viable social institution which will carry out the function with which he is concerned.

The ultimate test of institution building is after the technician leaves the host country--what is left behind. Will the work of the technician be regarded only as a memory or an institutional legacy? One of the primary conditions for successful institution building is that the

local people must cultivate some sense of identification with the new institution and take over its leadership. New host country institutions must be built from within. The technician must plant ideas from within and by indirection. It takes time for institutions to grow and become firmly established in a new country. Their growth is usually sporadic and the end product will probably appear in a somewhat altered form from the original concept of the agency and the technician. Training programs must assist the technician in developing an understanding of the principles underlying institution building.

Training authorities have also reported that technicians need to develop understandings and skills in the area of program development. Program development is an intensive and broad effort on the part of the action agency to assist the people of an area in their attempts, collectively, to analyze their major problems and to build an educational program directed toward the improvement of agriculture, family, and community living. Program development is an educational process and an attempt to do a thorough and systematic job of longer-range programming with the people. Training which emphasizes the five elements of program building and the assumptions upon which they are built should be incorporated into overseas orientation programs.

Training authorities report that overseas workers should become knowledgeable in the area of technological change. Technical assistance programs have long recognized the significance of introducing change into a developing country. Early U. S. government training programs contained

topics concerned about the problem of introducing new ideas and techniques into a culture. The emphasis in training has been concerned with the idea that technological development programs represent planned cultural change. Overseas technicians, therefore, intend to help specific groups of people change some of the aspects of their culture. Technicians should develop the prerequisite understandings of the principles of introducing change as proposed by anthropologists and skill in their application.

There is unanimous agreement among authorities in the field of technical cooperation that technicians working in the overseas environment should have a general understanding of economic development. Technicians need to understand the processes of economic growth so that they may better visualize their roles in the total complex of development.

The study of economic development involves the application of economic principles developed in the West on the basis of societies permeated by a money economy and which are largely individualistic and industrialized, to countries whose economy, culture, attitudes, and institutions are significantly different from those with which the West are familiar. Training in economic development should try to create the following understandings: (1) development is primarily an economic problem, (2) the principles of economic development that have been discovered in the West have something of a universal validity, and (3) these principles can be applied in non-western societies if the differences of such societies from the non-western world are understood. Related areas which should also be treated in training programs are: (1) characteristics of an

underdeveloped country, (2) implications of change from a traditional to a modern society, (3) relationship of investments in human resources to future economic growth, and (4) the role and impact of U. S. technical assistance.

Authorities in the field of technical cooperation were interviewed by the writer to determine whether or not the five major subject areas in the developmental processes division of the training curriculum were basic to the preparation of technicians. The consensus of authorities indicated that the development of understandings and skills from these areas should be included in U. S. training programs.

The major curriculum areas basic to the preparation of overseas technicians are not characteristic of the majority of current training programs according to training specialists. However, in order to verify the judgments of training authorities with respect to the treatment accorded curriculum areas by major training programs, the writer examined the training program syllabi of the major training agencies. A survey of the training curriculum areas of the major training agencies follows.

CHAPTER VIII

SURVEY REPORT OF MAJOR CURRICULUM AREAS IN U. S. TRAINING PROGRAM SYLLABI

The determination of the curriculum areas utilized by U. S. training agencies in the preparation of technicians was another important question to be answered in this study. Since the curriculum areas basic to technician preparation have already been determined, it was essential to ascertain if current U. S. training programs provided orientation with respect to the important curriculum areas for technician preparation.

Early in this investigation, it became quite apparent to this writer that U. S. training programs do not provide orientation with respect to the basic curriculum areas. This observation has been substantiated by many training authorities including Baty.[1] However, in order to verify these observations, the writer felt there was a definite need to investigate the current status of the curriculum offerings of the major types of U. S. training agencies.

Another important reason for examining the curriculum offerings of U. S. programs was to determine what areas of the agency training curriculum needed improvement and strengthening. The need to up-grade the training curriculums of U. S. agencies was best described in the following manner by Noffsinger:

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[1] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

> The training syllabi of major U. S. agencies need to be examined in detail to determine what areas are deficient in treatment and can be strengthened through an intensive curriculum revision.[2]

Once the curriculum area deficiencies are identified, positive steps can be taken to up-grade training curriculums with the inclusion of curriculum areas known as essential for technician effectiveness.

To determine the curriculum offerings of U. S. training programs, the syllabi of the five major types of training agencies were examined. The curriculum areas of these programs were related to each of the curriculum divisions already shown to be important in the preparation of overseas technicians.

The results of the survey will be reported as to the curriculum areas offered by types of training agencies, and then the differences and similarities of the curriculum offerings will be reported in relation to each of the major curriculum divisions. The treatment of major curriculum areas in U. S. business training programs follows.

Curriculum Areas of U. S. Business Training Programs

There is a realization on the part of business training directors that business training programs have proven inadequate in preparing business overseas representatives. World events and the continued expansion

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[2] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

of American business operations overseas have increased the importance of preparing business representatives for foreign assignments. Rising sentiments of nationalism among the emerging nations and the spread of American business interests to countries whose traditions and cultures differ radically from the U. S. place responsibilities on the business representative that are above the duties he would perform for his company in the U. S. The cost of sending a man abroad who fails to represent his firm successfully is high in terms of time and money of the company.

Today, of the 30,000 Americans employed by U. S. companies abroad, only a small percentage have received special training for their foreign assignment. According to Durstan lack of time is undoubtedly a major reason why relatively few firms send their executives to one of the existing business training programs. She also indicated a more basic factor is that most American firms have not yet ascertained the measurable value to the company of such training.[3]

The writer selected two publications which listed the major U. S. business training programs. These publications were recommended by training specialists as having the most comprehensive listing of the U. S. business programs and other institutions training overseas business technicians. The two publications were Training American Businessmen for Work

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[3] Durstan, J., Training U. S. Business Managers, Council for International Progress in Management, New York, 1962. pp. 1-275.

Abroad by Durstan,[4] and A List of Major U. S. Companies Working Abroad, published by the U. S. Chamber of Commerce.[5] The addresses of 117 U. S. business agencies and other training institutions were obtained from these two sources.

A survey form was sent to each of the 110 companies with overseas operations and to 7 other institutions engaged in the training of U. S. business representatives. The respondents were asked to indicate if their organizations conducted training programs for their overseas representatives, and if so, where these programs were held. The respondents were asked to send a copy of their training syllabus.

A total of 110 companies and 7 other institutions were surveyed. Twenty-two companies indicated that they conducted training programs in the U. S. as did the 7 other institutions. Seventy-eight companies reported their overseas representatives received some type of training overseas. Ten companies did not reply.

The syllabi of the 29 companies and institutions were reviewed to determine the curriculum areas covered in their U. S. programs. This list is given in Appendix B. The results of the survey of the frequency of appearance of curriculum areas in the major U. S. business training

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[4] Ibid.

[5] U. S. Chamber of Commerce, "List of U. S. Companies Working Abroad," Washington, D. C., 1963, pp. 16.

syllabi follow.

Frequency of Appearance of Curriculum Areas in U. S. Business Training Program Syllabi

I.	Professional and Technical Considerations	
1.	Philosophy and Objectives of the Agency	100.0
2.	Procedure and Method of Operation of the Agency	100.0
3.	Resources of the Agency	90.0
4.	Technical Skills	3.0
II.	Cross-Cultural Understandings and Skills	
1.	Cultural Adjustment	51.0
2.	Language Skills	51.0
3.	Group Dynamics	10.0
4.	Historical Development and Culture of the U. S.	17.0
5.	Historical Development and Culture of the Host Country	51.0
6.	World Ideologies	28.0
7.	Inter-Cultural Relations	28.0
III.	Developmental Processes	
1.	Counterpart-Technician Relations	22.0
2.	Institution Building	10.0
3.	Program Development	35.0
4.	Technological Change	3.0
5.	Economic Development	45.0

Training specialists have indicated that subject areas within the professional and technical division of the training curriculum are generally treated by all major types of training agencies. All of the business training programs covered the areas of the philosophy and objectives of the agency, and procedures and methods of operation of the agency. A majority, 90 per cent, of the programs included the area of the resources of the agency in U. S. training. Very few of the training programs allotted time to the development of technical skills.

In the very important curriculum division of cross-cultural understandings the treatment of major areas varied a great deal. Half of the agencies dealt with the areas of cultural adjustment, language skills, and the historical development and culture of the host country. Less than one-third of the syllabi indicated treatment of the other four major cross-cultural areas.

The inclusion of major developmental processes areas was notably absent from the training efforts of U. S. business agencies. Almost half of the programs covered the area of economic development. This area is, of course, closely associated with the economic interests of U. S. business. Less than one-third of the training programs treated the other four major developmental processes areas. The results of an examination of the curriculum areas of U. S. government programs follows.

Curriculum Areas of U. S. Government Training Programs

Technicians trained by U. S. government agencies have been working in the field of technical cooperation activities since the end of World War II. These technicians have been administering the foreign aid and carrying out technical assistance programs which constitute the primary efforts of the U. S. to develop world economic and human resources. The U. S. government technical cooperation agencies reflect the significant developments in American foreign policy during the past two decades. This has been the change from isolation to one of international cooperation. The postwar policy of the U. S. has emphasized the national interests in developing a cooperative system of relations with other countries that desire to prevent aggression and to construct a stable world order.

The U. S. government agencies working abroad are operating on a broad range of technical cooperation activities. These agencies are helping the emerging nations to increase their agricultural productivity and industrial capacity, develop balanced economies, construct educational programs, train teachers, improve literacy standards, and to improve public health systems and standards of living. The programs of government agencies utilize the services of 15,000 overseas technicians according to Post.[6]

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[6] Post, D., op. cit., (Interview).

The importance of training these technicians has been recognized by leading U. S. government training specialists.

Leading government training specialists have reported that there are two primary sources of information dealing with U. S. government training programs. These sources were U. S. Government Agencies in Technical Cooperation[7] and Training Programs of U. S. Government Agencies.[8] The addresses of the major training agencies were listed in these publications.

Fifteen government agencies listed in the two sources conducted training programs for overseas technicians. A letter was sent to the training program directors of these agencies requesting their cooperation in the survey. Each program director indicated that his organization conducted training programs in the U. S., and also sent a copy of the training program syllabi. A list of the U. S. government agencies conducting training programs for technicians is given in Appendix B. The results of the survey of the frequency of appearance of the major curriculum offerings of government program syllabi follow.

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[7]Doke, Cliff, U. S. Government Agencies in Technical Cooperation, (Paper written for the International Cooperation Center), Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana, 1961, pp. 1-7.

[8]Trail, T., Training Programs of U. S. Government Agencies, (Unpublished paper), Heifer Project, Inc., Quito, Ecuador, 1964, pp. 1-11.

Frequency of Appearance of Curriculum Areas in U. S. Government Training Program Syllabi

I.	Professional and Technical Considerations	
1.	Philosophy and Objectives of the Agency	100.0
2.	Procedures and Methods of Operation of the Agency	100.0
3.	Resources of the Agency	60.0
4.	Adaptation of Technical Skills	14.0
II.	Cross-Cultural Understandings	
1.	Cultural Adjustment	67.0
2.	Language Skills	47.0
3.	Group Dynamics	13.0
4.	Historical Development and Culture of the U. S.	60.0
5.	Historical Development and Culture of the Host Country	100.0
6.	World Ideologies	34.0
7.	Inter-Cultural Relations	34.0
III.	Developmental Processes	
1.	Counterpart-Technician Relations	33.0
2.	Institution Building	33.0
3.	Program Development	33.0
4.	Technological Change	20.0
5.	Economic Development	60.0

All of the government training programs reported orientation in two major areas of the professional and technical training division: (1) philosophy and objectives of the agency, and (2) procedures and methods of operation of the agency. Only half the training programs dealt with the area of agency resources. Very few of the agencies treated the area of the development of technical skills.

The treatment of the cross-cultural areas presented a diversified picture. Every training program included the cross-cultural area of the historical development and culture of the host country in orientation programs. Approximately half of the training programs dealt with the areas of cultural adjustment, language skills, and the historical development and culture of the U. S. The other three major cross-cultural areas--group dynamics, world ideologies, and inter-cultural relations--were not included in the majority of government programs.

The syllabi revealed that government training programs emphasized some training in the curriculum division of developmental processes. The area of economic development was treated in almost two-thirds of the programs. Only one-third of the programs attempted to develop understandings and skills in the areas of program development, technician-counterpart relations, and institution building. The results of a survey of the frequency of appearance of the major curriculum offerings of U. S. religious programs follows.

Curriculum Areas of U. S. Religious Training Programs

U. S. religious agencies have always conducted some type of training for their overseas workers. For more than 150 years large numbers of churches and religious agencies in the U. S. have been sending missionaries abroad. The primary motive of this movement has been to spread the doctrines of Christianity. During the past fifty years there has been a trend among the various religious agencies to concentrate their efforts in the field of technical assistance. These activities have been concerned with building and organizing schools, training teachers, building and operating hospitals, clinics, social centers, and experimental farms.

The majority of the religious agencies have developed training programs to prepare their representatives to meet this challenge. Evidence cited in Chapter 2 revealed that these training programs vary from extensive academic training to brief orientation sessions. That religious are confronted with the same common training problems as voluntary, business, and government organizations involved in technical cooperation work has been pointed out by Sayre.[9] This would indicate there are opportunities to share information and experience between such groups; however, the evidence has been to the contrary.

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[9] Sayre, W., op. cit., p. 48.

While many religious training program directors questioned the effectiveness of their own programs, there was evidence as related by training specialists that the work and training efforts of these agencies has been successful. The successful preparation of religious workers has been evidenced and substantiated in the following manner by Cleveland: "It is not our purpose here to assess the effectiveness of American religious salesmanship, but there is no doubt that, measured as cultural evangelism, the missionary movement has been extremely successful."[10] There has been an awareness on the part of religious agencies that their overseas efforts can be made even more successful through the improved training of their representatives.

According to leading training officials of religious programs, there are two important publications listing the training programs of U. S. religious agencies. These publications are: (1) American Religious and Non-Profit Agencies in Technical Assistance Abroad,[11] and (2) The Technical Cooperation Work of U. S. Religious Agencies.[12] An examination of these two sources revealed the addresses of 40 religious agencies conducting training programs for overseas technicians. A number of other religious agencies were cited as participating in overseas assistance programs, but

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[10] Cleveland, H., op. cit., p. 30.

[11] Zwaver, Wayland, American Religious and Non-Profit Agencies in Technical Assistance Abroad, Technical Assistance Clearing House: New York, 1963, pp. 219.

[12] Trail, T., The Technical Cooperation Work of U. S. Religious Agencies, (Unpublished report), Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana, 1963.

since the survey of the two publications indicated that these agencies did not conduct any type of training for their representatives, the 40 were selected. A list of these agencies is given in Appendix B.

A survey form was sent to each of the 40 religious agencies with technician training programs. The respondents were asked to indicate if their organizations conducted U. S. training programs for their overseas representatives, and if so, where the programs were carried out. The respondents were also requested to send a copy of their training syllabi.

The syllabi were then surveyed. Thirty-one agencies indicated that they conducted training programs for their overseas representatives in the U. S. Four agencies reported such training was not a part of the role of the agency. Five agencies did not reply. The syllabi of the 31 agencies were then surveyed to determine the major curriculum areas covered in their U. S. training program. The frequency of inclusion of the curriculum areas are reported in percentage form.

Survey Results of the Frequency of Appearance of Curriculum Areas in U. S. Religious Program Syllabi

I. Professional and Technical Considerations

1.	Philosophy and Objectives of the Agency	100.0
2.	Procedures and Methods of Operation of the Agency	100.0
3.	Resources of the Agency	97.0
4.	Adaptation of Technical Skills	27.0

II. Cross-Cultural Understandings

1.	Cultural Adjustment	33.0
2.	Language Skills	40.0
3.	Group Dynamics	18.0
4.	Historical Development and Culture of the U. S.	6.0
5.	Historical Development and Culture of the Host Country	35.0
6.	World Ideologies	3.0
7.	Inter-Cultural Relations	18.0

III. Developmental Processes

1.	Counterpart-Technician Relations	6.0
2.	Institution Building	16.0
3.	Program Development	12.0
4.	Technological Change	6.0
5.	Economic Development	12.0

U. S. religious training programs cover in depth the areas of the philosophy and objectives of the agency, and procedures and methods of operation of the agency. Almost every one of the 31 training programs included the area of agency resources in technician preparation. Training in the development of technical skills was characteristic of only 25 per cent of the training agencies.

The content of the religious training program syllabi revealed varied treatment of the cross-cultural areas of the training curriculum. Only one-third of the training programs dealt with the areas of cultural

adjustment, language skills, and the historical development and culture of the host country. Less than 20 per cent of the agencies covered other cross-cultural areas in technician orientation.

The offerings of training programs of religious agencies as revealed by syllabi left much to be desired in the attention given developmental processes. Less than sixteen per cent of all training programs attempted any planned orientation with respect to the five areas of the developmental processes division of the curriculum division. A survey of the curriculum offerings of U. S. university training programs follows.

Curriculum Areas of U. S. University Training Programs

U. S. universities are actively engaged in the training of overseas technicians. According to Gray, university staff members participating in overseas technical cooperation projects must undergo a substantial period of training and orientation in order to insure successful technician performance.[13] Universities have also become involved in the preparation of students for overseas service. Preliminary evidence as reported by Baty indicated that the university programs for student overseas preparation can make positive contributions to technician effectiveness.[14] However, many training authorities have indicated that university training programs

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[13] Gray, J., op. cit., p. 5.

[14] Rice, A., op. cit., p. 29.

still need to up-grade curriculum offerings to better prepare future overseas technicians.

The training programs of U. S. universities preparing technicians have been extensively treated in two important publications. These two publications were recommended by Baty[15] as being the most comprehensive sources of information as to current university training efforts. These publications are: (1) American Universities and ICA Contracts,[16] and (2) "Training Programs in International Development and Overseas Service in the U. S."[17] A survey of the two sources revealed that 54 universities trained overseas technicians. Twenty of the universities conducted programs for training graduate students for overseas service, and 35 universities sent staff members overseas to work with AID contracts.

A survey form was sent to each of the 20 universities with programs involving the preparation of overseas technicians and to the 35 universities involved with ICA contracts. The respondents were asked to indicate if their organizations conducted training programs for their overseas representatives, and if so, where these programs were conducted. They were requested to send a copy of their training syllabi. A list of the 55 university training programs surveyed is located in Appendix B. Twenty-seven

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[15]Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

[16]Agency for International Development, American Universities and AID Contracts, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1964, pp. 245.

[17]Rice, A., op. cit., pp. 29-30.

of the 35 universities involved with AID contracts responded to the survey form. Seven of these universities indicated that they had training programs for overseas staffs. Twenty universities reported that they either trained their representatives overseas or had no training program at all. Sixteen of the 20 universities having graduate training programs for overseas technicians responded. Four of these universities did not reply.

The syllabi of the 23 universities were surveyed to determine the curriculum areas covered in their U. S. training programs. The frequency of inclusion of the curriculum areas in their training programs is reported in percentage form.

Summary Results of the Frequency of Appearance of Curriculum Areas in U. S. University Program Syllabi

I.	Professional and Technical Considerations	
1.	Philosophy and Objectives of the Agency	26.0
2.	Procedures and Methods of Operation of the Agency	26.0
3.	Resources of the Agency	17.0
4.	Adaptation of Technical Skills	30.0
II.	Cross-Cultural Understandings	
1.	Cultural Adjustment	39.0
2.	Language Skills	48.0
3.	Group Dynamics	52.0
4.	Historical Development and Culture of the U. S.	52.0

5. Historical Development and Culture of the Host Country---------- 78.0

6. World Ideologies ---------- 48.0

7. Inter-Cultural Relations---------- 48.0

III. Developmental Processes

1. Counterpart-Technician Relations---------- 22.0

2. Institution Building---------- 35.0

3. Program Development ---------- 35.0

4. Technological Change---------- 48.0

5. Economic Development---------- 70.0

U. S. university overseas training programs conducted in the U. S. generally do not include provisions for training in the professional and technical division of the training curriculum as shown by the less than 30 per cent of the programs that deal with orientation in this division. The failure to treat areas in the professional and technical division can be traced to one primary factor. The majority of universities conducting programs for the preparation of future overseas technicians seldom train a student for any particular agency. Therefore, orientation of agency philosophy and objectives, administrative considerations, and the resources of the agency are generally left up to the employing agency.

A survey of the training program syllabi revealed that university training programs strongly emphasize training in the cross-cultural division in comparison with other types of training agencies. Almost 80 per cent of the university programs stress the development of understandings of the

historical development and culture of the host country. Approximately one-half of the programs conducted planned training in the areas of language skills, group dynamics, world ideologies, intercultural relations, and the historical development and culture of the U. S.

University training programs also strongly focus attention on the curriculum areas of the developmental processes division of the training curriculum. Seventy per cent of the programs deal with orientation in economic development. Almost half of the university programs cover the area of technological change. The development of understandings in the areas of institution building and program development were reported by one-third of the programs. The general practice of university training programs in preparing technicians for other overseas agencies is to exclude the areas of program development, technician-counterpart relations, and institution building from their training curriculums. An examination of the curriculum areas of U. S. voluntary programs follows.

Curriculum Areas In U. S. Voluntary Agency Training Programs

Technicians of the voluntary agencies have generally received little overseas orientation before going overseas, and yet voluntary agencies have carried out technical cooperation activities abroad for a number of years. Originally many of these agencies had direct ties or sponsorship with religious organizations. Many of these ties still exist; however, the trend toward interdenominational support dominates the scene today. The majority

of private foundations operate as private concerns in the voluntary agency field.

Efforts toward training overseas representatives of the voluntary agencies have been a growing concern in recent years. Noffsinger noted that while government and university programs have taken the lead in the preparation of overseas technicians, the voluntary agencies have failed to mount even a semblence of a program. Little thought, according to Noffsinger, has been given to the essential elements needed for such a program.[18]

The major training programs of U. S. voluntary agencies have been reported in the publications, The American Voluntary and Non-Profit Agencies in Technical Assistance Abroad.[19] Noffsinger recommended this publication as being the most comprehensive in the treatment and description of U. S. voluntary agency programs.[20] A survey of the publication revealed that over 100 voluntary agencies participate in technical assistance activities. However, only 40 of the agencies were reported as having orientation programs for technicians. These 40 agencies were utilized in the study. A list comprising the programs of the 40 voluntary agencies is located in Appendix B.

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[18] Noffsinger, J. S., op. cit., (Interview).

[19] Zwayer, W., op. cit.

[20] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

A survey form was sent to each voluntary agency with a technician training program. The respondents were asked to indicate if their organization participated in training programs for their overseas representatives, and if so, where the programs were conducted. Each respondent was requested to return a copy of its training syllabi. A total of 31 agencies comprised the number of institutions surveyed.

Thirty one agencies indicated they conducted training programs in the U. S. The program syllabi of the 31 agencies were surveyed to determine the curriculum areas covered in their training programs. The frequency of inclusion of these curriculum areas is reported in percentage form.

Survey Results of the Frequency of Appearance of Curriculum Areas in U. S. Voluntary Agency Training Program Syllabi

I. Professional and Technical Considerations

1.	Philosophy and Objectives of the Agency	100.0
2.	Procedures and Methods of Operation of the Agency	100.0
3.	Resources of the Agency	32.0
4.	Adaptation of Technical Skills	13.0

II. Cross-Cultural Understandings

1.	Cultural Adjustment	19.0
2.	Language Skills	13.0
3.	Group Dynamics	6.0
4.	Historical Development and Culture of the U. S.	0.0
5.	Historical Development and Culture of the Host Country	39.0
6.	World Ideologies	6.0
7.	Inter-Cultural Relations	6.0

III. Developmental Processes

1.	Counterpart-Technician Relations	13.0
2.	Institution Building	13.0
3.	Program Development	13.0
4.	Technological Change	6.0
5.	Economic Development	16.0

The two major areas of the professional and technical division of the training curriculum which all voluntary agencies covered in technician orientation were: (1) philosophy and objectives of the agency, and (2) administrative considerations. Less than one-third of the agencies dealt with the areas of agency resources and development of technical skills.

A survey of the training program syllabi revealed that the efforts of voluntary agency training programs in the cross-cultural areas have been very limited. Approximately 40 per cent of the agencies stress orientation

in the area of the historical development and culture of the host country. Only a very small number of the voluntary programs reported that they devoted training time to any of the other areas in the cross-cultural division.

There was also revealed a decided lack of concentration by the voluntary agencies in the curriculum division of developmental processes. Fewer than 16 per cent of all agencies reported treatment of the five major areas in the developmental processes area.

It is evident from the review of training program syllabi of all types of agencies that the different types of training agencies vary a great deal in the treatment of the three divisions of the training curriculum and related areas. An even more revealing indication of the treatment of the major curriculum areas by U. S. training agencies are the similarities and differences of the training emphasis of all agencies with respect to the three divisions of the training curriculum.

Similarities and Differences of Curriculum Offerings in U. S. Training Syllabi

This survey of syllabi revealed that the different types of agencies provide orientation in many of the same curriculum areas, but at the same time there is a great difference in the treatment accorded many of the curriculum areas considered important by training authorities.

In order to give the reader a clearer picture of the treatment accorded curriculum areas by all types of training agencies, it was decided to survey training syllabi with respect to the similarities and differences of curriculum offerings in each training division by all types of training agencies. The curriculum offerings of all types of training agencies will be surveyed according to the professional and technical, cross-cultural, and developmental processes training divisions, and reported in percentage form located in tables in each section.

Professional and Technical Considerations. Both traditional and experimental type training programs of the majority of agencies devoted 60 to 70 per cent of training time to technician orientation in the areas of agency objectives and philosophy and administrative considerations. With the exception of university training programs, the vast majority of the other types of training agencies also included the area of the resources of the agency in U. S. orientation of technicians.

University programs preparing students for overseas service and staff members working in overseas projects do not emphasize training in developmental process divisions. Graduates of university programs normally receive orientation in the professional and technical division after they are employed by a technical cooperation agency.

Training in the development of technical skills was treated by approximately 25 per cent of all agencies. University programs seemed to concentrate their efforts in preparing the technician to adapt previously acquired skills to the new working environment.

The treatment of areas within the division of professional and technical considerations by U. S. training agencies is intensive and takes up most of the time allotted to the preparation of technicians. There is, no doubt, considerable value to the orientation of overseas workers in this division; however, much of this type of orientation often becomes lost in the details of procedures and techniques. Many program directors have reported that time normally devoted to the two other important training divisions is sacrificed in order to treat the professional and technical training division. The only training agency to make a determined effort to devote the majority of training time to other divisions is the university type programs. There is a trend among other types of training agencies to make professional and technical considerations orientation more meaningful, and to concentrate training efforts in other important areas. The extent of inclusion of the technical and professional areas is shown in Table 18.

Cross-Cultural Understandings. The cross-cultural division is recognized by leading training specialists to be the more important training division. It has been repeatedly indicated by the majority of authorities in the field of technical cooperation that a technician must have the necessary cross-cultural understandings and skills of application to perform effectively overseas. It is not enough for a technician to have technical skills, he must also be able to relate and utilize these skills in a strange and different environment. Therefore, the need for developing cross-cultural understandings which will help relate previously acquired technical skills to the new culture is paramount.

TABLE 18. PERCENTAGE OF U. S. TECHNICAL COOPERATION TRAINING PROGRAMS TREATING THE PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL CURRICULUM AREAS.

U. S. Technical Cooperation Training Agencies	PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL CONSIDERATIONS			
	Philosophy and Objectives of The Agency	Agency Procedures And Methods of Operations	Resources of The Agency	Adaptation of Technical Skills
Business	100.0	100.0	90.0	3.0
Government	100.0	100.0	60.0	14.0
Religious	100.0	100.0	97.0	27.0
University	26.0	26.0	17.0	30.0
Voluntary	100.0	100.0	32.0	13.0
Percentage of all Agencies Reporting The Inclusion of Professional and Technical Areas in U. S. Programs	87.0	87.0	62.0	24.0

Unfortunately, the need for training in the cross-cultural area is not reflected in the training efforts of the major types of training agencies. The majority of training program directors indicated that only 10 to 25 per cent of orientation time was designated for this division. The evidence revealed from the survey of syllabi substantiated this observation.

Cross-cultural orientation efforts have been concentrated in three primary areas: (1) cultural adjustment, (2) language skills, and (3) the history and culture of the host country. Less than 25 per cent of all types of agencies deal with training in the other four cross-cultural areas.

During the past five years the university and government agencies have been making substantial progress in the incorporation of basic cross-cultural areas into their training programs. Efforts have been primarily concentrated in the development of understandings and skills in the areas of: (1) cultural adjustment, (2) language skills, (3) inter-cultural relations, and (4) the history and culture of the host country. There is very little evidence to indicate that the other types of training agencies have expanded their efforts in the up-grading of the cross-cultural division. The extent of inclusion of the cross-cultural areas in U. S. training programs syllabi is given in Table 19.

Developmental Processes. This division of the training curriculum is recognized by leadning training specialists to be of increasing importance in the preparation of overseas technicians. It is also of the most recent origin, and there is still considerable question as to what basic developmental processes skills and understandings should be presented during

TABLE 19. PERCENTAGE OF U. S. TECHNICAL COOPERATION TRAINING PROGRAMS TREATING THE CROSS-CULTURAL CURRICULUM AREAS.

Technical Cooperation Agencies	CROSS-CULTURAL UNDERSTANDINGS CURRICULUM AREAS						
	Cultural Adjustment	Language Skills	Group Dynamics	History and Culture of the U. S.	History and Culture of the Host Country	World Ideologies	Inter Cultural Relations
Business	51.0	51.0	10.0	17.0	51.0	28.0	28.0
Government	67.0	47.0	13.0	60.0	100.0	34.0	34.0
Religious	33.0	40.0	18.0	6.0	35.0	3.0	18.0
University	39.0	48.0	52.0	52.0	78.0	48.0	48.0
Voluntary	19.0	13.0	6.0	0.0	39.0	6.0	6.0
Percentage of all Agencies Reporting Cross-Cultural Areas In U. S. Training Programs	38.0	38.0	19.0	22.0	54.0	15.0	26.0

U. S. orientation of technicians.

It was not surprising to observe that only approximately one-fourth of all types of agencies allot time to this curriculum division. With a few notable exceptions, the time devoted to this division by U. S. agencies seldom exceeds 10 per cent of the training time given to technician preparation.

Government and university training agencies have again taken the lead in emphasizing the development of understandings and skills of application in the developmental processes area. Their training efforts have been primarily concentrated in the areas of economic development, technological change, and institution building. Very little evidence has been given to indicate that business, voluntary, or religious agencies have made more than token effort to expand training in this division. The philosophy of many of the training directors of these types of agencies is that developmental processes understandings and skills have no relevance to the overseas situation. However, if America is to be more effectively represented abroad, U. S. training agencies must expand their training efforts in the developmental processes division. The extent of inclusion of the developmental processes areas in U. S. training program syllabi is given in Table 20.

The key understandings and skills which contribute to technician effectiveness can be developed from basic curriculum areas. However, the survey of the training program syllabi of the five major types of U. S. training agencies revealed that only a few programs treat all of the basic curriculum areas in technician orientation. The evidence is that voluntary,

TABLE 20. PERCENTAGE OF U. S. TECHNICAL COOPERATION TRAINING PROGRAMS TREATING THE DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESSES CURRICULUM AREAS.

Technical Cooperation Agencies	DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESSES CURRICULUM AREAS				
	Technician-Counterpart Relations	Institution Building	Program Development	Technological Change	Economic Development
Business	22.0	10.0	35.0	3.0	45.0
Government	33.0	33.0	33.0	20.0	60.0
Religious	6.0	16.0	12.0	6.0	12.0
University	22.0	35.0	35.0	48.0	70.0
Voluntary	13.0	13.0	13.0	6.0	16.0
Summary of All Agencies Reporting Developmental Processes Areas in U. S. Programs.	17.0	19.0	24.0	15.0	36.0

religious, government, and business training programs are especially deficient in their treatment of the basic curriculum areas. It became quite clear to this writer, that in order to up-grade current training efforts that the basic curriculum areas essential to technician preparation must be integrated into the training programs of the majority of U. S. agencies. The revision of current training curriculums is a great need in today's preparation of technicians. It is also evident that certain curriculum areas are more important in the preparation of technicians than others. The final problem in this study was the determination of the priorities of key curriculum areas. The following chapter deals with this question.

CHAPTER IX

PRIORITIES ACCORDED CURRICULUM AREAS BY TRAINING AUTHORITIES FOR U. S. PROGRAMS PREPARING OVERSEAS TECHNICIANS

The determination of the priorities of basic curriculum areas for technician preparation was the final question to be answered in this study. Earlier in the study reports from such training specialists as Noffsinger[1] had indicated that definite priorities for essential curriculum areas needed to be determined so that training program directors could concentrate their training efforts in the development of understandings and skills in these key areas.

The survey method was utilized in order to determine the priorities of essential curriculum areas. A questionnaire was constructed and sent to training specialists to collect data with respect to curriculum areas priorities. The construction and administration of the questionnaire is described in the following section.

Construction and Administration of the Questionnaire

Construction of the Questionnaire. Care was exercised in the construction of the questionnaire so that it would serve the purpose for which intended, be simple to understand, easily checked and tabulated.

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[1] Noffsinger, J., op. cit., (Interview).

The curriculum areas in the questionnaire were obtained from the training curriculum outline presented in Chapter 4. These curriculum areas had been determined from the review of training syllabi, training reports, and interviews with authorities in the field of technical cooperation. The basic curriculum outline with key curriculum areas for technician preparation formed the basis of the questionnaire. The types of understandings which could be developed from curriculum areas were listed under each subject area. A list of definitions was also included to provide clarity of the terms used in the questionnaire. A copy of the questionnaire appears in Appendix C.

The title of the questionnaire, "Training Priorities of Basic Curriculum Areas for the Preparation of Overseas Technicians," indicated that certain curriculum areas are more important in the preparation of technicians than others. General directions were given for rating the curriculum areas according to training priorities within each curriculum division.

In the questionnaire, the basic curriculum areas are found under three major headings or curriculum divisions. These curriculum divisions are technical and professional considerations, cross-cultural understandings, and developmental processes. The curriculum areas were organized under each curriculum division. The order in which the curriculum areas appeared under each training division was not intended to be a suggestive sequence of importance. This was pointed out in the directions to the respondents.

As a means of validating the questionnaire, it was sent to 50 authorities in the field of technical cooperation. These authorities were recommended by Baty[2] as individuals who had considerable experience in the training of overseas technicians. These authorities were asked to comment on the adequacy of the questionnaire in relation to the ease of ranking the curriculum areas on a priority basis. Forty-five of the 50 authorities indicated that the questionnaire was well-designed and appropriate for the purpose intended. Five authorities did not reply. All of the authorities were in basic agreement that the questionnaire was an instrument by which one could determine the priorities accorded curriculum areas. A list of the cooperating authorities is found in Appendix A.

Administration of the Questionnaire. The administration of the questionnaire required that careful attention be given to the selection of the respondents and that diligence be exercised in the several communications made in order to obtain an adequate response.

In selecting the respondents it was necessary to contact those who had considerable experience in the training of technicians. The basis for selecting the respondents consisted of the following guidelines: (1) three years experience with a technical cooperation agency, (2) involvement with the training of technicians, and (3) significant publications concerning

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[2] Baty, H., op. cit., (Interview).

the training of overseas workers. The names of 90 of the leading training authorities in the field of technical cooperation were obtained from Dr. Harvey Baty, former Director of the International Cooperation Center at Montana State University. In the course of field interviews, the writer encountered 20 other authorities who were concerned with the training of technicians. These names were added to the list suggested by Baty. Addresses of 110 authorities were obtained in this manner. All of the authorities met the criteria noted above for the selection of respondents in this study.

Questionnaires were sent to 110 authorities. A separate postcard was used as a followup for those who did not respond to the first inquiry. The number who replied and their general promptness in the survey tended to remove any doubt that they lacked interest. Copies of the correspondence used in securing these responses have been placed in Appendix C.

In determining just what an adequate response to a questionnaire survey is, several authorities were consulted. Good and Scates,[3] in discussing the percentage of returns on questionnaires, stated that the person doing the research should strive for 90 to 100 per cent returns. In a study of the mean percentages of questionnaire returns from a large number of investigations it was found that 170 masters' theses at Indiana State Teachers College had a mean return of 71.74 per cent and 204

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[3] Good, Carter V., and Scates, Douglas E., Methods of Research, Alfred Knopp, New York, 1959, pp. 126-127.

doctoral disserations at Teachers College, Columbia University, 70.65 per cent. Shannon[4] in a report of 59 research studies, obtained a mean percentage of 80.71 on questionnaire returns. The writer set 90 per cent as a goal.

The adequacy of response to the questionnaire, on the basis of a 91.0 per cent return from the authorities in the field of technical co-operation, was satisfactory according to the sources consulted.

The fact that followup letters reached some of the respondents at a new address would tend to indicate that some of the people not responding may have moved to another location.

To the general questionnaire directions each respondent was asked to indicate by rank order the priority which should be assigned to each of the curriculum areas under each training division. A curriculum area which a respondent felt deserved first priority within a training division received a one (1) in rank order. A curriculum area considered to be of second priority or order of importance in a curriculum division received a two (2), and so forth in descending order of importance. This procedure was followed for each set of curriculum areas under each of the three training divisions. For a more valid result, it was suggested to the respondents that each curriculum area be checked in its entirety before going on to the next. The results of the questionnaire follow in the next section.

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[4] Shannon, J. R., "Percentages of Returns of Questionnaires," Educational Research, Vol. 42, p. 140, (October 1948).

Questionnaire Results

One-hundred of 110 questionnaires were returned. The first (1) priority ratings accorded each curriculum area were tabulated and totaled. For example, 35 of 100 authorities reported that the curriculum area of philosophy and objectives of the agency was the most important area of the professional and technical division. These authorities felt that this area should receive the primary training emphasis in the professional and technical division. Within the same training division, thirty authorities indicated that the area of administrative considerations rated top priority, twenty-three reported that agency resources should receive the highest training emphasis, and twelve recommended that the development of technical skills be given the most important consideration in technician preparation. The number of authorities indicating priorities of the curriculum areas are reported in percentage form.

Within each of the three curriculum divisions, the first priority ratings of each curriculum area were compared. According to the example previously cited, the four curriculum areas of the professional and technical division were rated in the following order of importance in the preparation of technicians: (1) philosophy and objectives of the agency, (2) administrative considerations, (3) agency resources, and (4) development of technical skills. This same procedure was followed in the treatment of the other two training divisions. An examination of the priorities accorded the curriculum areas of the professional and technical division follows.

Priorities In the Professional and Technical Division. Approximately one-third of the respondents indicated that the area of the objectives and philosophy of the agency should receive first training priority in the professional and technical division. Administrative considerations were reported by almost one-third of the respondents as an area which should be accorded a first training priority. Orientation in the area of agency resources was considered by 23.0 per cent of the authorities to be of greatest training consideration. Very few of the respondents indicated that the development of technical skills should be rated on a first priority basis. The priorities accorded key areas in the professional and technical division are given in Table 21.

Evidence previously cited in Chapter 8 revealed that the majority of U. S. training programs encompass the areas of agency philosophy, administrative consideration, and resources of the agency in current training efforts. These are the only areas treated in great depth by the majority of training programs. Treatment of the area of the development of technical skills is still not considered to be an important training concern by the respondents.

It is apparent that training authorities encountered considerable difficulty in discriminating as to the degree of importance which should be accorded the areas of the agency objectives and philosophy, administrative considerations, and agency resources in U. S. programs. It was evident that the curriculum area of the development of technical skills rated the lowest priority within the training division. It is possible that the

TABLE 21. TRAINING PRIORITIES ASSIGNED PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL CURRICULUM AREAS BY TECHNICAL COOPERATION AUTHORITIES.

Professional and Technical Curriculum Areas	AUTHORITIES INDICATING TRAINING PRIORITIES	
	Percentage	Priority Ratings*
1. Objectives and Philosophy of the Agency	35.0	1
2. Administrative Considerations	30.0	2
3. Resources of the Agency	23.0	3
4. Development of Technical Skills	12.0	4

*Scale

authorities felt that all three areas should be accorded approximately the same degree of emphasis during training programs. An examination of the priorities accorded the key cross-cultural areas follows.

Priorities In the Cross-Cultural Division. The cross-cultural division has been repeatedly indicated by training specialists to be the most important curriculum division in the preparation of overseas technicians. An examination of the training program syllabi indicated that the development of key cross-cultural understandings and skills were greatly lacking in current training efforts.

The respondents indicated there were three areas within the cross-cultural curriculum which should receive primary emphasis in any type of training program. The development of language skills was considered to be of first priority by 31.0 per cent of the respondents. Twenty-seven per cent of the respondents accorded top priority to the area of inter-cultural relations. First priority was accorded by 25 per cent of the respondents to the development of understandings and skills in the cultural adjustment area. Thus eighty-seven per cent of the respondents felt that training in these three areas should be stressed by all training programs.

Eight per cent of the respondents indicated that the area of the historical development and culture of the U. S. should be treated in current training efforts. Seven per cent of the reporting authorities reported that understandings and skills in the area of the historical development and culture of the host country should be included in training programs.

Fewer than 5 per cent of the respondents indicated that the treatment of the areas of world ideologies and group dynamics should be included in current training efforts.

Thus training specialists report that the primary emphasis in the cross-cultural division should concern the development of skills and understandings in the areas of language, inter-cultural relations, and cultural adjustment. The responses of these authorities are given in Table 22.

The respondents clearly indicated that the cross-cultural areas of inter-cultural relations, language skills, and cultural adjustment should receive the highest training priorities in the cross-cultural division. There was no "clear-cut" evidence given by the respondents as to which of these areas should receive top priority in the training of technicians in this division. The other curriculum areas were all accorded low priority ratings. There was no important differentiation as to the degree of importance which should be accorded the areas of group dynamics, world ideologies, historical development and history of the U. S., and historical development and culture of the host country in the training of technicians. An examination of the priorities accorded curriculum areas in the developmental process division now follows.

TABLE 22. TRAINING PRIORITIES ASSIGNED CROSS-CULTURAL AREAS BY TECHNICAL COOPERATION AUTHORITIES

Cross-Cultural Areas	AUTHORITIES INDICATING TRAINING PRIORITIES	
	Percentage	Training Priority*
1. Language Skills	31.0	1
2. Cultural Adjustment	25.0	3
3. Group Dynamics	2.0	6
4. Historical Development and Culture of the U. S.	8.0	4
5. Historical Development and Culture of the Host Country	6.0	5
6. World Ideologies	1.0	7
7. Inter-Cultural Relations	27.0	2

*Scale

Priorities in the Developmental Processes Division. The emphasis of training in the areas of the developmental processes division has gained recognition during the past five years as an important addition to training curriculums. Technical cooperation authorities indicated in this survey that two specific areas should receive the major emphasis of time devoted to training in the developmental processes division. Institution building was the area considered of first priority by 32.0 per cent of the respondents. The area of technological change was reported by 28.0 per cent of the respondents to be of first priority emphasis. Thus 60 per cent of the respondents indicated that understandings and skills of application in the areas of institution building a technological change should be treated on a first priority basis.

The establishment of technician-counterpart relations was considered by 19.0 per cent of the authorities to be of first order of importance within the developmental processes division. The development of understandings of economic development were indicated to be most important by 13.0 per cent of the respondents. The area considered least important in the preparation of technicians within the major division concerned program development. The priorities of the respondents are given in Table 23. Evidence cited in Chapter 8 indicated that over 80 per cent of the major training programs did not include one single area in the developmental processes division in current training efforts. It is evident that much remains to be done in up-grading the developmental processes curriculum in U. S. training programs.

TABLE 23. TRAINING PRIORITIES ASSIGNED DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESSES AREAS BY TECHNICAL COOPERATION AUTHORITIES.

Developmental Processes Areas	AUTHORITIES INDICATING TRAINING PRIORITIES	
	Percentage	Training Priority*
1. Technician-Counterpart Relations	19.0	3
2. Institution Building	32.0	1
3. Program Development	8.0	5
4. Technological Change	28.0	2
5. Economic Development	13.0	4

*Scale

The respondents clearly indicated that the areas of institution building and technological change should receive priority treatment in the preparing of overseas technicians. There was no important differentiation observed between the priorities which should be given these two areas. The survey indicated that the area of program development was considered the least important of the five major areas. Technician-counterpart relations and economic development were considered to rate top training priority by a minority of the respondents. Again, there was no clear indication of which of the two areas should rate the highest priority. A summary of the questionnaire results follows.

Summary

One-hundred authorities in the field of technical cooperation participated in this study to determine the training priorities which should be assigned curriculum areas in U. S. programs preparing overseas technicians. These authorities represented government, business, voluntary, religious, and university agencies.

The training priorities accorded curriculum areas within the three major curriculum divisions by technical cooperation authorities were reported. The three major curriculum divisions of training programs are: (1) technical and professional considerations, (2) cross-cultural understandings, and (3) developmental processes. From the curriculum areas of these three divisions key understandings and skills can be developed to prepare overseas technicians to do a more effective job.

The areas of agency objectives and philosophy, administrative considerations, and agency resources were considered by the respondents as the areas which should receive the top training priorities in the developmental processes division. Over 80 per cent of the authorities indicated that the cross-cultural areas of cultural adjustment, language skills, and inter-cultural relations should be allotted high training priorities in the cross-cultural division. The developmental processes areas considered of the greatest importance were institution building, technological change, and technician-counterpart relations. It was apparent that the respondents encountered some difficulty in differentiating the extent of importance between many of the curriculum areas. This indicates there may still be some variance of opinion among training specialists as to the curriculum areas which should be more strongly emphasized during U. S. training programs.

The evidence from the survey of training program syllabi in Chapter 8 clearly indicated that much needs to be done to upgrade the training curriculums of U. S. agencies. This can be accomplished by incorporating the basic curriculum areas in current training programs. If training directors are interested in concentrating programs resources to improve training curriculums, the first step would be to emphasize those curriculum areas which authorities have indicated should receive a high training priority. Training specialists have pointed out that the following curriculum areas should receive high priority in the preparation of technicians: (1) philosophy and objectives of the agency, (2) administrative

considerations, (3) inter-cultural relations, (4) language skills, (5) cultural adjustment, (6) technological change, and (7) institution building. The inclusion of these areas in current training programs would do much to assist program directors guide technicians in developing the prerequisite understandings and skills needed for effective overseas performance. The summary, conclusions, and recommendations of this investigation are treated in the next chapter.

CHAPTER X

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This investigation was based on the belief that there were certain important curriculum areas in training programs from which key understandings and skills could be developed which would more adequately prepare U. S. technicians to perform effectively overseas. Six questions then appeared to be pertinent to the study. These were: (1) What is the nature of technical cooperation work? (2) What are the types and status of technical cooperation training programs? (3) What are the curriculum areas considered important in the preparation of overseas technicians? (4) What are the key understandings and skills deemed basic in the preparation of overseas technicians? (5) What are the basic curriculum areas encompassed in current training programs? (6) What training priorities should be assigned to basic curriculum areas? The summary findings follow.

Summary

The nature of technical cooperation work was determined through a review of literature. The survey revealed that the basic principle underlying technical cooperation is the systematic sharing of technical and scientific knowledge and skills among people of different countries. There are two primary tasks involved in technical cooperation work. These are to assist host countries in initiating or accelerating economic and social development. All technical cooperation agencies have the long-range

objectives of assisting people of other countries improve agricultural production, increase educational and health opportunities, and raising standards of living.

The types and status of U. S. technical cooperation training programs were investigated. A survey of 150 training program syllabi and interviews with training specialists revealed that the five major types of training programs were government, business, religious, voluntary and university. All programs could be classified as one of the five types.

The examination of the literature of training programs revealed that technical cooperation training programs have been characterized by a number of major problems in past years. One of these problems has been the limited training curriculum of U. S. training agencies. The survey indicated that many of the traditional areas of the training curriculum are being questioned by training officials as to their usefulness in the preparation of technicians. It was clearly indicated that the areas of the training curriculum need to be more clearly defined, changed, and re-evaluated in light of more fully meeting the needs of the technician and agencies involved in overseas work.

The major problem facing training program directors is the improvement of training program curricula which will assist in preparing technicians for more effective service abroad. The inadequate development of curricula for training technicians clearly indicated that a planned and integrated approach to the design and development of training program curricula was of the greatest importance, and that a planned and integrated

approach was necessary to successfully guide technicians in developing key understandings and skills contributing to overseas effectiveness.

The barriers to improved training programs as revealed in training literature are considerable. Pressures to develop "quick-result" programs have resulted in questionable preparation of many technicians. Scarce training materials, insufficient training staffs, and the great diversity of backgrounds of the trainees emphasize the need for comprehensive planning to make the most effective use of the resources available.

The major curriculum divisions and subject matter areas basic to technician preparation were determined by means of a review of training syllabi, training reports, and interviews with training specialists. All those dealing with the training of technicians were unanimous in agreement that the following are essential to technician preparation:

I. Technical and Professional Considerations.

1. Objectives and Philosophy of the Agency.
2. Administrative Considerations.
3. Resources of the Agency.
4. Development of Technical Skills.

II. Cross-Cultural Understandings

1. Cultural Adjustment.
2. Language Skills.
3. Resources of the Agency.
4. History and Culture of the U. S.
5. History and Culture of the Host Country.
6. World Ideologies.
7. Inter-Cultural Relations.

III. Developmental Processes.

1. Technician-Counterpart Relations.
2. Institution Building.
3. Program Development.
4. Technological Change.
5. Economic Development

Specific examples of the types of understandings and skills which could be developed from each curriculum area were given in the chapters treating each major curriculum division.

The curriculum offerings of U. S. training programs were determined through a survey of the training program syllabi of the five major types of U. S. training agencies. The survey served to check the extent to which training programs covered basic curriculum areas. Only a few of the programs treated all of the basic curriculum areas in technician orientation. The evidence from the examination of major training agency syllabi clearly indicated that the voluntary, religious, government, and business training programs are especially deficient in their treatment of the basic curriculum areas. In order to up-grade training curricula, the basic curriculum areas essential to technician preparation must be integrated into the training programs of the majority of U. S. agencies. The revision of current training curriculums was revealed as a great need in today's preparation of technicians.

The priorities of important curriculum areas in technician preparation were determined by means of a questionnaire survey of the judgments of training specialists with respect to priorities of curriculum areas. The results clearly indicated that the areas of agency objectives and philosophy,

administrative considerations, and agency resources are the curriculum areas in the professional and technical division which should receive top training priorities. It was also clearly indicated that the curriculum areas of cultural adjustment, language skills, and inter-cultural relations should be allotted high training priorities in the cross-cultural division. In developmental processes areas institution building, technological change, and technician-counterpart relations were considered of the greatest importance. It was apparent that the respondents encountered some difficulty in differentiating the extent of importance between many of the curriculum areas. This would seem to indicate there may still be some variance of opinion among training specialists as to the curriculum areas which should be more strongly emphasized during U. S. training programs.

Training authorities strongly feel that much needs to be done in up-grading the training curriculums of U. S. technical cooperation agencies. If training directors are interested in concentrating program resources to improve training curriculums, the first step would be to emphasize the curriculum areas of the philosophy and objectives of the agency, agency resources, administrative considerations, cultural adjustment, language skills, inter-cultural relations, institution building, and technological change in current training programs. Training specialists indicated these areas should receive high training priority.

Conclusions

From the summary findings the following conclusions were drawn.

1. Most U. S. technical cooperation training programs have not adequately prepared technicians for overseas service. The inadequate attention given in training programs to certain basic curriculum areas such as cross-cultural and developmental processes has made it impossible to do an effective job in preparing technicians.

2. In the basic curriculum areas the lack of provision for the development of specific key understandings and skills for technician preparation is characteristic of most current training efforts. Until training programs stress the understandings and skills known to contribute to technician effectiveness, U. S. training programs will continue to inadequately train their overseas representatives.

3. A planned and integrated approach to the design and development of training program curricula is paramount if training program directors are to successfully guide technicians in learning the key understandings and skills contributing to overseas effectiveness. Thus an organized drive for improved curriculum offerings is a great necessity in the preparation of today's overseas technicians.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings, the following recommendations are submitted for those interested in the initiation, design, planning, and development of training programs for overseas technicians.

1. That the proposed curriculum outline include divisions, subject matter areas, and key understandings and skills serve as a guide in assisting training program directors interested in initiating, designing, or improving overseas training programs.

2. That business, voluntary, religious, government, and university training programs should concentrate agency resources in the incorporation of basic curriculum areas in their programs. Special consideration and emphasis should be given to those curriculum areas which training specialists have given high training priorities.

3. That financial and staff limitations of religious and voluntary agencies restrict the development of training programs which might encompass major curriculum areas. Efforts should be directed toward developing cooperative training programs with similar agencies or with universities engaged in this type of orientation.

4. That the U. S. government should be encouraged to establish some type of clearing house or training office to assist in the exchange of training resources and the development of joint training programs. This role might also include federal grants to encourage the development and improvement of present training programs.

5. That similar efforts be developed with the United Nations and other countries engaged in technical cooperation work.

6. That research efforts need to be directed toward an exploration of joint overseas training programs.

7. That further research in the area of key understandings and skills contributing to the success of the overseas technician needs to be conducted. A number of understandings and skills are known to contribute to overseas effectiveness; however, the relationships of many understandings and skills remains unclear and ill-defined.

8. That research efforts need to be directed toward an investigation of the method of recruitment and selection of overseas technicians. This should also include a study of the personal qualifications of each recruit and the possible relationship to overseas effectiveness.

9. That training should be viewed as a continuous process, and that followup training in the field would be a part of this commitment.

10. That there is a need for comprehensive planning to make the most effective use of resources. This includes the need for a long-range program for the preparation of training materials, the development of skilled training staffs, and development of training techniques which are shaped to the needs of the individual agency.

11. That there is a need for the development of a comprehensive training plan. This would include an appraisal of time needed for training and plans in the range of desirable alternatives of the weeks of training needed by different personnel.

The answers to the forementioned problems will assist the designers of future training programs. Much remains to be done to assist overseas representatives of technical cooperation agencies gain the prerequisite understandings and skills for effective overseas performance. When this is accomplished, then the concept of technical cooperation as the "greatest idea" to emerge in the twentieth century may be fulfilled.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Survey of Key Understandings and Skills Basic to Training Programs

Letter Requesting Copy of Syllabus

January 2, 1963

Training Program Director

Dear Sir:

I am interested in obtaining any information your agency may have regarding the training of overseas technicians. A training program syllabus of your agency would be most helpful.

We are conducting a study to determine the curriculum areas which are basic to the preparation of overseas technicians. The study will also include an investigation of the priorities which should be assigned to curriculum areas in technician preparation. We anticipate that this study will be of value to those charged with the responsibility of planning and directing training programs for overseas technicians.

Any additional information you may have which is pertinent to the problem will be appreciated, as well as any comments you may wish to make. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Thomas F. Trail

Letter Requesting Cooperation of Authorities

January 31, 1963

Authority

Dear Sir:

I am interested in obtaining information regarding the curriculum areas which are basic in the preparation of overseas technicians. This has been universally recognized by authorities in the field of technical cooperation as a major problem.

Enclosed you will find a list of important curriculum areas derived from training program syllabi and literature in the field of technical cooperation. Specific understandings relating to each curriculum area are located under each curriculum heading. Would you please comment as to the adequacy or inadequacy of the curriculum outline especially in regard to the specific subject matter areas listed under each curriculum division. Additional space has been left under each major area for you to make additional comments.

Any additional information you may have which is pertinent to the problem will be appreciated, as well as any comments you may wish to make. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Thomas F. Trail

Note: Copy of curriculum outline - see Appendix C

List of Authorities in Technical Cooperation Surveyed to Determine Whether or Not Curriculum Areas are Basic to U. S. Training Programs

Aguirre, Mike, Interview with Associate Peace Corps Representative, Loja, Ecuador.

Baird, Gene, Interview with Peace Corps Director in Peru, Quito, Ecuador.

Baty, Dr. Harvey, Interview with Representative of the President for Overseas Programs at Purdue University, Bozeman, Montana

Barnard, Dale, Interview with Director of Operations of Heifer Project, Inc., Philadelphia, Pa.

Blakesley, Joe, Interview with Wycliff Institute Agricultural Missionary, Limoncocha, Ecuador.

Boyce, William, Interview with Independent Church Missionary, Manta, Ecuador.

Brown, L. B., Interview with Economic Adviser to the President, Washington, D. C.

Braun, Gene, Interview with Agricultural Missionary for the Presbyterian Church, Quito, Ecuador.

Carrasco, David, Interview with Contractors Overseas Representative for Springfield College, Quito, Ecuador.

Chambers, Raphel, CARE Representative, Quito, Ecuador.

Chavez, David, Interview with Representative of General Feeds Company, Guayaquil, Ecuador.

Chacon, Gonzalo, Interview with Ecuadorean National 4-F Club Director, Quito, Ecuador.

Conger, George, Interview with Personnel Manager of General Tire Company, Cuenca, Ecuador.

Cosgriffee, Harry, Interview with Washington State Assistant Extension Director, Pullman, Washington.

Daughters, Donald, Interview with Director of AID in Ecuador, Quito, Ecuador.

Doke, Cliff, Interview with International Voluntary Service Program Director, Bozeman, Montana

Edmonson, Hank, CARE Representative, Quito, Ecuador.

Foster, George, Interview with California Anthropologist, Bozeman, Montana.

Gaylord, Clinton, Interview with Former Director of Far East 4-H Club Programs, Fort Collins, Colorado.

Gray, Bob, Interview with AID Program Specialist, Quito, Ecuador.

Griffin, Robert, Interview with Associate Peace Corps Representative to Thailand, Quito, Ecuador.

Gswhend, William, Interview with Associate Peace Corps Representative, Guayaquil, Ecuador.

Hoffman, Eric, Interview with Deputy Peace Corps Director, Quito, Ecuador.

Krepps, George, Interview with Brethern Agricultural Missionary, Quito, Ecuador.

Kaplan, Steven, Interview with Peace Corps Doctor, Quito, Ecuador.

Knerium, George, Interview with AID Village Development Specialist, Washington, D. C.

Leon, Jaime, Interview with Spanish Instructor, Cuenca, Ecuador.

Kassenbaum, Fred, Interview with FAO Director, Quito, Ecuador.

Marin, Dr. Andrade, Interview with Minister of Education, Quito, Ecuador.

Metzger, Thurl, Interview with Director of Heifer Project, Inc., North Manchester, Indiana.

Monroe, Robert, Interview with Peace Corps Doctor, Quito, Ecuador.

Mora, Jaime, Interview with Director of the General Tire Co., Cuenca, Ecuador.

Nichols, Les, Interview with Director of International Programs for the National 4-H Club Foundation, Washington, D. C.

Noffsinger, Dr. J. S., Interview with Peace Corps Consultant, Washington, D. C.

Ochoa, Gonzalo, Interview with Language Professor at the University of Cuenca, Cuenca, Ecuador.

Pines, Jim, Interview with Assistant Peace Corps Officer for the Latin American Area, Washington, D. C.

Porter, Ward, Interview with Federal Extension Evaluator, Washington, D. C.

Post, Dick, Interview with Peace Corps Educational Consultant.

Rose, Paul, Interview with Former U. S. Ambassador to Nepal, Washington, D. C.

Ruales, Leo, Interview with Food for Peace Officer, Quito, Ecuador.

Shuart, Ed, Interview with AID Livestock and Program Development Specialist, Quito, Ecuador.

Schmidt, Warren, Interview with FAO Specialist, Washington, D. C.

Schultz, Donald, Interview with AID Livestock Specialist, Quito, Ecuador.

Smith, F. R., Interview with Deputy AID Director, Quito, Ecuador.

Smith, John, Peace Corps Director in the Dominican Republic, Cuenca, Ecuador.

Sotomayor, Eduardo, Interview with Assistant Contractors Overseas Representative/Heifer Project, Quito, Ecuador.

Standley, Robert, Interview with Deputy Peace Corps Director in Brazil, Quito, Ecuador.

Stone, Paul, Heifer Project Representative in Mexico, Mexico City, Mexico.

Torres, Thomas, Interview with Associate Peace Corps Representative, Ibarra, Ecuador.

Uribe, German, Interview with The National Director of Extension, Quito, Ecuador.

Vaughn, Jack, Interview with former Assistant Secretary of State, Washington, D. C.

Wallerman, Gustav, ANCO Representative, Riobamba, Ecuador

Walsh, John, Interview with PC volunteer, Loja, Ecuador.

Wanless, Bill, CUNA Representative, Quito, Ecuador.

Interview Guide with Authorities During Field Visits

1. Adequacy, coverage, and priorities of basic curriculum areas.

2. Additional curriculum areas which are basic to preparing technicians for overseas service.

3. Insights from your experience relating to the stated problem.

4. Literature in the field which you would recommend.

5. Training programs which you feel would provide valuable information and background in regard to the stated problem.

6. Other authorities in the technical cooperation field whom you feel would have the experience and insight to help me explore this problem.

List of 30 Authorities Interviewed in Regard to Whether or Not Supportive Subject Matter Areas are Basic to U. S. Training Programs

Aguirre, Mike
Peace Corps Representative
Loja, Ecuador

Baird, Gene
PC Director in Peru
Lima, Peru

Baty, Dr. Harvey
Office of the President
Purdue University
Lafayette, Indiana

Barnard, Dale
Heifer Project
Upper Darby, Pa.

Blakesley, Joe
Agricultural Missionary
Limoncocha, Ecuador

Braun, Gene
Agricultural Missionary
Quito, Ecuador

Brown, L. B.
Economic Advisor to the President
Washington, D. C.

Carrasco, David
COR/Springfield College
Quito, Ecuador

Chambers, Raphel
CARE Representative
Cuenca, Ecuador

Chavez, David
General Feeds Co. Representative
Guayaquil, Ecuador

Chacon, Gonzalo
4-F Club Director
Quito, Ecuador

Conger, George
General Tire Rubber Co.
Personnel Manager
Cuenca, Ecuador

Cosgriffee, Harry
Assistant Extension Director
Washington State University
Pullman, Washington

Edmonson, Hank
CARE Representative
Quito, Ecuador

Gaylord, Clinton
International 4-H Programs
Colorado State University
Fort Collins, Colorado

Gray, Bob
AID Program Specialist
Quito, Ecuador

Gswhend, William
Associate Peace Corps Representative
Guayaquil, Ecuador

Kaplan, Steven
Peace Corps Doctor
Quito, Ecuador

Knerium, George
Village Development Specialist
AID
Washington, D. C.

Krepps, George
Brethern Agricultural Missionary
Quito, Ecuador

Kassenbaum, Fred
FAO Director
Quito, Ecuador

Mora, Jaime
Director of General Tire Co.
Cuenca, Ecuador

Noffsinger, Dr. J. S.
Peace Corps Consultant
Washington, D. C.

Post, Dick
Peace Corps Consultant
Washington, D. C.

Schmidt, Warren
FAO Specialist
Washington, D. C.

Schultz, Donald
AID Livestock Specialist
Cochabama, Bolivia

Shuart, Ed
AID Livestock and Program Specialist
Quito, Ecuador

Smith, John
Peace Corps Director
Dominican Republic
Quito, Ecuador

Sotomayor, Eduardo
Heifer Project Representative
Quito, Ecuador

Torres, Tom
Associate Peace Corps Representative
Ibarra, Ecuador

APPENDIX B

Training Programs in Technical Cooperation

U. S. Business Training Programs

Alco Products, Inc.
G. Y. Taylor, Director
of Personnel Services
Schenectady 5, New York

American Institute for Foreign Trade
Thunderbird Field
Phoenix, Arizona

Anaconda Company
Personnel Director
25 Broadway
New York 6, New York

American Management Association
Fred Pamp, Vice-President
Saranac, New York

Bank of America
Personnel Director
San Francisco 6, California

Burroughs Corporation
Personnel Coordinator
Box 299
Detroit, Michigan

Business Council for International
Management
Training Programs
Washington 6, D. C.

Business Council for International
Understanding
660 First Avenue
New York 16, New York

Columbia University
Management Programs for Industry
New York 17, New York

Experiment in International Living
Corporation Ambassador
Putney, Vermont

Food Machinery Company
Personnel Director
San Jose 8, California

First National Bank
399 Park Avenue
New York 7, New York

General Tire and Rubber Co.
Englewood Avenue
Akron, Ohio

Goodyear International Corporation
1144 E. Market Street
Akron 16, Ohio

International Harvester Company
180 N. Michigan
Chicago 1, Illinois

J. I. Case Company
700 State Street
Racine, Wisconsin

Minnesota Mining
Overseas Director
900 Bush Avenue
St. Paul 3, Minnesota

Merck, Sharp & Dohme
161 6th Avenue
New York 7, New York

New York University
Brazilian Orientation
6 Washington Square
New York 3, New York

Pan American Airways
Overseas Employment
Miami 59, Florida

Price Waterhouse and Company
60 Broad Street
New York 4, New York

San Francisco State College
International Business Program
San Francisco, California

Schering Corporation
5600 W. Roosevelt Rd.
Chicago 50, Illinois

Sinclair Oil Company
600 Fifth Avenue
New York 20, New York

Singer Sewing Machine Company
30 Rockerfeller Plaza
New York 3, New York

Sunbeam Corporation
Personnel Director
5600 W. Roosevelt Rd.
Chicago 50, Illinois

Union Carbide Corporation
Overseas Manager
270 Park Avenue
New York 17, New York

W. R. Grace and Company
W. R. Rockford, Personnel
Specialist
3 Harper Square
New York 3, New York

Worthington Corporation
99 Park Avenue
New York 16, New York

U. S. Government Training Programs

Agency for International Development
Kurt Falk
Washington 25, D. C.

Air Force Overseas Employment Office
Washington 25, D. C.

Atomic Energy Commission
Overseas Employment
Washington 25, D. C.

Department of the Army
Office of Civilian Personnel
Washington 25, D. C.

Department of Commerce
Personnel Director
Washington 35, D. C.

Department of the Interior
Overseas Employment
Washington 25, D. C.

Department of Labor
Overseas Employment
Washington 25, D. C.

Department of the Navy
Overseas Employment Office
Washington 25, D. C.

Department of State
Staff Orientation
Washington 25, D. C.

Foreign Agricultural Service
Staff Orientation
Washington 25, D. C.

International Bank for Development
Overseas Orientation
Washington 25, D. C.

Peace Corps
Dick Post
Washington 25, D. C.

Public Health
Overseas Employment
Washington 25, D. C.

Trust Territory of the Pacific
Overseas Employment
Washington 25, D. C.

United States Information Agency
Overseas Employment
Washington 25, D. C.

U. S. Religious Training Programs

Agricultural Missions, Inc.
Cornell University
Benton Rhodes
Ithaca, New York

American Jewish Joint Distribution Comm.
Rabbi Hugo Gryn
3 East 54th Street
New York 22, New York

Brethern Service Commission
1451 Dundee Avenue
Elgin, Illinois

Catholic Relief Services
350 Fifty Avenue
New York 1, New York

Church World Service
Overseas Director
475 Riverside Drive
New York 27, New York

Congregational Christian Service Comm.
Overseas Director
110 East 29th Street
New York 16, New York

Church World Service
John B. Weir, Director
375 Riverside Drive
New York 27, New York

Baptist Southern Convention
Bill Dyal
Box 6597
Richmond, Virginia

Gulfshore Baptist
Overseas Director
Pass Christian, Mississippi

Home and Foreign Missions Department
African Methodist Church
122 West 120th Street
New York 27, New York

Hartford Seminary Foundation
Maurice Hohlfeld, Director
Hartford 5, Connecticut

International Catholic Auxilliaries
Nadie Sachse
1734 Asbury
Evanston, Illinois

Maryknoll Sisters
Sister Mary Francisia
Maryknoll, New York

Methodist Committee for Overseas Work
G. P. Warfield, Secretary
25 Riverside Drive
New York 27, New York

Missionary Doctors Association
Overseas Director
Los Angeles 15, California

Maryknoll Missioners
Rev. John W. Comber
Maryknoll, New York

Mennonite Committee
Overseas Director
Lancaster, Pa.

Methodist Church, Board of Missions
Roland W. Schott, Exec. Dir.
Division of World Missions
475 Riverside Drive
New York 27, New York

National Lutheran Council
Bernard A. Confer, Secretary
50 Madison Avenue
New York 10, New York

General Council of the Assemblies of God
Noel Perkin, Dean
School of Missions
1445 Boonville Avenue
Springfield, Missouri

Seventh Day Adventist Welfare Service
Personnel Director
6840 Easter Avenue, N. W.
Washington 12, D. C.

Missionary Orientation Center
Paul Yount, Director
Stony Point, New York

MEDICO
K. L. Hastings
1710 M. Street, N. W.
Washington 6, D. C.

Near East Foundation
Lyle J. Hayden, Director
54 East 64th Street
New York 21, New York

National Council of Women of the USA
Mrs. Haines, Director
345 46th Street
New York 17, New York

Operations Crossroads Africa
Dr. James Robinson
150 Fifth Street
New York 11, New York

Rockefeller Foundation
111 West 50th Street
New York 20, New York

Technico
Robert Morrow, Director
73 Chatworth Avenue
Warwick, Rhode Island

W. K. Kellogg Foundation
Emory Morris
250 Champion Street
Battle Creek, Michigan

World Neighbors, Inc.
Dr. Peters
1145 19th Street, N. W.
Washington 6, D. C.

Volunteers for International Development
Ray Magee, Executive Secretary
Auburn, Massachusetts

U. S. Voluntary Agency Training Programs

American Red Cross
Carolyn Moran, Director
Washington 6, D. C.

American Friends of the Middle East
David McDowell, Director
1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W.
Washington 7, D. C.

American Friends Service Committee
160 N. 15th Street
Philadelphia 2, Pa.

American-Korean Foundation
Dr. D. M. Frost, Director
345 East 46th Street
New York 17, New York

American International Association for Economic and Social Development
30 Rockefeller Plaza
New York 20, New York

American Foundation for the Overseas Blind
Robert Barnett
22 West 17th Street
New York 11, New York

African-American Institute
Harry Heintzen, Director
345 East 46th Street
New York 17, New York

Association for International Development
374 Grand Street
Paterson, New Jersey

Asia Foundation
200 East 42nd Street
New York 17, New York

American Association of University Women
Dr. Pauline Tompkins
2401 Virginia Avenue N. W.
Washington 27, D. C.

CARE
Bertram Smucker, Director
660 First Avenue
New York 16, New York

Council on Economic and Cultural Affairs
Virginia Locke
14 West 49th Street
New York 20, New York

Cooperative League
Merlin Miller, Director
343 South Dearborn Street
Chicago 4, Illinois

Ford Foundation
John Bresnan
477 Madison Avenue
New York 7, New York

Grail National Secretariat
Pauline Tompkins
Loveland, Ohio

Heifer Project, Inc.
Thurl Metzger, Director
N. Manchester, Indiana

International Development Services, Inc.
Alvin G. Edgell, Director
1270 Avenue of the Americas
New York 20, New York

Iran Foundation
Richard Weeks, Director
350 Fifth Avenue
New York 7, New York

International Voluntary Services
Dr. Russell Stevenson
3636 16th St., N. W.
Washington 10, D. C.

Lauback Literacy Fund
Lorenzo Weeks
235 East 22 Street
New York 10, New York

League of Women Voters
1026 17th Street, N. W.
Washington 6, D. C.

Koinoia Foundation
Overseas Director
Baltimore 8, Maryland

National Council of the Churches of Christ
W. W. Parkinson
475 Riverside Drive
New York 27, New York

Summer Missionary Studies
Drew University
Madison, New Jersey

Seventh Day Adventists
W. R. Beach, Secretary
Takoma Park, Maryland

Unitarian Service Committee
Frank Glick, Executive Director
9 Park Street
Boston 8, Massachusetts

United Church Board for Homeland Missions
Joseph Howell, Secretary
Philadelphia 2, Pa.

United Hias Service
James Rice
425 Lafayette Street
New York 3, New York

United Church Board for World Ministries
Robbins Strong
475 Riverside Drive
New York 27, New York

United States Conference for the World Council of Churches
Eleanor Bowe, Administrative Secretary
475 Riverside Drive
New York 27, New York

United Board for Christian Higher Education
Abigail Hoffsommer
475 Riverside Drive
New York 27, New York

Young Christian Workers
Gerald King, President
1655 Jackson Street
Chicago 12, Illinois

U. S. University Training Programs

American University
School of International Services
Professor Ralph W. Powell

Boston University
Dr. John D. Montgomery
Boston 15, Mass.

California Polytechnic Institute
AID Contracts Officer
San Luis Obispo, California

Colorado State University
Institute in Training for World Service
Professor Roy C. Nelson
Fort Collins, Colorado

Cornell University
Rural Education Department
Dr. John M. Hunter
Ithaca, New York

Iowa State University
International Programs
Ames, Iowa

Duke University
Professor D. Hart
Durham, North Carolina

Georgetown University
Foreign Service Department
37th and N. Street, N. W.
Washington 7, D. C.

Texas A & M
Office of Foreign Programs
Professor Jack D. Gray
College Station, Texas

Tufts University
School of Law and Diplomacy
Medford 55, Mass.

Michigan State University
Dr. John M. Hunter
East Lansing, Michigan

Syracuse University
Maxwell Graduate School
Gerald Mangone
Syracuse, New York

University of California
International Service in Agriculture
Davis, California

University of Illinois
AID/Contracts Officer
Urbana, Illinois

University of Idaho
AID/Contracts Officer
Moscow, Idaho

University of Hawaii
Professor Tom Hamilton
Honolulu 14, Hawaii

University of Oregon
President Arthur S. Fleming
Eugene, Oregon

University of Pittsburgh
Chancellor Edward Litchfield
Pittsburgh 13, Pa.

University of Michigan
Professor Arthur Dunham
Ann Arbor, Michigan

University of New Mexico
AID/Contracts Officer
Albequerque, New Mexico

University of Kansas
AID Contracts Officer
Lawrence, Kansas

Vanderbilt University
Dr. Reynold Carlson
Nashville 5, Tennessee

Yale University
Dr. A. Griswold
New Haven, Conn.

APPENDIX C

Communications Concerning the Questionnaire

Letter Accompanying Questionnaire to Authorities
in Technical Cooperation

May 11, 1963

Authority:

Program directors preparing technicians for overseas work have been concerned with a number of important problems. The question of what curriculum areas should be included in training programs for overseas technicians is the area with which I am concerned. It is apparent that understandings and skills contributing to technician effectiveness can be developed from certain curriculum areas presented to technicians during training. The question of what curriculum areas should be included in U. S. orientation programs and the priorities which should be accorded them is the problem with which I am concerned.

This is the basic problem area to which I am directing my study. I hope through a systematic study to come up with a set of basic curriculum areas which will help form a curriculum outline encompassing key understandings and skills which can be utilized by training program directors to improve current training efforts. To date I have reviewed the literature in the training field and over 100 training program syllabi. I have also interviewed 50 authorities in the field of technical cooperation with respect to basic curriculum areas. From this research a total of three basic curriculum divisions and related curriculum areas have been derived which appear to be important in the preparation of overseas technicians.

Would you please rank the priority or relative importance which should be accorded each curriculum area under each training division heading. Complete directions are to be found on page one of the questionnaire. When you complete the questionnaire, please return it in the enclosed self-addressed envelope.

Thanking you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Thomas F. Trail
Graduate Fellow
Montana State College
Bozeman, Montana

A FOLLOW-UP CARD

Dear Sir:

This is just a friendly reminder in regard to your completing my questionnaire on key priorities accorded important curriculum areas in U. S. training program for overseas technicians on or before July 1st.

I hope this card and the questionnaire pass each other in the mail.

Your help is needed and greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Thomas F. Trail

Priorities of Important Curriculum Areas in the Preparation of Overseas Technicians

Background: Technical cooperation activities have been carried out by American governmental, religious, voluntary, foundation, and business groups all over the world. The success of these technical cooperation activities depends in part on the performance of the overseas technician. In order to insure the success of the technician many American agencies have developed training programs. Many important curriculum areas have been determined to be basic in technician orientation; however, the priorities which should be accorded these areas in training is still a question stimulating much debate.

Problem: One of the major problems in this investigation is to determine the priorities of important curriculum areas in the training of overseas technicians.

Directions: The curriculum divisions and subject matter areas basic to technician preparation have been determined and are encompassed in the questionnaire. The basic curriculum outline was determined through a survey of training program syllabi and training literature and interviews with training specialists. The chief purpose of the investigation is to determine the training priorities which should be allotted these curriculum areas. This study is limited to: (1) those technicians involved in technical cooperation work overseas, and (2) training programs conducted in the U. S.

1. Each curriculum area is listed under a general heading or curriculum division. There are three main curriculum divisions with major subject areas located under each division.

2. To the left hand side of each curriculum area is a space for ranking or noting the priority each subject area should receive within each division. Rank the curriculum area which in your judgment should receive the highest training priority in the appropriate division with a one(1), then two (2), second most important, etc. and so forth, in descending order of importance.

3. A list of definitions explaining terms used in the questionnaire is attached.

4. A number of supporting areas are listed under each curriculum area in order to provide clarification as to some of the types of understandings that can be developed in training programs.

5. The last page of the questionnaire is a brief outline of all curriculum divisions and major subject matter areas. Please place your final rankings concerning curriculum area priorities on this page.

6. Please place the completed questionnaire in the stamped self-addressed envelope and return it as soon as possible.

7. Again, thank you for your cooperation.

Questionnaire--Priorities Assigned to Major Curriculum Areas in U. S. Training Programs

Directions:

Directions are given in the front attachment. Remember to rank or give priorities to curriculum areas within each major division. Supporting areas are listed under each major division. Supporting areas are listed under each major area to give you supplemental information concerning each major area. Use the back sheet with the curriculum outline to mark your final rankings.

Professional and Technical Considerations

____1. An understanding of the philosophy and objectives of the employing agency assists the technician in carrying out the assignment of the agency.

a. The historical background and development of the agency reflects the overall philosophy and objectives of its program.

b. An understanding of the long and short run goals of the agency provides the technician with a frame of reference for carrying out the program of work.

c. The policy making relationship of the agency is essentially implementing program objectives in the host country.

____2. An understanding of the procedures and methods of operation of the agency provides the technician with guidelines in the implementation of the program of the agency.

a. An understanding of the administrative techniques and procedures of the agency strengthens the overall performance of the field operation.

b. An understanding of inter-organization operations enables the technician to more effectively coordinate program responsibilities.

c. An understanding of the assignment of the agency in the host country clarifies the relationship of the technician to the program in the host country.

d. An understanding of the role of cooperating institutions assists the technician in developing cooperative programs within the country.

_____3. An understanding of the employing agency resources assists the technician in the implementation of the program.

a. An understanding of the resources available in the field, with cooperating agencies and in the home office enables the technician to make realistic resource allocation to program development.

b. An understanding of how to identify and effectively utilize resources provides the technician with a realistic framework in allocating resources to program development.

c. An understanding of the context within which resources will be allocated is essential in the successful execution of the program.

_____4. Training in individual technical skills is primarily concerned with enabling the technician to understand how to adapt past and present skills and information to projects designed for a predominately non-technological society.

a. Further technical skills development should provide the technician with the understanding of how to adapt these learnings to the new job situation.

b. An understanding of the processes of problem solving geared to the cultural context of the host country should enable the technician to more effectively carry out the agency assignment.

c. An understanding of how to determine the difference in the working situation between the new environment and the one he is used to should assist the technician in carrying out more effectively his professional responsibilities.

Cross-Cultural Understandings

_____1. An understanding of how to adjust to the psychological-social problems encountered in another culture is to understand why a custom, belief, system, or ideology differ between two cultures.

a. An understanding of cultural empathy is important in maintaining cultural identity and establishing rapport in the host country.

b. An understanding of how to deal effectively with health problems assists the technician and his family in adjusting to the new environment.

c. The adjustment of the family of the technician to the new environment is a critical factor in the final adjustment and performance of the technician.

_____2. The performance of the technician is in part dependent upon his ability to communicate and understand ideas in the vernacular language.

a. An understanding of the vernacular language structure assists the technician develop a greater comprehension of the language.

b. An understanding of how to utilize the vernacular language in written communications aids the technician in carrying out program responsibilities.

c. An understanding of how to utilize the vernacular language with mass media provides the technician with a means of reaching people influenced by the program of the agency.

d. An understanding of the cultural cues which influence the use of the vernacular language aids the technician in developing greater comprehension of the language.

_____3. An understanding of group dynamics assists the technician to work with groups of people and to gain their participation in the program of the agency.

a. An understanding of group action and interaction provides the technician with guidelines in actively involving the people of the host country in agency programs.

b. An understanding of the methods of motivating people enables the technician to more fully develop the participation of local people in agency programs.

c. An understanding of perception and how it structures beliefs, values and interpersonal communications assists the technician to understand why people act and behave as they do.

d. An understanding of the decision-making process aids the technician in the development of participation and responsibility of local people in the programs of the agency.

____4. The understanding of how to interpret the institutional structures, values, cultural heritage and foreign policy of the U. S. assists the technician in becoming a more effective overseas representative.

a. An understanding of the historical development of the U. S. aids the technician in gaining greater insights into the evolution of democratic traditions.

b. An understanding of American culture enables the technician to develop a greater appreciation of his cultural heritage.

c. An understanding of the basic objectives of American foreign policy assists the technician gain a greater understanding of the international role of his country.

d. An understanding of the relation of the U. S. to the U. N. aids the technician in gaining a greater comprehension of the involvement of both in the program development of the host country.

____5. To understand and interpret the institutional structures, values, philosophy and history of the country of assignment provides the technician with the background upon which to relate his work to the host culture.

a. An understanding of the historical development of the host country provides the historical context within which the mission and its assignment will be viewed.

b. An understanding of the culture of the host country aids the technician in relating the agency program to the cultural whole.

c. An understanding of the basic objectives of the foreign policy of the host country provides the context for examining relations between the host country and other nations.

d. An understanding of the relationship of the host country to the U. N. provides the technician with insights into the international role of the host country.

_____6. An understanding of the various world ideologies guides the technician in carrying out his assignment by enabling him to relate his work to the developing ideologies of the host country.

a. An understanding of the psychology which underlies the ideologies other nations provides the basic context from which to view their evolution.

b. An understanding that nationalism is the driving force of developing countries assists the technician in relating the program of the agency within this context.

c. An understanding of the nature of Communism aids the technician in evaluating its operation and activity in the host country.

d. An understanding of the historical implications of colonialism assists the technician in understanding host country reaction to technical assistance programs of the great power nations.

_____7. The understanding that all people everywhere behave in accordance with patterns which they have learned in the process of growing up in society and which make sense to them as an overall design of living provides the technician with a primary frame of reference for planning directing a program of change. (Culture Concept)

a. An understanding that culture is learned provides the basic context by which the technician evaluates the host culture in terms of program development.

b. An understanding that culture is a logically integrated, functional, sense making whole signifies that a change cannot occur in one part without impinging on another.

c. An understanding that all cultures are constantly changing and that no culture is completely static provides the opportunities for implementing carefully designed programs.

d. An understanding that every culture has a value system also assumes that a technician must consider the ethics involved if traditional values are to be disturbed.

Developmental Processes

____1. The development of successful technician-counterpart relations are essential for the execution of the assignment of the mission.

a. An understanding that a mutual sharing of technical skill, knowledge and information between counterpart and technician are basic to the establishment of successful relations.

b. An understanding that the technician is fulfilling a consultant role assumes he is asked to advise not only on the technical aspects within his technical competence but also about ways and means of getting suggestions carried out.

c. The counterpart-technician role is shaped by the technical cooperation agency, the technician himself, requirements of the task to be fulfilled and the host government.

____2. The continued functioning of an on-going project after the withdrawal of the agency is dependent in part upon the understanding of the technician of the principles of institution building.

a. The establishment, adaptation and communication of institutional values in services and purposes as a group of variables focuses on the formulation and enunciation of the values and purposes of the institution.

b. The recruitment, behavior and succession of leadership in the host country are factors in obtaining and training personnel.

c. An understanding of the internal structure of the national agency concerns the internal distribution of roles and energy of the staff.

d. An understanding of the mobilization and allocation of agency resources may enable the technician to gain a greater insight into programming decisions.

e. A technician must have an understanding of the function of the agency in the social environment and in relation to complementary and competing institutions when they are attempting to influence in the direction of change.

____3. Implementation of the assignment of the agency is dependent in part upon the understanding by the technician of the elements of program development.

a. An understanding of how to determine, analyze and evaluate situation is the first step in planning a technical cooperation program.

b. An understanding of how to set program goals and objectives aids a technician in setting realistic program targets and priorities.

c. An understanding of how to identify, clarify and give priority to problems increases the probability that program goals may be achieved.

d. An understanding of how to organize and carry out a plan of action aids the technician in the execution of the program.

e. An understanding of how to evaluate the program of the agency provides the means of realistically evaluating the degree of success or failure of the program.

____4. An understanding of technological change is essential for the introduction of an innovation into a predominately non-technological society.

a. An understanding that agents of change must realize their own behavior, beliefs, and attitudes are not universal and axiomatic are essential considerations in planning a program of change.

b. An understanding that the beliefs and attitudes of the people among who they are working must be seen as having functional unity.

c. An understanding that any change must be examined from the point of view of the individuals who are exposed to the change is a primary consideration in the implementation of any program.

d. An understanding that any significant change in a culture tends to introduce some degree of instability or disharmony is a crucial factor in a program involving change.

_____5. An understanding of economic development enables a technician to visualize the role of his agency in the developing nation.

a. An understanding of the characteristics of an underdeveloped country provides the technician with the context to examine the social and economic implications affecting the host country.

b. An understanding of the change from a traditional to a modern society assists the technician in understanding the problems involved in the implementation of the program of the agency.

c. An understanding that investment in education and human resources is an indispensable prerequisite for future economic growth.

d. An understanding of U. S. technical assistance in newly developing countries creates an awareness of the role of the agency within the total development program of the host country.

Summary

Technical and Professional Understandings

_____1. Objectives and Philosophy of the Agency.

_____2. Procedures and Methods of Operation of the Agency.

_____3. Resources of the Agency.

_____4. Adaptation of Technical Skills.

Cross-Cultural Understandings

_____1. Cultural Adjustment.

_____2. Language.

_____3. Group Dynamics.

_____4. History and Culture of the U. S.

_____5. Area Studies.

_____6. World Ideologies.

_____7. The Culture Concept.

Development Processes Understandings

_____1. Technician-Counterpart Relations.

_____2. Institution Building.

_____3. Program Development.

_____4. Technological Change.

_____5. Economic Development.

Definitions

Technical Cooperation - the sharing of scientific and technical knowledge and skills among people. The process of helping each other adapt and use such knowledge and skills to achieve greater productivity and better utilization of resources, increase incomes, and raise standards of living.

Training Program - that period of orientation given a technician by an agency involved in international technical cooperation work. The training is given to the technician in the U. S. before his departure overseas.

Culture - the sum total of integrated learned behavior patterns which are characteristic of the members of a society and are therefore not a result of biological inheritance.

Cultural Shock - a malady, an occupational disease of people who have been suddenly transplanted abroad. Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing one's familiar cues.

Technological Change - the effect upon a culture and society brought about by the introduction of a new innovation.

Program Development - program development is an educational process and an attempt to do a thorough and systematic job of longer-range programming with the people. A continuous cooperative process of analyzing situations, setting objectives or goals, establishing priorities, implementing action and evaluating.

Institution Building - a principle job of the technical consultant is working to help build a viable social institution which will carry out the function he is concerned with. In this respect it is the building of a complex social system which incorporates values and discharges services to the community.

Economic Development - the study which involves the application of economic principles developed in the West on the basis of societies permeated by a money economy, culture, and society which are largely individualized to countries whose economy, attitudes and institutions are significantly different from those with which we are familiar. It includes a knowledge of development as a process.

Professional and Technical Understandings - the training program area which normally includes a knowledge of the employing agency's philosophy and objectives, methods of operation, resources, and the development of technical skills with which the technician will carry out the program of the agency.

Development Processes - those fundamental processes of development that a technician will take an active part in the host country. It is of the fundamental processes of development that a technician must develop the appropriate understandings and skills of application which will help him to relate his role, and his field of service, to the broader problems of growth and modernization in the underdevelopment countries.

Understanding - to comprehend fully the implication of a situation and have a consequently tolerant or sympathetic attitude.

Skill - anything that the individual has learned to do with ease and precision; may be either a physical or a mental performance. In this paper may be considered to be the application of key understandings by the technician in the training environment or overseas setting. Example-language skill-the demonstrated competency in the use of the language.

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