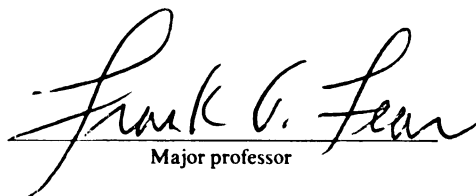This is to certify that the

dissertation entitled

TOWARD IMPROVED RURAL DEVELOPMENT
MANAGEMENT IN THE PHILIPPINES:
A MANAGEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM

presented by

Mervyn Juarez Misajon

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. _____ degree in Resource Development

_____
Major professor

Date August 2, 1983

TOWARD IMPROVED RURAL DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

IN THE PHILIPPINES:

A MANAGEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM

By

Mervyn Juarez Misajon

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Resource Development

1983

ABSTRACT

TOWARD IMPROVED RURAL DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT IN THE PHILIPPINES:

A MANAGEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM

By

Mervyn Juarez Misajon

There is a sense of urgency and growing acceptance among theoreticians and practitioners of rural development regarding the importance of the management component in the development process. It is widely held that efforts towards improving rural conditions have not been too successful and, in some instances, even worsened conditions. Managerial deficiencies, among other factors, have been partially responsible for the lack of success.

Training, specifically management education, is one way of alleviating the problem and is the focus of this study. The study embarks on the design of a management curriculum for current and future middle-level managers that would be applicable to Third World nations, in general, and the Philippines, in particular.

To design the curriculum, a literature search on the tasks and roles of current and future middle-level or project managers was conducted and, based on the findings, relevant concepts, skills, and attitudes required of them, identified. Content and learning

experiences were then selected and organized with a view towards subsequent evaluation.

The main findings of this study are: (1) the concept of development has evolved from definitions that solely centered on economics and currently include notions of social justice, equitable distribution of wealth, and citizen participation; (2) the tasks and roles of current managers of rural development are different from their counterparts in the West due mainly to the differences in cultures, and the differences in national priorities, i.e., more development-oriented than maintenance; (3) there are three interrelated, often conflicting, areas of managerial concern where these tasks and roles are applied, viz., the program, the organization, and the community; (4) there is an urgent need for citizen participation in national planning and implementation. Therefore, community development is needed to mobilize the people towards becoming productive and independent decision-making units.

The conclusions drawn from the study revolve around strengthening the education of rural development managers by training them in the newer conceptions on development, on the three areas of concern, and in community development. The implications from such conclusions involve a rethinking of present values and a search for indigenous managerial systems, a restructuring of present bureaucratic structures, and devolution of powers to the community.

To The Filipino People: This dissertation is the first of my
humble offerings towards a brighter future for us all.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A completed dissertation is the product of many minds and a symbol of the culmination of years of study. It is, for me, a tribute to all of the people who have influenced my thinking and feeling in the course of my study. It is, therefore, virtually impossible to thank all of those who directly or indirectly have helped me complete this study. I would, however, like to acknowledge those whom I would say, contributed the most.

As the director of a play is a "god" to his performers, so is the major professor to his advisee. Prof. Frank Fear has been many things to me. He has been my major professor, study director, mentor, sounding board for ideas, facilitator, editor, a role model of a teacher, and the ultimate strategist. He was patient with me, generous with his time, and always "pulled through" for me. I am, therefore, honored to have been his student and personally indebted for the good things he has shown me.

I am grateful to my committee members, Prof. Milton Steinmueller, Prof. Larry Lezotte, and Prof. Peter Gladhart for giving me support and encouragements when most needed.

I am thankful to Chancellor Javier & staff, Dean Pedro R. Sandoval and staff, and the late Chancellor Abelardo G. Samonte for believing in me and for providing me the much needed home support.

I am thankful to Dr. Edgardo Quisumbing & staff of the Ministry of Agriculture, Dr. William J. Jorns & staff of Kansas State University, and the US Agency for International Development, for providing me with an opportunity to have been educated in my field and in another culture.

Thanks also to Pam Eder and Nora Beckett for helping me with the preparation of my dissertation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

MANAGEMENT EDUCATION AS A CONTRIBUTING FACTOR TO EFFECTIVE

RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD

Focus on Rural Development Management

One of the most important challenges faced by less developed countries (LDC's) today is the management of rural development programs. Contemporary theoreticians and practitioners of rural development are concerned about the failure of programs to bring about significant improvements in rural life (McCallum, 1982; FAO, 1975; Lele, 1975). Rural poverty, both in absolute and relative terms, has persisted (Inayatullah, 1973; Hunter, 1978). Some studies indicate that, given the tremendous financial investments in such programs by national governments and external donors, the impact on absolute poverty has been unexpectedly marginal and, in some cases, has actually increased the inequalities and reinforced the pre-existing inegalitarian rural social structures (Inayatullah, 1973).

Case histories of rural development programs reveal a wide variety of reasons why programs have failed (see for example, Ahmed and Coombs, 1975; Borton, 1967; Bunting, 1970; De Wilde, 1967; Hunter et. al., 1976; Lele, 1975; Nelson, 1973; Niehoff, 1966; Sheffield and Diejomaoh, 1972; Fisher, 1972; and Moris, 1981). Reasons that have been advanced include:

1. The program itself, i.e., inadequacies in the planning, implementation and evaluation phases;

2. The clients, i.e., inadequacies in stimulating citizen involvement or participation;

3. The implementing organization(s), i.e., structural deficiencies, coordination and integration incapability, leadership and staffing adequacies; and

4. The environment, i.e., unanticipated effects on, or impacts of, the social, economic, political, environmental, and technological systems.

All of these lead to, or imply, what Stifel, et. al. (1977) have called a management crisis--a problem that is gaining awareness and widespread recognition among scholars and practitioners of rural development. This crisis is attributed to the lack of management or administrative capability that serves as a major constraint in the implementation of national programs (Stiffel, et. al., 1977).

The Issue of Administrative Capability

Administrative capability may be defined as an organization's capability to convert or process critical inputs of a program into certain outputs (Iglesias, 1976). Inputs could be generally categorized into:

1. Resources---human and non-human components (personnel, fundings, equipment, materials, etc.);

2. Structure---organizational roles and relationships that are program relevant, prescribed legally or informally;

3. Technology---knowledge and behavior essential for the operation of the organization and also for the program itself; and

4. Support---the range of actual or potential roles and behavior or persons and entities which tend to promote achievement of goals.

Experience with development efforts has shown two closely related factors necessary for the achievement of development goals: 1) the government's ability to design and carry out strategies for

macro-economic growth; and 2) its capacity to increase the productivity and fulfill the basic needs of a majority of its population in an equitable fashion (Rondinelli and Mandell, 1981). The burden of responsibility, which has been placed on governments in developing nations, has led to an over-stretching of their resources to plan and implement rural development programs.

The poor administration of government-sponsored programs has been largely responsible for the failure of such programs to achieve their objectives (McCallum, 1982). Avasthi and Maheswari (1966) have called it an administrative lag—the imbalance that exists between aspirations and performance and, consequently, constitutes a major obstacle to national development.

The Shortage of Trained Manpower

One requisite of management or administrative capability is the presence of trained manpower to plan and implement projects. However, in most developing countries today, there is an acute shortage of trained manpower. This has been viewed as a critical deficiency by the World Bank, FAO, the Foundations, and other organizations that are committed to, and involved in, rural development efforts.

There are various reasons for the absence of trained manpower in developing countries. First, the tremendous expansion of investments in agriculture and rural development in many countries has exacerbated the manpower scarcities for planning and implementing projects (Israel, 1978). The World Bank in 1975 described the supply of indigenous supervisory and managerial staff as chronically short in most developing

countries. It also viewed the shortage as perhaps the most serious obstacle to large-scale rural development efforts.

Another reason is the poor conditions of service. Salaries for government employees are generally low (Jiggins, 1977; Maddick, 1963). The low salaries often affect the quality of personnel recruited. Most talented managers are either pirated away by private businesses (who offer better pay) or make a conscious effort to join such corporations. Related to salaries are poor promotion prospects and the lack of job security. It is generally accepted that promotion in government service is slow and that the systems of rewards are poor. In some countries, employees are still arbitrarily dismissed (Maddick, 1963). All of these circumstances lead to a rapid turn-over of personnel and a generally low level of commitment to rural development.

Another reason is that technical personnel have been promoted through the inexorable process of seniority into positions of management for which they are often ill-prepared or ill-equipped to handle. This is the usual case of an agricultural technician being promoted into a supervisory position.

The need for trained manpower to staff agricultural and rural development efforts cannot be overlooked. For example, the Rockefeller Foundation noted that, in the development sectors where it has been involved (i.e., agriculture, health, and education), technology transfer impediments have not been the major problem affecting program effectiveness. Rather, a pervasive managerial deficiency has been in evidence at all levels. This situation also demonstrates that the growth of foreign assistance availabilities has added substantial burdens to the managerial requirements of existing national programs.

Uma Lele (1975) and Emezi (1979) also point out that low-level persons are frequently entrusted with the major task of effecting rural development. Available manpower in local areas is often low in quality, limited in experience, and lacking in the requisite training demanded by rural development. Furthermore, professionals in charge of projects are often technicians who lack training and experience in administration and management. Hence, they carry an incomplete picture of the overall objectives, requirements, complexities, and possibilities of rural development programs.

The existing shortage of skilled manpower to plan, manage, and operate rural development projects, especially at the field level, has been a major reason for slow progress in implementing much needed decentralization of project administration (Rondinelli and Ruddle, 1978; FAO, 1975; McCallum, 1982).

Training for Rural Development Management

Lessons in rural development show that the design and implementation of rural development efforts should be the responsibility of the government and the people of developing countries. A prerequisite of any strategy is the development of the organizations and human resources required to perform the tasks involved. Training is one approach for improving administrative capability.

Training may be defined as, "the conscious effort by the management to bring about change in an individual, a group, or an organization" (de Guzman, 1976). A distinction is usually made between training that takes place in an institution or formal setting, such as a university, and that which takes place in the job situation and, consequently, is

less structured or non-formal. Another distinction is whether the completion of training leads to the conferment of a degree—the former being usually called as formal degree training as compared to non-formal degree training.

To address the problem of trained manpower shortage, developing nations have embarked upon management education and training programs. These programs were usually offered through: 1) departments, colleges, or institutes within a university; 2) public management training institutions attached to a government agency; 3) autonomous private or semi-private management institutes; 4) administrative staff colleges on the model of Henly-on-Thames; and 5) ILO productivity centers and other training units established by international organizations (Stifel, et. al., 1977).

However, these training programs have not been entirely successful in producing a "breed of managers" capable of handling the demands and tasks of rural development. The United Nations, as early as 1969, cited several reasons for the inadequacy of past training programs:

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

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

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

4. Almost nothing is known about the type of training that should be given to the different levels of public administration;

5. There is often complete ignorance of the difference between academic training in the science of public administration and in-service training. Although both are essential and complementary, it frequently happens that only the second type

of training is used to make good the shortage of human
resources in administrative development;

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

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

In much broader terms, there is a tendency in the developing world

to adopt training programs that are malsuited to the kind of

administration needed. Likewise, there is an apparent overemphasis in

terms of applying western management models to developing nations.

There is also inadequate assessment of actual training needs. Finally,

trainers are typically foreign consultants or local experts trained

abroad—persons who are mostly familiar with western management models.

Philippine Rural Development:
A Management Training Case in Point

The Importance of Rural Development in the Philippines

The Republic of the Philippines is a developing country that has

the development of administrative capability as one of its major policy

goals. This is in response to the problem of trained manpower shortage

and inadequate training programs for rural development.

The Philippines' philosophy of development does not only imply

economic advance, but also the improvement in the well-being of its

people. President Marcos has stated that "the ultimate yardstick of

development in the 1970s and the 1980s will be the extent to which it

touches and improves the day-to-day lives and welfare of human beings, of Filipinos" (Marcos, 1973).

In pursuit of this philosophy, the government has drawn 5-year and 10-year Development Plans that contain a vision of where society wants to go and how it can reach its destination. As stated by President Marcos in the Plan's opening page, "the achievement of a much improved quality of life for every Filipino is the supreme national aspiration. Toward this end, the conquest of mass poverty becomes the immediate, fundamental goal of Philippine development" (NEDA, 1975).

The Five-year Philippine Development Plan, 1978-1982, was drawn up within the context of the Ten-Year Plan (1978-1987) and the Long-Term Plan for the year 2000. In the first five years, emphasis has been on rural development with agrarian reform as the cornerstone program and on labor-intensive industrialization.

The recognition of the importance of rural development as a strategy to hasten national growth is long overdue considering that almost three quarters of the 45 million people live in rural areas. The preponderant rural sector has remained essentially traditional in outlook, in technology, and in organization during the post-war period (ILO, 1974). In such areas, social services are poor, economic activities limited, agricultural productivity low, and underemployment high. Accelerated population growth has led to increases in man/land ratio and the land frontier seems to have already been reached. Rapid urban industrial growth—using the tools of import substitution—have led to the deterioration of the ability of the rural sector to further finance import-substituting industrial growth. Consequently, industrial

rates of return are under pressure and further growth is threatened--quite apart from the increasing pressures of unemployment and maldistribution.

The ILO report in 1974 also points out that, while the further growth of the industrial sector itself has been threatened by a lack of domestic markets and a lack of "fuel", the rural sector has been increasingly less able to provide sufficient opportunities for productive employment. This has led to premature rural/urban migration which, in turn, has created urban overcrowding and poverty.

The main task that has to be faced by the country, therefore, is the mobilization of the rural sector. Because the country is large and unusually diverse, the mobilization must be achieved, by and large, without massive help from private capital.

The rural sector is heavily dependent on the actions of the government at both the central and local level. Rural mobilization, therefore, requires the fiscal and organizational energy and imagination of the government (ILO, 1974).

Rural Development Management in the Philippines

It has been argued that the major hindrance facing Philippine development efforts is the problem of efficient and effective implementation--most especially at the field level. One of the key "bottlenecks" is a generally weak command by those in the field who are charged with the task of managing programs and projects (Cuyno et. al., 1982).

As the EROPA case studies point out (Iglesias, 1976), there is a need to recruit and develop administrative leaders who combine technical, as well as political, skills so as to cope with inevitable uncertainties and problems (e.g. the variability of support and resource inputs and shifting developmental priorities). Thus, successful implementation often depends on the performance of key program leaders. Since competent, imaginative and innovative administrative leaders are in short-supply in developing countries, the early identification, cultivation, and retention of personnel with leadership qualities and potential should be aggressively pursued as a key element in development plans.

Because leadership plays a dominant role in the success of implementation, especially in developing societies where the administrative system needs strengthening, there is a greater sense of urgency in increasing the cadre of administrative leaders. The investment, therefore, in executive training for personnel at various levels of responsibility for program implementation is essential in institutionalizing leadership competence at all levels in the administrative machinery (Iglesias, 1976).

A cursory survey of existing training programs shows that there are several on-going courses that are geared to meet the need for capable managers, executives or administrators, and to run various developmental programs and projects within the government and the private sector. These generally aim not only at providing participants with the right skills for effective administration or management, but also at producing responsible and responsive managers who are able to innovate and cope with the exigencies of socio-economic and political change (Caoli, 1975).

The training programs differ in terms of objectives, target clientele, scope, and emphasis of subject matter. Executive development programs, such as those of the Philippine Executive Academy (PEA), Development Academy of the Philippines (DAP), and Asian Institute of Management (AIM), which cater to the top-level personnel, tend to have a mixed group of participants and also cover a broader range of subject matter. This is also true for some middle-management programs.

Other middle management programs are tailored to suit the needs of requesting agencies and, hence, tend to serve a homogenous group and cover specialized subjects in depth. This is, for example, the case with the in-company programs of the Administrative Development Program of the University of the Philippines College of Public Administration (UP-CPA), the Management and Organizational Development Program of the Development Academy of the Philippines, and those of the Institute of Public Health. Some programs are carried out on a full-time, residential basis while others are offered on a part-time basis. In terms of methodology, the programs use a combination of lecture-forums, seminars, workshops, and field trips. Full-time residential courses usually have one or two weeks of field research exercise as in the programs of PEA, DAP, LGC, Institute of Planning and Institute for Small-Scale Industries.

There is some degree of overlap among the programs of the Philippine Executive Academy and the Development Academy of the Philippines. This situation suggests the growing need and demand for high-level managerial skills in a rapidly developing country like the Philippines. The other programs differ in terms of subject matter emphasis and the nature of clientele served. Thus, there are training

programs for executives of small-scale industries, local government executives, public health administrators, labor union officials, regional and city planners, etc.. What is noticeable is the lack of training programs for managing or administering agricultural and rural development projects (e.g., integrated area or regional development projects).

<center>Study Problem and Approach to the Problem</center>

The need to educate and train current and future field implementors/middle-level rural development managers with specially designed training programs has been underscored. This dissertation research is concerned with development management, which has been defined by the ILO in 1977 as, "the activity directed towards the further development of the knowledge and skills of practicing managerial personnel and modification of their concepts, attitudes, and practices" (Stifel, 1977). Specifically, the focus will be on management education, which the ILO has defined as, "the regular teaching of management as part of an institutional curriculum leading to a formal degree" and would normally occur in a university or in an institution devoted specifically to management activities. The distinction between management education and management training is that the former is an institutional program that results in the conferment of a formal degree upon completion. This dissertation, while focusing specifically on management education, will continually use the term training to refer to the effort towards change.

The choice of management education as the focus of the research is timely and relevant. Universities have been traditionally regarded as

the principal institutions through which management education and training had been offered to those who are destined to occupy top and middle-level management roles. Universities are also institutions from which can be drawn a group of educational leaders--persons who are widely experienced and deeply engaged in a common enterprise. More importantly, universities offer a longer-range approach towards the creation of a trained pool of rural development managers.

For this research, the University of the Philippines at Los Banos will be utilized as a case in point. The University is currently offering a masters' degree program in Management with a specialization in Development Management. Middle-level managers are prospective clients. Administered under the Dean of the Graduate School, the program is managed by the Department of Management, College of Development Economics and Management (CDEM). This program is also linked with the University's Management of Rural Development Program (MARD), which performs the following functions: 1) research; 2) degree and non-degree training; 3) consulting; 4) policy conferences and seminars and; 5) publication.

The University of the Philippines System (UPS), of which the University of the Philippines at Los Banos (UPLB) is part, created the University of the Philippines Management Education Council (UP-MEC) in 1973 in response to mounting demands of the University to effectively assist government efforts to improve the management of public institutions and organizations. The Council's function is to improve management within the University and to promote coordination among all university units. The task of educating rural development managers is, therefore, within the concerns of the larger UP system and its units.

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study are to:

1. identify the training needs of middle-level managers of rural development programs;

2. propose a curriculum design intended to strengthen the masters' program in rural development management at UPLB;

3. develop an evaluation proposal for management education that can be applied to UPLB; and

4. propose future research suggestions—intended to improve the current program, as well as to further knowledge in management education and training.

As part of meeting these purposes, a number of important questions must be answered:

1. Who are considered middle-level rural development managers in the Philippines?

2. What are the important concepts, ideas, skills and attitudes that have to be incorporated into the educational design?

3. How should the training program be conducted and evaluated?

Study Approach

To accomplish the research objectives, it will be necessary to perform the following:

1. Review past and current literature on the tasks and roles of field implementors of rural development (with an emphasis on the Philippines);

2. Through the literature review, identify important concepts, skills, and attitudes that should be incorporated in a curriculum design;

3. Examine management training curriculum designs, including that at the UPLB, so as to evolve a model to strengthen it;

4. Construct an evaluation model that will be applicable to the UPLB educational program; and

5. Summarize the findings and propose future research thrusts.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 2 will deal with the background to the problem by providing an overview of the changing concepts of development—especially rural development and its strategies. The experiences and problems encountered in managing rural development programs and projects in the Third World, especially in the Philippines, will be presented. Efforts to solve such problems will likewise be presented.

Chapter 3 will focus on identifying the training needs of middle-level rural development managers with special emphasis on the Philippines. This will be accomplished through a review of rural development studies that focus attention on the problems of field implementors. There already exists a literature on field administration of special programs at the rural level. A review of this literature is expected to identify the problems encountered in the field and will, in turn, suggest certain areas where training is most needed. Past interviews with elected and appointed field implementors from both the public and semi-public sector will also be utilized. These interviews became, in part, the overriding justification of the MARD program (the academic component) at UPLB.

Chapter 4 will identify concepts and skills, as well as attitudes, that need to be incorporated into a development management curriculum. The cognitive and affective Domain Taxonomy of Educational Objectives will be used as the frames of reference.

Chapter 5 will include a curriculum design and explore teaching methodologies that are appropriate. This chapter will begin by examining the strengths and weaknesses of a management educational model, specifically, Pre-entry Postgraduate Management Degree programs, such as the current Program in UPLB. The goals and objectives of the

existing program, as well as the design, will be evaluated according to the above mentioned model. An alternative model for improvement will then be designed based on the analysis. Such a model will contain a curriculum design that contains the concepts, skills, and attitudes, identified in the previous chapter.

Chapter 6 will present an evaluation mechanism for the education model proposed in Chapter 5. This will include an assessment of existing models of evaluating training programs in the field of management. The chapter will begin by stressing the value of evaluation and its absence in most management training programs. The problems associated with evaluation will be discussed. Then, an evaluation program will be designed based on the education model and curriculum design presented in the earlier chapters. A summative and process evaluation will be proposed.

Chapter 7 will summarize the efforts undertaken in the previous chapters. Then, recommendations for future research efforts that could contribute to the management education program — specifically to the field of rural development management — will be made.

CHAPTER II

RURAL DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT THEORY AND PRACTICE:

THE PHILIPPINES AS A CASE IN POINT

The purpose of Chapter 2 is to provide an overview of the concept of Rural Development Management with the Philippine experience as a case in point. This will provide additional background to the problem presented in Chapter 1.

The early parts of this chapter are intended to acquaint the reader with the theoretical underpinnings of Rural Development Management as an emerging discipline. The remaining parts of the chapter will focus on the Philippine rural development experience—specifically on the importance of training rural development managers and the adoption of an institutional approach to training.

The Concept of Development

The term "development" has become a catchword for most of the leaders of developing countries. For some, the term represents an ideological trend that must be pursued at all costs—a panacea to the revolution of rising expectations that threaten their stability. For others, it has become a vehicle for the attainment of a nation's aspirations—a strategy for combating hunger and poverty. Whatever the motive, governments have drawn massive development plans in pursuit of development despite the confusion and problems posed by the term itself.

Van Meuwenhuize (1978) notes, for example, that the first difficulty about development is semantic, i.e., it can be construed as an act, a process, or an achieved condition. The second difficulty

17

about development is its integrality or comprehensiveness which poses problems of manageability. Development has been seen as a problem of technology transfer. When technical assistance was proven not to be a miracle-working mechanism, other approaches have emerged, e.g., administrative, political, and economic, but no interpretation of development was fully superseded by its successor. Another difficulty is the tacit assumption that the modern state is crucial to development whereas in developing countries the state is not only crucial but also the main or sole agent of development with regards to its citizenry.

Many writers agree that the term development gained currency after World War II as a result of the growing attention given by the industrialized west to the conditions of the so called, "underdeveloped" or developing countries. Definitions of development, then, centered around the criterion of the rate of economic growth often expressed in the gross national product (GNP) or per capita income (Rogers, 1975). This thinking focused mainly on the concept of "stages of economic growth" in which the process of development was viewed as a series of successive stages through which all countries must pass. Rostow's "stages of growth" theory and the Harrod-Domar growth model are examples of this thinking.

Todaro (1977) pointed out, however, that the stages theory fails to take into account the fact that the Third World nations are part of a complex international system; development strategies can sometimes be nullified by external forces outside their control. Also inherent in the paradigm of economic growth as development were assumptions of the abundance of capital, technology and ease of quantification of

results--all of which were characteristics or "givens" of western development and are absent in non-western states.

Profound world events, such as the oil crisis, expansion of international relations through improved systems of communication and transportation, concerns about the environmental pollution among the industrialized states, and the failure of non-western states to develop using the dominant paradigm, led to a reexamination and reformulation of the idea of development. It was observed, for example, that in the 1960s, the UN growth target for the Third World was achieved but the levels of living of the masses remain unchanged. There was a move, therefore, to "dethrone GNP" and redefine development in terms of reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality, and unemployment within the context of a growing economy.

Myrdal (1975), for example, defines development as the upward movement of the entire social system where there is circular causation between changes and conditions with cumulative effects. The "international-structuralist" school of economic development thought, on the other hand, called for more emphasis on needed structural and institutional reforms to eliminate a world of "dual societies" caught up in a dependence-dominance relationship (Todaro, 1977). Earlier, Goulet (1973) even proposed the substitution of the term liberation for development.

The Dag Hammarskjold Foundation (1975) views development as a totality of different dimensions, i.e., ecological, cultural, social, economic, institutional, and political dimensions, that systematically interrelated. In their report, the three pillars of development are:

1. satisfaction of needs, beginning with the eradication of poverty;

2. endogeneity and self-reliance, relying on the strength of the societies which undertake it; and

3. harmony with the environment.

The report also called for structural transformation and immediate action as necessary and possible. Likewise, the Scheveningen Report (1980) called for the provision of a concept of development with different and new cultural roots by drawing alternative modes of civilization.

The current concept of development, therefore, has departed from a definition that centered on materialistic economic growth to one that implied other valued ends, such as social advancement, equality, and freedom (Rogers, 1975). This definition implies alternative pathways to development—depending on what style of development was desired given a country's unique environmental and cultural background.

Rogers (1975:133) summarizes the newer conceptions of development as:

> a widely participatory process of social change in a society, intended to bring about both social and material advancement (including greater equality, freedom, and other valued qualities) for the majority of the people through their gaining control over their environment.

This conception focuses on development as a process of change that is regarded as inevitably normative, i.e., oriented towards goals, motivated by basic values, and permeated by cultural norms. Goulet (1973) views development as a social system moving away from a condition of life widely perceived as unsatisfactory in some way, toward some condition regarded as the maturation, humanization, or qualitative

ascent of human societies. These views imply that the process of change
can be consciously directed to achieve predetermined goals.

The Concept of Rural Development

After several years of emphasis in development theory on immediate
industrialization as a cure for the problem of less developed countries
(LDCs), there has been a growing body of opinion in favor of paying more
attention to rural development (Anker, 1973). This realization stems
from the recognition that, of the nearly two-thirds of the world's
people living in LDC's, about 50 to 80 percent of these people live in
rural areas. In addition, many of these rural residents live in
absolute poverty (World Bank, 1975).

Rural development in this decade has been regarded as a highly
normative concept (Axinn, 1978). The perception of the degree of
structural change that is required in a given environment, and the time
horizon for achieving such objective, are some of the factors that
account for divergent views on the topic (Fredericks, 1977). There was
basic agreement, however, that rural development is a planned change
process through which rural poverty is alleviated by sustained increase
in productivity and income of rural workers and households (World Bank,
1975). This involves using any form of action or communication designed
to change the environment, institutions and attitudes of rural people to
achieve the above objectives (Aziz, 1964). More recently, another
dimension has been added to the concept: that rural development is a
process which leads to a continous rise in the capacity of rural people
to control their environment. This process can be accompanied by a
wider distribution of benefits (A.C.D.A., 1976).

These definitional concepts point to the objectives and goals of rural development that include (Fredericks, 1977):

1. output/productivity goals;

2. employment generation;

3. access; and

4. control

Such goals point to the fact that mere increases in productivity do not necessarily lead to rural development. There are inherent issues of wealth distribution and citizen participation that must be dealt with. Technology, education, and structural reorganization are likewise issues that must be seriously considered in the formulation of both goals and strategies for rural development.

It is, therefore, apparent that rural development is an inter-disciplinary concept and that its goal is the "enrichment of the quality of life, both individual and collective, and its universalisation in terms of minimal, if not equal, availability to all sections of the population" (Rao, 1977). In much broader terms, the ultimate goal of development is the improved well-being of men (Kotter, 1974; Ortiz, 1974).

Rural Development Ideologies and Strategies

There are several competing ideologies in rural development which pose different approaches to action. An ideology, according to Sargent (1975), provides the believer with a picture of the world both as it is and how it should be. Table 1 shows characteristics of 4 representative ideologies as presented by Moris (1978).

Table 1.

Ideologies of Development

THE IDEOLOGIES

Aim:	Penetration	Commercialization	Participation	Mobilization
Direction:	Top-down	Outside-in	Bottom-up	Inside-out
Agency:	Bureaucracy	Companies	Community	Party
Level of Interest:	Nation	Market Demand	Village	Class
Goal Definition:	Material well being	Profit & Client satisfaction	Social well being	Group consciousness
Rationale:	Economic development	Microeconomics & innovation theory	Community Development	Underdevelopment Theory
Starting Point:	Planning	Market Survey	Need Identification	Class Analysis
Approach:	Funding request to the center	Organize company in district	Organize groups in locality	Organize cells in localities
Personnel:	Outside experts, some locals	Local entrepreneurs, some help	Local leaders, some outside help	Local party cadres & sympathizers
Role of Outsiders:	Formulate request	Start-up loan	Serve as catalyst	Safeguard purity

Table 1 (cont'd).

Aim:	Penetration	Commercialization	Participation	Mobilization
Major Aim:	Implement programs	Offer services	Solve problems	Raise consciousness
Financing:	Credit from center, start-up grant	Self-financing from fees	Self-help raising of local funds	Party funds & brotherly regime
Project emphasis:	Infrastructure & production products	Equipment, new crops & inputs	Social service facilities	Production co-ops & group organization
Evaluation criteria:	Targets achieved	Innovations spread	Problems solved	Regime changed
Time Horizon:	Short-medium term: 2-5 years	Short term: 1-3 years	Medium-long term: 3-10 years	Long term: 5-50 year

Source: Moris (1981).

The Penetration ideology of development is well suited to ministries of economic planning, the World Bank, technical assistance agencies, and socialist regimes after the revolution. Fredericks (1977), characterizes this development approach as having an infrastructure-oriented strategy as, for example, reflected in the World Bank's lending policy in the 1950's (World Bank, 1975). This arose in light of the fact that emphasis was being placed by regimes in the developing countries on investing social overhead capital on roads, schools, health facilities, etc., in urban areas or in the sectors of the agricultural economy in which the colonial interests were focused.

The Commercialization ideology is, according to Moris, a laissez-faire doctrine in philanthropic and contemporary disguise. Two strategies were noted by Fredericks with this approach, namely, the minimum package strategy and comprehensive strategy. The minimum package strategy was based on the rationale that a minimum quantum of inputs is necessary to promote rural development and that it is more viable to spread this minimum requirement over a broad spectrum of clientele than to concentrate inputs in specific areas or regions. The comprehensive strategy, on the other hand, uses several strategies based on the area or sector in which efforts and inputs will be concentrated for implementation of rural development programs.

Contemporary to the above strategy was the people-oriented Community Development (CD) strategy (Fredericks, 1977) that reflects the Participation ideology. This was basically a social movement designed to awaken and inspire self-help and self-development directed toward the people who were not usually involved in the planning of development programs. At the Cambridge Summer Conference in 1948, CD was defined as:

> a movement designed to promote better living for the
> whole community with the active participation and,
> if possible on the initiative of the community. If
> this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously,
> the use of techniques for arousing and stimulating
> it will secure the active and enthusiastic response
> of the movement (Chang, 1969).

The Mobilization ideology originated, according to Morris, when Marxists began to examine the problems of modernization. The ideology takes the exploited peasants as its frame of reference and documents how their relative position both within their nations and internationally has worsened as the direct result of participation in the international exchange economy. Fredericks (1977) identifies the Chinese model as the strategy that suits this ideology. The strategy includes a combination of the comprehensive and national rural development in which the traditional and feudal obstacles to change and development have been obliterated by a new ideology.

While other strategies have been proposed (e.g., Griffins' (1974) technocratic, reformist, and radical approaches; Ickis' (1979) welfare, responsive, and integrated strategies) the strategy most worthy of attention is the integrated strategy. This approach seems to be gaining wide acceptance among developing countries, in general, and especially in the Philippines.

Why has the integrated approach been so widely accepted? As a result of experiences associated with other earlier strategies, an increasing awareness of the problem of rural poverty and increasing economic, social, and regional disparities in countries has emerged. This recognition helped promote a need for the integrated approach to rural development. The need for an integrated strategy stemmed from:

1. the technical requirements of "speeding up" economic growth and productivity, particularly in rural areas;

2. the expectations of the population have changed considerably and need to be satisfied;

3. the need to balance economic growth and population growth; and

4. the required consideration of timing (Leupolt, 1975).

Integrated Rural Development (IRD) calls for a multi-pronged and inter-related program designed to give consideration to the socio-economic characteristics of, and resources available in, a particular area. According to Anker (1973), the concept of integration in rural development programs implies integration of:

1. objectives, e.g., social welfare goals (also see Clark, 1974);

2. many programs into a single program of different components of an activity, e.g., integration of extension education, credit, production incentives into a single program to increase agricultural productivity;

3. different rural development activities under a common administrative organization, e.g., placing health, education, and agricultural services for a particular area under a common administrative mechanism;

4. the content or substance of a rural development activity so that the policy, programs and the messages of the activity take into account the interrelationship between the various factors making up the program, e.g., developing a curriculum for extension education which includes a discussion of the relationship of health, agriculture, employment and the role of women; and

5. rural people into the process of rural development so that they can, in fact, participate in the inputs to, and the benefits from, rural development (also see Ensminger, 1971).

As shown in Table 2, the Integrated Rural Development Strategy further implies, according to Ickis (1979), the following features:

1. The achievement of development goals are shared by national, regional and local levels in a nationalistic context;

2. The nature of the tasks are varied (uncertainty introduced by complexity) which requires a matrix type of organization with permanent coordinating mechanisms;

Table 2.

Rural Development Strategies and Their Principal Characteristics

Characteristics	RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES		
	Welfare	Responsive	Integrated
1. Major objectives	Elimination of mal-nutrition and disease	Elimination of dependencies: development of autonomous local organizations	Achievement of development goals shared by national, regional, and local levels
2. Probable ideological context	Traditional or paternalistic	Humanistic	Nationalistic
3. Nature of task	Service delivery routine and highly certain	Community education (highly uncertain)	Varied (uncertainty introduced by complexity)
4. Structure of Bureaucracy	Vertical and hierarchical centralized by institution	Highly decentralized with ad hoc coordinating mechanisms	Matrix-type organization with permanent coordinating mechanism
5. Community Structure	None required	Strongly autonomous	Strong, but not autonomous
6. Bureaucracy community	None	Through community organizers and local leaders	Through multi-institutional work teams

Table 2 (cont'd).

Characteristics	Welfare	Responsive	Integrated
7. Source of initiative	Centralized agencies	Communities	Regional coordinating bodies
8. Information and control	Simple cost effective-ness measures	Measures of community improvement	Measures of progress against goal

Source: Ickis (1979).

3. The community structure required is one that is strong but not autonomous and that linkage with the bureaucracy is through multi-institutional work teams; and

4. The source of initiative are the regional coordinating bodies and measures of progress against goals are the mode for information and control.

In the ideal sense, the tasks of integrated rural development pertain to all of the above. Suffice it to say that the tasks are enormous, wide, and varied in scope and that there seems to be an obvious need to manage the various components and processes in its different stages.

Historical Background on Rural Development Efforts in the Philippines

Developing the rural areas has been conceptually and organizationally considered in government programs since the post-war years. The administrations of President Quirino (1948-52) and President Garcia (1957-60) both considered a framework for rural development. Yet little was done in terms of concrete programs and projects to promote the living conditions of the rural masses. Under President Magsaysay (1953-57), President Macapagal (1962-65) and President Marcos (prior to the period of the New Society), rural development programs were unified and given considerable attention both in national planning and implementation.

As practiced, the approaches were of the general rural development context, i.e., goals of equity, productivity, efficiency, and political stability. The degree of blended objectives varied according to the respective thrusts of each administration (Lawas, 1979). In general, rural development was basically equated with agricultural development.

Agriculture was taken as the lead sector to propel rural development. The programs and projects, which were mostly separately undertaken, can be grouped into: 1) land reform; 2) resettlement; 3) credit and cooperatives; and 4) community development.

In 1952, an experiment in rural development was undertaken by the Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement (PRRM) under the leadership of Dr. Y.V. James Yen. The program revolved around a four-fold goal of promoting livelihood, education, public health and self-government for the rural people. It utilized multi-purpose rural reconstruction workers who live and work with the villagers. Its operations, however, were limited to pilot areas in a relatively few provinces.

In 1958, the Philippine government launched a nation-wide rural development program utilizing a similar approach to the PRRM under the Presidential Assistance on Community Development (PACD). After some degree of initial success, it later declined like many community development programs in other countries during the sixties. The high aspirations and expectations generated were not amply matched by substantial and sustained accomplishments.

At the same time PACD was launched, a number of other government agencies undertook similar approaches to rural development. For example, the Agriculture College of the University of the Philippines at Los Banos undertook a series of rural development projects: 1) a pilot study of farm development in 1958; 2) a study on alternative extension approaches in 1963; and 3) a family development project in Barrio Boyong in 1968. From the knowledge and insights gained from these pilot studies, the University instituted two projects in 1970—the Social Laboratory and the Barrio Development School.

Many of these efforts in rural development have been introduced as pilot projects to test certain hypotheses, approaches, or techniques--presumably for subsequent replication or adoption on a nationwide scale. On the other hand, a number of them were action research programs intended to contribute directly to the acceleration of community or national development. It was not difficult to identify small projects that were successfully implemented. But it was extremely difficult to identify a successful large-scale program of rural development.

<p style="text-align:center">Philippine Rural Development Strategy</p>

With the advent of President Marcos' declaration of Martial Law in 1972, and the subsequent establishment of the "New Society", the Philippine government took to the task of drawing a national development plan. With Countryside Development as its theme for national development, the plan called for the adoption of an integrated approach to rural development. With the subsequent reorganization of the Philippine Bureaucracy, the government attempted to synchronize national planning with implementation.

Development Planning

One of the major objectives of the Five-Year Philippine Development Plan (1978-1982), as well as the Ten-Year Development Plan (1978-1987), is the promotion of regional planning and development. The regional development strategy aims to reduce disparities among the regions and provide for balanced economic and social progress of the country. It is recognized that there are lagging regions in the country and that these

regions will be the focal points of development, i.e., they will be strongly supported to catch up with leading ones in terms of economic, socio-cultural, and political development.

To accomplish the above objective, the country has been divided into 13 regions for planning and administrative purposes. Under the same Plan, the administrative functions and substantive activities of the national line ministries were proposed to be decentralized (i.e., deconcentrated), in short, to regionalize national administration. This scheme requires the delegation of headquarters authority to the regional offices on substantive and administrative matters, including discretion over budgets, personnel, and supplies.

It has been observed that the regions, as presently constituted, are not suitable areas for planning. Hence, sub-regional planning bodies were created for specific areas within the region. The sub-regional planning areas vary. Several examples of the Integrated Area Development (IAD) approach include:

1. The River Basin Approach - This approach takes cognizance of the presence of a major natural resource—water—in the planning and development ctivities of certain areas. Within the Bicol Region, for example, is the Bicol River basin which covers two out of the six provinces within the region. Following the river basin approach, the Bicol River Basin Development Program (BRBDP) was established to plan and implement programs and projects in the two provinces under its jurisdiction. Other river basin IADs include the Leyte Sab-a River Basin and the Agusan River Basin Development Program.

2. The Island Development Approach - This approach recognizes the nature of the country as well as the consequent problems of

transportation facilities and communication services. The islands in the central part of the Philippines have been considered as separate planning areas. Integrated development programs have been established for three islands, namely, Mindoro, Palawan and Samar. The Samar Integrated Rural Development Project (SIRDP), for example, is directed towards alleviating the island from inadequate linkages in agricultural services and infrastructure facilities. The overriding objective of this project is to promote and sustain the balanced development of the island — socially, economically, and physically.

3. The Provincial Development Approach - This approach takes into consideration the geographic territorial jurisdiction of the province as the main planning area for development programs and projects. One major government project, the Provincial Development Assistance Project (PDAP), has focused on the province as the planning area. Many of the provinces in the country have been included in the PDAP.

4. The Municipal Development Approach - In this approach, the basis of jurisdictional planning scheme was made possible through the grouping of different geographically contiguous and adjacent municipalities in order to facilitate the sharing, strengthening, and coordinating of plans, programs and projects in the area. In Iloilo Province, for instance, the municipalities of Pavia, Leganes, Sta. Barbara, New Lucena, and Zarraga have agreed to initiate joint planning for the areas under their jurisdiction. Likewise, the adjacent municipalities of Camaligan, Canaman, Galinza, and Milaor to Naga City in Camarines Sur have also followed this approach.

Implementation

Since the 1950's, there has been mounting evidence of plan failures due to weaknesses in plan implementation. According to Martin (1971), of some 1,500 national development plans which have been prepared in the last 25 years, not many have been seriously implemented. The state of planning in the Philippines by the mid-sixties generally exemplified the problem of plan implementation in developing countries. Waterston (1965) has noted that of approximately fourteen post-war plans, "almost all were little more than suggestions, proposals, opinions, or platitudes designed to influence public policy...none had much effect on the country's development". The findings of the UN Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE) in 1961 suggest that Philippine economic planning has tended to be more an intellectual exercise or a call to action than a specific blueprint to be implemented. What has caused this situation?

The governments of most countries, including the Philippines, are organized along sectoral lines at the national level. The major functions and programs of the government are discharged by the various ministries or agencies that are responsible for the delivery of services, such as health, education, agriculture, and infrastructure development from the national down to the regional, provincial, city and municipal levels of government.

The delivery of services by the various sectoral ministries, whether exclusively by a single governmental level or shared with other levels, has been determined by geographic boundaries. For example, in the case of health services, this responsibility primarily belongs to the national government through the Ministry of Health. However, health

services are rendered through the various field service areas determined by the geographic boundaries of the region, province, city or municipality. The field agents operating in a common local government area belong to separate functional hierarchies responsible for different government programs and services. There is no generalist representative of the government in the area exercising responsibility for all functions. There are three broad categories of field level activities namely:

1. services direct to the people, such as extension teaching, training, advice and consultancy;

2. infrastructural services, such as financing, materials supply, common production facilities and marketing; and

3. infrastructural organizations, such as worker's organizations, cooperatives and youth clubs.

To implement the Integrated Rural Development Strategy, the Cabinet Coordinating Committee for Rural Development Projects was created in 1973. In 1978, the National Council for the Integrated Area Development (NACIAD) was created to bring about more efficient and effective implementation of rural development programs.

Thus far, the integrated area development approach as applied in the Philippines during the past years has been built upon the premise that development efforts were geared towards the rural sector. However, in applying this approach, many problems have been encountered and attempts have been made to remedy the situation with varying degrees of success.

Problems and Issues in Integrated Rural Development

As an observer once said, "Integrated development programs are great in theory but many times turn out to be a failure in practice".

In the Philippines, the Integrated Area Development approach has been built upon the premise that this development effort would lead to better service delivery for the rural sector. However, in applying this approach, a number of problems have been observed; attempts to remedy them have not been very encouraging. These problems involve:

1. the coordination of the different activities that cut across all governmental sectors and agencies in a defined geographical area;

2. limited resources—both capital and human;

3. the absence of strong organization at the local level; and

4. the need for developing an appropriate political/administrative structure for effectively planning, monitoring and implementing Integated Area Development programs and projects (Rola, 1979).

At the UN Asian and Pacific Development Administration Centre (APDAC) conference on administrative reforms for decentralized development in 1979 at New Delhi, India, the problem of coordination has been described as "perennial" (Rola, 1979 and Castillo, 1982). Earlier, in 1965, the working group of experts of the Economic Commision for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE) that met in Bangkok, Thailand, emphasized the need for coordination to prevent duplication of effort, wastage of resources, and maximize results. The Philippines today faces the same problem--most especially with integrated rural development as a strategy.

In most development efforts, the lack of trained manpower and capital has been a serious bottleneck to implementation. One of the reasons given for the slow pace of development in the rural areas is the dearth of competent personnel, largely due to the failure of the local

units to attract technically competent people to stay and serve in the local areas (Oamar, 1980).

The need for strong local organizations which are capable of coping with development needs, has been vigorously stressed in well-documented case studies (see, for example, Castillo, 1982). Likewise, the need for administrative/political structures suited to development tasks has been stressed by the Eastern Regional Organization for Public Administration (EROPA), as early as 1976, in their publication, Implementation: The Problem of Achieving Results. This casebook, which contains 12 Asian experiences in rural development, clearly shows the need for such structures.

The Need for Administrative Reform

Earlier, emphasis was made on the need for producing a new breed of managers capable of planning and managing the implementation of programs and projects. For these managers to succeed, a restructuring of traditional organizational and working relationship structures is in order.

Most developing countries have recognized the urgent need for administrative reform to increase the capabilities of their administrative systems for economic and social development and for achieving other national goals. Management and administration experts, meeting in 1965 and 1966 in Bangkok, as well as in New York City in January 1967, agreed that, "basic reforms in public administration are essential to the success of measures for economic and social development" (De Guzman, 1976).

The main purpose in administrative reform is to institute changes in the structure and function of the bureaucracy and in the behavior of its personnel to achieve maximum technical efficiency and organizational effectiveness. Organizational effectiveness is viewed in terms of productivity, efficiency and economy, and the optimum use of administrative resources, as well as in terms of the quality of administrative services. Other purposes, such as the desire on the part of the new leadership group in the government to achieve control of policy and personnel, as well as accomodating various political proteges, have been noted.

It is essential to differentiate administrative reform from administrative change. The former refers to deliberate, planned, and specially designed efforts to effect major changes in the various structures, processes, procedures, and personnel in the bureaucracy. Administrative change, on the other hand, may occur as a result of administrative reform or of larger socio-economic political forces in a country.

The scope of administrative reform may include measures pertinent to the following:

1. reorganization of the executive branch of the government (for example, the promulgation of the Integrated Reorganization Plan in the Philippines in 1972);

2. rationalization and simplification of administrative regulations and procedures in a government-wide basis;

3. improvement of local government and field administration;

4. reallocation of functions among ministries and departments;

5. establishment or strengthening of central managerial offices;

6. adoption of technological and technical innovations such as data processing, performance budgeting and position classification;

7. institution of training programs designed to effect changes in the attitudes, skills and general behavior of government personnel; and

8. reorientation and strengthening of the civil service system.

The stimuli for administrative reform may come from sources and events, such as the assumption of new functions by government, changes in political leadership, and the availability of new resources and technology. For example, the Philippine government has undertaken most, if not all, of the reform measures cited earlier after the declaration of Martial Law in 1972. It could also come from results of studies such as the UN's First Development Decade report. Waterston (1965) for example, has concluded that, "the failure of most development plans in developing countries could be attributed either to deficiencies in the planning process or to obstacles encountered during plan implementation." In particular, the capability of administrative systems to implement plans had been identified as a critical factor in the plan implementation process (Iglesias, 1977).

Two main approaches that may be adopted to achieve administrative reforms are those that emphasize structural changes and those that emphasize the human element in administration. Both approaches find support from the Dag Hammarksjold Foundation's Towards Another Development (1975), where a call for structural changes and immediate action was made if development goals are to be achieved.

Basically, what the first approach involves is structural changes leading to systematic departmentalization based on homogeneity of functions, clear delineation of authority and responsibility, simplification of processes and procedures, and an adequate arrangement for reporting and coordination. The second approach, on the other hand,

involves the initiation and expansion of educational and training programs for administrators who are expected to act as catalysts in administration and improve administrative performance through their own creativity.

The next two sections of this chapter will be devoted to the explication of the two approaches as they apply to the Philippines. The first section will discuss a coordination strategy for future planning and implementation. The last section will focus on the state of public management education in the country.

Toward a Strategy-Structure for Implementation

There are three recognized models for implementation as part of much needed administrative reform in the Philippines. They are: 1) The Development Council Model; 2) The Regional/Local Government Model; and 3) The Administrative Model.

The Development Council Model

Development Councils have been organized in response to the felt need for coordinating the efforts of various agencies, organizations and sectors involved in the planning and implementation of development programs and projects in a certain area. They have been organized at the regional, provincial, and city/municipal levels.

The Council's composition is indicative of the coordination effort because it is composed of heads of national government agencies operating in the area, the local government executive, and other leaders of organizations who play a significant role in the development efforts in the area. This implies coordination between sector-oriented administrative personnel and area oriented political officials.

The chairman of the council is elected among its members and has coordination and monitoring functions. Such functions, however, have been given diverse interpretations resulting in vague and ambiguous operations. For example, the chairman does not have supervisory powers or administrative control over its members, which results in each retaining their own degree of competence, specialization attitudes, and loyalties. Other problems include: lack of qualified technical personnel, inadequacy of funds and facilities, and lack of determined leadership.

The Council, however, has been effective in the area of communication, i.e., it serves as a forum for dialogue, exchange of information, feedback, and advice. The problems identified earlier have to be dealt with if this model is to evolve into a political-administrative structure that is effective in area planning and management.

The Regional/Local Government Model

The primary characteristic of this model is that it is less centrally directed because it is a separate political/governmental unit at the sub-national levels, i.e., regional, provincial, city/municipal. This model adds another tier (regional) to the existing three major tiers of government, namely, national, provincial, and city/municipal levels. This model is being envisioned in the National Plan.

Basically, supervisory powers and administrative control will be in the hands of an appointed regional chief executive. This may involve phasing out the provincial governments and the creation of districts. This also implies decentralization and devolution of powers to the

regional/local area. Thus, for example, the local governments will have responsibility over development programs and projects, as well as the delivery of maintenance services, while the national government will take care of national defense, foreign relations, monetary matters and the judiciary.

The Administrative Model

This model's primary characteristic is that it is more centrally directed, i.e., more initiative comes from the national government since this calls for an area manager/area planner appointed by the central authorities.

This model seeks to reconcile the issue of the area versus the sectoral approaches by the appointment of an area manager/area planner who will be given the authority to effect the necessary coordination of the various development efforts and services being rendered in his area of responsibility. Thus, he will be responsible for overseeing, monitoring and coordinating the implementation of the development programs and projects in the area. This implies a restructuring of local government and the training of local government officials into qualified career officials.

All of the above models imply both a restructuring of the government as an organization and highlights the critical need for managers and their training-- whatever model is finally decided upon. Furthermore, it suggests that these managers can be categorized as belonging to middle-level management and that one of their basic tasks involves program/project management in predominantly rural areas.

Public Management Education in the Philippines

The commitment of the Philippines to develop goals, such as improving the quality of life for the Filipino people and promoting economic growth and productivity, and the major role assumed by government in the national effort to attain these goals, underscores the importance and urgency of management education for the public service. The successful formulation and implementation of economic, social, and political development programs require the services not only of the economist, physical planner, agriculturist, engineer, educator, health worker, and other technically-trained personnel, but also of competent managers/administrators—who can provide the leadership and direct the collective effort toward national development. The education and training of prospective managers/administrators (and of those already in the government service) with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to perform their various roles is a significant undertaking in the Philippines.

The establishment of public management education programs in the Philippines could be traced to the findings of the Bell Mission in 1950, which reported, among other things:

1. a lamentable state of public administration in the Philippines;

2. deplorable salaries of government employees in comparison with those obtainable in the private sector, and their efforts on the quality of public service; and

3. a lack of facilities for the education and training of subordinate employees for supervisory positions (De Guzman, 1976).

The Mission recommended "that public administration can be improved and reorganized so as to insure honesty and efficiency in the government".

As a follow-up to the Mission's recommendations, a team from the University of Michigan visited the Philippines in 1952 to study the need for, and the feasibility of, establishing a school of public administration. The survey team from Michigan recommended that an institute of public administration should be established within the State University as a center for professional training and education, research and information, and consultancy services in public administration. Accordingly, a contract was entered into on June 15, 1952 between the University of the Philippines and the University of Michigan for the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration.

Prior to 1952, no courses in public administration had been taught in any of the Philippine colleges and universities. There were no curricular offerings specially designed to prepare young men and women for the public service. Thus, the year 1952 signalled the commencement of public management programs in the Philippines.

Following the lead of the University of the Philippines, other colleges and universities have offered public management education programs and courses. As of 1978, the number of educational institutions offering public management programs has grown to 32. The increase in the number of public management schools indicates the soaring demand for public management education that emanates from the expansion of governmental activities both in functional scope and area coverage.

Geographically, 24 of the 32 schools are located in Luzon, 12 of which are concentrated in the Metro Manila area. The Visayas is serviced by 3 U.P. regional units situated in the regional capitals of Iloilo, Cebu, and Tacloban. Public management education in Mindanao is a joint endeavor of public and private educational institutions with 3 state colleges and 2 private universities offering public management programs.

Except for one school (Mindanao State University), all of the 32 schools have degree programs leading either to a Master of Public Administration or a joint degree in public and business management. Doctoral programs are offered in 4 universities in Metro Manila. Only 6 of the 32 academic institutions offer undergraduate programs in the field.

The special province of public management program is its general concern for the entirety of governmental operations, i.e., the process of formulating public policies, the expression of these policies in legislation and other vehicles, and the translation of the policies into action through concrete governmental instrumentalities. Within this broad area, it is also concerned with the generic processes of management, with the techniques of planning, organizing, and controlling governmental programs and with the effective coordination of all governmental operations.

Following the earlier curricular offerings of the UP-CPA, most academic institutions with public management programs at present have adopted a core of courses along the three traditional sub-fields of Organization and Management, Personnel Administration, and Fiscal Administration. A number of schools have added a course on Local

Government Administration. The programs aim at developing "management generalists" who develop skills in budgeting, personnel management and organizational analysis. The graduates are to be specialists in technique, but they are to be generalists as to the subject area. They presumably are to be competent to direct any type of public program.

However, the range of government activities that are carried out in the various development sectors suggests the need for complex and diverse managerial inputs. The management agricultural services may have different requirements from the management of infrastructure programs. The content of management education curricula must be fashioned to meet such requirements with the recognition of functions that are sui generis to a particular sector and those that are common to several or more of the broad range of development sectors.

Conclusion

Most developing countries find themselves with inadequate numbers of trained technicians and managers. In addition, their levels of training have too often proven to be inadequate. This problem has often been exacerbated by the tendency of training institutions to train for the tasks of the past or, at best, the present and not for the future. This observation holds true for the Philippines in that there is increasing awareness to not only restructure the systems of delivery of goods and services to the rural areas, but also to train those involved with such delivery to manage the processes as well. Thus, it is essential to train current and future managers of rural development programs and projects on the tasks, roles, and attitudes required for sustaining current development thrusts as well as on the development

tasks of the future. Such training requires not only an institutional approach, but a new management technology as well.

CHAPTER III

THE RURAL DEVELOPMENT MANAGER

The purpose of Chapter 3 is to provide an overview of the current and future task requirements of those currently managing rural development programs and projects. This will lay the foundation for identifying concepts, skills, and attitudes needed to be learned by today and tomorrow's manager—the focus of the next chapter.

The early parts of this chapter are intended to acquaint the reader with the tasks and roles required for today's rural development managers. The remaining parts of the chapter will deal with area and project managers in the Philippines and focus on their training needs.

The Concept of Development Management

There is a growing realization among contemporary scholars and practitioners of rural development for the need to manage the development process. As Siffin (1977) has noted: "the essence of development is not to maintain but to create effectively"; this requires management. The need to manage development also implies the need to develop management capability and this, according to him, can be labelled, "development management".

To the uninitiated, the terminologies that abound in the field of rural development are probably not only confusing, but intimidating as well. This is proof of the field's dynamic and eclectic nature. Any new and evolving field, which draws its conceptions and content from a variety of disciplines, usually suffers the problem of developing a common terminology. Nowhere is this more manifest than in the area of

49

rural development management/administration. A brief review of some of the relevant terminologies may be useful in order to fully understand the concept of development management.

Public Administration, in general, refers to the implementation of public policies which are authoritatively determined by the political organs of decision-making in the society (De Guzman, 1972). It is concerned primarily with the activities of the executive branch of the government and the bureaucracy, and the organization and management of human, physical and other resources towards the achievement of certain public goals. In practice, the term "public administration" is often used interchangeably with "public management", although Rothwell (1972), has observed that both terms carry differing connotations that influence ideas of users about their meanings.

Basically, management is viewed as an active, positive, opportunity seeking, change-oriented, aggressive, developmental concept, whereas administration implies a greater degree of passivity and a status quo orientation (Stifel, 1977). Thus, Public Management is a hybrid term suggesting public administration's orientation toward implementation and maintenance and management's emphasis on the formulation of goals. Although management is usually considered as a fairly universal process, the specifics of that process can differ in important ways between types of organizations with different purposes operating under different sets of constraints.

There are, from an organizational point of view, three basic types of organizations having different purposes and constraints. These are the following types with their characteristics according to Korten (1979):

1. Enterprise Management:
   a. relative autonomy, subject primarily to the discipline of the market place;
   b. performance is measured, at least in part, by economic return on capital;
   c. success is dependent on creatively responding to its environment; and
   d. usually has a significant but unintended impact on their environment.

2. Maintenance Management:
   a. traditional maintenance functions, e.g., collecting revenues;
   b. seldom responds creatively to the environment nor seeks intentional changes in the environment; and
   c. ensures stability and continuity, operating according to clearly defined procedures to achieve externally defined purposes.

3. Development Management:
   a. induces intentional changes in their environment for purposes of the public good; and
   b. seeks to develop programs and institutions which impact beyond their own immediate jurisdiction.

Our concern is for the development management type of organization which has planned change through program management and institution building as objectives.

Despite the emergence of the term "development administration" from its parent discipline, comparative administration, critics contend that it is geared toward system maintenance and does not actively seek to change the present system. Development administration refers primarily to public administration in developing countries or more specifically with the administration of development programs.

Program Management has been pin-pointed by the United Nations as a vehicle for achieving national development. Its very nature incorporates the major disciplines of Public and Private Administration. The program approach is not limited by the constraints of a rigid bureaucracy and, therefore, allows flexibility and integrates all other

approaches as well as agency efforts towards development. Central to program management are the issues of flexibility, finiteness and evaluation. This means that planning and budgeting are no longer incremental or sectoral in approach but must be done with clear, achievable, time framed goals. Its execution requires flexibility in organizational structures. Most importantly, its processes and goals are subject to evaluation.

A program can be viewed as a system under which actions may be taken toward a goal. As a system, it is composed of two or more related or unrelated projects. A project is a more specific plan or design for an undertaking. This can be further broken down into task, activity, and work.

It is also important to distinguish between programs and projects. A program may have two or more projects that may lead to accomplishment of the program goal, but may be unrelated in activities. For example, an agrarian Reform program may have projects on human resource development, technology transfer, and infrastructure (both physical and social).

It appears, therefore, that the concept of development management is a hybrid of Public and Private/Business Administration. Most importantly though, is the fact that the term, "development management", is a normative one, i.e., we wish those who are currently engaged with the task of administrating or implementing to go beyond these tasks and manage or develop. Thus, while we seek to improve implementing skills as part of normal administration maintenance functions, we likewise seek to develop a development orientation and managerial capacity.

Development Management, as an emerging concept, underscores the frustration of rural development experts with the inadequacy of traditional disciplines, largely borrowed from the West, to solve problems in development. It also highlights the need for indigenous management concepts to meet the new development order.

Toward a New Development Order

In a faculty conference held in Caracas, Venezuela in 1977, management experts noted that there is a new development order; traditional disciplines are inadequate to meet the challenges of this order, i.e., management concepts and skills in the western sector are not applicable to rural development in developing countries. Characteristics of the new order include:

1. a development orientation;
2. a systems orientation;
3. client participation in planning and implementation of projects for the community;
4. building and development of local administrative capability;
5. a multi-dimensional and balanced viewpoint of progress encompassing economic, social, political, ecological, physical and cultural aspects (Korten, 1979).

To better understand this new order, it is necessary to look at the tasks that have to be performed in today's rural development efforts. These tasks have serious managerial implications. They are:

1. The need to organize the urban and rural poor for participation in making policy decisions which affect their lives;
2. The need for implementing organizations capable of adapting rapidly to changing local circumstances; and
3. The need for institutional linkages between center and periphery, between sectors, between programs and communities, and between political and bureaucratic systems.

The need to organize the poor into effective problem-solving units capable of participating in the design and execution of public policy stems from institutional forces that place this class into a disadvantaged position at any start of a development program. Management technologies are therefore required to organize the poor and facilitate participation. Such a task could change social relationships, equalize power relationships, and build sustained local capabilities for organizing around other development needs. For most countries in the developing areas, this could be a very radical move that would evoke instant opposition.

Development-oriented organizations must be able to respond rapidly to local needs and circumstances. Most of the organizations dealing with public programs in the rural sector still follow the formal model of organization. As such, their inflexibility and strict adherence to formal rules and procedures inhibit creativity and immediate response towards problems requiring serious attention. Managerial implications involve restructuring such organizations and initiating new methods of organizational functioning appropriate to program implementation. Again, such a task is radical and is very threatening to the bureaucracy.

Strong local institutions effectively linked into a national system are also a basic requirement for rural development. Especially in an approach that is integrated, a broad area of the rural sector needs to be coordinated as well as the various bureaucracies that serve within. This is likely to be a long and often difficult process that requires political awareness and sensitivity to power structures and their manipulations. The creation of new organizing structures is needed to

break the monopoly that traditional elites often maintain over communication and resource flows. Large groups look with disfavor on actions calculated to undermine their power.

A basic question in Development Management involves: 1) whether desired social outcomes can be achieved through the central technocratic allocation of resources to provide services intended to benefit the poor; or 2) whether the real problem of poverty is rooted in basic social structures that relegate the poor to conditions of dependency. If the former is emphasized, then the central problem may be one of increasing the effectiveness of service delivery. If the latter is to be the focus of our attention, then the central problem may be to reduce dependency by measures that increase the potential of the poor to take independent and instrumental political action on their own behalf.

The tasks faced by development management call for a continuing, multifarious program of training. It requires a constant and widespread training effort, directed to the needs of staff members at all levels, and with a training effort carried on as an integral part of the management process.

But as FAO (1975) has pointed out, although the kind of training effort is not, by itself, the solution to all the ills of managing rural development, it is a necessary element of the solution. Without a comprehensive management training effort, development programs, according to the FAO, are not likely to produce the results hoped for them.

It is sound advice for governments of developing countries, therefore, to increase the implementation capacity for the institutional framework of rural development (El-Ghonemy, 1979; Development

Administration Newsletter, 1980). In a resolution adopted by the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations (1970), a call is made upon the Specialized Agencies to recognize that increased administrative capability for developing countries is indispensable for meeting the needs in the 1980's. This mandate requires continous action at national and international levels to create such a capability.

Rural Development Managers in Perspective

The term "manager" has been used to mean anyone who is responsible for subordinates and other organizational resources (Stoner, 1982). Managers can be classified by their level in the organization, i.e., first line, middle, and top—and by the range of organizational activities for which they are responsible, i.e., functional and general managers. The lowest level in an organization at which individuals are responsible for the work of others is called first-line or first-level management. First-line managers direct operating employees only; they do not supervise other managers. Middle-level managers, on the other hand, direct the activities of other managers and sometimes also those of operating employees. A principal responsibility of middle managers is to depict the activities that implement the policies of the organization. Top management, composed of a comparatively small group of executives, establishes operating policies and guides the organization's interactions with its environment. The functional manager is responsible for only one organizational activity, while a general manager oversees a complex unit and is responsible for all the activities of that unit.

Earlier, most development literature called for the training of the agricultural manager. In 1980, for example, the FAO observed that little has been done to provide training for those who administer agricultural development programs in developing countries and, if there were some, the orientation of such training was highly technical. Thus, the EDI (1979), summarized the job requirements and training needs of project managers in agriculture as comprising:

— Public Relations   — Coordination
— Financial Control   — Deal with the Bureaucracy
— Budgeting Procedures   — Recruitment
— Organization   — Procurement Control
— Administration   — Work Planning

The concern for an agricultural manager is quite obvious since most, if not all, of the developing countries' economies are agriculturally based. This sectoral view was later modified to include a necessary understanding of the development process in agricultural development. Such modification laid the foundation for a rural development view which has agricultural development as a necessary component. It is now recognized, for example, that a mere increase in agricultural productivity does not necessarily translate into overall rural development.

Toward a Definition of "Rural Development Managers"

So, who is the rural development manager? One obvious answer is: people who are managing programs and projects in the rural areas. The fact that they work in rural areas is a necessary pre-requisite, but it is more than just physical location that determines this description. The connotations are numerous and they relate to the following:

1. differing tasks, skills and roles that have emerged as a result of adopting development strategies, e.g., integrated

rural development which is a combination of the welfare and responsive strategies mentioned by Ickis (1979);

2. different view towards organizations and management functions, i.e., development-oriented organizations in lieu of enterprise management or maintenance management. A cognizance of differing managerial contexts and driving towards more indigenous management systems; and

3. different view towards citizen involvement i.e., towards more citizen participation through well organized community organizations.

Ickis (1979) describes four categories of rural development managers based on research in Latin America. These are: 1) Program Managers; 2) Regional Directors of government agencies; 3) Project Managers; and 4) Community Managers. He described Program Managers as usually national ministers performing meta-management functions and belonging to the top-level management group. Regional Directors would also fall into the upper level management category. He described the middle-level as composed of project managers, i.e., people who interface between the community and the bureaucracy. Community Managers would be the elected officials of the municipality. Ickis basically took, as a point of departure, the policy framework of enterprise management and applied it to rural development. The focus of our concern is the middle-level manager or the project manager.

Tasks. Moris (1978) observes that project management in the LDCs requires a large input of energy expended on essentially manipulative and political tasks. In the humid tropics, such as in the Philippines, the energy required for successful management is itself a major constraint. Managers probably work longer hours in temperate zone systems, as Mintzberg (1973) would seem to suggest, but one feels that

energy drains more acutely in the tropics. Much of an LDC manager's time is usually spent on trivial, but essential, tasks, e.g., rushing to town to buy tubes of mimeograph ink. This is in contrast to Mintzberg's findings that chief executives average 36 pieces of mail, 5 telephone calls, and 8 meetings per day. Moris (1981) further observes that a commitment to both achievement and power seems necessary.

Research on actual tasks performed by project managers is lacking. Only recently have efforts to acquire data been undertaken. For example, studies are being conducted in Latin America, Asia, and Africa by the different management organizations in those areas focusing on project management and training. It is assumed, at present, that project managers perform the traditional functions of administration, such as: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, controling, coordinating, and budgeting. In reality, though, other critical functions are performed:

1. matching people to assignments to make use of their special strengths;

2. safeguarding performance specifications while negotiating the design and implementation of field programs;

3. remaining alert to the issues under consideration at a particular moment within the larger administrative system;

4. insuring that all parties to a key decision have advance personal knowledge of the issues at stake;

5. identifying and securing commitment for all important components that depend upon outside support;

6. providing contingency arrangements to back up all key components if their supply is at all problematic;

7. identifying those items requiring long start-up times so that preliminary actions will be taken in time;

8. exploring unofficially the political feasibility of all required measures for project implementation;

9. learning and acknowledging the constraints which each party involved in a negotiation feels to be binding; and

10. establishing realistic decision rules and deciding when general regulations must be ignored or overridden (Moris, 1981).

These tasks require the employment of what Morris calls "compensatory management tactics" to overcome weaknesses in the system. These are:

1. Paying tremendous attention to detail, since almost any item can go wrong;

2. Following-up all important matters personally ("birddogging");

3. Building a large redundancy factor into all aspects of operation (also mentioned by Caiden and Wildavsky (1974);

4. Establishing direct personal contact with authorities before initiating any formal requests ("personalismo");

5. Adjusting day-to-day activities to fit immediate opportunities, instead of arranging schedules far in advance; and

6. Using simple but effective control devices to insure that organizational resources do not melt away.

Roles. Some of the roles of rural develoment managers are similar to those performed by the enterprise manager although in a different context and substance. Ickis (1979) sums the following as a result of research undertaken in Latin America:

1. Strategist--this role according to Ickis is often excluded from the more conventional definitions of the public administrator's role, where planning is regarded as more mechanistic than creative.

2. Infuser of values--this means developing and transmitting an organizational doctrine, i.e. a set of values and ideas which guide the organization's actions...a critical role in organizations seeking to introduce reforms.

3. Decision-Maker--problem solver; a very basic management concept.

4. Negotiator--engaging in continual negotiations with a much broader range of groups and interests than other type of managers.

5. Organization Architect--a meta-management function performed
    at the very highest levels where decisions are made regarding
    the design of the systems which will shape the policy-making
    processes.

6. Implementor--obtaining action through people, motivating
    others in such a way that they will implement the strategy.

7. Ambassador--establishing linkages between institutions,
    visualizing the total system, identifing key points of
    interdependence, gaining acceptance by appropriate
    individuals, and introducing the necessary linking mechanisms.

8. Public Spokesman--the advocacy role, i.e., representing and
    defending his program and its objectives, often controversial
    by nature, to the outside world.

9. Interpreter of Community Aspirations--managerial actions aimed
    at mobilizing the community to play a more active,
    self-directed role in using its own resources, setting
    priorities, and obtaining needed inputs from the government;
    as well as actions to make programs and bureaucratic
    structures more responsive to these community inputs.

Philippine Rural Development Managers

In the Philippines, the focus of our attention is the rural

development manager at the middle-level. This is the project manager or

the proposed area or district manager.

The tasks of an area manager involved in Integrated Rural

Development, utilizing the Integrated Area Development Approach, would

be the following:

1. Planning--this is a critical function of the area manager and
    involves the balancing of objectives or harmonizing the
    oftentimes conflicting objectives of sectoral programs as well
    as that of communities within the area. It also involves the
    participation of representatives/managers of various sectoral
    and community agencies.

2. Implementation--a critical task is the avoidance of
    duplication of efforts given the multiplicity of sectoral
    agencies involved. Developing an organizational capability is
    another critical task.

3. Monitoring and Evaluation—a critical task that deserves more attention is the complex monitoring required because of multiplicity of objectives. Designing other evaluation schemes other than economic evaluation.

Research on project management in the Philippines, such as Ocampo's (1980) study on the Bicol River Basin (as well as other observations on IAD projects), reveal constraints impinging on project performance which serve as determinants of a project manager's tasks and roles. Project organization requires a project manager with considerable role adaptability. He must balance technical solutions with time, resource, and human factors. He is, in short, an integrator and a generalist rather than a technical specialist.

There are seven constraints impinging on project performance that has been commonly identified by different agencies involved in IAD projects. These are:

1. Organizational structure and authority relationships—The matrix type of organization does not facilitate coordination and pin-point specific responsibility for project success. Authority relationships are therefore ill-defined leading to individualistic outlooks and performances among agencies.

2. Management support—weak political will or wavering support of top program and political leaders.

3. Leadership traits and technical competence of project managers—there is often a lack of technical-project managers and, if there are available, they are often lacking in leadership or management skills.

4. Competence of project staff assistance—there is an equal need for staff trained in rural development as well as project development.

5. The environment of project management—often the location of projects are in very depressed areas with almost no amenities.

6. The temporal nature of project life—since projects by nature are time constrained, issues of promotions and job stability, as well as loyalties, come to the fore.

7. The discrepancy of pay rates of personnel assigned to projects—often project staff members receive higher pay than those assigned by agencies to aid program development. Both staff may perform the same job, thus leading to jealousies and other organizational pathologies.

8. A fast-rising issue is the meddling of foreign consultants in project implementation. Although documentation is insufficient, it is not too uncommon to hear local project leaders gripe about discrepancies in pay, approaches to the problem or tasks at hand, and the foreign consultant's penchant for utilizing western-oriented models to solve problems which have indigenous systems for their solution.

Some of the most common problems encountered by project managers in the Philippines are those that pertain to communications, policies, the attitudes of farmers, conflicting interests of parties, minimum budget (including the delay in the arrival of funds), and cumbersome administrative and procedural matters (based on an unpublished selected random sampling survey conducted in 1978 by MARD personnel).

There are, on the other hand, four criteria which define the role of a rural development manager. These are, according to Korten (1979):

1. Job responsibilities are centered on results rather than procedures;

2. These results depend on voluntary support from individuals and independent organizations which are beyond the manager's direct control;

3. The programs being managed contribute toward strengthening the capacity of organizations external to the manager's own, especially community level organizations comprised of the poor; and

4. The manager's decisions are subject to the guidance of some broadly representative body.

In essence, the ability to recognize the appropriate role to be played and to change roles readily is a mark of an effective manager (Stoner, 1982).

In <u>Internalizing Rural Development Experience</u> by Cuyno and Lumanta
(1979), the Philippine rural development manager is expected to be a
rural educator, a technical adviser, a community organizer, an
information disseminator, and a resource linker.

As a <u>rural educator</u>, he is expected to provide the farmers'
learning experiences for them to acquire modern farming practices which
will lead to high productivity. Aside from the above, he is expected to
help the community grow through the introduction of innovations and, if
needed, he should be able to reorient values which may impinge upon the
development of the community as a whole.

As a <u>technical adviser</u>, he is expected to provide direct advice on
technical aspects related to agricultural and rural development.
Specifically, he should be able to provide research data, technical
experience and advice on methods and techniques.

As a <u>community organizer</u>, he should be able to help the community
establish its local institutions and strengthen existing organizations.
He should help the people verbalize their need for a local organization,
urge them to organize, and emphasize the advantages of cooperative
undertakings through organization

As an <u>information disseminator</u>, he is expected to transmit
knowledge and information through a variety of channels. He is expected
to explain methods to the farmers who are generally cut off from such
information, inform and provide them with learning resource materials on
farming, homemaking, and anything to improve rural life.

As a <u>resource linker</u>, he is expected to bring to the clientele
packages of technical services, such as marketing, credit assistance,
and infrastructure projects. He is expected to serve as the middle-man

between the farmers and resource agencies to ensure that the necessary resources will reach intended clientele.

In the MARD personal interview of project managers (1978) from both the public and private sector, the following roles were perceived by the managers themselves:

1. Be able to handle himself and those around him in any given situation. Able to accept his own failures, be a risk taker, and be aggressive, innovative, creative, and competent;

2. Be in touch with the actual project situation and be flexible enough to adopt policies for field implementation;

3. Be knowledgeable about his goals and familiar with management tools;

4. Be able to motivate his staff and get their cooperation, loyalty, and support; and

5. Be more of a generalist, although knowledge of agriculture would be an advantage.

These managers achieved their positions through possession of a degree and field of specialization along with much experience. They are generally agriculturists by profession and have limited formal management training. They were able to effectively run projects through their intuition and common sense; they admit the need for management training.

Conclusion

Based on existing literature on rural development, a selected random survey, and personal observations, the tasks and roles of the rural development manager at the middle-level pertain to three major areas of equal concern: the community, his organization, and the program.

The tasks and roles he fulfills at the community level are primarily directed towards strengthening the community as a political/social decision-making unit. As a member of an organization, specifically a public one, his tasks and roles are directed towards ensuring efficiency and effectiveness in the management of organizational resources. As program leader or member, his tasks and roles pertain to the creation of organizational and institutional arrangements conducive to effective program planning, implementation, and evaluation (which are typically multi-agency and often multi-sectoral).

His concerns can be said to be equally focused on the management of all three important, and often conflicting, components with a frequent view towards concurrent maintenance and development.

It follows, therefore, that the tasks, roles, and concerns necessary to manage rural development require the acquisition, through training, of the appropriate concepts, skills, and attitudes. The identification of these requisite concepts, skills, and attitudes will be the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

THE COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

Given the tasks and roles outlines in Chapter 3, the purpose of this chapter is to identify the elements of the cognitive and affective domain and how they relate to the concepts, skills, and attitudes required of a rural development manager.

The concepts, skills and attitudes that will be identified here are the product of theoreticians and observations of rural development practitioners. However, two constraints must be noted: 1) there is no specific position description, "rural development manager", in most organizations and bureaucracies involved in rural development; and 2) development writers have used different labels (e.g., development systems manager [Korten, 1979], agricultural manager [ILO, 1974], development-oriented administrators [De Guzman, 1976],) to refer to approximately the same set of role responsibilities. It will help to keep in mind, however, that the concepts, skills, and attitudes described in this chapter should be applicable to the tasks of middle-level managers in the public sector.

The Cognitive Domain

"Cognitive" is used to include remembering and recalling knowledge, thinking, problem-solving, and creating. Bloom's (1964) taxonomy of this domain is organized into six major classes, but can be subsumed into two areas: 1) knowledge; and 2) abilities and skills. Knowledge involves the recall of specifics and universals, the recall of methods

and processes, or the recall of a pattern, structure, or setting. Intellectual abilities, on the other hand, refer to organized modes of operation and generalized techniques for dealing with materials and problems.

The area of knowledge in rural development, for example, involves:

1. knowledge of specifics, i.e., knowledge of terminologies used in the field as well as of specific facts, i.e., dates, events, people and places, etc.;

2. knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics, i.e., ways of organizing, studying, judging, and criticizing facts or information about rural development; and

3. knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field, i.e., the theories and generalizations in rural development.

The area of intellectual abilities or skills, on the other hand, involves:

1. comprehension of the materials or ideas in rural development without necessarily relating it to other material or seeing its fullest implications. This involves translation of ideas, interpretation or explanation, and extrapolation;

2. application or the use of abstractions in the field or concrete situations;

3. analysis or the breaking down of ideas into elements to focus closely on their structure, organization and their relationships;

4. synthesis or the putting together of elements and parts so as to form a whole; and

5. evaluation or the judgements of ideas in terms of internal evidence and external criteria.

To fully explicate the above, it is necessary to identify the concepts that constitute the knowledge areas of the rural development manager.

Concepts may be defined as notions of our perceptions of reality whose meanings have become established and validated and have been assigned names. Concepts have mental, physical, and verbal forms. Concepts are also open-ended, suggesting that we never attain complete understanding of them because new principles and facts are learned through research and practical experience. Concepts are useful as a means for delineating a field of knowledge in terms of its parts, as organizing elements of a curriculum, and as the substantive content of educational objectives.

In a report authored by the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy (ECOP) of the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges entitled, "Community Development Concepts, Curriculum Training Needs" (1975), concepts were described as useful:

1. as ways of thinking about (analyzing and describing) real life situations;

2. for organizing and structuring observations of reality, facts and knowledge;

3. for communicating with others;

4. as a basis for predicting and testing relationships;

5. as a means for becoming acquainted with a field of knowledge; and

6. As elements in developing theory.

Application of Concepts to Rural Development Management

Rural development managers must be prepared to think about, and make applications of, concepts. Studies of human learning suggest that the learner can deal with a limited number of abstract ideas. It is important, therefore, that key concepts be identified for clearer focus by the learner.

Rural Development Management can be categorized as an emerging sub-field of the study of Rural Development. The plethora of literature on rural development within the last five years attests not only to the interest in rural development but to its attainment of disciplinary or semi-disciplinary status. Moris (1978) asserts that there is ample foundation of materials and concepts to warrant the emergence of rural development as an applied profession in its own right. Yet, the interstitial nature of the profession is a limiting factor in itself.

Rural Development intersects about ten academic disciplines. Important sub-areas, according to Moris, which overlap the jurisdictions of the conventional disciplines, include:

Topical Area	Parent Disciplines
1. Development economics	Economics
2. Applied Anthropology	Anthropology
3. Underdevelopment Theory	Marxian sociology
4. Rural sociology	Sociology
5. International agriculture	Agricultural Economics
6. Nonformal education	Extension, Education, Communication
7. Development Administration	Political Science, Management, Public Administration
8. Urbanization & Modernization	Geography, Demography, Sociology
9. Rural & regional planning	Economics, Geography
10. Technology transfer	Agriculture, Engineering

Worthy of inclusion in the above list is community development, which is eclectic, and has emerged as a discipline and as an applied profession.

Concepts Central to Rural Development Management

The following is a list of critical concepts of rural development management adapted from the ECOP (1975) report. They are delineated here and discussed in the Appendix A. This list is not necessarily

complete considering the dynamic nature of the field; as new concepts
and sub-concepts emerge they can be added to the central group of
concepts identified:

Community Development Concepts

1. Community
2. Development
3. Community Development Process

Learning Concepts

1. Behavioral Change ·
2. Teachable Moment
3. Diffusion and Adoption

Sociological Concepts

1. Social System
2. Social Interaction
3. Communication
4. Organizational Boundary Maintenance
5. Decision Making
6. Socialization
7. Social Control
8. Social Change
9. Social Movement

Geographic Concepts

1. Region
2. Central Place
3. Functional Area

Political Concepts

1. Political Culture
2. Political System Functions
3. Demand Inputs
4. Support Inputs
5. Power and Influence

Economic Concepts

1. Marginal Analysis
2. Opportunity Cost
3. Economies of Size
4. Inter-industry and Input-Output Analysis
5. Multiplier analysis
6. Interregional Competition
7. Benefit-Cost Analysis

Feasiility Concepts

    1. Feasibility

Property Rights Concepts
    1. Property

Statistical Concepts

    1. Systems theory
    2. Modelling techniques
    3. Linear Programming
    4. Survey and Sampling Techniques

Administration/Management Concepts

    1. Efficiency and effectiveness
    2. Organizational and Managerial Theory
    3. Rationality-legality
    4. Functional specialization
    5. Authority-Hierarchy
    6. Management Functions (Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Leading, Controlling)
    7. Project Management
    8. Operations Research
    9. Management Information System

These are the essential concepts which comprise the body of knowledge constituting the emerging field of rural development management.

Skills in Rural Development Management

In a quote from a report on the Gombe and Funtua Agricultural Development Projects by Gordon and Duncan (1982), a distinction was made between technical skills and management skills:

    1. by technical, or task related, skills is meant, for example, road and dam construction, use of base and surfacing materials, book-keeping, stores systems, administrative procedures, engineering and vehicle maintenance skills, evaluation techniques, etc.; and

    2. management skills mean those less tangible, but essential skills of being able to think and plan ahead; to forsee problems, set standards and monitor progress; to tackle tasks methodically and set objectives; to build effective teams;

to motivate subordinates; to visualize and keep in mind the broader picture of the whole job; people using human resources effectively; communicating effectively, etc..

Katz (1974) has identified three basic types of skills needed by all managers---technical, human, and conceptual. Technical skill is the ability to use the tools, procedures, or techniques of a specialized field. Human skill is the ability to work with, understand, and motivate other people—either as individuals or as groups. Conceptual skill is the mental ability to coordinate and integrate all of the organization's interests and activities. Katz has pointed out that, although all three of these skills are essential to effective management, their relative importance to a specific manager depends upon his or her rank in the organization.

Samuel Paul (1977) mentions four types of skills that should be learned by today's public managers:

1. planning skills;

2. analytical skills;

3. organizational skills; and

4. integrative skills.

He arrived at these types based on what he describes as the functions performed by today's public manager, namely, planning and policy, environmental appraisal, service delivery and logistics, technology and production, budgeting, information, and control, and organization and personnel.

To the above list, Siffin (1977) would add what he calls "unstructured skills", which are regarded by some as central to creating effective managers. These skills are considered most essential for public managers in the developing world and include:

1. interpersonal skills;

2. synthetic and integrative skills;

3. problem-and-opportunity-finding skills; and

4. decision-making skills under conditions of instability, uncertainty, and flux.

Synthetic skills are akin to Ackoff's "systemic-thinking," i.e., something to be explained as part of a larger system and explained in terms of its role in that larger system. Integrative skills are skills that embrace the multiplicity of objectives and services, as well as the different agencies, involved in integrated rural development. The other two skills are in response to the environment in which the rural manager operates. Livingstone (1971), for example, argues that while analytical skills are important, a manager's success will ultimately depend on his ability to anticipate problems long before they arise.

The skills mentioned by Katz, Paul, and Siffin, address—to a large extent—the task requirements of integrated rural development. Some of the skills mentioned can be taught but, as Livingstone maintains, certain characteristics of effective managers are almost impossible to teach. These characteristics are personal qualities that people develop long before they enter management training programs. For example, three qualities associated with successful managers are:

1. The need to manage. Only those people who want to affect the performance of others and who derive satisfaction when they do so are likely to become effective managers.

2. The need for power. Good managers have a need to influence others. To do this they do not rely on the authority of their positions but on their superior knowledge and skill.

3. The capacity for empathy. The effective manager also needs the ability to understand and cope with the often unexpressed emotional reactions of others in the organization in order to win their cooperation (Livingstone, 1971).

A pertinent question is: What do field managers believe are the most important management skills? A 1978 study conducted by MARD at the University of the Philippines found that, among a sample of Filipino field managers:

1. the skills ranked as most important by the respondents were skills relating to the management function of planning, directing, and controlling. Emphasis was given to skills pertaining to coordinating, motivating personnel and delegating responsibilities;

2. next in the rank of importance to the respondents were people-oriented skills (e.g., basic skills such as persuading people, resolving conflicts, and relating interpersonally; organizational skills, such as personnel selection, performance evaluation, disciplining, and counseling employees); and skills in the use of basic tools (e.g., operations research, records management, accounting, bookeeping, budgeting, linear programming); and

3. Last in the rank of importance were skills that the participants felt were support-related skills rather than management-related. These are skills in using the computer, designing training programs, maintaining physical facilities, and fund raising.

The Affective Domain

If trainers want assurance that the knowledge and skills acquired in the training situations are transferred to the work situation, every effort must be undertaken so that the accompanying values and attitudes are developed in the managers being trained.

There are no generalized approaches to the development of desirable attitudes and values, but the first step involves determining the types of attitudes which should be promoted and developed. This brings us to the subject of the affective domain (De Guzman, 1976). As a trainee moves from the lower levels in the affective domain, the behavior of the trainee changes from passive to active, involuntary to voluntary,

transitory to stable, inconsistent to consistent, and from neutral (or negative) to positive.

Management training on attitudinal or behavioral change must consider the affective domain as a first step in developing attitudes, predispositions, values and beliefs that are supportive of acquired managerial capabilities and technocratic skills. For example, Krathwohl (1956) cites the following levels in the hierarchy of the affective domain:

1. Receiving (i.e., knowledge or information received by the student in the education process)
   a. Awareness
   b. Willingness to Receive
   c. Controlled or Selective Attention

2. Responding (i.e., the student reacts to the knowledge or information he has acquired)
   a. Acquiesence in Responding
   b. Willingness to Respond
   c. Satisfaction in Response

3. Valuing (i.e., the student begins to consider or decide which knowledge he wants to learn or retain)
   a. Acceptance of a value
   b. Preference for a Value
   c. Commitment

4. Organization (i.e., the student organizes his values into a cohesive form)
   a. Conceptualization of a value
   b. Organization of a value system

5. Characterization by a Value Complex (i.e., the student begins to act out his values after internalizing them)
   a. Generalized Set
   b. Characterization

It is important to note that the Peace Corps (1973) has utilized the above model in training its overseas participants. But what are the values that are to be considered desirable in the training of Filipino administrators?

In research conducted by De Guzman and Carbonnel in 1976 (De Guzman, 1979) on the development-orientedness of Filipino administrators, some value committments were identified. These are the values that should be instilled in every Filipino administrator:

1. change orientation;

2. action propensity;

3. commitment to economic development;

4. concern for economic equality;

5. concern for public participation;

6. concern for conflict avoidance;

7. concern for the nation; and

8. selflessness.

MARD (1975) has also identified several attitudes or attributes that a rural development manager should possess. The manager must possess character, be a risk-taker, aggressive, innovative, creative, and competent. He must constantly be attuned to his environment or culture. As Samonte (1978) points out, personalism and particularistic orientation is a typical social value in a transitional society that can be used to advantage by the manager. It can help him win group support, prevent conflict with policy makers, and facilitate acceptance of plans.

Conclusion

It is important to note that there are several reservations regarding the transferability of managerial concepts, tools, techniques and technology. Reasons that have been advanced include:

1. Some are specifically designed for stable ongoing systems in which the ethos of "maintenance" rather than "development" is the operative imperative.

2. Some are too sophisticated and powerful in terms of the needs, available data, and qualified personnel, and the general resource base of the country concerned; they are used either suboptimally or irrelevantly.

3. There is a record of faddism in the discovery and adoption of tools, techniques, and technology in the management field.

4. Their effectiveness anywhere is determined in particular by the presence of what Moris calls a congruent "surrounding administrative culture". (Stifel, 1977)

In essence, there are two types of culture that significantly affect the transferability of concepts. One is the administrative culture imposed by western colonialism which has been perpetuated since independence in developing countries. As in the case of the Philippines, the Spanish and American systems of government have been transplanted and

"through the passage of time has acquired its own enduring legitimacy either because it has evolved as an amalgam congruent with indigenous value systems or because of sheer prescription" (Stifel, 1977).

The other culture is the deep-rooted traditional culture of a people or a region. The implication of such cultures, according to Mendoza (1978), is for such countries to develop concepts (or management systems) that are responsive to, and congruent with, the values, the needs, and the resources of such areas.

The task that remains, therefore—having identified the skills, attitudes and concepts of a rural development manager—is to build a curriculum. This, essentially, will be the concern of the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

A MANAGEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM

The purpose of this chapter is to describe a management education program that is suitable for rural development managers. The proposed program is expected to be used in the current MARD program in UPLB.

The early part of the chapter will be spent discussing the different models of public management education. Focus will then be on the MARD program of UPLB as one model. The later part of the chapter will be devoted to presenting a curriculum design based on the preceeding chapter.

Management Training Models

Siffin (1977) notes that, throughout the developing world, the existing models for education and training (that fall under the broad rubric of public management) are western in their origin. There are currently three such models.

The first model pertains to the administrative cultures of western colonial rule, including their traditions of training for the public services. Such a model, concentrating on law and order maintenance, has socialized many of the present generation of public officials (e.g., the Institutes of Administration and the Administrative Staff Colleges in anglophonic countries, and the Ecole Nationale d'Administration in francophonic countries [Stifel, 1977]).

The second model is the transfer of American public administration programs during the late 1950's and throughout the 1960's, which

resulted in the establishment or development of some seventy administrative training institutions in the developing world. The UP College of Public Administration (mentioned in Chapter 2) is one example.

The third model, which is recent and has gained a measure of popularity, is the replication of the American business management model as exemplified in Harvard, MIT, Stanford and, in the Philippines, the Asian Institute of Management (AIM).

While these models are currently gaining popularity and acceptance, critics still argue that their transferability on a large scale has to be seriously questioned. In 1976, the participants to the Bellagio Conference, [Stifel, 1977] composed mostly of those involved in management education all over the world, proposed three alternative models.

The first model seeks the infusion of management content into existing professional (pre-entry) degree programs. This model addresses the development of future managers, but also addresses the constraints of time available and the priority of technical subjects in the curricula.

The second model is the Post-entry Short-Term Non-Degree Program. This curriculum focuses on specialized, intensive short-term courses for senior and middle-level sectoral managers.

The third model is the Pre-entry Postgraduate Management Degree Program. This model concentrates directly on new graduates by offering a one or two-year postgraduate program in management with a sectoral emphasis.

UPLB's MARD program incorporates the second and third model. The focus of this paper, however, is on the third model, which is the educational component of the MARD program (the Master of Management major in rural development management).

The MARD Model

In most developing countries, the universities will be encouraged and expected to provide diverse programs that are directly geared to national development needs (including management education and training). Management institutes and universities obviously can assist each other in the development of curricula, research, and evaluation efforts.

The experience of the Indian Institute of Management and Administration (IIMA), as well as of the Asian Institute of Management (AIM), suggests that the effectiveness of management education and training programs will be enhanced by the presence of:

1. a flexible organizational form;

2. the encouragement of research and consultancy;

3. a sound educational model;

4. leadership; and

5. a minimum size of operations.

The MARD model, still in its infancy, addresses all five factors. However, the focus of our concern is the evolution and the continuity of a sound educational model that will not only serve local national interests, but also serve nations within the region.

Such a task is obviously difficult, given the undefined management disciplinary boundaries that exist. However, we can be guided by the

insights of those who have had previous experience in training. For instance, Youker (1979) says that, from learning theory, research, and experience, management training results in behavioral change when the training:

1. is built around local systems, procedures and cases;

2. involves a team from an organization rather than only an individual;

3. is experientially based so that participants can gain confidence in their new skills;

4. promotes within the participants the need for the training and belief in its relevance to them and their problems; and

5. involves follow-up back on the job so as to integrate the training into the local administrative environment.

The MARD model can be viewed as an experiment—if not a pioneering effort—given the fact that most schools of public management focus on the training of senior and middle-level public servants and not specifically on rural development. Also, while non-degree training is being focused on specific sectors of rural areas, there is no formal management education at this time for middle-level managers of rural development. While it is expected that agricultural specialists will be the major clientele of MARD, the emphasis of training is directed towards producing a management generalist. Thus, various students from development sectors, who occupy or would be occupants of management positions, will be trained to manage projects irrespective of sector.

The University of the Philippines at Los Banos instituted the MARD program under the late Chancellor Abelardo G. Samonte with a view toward accelerating rural development activities by providing trained managers at the implementation level. The immediacy of its response to the national need implies program deficiencies, such as the inadequacy of a

well-conceived curriculum design, evaluation methods, and procedures. These are MARD's areas that need strengthening and that this dissertation hopes to adequately address.

A sound educational program, for example, should be based on a well designed needs-assesment survey of the client's organizational needs and of the clients themselves. Based on these findings, objectives or goals can then be stated that will, in turn, provide the basis for the curriculum and evaluation design. Throughout the process, there should be provisions for continous feedback and evaluation that can provide the basis for making corrective inputs in the program. Such designs, which are intended to systematize program development, have not been addressed by the MARD staff. This paper will, therefore, address those concerns by proposing a management curriculum that is designed to improve the existing program.

Elements in the Curriculum Design Framework

Steps in the Curriculum Development Process

The development of an educational program requires thinking through the steps involved in program development, i.e., planning, implementation, and evaluation. The process of building a curriculum is parallel to the planning process.

Taba (1962) has identified 7 steps in the curriculum development process:

1. diagnosis of needs;
2. formulation of objectives;
3. selection of content;

4. organization of content;

5. selection of learning experience;

6. organization of learning experience; and

7. determination of what to evaluate and the means of doing it.

These steps will be one of two elements associated with our curriculum framework. These 7 steps represent the traditional model of education, which can be described as content oriented, in contrast to the process (or andragogical model), which is the other element in the framework.

The Andragogical (Process) Model of Adult Education

The andragogical model of education is a process model—in contrast to the content models employed by most traditional educators. The difference is that, in traditional education, the teacher decides in advance what knowledge or skill needs to be transmitted, arranges this body of content into logical units, selects the most efficient means for transmitting this content and, then, develops a plan for presenting these content units in some sort of sequence. The andragogical model, on the other hand, prepares in advance a set of procedures for involving the learners (and other parties, e.g., the organization(s)) in a process involving the following elements:

1. establishing a climate conducive to learning;

2. creating a mechanism for mutual planning;

3. diagnosing the needs for learning;

4. formulating program objectives that will satisfy these needs;

5. designing a pattern of learning experiences;

6. conducting these learning experiences with suitable techniques and materials; and

7. evaluating the learning outcomes and rediagnosing learning needs.

The andragogical model is particularly applicable to the MARD case for several reasons. Traditional pedagogy promotes dependency whereas andragogy increases self-directiveness. Pedagogy also considers experience of little value; andragogy utilizes learners as a resource for learning. In terms of readiness to learn, pedagogy takes into consideration the biological development of the learner whereas andragogy focuses on developmental tasks of social roles. Knowledge learned in pedagogy has postponed application value; andragogy has immediate applicability. Lastly, pedagogy is topic-centered; andragogy is problem-centered.

The model needed by MARD is one where there is a strong emphasis on increasing self-directiveness and recognition of the learner's experiences. It should be problem-centered and subject-centered. It also recognizes that, unlike training (where time is usually short), a degree-granting program takes more time and, therefore, application of some learning is postponed.

Pedagogy functions well in a setting that is authority-oriented and formal, as well as in a competitive environment. Andragogy functions well in a mutually respectful, informal, and collaborative environment. Planning for instruction in pedagogy is by the teacher alone, whereas andragogy involves the student in an array of activities that include: diagnosis of needs and formulating objectives and activities.

The curriculum design model that emerges in this dissertation is a combination of two elements that are desirable: the 7-step curriculum development process using an andragogical approach.

The 7-Step Curriculum Development Process

Diagnosis of Needs (Step 1)

In the earlier chapters, a case for the training of current and future rural development managers was made. The basic assumption of this paper is that the rate of success of rural development programs and projects have been low and that, among other factors, a managerial deficiency has been pin-pointed as largely responsible.

To effectively diagnose the needs for learning to overcome such a deficiency, two steps are necessary. First, it is necessary to construct a model of the desired behavior, performance, or competencies of the rural development manager. Secondly, the discrepancies or gaps between the competencies specified in the model and their present level of development by the learners need to be assessed.

There are three sources of data for building a diagnostic model namely: the society, the organization, and the individual.

The Society. Developing countries have adopted complex strategies for rural development (e.g., the integrated approach) that require training of current and future implementors/managers of programs and projects. The matter of training is part of public policy designed to:

1. strengthen administrative systems;

2. provide the necessary impetus to rural development efforts; and

3. sustain its gains.

The Organization. Organizations and governmental agencies view training as one way of strengthening administrative capability, i.e., to improve present managerial capabilities and, at the same time, develop a cadre of managers necessary for sustaining development efforts. Management education, as one among other solutions, is preferred because it is an integral part of public policy towards development and resources are often adequate for pursuing this type of solution.

It should be noted, however, that previous training programs have not been without problems. Some of these problems pertain to structural deficiencies in the conceptualizaton and execution of the programs; others relate to the more fundamental problem of what to teach and how to teach it (given the perceived absence of indigenous well-developed models for transferring management concepts and skills).

The Individual. Managers, in actuality, perform a variety of functions that are largely maintenance-oriented. However, we also expect them to perform more and more developmental functions. Note has also been made of the manager's functional areas of concern, i.e., the community, his organization, and the program or project. The accommodation of these conflicting goals and competing areas of concern neccesitates training in management that would include, for example, the development of integration and synthesis skills.

Our model of the rural development manager, given the task environment in most developing countries, is generalist in orientation. It focuses on the person who has basic training in one of the development sectors (such as agriculture) and "tops" this degree with management training in the previously mentioned areas of concern. Thus, a graduate of the program can be expected to manage a development project irrespective of sector.

There is, therefore, a need to inculcate the concepts, skills, and attitudes required of today and tomorrow's rural development manager. Such concepts, skills and attitudes have been identified in the previous chapter. However, the perception of such a need has to be shared by the students themselves. As a matter of fact, much of the assessment (as part of the diagnostic process), is self-assessment with the teacher/facilitator providing the student with procedures for obtaining data about his competency level. A variety of feedback-yielding tools and procedures are available to incorporate into the assessment process.

Having diagnosed learning needs, the next step in the curriculum design process is to formulate program and curriculum objectives.

Formulation of Objectives (Step 2)

Clearly defined educational purposes are neessary for outlining the content of a curriculum, for developing instructional procedures, for assessing student growth, and for making continued improvements in the program. Such objectives can be derived from the interests of the learners, from contemporary society, and the subject-matter disciplines. Also, it should be stressed that three levels of objectives need to be discussed here, i.e., program objectives, curriculum objectives, and course objectives.

Education _program objectives_ can be stated as follows:

1. To increase the efficient implementation of rural development activities;

2. To improve the administrative capabilities of current managers; and

3. To build a cadre of trained managers who will sustain the development effort.

Curriculum objectives, to be realistically attainable, should be described both in terms of the kind of behavior expected and the content or context to which that behavior applies. Thus, upon completion of the program, the student is expected to be able:

1. To gain knowledge of the major principles, concepts, theories, and facts in the field of rural development; specifically, those that pertain to the areas of community development, organization and management, and program administration/management;

2. To think critically, logically, and be able to analyze the concepts and issues involved in rural development, apply facts and principles to the solution of new problems and to predict and explain new phenomena;

3. To integrate and synthesize elements of facts and theories and evaluate their importance;

4. To be positive about himself, to relate interpersonally, and to manage groups;

5. To familiarize himself with the tools and techniques of management, the tasks and roles demanded from today's rural development manager; and

6. To internalize the necessary attitudes of a development-oriented manager.

Course objectives are more specific and can be described according to the modules of learning within a course. For example, a course on project management would have multiple learning modules. Given the fact that preparing detailed plans for implementation of projects is one of the tasks of our manager, an appropriate course objective could be: A papticipant, at the end of the course, will be able to prepare a work breakdown structure, prepare a critical path network, and analyze a critical path network.

Selection and Organization of Curriculum Content Steps (3 & 4)

Based on the needs and objectives articulated earlier, the content of the curriculum becomes easier to decide. The concepts presented earlier (in Chapter 4) essentially constitute the basis for the content of the curriculum. The organization of such content will be based on three pillars, namely: organization and management, community development, and program management. Presented in Appendix B is a detailed course description of the topics that will be discussed in each area. A curriculum summary is presented in Table 3.

Selection and Organization of Learning Experiences (Steps 5 & 6)

The criteria for building an effective, organized group of learning experiences are: continuity, sequence, and integration. Continuity involves the treatment over time of a concept, skill or value. Sequence emphasizes higher levels of treatment of an element rather than duplication with successive learning experiences. Integration involves acquiring relationships within and among elements of the curriculum (ECOP, 1975).

A look at the curriculum will reveal that the courses exhibit a logical, deductive order. During the early semesters, for example, the student focuses on the acquisition of knowledge and concepts and, then, moves toward the more specific application of these concepts. Thus, the program management component starts by introducing the student to the different concepts in the field, then gives him a macroscopic view of public programs, and finally focuses on how to prepare a project proposal. There is adequate time for field exposure at the end of the program; an integrating seminar is designed toward the end.

Table 3.

Summary of the Proposed Management Education Curriculum

Course Description	Credits	Semester to be Taken
Summer Workshop		Summer before admission
Public Program Management		
Public Affairs Management	3	1
Public Programs Management	3	2
Project Management	3	3
Community Development		
Community Development Theory	3	1
Special Topics in CD	3	2
Planned Change	3	3
Organization and Management		
Organization and Management Theory	3	1
Managerial Decision-Making	3	2
Organizational Development	3	3
Research Methods in RDM	3	2
Field Studies in RDM	5	Final Summer
Seminar in RDM	1	Final Summer

A very basic feature of the curriculum, however, is that it will be strongly anchored in the principles and concepts of andragogy. This is not only relevant, but necessary, considering that the students/clients of MARD are professionals. Thus, the following techniques will be used at every opportunity during the learning process:

1. case studies;
2. syndicates;
3. sensitivity training;
4. group dynamics;
5. role playing;
6. simulated learning through structured work experiences; and
7. action learning.

The andragogical model involves: 1) choosing problem areas that have been identified by the students through self-diagnostic procedures; 2) selecting appropriate formats (individuals, groups, mass activities) for learning; 3) designing units of experiential learning; and 4) utilizing suggested methods and materials and arranging them in sequence according to the students' readiness and aesthetic principles (Ingalls and Arceri, 1972; Knowles, 1970).

Thus, while the three areas of learning have been identified and courses have been sequenced, the students are expected to provide input into the curriculum. For a sample of where and how these techniques will be incorporated in the curriculum, see the attached examples of course designs in the Appendix B.

Conclusion

The design of this curriculum has been largely a conceptual process using the frameworks of early writers, such as Taba, and the experience of trainers, such as Youker (of the Economic Development Institute). It should be noted that much of the training efforts in rural development

(e.g. in Malaysia, India, Swaziland and training espoused by the World Bank, FAO, and ILO) do not have a strong community development (CD) content. At a time when citizen participation is a most heavily sought input to rural development, the need for CD training is paramount. The curriculum proposed here answers that need.

The model being designed incorporates features of both the pedagogical and andragogical model. The pedagogical model is useful in terms of thinking through the areas of learning as suggested by professionals and academicians. Further elaboration, however, or "homing in" on the target more accurately, is provided by the andragogical model. This unique combination will ensure acceptance from both students and university administrators.

What is necessary now is for us to propose how this curriculum will be evaluated (Step 7).

CHAPTER VI

MANAGEMENT EDUCATION EVALUATION

The purpose of Chapter 6 is to propose an evaluation design that can be utilized by any organization engaged in management education or training, in general, and by the MARD program in particular. Specifically, it is an evaluation scheme for the curriculum design presented in the previous chapter.

The early parts of the chapter will be utilized to explain the nature and need for evaluation and the advantages of having an evaluation scheme. The evaluation design will be presented in the later portions of the chapter.

The Importance of Evaluation

Evaluation is undertaken for a number of different reasons. Chelimsky (1978) and Rossi (1979), for example, point out that evaluation may be undertaken: for management and administrative purposes; to assess the appropriateness of program shifts; to identify ways to improve the delivery of interventions; and to meet the requirements of funding groups who have fiscal responsibility for the allocation of program monies. Furthermore, that evaluation can be undertaken for planning and policy purposes, i.e., to help decide on either program expansion or curtailment, and to reach decisions on whether to advocate one program or the other. Basically, evaluation measures the worth or value of an activity, decision, or course of action. It asks whether objectives were accomplished and whether they were the right objectives to begin with.

Evaluation is useful to a management training or educational program in that it can be used to justify expenditures or the very existence of the program. It also seeks to improve training as well as the trainers. It can therefore be said that evaluation, for all practical purposes, is an important component of an educational program.

Evaluation in the LDCs

It is important to realize that the matter of evaluation is viewed in different ways in developing countries. This observation is in line with our assumptions on the impact of administrative cultures and the overall question on the transferability of western concepts and values as postulated earlier in this work. For example, the conduct of evaluation requires clearly specified goals and a time-frame against which rates of achievement can be plotted. Yet, in the LDC's, vague goals are often politically necessary; official goals are either partial or badly chosen and the clarification of some goals may not occur until several years of effort have been invested. Thus, a program evaluator trained in western evaluation techniques will often find goals as difficult, if not impossible, to evaluate.

It has also been observed by Moris (1981) that where administrative systems are below the threshold for effective interaction, actual achievements will fall considerably below potential productivity—perhaps by as much as 50 percent. Furthermore, the discovery that some evaluation can be helpful has been rapidly extended to the much stronger assumption that definitive evaluation is always desirable. Actual field experiences also suggest that, in the LDCs, the demand for data is high but the storing and handling mechanisms are poor, if not inadequate.

Such limitations, which need no further elaboration, must be borne
in mind when conducting evaluation to assess the relative strength of
the MARD program. For example, the program objectives of MARD, which
focus on increase in public program implementation efficiency, would be
difficult to measure since such programs may themselves be difficult to
evaluate. What is realistically feasible, then, is the evaluation of
curriculum objectives because the many variables that surround program
operation are reduced.

Toward an Evaluation Model for MARD

As an educational program designed to implement and sustain
national development efforts, MARD needs an evaluation model that is
comprehensive and appropriate. This means that the evaluation program
should contain the following components, which by their order, suggest
the sequence of steps by which to develop that program:

1. the formulation and clarification of objectives;

2. the selection and construction of the appropriate devices for
   collecting evidence;

3. the application of evaluative criteria; and

4. the translation of evaluation findings into curriculum
   improvement (Taba, 1962; Youker, 1982).

Defining Objectives

The first step in evaluation is the definition of objectives. This
is usually arrived at after a needs assessment has been conducted. This
paper has made such an assessment, as well as identified program and
curriculum objectives, in Chapter 5.

It would be realistic to recognize at the onset of evaluation, that
training is but one factor that contributes to rural development

success. Thus, the attainment of the program objectives will not necessarily mean an increase in project success rate. What easily lends itself to evaluation are the stated curriculum objectives that are the focus of our evaluation effort.

It will be recalled, from Chapter 5, that curriculum objectives consist mainly of knowledge, mental skills, interpersonal skills, and attitude change. To know whether these objectives have been attained, requires evaluation of the student while in the program, upon immediate completion of his studies, and at least one point following graduation.

An important point to be made is that the planning of the evaluation effort should be simultaneous with that of program objectives during the planning phase of curriculum design.

Collecting Information

Gathering evaluation data occurs before, during, at the end, and after the education program. Figure 1 shows when data are to be collected for the MARD program. The gathering of such data can be part of the different types of evaluation, e.g., needs assessment, program planning, implementation or process, and outcome (or product) evaluation.

A needs assessment can be described as a systematic appraisal of the type, depth, and scope of problems as perceived by study targets or their advocates. Program planning evaluation, on the other hand, are studies of: the extent and location of problems for intervention, ways that targets can be defined in operational terms, and whether the proposed intervention is suitable. Implementation and progress evaluation refer to the adequacy of organizational arrangements and
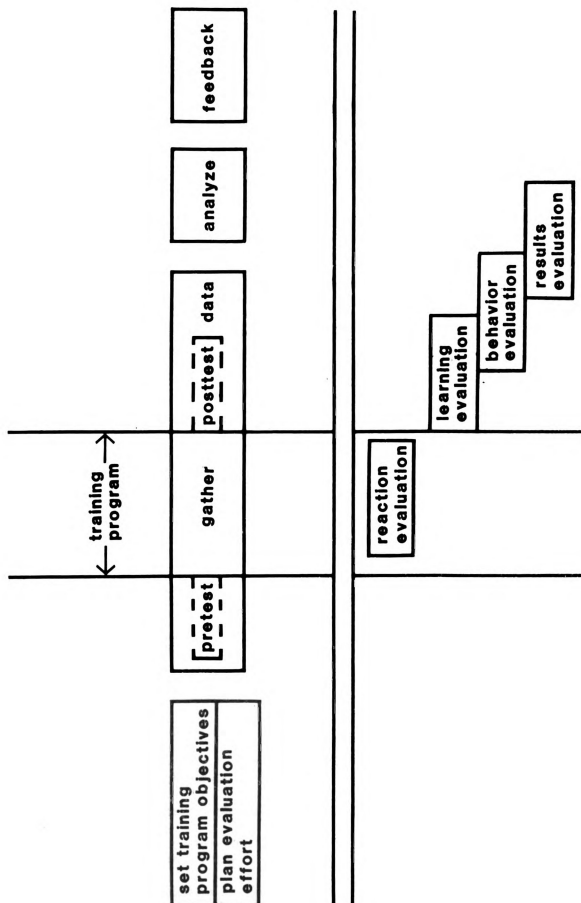
Figure 1. When to Collect Evaluation Data

resources in carrying out the program objectives and whether they are, indeed, reaching the target clientele (sometimes called "monitoring"). Outcome (or product) evaluation, on the other hand, attempts to measure whether the intended change on the target clientele has been accomplished or, more succinctly, whether the program objectives have been met. Youker (1982) presents this model in graphic form as:

needs assessment

program planning

Implementation
evaluation

Progress
evaluation

Outcome or
product evaluation
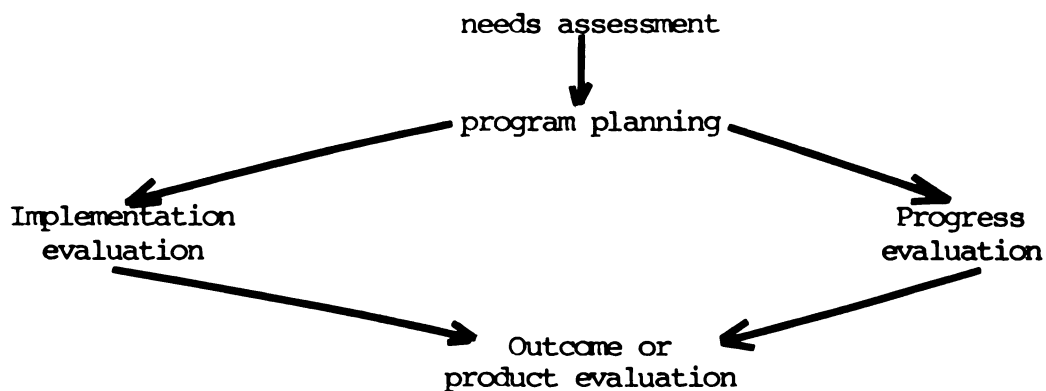
Data can be collected through observations, interviews, questionnaires, discussions, tests, and workshop exercises.

For the MARD program, data about the student will be collected prior to formal admission to the program, i.e., a workshop seminar currently exists whereby, through tests, discussions, informal interviews and questionnaires, the student's training needs are established. For example, the following information can be collected to determine training needs:

1. the student's academic or professional background or qualifications;

2. his present post and responsibilities;

3. his day-to-day tasks in order to carry out those responsibilities;

4. his training expectations or what types of learning he hopes to have;

5. the value of training to him in terms of career mobility; and

6. his perceived contribution to his organization after training.

Youdale (1982) has utilized these questions to evaluate prospective trainees of the Mananga Agricultural Management Centre in Swaziland.

Through discussions and interviews, the MARD staff can also obtain some "sense" of the values and attitudes towards rural development of the student. What could really be an innovation to the system would be the taking of the Myers-Briggs Personality Indicator (Myers-Briggs, 1976) to enable the student to monitor his progress, as well as promote closer interaction with fellow students. The Myers Briggs process gives the student some insights of himself, i.e., tells him whether he is more of an introvert or extrovert, uses his intuition more than his senses in dealing with his environment, inclined towards being more judgemental, and more of a thinker, etc.. Other tests, such as those that require identification of key concepts in rural development management, can likewise be employed to determine training needs.

One very important source of data at the planning stage would be the students' organization. Through their letters of recommendations, we can get a "glimpse" of their expectations for the student and training needs (more so if the student is enjoying a scholarship).

Data will be collected, likewise, during the entire course of the educational program pertaining to subject-matter content and methods (this is institutionalized for all courses offered by the University). They usually focus on course content improvement as well as methodology. The most common tool for doing this is a questionnaire that has both specific and open-ended questions. This type of evaluation focuses on the process of education for both the student and the teacher. It is

basically a stage for assessment whether objectives are being currently met.

At the end of the program, two types of evaluation will be designed. One evaluation will be done immediately following the completion of all the requirements for graduation; the other is a tracer study that will focus on the student and his organization

Evaluative Criteria

The objectives described earlier (i.e., knowledge, skills, and attitude change) will be evaluated using the criteria formulated by Malcolm Knowles and employed by Youker (1982):

1. reaction (student feelings);

2. learning (ability to perform);

3. behavior (on the job); and

4. results (organizational performance) (see Figure 1).

Reaction evaluation involves gathering data about how the students are responding to the educational program as it takes place, i.e., what they like and don't like the most or least (positive and negative feelings). These data can be obtained through group discussions, interviews, and questionnaires conducted at the end of individual courses and at the end of the program.

Learning evaluation involves gathering data about the principles, facts, and techniques acquired by the student. This involves using pre-tests and post-test measures designed to measure gains resulting from the learning experiences. Performance tests are indicated for

skill learning, e.g., project writing, interviewing for staffing, handling conflict situations, etc.. Standardized "information recall" tests or problem-solving exercises can be used to gauge knowledge. Attitude learning can be measured by devices such as attitudinal scales, role playing, and simulations.

Behavior evaluation involves gathering data about actual changes in what the student does after the training program as compared with before. Some sources of this kind of data include: productivity or time-motion studies, observation scales (for use by supervisors, collegues, and subordinates), self-rating scales, diaries, interview schedules, and questionnaires.

Result evaluation involves gathering data usually found in the routine records of the organization, e.g., records on costs, efficiency grievances, absences or tardiness etc.. Data from program and community leaders is also included and is valuable.

It is important to remember that the main difficulty in evaluation is sufficiently controlling the variables to be able to demonstrate that it was the training that is mainly responsible for any changes that have occurred. It is, therefore, recommended that control groups be used.

Newstrom (1978) has presented a framework as depicted in Figure 2 as a guide to how often evaluation should be conducted, the value of information, and the difficulty of assessment of the above criteria.

Criterion	VALUE OF HELP	FREQUENCY OF USE	DIFFICULTY OF ASSESSMENT
Reaction	Lowest	Relatively Frequent	Relatively Easy
Learning			
Behavior			
Results	Highest	Relatively Infrequent	Relatively Difficult

Figure 2. The Newstrom (1978) Evaluation Framework.

Evaluation Process

Before the formal admission of a student into the program, a summer workshop is necessary as a pre-evaluation phase conducted by the staff. In this phase, the objectives, requirements, outlines, methods, and materials of the program are made known. Prospective students will be exposed to some tests measuring their aptitude, interests, and qualifications for the educational program.

During the program, periodic evaluations (at the end of each semester) will be conducted to correct any problems. Basically, they will check on the achievement of course objectives and methods. This will be conducted by the staff and students.

Upon completion of the program, the student will be evaluated to measure his learning and to identify changes in the curriculum, methodology, materials, and staff performance. Again, this will be accomplished by the students and the staff.

After two and five years respectively, the evaluation will again be conducted to determine behavioral change and to change the future course of the program. Staff members or a student working for a dissertation can do this activity. Interested outsiders or agencies can also be tapped for evaluation. Basically, the graduate's supervisors will be interviewed, the graduate sent a survey-questionnaire, and a tracer study utilized. During this phase of evaluation, the student will be asked whether the knowledge and skills he has acquired as a result of education has been useful. His response will be validated by his immediate superiors.

Using Evaluation Results

The process of evaluation is continous and is made dynamic and meaningful through the feedback process. An example of such a process is presented in Table 4. Throughout the course of the program, evaluation is conducted to ascertain whether objectives are being met or need reformulation. Such a process attempts to harmonize student needs, organization needs, and education program needs.

Nadler's 1977 model adapted by Youker (1979), is useful to look at in terms of the evaluation process and can be adapted for use by MARD. Such a model provides for continous use of data from the evaluation process towards program improvement.

Table 4.

A Summary of a Proposed MARD Evaluation Process

When	Why	What	Who	How
Pre-Course	To match course to participants	Objectives Outline Materials	Staff	Pre-Test Interview Sample
During Course	To correct any problems	Objectives Methods Results	Staff Participants	Questionnaires daily/weekly Interviews Formal discussions Informal discussions
End of Course	Identify changes	Happiness and Recommended Changes	Participants Staff	Post Session Test
	Measure learning	Performance		
After Course	To change future course	Behavioral change	Staff/Outsider	Interview Superiors Survey-Questionnaire Tracer Study

Conclusion

The evaluation model just presented needs to be validated. What has been attempted so far is the fashioning of a broad framework for evaluation which requires fleshing out by the rest of MARD's staff. What is significant is that, at this point, there is a plan (as presented here), regarding how the evaluation of the MARD program could be undertaken.

CHAPTER VII

THE EDUCATION OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT MANAGERS IN PERSPECTIVE

The purpose of this Chapter is to: 1) summarize the main findings of the study; 2) present conclusions and implications of such findings; 3) present the limitations of the study; and 4) present policy and research recommendations directed towards the improvement of management education and training of middle-level rural development managers.

Summary

Study Purposes and Objectives

To recapitulate, this study has been undertaken with the purpose of improving the managerial capabilities, through management education, of current and future field implementors/middle-level rural development managers. Specifically, the purposes were to:

1. identify the training needs of middle-level managers of rural development programs;

2. propose a curriculum design intended to strengthen the master's program in rural development management at UPLB;

3. develop an evaluation proposal for management education that can be applied to UPLB; and

4. propose future research suggestions—intended to improve the current program, as well as to further knowledge in management education and training.

This involved: the identification of middle-level rural development managers in the Philippines; the identification of the important concepts, ideas, skills and attitudes that have to be incorporated into the educational design, and the determination of how the training program should be conducted and evaluated.

To accomplish the above objectives, the following activities were undertaken:

1. Past and current literature on the tasks and roles of field implementors of rural development were reviewed (with an emphasis on the Philippines);

2. Through the literature review, important concepts, skills, and attitudes that should be incorporated in a curriculum design were identified;

3. Management education models were examined, including that of UPLB, thereby evolving a model to strengthen it; and

4. An evaluation model was proposed that is applicable to the UPLB educational program.

Findings/Observations

The study reinforces the observation that, the concept of development has changed, i.e., from definitions that centered solely on economic terms to a more holistic and interdisciplinary concept, involving social and political gains on an individual or collective basis. Thus, no longer is development measured strictly in terms of increases in the Gross National Product (GNP), but also reflects a concern for the degree to which wealth is distributed evenly among a broad spectrum of society.

Corollary to the above finding is that in most developing nations, the Philippines included, are adopting the integrated strategy towards rural development as part of over-all national development strategy. This strategy is perceived as the best means to achieve the goals of development as defined today.

The study also documented the lack of, and an increased desire for, citizen participation in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of development projects. The study itself makes a case for citizen participation as a necessary ingredient for program and project success.

The study shows that currently there is no position called "Rural Development Manager" or a position description for a person involved in such activities. It has been observed, however, that middle-level managers are often project managers or persons assigned on detail duty as project managers.

A very significant finding of the study is that the rural development manager has three areas of equal, often conflicting concern namely: the community, his agency, and the project. The knowledge, skills and attitudes required of a rural development manager identified in the study are derived from these areas of concern.

The curriculum design model of education best suited for MARD, as shown in this study, is the 7-step curriculum process using an andragogical approach. This model contains features that are consistent with current findings in the field of training managers for rural development.

A final point that can be drawn from the study is that the administrative culture is a crucial variable in the training of rural managers. Specifically, the selection of the concepts, skills, and attitudes of a rural development manager should be largely relevant to the administrative culture.

Most developing countries have been forced to adopt the colonial system of administration. As such, the structures and processes that are present carry the cultural assumptions of the colonizer's society. Management concepts and principles from the west have been constantly used to sustain such structures and processes. This phenomenon usually leads to a "split-level" type of administration that does not really give way to the rediscovery of traditional modes of management.

Conclusions and Implications

An important conclusion, also an imperative, that can be drawn from the study is the need to train current and future rural development managers in the newer conceptions on development, specifically, rural development and the integrated approach.

The above conclusion heavily implies the need for government and national leaders of Third World nations to understand this change and reflect such an understanding in the formulation of government policies. The design and implementation of programs and projects, for example, must reflect the broader and multiple objectives of development. Without an overarching policy or set of policies designed to reflect commitment to development goals, the training of managers would be an exercise in futility. Another far reaching implication is for educational institutions to reflect such an orientation in their curriculum. College students, upon completion of their education, must have an understanding of the multi-faceted nature of man and society, realize the merit behind simultaneous and equal development of its components, as well as develop integrating and synthesizing views of man, society and technology.

The above implications are likewise relevant to the successful implementation of an integrated approach to rural development. Such an approach requires training in coordination and integration. This further implies the necessity for administrative reform, specifically, structural transformation of the bureaucracy and a restructuring of the present methods of delivery of goods and services.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from the study is that the rural development manager needs to be trained in community development techniques and processes. This demands a personal committment, as well as an inclination, from the manager to believe that only through the development of a community's capability to decide for itself can development be meaningful and truly achieved. Such a commitment should be developed during the training program if initially absent and should be visible if not felt at this stage. This further implies that government and national leaders should be truly visible with their commitment towards more citizen participation.

In support of previously stated conclusions, there is also a need to define, in a position description, the tasks of a middle-level project manager. This implies that the government should establish such a position description and determine how such managers can be incorporated into an already existing pool of higher career civil servants. This move would further professionalize middle-level managers.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from the study is the need to train managers as generalists. Such an orientation and training is needed considering the three areas of his concerns. It is possible for some managers, by virtue of their position or mission, to be either maintenance-oriented or developmental. Yet, the desired breed of manager is one who would be able to perform a delicate balancing act, i.e., between his areas of concern that may be in conflict or within an area that may have conflicting goals. Thus, the training of managers imply not only producing specialists in each of the areas of concern but generalists in the management of such areas, given complementary or

conflicting goals. This implies the generation of more knowledge about how the managers can perform such a complexity of functions. It further implies the design of stronger incentives to motivate the managers to perform well under these extremely difficult and confusing situations. This further implies a well-thought system of coordinated research and information among universities and training institutions, both locally and internationally.

Another conclusion that can be drawn is that the training of managers should be well grounded on the model used in the study. The model, as designed, incorporates both the conceptual and empirical aspects of curriculum development. This allows for conceptual inputs as dictated by the field of study and student inputs.

The adoption of the model requires the pooled efforts of the MARD training staff as well as that of the University. The necessity of having an evaluation design, other than what currently exists has been argued strongly. Resources have to be marshalled and organized for the type of instruction model prescribed. Most resources are geared toward the pedagogical approach and are therefore ill-suited to the andragogical model proposed in this study. Trainers have to be trained in such an approach and students have to be likewise educated. In a culture that respects authority, the andragogical approach could be threatening to administrators and students.

The study has also shown that the rural development manager is quite different from his western counterpart in outlook, goals, technology, and environment. Therefore, a final conclusion that can be drawn from the study is the need to train managers with concepts, skills, and attitudes that are indigenous to him. This strongly implies

that the transferability of western management concepts and principles should be seriously questioned by those institutions engaged in management education or training. Furthermore, that awareness of the importance of administrative culture as an important variable in management training should be promoted. Filipino administrators and intellectuals, for example, must rediscover indigenous value and belief systems and demonstrate how they can be made relevant to the managerial process.

Limitations

There are three ways by which a study of this nature could have been conducted, i.e., largely conceptual, wholly empirical, or a combination of both. The design of a curriculum requires the combination of both empirical and conceptual approaches in order to be meaningful. Thus, while the conceptual approach would focus on the strength of the disciplines, the design would be validated (or fine tuned) by the clients or students using the empirical approach. The study has been largely conceptual due to a number of familiar constraints, i.e., time and money.

The instances of success in the workplace using the model presented in this study has not been adequate. There has been no exhaustive study pointing to the fact that a curriculum design of the nature proposed in this study has resulted in behavioral change among workers.

Then, there is the problem of the field itself, i.e., there is no agreement on terminology and system of coordination within and among the different disciplines. This makes the task of synthesizing materials a major effort in itself.

Recommendations

First of all, it is important to realize that it is difficult to suggest systematic solutions toward the improvement of managerial capacity in rural development management around the world. Conditions may vary greatly from one country to another; considerable regional differences also exist. Therefore, the recommendations that will be made have to be taken in their appropriate context.

There are two types of recommendations that can be made as a result of the study. One pertains to the improvement of research and training of middle-level rural development managers. The other pertains to how the present management of rural development can be improved. The following are the recommendations:

1. Future studies on the subject could be improved if field managers, (in the Philippines, for example) are surveyed. A comparative survey of field managers from other developing countries would also be an improvement. This recommendation fulfills the earlier need for the conduct of a more meaningful study by combining both theoretical and empirical approaches toward client needs identification. Consequently, the evaluation design presented in this study can be made more meaningful through validation.

2. Research is needed in the area of community management or indigenous management systems in the developing countries. Researchers should observe and document, for example, how local people manage community affairs (such as a fiesta).

3. Research is needed on how integrated programs and projects could be better coordinated. Toward this end, MARD staff and students, for example, can make proposals to conduct evaluation research for agencies with rural development projects. This, incidentally, provides opportunities for growth and learning to the trainers of the educational program as well. Assignment to a ministry or an on-going project, either as consultant or case writer, would likewise help achieve both objectives.

4. There should be a system of information sharing among and between agencies, private or public, involved in management education and training. Trainers and training institutions must make each other aware of improvements in the quality of materials and teaching methodologies of management subjects. Seminars and newsletters for the above purposes could immediately be started.

5. There is a need to discover, for most developing countries at least, an indigenous philosophy of development. Most of the concepts on development, as articulated by the leaders of the third world, are echoes of western ideals. Such a philosophy that need to be evolved should contain elements from the past as well as current realities. Thus, attitudes about technology and the economy should be rethought along the lines of "small is beautiful". The spiritual dimensions of development likewise needs to be explored and discussed. Towards these ends, scholars of a country should pool their efforts toward identifying indigenous values and seeing how they can be logically arranged with present realities to constitute a philosophy of development.

6. There is a need for a carefully crafted public policy that focuses on the development of strong and capable decision-making communities. The governments of developing countries can, for instance, build into the design of any public program the requirement of having a citizen participation scheme as well as a strong evaluation mechanism. Such a policy would demonstrate the sincerity of the government to share its broad powers with the people. Such a visual commitment could likewise inspire public servants toward serving the public.

7. It has been a bias of this paper that rural development managers could, in very significant ways, speed the pace of development. By virtue of their position alone, they could effect significant changes with the goal of strengthening communities. It is necessary that they concentrate on building model communities that can be replicated in other areas of the country. Their approach should be the strengthening of the decision-making capabilities of a community without resorting to the conflict approach with the powers that be. Experience has shown that projects that are economic in nature help communities develop their capability to decide things for themselves. The change agent should therefore utilize this as an approach to impart techniques for decision-making.

Final Comments

There is increasing awareness of the importance of political will as a factor for rural development success. Indeed, in most developing countries, the political and administrative leaders control the vast resources required for a successful transformation of the rural areas.

It is therefore appropriate to say that development could be effected with the help of these leaders. Conversely, they are also responsible for its failures.

There is a strong possibility that most of the recommendations made in this paper cannot be implemented in some, if not most, countries. Mentioned earlier were differences in culture and environment as well as development priorities. Devolution of power, decentralization, and citizen participation are issues that most leaders are sensitive to; it can mean the gradual decline of power. It is usually something to pay "lip service" to, but not actually desire.

Yet, if developing countries are to "catch up" with the industrialized nations, leaders must be willing to experiment with these concepts and utilize indigenous resources to resolve issues in favor of their people.

APPENDICES
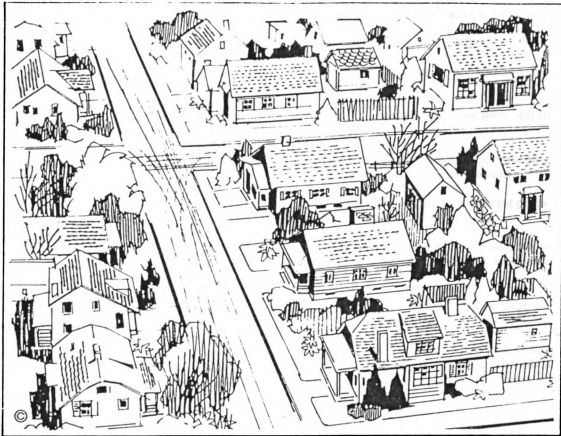
Appendix: Concepts
—Central to Community Development—

(in "Community Development Concepts, Curriculum Training Needs, a task force report to the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy, National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges. University of Missouri-Columbia, MP-424)

The practice of community development is guided by certain time-proven concepts. The most relevant of these are described in this section.

All community development workers should have a good general understanding of each of the concepts discussed in this section. Those specializing in a specific field of community development will also want an in-depth understanding of selected concepts. Other persons, such as community leaders and concerned citizens with an interest in the development of their community, will want to gain a general understanding of selected concepts.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community

The concept of *community* has many dimensions. To some it denotes a specific geographical area, to others a social system, and to still others a set of cultural values which people share.

Thus, there are many kinds of communities. They range from those which may have

only spatial boundaries in common to those which consist of a commonality of interest among persons living in widely-dispersed locations.

To the layman, a community is the place where people live, work, play, go to school and church, buy the things they need, and interact with each other in a variety of ways. Not many years ago, people did all of these things within a well-defined geographic area. Today, people may live in one community, go to school or church in another, make their purchases in several, and work and play in still other communities.

The concept of a community implies one or more groups of people interrelating for the attainment of goals in which they share a common concern. A new village water system, for example, may involve but a few dozen blocks and less than a hundred families. But a specialized health facility, may involve several counties and several hundred thousand citizens. Hence, the definition of the community depends upon the nature of the concerns which people have in common. Another way of stating this concept is that the issue or concern defines the community. The community development professional needs to understand this concept in order to apply the appropriate model to a given situation.

Development

Development is the process of progressive change in attaining individual and community interests or goals. Development can occur through increased knowledge, understanding and skills; additional resources; or a better allocation of existing resources. From an economic view-point, development is generally measured in such terms as per capita income, investments, and income distribution. Socially and culturally, it is measured in terms of quality of living, institutional and organizational structures, accessibility to those structures by citizens, and increases in the range of choices.

Community Development Process

The *Community development process* involves an open system of decision making whereby those comprising the community, use democratic and rational means to arrive at group decisions and to take action for enhancing the social and economic well-being of the community.

The process is predicted on the following premises:[1]

1. People are capable of rational behavior.

2. Significant behavior is learned behavior.

3. Significant behavior is learned through interaction.

4. People are capable of giving direction to their behavior.

5. People are capable of creating, reshaping and influencing their environment.

The process is based upon the following philosophical values and beliefs:

1. People have the right to participate in decisions which have an effect upon their well-being.

2. Participatory democracy is the superior method of conducting community affairs.

3. People have the right to strive to create the environment which they desire when it does not infringe upon the rights of others.

4. People have the right to reject an externally-imposed environment.

5. Maximizing human interaction in a community will increase the potential for human development.

6. Implicit within the process of interaction is an ever-widening concept of community.

7. Every discipline and/or profession is potentially a contributor to a community's development process.

8. Motivation is created in humans by association with their environment, including mankind.

9. Community development as a field of practice is concerned with developing the ability of people to deal with their environment.

---

[1]These Community Development premises, values and beliefs are elaborated upon more fully by Don Littrell in his publication, *The Theory and Practice of Community Development,* Extension Division, University of Missouri, Columbia.

The process involves the following elements:

Cooperation——the deliberate effort of people to work together to achieve common goals.

Conflict——a natural outgrowth of people dealing with social, economic, and political issues. Conflict can be directed into productive channels and used as a real learning-reasoning process.

Stratification——the natural interests, values, beliefs, abilities and societal and economic positions of people having differing life styles, experiences, and expectations. It can produce differences of opinion and conflict but can also be a major element of "cross-fertilization" of ideas, skills, beliefs, and values. As such, it can produce a superior product in community development.

Representation[2]——implies that the group representative is recognized by his constituency as a legitimate spokesman. It does not imply that anyone from a social, economic, or ethnic group can say that he "represents" the group. The key element of representation is that the constituency selects its representative internally rather than having its "representative" selected externally.

Participation[2]——involves having a voice in decision making as it evolves, not after decisions are made. It means that everyone has equal right to participate in decisions affecting them. It also means that the community has a moral obligation to assure and to encourage equal access to decision making to as wide a cross section of the community as possible. Participation implies that both the "pros" and the "cons" on any issue are equally legitimate. The end result of such interaction is improved decisions if measured in terms of what the community desires.

Compromise——involves giving up something or modifying a position in order to gain something of higher value. Groups and communities are comprised of individuals of varying interests, thus complete consensus is seldom achieved. In contrast to consensus, compromise recognizes that individuals and groups with differing interests can work effectively together without being wholly in agreement.

[2] For a more detailed discussion of representation and participation see Hahn, Alan J. "Citizens in Local Politics: Non-Participation and Unrepresentation." *Journal of the Community Development Society* Vol 1, No. 2, Fall 1970 (Columbia, Mo. Community Development Society)

Influence——seeks to modify contrasting interests to reach a working compromise. It is in sharp contrast to "power" which attempts to control behavior or resources.

Holistic View of Community——emphasizes the functional and organic relationships among cultural, social, physical, political, and economic interests which comprise the community. This view recognizes that changes in one area of community life affect other areas and that the total effect of proposed changes should be critically analyzed as a part of the community development process.

Integration——Generally, agencies and organizations function according to their specialities. Each has its unique competence and objectives in some particular sector of community life. The holistic approach encourages them to *integrate* their plans and activities together into the ongoing planning and activities of the communities they are attempting to serve. Thus, each contributes according to its interest and ability.

Non-Directive Approach——involves helping people decide for themselves what their needs are and assisting them in a rational decision-making process to determine what, if anything, can be done to satisfy these needs. It is in direct contrast to persuading people to accept a solution or a course of action imposed by an outside "authority."

Decision Making——is the rational process of defining a situation, establishing a solution, and implementing it. It involves analysis of the situation (problem or opportunity), analysis of alternative solutions, and establishment of goal(s) and priorities through fact finding, study, establishment of an agreed-upon course of action, implementation of this action, and evaluation of the outcome in terms of the goal. Decisions are made in each step of the process, and the process is inherent in each of these steps.

Community development is a continuous process and not a trouble-shooting operation directed only at solving immediate problems. It seeks (through practical learning situations) to increase the competence of citizens to deal with both present and future issues. It is an educational process in which people learn by "doing the things that need to be done and which they wish to do." Development implies movement or steady improvement rather than only spasmodic activity associated with "problem solving." Community development is an on-going effort. No community ever really

"arrives." There is no good stopping point, and continuity is a natural outgrowth of the community development process.

In summary, the community development process brings people interested and concerned about an issue together to study and act upon the issue at whatever level at which decision making is necessary. It involves cooperation, participation, representation, conflict, compromise and influence, and often includes stratification. It recognizes the validity of different values, interests, and the holistic nature of community issues.

Sources of additional information relating to these concepts include the following:

References: Batten, T. R. and Madge, *The Non-Directive Approach in Group and Community Work,* Oxford University Press, London, 1967.

Cary, Lee, *Community Development as a Process,* University of Missouri Press, Columbia, Missouri, 1970. 213 pp.

Hahn, *op. cit.*

Littrell, *op. cit.*

Phifer, Bryan and List, Fred, *Community Development: A New Dimension of Extension,* University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo., 1971. 31 pp.

Sanders, Irvin T., *The Community,* Ronald Press, New York City, 1966, pp. 504 - 523.

Wallace, L. T., and others, *ECOP Report, Community Resource Development,* Federal Extension Service, Washington, D. C., 1968.

Warren, Ronald L., *Community Action and Community Development,* Rand McNally, Chicago, Illinois, 1963, pp. 303 - 339.

Wileden, Arthur, *Community Development—The Dynamics of Planned Change,* Bedminster Press, Totowa, New Jersey, 1970. 306 pp.

LEARNING CONCEPTS

Behavioral Change

Behavioral change, whether in individuals or groups, is a change in thinking, feeling or action. Such change may also be defined as a change in knowledge, understanding or skills.

Behavioral change is a manifestation of new or increased influence on the individual or group.

Early work in the field of behavioral change grew largely out of psychology. More recently sociology and socio-psychology, as well as anthropology, have contributed to the study and understanding of behavioral change, especially in the area of group relationships and group behavior.

At least two institutions offering masters degrees in community development include in their curriculums one or more courses in group behavior and interpersonal relations. These are studied in the context of community development work. Community development workers must be familiar with all the subtleties of individual behavior and group processes if they are to help groups realize their full potential.

The concept of behavioral change is basic to the community development effort. Development itself implies change. Therefore, change —in a desired direction—is greatly sought after and highly prized by the professional community developer.

An example of behavioral change might be drawn from the typical school financing crisis in which bond issues have been consistently voted down by the people. Finally, the school board may decide, through a series of public meetings, to involve citizens in open discussion of the issues. The discussions are not designed to "sell" the public on the school board's position, but rather for the citizens to get answers to questions on which there has been misunderstanding.

Out of this new environment of mutual searching comes a compromise proposal which, while not enthusiastically received, is acceptable to all. When the revised measure is voted upon, it carries, because, in a sense, the citizens have helped to frame it. Both the school board and the voting public behaved quite differently after having to take each other into account. Establishing the conditions in which this "meeting of the minds" can take place is the work of the community developer—whether the "meeting" is between individuals or between groups.

References: Argyle, Michael, *The Psychology of Interpersonal Behavior,* Penguin Books, Cox and Wyman, LTD, London, England

Lippitt, Ronald and others, *Dynamics of Planned Change*, Harcourt Brace and Company, New York, 1958.

MacGregor, Douglas, *The Human Side of Enterprise*, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 1960.

Stogdill, Ralph, *Individual Behavior and Group Achievement*, Oxford Press, New York, 1959.

The Teachable Moment

The concept of the *teachable moment* points out that real learning is based upon the perceived need of the learner. Facts can be taught in the abstract, but they are only learned when the learner feels the need to apply them to his own situation. Thus, to try to teach principles of community development when there is no perceived need on the part of the learners becomes only an exercise—not a learning experience.

The teachable moment usually occurs after the learners have gone through the process of identifying a felt need and feel the need for additional knowledge or skill to deal with the situation. It is at this point that the community development worker can best teach the subject matter appropriate to help the learners analyze the situation, weigh alternatives, and arrive at group decisions.

. Regardless of one's background, the motivation to learn based upon a perceived need is the strongest influence in learning. The concept of the teachable moment is derived from education and psychology and evidenced through observation of real-life learning experiences. It is especially relevant to adult education since adults do not have the peer pressure or motivation for learning that the youth in the classroom has.

The concept of the teachable moment is essential to education in community development. In its simplest terms, it means starting with the learners (audience) where they are and moving to larger community considerations as the learners perceive the need to relate their felt need to other factors influencing this need.

References: Brunner, DeS., and others, *An Overview of Adult Education Research*, Chicago, Adult Education Association of U.S.A.

Havighurst, Robert J., *Human Development and Education*, New York, Logmans, Gree, and Co., 1953.

Powell, John Walker, *Learning Comes of Age*, New York, Association Press, 1956.

Pressey, S. L., and Kuhlen, R. G., *Psychological Development Through the Life Span*, New York, Harper and Bros., 1957.

Diffusion and Adoption

The diffusion process is a concept which helps to explain the experiences individuals have in learning about and accepting new ideas, practices, skills, and attitudes. Research on this concept has provided useful knowledge on the major sources of information people use in various stages of the process, the rate of adoption of new knowledge or skills among the general population and among specific groups of people, and the flow or diffusion of information from one group to another.

Information on the diffusion process has come largely from anthropology and sociology, particularly rural sociology. The model described here is based upon more than 35 research studies and brought together into a useful conceptual framework by the Subcommittee for the Study of the Diffusion of New Ideas and Practices of the North Central Rural Sociology Committee. This work was first published by George M. Beal and Joseph Bohlen of Iowa State University. Many subsequent research studies on the subject have since been published. Outside of the field of rural sociology, Katz and Lazarsfeld are perhaps the best known students of the diffusion process—especially in the field of medicine, where their findings largely verify those related to the diffusion of agricultural technology.

The diffusion process and its practical use has particular usefulness to community development workers in understanding the characteristics of those who are generally most receptive to new ideas, those less receptive, and how others regard innovators, early adopters, the early majority, the majority, and non-adopters. The concept appears to have value in understanding community attitudes and receptiveness to change. It also provides insights into informal teaching methods most appropriate for persons of different social characteristics.

The utility of the concept to Extension community development workers is threefold. It helps them:

1. To have a better knowledge and understanding of the stages people go through

as individuals in adopting or accepting new ideas and practices;

2. To recognize the difference in various groups of people in relation to the diffusion process: their characteristics, rate of acceptance of ideas, and main sources of information;

3. To better understand the educational methods to use in reaching and influencing particular audiences.

References: Rogers, Everett, Diffusion of Innovations, The Free Press, 1962.

The Diffusion Process, Special Report No. 18, Agricultural Extension Service, Iowa State University, 1959.

Katz, Elihu, and Lazarsfeld, Paul, Personal Influence, The Free Press, 1955.

Lionberger, Herbert F., Adoption of New Ideas and Practices, Iowa State University Press, 1961.

The Science of Human Communication, Edited by Wilbur Schramm, Basic Books, New York, 1963.

Problem Solving

The problem-solving process provides a logical sequence of steps for analyzing situations, arriving at rational decisions, and carrying out action. The problem-solving process centers around the decision-making process. Schein distinguishes two basic cycles of activity—one which occurs prior to an actual decision and one which occurs following a decision to take a particular action.[3] The first cycle that leads to a decision consists of:

1. problem formulation (getting the idea);

2. generating alternative solutions (gathering data);

3. analyzing the consequences of alternative solutions (weighing alternatives).

In most problem-solving situations, a critical step in the process is that of problem formulation or identification. A considerable amount of diagnosis often is required to separate prob-

lems from symptoms. Hence, decision makers must have a clear understanding of the particular goals and objectives that are being pursued.

The second cycle follows the decision to take action and involves the following steps:

1. Planning for action.

2. Implementing the action.

3. Evaluating the outcomes (which might lead back to the initial step of problem formulation).

Effective communication is of particular importance in group problem solving and must be established and maintained in order to articulate community problems, to arrive at rational decisions, and to carry out appropriate action.

SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS

A staff member functioning in community development needs to think about and understand the environment within which he works and to know how to effectively cope with that environment in order to instigate change. The task of helping people to plan for and obtain desired goals of their community is facilitated by understanding the conceptual framework of the social system and by applying these conceptual skills to a model of planned change.

A model of planned change might include the following phases:

1. To map relevant social systems.

2. To initiate ideas through one or more systems.

3. To secure legitimation for ideas.

4. To diffuse ideas to the larger social systems.

5. To plan for objectives.

6. To take action to obtain objectives.

7. To evaluate outcomes.

These sociological concepts help people to close the gap between "what is" and "what ought to be" in their communities.

The sociologist focuses on group behavior: the relationships among individuals as they interact to accomplish group goals. In fact, any

[3]Schein, Edgar H., Process Consultation: Its Role in Organization Development, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading Massachusetts, 1969, Chapter 5.

society consists of the arrangements that people in a circumscribed geographic location inherit or generate to solve their common problems. They develop institutions to collectively carry out programs and activities. Sociologists have developed a body of concepts to aid in understanding and predicting these relationships among people, to understand how people organize themselves to solve common problems, and how groups adapt to various environments. Hence, sociology is a science of group behavior. The social engineer who attempts to assist in bringing about social change should understand various sociological concepts which will sensitize him to group behavior and provide insight to variables which influence the outcome of group efforts.

It is readily apparent that a group can be viewed in terms of several frames of reference: as a population of individuals, as a system of authority, as a system of likes and dislikes, as a system of communication or diffusion of information, or in terms of group maintenance or group goals. The concept which combines these major frames of reference is the social system model.

Social System

A *social system* is a conceptual model of social organization designed to help one visualize that certain human collectives or groups are systems whose parts are interdependent and which, as unities, are in turn interlinked with one another through mutual dependencies. The prerequisites for a social system are two or more people in interaction, directed toward attaining a goal, and guided by patterns of structure and shared symbols and expectation. Society is viewed as a social system, made up of component groups and subsystems, and functioning through a series of operations necessary for its survival (recruitment of new members, boundary maintenance, communication, allocation of power, resources, and prestige). A social system must adjust to internal and external changes if it is to keep its identity and its ability to accomplish its goals and to compete with other systems which might challenge it. Each part is related to another part and the system as a whole. Processes can be studied in terms of their origin within the system and their effects on the system. Or in terms of how external changes introduced into the system modify the behavior of persons and groups within the system. The community development worker uses the social system model to view the structural aspects of society as well as the social processes.

Social systems can be identified by observable patterns of behavior and interaction. The concept applies to both large and small groups and permits analysis of individual elements and processes of the group as a totality. Social systems can be considered as concrete, interactive social structures such as a family, a community group, or a local church congregation. At a more abstract level, social systems may be viewed as a pattern of relationships which prevail from generation to generation and from one region to another entirely apart from the specific persons within the system. For example, the Catholic Church could be regarded as a social system with separate local congregations making up the subsystems.

For a social system to survive or operate with some degree of effectiveness, there are certain minimal functional requirements. These are: provision for biological reproduction and survival, socialization of new members, motivation of members to carry out socially necessary roles and maintenance of some degree of social order.

The observable consequences of social phenomena that results from the action of a part or whole of a system is termed *functional*. Consequences which are helpful or useful and increase or maintain admustment or adaptation to the system, are the functional consequences. Consequences which are harmful or impede the increase or maintenance of adaptation or adjustment are termed dysfunctional.

The concept, *social system*, can be used by the community development educator as an analytical tool to study society and the learner. For example, before a community development effort is undertaken by a given community, those involved must know something about the community. A starting point could be a study of the community to identify its social systems. The next step would be to clarify the objectives of each social system.

To more adequately understand social systems, it is necessary to examine a number of elements common to all social systems. These elements include belief, sentiment, objectives or ends, norms, position, role, rank, power and sanction, territoriality and facility. These elements comprise the structure and goal orientation dimensions.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *Basic Sociology: An Introduction to Theory and Method.* Appleton.

Loomis, Charles P., *Rural Social Systems and*

Adult Education, Michigan State University Press, 1957.

Merton, Robert K., *Social Theory and Social Structure,* Free Press, 1968.

Monane, Joseph H., *Sociology of Human Systems,* Appleton.

Parsons, Talcott, *Social Systems,* Free Press, 1951.

Social interaction

Social interaction is the reciprocal relations between people in the social system. Social interaction is a symbolic process conducted by human beings who employ verbal and physical gestures which have a special meaning. Interaction may be formal or informal, friendly or antagonistic. Response of some type may be elicited. Four characteristices of interaction are: plurality of actors, communication between the actors by means of symbols, a duration or time dimension possessing a past, present, and future, and some objective which may or may not conincide with the actor or the objective observer who studies behavior. Interaction may develop into several forms ranging from cooperation to conflict over means and objectives.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op.cit.*

Gouldner, Alvin W., and others, *Modern Sociology: An Introduction to the Study of Human Interaction,* Harcourt, Brace, 1963.

Loomis, Charles P., *op.cit.*

Merrill, Francis E., *Society and Culture,* (3rd ed.), Prentice-Hall, 1965.

Communication

Communication is the process of transmitting culture in the system. Human communication should be conveyed to a person or persons so that the messages sent and received are equivalent, that is, both the sender and receiver have the same understanding of the message. Only by feedback can the sender determine effectiveness of communication. Thus, communication is a two-way process. Human communication is accomplished through learned signs or symbols that manifest the part of the culture which is referred to as language. Language enables man to communicate beyond the level of feelings to that of highly involved abstract ideas. The purposes of communication are to inform and to motivate. Communication involves a sender, a message, a medium and a receiver. The sender should recognize that the receiver responds not only to the message, but also to the medium through which it is sent. Communication can be face-to-face or impersonal, using mass media such as radio, television, newspaper, magazine, or letter.

The concept, communication, is basic to the learning-teaching process. The adult educator can use the concept of communications as the sender through the selection of the message, giving it effective treatment, and choosing the methods of teaching.

References: Berlo, David K., *The Process of Communication,* Rinehart and Winston Holt, New York, 1960.

Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Frutchey, Fred P., "The Learning-Teaching Process," in H. C. Sander's *The Cooperative Extension Service,* Prentice-Hall, 1966.

Reeder, R. L., and others, *A Proposed Construct for Two-Way Communication in Resource Development,* Iowa State University, Cooperative Extension Service, Ames, 1970.

Organizational Boundary Maintenance

Organizational boundary maintenance refers to how the system maintains its own identify. Some societies literally build walls around themselves; others build symbolic walls which keep out the norms and values of a larger society. Boundary maintenance is evident in groups such as the Armed Forces, religious groups, and secret societies. The identity of the system is maintained through such devices as secret passwords, uniforms, professional ties, employment status, and tenure. It is important that the community development educator recognize the functions and dysfunctions of maintaining boundaries. Also, if we are familiar with the factors forming boundaries in social systems, we are in a much better position to penetrate these social systems with programs of change.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Loomis, Charles P., and Beegle, J. Allan, *Rural Sociology: The Strategy of Change,* Prentice-Hall, 1957.

Merrill, Francis E., *op. cit.*

Decision making

Decision making involves choices made from a set of alternatives. It refers to selecting the most desirable action to contribute to the solution of a problem. The steps in the decision-making process are: defining the problem, collecting significant facts, listing possible solutions, evaluating alternatives, setting priorities, implementing and evaluating the action.

A principal task of the community development educator may be to help a group estimate consequences of alternative solutions. Also he can help the group integrate solutions rather than compromise. The goal is to reduce available, alternative courses of action to solution reached by consensus.

References: Loomis, Charles P., *op. cit.*

Wasserman, Paul, and Silander, F. S., *Decision Making: An Annotated Bibliography,* Cornell University, 1964.

Socialization

Socialization. Through it the individual acquires the social and cultural heritage of his society. It is a process of social interaction in which the individual acquires ways of thinking, feeling, and acting essential for effective participation within a society.

Through socialization, one becomes a functioning member of a group. In essence, one is transformed from a separate identity into a group member through the process of socialization.

The adult educator needs to be aware that often inappropriate socialization results when a person or people move from one cultural setting to another. This is especially true when persons move from rural areas to cities or from one region to another; they are likely to react in ways considered strange or deviant by members of their new culture.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Bredemeier, H. C., and Stephenson, R. M., *Analysis of Social Systems,* HR&W, 1962.

Loomis, Charles P., and Beegle, J. Allan, *op. cit.*

Merrill, Francis E., *op. cit.*

Social Control

Social control refers to the process which limits behavior of people in social systems. When behavior becomes deviant or intolerable, it is brought back into the established limits through the exercise of sanctions.

Adult educators may use means of social control in initiation of programs. For example, in the community the church is an important means of keeping its members in line. Consequently, by working through the church and getting the positive sanction of the church, the community development educator may be more effective in initiating and bringing about planned change in this particular community. Identification of organizations which can legitimize and lend support is a required skill.

By knowing what positive sanctions are important to the group—such as praise, public recognition, election to office—the community development educator can exert positive pressures within the community to counteract opposition. In some areas, praise goes a long way; in others, it is confused with flattery and received suspiciously, especially from newcomers. Or again putting one person in the limelight may make others envious and less cooperative.

To effectively use social control, the community development educator needs to realize that social control mechanisms need not be undemocratic and are necessary for community life. The effective controls should be kept in the hands of the followers, not surrendered to dictatorial ambiguous leaders.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

La Piere, Richard T., *A Theory of Social Control,* McGraw-Hill, 1954.

Martindale, Don A., *American Social Structure: Historical Antecedents and Contemporary Analysis,* Appleton, 1960.

Social Change

Social change is, in a general way, a continuous process which is manifested in alterations in social relationships. Social change may start in any part of the social system through changes in the external (pattern) of the group, alterations in its physical environment, technical organization or even in its internal system (pattern) and will have effects of a greater or

lesser order on all these. People everywhere are constantly changing their ways. Generally, people resist changes that appear to threaten basic securities or changes they do not understand.

The sources of change may come from forces outside the society or from forces within it.

Since no society is wholly integrated or completely static, there are always points of tension or strain as potential sources of change. These strains, which are often the result of change as well as its source, may take many forms such as role conflict, divergent values, social deprivation, competing interest, and the inability to achieve socially valued goals with the available means. They emerge from the workings of accepted institutions and established values or are related to various kinds of changes already taking place at other points in the culture or social structure.

The concept of social change can be observed in the changing patterns of the emerging American family system. The recent change in the status of women is perhaps the most far-reaching. This change is manifested in more equal educational opportunities, in increasing employment equality, and in an increase in the range of social opportunities and contacts for women.

Through instigated social action, social change may be brought about that will maximize satisfactions for members of a social system. Social action occurs in the neighborhood, community, formal systems, etc.

References: Beal, George M., *Social Action and Interaction in Program Planning.*

Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Chinoy, Ely S., *Society: An Introduction to Sociology,* rev. ed., Random, 1967.

Social Movement

A *social movement* is one mechanism for bringing about change in a society. It generally involves a group of people whose goal is to change attitudes or behavior of the larger society. Its main features are: a distinctive perspective and ideology, a strong sense of solidarity and idealism, and an orientation to action. Stresses and strains in the society are potential sources of goals for social move-

ments. Examples of social movements are: educational programs designed to change values and beliefs, civil rights movements, and national socialism in pre-war Germany. Community development workers need to be constantly aware of social movements on the horizon. These movements may be functional or dysfunctional for the program.

References: Bertrand, Alvin, *op. cit.*

Boyardus, Emory, *Sociology,* (4th ed.), MacMillan, 1954.

Broom, Leonard, and Selznick, Philip, *Principles of Sociology,* Harper Row, 1970.

Chinoy, Ely S., *op. cit.*

Heberle, Rudolf, *Social Movements: An Introduction to Political Sociology,* Appleton, 1969.

Merrill, Francis E., *op. cit.*

GEOGRAPHIC CONCEPTS

Region

The word *region* has many meanings. But in recent years it has been increasingly applied to an area larger than a county and more often a multi-county area. Some states have adopted the title Regional Planning Districts for those sub-areas of government larger than a county.

Originally the concept of regions was largely related to geography but represented much larger areas than those defined above. The current influence of economists, sociologists, political scientists, and community developers has been to reduce the region to an area small enough to be traversed by its citizens from the borders to the center in approximately one hour by car. Such areas are organized to encourage cooperation between various local governments of the area and the concerned citizens, and for the better use of the area's resources. The region thus defined serves a daily and weekly need of the people of the area for services that cannot be provided by their individual communities.

Community developers are constantly faced with the problem of small and often declining populations and their need for social services and commercial functions which can only be provided by the pooling of efforts to share the cost and to provide the demand that will justify the service.

While a minimum population may be necessary to support a given service, it is also true that the service must be within acceptable distance of the consumer to be of value. Thus the hour radius from a regional center has special significance to rural America.

References: Denney, Hugh, *Decongesting Metropolitan America: A Method for Identifying Growth and Service Centers,* Columbia, University of Missouri, 1972, 132 pp. illustrated.

Fox, Karl A. and Kumar, T. Krisha, *Delineating Functional Economic Areas,* Research and Education for Regional and Area Development, Iowa State Press, Ames, Iowa, 1966, pp. 13-55.

Central Place

The *Central Place Theory* has been intensively studied by economic geographers, but it has also received the attention of sociologists, economists and others.

Citizens have tended to establish a pattern of social and commercial services around a central place convenient to their common use. In the course of history, changes in population distribution will cause some central places to lose their significance and others to become more important. Unless the services are subsidized by the larger society, they must adjust to the rise or fall of populations.

Recognition of the central place in an area with the greatest promise is necessary to enable the residents to concentrate limited resources to produce maximum effect on an area. A counter theory is to disperse resources throughout an area. In either case, the community development professional and residents need to understand the significance of the central place.

Reference: Denney, Hugh, *op. cit.*

Functional Area

The concept of a *functional area* or viable community is that there is a certain economic and population base necessary to provide adequate public and private services, facilities, and job opportunities for the people of the area. During the early 1900's less than 100 square miles and a few thousand population provided the necessary base in rural America for a viable

community. Today, with much higher expectations and travel ten times as fast as during the early part of the century, a much larger population and geographic area is required in the rural areas.

It is important that those working in the area of community development have a thorough understanding of what is required to provide the base necessary to support the public and private services, facilities, and job opportunities expected by the local citizens. In addition to knowing the base necessary to support a viable functional economic area, it is also important to understand the alternatives for forming viable communities which include: (a) cooperation between units of government, (b) consolidation of functions, (c) contracting of a function.

References: Denney, Hugh, *op. cit.*

Fox, Karl, *op. cit.*

Phillips, G. Howard, and Bottum, John S., "Report 1—Socio-Economic Activity Centers," Ohio Appalachia Regional Community Study, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1968, 36 pp.

POLITICAL CONCEPTS

Political Culture

Political culture consists of the patterns of perceptions, orientations, attitudes, expectations, values and skills which are current in the population regarding political symbols, roles, organization, actions and other pertinent aspects of the political system.

Political sub-culture refers to identifiable cultural patterns regarding political life which are associated with special groupings, i.e., an ethnic group which can be differentiated from the predominant modes of the population taken as a whole.

The concept of culture is most closely related to anthropology. Much work in effectively using this specialized application of the culture concept to understand and deal with political action, organization, and other phenomenon depends upon anthropological theories and information. Political scientists, however, have been most active adapting the concept of cultures for improved analysis of politics and attempting to integrate political culture into a systems framework.

The community development professional is constantly involved with establishing situations and learning opportunities related to the complex interactions among a broad range of citizens, political officials, governmental units, public bureaucracies, and State and Federal programs. These interactions are substantially conditioned by the content of the political culture of each segment of the participants. Even the very approach of the community development professional to his task' is connected to the content of the political culture he himself has assimilated.

The concept of political culture helps bring the dimension of attitudes and effective orientations to the level of consciousness. Thus, the community development professional can take these essential elements into account and deal with them intelligently.

In dealing with political situations, the community development professional often will find it useful to have command of concepts concerning some "ideal types" of political cultures. Elazar has defined three broad types of political cultures applicable to the United States. These are *individualistic, moralistic, and traditional.*

1. The *individualistic political culture* emphasizes minimal government and a minimum of governmental interference in the private sector of the economy.
2. The *moralistic political culture* puts a great deal of emphasis on improving the community or commonwealth; government action is encouraged to accomplish this improvement.

3. The *traditionalist culture* emphasizes a strong commitment to an existing social and political order and is primarily associated with the pre-commercial era of the South.

Using these political cultures or various combinations of them, e. g., moralistic-individualistic; individualistic-moralistic, provides rudimentary typology helpful in understanding the dimensions of local political culture.

References: Dohm, Richard R., *Political Culture of Missouri,* Providing Public Services Series, Extension Division, University of Missouri-Columbia M P228, Columbia, Missouri, 1971.

Dohm, Richard R., *Reform from Within: The Development of the City Administrator Form of Government in Small Missouri Cities,*

School of Business and Public Administration, University Extension Division, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, Missouri, 1970.

Elazar, Daniel J., *American Federalism: A View From the States,* Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1966.

Political System Functions

The concept of *political system functions* involves the notion that basic operations are common to all political systems and that every political system must have capacities to perform these fundamental tasks, one way or another, in order to remain an effective system.

Final determination has not been made, and probably cannot be made, as to the most appropriate functions for consideration as basic political system tasks. Though it must be considered tentative, a group of seven functions has proven of great use in developing understanding of political systems operation. These basic political system functions are discussed below:

Political socialization and recruitment is the process in which the population is inducted into the political culture. The sets of attitudes, values, feelings towards the political system as a whole, its various roles, and the role required of incumbents to provide a level of legitimacy to the political system among the politically relevant population must be communicated and imparted to the people. In addition, the political system requires some people to participate as incumbents of roles within it, e.g., voter, political party committeemen, political information communicator, etc.

Interest articulation is the process of giving expression to the concerns, needs, and demands that exist within the society. This may involve explicit formulation of claims and/or more latent behavioral or mood clues which are transmitted into the political system.

Interest aggregation is the process of bringing together, combining, and accommodating various claims and demands. This is applied to the more inclusive level of the aggregation process. For example, inter-actions of this type between individuals and small groups would most likely be considered under interest articulation, while the drawing together of interest in a pressure group, political party,

or citizens council would be considered at the level of interest aggregation.

Political communication is involved in all functions, but classifying it as a special function is helpful in looking for political communication channels which may be diffused throughout the system. It is such a crucial function that a separate classification is warranted. In modern political systems, there are often highly differentiated and specialized political communication networks.

Rule making is basically similar to the traditional legislative function. However, there is no notion that this function is restricted to legislative bodies and formal-legal structures.

Rule application is basically similar to the traditional executive function. Like rule making, there is no notion that rule application is restricted to the formally designated officers and organizations in the operating political system.

Rule adjudication is similar to the traditional judicial function. Again there is no restriction that this is performed only in the court subsystems or designated quasi-judicial agencies.

These basic political science functions are closely associated with functionalism. Political science has been concerned with functions in its oldest theory. The tendency until recently was to concentrate on the output functions, i.e., rule making, application, and ajudication. The greater concern with the input functions like socialization and recruitment has come fairly directly from anthropological and sociological theory. Major anthropologists and sociologists have done a great deal recently with application of functionalism to analysis of society and social structures.

The main help these concepts provide to the community development professional is that they give a framework in which to perceive many of the processes in which he is involved. The input functional categories of political socialization-recruitment, interest articulation, interest aggregation, and communication are particularly helpful because much of the educational work in the field relates to developing citizens' capacities to perform in the system and to carry out these functions. Differentiation of these functions conceptually can aid in sharpening the focus of the field education efforts.

Community development professionals are concerned with providing opportunities to

communities to increase the level and quality of participation on the part of the citizens. As such, they are often engaged with a reordering of the socialization and recruitment process to better fit the needs of the citizens so they can become better prepared for direct involvement in the decision-making systems.

Reference: Almond, Gabriel A., "A Functional Approach to Comparative Politics," in *The Politics of Developing Areas,* Almond and James Colemen, editors, Princeton University Press, New Jersey, 1960.

Demand and Support Inputs

In a general system's framework, the system operation is conceived as having three basic components: input; conversion; output. In connection with political system, the input component can be classified by use of the concepts: demand inputs and support inputs.

Demand inputs are those types that make requests upon the political system that require processing to produce some specific output. For example, segments of society may:

1. demand specific allocations of goods and services;

2. demand regulation of some specific type of behavior;

3. demand opportunities for participation in the political system; or

4. demand communication and information.

Support inputs are those types that help maintain the system and assist it in its operations, rather than requiring a response in the form of an output. For example, citizens may:

1. provide material support, e.g., pay taxes;

2. obey laws and regulations;

3. participate in the system, e.g., vote;

4. give deference to public authority and symbols.

Most disciplines have contributed to developments in the system's concepts. The wide use of the system theory has provided, in fact, a common ground that facilitates interdisciplinary efforts and has permitted use of basic concepts across traditional disciplinary

lines. Any work done within a system framework depends heavily upon all the disciplines that have system-related concepts. The first major development of the demand inputs and support inputs concepts as applied in the context of political system was done by a political scientist, David Easton.

The community development professional will be involved in controversial situations and will be well aware of specific demands that are being made of the political systems or subsystem by particular elements of the population. Because of the intensity and visibility of such events, without the demand and support input concepts as tools, the professional can easily overlook a whole and vital area of political life—the arrangements, goods, attitudes, actions and energies that keep the political system functional or contribute to making it dysfunctional.

Community development, of course, depends upon the stresses and tensions generated by demands from citizens to provide the dynamics for growth toward maturity. Yet a community cannot handle the dynamics of development unless it can create and maintain a responsive, flexible, and effective system of decision making and implementation. The political structures are often the critical subsystems of the community in many areas of concern. The differentiation of support and demand inputs helps the field worker provide a broader and more appropriate range of educational experiences. It will help in creating learning situations relative to both becoming effective in securing specific desired outputs and in providing the necessary resources required to maintain adequate system performance.

References: Almond, Gabriel A., Powell, G. Bingham Jr., *Comparative Politics: A Developmental Approach,* Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1965.

Easton, David, A *Framework for Political Analysis,* Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1965.

ECONOMIC CONCEPTS

Certain economic principles and concepts have proven valid for use in community development. These concepts provide useful constructs for analysis and are essential to rational decision making. Community development professionals should be familiar with these concepts and their practical application as tools to assist in community decision making. These selected concepts and lists of references are included as a guide.

Marginal Analysis

Marginal analysis is a basic economic principle. The term "marginal" in an economic sense means "additional" or the last increment added or produced. For example, "marginal cost" means whatever the cost of the last unit of production adds to the total cost. If the total cost of five units is $100 and the total cost of producing six units is $115, the marginal cost of producing the incremental (sixth) unit is $15.

Several useful economic concepts are based on the marginal principle. *Diminishing returns* is a principle that can be applied to problem solving in almost every phase of community development. The principle itself states that output will increase with each added input (holding other factors constant) to some point beyond which the added input will contribute less and less to the total output.

Economic diminishing return is similar to the principle of diminishing physical returns except that inputs and outputs are expressed in dollar values instead of physical units. The dollar value of the output resulting from the last unit of input applied represents the marginal revenue product of the last unit of input. Similarly *marginal resource cost* is the dollar value of acquiring and using the last additional units of input. Comparing the costs and returns associated with the last unit of resource used, the most rational allocation of the resource will occur when the last unit hired results in the marginal cost equalling the marginal return.

The *equa-marginal* principle explains how to equate or maximize the use of a scarce resource or output. The equa-marginal principle states that a scarce resource should be allocated between competing uses so that the return from that resource is equal for all uses. This is especially relevant in community development to evaluating possible allocation of scarce resources among competing facilities and services.

The principle of *substitution* is similar to the principle of equa-marginal returns. In the equa-marginal principle, a single input is equated between competing uses, whereas the principle of substitution states "that if the quantity

of output is constant it is economic to substitute one factor of production for another if the new combination of resources costs less than the former."

Opportunity Cost

Opportunity cost is an important consideration in the analysis of regional or an area economy. Briefly stated, opportunity cost, in economics, means the opportunities that must be foregone in order to use resources for a given economic activity. The concept is critical in regard to numerous facets of community development, both public and private. In the public sector, the expenditure of tax revenues always involves opportunity costs in terms of alternative benefits or program impacts that must be foregone in order to fund a particular public project.

Relating to the interrelationships among economic phenomena are the concepts of complementary, supplementary, and competitive activities. *Complementary enterprises* or activities are those that, in the production of one product, enhance or increase the production of another product. An example in community development would be the improvement of a city's water supply which would increase its capacity for industrial development.

Supplementary activities or enterprises are those which are possible or feasible as a result of the other being present. An example in community development might be using a street maintenance crew that would ordinarly be underemployed on park development and upkeep as well.

Competitive activities or enterprises are those actually vying for the same resources; the production or presence of one is at the expense of the other. In community development, where most of the activities are financed from local tax revenues, this concept is important, for needed activities must be determined and priorities set.

References: Barlowe, Raleigh, *Land Resource Economics,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1963, Chapters 12, 13, and 14.

Bradford, Lawrence A. and Johnson, Glenn L., *Farm Management Analysis,* John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, 1953, Chapters 11 and 12.

Castle, Emery N. and Becker, Manning H.,

Farm Business Management, The MacMillan Company, New York, London, 1962, Chapter 3.

McConnell, Campbell R., *Economics Principles, Problems and Politics,* Fourth Edition, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1969.

Miernyk, William H., *Input-Output Analysis,* Random House, New York, 1965.

Nourse, Hugh O., *Regional Economics,* McGraw-Hill, New York, 1968.

Vincent, Warren H., *Economics and Management in Agriculture,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1962, Chapters 3,4,5, and 6.

Economics of Size

Size, in an economic sense, refers to a specific level of specific inputs or outputs. Size of a community is generally expressed in terms of population.

Economies of size is a useful concept in community development in that certain savings can be made or physical efficiency can be gained by increasing the size. A good example might be in solid waste disposal. One small town or rural community may not be able to financially afford an adequate sanitary landfill, but by consolidating into a county or multi-county effort the cost per family might be greatly reduced for a facility that would meet the proper standards for sanitary disposal and pollution abatement. Many public facilities and services can fit the same criteria.

Diseconomies of size is also possible. Every level of economic activity or institutional arrangement has a maximum effective, or economically efficient size. A business, industry, school or city can become so large that management becomes less effective and the economies gained by consolidation, added inputs, or assembly line procedures are lost because of ineffective supervision, absentee decision making, etc. The community development worker can use these concepts in helping the community increase its efficiency. Through their combined experiences, optimums may be established.

References: Bradford, Lawrence A. and Johnson, Glenn L., *op. cit.*

Castle, Emery N. and Becker, H. Manning, *op. cit.*

McConnell, Campbell R., *op. cit.*

Vincent, Warren H., *op. cit.*

Inter-Industry and Input-Output Analysis

Inter-industry analysis provides an excellent approach to area or regional economic structural analysis. Applied empirically, the inter-industry framework indicates the level of various area economic activities as well as the economic interrelationships linking the numerous sectors of the area or regional economy. Data organized in an inter-industry framework provide much of the empirical input required for input-output analysis.

The principle features of *input-output analysis* are that it permits a detailed presentation of the production and distribution characteristics of individual industries within a region and the nature of the interrelationships among them and other sectors of the economy. Based on an understanding of the level of economic activity and inter-relationships among sectors of an area or regional economy, input-output analysis is a powerful tool for estimating the impact of planned activities upon the economic structure. Thus input-output techniques can assist significantly in decision making regarding allocation of resources and economic development.

Multiplier Analysis

To measure the impact of change in the economy, *multiplier analysis* is often used. The multiplier indicates the magnitude of change in overall economic activity resulting from direct change in one sector of the economy. Expressed as a ratio, the multiplier measures all effects—direct and indirect—to the direct effects of the change. There are a number of multipliers that are useful in explaining the total change resulting from changing a specific economic variable. These include: economic base multiplier, income multiplier, employment multipliers, and input-output multipliers.

The multiplier concept is of particular concern to policy makers and community development workers who are responsible for various public programs and who wish to determine the impact of a proposed public expenditure or program. The multiplier concept can give an indication of the cumulative impact of a change in a key economic variable.

References: Barlowe, Raleigh, *op. cit.*

Castle, Emery N. and Becker, Manning H., *op. cit.*

Ciriacy-Wantrip, Siegfried V., *Resource Conservation,* University of California, 1952, p. 51.

Isard, Walter, *Methods of Regional Analysis: An Introduction to Regional Science,* The MIT Press, Cambridge, 1960.

Leftwich, Richard H., *The Price System and Resource Allocation,* Third Edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1966.

Leontief, Wassily, *Input-Output Economics,* Oxford University Press, New York, 1966.

Liebhobsky, H. H., *The Nature of Price Theory,* The Dorsey Press, Inc., Homewood, Illinois, 1963.

McConnell, Campbell, R., *op. cit.*

Miernyk, William H. *op. cit.*

Nourse, Hugh O., *op. cit.*

Sloan, Harold S. and Zurcher, Arnold J., *op. cit.*

Interregional Competition

International, national, state, and local economic conditions bear heavily upon the economic development of a particular region or community. The fact that local economies are linked to other larger economic units means that events in one may have important repercussions on the other. Therefore, it is important that the community development worker be aware of the historical development of his area of concern and be knowledgeable of the local, regional, and national factors that have generated the kinds of economic relationships developed.

References: Isard, Walter, *op. cit.*

Leftwich, Richard H., *op. cit.*

Nourse, Hugh O., *op. cit.*

Benefit-Cost Analysis

Benefit-cost analysis is a means of testing project quality and of selecting those projects

that are most desirable with respect to economic efficiency. Estimation of benefits and costs for alternative projects indicates whether or not the ratio of benefits to costs justifies the development; hence it serves as an aid to decision making. As a type of economic analysis it is designed to ascertain the extent to which economic resources such as land, labor, and materials are more or less effective than if the project were not undertaken. It is a concept that can be used in community development work to evaluate alternative employment of resources or to assist in setting project priorities. It emphasizes the economic efficiency of resource use.

References: Barlowe, Raleigh, *op. cit.*

Isard, Walter, *op. cit.*

Vincent, Warren H., *op. cit.*

FEASIBILITY CONCEPTS

In the task of facilitating citizen involvement, decision making, and carrying out action, the community development professional must understand the concept of feasibility including the various criteria which determine feasibility. Within the context of community decision making, numerous ideas and schemes are offered as alternative solutions to identified community problems. These alternatives may have social, economic, political and institutional implications, all of which must be analyzed.

Feasibility can be described as capable of being done or carried out in a practical and reasonable manner. Feasibility can best be understood by considering its components, i.e., the physical, economic, administrative, political, and cultural ones.

Physical feasibility simply means: "Can it be done?" With modern technology, a task, a project, or structure can probably be built or accomplished. But the basis of this concept should stress the practicality of the feat. Dams, buildings, and roads are possible from an engineering and construction standpoint, but may not be the best solution. When several alternatives are physically feasible, then one or more of the other criteria will become the critical factor.

Economic feasibility in our system is one of the most important aspects of this concept. A project may be physically possible, but if it is too costly in terms of time, money or other resources in relation to the expected return, then it probably is not economically feasible. In making an economic feasibility study, several economic concepts are involved. These are opportunity costs, benefit-cost ratio, and the proper use of interest by amortization or discounting.

Political feasibility indicates that a proposal must be within the present legal boundaries or that proposed legislation would be acceptable to the voters and/or legislators so that the plan or program could be implemented. Often the final test in community development as to political feasibility comes in the form of a bond issue where the public is asked to go into debt for the sake of a specific project.

Cultural feasibility is meeting the standards of criteria of a local community or of the major ethnic group of that community. Often a practice, program, or structure that is normal or standard on a state or national level is unacceptable to a local group. As an example, high rise apartments may be acceptable by state and area planners, lawmakers, and the general public but would be unacceptable in one of the same region's local rural towns.

Administrative feasibility is a key consideration in tax policies and programs. Often a tax scheme would be a good source of revenue, but administrative costs exceed the income. Sales taxes and income taxes both have high administrative costs and at a local level sometimes approach a nonfeasible status.

References: Barlowe, Raleigh, *op. cit.*

Ciriacy-Wantrip, Siegfried V., *op. cit.*

Renne, Roland R., *Land Economics*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1947, Chapters 14 and 15.

PROPERTY RIGHTS

The increasing complexity of social institutions with which the community development professional finds his clientele involved makes it essential that an understanding of law become part of his training program. Among the legal concepts needed are those of property and of private and public rights involving property ownership and control.

Property is a complicated legal concept. In the legal sense, property consists not of objects but of man's rights with respect to material

objects. In our society, the existence of property rights presupposes the presence of:

1. an owner together with other persons who can be excluded from the exercise of ownership rights;

2. property objects that can be held as private or public possessions;

3. a sovereign power that will sanction and protect the property rights vested in individuals or groups.

Property has two important attributes—it must be capable of being appropriated and must have value.

Based on our concept of property, there are a host of laws, rules, regulations, and ethic values that must be considered. The community development professional will deal in these when carrying out programs with people on land use, water problems, pollution abatement, planning, industrial development, and taxation policies.

A simple problem such as the right-of-way dispute for a needed community facility may deter construction for years if the property rights of the individual and the public are not clearly understood by all parties concerned. By understanding these rights, the community development professional through a public education program can help bring about a decision.

References: Barlow, Raleigh, *Land Resource Economics,* Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1963, Chapters 12, 16 and 17.

Ciriacy-Wantrip, Siegfried V., *Resource Conservation,* University of California, 1952, p. 51.

Ely, Richard T. and George S. Wehrwein, *Land Economics,* The MacMillan Company, New York, 1940, Chapter IV.

Noyes, C. Reinold, *The Institution of Property,* Logmans, Green and Company Inc., New York, 1936, p. 353.

Renne, Roland R., *Land Economics,* Harper and Brothers, New York, 1947 Chapter 14, pp. 114-152.

Community Development workers should have a general understanding of concepts used in education, sociology, geography, political science, economics, and those of property rights.

APPENDIX A

Concepts Central to Rural Development Management

Management

The concept of management is important to rural development. Management is the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the efforts of organization members and of using all other organizational resources to achieve stated organizational goals. The organization could be the community, private institutions and public agencies assigned developmental tasks. Two other major concepts are important to management; these are the twin concepts of efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency is the ability to get things done correctly, whereas effectiveness is the ability to choose appropriate objectives or the selection of the right things to get done.

The Management Process

Management is a process because all managers, regardless of their particular aptitudes or skills, engage in the following interrelated activities in order to achieve their desired goals:

1. Planning- is the basic process used to select goals and determine how to achieve them.

2. Organizing- is the process of arranging and allocating work among members of the organization to achieve goals.

3. Leading- is working with and through others to achieve organizational goals.

4. Controlling- process through which managers assure that actual activities conform to planned activities.

Principles of Management
    1. Division of Labor

2. Authority
3. Discipline
4. Unity of Command
5. Unity of Direction
6. Subordination of Individual Interest to the Common Good
7. Renumeration
8. Centralization
9. Hierarchy
10. Order
11. Equity
12. Stability of Staff
13. Initiative
14. Esprit de Corps

Resource

Resource is anything that satisfies the needs or wants of civilization. Resource management is the process of directing or controlling the production or use of our resources.

Ecology is the study of the earth's "households" including the plants, animals, micro-organisms, and people that live together as interdependent components.

APPENDIX B

Suggested Courses and Descriptions

RDM 201

Course Description: Public Affairs Management
                    (Theory, Concepts, Structures, Processes)

Course Goals:

1) Systematically introduce students to basic subject matter that is associated with managing public affairs.

2) Lay a foundation for student understanding of governmental operations, development aims and national goals, and administrative and political structure.

3) Provide a forum for student understanding of national issues and concerns as they relate to development.

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

1) identify and define public management concepts, frameworks, and models;

2) identify the structure of the national bureaucracy and have knowledge of its general functions and processes;

3) identify current national issues and relate them to concepts and theories identified earlier in the course;

4) integrate and synthesize theories and facts pertaining to the realm of public management in five position papers throughout the coursework; and

5) demonstrate awareness of national goals and priorities through student interaction, and critically examine current national issues.

RDM 201
Public Affairs Management (Theory and Processes)

Course Content:

I Public Affairs Management in Perspective

    a. Introduction to Public Affairs Management
    b. Rural Development Management

II Foundation Concepts in Rural Development Management

    a. Development
    b. Region
    c. Rural
    d. Planned Change
    e. Resource Development and Management

III Approaches to RDM

    a. Approaches/Ideologies to Rural Development
    b. Integrated Rural Development

IV Strategies of RDM

    a. Focus on Politico-Administrative machinery for planning and implementation
    b. Focus on Rural Resource Development

V Issues in Public Affairs Management

Course Format:

    Class lectures and focused group discussion on assigned readings. Five position papers will be submitted as requirements for the course. Topics will be on issues of national importance.

3 credits

RDM 202

Course Description: Public Program Management
                      (Concepts and Processes)

Course Goals:

1)   To introduce the student to Public Program Management.

2)   Lay a foundation for student understanding of the planning
      and implementation of a public program in rural development.

3)   Provide a background for understanding projects.

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

1   identify the concepts and issues central to program
      management as well as the national agencies involved in
      program planning and implementation;

2)   critically analyze the rationale and mode of implementation
      of the many programs in rural development;

3)   critically evaluate the phases of program management through
      carefully selected local and international case studies; and

4)   synthesize and integrate current issues with concepts and
      processes identified earlier into a project paper that will
      focus on the redesigning of a national program in one of its
      aspects (e.g., client analysis in program planning).

RDM 202
Public Program Management

Course Content:

I   Introduction

     a.   Scope

II   Program Management in Rural Development

III The Environment of Program Management

     a.   Institutional linkages
     b.   General Environment Impact

IV   Policy Framework

     a.   Basic Justification and Objectives of Government Programs
     b.   Public Policy and Policy Analysis
     c.   An Overview of Project Management

V   Program Development

     a.   Program Identification
     b.   Program Design
     c.   Rationality Criteria and Standards
     d.   Client Analysis
     e.   Program Approval

VI   Program Implementation

     a.   Organizational and Administrative Aspects
     b.   Resource Mobilization and Allocation
     c.   Program Budgeting
     d.   Critical Elements for Program Implementation

Course Format:

     Class sessions will be a mixture of lectures by the instructor, presentations by resource persons invited to class, and class discussions.
     At the onset of the course the student will select a public program in rural development. During the course, the student will identify and analyze the phases of program development. At the end of the course the student will submit a program change map consisting mainly of a client analysis, organizational arrangement for implementation, and an evaluation design. At the end of the course students will also be expected to report to class their findings.

3 credits.
Prerequisite: Public Affairs Management

RDM 203

Course Description: Project Development and Management

Course Goals:

1)   To introduce the student to Project Management.

2)   Lay a foundation for student understanding of the processes involved in project management.

3)   Provide skills for project management.

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

1)   identify the project cycle and the different activities covered in each phase;

2)   prepare a detailed work plan that will include the preparation, analysis, and calculation of a critical path network;

3)   prepare components of a project proposal, e.g., market analysis, technical analysis, organizational analysis, etc.;

4)   perform calculations involved in the above mentioned components, e.g., discounting, cost-benefit, cash flow analysis, etc.; and

5)   demonstrate the ability to synthesize and integrate knowledge and skills learned through submission of a project proposal on any rural development activity.

RDM 203
Project Development and Management

Course Content:

I   Introduction

    a.   Rationale
    b.   Concepts and Methods
    c.   Nature of Plans, Programs and Projects - Past and current projects in rural development or resources

II   Phases of Project Development

    a.   Identification
    b.   Preparation
    c.   Financing
    d.   Reappraisal

III   Project Feasibility Study

    a.   Market Study
    b.   Technical Study
    c.   Financing Projects
    d.   Financial Analysis
    e.   Operational Feasibility
    f.   Economic Analysis

IV   Strategies for Implementation

V   Project Evaluation

    a.   Benchmark for Evaluation

Course Format:

    Instructor lectures and structured work group experience on a project feasibility study of a rural development project (e.g. well construction, irrigation, etc.). At the end of the course, a group output in the form of a feasibility report will be submitted.

3 credits
Prerequisite: Public Program Management

RDM 220

Course Description: Concepts and Principles of Community Development

Course Goals:

1)   Systematically introduce students to basic subject matter that is commonly associated with the field of Community Development.

2)   Lay a foundation for student participation in other community development courses.

3)   Provide a forum for professional growth for students with and without Community Development field experience.

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

1)   increase their knowledge of the important concepts, issues, principles, frameworks, and models in the CD field;

2)   critically analyze and evaluate basic CD subject matter and issues; and

3)   to synthesize course material as the basis for application in future coursework/research/career activities.

RDM 220
Community Development (Concepts and Principles)

Course Content:

I   CD in Perspective

    a.   Introduction to CD
    b.   Historical Background of CD

II   Foudnational Concepts in CD

    a.   Development
    b.   Planned change
    c.   Community

III   Approaches to CD

    a.   The Approaches in Overview
    b.   Introduction of the Major Approaches

IV   Strategies of CD

    a.   Toward Effective CD: Focus on the Change Agent
    b.   Toward Effective CD: Focus on the Target System
    c.   Introduction to Change Agent Strategies
    d.   Techniques commonly used in the phases/stages of the CD process

Course Format:

    Instructor lectures, focused group discussion, individual reports. Discussion of basic readings and position paper.

RDM 221

Course Description: Planned Change in Community Development

Course Goals:

1.   To systematically introduce the student to the requisites of planned change and innovation.

2.   Lay a foundation for student understanding of the change process as a necessary pre-requisite to field research or activities.

3.   Provide a forum for interaction with other students.

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

1.   identify the steps involved in innovation and recall the heuristics at each step;

2.   familiarize and execute techniques associated with each step in problem diagnosis (e.g., delphi technique, nominal group technique, brainstorming, etc.); and

3.   design a change map for an organization or a community.

RDM 221
Planned Change in Community Development

Course Content:

I Case Studies of Change Agents in Action

II The Stages of Planned Change
    a.   Building a Relationship
    b.   Acquiring Relevant Resources
    c.   Choosing the Solution
    d.   Gaining Acceptance
    e.   Stabilizing the Innovation

Course Format:

The course will be divided into the steps involved in the introduction of an innovation. Students will be given tests before each step to reinforce memory recall of the steps and heuristics involved. Each session there will be focused group discussion where each other's design map is updated and evaluated. At the end of the course, the student should have a completed change map. Efforts will be made to invite the heads of agencies or organizations to provide feedback on the map toward the end of the course.

3 credits
Prerequisite: Concepts and Principles of Community Development

RDM 222

Course Description: Special Topics in Community Development

Course Goals:

   1.   To expose students to approaches/techniques that are often
        employed in the CD process.

   2.   To promote the development of student skills in the CD
        process.

Course Objectives:

   Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

   1.   perform skills related to the conduct of CD programs (e.g.,
        how to conduct meetings, seminars, write funding proposals,
        etc.); and

   2.   integrate and synthesize the experiences of those in the
        field conducting CD, and critically evaluate the concepts
        and theories previously learned in the light of such
        experiences.

RDM 222
Special Topics in Community Development

Course Content:

  I Introduction to CD Research

 II The CD Professional as a Research Consumer

III The CD Professional as a Research Producer

 IV Leadership in CD

  V Social Impact Assesment

Course Format:

     Focused group discussion, individual presentation of reports on selected topics, role playing, simulation, games, etc. Topics may change based on participants' needs and new trends in the field.

3 credits
Prerequisite: Planned Change in Community Development

RDM 210

Course Description: Organization and Management Theory, Concepts and Principles

Course Goals:

1) Systematically introduce students to basic subject matter that is associated with the field of organization and management.

2) Lay a foundation for student participation in other management courses.

3) Provide a forum for professional growth for students with and without a management background.

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

1) to increase student knowledge regarding important management concepts, issues, principles, frameworks, and models;

2) to encourage student interaction as it pertains to a critical consideration of basic management subject matter; and

3) to provide students with an opportunity to synthesize material as the basis for application in future coursework/research/career activities.

RDM 210
Organization and Management (Theory and Concepts)

Course Content

I   Management and Organization in Perspective

   a.   Introduction to Organizations and Management
   b.   The evolution of management theory

II   Foundational Concepts in Management

   a.   Principles of Management
   b.   Functions of Manaeers

III Approaches to the Study of Organization

   a.   Individual, group, organization
   b,   Task, roles, attitudes
   c.   Systems
   d.   Specific areas of specialization

IV   Managerial functions

   a.   Planning
   b.   Organizing
   c.   Leading
   d.   Controlling

V   Issues in Management and Organization

Course Format:

   Instructor lectures, group discussion, and use of local case
studies. Five position papers on management issues will be required.

RDM 211

Course Description: Decision Making Concepts and Tools

Course Goals:

1) Expose students to concepts and tools of decision-making.

2) Develop student skills in utilizing tools for decision-making.

3) Develop student attitudes and behaviors required for national decision-making.

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

1. perform problem-solving techniques or analysis;

2. synthesize concepts and integrate course materials with case studies and;

3. work with groups in arriving at decisions.

RDM 211
Decision Making Concepts and Tools

Course Content:

I Conceptual Foundation for Decision-Making

    a. Problem finding, choice making, decision making, and problem solving
    b. Traditional and Modern Techniques of Decision-Making

II Decision-Making Models Under Conditions of:

    a. Certainty
    b. Risk
    c. Uncertainty

III Aids for planning and problem solving

    a. Management science
    b. Forecasting
    c. Gantt charts, PERT, CPM

IV Operations Management

    a. Importance
    b. Major features
    c. Decision areas that go into the design

Course Format:

    Case studies, model analysis and role playing will be used heavily, together with class lectures.

3 credits
Prerequisite: Organization and Management

RDM 241

Course Description: Data Collection in Developing Countries

Course Goals:

1)   Expose students to systematic research proposal making, problem analysis.

2)   Expose students to field realities in collecting data and conducting research.

3)   Equip students with capability to design a proposal.

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of the coursework the student should be able to:

1)   design a project proposal;

2)   identify the different methods for data collection in developing countries; and

3)   integrate and synthesize the relevant course materials.

RDM 241
Data Collection in Developing Countries

Course Content:

    I   Introduction

   II   Preparation of Research Proposal

  III   Sampling Principles and Techniques

   IV   Developing the Survey Plan

    V   Execution of the Survey Plan

   VI   Measurement Problems in Ag. Data

  VII   Data Handling and Analysis

  VII   Computer Aided Analysis

   IX   Report Writing and Documentation

Course Format:

    Instructor lectures and focused group discussions. The student is expected to contribute to class by sharing his research experiences in LDC's. Professional researchers will be invited to class to share research experiences.

RDM 500

Course Description: Seminar in Rural Development Management

Course Goals: To provide the student a forum for an exchange of ideas and experiences.

Course Objective:

At the end of the course, the student should be able to generalize, synthesize, and integrate his particular rural development experience.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ahmed, Manzoor and P. Coombs
    1975   Education for Rural Development: Case Studies for Planners.
           New York: Praeger.

Anker, Desmond L.W.
    1973   "Rural Development Problems and Strategies." International
           Labour Review. ILO, Geneva, Switzerland. 108(6).

Arora, R.C.
    1979   Integrated Rural Development. New Delhi: S. Chand and
           Company Limited.

Asian Centre for Development Administration (A.C.D.A.)
    1976   "Approaches to Rural Development in Asia." As cited in The
           Integrated Estate Development Training Program Handbook. UP
           at Los Banos.

Avasthi, Amreshwar and Shriram Maheswari
    1966   Public Administration. Agra, Lakshmi Nacain Agarwal.

Axinn, G. and Thorat, S.
    1972   Modernizing World Agriculture: A Comparative Study of
           Agricultural Extension Education Systems. New York: Praeger.

Axinn, George H.
    1978   New Strategies for Rural Development. Katmandu: Rural Life
           Associates.

Aziz, U.
    1964   "Poverty and Rural Development in Malaysia" Kajian Ekonomi
           Malaysia (Malaysian Economic Studies). 1(1): 87.

Banzon, Kenneth E.
    1975   "Asian Processes and Development Administration in
           Retrospect." Philippine Journal of Public Administration
           XIX(3).

Bloom, Benjamin S. (ed.)
    1964   Taxonomy of Educational Objectives I: Cognitive Domain. New
           York: David McKay Inc.

Borton, Raymond (ed.)
    1967   Case Studies to Accompany Getting Agriculture Moving. New
           York: Agricultural Development Council, Inc.

Briggs, Katherine C. and Isabel Briggs-Myers
    1976   Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Consulting Psychologists Press
           Inc.

Brothers, Dwight S.
1977   "Management Requirements of National Agricultural Development
         Programs." Education and Training for Public Sector
         Management in Developing Countries. The Rockefeller
         Foundation.

Bunting, A. (ed.)
1970   Change in Agriculture. London: Gerald Duckworth.

Caiden, Naomi and A. Wildavsky
1974   Planning and Budgeting in Poor Countries. New York: John
         Wiley.

Caoli, Olivia
1975   "A Survey of Training Programs Related to Development
         Administration: A Summary of Comments and Suggestions."
         University of the Philippines at Los Banos.

Castillo, Gelia T.
1982   Changing Rural Institutions And Participatory Development: A
         Review Of The Philippine Experience. Philippine Institute of
         Development Studies Part I and II.

Chambers, Robert
1974   Managing Rural Development: Ideas and Experience From East
         Africa. Uppsala, Sweden: Scandinavian Institute of African
         Studies.

Chang, Chi Weng
1969   Rural Asia Marches Forward. University of the Philippines at
         Los Banos.

Chelimsky, E.
1978   "Differing Perspectives of Evaluation." Pp. 19-38 in C.C.
         Rentz and R.R. Rentz (eds.), Evaluating Federally Sponsored
         Programs: New Directions for Program Evaluation 2 (Summer).
         San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Chowdhury, Kamla
1977   "Strategies For Institutionalizing Public Management
         Education: The Indian Experience." Education and Training
         for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries. The
         Rockefeller Foundation.

Clark, Cameron
1974   "Integrated Approach to Agricultural and Rural Development:
         Asia and the Far East." Paper presented to the 12th FAO
         Regional Conference for Asia and the Far East, Tokyo, Japan.

Cuyno, Rogelio V.
1975   "MARD Proposal." University of the Philippines at Los Banos.

Cuyno, Rogelio V. and Melinda F. Lumanta
1979   Internalizing Rural Development Experience. University of

the Philippines at Los Banos.

Cuyno, Rogelio V., Melinda F. Lumanta, and Mardonia C. Ramos
    1982   Management of Rural Development in the 80's: Philippine
           Reflections. MARD, University of the Philippines at Los
           Banos.

The Dag Hammarskjold Foundation
    1975   What Now? Pp. 25-42 in The 1975 Dag Hammarskjold Report on
           Development and International Cooperation. Uppsala, Sweden.

De Guzman, Raul P.
    1972   "Lecture Notes on Development Administration." Paper
           presented at the General Course in Regional Development,
           United Nations Center for Regional Development, Nagoya,
           Japan.

_____.
    1976   "Management Training Needs and Goals in the ESCAP Region:
           Toward Collaborative Efforts." Philippine Journal of Public
           Administration. XX(2).

_____.
    1978   "Public Management Education in the Philippines: Issues and
           Problems." Lecture delivered at the Faculty Center Conference
           Hall, University of the Philippines.

De Guzman, Raul P. and Alex B. Brillantes Jr.
    1979   "Development Administration in the Philippines: Issues and
           Problems." UP College of Public Administration.

De Guzman, Raul P.
    1979   "Towards A More Effective Coordination of Planning and
           Implementation of Development Programs/Projects: The
           Integrated Area Development (IAD) Approach." Paper prepared
           for the National Conference of Local Government Executives
           and the 24th World Congress of the International Union of
           Local Authorities. Manila, Philippines.

Development Administration Newsletter
    1980   Development Administration Newsletter, No. 65.

De Wilde, J. (ed.)
    1967   Experience with Agricultural Development in Tropical Africa.
           Baltimore: John Hopkins Press.

Doll, Ronald C.
    1964   Curriculum Improvement: Decision-Making and Process.
           Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Economic Development Institute (EDI)
    1979   "Summary of Discussion of Meeting on Training Needs for
           Project Managers in Agriculture." Washington.

Economic and Social Council of the United Nations (ECOSOC)
1978   Resolution 1978/6 of May 10.

Eisner, Elliot W.
1982   Cognition and Curriculum: A Basis for Deciding What to
          Teach. New York: Longman Inc.

El-Ghonemy, Mohamad Riad
1979   Agrarian Reform and Rural Development in the Near East.
          Rome: FAO.

Emezi, C.E.
1979   Administration for Development in Africa. New York: Conch
          Magazine Limited Publishers.

Ensminger, Douglas
1974   Rural Development: What is it? Paper delivered at the
          East-West Center's Conference on "Integrated Communication
          for Rural Development", Honolulu, Hawaii.

Extension Committee on Organization and Policy (ECOP).
1975   "Community Development Concepts, Curriculum Training Needs,"
          Report of the ECOP of the National Association of State
          Universities and Land Grant Colleges.

FAO
1975   Key Issues: Integrated Rural Development. U.N. Rome.

————————
1980   "A Programme on Improving the Organization and Administration
          of Agricultural Development." Rome.

————————
1981   "Training of Trainers in Agricultural Development
          Administration." Rome.

Fisher, John L.
1972   "Why Do Projects Fail to Come Up to Expectations?" In CENTO
          Seminar on Agricultural Planning. Ankara, Turkey: Public
          Relations Division, Central Treaty Organization.

Fredericks, L.J.
1977   "Concepts and Approaches to Rural Development." Paper
          presented at the Workshop for Trainers of Rural Development
          Officials, Manila.

Gant, George F.
1979   Development Administration: Concepts, Goals, Methods.
          Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin Press.

Gittinger, Price J.
1972   Economic Analysis of Agricultural Projects. EDI
          International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.
          Baltimore and London: The John Hopkins University Press.

Gomez, Arturo A. and Priscilla A. Julian (eds.)
1978   Rural Development: The Philippine Experience. The Philippine Training Centers for Rural Development, University of the Philippines at Los Banos, Laguna, Philippines.

Gordon, R.H. and G.W. Duncan
1978   "A Report on the Gombe and Funtua Agricultural Development Projects." As cited in Youker's memorandum Price Gittinger on a "New Course in Managing Rural Development Projects" in 1979.

Goulet, Dennis
1973   "Development...or Liberation?" International Development Review. XIII(3). Reprinted pp. 354-361 in Charles K. Wilbur (ed.), The Political Economy of Development and Underdevelopment. New York: Random House.

Griffin, Keith
1974   The Political Economy of Agrarian Change. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Hunter, Guy (ed.)
1978   Agricultural Development and the Rural Poor: Declaration of Policy and Guidelines for Action. London, England: Overseas Development Institute/Book, Mag.

Hunter, G., A. Bunting, and A. Bottrall (eds.)
1976   Policy and Practice in Rural Development. London: Croon Helm for the Overseas Development Institute.

Ickis, John
1979   "Rural Development Managers." Pp. 20-50 in Population and Social Development Management, edited by D. Korten, Caracas: Instituto de Estudios Superiores de Administration.

Iglesias, Gabriel U. (ed.)
1976   Implementation: The Problem of Achieving Results. EROPA, Manila, Philippines.

Inayatullah
1973   Political Context of Programmes of Rural Development and Rural Poverty. (Revised version of the paper presented to Conference on "Effective Anti-Poverty Strategies" held on 12-21 December, 1973 in Bangkok, Thailand).

————.
1967   "Toward a Non-western Model of Development." Pp. 98-102 in Communication and Change in the Developing Countries.

International Labor Orgaization
1974   Sharing in Development: A Program of Employment, Equity and Growth for the Philippines. Rome, Italy.

Israel, Arturo
1978   "Workshop on Institutional Issues in Agriculture and Rural
        Development." As cited in Youker's memorandum to Price
        Gittinger on a "New Course in Managing Rural Development
        Projects" in 1979.

Jiggins, Janic
1977   "Motivation and Performance of Extension Field Staff." Pp.
        1-19 in Extension, Planning and the Poor. London, England:
        Overseas Development Institute.

Knowles, Malcolm Shepherd
1970   The Modern Practice of Adult Education; Andragogy Versus
        Pedagogy. New York, Association Press.

Korten, David C.
1979   "Toward a Technology for Managing Social Development." Pp.
        20-50 in Population and Social Development Management, edited
        by D. Korten, Caracas: Instituto de Estudios Superiores de
        Administration.

Korten, David C. and Felipe Alfonso (eds.)
1981   Bureaucracy and the Poor. Asian Institute of Management,
        Metro Manila, Philippines.

Kotter, H.R.
1974   "Some Observations on the Basic Principles and General
        Strategy Underlying Integrated Rural Development." FAO
        Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.
        23(4).

Krathwohl, David R. (ed.)
1964   Taxonomy of Educational Objectives The Classification of
        Educational Goals Handbook II: Affective Domain. New York:
        David McKay Company, Inc.

Lawas, Jose M.
1979   "Concepts and Strategies of Rural Development." As cited in
        Rola's Integrated Rural Development: Problems and Issues.
        Management Education Council, University of the Philippines.

Katz, Robert L.
1974   "Skills of an Effective Administrator," Harvard Business
        Review 52. No. 5.

Lawton, Dennis
1975   Class, Culture and the Curriculum. London and Boston:
        Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.

Lele, Uma
1975   Design of Rural Development: Lessons from Africa.
        Baltimore, MD: The John Hopkins University Press.

Leonard, Leo D. and Robert T. Utz

1974   Building Skills for Competency-Based Teaching. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.

Leupolt, M.
1975   Key Issues of Integrated Rural Development: Concept, Applications, Tools. Rome: Human Resources, Institutions and Agrarian Reform Division, FAO.

Librero, Florentino
1978   "Approaching Rural Development." Rural Development: The Philippine Experience. Philippine Training Centers for Rural Development, University of the Philippines at Los Banos, Laguna.

Livingstone, Sterling J.
1975   "The Myth of the Well-Educated Manager." Harvard Business Review. 53(4).

Maddick, Henri
1963   Democracy, Decentralization and Development. New Delhi: Asia Publishing House.

Marcos, Ferdinand E.
1973   "An Ideology of Development." Official Gazette. 69(5).

MARD
1975   "Highlights and Main Issues of the Interview Series with Program/Project Managers." UP at Los Banos, Laguna, Philippines.

Martin, C.M.
1971   "Performance Review and Evaluation: Their Roles in the Implementation of National Development Plans." Paper prepared for the Conference of Asian Economic Planners, ECAFE.

Martinez, A. Jr. and others
1978   "Behavioral Aspects of Project Management." Second Training Course on Management of Rural Development Projects. Conducted by the UP Local Government Center in Collaboration with the UP Management Education Council and the National Council for Integrated Area Development.

McCallum, Alec
1982   "Devolution and Rural Development: Unsnarling the Bureaucracy." Pp. 36-40 in Ceres.

Mendoza, Gabino A.
1977   "The Transferability of Western Management Concepts and Programs, an Asian Perspective." Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries. The Rockefeller Foundation.

Mintzberg, Henry

1975   "The Manager's Job: Folklore and Fact." Harvard Business Review. 53(40).

Moris, Jon R.
1977   "The Transferability of Western Management Concepts and Programs, an East African Perspective." Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries. The Rockefeller Foundation.

_____.
1981   Managing Induced Rural Development. International Development Institute, Bloomington, Indiana.

Myrdal, Gunlap
1955   "What is Development?," Ekistics. XI(237): 84-87.

National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA)
1977   "National Goals and Policies." Pp. 3-16 in Five-Year Philippine Development Plan, 1978-1982. Manila: NEDA.

Nelson, Michael
1973   The Development of Tropical Lands: Policy Issues in Latin America. Baltimore: John Hopkins Press for Resources for the Future.

Newstrom, John W.
1978   "A Conundrum of Ease and Value." as cited in Robert Youker's "New Course-Managing Rural Development Projects." Memorandum to Price Gittinger, 1979.

Niehoff, A. (ed)
1966   A Casebook of Social Change. Chicago: Aldine.

Oamar, Felipe V.
1980   "Training for Local/Regional Development: The Philippine Experience." Local Government Bulletin. XIV(1,2).

Ocampo, Romeo
1980   "A Case Study of IRD in the Philippines." UP College of Public Administration, Manila, Philippines.

Odum, Eugene P.
1975   Ecology: The Link Between the Natural and the Social Sciences. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ortiz, Pacifico A.
1974   Man - The Measure of Development Paper presented at the Seminar on Man, Society, and Development. Xavier University, Cagayan de Oro City.

Paul, Samuel
1978   "A Framework for Curriculum Planning." Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries. The Rockefeller Foundation.

Peace Corps
1973   Peace Corps Program and Training Journal. Vol. 1, No. 6.

Purdon, Walton P. and Stanley H. Anderson
1980   Environmental Science. Columbus, Ohio: Bell Howell Company.

Rao, V.K.R.V.
1977   Integrated Rural Development. Paper presented at the Third
         Biennial Conference, Association of Development Research and
         Training Institutes of Asia and the Pacific, GOA, September
         21.

Rogers, E. M.
1975   "Communication and Development: The Passing of the Dominant
         Paradigm." In E.M. Rogers (ed.), Communication and
         Development: Critical Perspectives. Beverly Hills, CA:
         Sage Publications.

Rola, Dionisia A. (ed.)
1979   Integrated Rural Development: Problems and Issues.
         Management Education Council, University of the Philippines.

Rondinelli, Dennis (ed.)
1977   "Planning Development Projects." of The Community Development
         Series, Vol. 35. Stroudsburg, PA: Dowden, Hutchinson and
         Ross.

Rondinelli, Dennis A. and Marvin B. Mandell
1981   "Meeting Basic Needs in Asia, Part I: Government Capacity
         and Performance." Public Administration and Development. 1:
         133-150.

Rondinelli, Dennis A and K. Ruddle
1978   Urbanization and Rural Development: A Spatial Policy for
         Equitable Growth. New York: Praeger.

Rossi, Peter H., Howard E. Freeman and Sonia R. Wright
1979   Evaluation: A Systematic Approach. Sage Publications, Inc.,
         Beverly Hills-London.

Rothwell, Kenneth J.
1972   "The Scope of Management and Administrative Problems in
         Development." Pp. 3-4 in Administrative Issues in Developing
         Economics. Lexington, Massachussetts: D.C. Heath.

Samonte, Abelardo G.
1972   "Desirable Attitudes of a Manager." The Role of Management
         Education in Development. As quoted in the Philippine
         Journal of Public Administration in 1975.

————————.
1978   "Integrated Rural Development: Concept, Approach, and and
         Objectives". Pp. 10-20 in Rural Development: The Philippine

Experience. The Philippine Training Centers for Rural Development, University of the Philippines at Los Banos, Laguna. Philippines.

The Scheveningen Report
1980   "The Scheveningen Report: Towards a New International Development Strategy." Development Dialogue, 1: 55-66.

Sheffield, J. and V. Diejomaoh
1972   Non-formal Education in African Development. New York: African-American Institute.

Siffin, William J.
1977   "Two Decades of Public Administration in Developing Countries." Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries. The Rockefeller Foundation.

Stifel, Laurence, Joseph E. Black and James S. Coleman (eds.)
1977   Education and Training for Public Sector Management in Developing Countries. The Rockefeller Foundation.

Stoner, James A. F.
1971   Management. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Taba, Hilda
1962   Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice. Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc.

Tankard, George G. Jr.
1974   Curriculum Improvement: An Administrative Guide. West Nyack, N.Y.: Parker Publishing Company, Inc.

Tanner, Daliel and Laurel Tanner
1975   Curriculum Development. Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.

Todaro, Michael P.
1977   "The Meaning of Development." Pp. 87-102 in Economics for a Developing World. London: Longman Group Limited.

Twumasi, Kojo
1980   "Training Needs of Rural Development Managers and Local Training Institutions to Meet the Needs in Ghana." ILO/NORGOV Programme for Rural Development Managers. ILO Geneva.

UP Local Government Center
1980   Second Training Course on Management of Rural Development Projects. Conducted in Collaboration with the UP Management Education Council and the National Council for Integrated Area Development.

Van Meuwenhuijze, C.A.O.
1978   The Study of Development and the Alleged Need for an

interdisciplinary Approach. The Hague, Netherlands: Institute of Social Studies.

Waterston, Albert
  1965   Development Planning: Lessons of Experience. Baltimore: John Hopkins Press.

World Bank
  1975   The Assault on World Poverty: Problems of Rural Development, Education and Health. Baltimore: The John Hopkins Press.

————.
  1975   Rural Development: Sector Policy Paper.

————.
  1978   "Appraisal of Agricultural and Rural Management Training Institute: Nigeria." Washington: World Bank.

Youdale, F.N.
  1982   Evaluation of MAMC Programme. Mananga Agricultural Management Center, Zwaziland.

Youker, Robert
  1979   "New Course-Managing Rural Development Projects." Memorandum to Price Gittinger. EDI, Washington, D.C.

Zais, Robert S.
  1976   Curriculum: Principles and Foundations. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, Inc.