

TRAINING FOR LEADERSHIP
DEVELOPMENT:
PROJECT PROPOSAL

SUBMITTED TO USAID/K/HRDO

1ST APRIL 1986

G-C.M. MUTISO
FLEMMING HEEGAARD

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Welcome, O life! I go to encounter
for the millionth time the reality
of experience and to forge in the
smithy of my soul the uncreated
conscience of my race .

James Joyce

My fellow citizens of the world:
ask not what America can do for
you, but what together we can do
for the freedom of man .

John F. Kennedy Inaugural Address 1960

The New Leader is a Facilitator,
not an order giver.

John Naisbitt, MEGATRENDS

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Leadership and the American Model

Perhaps the trends happening in America have nothing to do with what is happening in Kenya, Africa is Africa and America is America. On the other hand, those who will go to America may come back much influenced by what is happening in America and it is therefore legitimate to ask how an American education in the 1980's is likely to influence the future leadership patterns of Kenya.

The first thing to note is that the U.S. is not doing too well on productivity. High-tech has essentially rescued an American production system based on rapidly aging plants, a high wage structure and an inflated dollar, all of which led to a very high rate of failures of domestic industries, an incredibly high rate of imports of cheap foreign goods and an astronomical balance of payments deficit in the '70s and early '80s.

Kenyan students of this scene will find an extraordinary response to these trends. Since the Vietnam war and Watergate, leadership, whether in the government or the corporations, is no longer being trusted to make decisions and there is a powerful upsurge of demand for participation at all levels of the system, a great deal of it from the States, incidentally.

Until the Japanese and Swedes began dominating the market with better built and cheaper products, put together by highly collaborative teams of workers, American management did not believe that workers knew enough to participate in production decision-making; now they cannot wait to get them into Quality Circles (ironically, an American invention) and other participatory democracy devices of the workplace.

Harlan Cleveland's remarks to the NASPAA convention in San Antonio in 1980 are worth reading because he sums up so well what is happening with leadership in America today.

The American people have had quite a lot of practice in the past decade in getting ahead of their leaders. The Federal Government was the last to learn the war with Vietnam was over. President Nixon and his staff were the last to tumble to the fact that Nixon humbled himself out of office. The tidal wave of social change these past 20 years - environmental sensitivity, civil rights for all races, the enhanced status of women, recognition of rights of consumers and small investors - was not generated by the established leaders, but boiled up from the people at large...

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The second thing to note is that business education itself is in a crisis in America. What is being taught to MBA students in business schools is under severe criticism, precisely because it is out of phase with what is happening in the socio-cultural environment of American business.

To mention just a few points of what is being charged against the B-schools: They are not training managers to deal with the environmental implications of their production systems; they are not training them to look outside the U.S. to the world-business system (you don't need a foreign language for an MBA); they are not training them to look beyond the quarterly profit and loss statement; they are letting students out of the schools with the notion that with an MBA, and no technical training, they can run any corporation, regardless of the complexity of its technology; and, most significantly, from the point of view of leadership, they are not preparing them for the emerging participatory democracy of the workplace.*

Kenyan students in this program may find that the business and management schools are one America and the companies where they do their OJT are another.

Thirdly, because of the prevalent notion in the U.S. that management can be taught in schools, and that "management" makes for productivity, they are in great danger of never learning that the two countries with the highest productivity, Germany and Japan, have no management schools and base their entire productivity increase on investment in applied technology and on a great deal of technical on-the-job training.

There is a good reason to believe that much of the considerable difference between Britain's and Germany's productivity, for instance, can be traced to the fact that Germany trains and re-trains 8 times more than does Britain.

In the U.S. the pattern is also clear: The companies with the technological edge, such as Silicon Valley and Boston, have won the day and may have helped keep America afloat during the difficult period of high costs and intense competition.

In Kenya the demand is not for high technology, at least not yet; it is for efficient production using conventional, and often labour intensive technologies. Efficiency demands training above all else. The demand is also for production technologies which will produce more jobs, not for advanced and efficient technologies which will eliminate them. It may perhaps be useful to look upon Kenya as if it was the U.S. in the 1930's, at the height of the depression, with

* Vogel '81

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masses of people looking for work, few of them technically skilled, and capital scarce and highly priced.

President Roosevelt's New Deal "workfare" programs, and later World War II itself, stimulated the U.S. economy out of the depression without in effect creating any new markets for goods and services, because the war was the growth industry, and in fact defense spending has continued to serve this function for 45 years after the end of the war. (A look at defense spending as a percentage of GNP should quickly prove this point).

The point is: America is in some ways a good model for third world leadership training, and in some ways it is inappropriate and probably misleading.

It is a good model for those who want to learn about "people-power" and participatory democracy; the American people have plenty of muscle and are not afraid to flex it.

It is also a good model for studying how leadership styles are changing to cope with the increasing power of public in environmental, consumer affairs and nuclear issues, to name a few.

It is to be hoped that Kenyan students in the U.S. would take careful note of how excesses by officials in dealing with open protest (e.g. Philadelphia) are being dealt with by voters, press and courts, i.e. what has been learned since the Vietnam war could, for those prepared to see it, be a valuable lesson in participatory democracy.

The U.S. is also a good model for learning about the value of training: Industries that do well and are able to adapt and survive, invest in research and training. "Good" management may boil down to an awareness of the need to allocate sufficient resources to these two factors.

America is also a good model for learning how to deal with ethnic diversity. African countries, divided by tribal conflict and competition have much to learn from the progress being made by women and minorities. As a leadership factor this element is likely to be crucial for a long time in Africa.

In America, Kenyan students find themselves as members of a double-minority: Not only are they foreigners, but they are also, despite their disavowals, classified with American blacks. From being elite at home many find to their discomfort that they are suddenly adopted into membership in a group in which many consider themselves members of a permanent underclass of society.

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What Kenyan students do with this existential situation, may determine not only how they deal with leadership later at home, (i.e. will they learn that "power is as power does" or will they become sensitized to the problems of minorities?) but it will also determine how they will feel about America itself later in life. Not everyone who studies in America goes home to be a pro-American leader and there are many examples of the opposite happening.

To sum up: There are many lessons to be learned in America for the future leadership of Kenya if only they are prepared to see and understand what is happening. If the objective of the project is to maximize leadership potential, then what they learn in America, and how they learn it, is of no minor significance.

America is a laboratory, yes, but only those who know how to use it profitably will gain the kinds of benefits discussed above. The challenge is to facilitate it, the effort should be made.

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND ON HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IN KENYA

Introduction:

From the late 1950s socio-political processes taking place in Kenya led to concerns for developing the Human Resources of the country.

Expectation of independence was the triggering mechanism for raising issues about the nature of human resources which the country was to have. The colonial backdrop is simply that the segregated colonial educational and training system did not produce human resources particularly for the African component of society which would be desirable in independent Kenya.

Africans in that system had been relegated to an educational system which did not produce leaders. These were European. The 'technicians' were Asians. The labourers were African. This fact of racial stratification in education and training is an important backdrop to USAID's concern for training for leadership as it informed the Mboya Airlift, pressure for Africanisation of the Public Service, the Africanisation of Rural Commerce and by implication Industry, the rise of cooperatives, the Africanisation of 'Urban' private sector by ex-public service bureaucrats and finally the current stagnation of the private sector. We discuss these seriatim below.

In discussions on the leadership Project planned by USAID the Mboya Airlift - Kennedy Airlift was seen as the program which should inform the design for it is the one which led to the current leaders in Kenya. This is partly true but not all the truth as we will show below.

To begin with, the Mboya Airlift was triggered by the lack of training opportunities in Kenya. If one desired higher education in Kenya, then one could have only gone to Makerere University College in Uganda or the Royal Technical College in Nairobi. To get into these one had to have very high grades which had to include passes in English and Math. These institutions took the cream of the few High Schools - details of which would take us too far out of the focus of this project.

The bulk of those who had been selected out of the school systems at Intermediate and High School level were left to fend for themselves in the few teacher training colleges and as clerks either in public or private sector. However, many were highly motivated for society expected

Independence to open up opportunities.

Study opportunities in the Commonwealth were limited as the same examination requirements were in force. Thus when a few stragglers who had gone to the United States e.g. Julius Kiano, Njoroge Mungai, Kariuki Njiri, Lawrence Sagini and Samuel Oyodo returned with eminent qualifications although they had been selected out by the colonial testing system - the society was galvanised to looking to US as an alternative source of education.

Many applied to all sorts of institutions all over America ranging from high schools to colleges. They applied to study all sorts of disciplines for there was little testing, counselling and tracking either in Kenya or for that matter in the United States at the time.

Before Mboya's first involvement there were 34 Kenyans already in the US in 1957 on their own. There were 10 others with Government Scholarships. Mboya began by contacting the US labour movement, wealthy Americans (Kennedy included) and enabled 17 Kenyan students in 1957, 36 Kenyan students in 1958, 81 Kenyan students in 1959 (61 men and 20 women) to study in the United States.

Mboya did not find all of them. For example, in 1959, of the 81, 24 were found by Mboya, 12 by Kiano and 2 by Kariuki Njiri. These 48 got scholarships which paid all their expenses from the Afro-American Institute which Mboya assisted in founding in 1959. What is important to note is that of the 81, 33 were students without scholarships to support them, and presumably did not meet the criteria used by the three selectors. They had raised their own funds!

In 1959, the year 81 Mboya Airlift students went to America, the colonial government sent 14 students to Britain.

In 1960, the Mboya Airlift sent 242 Kenyans to the U.S. They had scholarships from American Universities but 9 of them had bursaries from county councils.

In 1961, 116 Kenyan students left for the U.S.

Although it is hard to fix the figures finitely between 1959 and 1961 about 439 Kenyans left for studies in the U.S.

Nomination and Selection: Although the formal documents formalistically talk of the politicians particularly Mboya, Kiano, Njiri nominating and selecting students to go to the U.S., the process was more complex. To begin with, it was individual students

who applied to American institutions. One had to have admission somewhere to study something before they could get onto the political selection system which did not just involve politicians but American PVO organisations in Nairobi (matching qualifications to opportunities) and U.S.G. (involved in getting institutions to give scholarships).

In the various Kenya communities, Mboya used politicians to organise the nominating, selection and fund raising for those locally selected.

In this sense then the nomination and selection process of the airlift can be said to have been "demand driven".

Field Study: Those selected chose fields of study because there was a scholarship available or they thought the particular discipline would be useful in independent Kenya. In this sense, it can be argued that the choice of study field was also demand driven. The scholarship offerors and takers adjusted accordingly. The politicians advised all students that all skills would be needed in independent Kenya. Given that Kenyans had seen that the Europeans who were the rulers and owners did not necessarily have technical education (which was reserved for the Asians) we should not be surprised that the bulk of the Mboya Airlift people chose general education - essentially sociology, political science and economics. Very few went into the professions or technical sciences.

One should note that few of the products of the Mboya Airlift went into the private sector immediately. The public sector lured them but most eventually wound up in the private sector.

Airlift Practical Lessons

The primary lesson of the Mboya Airlift was that a national nomination and selection system was possible, particularly since it was for people already with American admissions, a new direction at the time. The context was different 25 years ago when nationalism was strong. The opposite is the case today which suggests that the "gatekeeper" processes must be attuned to the possibility of ethnic balance.

The Airlift produced a large number of leaders who were able to rise without their being anointed by the nomination or selection process even before going to America. Their emergence was natural and within the rhythm of the society's needs at the time. The practical lesson out of this is that nominated numbers must be large enough to ensure natural leadership selection with a politically acceptable ethnic balance.

The third conclusion out of the Airlift is a practical lesson that the returned students gravitated to the public sector for it offered more employment stability. It is not clear that the private sector is yet a match for personal security compared to the public sector now, or twenty years down the road, to non-risk takers.

Africanisation of the Public Sector

After independence, the new state saw as one of its priority areas the Africanisation of the public sector. This broad goal was operationalised in a specific way which ranked the Africanisation of Provincial Administration first. Ironically, this led to the dilution of the teaching cadre as teaching had been the only major profession open to male Africans. Female Africans could only become nurses!

In terms of historical analysis of human resources development, it is ironic that the products of the Mboya Airlift started coming back with first and second degrees by mid-sixties only to find the higher administrative positions in the public sector dominated by people less qualified than they and not trained in the social sciences.

Africanisation of the public service was fairly complete by 1971. Those who had moved from its lowest echelons were so full of praise for their achievement that they set themselves the task of Africanising the private sector as is eloquently argued by the Ndegwa Commission Report of 1971 which allowed civil servants to hold businesses and remain in employment. There the thesis is that those who moved to the middle and top of the civil service can contribute to nation building by moving to private sector and taking it over. The political roots of this are found in the pressure for patronage in the political system.

Whereas the Africanisation of public sector can be seen as demand driven, their use of the State to get into commerce cannot be so explained.

Africanisation of Rural Commerce

By 1966, the Kenyan political system had little left to give out as reward for independence for the majority of the elite. A few had got into the former white highlands. Others had moved into the public sector. The demands for patronage within the system led to pressure for removing Asians from the rural commercial sector. Of course the parlance was "citizen traders". Businesses out in rural areas were supposed to be within the reach of locals. The policy enunciated in the Trade Licensing Act of 1967 for reserving rural businesses, specific goods, and distribution to

Wananchi, led to Asians trading networks being obliterated in most rural areas.

Those who were in a position to take over significantly were public sector employees who were not particularly good traders and who did not have industrial production experience. They did not have technical training which could form a basis of creating sector businesses.

Pressure for them to be supported by the state to enter rural commerce (through activities of KIE, ICDC and IDB) cannot in any stretch of imagination be seen as demand driven. It was a purely political decision. An African state cannot allow the politicians base (rural) to be controlled by outsiders.

The Rise of Cooperatives

In an analysis of the independent Kenyan political economy, it is important to remember that cooperatives have always been seen as the instrumentalities of the poor. Africans were not allowed to join cooperatives until 1946 as they handled crops restricted to Europeans.

At independence, there were 1,030 cooperatives, with a turn over of K.Shs. 100m. By 1983, there were 1,186 cooperatives with a turn-over of K.Shs. 370m. Membership had risen from 200,000 to 2m. since 1963.

Cooperatives bought Whitehighlands when the rich were buying individual farms in the 1960s. They also organised for marketing their produce, getting government credit, and lately going into agroprocessing. They are now found in every location of the country.

The state abolished the racial and business restrictions of the pre-independence period in the Cooperative Societies Act of 1966. This act gives the GoK, through the Commissioner of Cooperatives, regulatory powers over them.

Cooperatives fit into the various traditions where among the many Kenyan peoples there were traditional organisations for joint production. This more than anything else explains why they, unlike other public sector instruments, like companies, are favoured by many.

Legally, a cooperative is led by a management committee which must seek mandate annually from the members. Usually, there is a secretary-manager who is the executive. For many primary societies, these secretary-managers have Diploma training from the Cooperative College. Primary societies are grouped into District Unions. These aggregate to the Kenya National Federation of Cooperatives which was formed in 1964 to coordinate and advise on movement affairs.

Cooperatives have a Bank which was formed in 1968 and by 1983 had become the third biggest bank in Kenya.

It is important in thinking about the private sector to clearly understand that cooperatives are now the major agricultural savings, commercial and increasingly industrial force in the rural areas. They compete effectively with the induced structure of commercial and industrial processes backed by the Kenya Industrial Estates, Industrial and Commercial Development Cooperation and Industrial Development Bank. This has been recognised by the non-banking financial institutions who are now actively seeking their deposits and who see their future growth as appendages to cooperative financing.

Similarly, the highest political echelons do recognise this and President Moi, since coming to power has directed politicians, who had seen them as avenues for organising through the 1970s, to stay away from their management committees.

Cooperatives have also been the main avenues for giving agricultural credit to rural farmers. Currently, several donors interested in giving credit to the rural areas for small businesses are going through artisanal/technical and fabrication cooperatives. Among them are the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung and the Development Finance Company of Kenya, which has extensive donor funds. Many NGOs have begun group programs which follow the cooperative model although they are not formally registered under the Cooperative Societies Act (1966).

Africanisation of Commerce and Industry by Exbureaucrats

Having had the idea that African bureaucrats had taken the state and were ready to take over the private sector, as argued in the Ndegwa Commission Report of 1971, very vigorous actions were initiated by the state to take over non-citizen businesses in the 1970s.

The Ministry of Commerce and Industry used the Trade Licensing Act to deny many immigrant businesses licences. They were forced to sell to exbureaucrats (many usually in partnership with Asians). In 1978, 463 quit notices were issued in Nairobi alone. In this atmosphere many businesses even when not threatened felt vulnerable and introduced the process of window dressing. In the Kenyan context, window dressing means giving bogus titles and at times shares to some Africans who are then used to protect the firm from the State. Those who went into businesses that way did not survive after the boom

years of the late seventies. The businesses taken away from immigrants reverted. But most significantly the immigrant community learned how to survive the political climate by either moving into higher technology industries or by taking political partners.

Summary

These processes discussed above form the backdrop for analysing the current state and projecting into the future and suggests a design for intervention strategies by USAID in both technical and managerial human resource development.

CHAPTER 2

MARGINALISATION OF THE AFRICAN TECHNICAL AND MANAGERIAL LEADERSHIP

We have shown why the Mboya-Kennedy Airlift happened. Further, we have shown that political pressures for Africanising the public sector and rural commerce favoured bureaucrats and not entrepreneurs. These processes did create a niche for cooperatives to become the most important businesses in rural areas.

In this section, several points about human resource development are documented. First is the development of fragmented technical and managerial human resources. Then we will show how this problem can be remedied for the future.

Technical and Managerial Resources to Date

Colonial commerce and industry was strictly along racial lines, with most manufacturing owned by European firms. Commerce was essentially Asians, although a few European firms stayed in it.

Few studies have concentrated on raising question on the sources of technical and managerial human resources in Kenya. However, several points ought to be made.

First, there is very little technical training of members of the indigenous communities. Colonial and post-colonial private sector favoured the importation of skills from Europe if they were European businesses. If they were Asian, they imported from India and Pakistan.

As a result there were very few Africans trained to take over technical jobs. Even the Mboya Airlift did not produce them for they did not have the requisite background. There was demand for technical people but it was not driving Africans. The net result of this lack of entry by Africans is the fact that even when they went into commerce, they concentrated on non-technical areas. As Asians were pushed out of rural commerce, the rural areas lost the technical fabricators. That has yet to be filled. In fact, the State is aware of this, and now emphasises the funding of rural businesses which will concentrate on funding for businesses which have a technical base, as it proposed in Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986.

The second point has to do with management. Since there were few African businesses at independence there was not a clear case for individuals to specialise in

private sector management and none went into it. They concentrated on becoming public servants, even when they were specialised MBAs. The private sector did not welcome those stragglers who happened to get management skills. The sector developed the ideology that what was needed at the highest management levels was job experience and not training in management. This ideology was shared by multinationals, European businessmen and Asian businessmen. The trade organisations like KIM, KAM, KNCC and FKE said as much up to the eighties. Thus in the private sector there has been belief that specialised management training is not critical. This made some sense in the first two decades of independence as private sector picked experienced Europeans and Asians who were being Africanised in the public sector. It did not, once that pool was exhausted.

The third point is that as the private sector begun to respond to the pressure of Africanising, it drew into itself African ex-bureaucrats who were relegated to the personnel departments mainly. Their uses there included liaison with the Government on Africanisation. Some have moved up and are heads of specific organisations but it is important to stress that very few of them are in the technical fields of engineering, finance or specialist managers. They are the classic window dressers with most having their terminal education in the colonial period. They dominate KIM, KAM, KNCC and FKE.

The three points above are interrelated in a peculiar way. As the private sector stayed racially segregated, very little indigenous training took place in either technical and managerial human resources. As generalist locals were recruited into the private sector because of the political pressure, they also bought the ideology of experience as the best preparation for top managers. Thus we have a classic case of many low level educated but experienced managers at the top of private sector operations. They have dominated the trade organisations: until recently KIM, KAM, KMCC did not stress training.

It was this orientation which froze all training in the public sector. This attitude is so strong that:

- a. The private sector refuses internships from University, polytechnics, and Harambee Institutes of Technology.
- b. Spends only part of the training levy funds which are collected by the State to enable them to develop training programs.

- c. It limits the upward movement of those who on their own initiative have obtained technical and managerial skills.

It, however is clear that the private sector has come to a major divide. Its growth in the last 20 years was dependent on old technology and protected markets. From now on it will only grow if it gets into more modern technology and, perhaps even more important, gets top flight management.

Some of the most innovative commercial concerns are aware of this and have begun to articulate it in the trade organisations like KAM. Part of the factionalism in KNCC is based on this. We believe this point is also understood at the highest economic policy levels of the state, but the necessary changes in law and practice are not yet in place.

Leadership training in technical and managerial human resources of the indigenous population is the only way to break the shortages and marginalisation of the majority. Large numbers must be trained for the practice of importing skilled labour from Europe, India and Pakistan is no longer politically acceptable. This fact has been understood by some individuals in the private sector who in the last year have begun pressuring GoK to give the sector access to the training system within the country, particularly with respect to technician level training. The private sector is currently changing its self-serving bias and some of the major importers of the two categories of human resources are now discussing building relations with polytechnics, HITS etc. to train for them. This is a very important new development in Kenya.

- c. Future Leadership Demands to Year 2000

Leadership will be needed to:

1. Technicalise and make agriculture more resource efficient, especially in food and export crops production.
2. Develop agro-processing industries to expand employment.
3. Build up a more sophisticated services industry for the nation and the region in:
 - a. Banking
 - b. Information and communication
 - c. Insurance.

4. Step up service capacity to urban populations as the country will become more urban. The population will double in the next twenty years.

In a written communication to the consultants, KIA articulates the need for urban management as follows:

One of the most important areas of local government management is concerned with issues and problems of urban development and management. These problems have generated concern due to the manner in which urban areas have sprung up in the country since the end of the 2nd World War. A census taken in 1948, gave the number of urban centres in the country as 17, with a population of some 0.276 million, representing only 5.1% of the total population. In 1962, the number grew to 34 with a population of 0.671 million, or 7.8% of the national total. The 1969 and 1979 census saw the urban units drastically increase to 47 and 91 respectively with populations of 1.1 million and 2.3 million representing 9.8% and 15.1% of the total population. Growing at double the national rate (8.0%) the urban population is expected to double in 9 years. It is today estimated that by the turn of the century, Kenya's urban population will be 14 million representing over 40% of the total national population.

This trend in urban growth is already causing concern for those responsible for urban development and management and although the current development strategy is focused towards rural development, sufficient attention has to be paid to urban centres whose numbers and population will continue to grow to provide banking, communication, administration, commerce and other social and economic infrastructures and amenities which support development. In other words, the urban system must develop in line with the overall development goals of the country since urban and rural development efforts have to complement each other.

It is in view of this concern that the need for training in urban development and management has to rank second to training programmes for general management and financial management. The urban development and management training programme should

also aim at reaching beneficiaries or urban public services to enable them to understand their role in the whole development process and develop capability to organise and manage informal sector activities which help create employment opportunities and revenue generating self-help projects. More attention will need to be paid to training and promotion of women's groups".

These demands above were derived from interviews in government, donor community and the private sector. If one relates them to matters covered under background to human resource development, reviewed above, then it is clear that any program addressing itself to training to meet leadership twenty years down the road, must train for:

- a. Businesses both in major urban and rural areas.
- b. Small urban centres which are going to explode.
- c. Cooperatives who are the major actors in agro-production and marketing processes and who will increasingly take over credit and agro-processing industries.

Only by covering these bases, whatever the administrative problems, could one hope to be relevant, a point strongly made in Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986.

d. Summary

USAID has been involved in human resource development within the contexts determined by Kenyan society as reviewed above. We review this experience next.

CHAPTER 3

USAID SUPPORT IN KENYAN HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT: 1957-1985

"Kennedy Airlift" 1957-1963

The Kennedy Airlift initiated by Tom Mboya during the early 60s was reviewed in detail above. Training selection was done by politicians and communities where each district was given a quota, regardless of size of district and the communities/political constituencies were allowed to nominate up to 5 participants from each district. No restrictions were placed on age, occupation or sex. The selection process, which was Nairobi based, came up with a strongly male-dominated, ethnically-skewed universe of candidates, mostly young high school graduates, virtually all of whom did well in the U.S. experience and returned to rise to respectable positions in their fields.

At the time there was little technically trained manpower among the indigenous population, hence almost any advanced training chosen by the individuals filled a manpower need, and being first, the individuals rose to leadership by virtue of the triple effect of:

1. Being selected (halo effect)
2. Having gone abroad (prestige), and
3. Having a degree from an American university (the select few).

Out of this demand-driven nomination and selection process can be learned the lesson that nomination must be by the widest possible coverage of the country.

Institution Building/Project Specific Training, 1963-1985

Nominations for training of the approximately 3,000 (USAID Internal documents) participants trained in the past 2 decades has been by USAID/GoK priorities in Institution building, public sector/public administration support, and USAID project support.

Data from USAID's Training Office published in the Directory of Returned Participants 1956-1977 shows the following categories trained:

USAID Training 1956-1977

<u>Field of Study</u>	<u>No. trained</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
1. Agriculture	445	50.99
2. Public Administration	188	21.53
3. Education	92	10.34
4. Community Development	71	8.13
5. Communications (Radio/ TV)	36	4.20
6. Population Dynamics	16	1.83
7. Public Safety	12	1.37
8. MCST/Family Planning	-	0.99
9. Industry	3	0.34
Total	863	100

The raw data is available in a form we could not analyse it further for specific training obtained, gender, places of origin and leadership role.

However, it does show that private sector did get little training opportunity.

The Human Resources Division's data of participants in USAID Training Activities has been computerised for the years 1979-1985. This data base is incomplete in several ways and it should be upgraded to reflect all programs from 1956 to date and to systemise the training categories.

The data shows that whereas the previous period of 21 years saw USAID train 863 people or about 41 a year, by the later period USAID was training more than double that number, i.e. 86 annually. This was a considerable increase in the human resources development.

There was also a change in the fields of training where USAID was involved. As the tables 1-4 USAID Training 1979-1985 shows, the fields of training jumped from 9 in the earlier period, to 41.

One should note that Agricultural training claimed a higher percentage, 52.15 as opposed to 50.99.

Public Administration, which was second place, with 21.52% dropped to 0.33%.

Education similarly dropped from 10.34% to 1.49%.

Community development which was 8.13% dropped to 1.65%.

Communications (Radio/TV) grew from 4.20% to 7.94%.

Surprisingly, three categories i.e. Health, Housing and Manpower Utilisation, which we take to mean planning, not found in the earlier programs, are found in the top five of the later group. They respectively command 3.47%, 3.31% and 2.99%.

In the 1979-85 period, of the 604 people who left for training, 99 had BAs, 108 had Masters and 29 had Ph.Ds. The majority, 368 (or 60.92 percent) did not have University qualifications. These 368 we presume are the backbone of the observation category of most project programs.

The 1979-85 database shows that of those who went without University qualifications, 128 of them got BA's, of those who had BAs, 87 received Masters' and nine obtained Ph.Ds.

As can be readily seen, Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development sponsored most trainees i.e. 200, which is 33.11% of all trainees. The dominance of agriculture jumps up to 44.19% when its related bodies - Egerton College and Agricultural Finance Corporation-are added.

One should note that the Ministry of Agriculture, A.F.C. and Ministry of Cooperative Development account for 62.90% of all nominations.

Where individuals sponsored for training come from should be of interest in terms of equal access. As shown below, Nairobi City produced more than 52.8% of all those trained. To begin with, this number is just about the same for those sponsored for agriculture. Secondly, in an economy dominated by agriculture, that 69.50% of the trainees came from the large urban centre - Nairobi - and the small provincial centres - Kitale, Nakuru, Embu, Kakamega, Kisumu, Nyeri, Mombasa, Eldoret and Machakos - is disturbing as it suggests that these were essentially people not directly involved with farmers, but rather administrators. In Table 3, it is clear that once the big pie had been taken by centre-based individuals, there was relatively fair distribution nationally. However, one cannot analyse this data completely for the database does not code for sub-location, location, division and district which would allow categorical analysis on origin.

Nomination and Selection 1963-1985

Nominations and selection for the training slots has been by government agencies. The DPM and USAID acted as clearing houses and gatekeepers for the processes to ensure that project-specific objectives were being met by the proposed training. However, it appears that the sector project approach did not lead to the training program being oriented towards specific leadership needs.

What must be applauded is that the different sector-specific training activities did result in significant public sector skill-building primarily in those institutions in which USAID had project interests. Rarely did the training programs touch on the needs of the private sector. This perhaps only happened indirectly as individuals left the public sector to join the private sector. USAID's database does not contain data which can elucidate this point. Public databases in DPM and Ministry of Education cannot be used either to refine the point, as records of who leaves the public service do not have training backgrounds.

It may be a worthwhile activity of the USAID Human Resources Division to fund a tracer project to find data on this point.

Training Institutions in America 1979-1985

As the 1956-1977 database does not give details of American Institutions which trained for USAID, it is not possible to review them.

The computerised database for 1979-1985 shows the participating American Institutions.

The top institutions are USDA Graduate School, New Mexico, West Virginia, Colorado Polytechnic, Georgetown, Bureau of Labour, University of Minnesota, University of California, World Trade Center and Texas Tech. as shown in Table 4.

For the leadership project, it is important that they be placed in top institutions for evidence from around the world and even here in Kenya shows that attending name institutions contributes to the achievement of leadership positions.

Manpower Demand

In all our interviews in government, private sector and the cooperatives, we were constantly told that there are high level (professional) manpower shortages. We were also told that there were shortages.

Attachment II, Kenya Civil Service Manpower Requirements 1978/79-1982/83 and Attachment III Kenya Civil Service Projected Trained Manpower Supply, do show the most up to date manpower data on the public sector.

There are no manpower demand studies for the private sector as a whole. However, we have surveyed the most popular newspapers advertising for jobs for the period February 1st 1985 to January 31st 1986. Since the Friday Daily Nation is the major job source, we believe our analysis possibly accounts for 50% of all advertised jobs.

Attachment IV High Level Jobs Advertised in Friday Daily Nation from February 1st, 1985 to January 31st, 1986, shows that 405 Accountants, 95 Medical, 36 Computer, 65 Agriculture, 18 Legal, 60 Hoteliers, 255 Engineers and 116 Managers were wanted.

Although we do not want to push this analysis further we want to make several comments on the fields. To begin with, we analysed the content of the major adverts and we found that there were some specialisations which were desired but the advertiser was willing to substitute experience in another field for specific training. Most outstanding: Where production and industrial engineers were needed, mechanical engineers with experience were asked for. Similarly, where financial managers/analysts were needed, as described by text, accountants were requested.

Another major finding out of the content analysis, was that preference was given to those who had worked in international companies. We think this is a simple realisation by employers that local companies have not been systematically training (upgrading their people whereas multinationals are always doing so). Also it is realisation by companies that multinationals have up to date technologies which they transfer to their employees. We are confident about this interpretation since we checked it with businessmen and cooperative union officials.

To get further data about training demand, we further analysed the private sector training programs advertised over a one-year period. These are shown in Attachment VI, Private Sector Training, most commonly Advertised programs, Friday Daily Nation, February 1st 1985 to January 31st, 1986. Since we do not know whether some sectors advertise more than others, we did not give them a frequency order. As can be seen in the list, the private sector is essentially training for services, marketing, tourism, architecture, fashion design and engineering.

CHAPTER 4

OTHER DONOR SUPPORTED MANPOWER TRAINING PROGRAMS

The registry of government on donor supported overseas training is not being kept in systematic fashion by the DPM office. It was kept in the 1970s but apparently different ministries and other state bodies keep separate records. Secondly, no centralised record keeping was ever established for the private sector. This lack of easily accessible data on human resources development is a major bottleneck in planning HRD projects. We are informed that the World Bank is discussing with GoK the possibilities of establishing such a register perhaps under the Ministry of Planning and National Development.

Data displayed below was obtained by interviewing DPM officials concerned with donor support for overseas training. Below are case studies of three of the programs.

Donor Sponsored Kenyan Trainees Abroad: Annual Flow (1986)*

<u>Country</u>	<u>Degree/Short-term</u>	<u>Notes</u>
Austria	20	
Belgium	5	
Canada	100	
Denmark	30	All short-term, some third country
Egypt	10	
Finland	5	
France	20	
Germany (FRG)	120	
India	60	
Japan	60	
Korea	15	
Netherlands	30	
Norway	10	
Poland	20	
Sweden	40	All short-term, some third country
U.S.A.	86	Does not include USAID contractor sponsored participants
U.K.	<u>725</u> 1356	Includes both government and non-government fellowships. 12-week minimum course

*Source: DPM Office.

CASE NO. 1 - CIDA/CANADA

This project is administered by the DPM and is totally for the public sector. Nominations are made by the government organs and a committee chaired by DPM, with CIDA representation, meets to make selections.

The program uses the GoK High Commission in Canada for placement and has supervised the project since September 1982. The main areas of concentration of trainees has been in Energy, Agriculture and Human Resource Planning.

By January 1986, only 20 of the trainees had returned. There is no study of the participants yet, but there will be one later this year.

The project has been evaluated and the evaluation supported its extension. The GoK has an Assistant Educational Attache in Canada to help with the administration.

As far as financing is concerned, Canada spends C.D. 15m and Kenya contributes C.D. 3.4m annually. The Kenya contribution comes out of salaries and support for the educational attache, salaries of those participating and support by DPM.

One final point about this project is that it followed on the heels of a project funded by the Canadian Government which trained about 200 Kenyan Economists at York University.

This program is not located in one University. Below are the areas of study where applications are solicited for the 1986/87 academic year in Canada.

CIDA Program: 100 per year

Agricultural/Veterinary Sector

1. Virology
2. Bacteriology
3. Epidemiology
4. Agronomy
5. Pathology
6. Entomology
7. Seed Technology
8. Fish Engineering
9. Acquaculture
10. Agro-forestry
11. Silviculture
12. Wood Technology
13. Wood engineering
14. Tree breeding
15. Soil chemistry
16. Forest Fire fighting and protection

Rural Infrastructure Sector

1. Hydrology
2. Geophysics
3. Drilling engineering
4. Dam design and construction
5. Cooperative management
6. Surveying and land mapping
7. Environmental planning
8. Ecology
9. Geology and site documentation
10. Pesticides and pest management

Energy Sector

1. Petroleum technology
2. Geothermal energy exploration and exploitation
3. Chemical engineering in energy resources

Human Resources Development Sector

1. Development economics
2. Project management
3. Planning and evaluation
4. Manpower planning and development
5. Computer science
6. Curriculum development in technical education
7. Examination measurement and evaluation
8. Development finance

CASE NO. 2 - UNITED KINGDOM

The U.K. provides the largest annual volume of participants from Kenya, while it appears that Canada, the second largest donor in manpower development, has the largest long term commitment for academic training.

Like the U.S.A.I.D. sponsored training, the U.K. is linking its participant training closely to the needs of its ODA sponsored projects. Expenditures are at £4.8m out of ODA funds with the GoK paying approximately 25% in the form of salary support while the official is away on training.

The U.K. is also moving in the direction of trying to expand its HRD support to the private sector. This, however, is currently confined to technical assistance to the in-country management training efforts of the Kenya Institute of Manufacturers.

The great majority of training sponsored in the U.K. is in post-graduate aimed at the Master's degree (due to a 9-month limitation on most fellowships), with the rest taking 12-weeks or more of short-courses and industrial attachments.

About 10% of the 725 individuals from Kenya are sponsored students, winning fellowships being held for Kenyans as citizens of a Commonwealth country.

CASE NO. 3 - SWEDEN

The Swedish program is presented as an example of a small program being offered by a non-English speaking industrialised country.

The program is centered on Swedish basic industry, e.g. mining, pulp and paper, power technology, water resources and telecommunications. The seminars are about 4 weeks in length, are attended by participants from many countries assisted by SIDA, with participating countries paying a share of costs proportionate to GNP.

SIDA announces course offerings to the D.P.M. who then nominates and selects candidates. Travel costs to and from Sweden are paid by the GoK, SIDA contributes approximately SK 100,000 (US approx. \$11,000) per participant.

Seminars offered are listed below. It is interesting to note the extent to which Sweden has deliberately chosen to exploit its comparative strength in areas such as wood-based energy production and quality control management, among others.

4 week seminars in Sweden

- Telecommunication in society
- Telecommunication management
- Digital network
- Operational Management in Telecommunication
- Electric power engineering and management
- Wood-based energy production
- Management of forest and wood industries
- Hydro power development
- Power system control and operation
- Pulp and paper technology
- Organisation and management of seed production and processing
- Water resources development in Arid and Semi Arid regions
- Technical management of artificial insemination programmes
- Mining technology
- Quality assurance and good manufacturing practice for pharmaceuticals
- Organisation and management of industrial maintenance
- Quality control in industry
- Top management seminar in quality management
- Project management
- Applied industrial management programme
- Standardisation, management and techniques
- Air traffic control
- Road and traffic management

CHAPTER 5

LEADERSHIP FACTORS

This project will return to the more open, "demand driven" concept of the Kennedy Airlift. It will also provide a mechanism to assure that ethnic and gender balance will be maintained. It strives to redress the balance between urban and rural selection for overseas training, attempts to identify critical areas of manpower shortage needs between 1986-2000, and for the first time moves in the direction of supporting the private sector with critically needed technical and manpower training. Finally, it refocuses and attempts to deal with concept of leadership training, a clear goal of USAID's assistance during Kenya's early independence days.

Before moving into a detailed outline of the structure of this new project (see Chapter 6), an attempt will be made to sketch out a set of working definitions of what leadership, as given in this project, means, especially in order that leadership training can be linked in some meaningful way to technical and managerial training.

Basic Assumptions

1. Leadership is an inference, an abstraction, a trait which is assigned to an individual on the basis of observation of his or her behaviour in particular social situations.
2. Leadership is transactional, i.e. it can only take place in a group of social situation where others are participating in the process, i.e. no followers - no leader. The process is characterised by an element of trust by the group that leaders will enhance group and individual welfare, that leadership will not make things worse. When a certain threshold is reached (viz Marcos in the Phillipines) and trust is lost, there is no more leadership, only the individual and the mob.*
3. Leaders are neither born, nor made, but some individuals are more likely to become leaders by virtue of education, experience, social class and status in their community. The probability they will end up in responsible positions can be enhanced by selection and training.

* Bennis '66

The factors which contribute to the emergence of leadership behaviour, and especially the dependent variables which can be affected by training interventions, are thus of primary interest if a project such as TFD is to be treated as a controlled experiment in leadership development. It is important to be aware that although there is a vast literature on the subject of leadership and leadership behaviour, there is no agreement on a single variable, set of traits, or combination of variables for which leadership can be selected and nurtured to fruition. It is generally agreed, however, that the factors listed below all play some role in facilitating the emergence of individuals in leadership roles in their business and community.

LEADERSHIP VARIABLES

1. Personal Drive, motivation and energy level

Increases in drive are often observed in U.S. trained participants from cultures that are "slower moving" than the U.S.; there is also often a notable decrease after return to the host-culture. Where the individual can find an outlet for his or her new skills, the higher drive level can often be maintained. There are no training techniques, as such, which can permanently raise drive and motivation, it is rather the sum total of the impact of the cross-cultural training experience on the individual, and the opportunities to use the training in the home culture which determines the impact.

Selecting for high energy level candidate is good idea, it takes high energy to cope successfully with a new culture and a new learning environment.

2. Clarity of personal goals*

Individuals who have a clear sense of who they are and where they are going in their own development are more likely to achieve their goals than those more unfocused. Individuals should be selected for clarity and realism in their goals, as well as relevance of their objective to community and societal needs.

3. Capacity and skills in interpersonal relations;

This factor was found to be highly significant in studies of characteristics of entrepreneur-managers in small, high growth, high tech industries in the Boston area.** Interestingly enough, high need to

* Likert '67, McGregor '60, cited in Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre '71.

** Weiner & Rubin '71

achieve, and high need for power, both measured in the study, were of little significance if they were not matched by interpersonal skills (Defined as laissez faire management). Leaders who were only interested in their own enhancement and took no interest in their coworkers and employees soon found themselves with high turnover and weak loyalties as their technical workers went to the competition.

Guided experiences in group process analysis, management exercises and other training techniques which emphasises learning about self through others in a task-oriented environment are highly valuable for anyone especially for those who will some day be leading others.**

4. Experiences and learnings during formative years

Some studies indicate a positive relationship between adult leadership behaviour and birth order: First borns are often in charge of siblings; sometimes they become heads of household at young age. Both can have significant impact on their capacity to deal with responsibility for others later in life.

Selection of candidates with a background in organised team sports, scouting, teaching, clubs etc. is another tried and true method by which business and universities selects future leaders for training and employment.

5. Family/ethnic status in the community

Leadership potential is normally distributed among all classes, but it is generally only by means of education that individuals can move into leadership in a class other than the one into which he or she was born. The levelling effect of choosing equally among all groups, and the impact this can have on those previously disadvantaged, can have a major impact on groups previously unrepresented in the power structure, such as women and the rural poor.

6. Level of education, technical skills and competence

The attainment of a set of skills (accompanied by certification) which are not in plentiful supply in the market, and for which there is a demand, invariably enhances the power and social worth of the individual. This "power of expertise", especially when held by young individuals returned from abroad with new technical training, often clashes with the "power of position" held by older members who feel threatened by it. The more scarce and the more essential the skill, the more potential power they

** Harrison and Hopkins '71.

have and the more likely they are to end up in positions of influence as the older generation gradually vacates its positions. This factor is of extreme importance in post-colonial societies where the top managers are often educated in a generalist tradition, or minimally educated in obsolete and irrelevant subjects.

Technical training is one of the most powerful ways by which to enhance the leadership potential of the individual, not only can he or she use himself or herself more effectively, but he or she will be permanently empowered in the market place of salable skills.

7. Professional standards and ethics

While this basic trait can be selected for, it is unlikely to be developed before the individual has been **acculturated** into a professional peer group and has internalized its norms. This is very difficult to do in a class room and very easy to do in a work experience situation. It is one of the most significant factors lacking in Third World countries, especially in the public service. It is also a key factor in leadership, since evidence of integrity and fairness is a major component in the amount of trust which peers and subordinates allocate to their manager and leader. Overseas training which includes work experience, is one of the few types of interventions which can deal with this factor and it should be given explicit recognition in any cross-cultural training program.

8. Ability to utilize a given situation to the best advantage

This somewhat elusive factor, which could be called situational or political sense, was recognised already in the early 1920's by Mary Parker Follett.* It can include such skills as being able to speak or write well as the situation demands it, of "being your own chairperson" in any group setting.**

It can be defined by a highly developed sense of awareness of self and others, of knowing what is "really going on" beneath all of the verbiage. In a sense it is very close to No. 3, interpersonal skills, but it is also on a plane by itself because it involves a high level of cognitive ability combined with affective skills.***

* Metcalf and Urwick, '40

** Cohen '74

*** Goleman, '86

Role-playing, public speaking, group leading and training in expository writing, are all useful for developing this skill which is so essential to survival in organisational settings.

9. Risk taking.

The ability and willingness to take calculated risks is both a leadership and an entrepreneurial characteristic. Risk-taking behaviour is related to the amount and quality of information available, to the capacity to process the information, to the perceived consequences of failure, and to the value assigned to the goals.

The perception of risk is usually subjective (we are excluding heroics here): What to the untrained and unskilled appears highly risky, can often be done successfully by the trained professional.

It is to be expected that those with overseas training will return generally more willing to assume risks, including entrepreneurship, than will those without this experience.*

10. Intelligence

This factor is most elusive and difficult to measure as an element in leadership. Since leadership, as defined, is a bio-social factor, based on the capacity of individuals to adapt and utilize social processes to enhance group and individual goals, this discussion focuses on the social aspects of intelligence.

Intelligence testing has been strongly attacked as being "culture-bound" in recent times, especially by minorities and foreigners who score poorly on the test because they are out of the mainstream of the national culture.**

For these same reasons we do not advocate using Standardised American Intelligence tests on non-Americans because it is more than likely that such tests would only reveal acculturation, i.e. adaptation to and knowledge of American culture and not intelligence. While it may be desirable to know the extent of Kenyan student's acculturation, the misnaming of the instruments as "intelligence testing" would sow further confusion at a later date when increased scores after training could, and would, be interpreted by many as increases in intelligence, rather than changes in acculturation due to the overseas exposure.

* Maliyamkono '82

** Stephen Jay Gould '81

While we acknowledge that educational psychology is of no assistance in providing suitable instruments, we are nevertheless convinced that learning to collect data, to interpret and analyse situations and to make use of these factors to achieve social action and collective benefit, is a kind of social learning which both management training and the overall overseas experience can and will enhance.

Finally, extensive experiments by the psychologist David Kolb* at MIT have indicated that there is a taxonomy of learning styles and that these relate to different cultural approaches to the learning process. A participant who arrives in the U.S. with a rote-learning style, and does not recognise that he or she has to change to a more open, self-directed, less authoritarian learning style will have considerable difficulties in the new-culture learning environment.

It is recommended that in briefing candidates for the overseas learning experience, the contractor assist participants in becoming aware of their learning styles and help them in adapting to the more open style of learning prevalent in American culture and educational systems, both in order to succeed in their degree programs, and in order that they may adapt a life-long pattern of becoming learners and problem-solvers, basic criteria for leading others responsibly and effectively.**

Some suggested leadership learning experiences

While it is perhaps a little premature to design learning experiences which would enhance leadership potential, we would like to suggest the USAID and the contractor consider having the participants choose among some of the following "enrichment" options: (See overleaf).

* Kolb (see appendix for learning styles matrix)

** Lippitt '55, also see Peters and Waterman ('84) for same conclusion about management and leadership.

SAMPLE ITEMS FROM THE EXPERIMENTAL MENU: HOW TO LEARN ABOUT YOURSELF WHILE LEARNING ABOUT AMERICA

- . Live with an American family for a while ...
- . Live with another American family for a while ...
- . Visit a factory and talk with both workers and management
- . Spend an election day with workers at a polling station ...
- . Take an Outward Bound Course
- . Hitchhike across the U.S.A.
- . Visit 5-6 churches in different neighbourhoods, talk with clergy and parishoners
- . Volunteer to work with inner-city children
- . Meet with elected officials, sit in on town meetings
- . Spend a day in a police patrol car and/or a precinct station
- . Visit farm workers camp and talk with them
- . Visit general hospital wards and talk with the patients
- . Join campaign of political candidate as unpaid worker
- . Make a study of an environmental problem and how a community is dealing with it
- . Participate in a demonstration (being arrested is not required but could enhance the learning value of the situation)
- . Visit the UN and find out what the Kenyan delegation is doing
- . Observe a criminal trial
- . Take an NTL course on management and human behaviour (or similar organisation)
- . Join consciousness-raising group on subject of concern to you
- . Spend a week-end at Big Sur
- . Hike the long trail and/or shoot the Colorado rapids
- . Climb a mountain
- . Visit with American Indians
- . Visit the deep south
- . Visit a working farm
- . Visit Harlan County Black Lung association
- . Visit a prison
- . Organise and conduct a street-poll on a topic of current interest, analyse and write it up ...
- . Give a speech about Kenya and answer questions
- . Write a letter to America
- . Write a letter to yourself, seal it, and arrange to have it opened in 10 years
- . Write your own necrology ("In his long and illustrious life he ...)
- . Find yourself a guru - someone who will teach you something you want to learn
- . Write up 10 things you want to see happen in Kenya the next 20 years

CHAPTER 6

PROJECT RELATED PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS

The following section describes administrative institutions and roles which are of interest to USAID in considering program administrative structures for the Training for Development Program.

It is noteworthy that DIT, a GoK Agency, is the only institution sending private sector individuals abroad for training. Furthermore, all of the donors limit their fellowships to the public sector.

1. PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS

a. Directorate of Personnel Management (DPM), Office of the President

This is the prime institution for handling ALL personnel and training matters for the public sector in law and practice as specified in the Sessional Paper No. 5 of 1974. Any public officials who are to go for training have in the past been sanctioned by the DPM. Requests and nominations are initiated by public institutions and/or individuals. These are channelled to the DPM for processing which involves judgement on relevance of training and advisability of releasing such a person from the post occupied. These two interrelated functions give the DPM tremendous influence on training programs.

The DPM has not to date handled a human resources project which caters for the private sector. However, discussions with senior officials there suggests that they could perform a clearing house function for candidates selected through the structures proposed below.

There is need to upgrade the manpower and Human Resources Planning capacity of the DPM as the staff will have to supervise training programs in areas they have not handled to date, e.g. private sector, and USAID may want to consider using some of the short-term funds of the project to upgrade this function.

b. Ministry of Planning and National Development:

Over the past few years this ministry was subsumed under the then bigger ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. In the past year the planning function has been consolidated in this ministry and although a section on manpower planning exists in the ministry, it does not have legal or tradition behind it to rival the DPM in decision-making. If in the long run GoK disaggregates the manpower planning function and separates it from manpower personnel supervision and training functions, perhaps this unit would have a separate identity. It is not apparent that that identity would do more than human resources planning.

c. Ministry of Finance:

All foreign assistance programs are usually contracted by the Ministry of Finance on behalf of the GoK. Even where other GoK entities are signatory on behalf of GoK, Ministry of Finance authority is required by law. This is not a passive role, for the ministry in the current era of limited internal and external resources has put into operation stringent requirements where the impact of programs must be justified by the GoK and donor entities proposing them. The ministry is aware that training for leadership is a priority area not only in the public but also in the private sector. It has a tolerant view of the shifting of manpower training from the public to the private sector.

d. Ministry of Labour:

This ministry does not have either manpower planning, or utilisation responsibilities; its focus is on the administrative oversight on labour relations. Although the ministry runs several programs for artisans and technicians, principally under the Directorate of Industrial Training, it has not handled a leadership training project in the past. It is seen by the private sector as a labour movements service ministry and not particularly useful or responsive to their training needs.

e. Ministry of Local Government (MOLG):

This ministry has supervisory powers over all local authorities. It must act for them in dealings with external donors. To the extent that the leadership Training Project will have a local authority component, the ministry will have to be involved.

In the past this has not been a strong ministry from a human resource use planning point of view. However, USAID Urban project [REDSO/EA] is attempting to do this via GTI in Mombasa. The ministry currently sees upgrading current staff in-country as priority.

For the coming 20 years there will be concentration of population into small towns at a rate not experienced in the past. These new concentrations of populations will need technical, socio-economic, managerial and political leadership.

It is at this level that a major element of training could be focussed. To ensure national and ethnic spread, nominations should be available to the local authorities who are most knowledgeable about their needs. The ministry of Local Government should participate in the nomination processing role (administration).

f. Kenya Institute of Administration (KIA):

This is the apex training institution for the GoK civil service. Its past leadership has been moribund but new, and evidently better, leadership is in place now. As a result its Staff College role is being reactivated.

One of the major new orientations of KIA is to focus on urban training to anticipate servicing the small town conglomerations which will exist twenty years hence. This will call for leadership training of several urban trainers to ensure that future local authority and general technical managers are given the requisite leadership training. KIA and MOLG and the DPM are aware of this issue.

g. Ministry of Cooperative Development:

This ministry has regulatory powers over cooperatives in the country. In the past it has concentrated its training activities in the public sector. However, new policy directives recognise that the movement has become the major source of growth in agricultural production, credit and processing. There has also been

significant growth in savings societies and agro-related service industries. For the movement to service these new growth areas, there will be a need to train for leadership in technical production areas, banking and management, particularly at the Union level, which enjoys advantages of scale for concentrating technical and managerial services.

h. Ministry of Commerce and Industry

This ministry handles commercial and industrial affairs. Its constituency therefore is the business sector. It has promoted business activities but has not to date had a long term project on training leaders of the private sector in the manner proposed in this project.

i. Directorate of Industrial Training (DIT)

The Directorate of Industrial Training is part of the Ministry of Labour. It is the only public sector institution which formally trains for the public sector. Its training activities are funded by the training levy which is paid by all industries. The law governing the training levy is the Industrial Training Act 237 passed on May 16, 1960. The various industrial sectors are supposed to identify their training needs, to make presentations to DIT to get authority to mount the training with their own funds and later to claim such from the DIT.

This procedure is cumbersome for several reasons. First, a firm must have money to spend before it can claim. Second, they must identify a training institution which is recognised by DIT for the training companies have problems in identifying training needs. The DIT itself has one person trained in needs assessment and thus it cannot offer a service to industry. This niche is increasingly being fulfilled by consulting firms.

In 1984, the DIT through its centers in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu trained 1554 apprentices, 966 craft/technicians. 4527 persons were trained in management locally. 142 people were trained overseas. A closer look at Attach. VII Directorate of Industrial Training 1984 Activities shows that the engineering and allied industries had the highest number of apprentices and craft/technicians in training with building construction and motor engineering the second rank. DIT claims that this pattern has held for the last five years. A closer look at the local management training column however shows that the main trainers is commercial distributive industries. Probes at DIT elicited the comment that it was the insurance industry which falls under that category which is doing most of the training. Chemical and general manufacturing are the second highest management trainers followed by the plantations (essentially tea and sugar).

Of the overseas training (142) significantly 73 (51%) went for management with the highest number, 40, coming from the Chemical and general manufacturing industries. The second training area, with 33 individuals, was Textile technicians, electronics and food technology both had 11, plastics technology 8, insurance 5 and electroplanting 1.

In summary then, industry is sending about equal numbers overseas for management or specific technical skills. It is also significant to note that training levy funds are used now to train about twice as many people in management (4,669) as people in technical programs (2520). We are not able to systematically disaggregate the course contents but we probed DIT officials and the feeling is that most of the management training is driven by the mushrooming consulting firms and not a systematic study of training needs sector by sector.

The attitude of the private sector towards DIT is summed up in the 1985 FKE Annual Report. We quote it extensively.

Following a strong objection by the Federation to the proposal by the Ministry for the Directorate of Industrial Training administrative expenses to be met by the industrial training levy fund, the Ministry did not pursue the matter any further. The levy fund was established to meet training expenses incurred by employers and not to pay the salaries of civil servants or meet their transport costs.

Employers continued to complain about delays in being reimbursed for their training costs. Another problem that has begun to emerge is the insistence by the Directorate that they have a right to determine for employers who amongst their managers should attend what courses. The role of the Directorate should be to encourage industrial training and not to discourage it as they seem to be doing now.

In 1984, DIT spent K.Shs. 55,255,100.65. This amount was raised by the levy and income from investments but there was a deficit of K.Shs. 2,617,408.65 which was covered by withdrawals from the accumulated fund. As at June 30th, 1985, the accumulated fund stood at a very respectable K.Shs. 108,668,582.85. It is estimated that by March 30th 1986 it will approach K.Shs. 110m. In short, private sector could call on these funds for its own training. This is just about half of what USAID is proposing to spend on Leadership Training over the next five years.

Before leaving this section on DIT, it is important to note that there are sectors who are exhausting their training levy contributions. These are shown below in Attach. VIII DIT 1984: Sector Training Income and Expenditure. These are Food Processing Industries which in 1984 contributed K.Shs. 3,663,615.30 and spent in training K.Shs. 5,815,195.30. Printing and Paper manufacturing industries in the same year only raised K.Shs. 957,479.70 and spent 2,287,212.05. Commercial Distributive and Allied Industries raised K.Shs. 2,284,801.55 and spent K.Shs. 5,331,510.90. Plantations raised only K.Shs. 1,562,357.45 and spent K.Shs. 2,958,377.40, Food Processing raised K.Shs. 3,663,615.30 and spent K.Shs. 5,815,195.50. Textiles raised K.Shs. 5,985,396.05 and spent K.Shs. 15,212,125.75.

In summary, Building, Printing, Commercial Plantations, Textiles and Food Processing have greater training demand than is being met by their contributions to the training levy. On the other hand, Motor, Engineering, Sawmilling and Chemical seem not to have training demand. It is interesting that the last few are generally the ones where there are few indigenous companies in the view of DIT officials. That textiles take as much as three times their contribution in training expenditure is noteworthy.

Several institutions have major responsibilities in the private sector. We review the ones who will have relations with the project hereunder.

2. PRIVATE SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

a. Kenya Association of Manufacturers - (KAM)

This body brings together all the businesses which are in manufacturing. Its current ISIC list shows 717 firms as member of businesses. This however should not be seen as actual membership for some businesses are listed in more than one International Standard Industrial Classification Category. Member firms are 543. They are shown in Attach. IX.KAM. Membership by I.S.I.C. Classification 1985.

KAM functions as a trade body for manufacturers. Although to date its membership has been concentrated in the large urban centers, it is actively recruiting members from the Kenya Industrial Estates which cover most manufacturing (about 800) in rural areas and the small towns. Similarly, it has plans to recruit those industrialists started off by the Industrial Development Bank and the Industrial and Commercial Development Corporation. This recruitment drive will bring most of the national industrialists under its umbrella.

The leadership of the KAM is informed and stable. It is planning to deliberately move into training of small businesses and has already made proposals to AID. We have met with its training committee and found it willing and able to serve the project by providing access to the business community.

b. Kenya Institute of Management (KIM)

This body was started as a training arm of the private sector in the British tradition. It has a few officials and thus most of the programs are run by outsiders on part-time basis mainly in Nairobi for Nairobi outfits. This has a bearing on management training and continuity.

KIM is currently negotiating with the British Council for secondment of an experienced trainer.

This development may lead to more current high calibre management training but time will tell.

c. Kenya National Chamber of Commerce and Industry

In spite of the name, this organisation handled mainly commercial concerns. It has branches in the major towns but does not penetrate the country in the manner of cooperatives.

In the recent past the organisation has been characterised by leadership squabbles which have led to serious polarisation of staff and functions.

d. Federation of Kenya Employers

This is an employer trade organisation whose main purpose is to protect employer interests as COTU (see below) protects labour interests. Its membership falls into two categories - trade associations and individual employers. These are shown below Attach. IX. FKE Membership 1984. As can be seen, there are 20 Sector Employer Associations who are members. However, not all the individual employer members of the sector employer associations are members of FKE as most of them leave their business with FKE to be handled by the sector associations. For example, of the 215 registered estates which are members of the Kenya Coffee Growers Associations, only 45 are members of FKE. In other situations, some employers join FKE directly without joining the sector organisation. A good example is the Agricultural Employers Association which has 150 members but FKE lists 394 as employers in agricultural sector.

We do not know total membership of the 20 Employer Associations. However, we do know that out of their total membership, 1169 are members of FKE with the highest number (394) being in agriculture. Building contractors are second with 252 and hotel-keepers 120.

FKE has also companies who are subscriber members. The categories of classification are eclectic and not standard or modified I.S.I.C., making it difficult to analyse subsectors. FKE in 1984 had 104 categories of company membership with a total of 1515 members. Only one category, Manufacturers, has more than 100 members (.e. 130). Eight categories have more than 50 and fewer than 100 members. They are led by Wholesalers (68), Engineering (62), Food Manufacturers and clothing industries (59), Chemical and Metallic Industries, Printing Traders and Road Transport with 55 each.

Finally, there is the Member Schools of the Kindergarten Headmistresses Association, with 54 members. All other categories have fewer than 50 members.

e. Central Organisation of Trade Unions (COTU)

This is the apex body for the labour movement. It runs labour college for its personnel. The movement is relatively stable but the leadership is from an earlier age. An issue for the future is to identify and train new leaders for all levels of the movement. It could benefit by several leadership fellowships particularly for training of trainers.

3. COOPERATIVE SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

The cooperative movement is the most extensive business network in the country for it produces 60% of the agricultural GDP which is equivalent to K.Shs. 6.5 billion. It is estimated that the 2 million cooperative members economically carry more than 75% of the national population.

Cooperatives are important in developing the private sector since they (a) are the only institutions with surpluses to invest in smallholder production (b) they are investing in agro-processing businesses and (c) they plan to integrate vertically and horizontally and finally (d) they are diversifying. These immediate growth strategies have been recognised and accepted by the Ministry of Cooperatives as reflected in the Commissioner of Cooperatives Circular Letter No. MCD/ORG/7/55 of 25th November 1985 titled Cooperative Investment Policy. For purposes of the Leadership Development Project, the key cooperative institutions are discussed hereunder.

a. Cooperative College of Kenya

This is the only cooperative training institution in the country. It has essentially concentrated on training for the Ministry of Cooperative Development as opposed to training for the movement. However, the key managers for the movement (at Union and primary society level)

have been individuals leaving the ministry for the movement. The college staff and board and ministry are aware that training for the movement is now a priority and ways and means of shifting the college to this orientation are being investigated. They range all the way from turning the college over to the movement to sharing of training slots.

We find this college willing and able to assist USAID in screening members for fellowship training from Coop Union and societies.

b. Cooperative Unions

These bring primary societies together at the district level. They offer services to primary cooperative societies which inter alia include banking, technical resources and accounting. It is at the district union level that the greatest need for leadership in terms of management and creativity has been identified. It is also at this Union level that there is great innovation and expansion in business activities. In Muranga, for example, an animal-feeds plant is under construction. In Bungoma, a dairy has put Kenya Cooperative Creameries (KCC), a national milk cooperative monopoly, out of local business. In Machakos, during the 1984 drought, the Union was in famine relief for eight months before GoK started feeding.

That experience has led the Union into planning to purchase grain mills. Other unions are involved in agro-processing. Continuing expansion of Union activities calls for technical and managerial leadership training which GoK has undertaken to provide in country and overseas as stated in Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986.

c. Kenya National Federation of Cooperatives (KNFC)

This is the apex organisation of cooperatives in the country. It is rife with factionalism and the inappropriate management is a function of poor and tired leadership. Those in the movement argue that this situation will only be improved if better trained and experienced movement leadership at lower levels moves up to this level.

CHAPTER 7

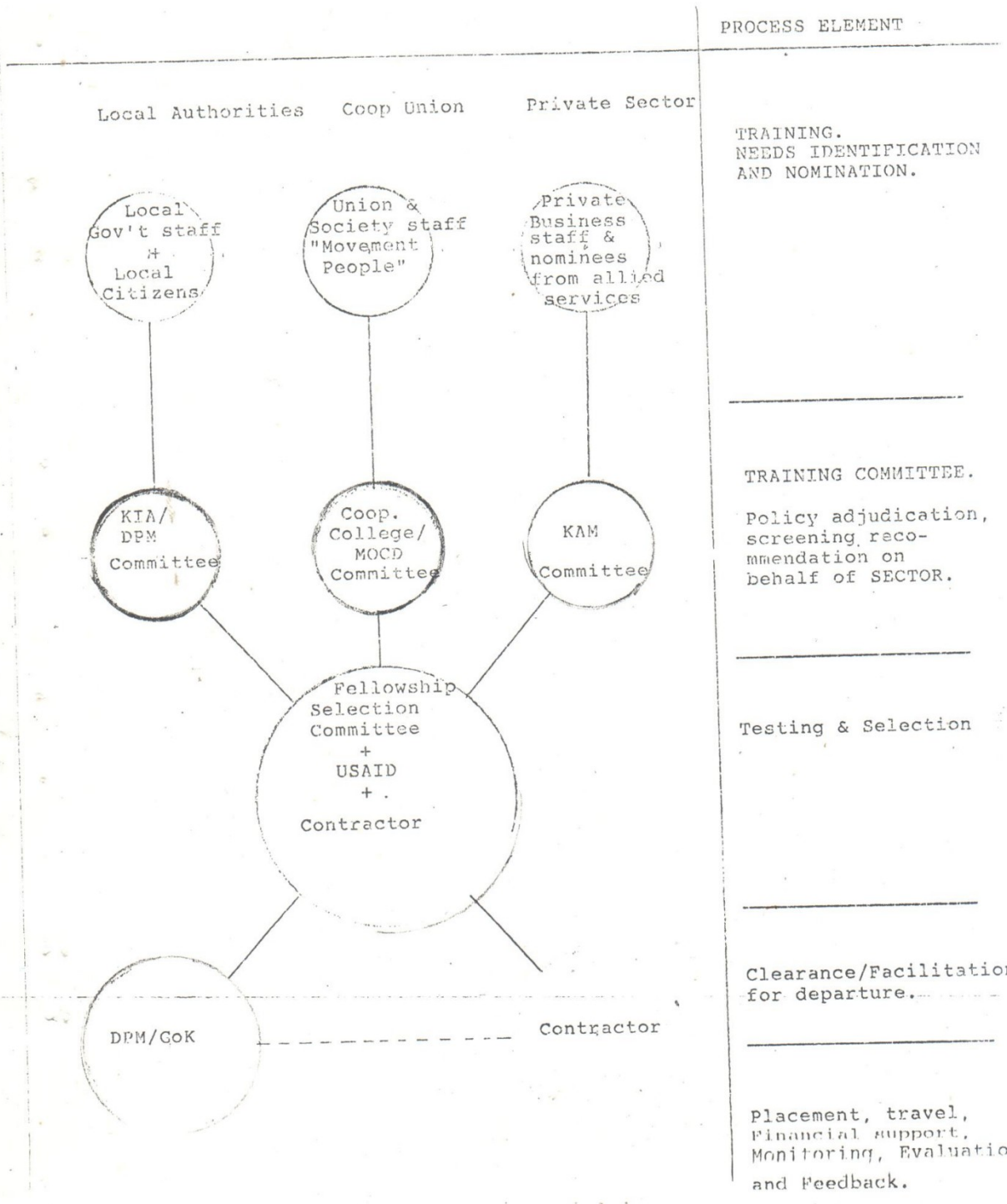
STRUCTURES FOR NOMINATING, SCREENING AND SELECTING

OPTION I: SECTOR CHANNELLED, DECENTRALISED, PRIORITY TRAINING BASED

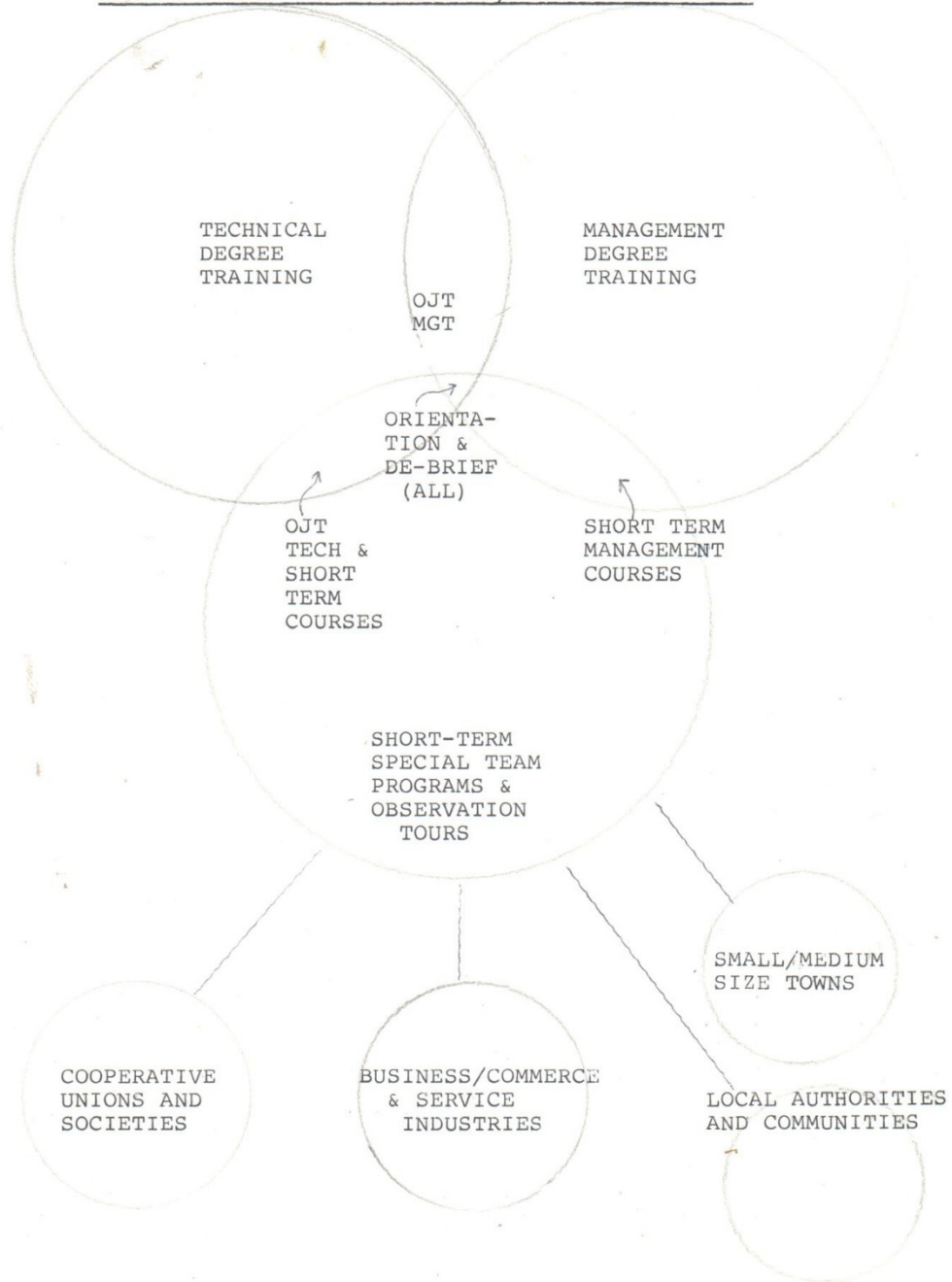
Nominations should be made by (a) those who know the candidate best in his/her work and personal capacity.
(b) those who will benefit by the training.

- . Cooperatives should nominate from both union and primary society membership and should forward recommendations, based on the management committee decision, to the training committee at the Cooperative College. This training committee should include MOCD, cooperative society and union representation and should be headed by an educator experienced in the cooperative movement, preferably the principal of the cooperative college.
- . Private businesses should nominate through their managing director to the KAM Training Committee and should include not only their own staff but also, for every in-house nomination, one from an outside, small business or PVO community (i.e. via KIE, ICDC, IDB affiliated businesses).
- . Local Authorities should meet as elected bodies, to nominate candidates from both community and local civil service to the KIA/Training Committee. This Committee should be headed by an educator, preferably the director of the KIA and should include the most knowledgeable professionals in the field of urban-small town management.

PROPOSED STRUCTURE FOR
NOMINATION AND SELECTION OF CANDIDATES
OPTION I



TRAINING MENU AND NOMINATION/SELECTION STREAMS



All three training committees should be composed of 3 members, at least one of whom must be a woman, must be familiar with the program guidelines, must keep minutes of the meetings held and must forward an agreed upon number of candidates for testing and final selection. Each committee must nominate one member, which can be rotational, to sit on the selection committee (see below) where his or her principal role will be to argue why the candidate from his/her sector will best meet local and national manpower needs. These training committees have as a key function the screening of candidates according to program, sector and national criteria. The training committee do not select and they do not reject, all applications become the property of the selection committee whose responsibility it will be to insure that all applicants receive a reasonable explanation for the determination of their case. Some applicants who meet all criteria may be placed in a queue for later processing and placement in a U.S. training program.

The role of the DPM is only to act as a clearing house once selection decisions have been made, i.e. to insure that all documents and releases required for departure of civil servants are ready on time.

The role of the contractor has been spelled out elsewhere in detail, in this process the contractor should have a representative present at each committee meeting, should keep all records and should be responsible for the mailing of letters to applicants.

The selection committee will be composed of one member each from the training committees, a chairperson, preferably a distinguished educator nominated by the Chancellor of one of the major national universities, a testing and placement expert (non-voting) and a representative of the USAID mission. In addition a USAID contractor representative will attend all meetings in an ex officio capacity and will act as secretariat in convening meetings, presenting documentation and keeping records. At least one member of the selection committee must be a woman.

In considering nominations before the panel, the selection committee will have available, prepared by the contractor, the following documentations:

1. Verified documentation on education and job achievements
2. Sponsor's recommendations
3. Personal training and career plans

Short-term trainees who will not matriculate in universities will not be tested nor is it necessary to have them interviewed. The training plan, background of candidates and general purposes of the project must nevertheless pass through the Selection Committee for approval and comments. Such plans will be prepared by the contractor in concert with each of the three training committees, and with the implementing training institution in the U.S., if any.

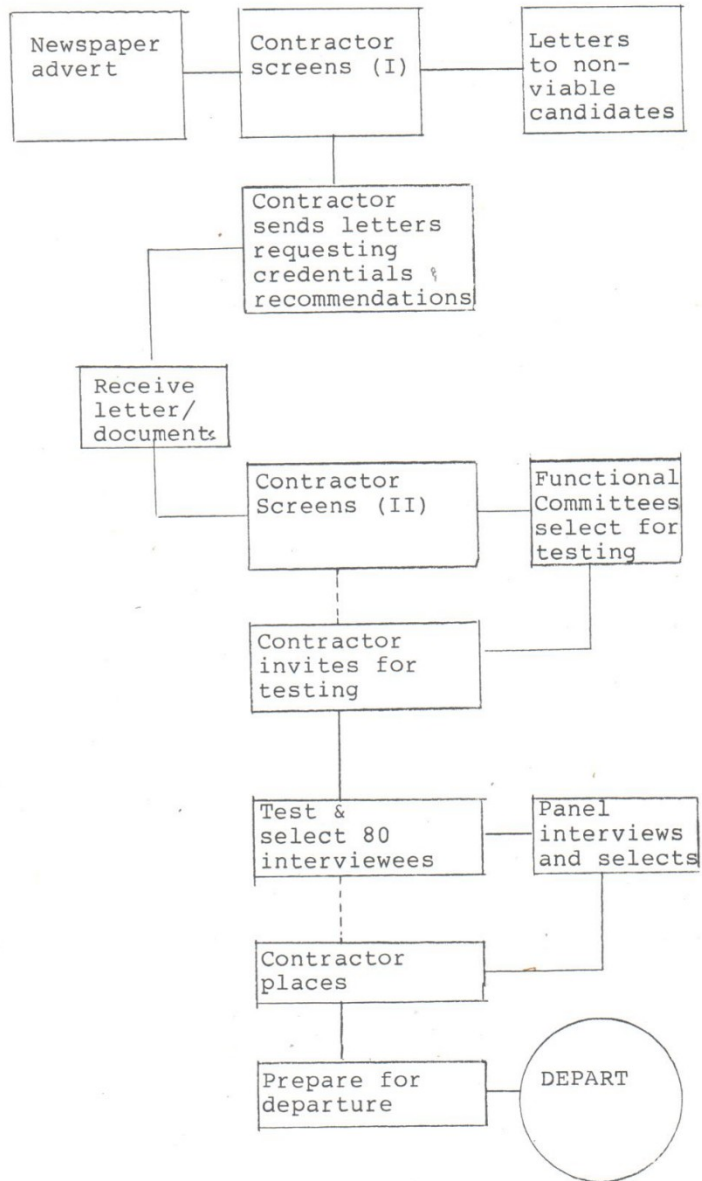
OPTION II: OPEN, DEMAND-DRIVEN, CENTRALIZED PROGRAM

This differs from option I in not requiring participants to have sponsorship before submitting applications for candidacy. It also does not utilize the Training Committee from each sector to apply candidates' wishes for training against sectoral and institutional needs, but assumes that what is rational in the individual's decision-making will also be rational in the aggregate, i.e. assumes individuals, if left to themselves, will choose both what is best for them and what is best for the nation.

In order to cope with the anticipated large volume of applications, and to serve the goals of the project to select the individuals with the greatest leadership potentials, the following structure is proposed:

1. The newspaper advertisement announcing the fellowship must be highly specific in terms of qualifications, submission dates and other required information. It will be accomplished by a printed form carefully designed for this purpose by the contractor.
2. Applications are mailed to a "blind box No." where the initial "triage" is done by the contractor under supervision by USAID/HRDO. Guidelines concerning ethnic and gender distribution should be carefully observed at this stage when the applicant pool is largest and most diversified.
3. Record keeping and communication processes are initiated and word-processed letters, with sponsorship and other information-seeking forms, are sent, signed by a USAID representative, to each applicant.
4. Based on recommendations and other information received, highly viable candidates will be invited for testing and interviewing by the relevant panel. Testing could be done in groups on a certain day such as Saturday, a method the U.S. Peace Corps has used for many years to screen large numbers of applicants by testing.

FLOW CHART OF PROPOSED SCREENING AND SELECTION PROCESS
(OPTION II)



COMPARISON OF OPTIONS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

OPTION I: "CHANNELED", DECENTRALIZED, PRIORITY- TRAINING BASED	OPTION II: DEMAND-DRIVEN AND CENTRALIZED
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• National advertisement invites applications by individuals sponsored thru their organisations• Nominations screened by sectoral Training committee with oversight on technical/managerial needs of sector.• Viable candidates forwarded by TC's for testing, interviewing and selection process.• Selection committee has interlocking memberships with TC's to insure rationale for nomination is available.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• National advertisement invites applications• Individual initiates application directly to "blind box No.• Contractor screens for viable candidates, asks those pre-selected to provide sponsorship information and educational documentation• Screening No. 2 takes place based on additional information provided.• Invite for testing, interviews by selection committee and final selection.
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>ASSUMPTIONS</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Leadership development through training of candidates from local communities/small towns is a "breeding ground" for emerging national leadership.	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>ASSUMPTIONS</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Focuses on higher level training for the existing/emerging professional class - recruitment expected mostly from larger urban areas and <u>national civil service</u> where most college graduates are found.

OPTION I:	OPTION II
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Focus on appropriate skills as basis for small town/business services and improved local government leadership.• Includes management training for public /private sector managers (graduate and short term)• Recruitment/selection involves local communities in deciding <u>who</u> would best fill their needs through <u>what</u> training.• Sponsorship sought with initial application to insure link to institutional and community needs.• Sectoral training committee mandated to insure sectoral needs being met in a balanced way (semi-planning approach)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Recruitment/selection process focussed on <u>personal attributes</u> as decided by the selection committee.• Candidates will be <u>older</u> than in option I (graduates)• Sponsorship sought <u>after</u> initial application and screening.• No attempt to screen for sector and/or manpower needs: assumes that what is desired by the individual will benefit society. (Market approach).• USAID would play a decisive role in selection.

PROPOSED LEADERSHIP SELECTION CRITERIA

As a guide to screening and selection, the following variables and indicators are proposed:

Variable	Indicator	Points
1. TEFL	+525	5
2. GMAT		5
3. GRE	First Class	10
	Upper Second	5
4. ACTIVITIES	Leadership of voluntary organisations, hobbies	5
5. GOALS	Clearly defined, realistic	10
6. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS	Extent of involvement with friends, length of relationships	5
7. ETHICS/ STANDARDS	Reaction to "critical incident" presented at interview (i.e. what would you do in this situation...")	10
8. ABILITY TO USE SITUATION	Positive conduct, strong presentation at interview	10
9. SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE	Ability to discuss, interpret, story in current newspaper.	10
10. RECOMMENDATIONS	10/10	5
11. OTHER TRAINING	Self-sought, completed	5
12. CROSS-CULTURAL EXPERIENCE	Intra-national, e.g. with other tribes, races, nationalities or abroad.	10
		<u>100</u>

It is evident that a number of these indicators are somewhat "soft" in providing guidance to selection panel members. This does not make these factors any less real or less important, but only requires a different way to handle the data. In order for the selection panel to be effective, it would be highly desirable to have them discuss a number of these issues prior to interviewing in order to derive a common frame of reference.

Failing that, it is suggested that each panelist be provided with the selection criteria as a check-list to be used like a ballot. This has the advantage of driving more extreme views towards the mean and can save considerable time when there are many candidates to interview and not much time to discuss each one.

This latter method is also preferable since quantitative scores become very important in making final selections when all candidates have been interviewed and memories of each individual begin to blur.

Finally, a secretary to the selection committee from contractor staff, should be charged with tabulating weighting and entering individual scores on a master matrix displaying all candidates's scores on each variable, total score and ranking. Consideration of such a table, presented at the end of an interviewing session, while candidates are still within reach, would help the selection panel work efficiently and fairly.

PROPOSED ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF CONTRACTOR TFD

- I. Establish working (sub-contractor) relationship with local Kenyan organisation(s) to jointly:
 - a. Advise and maintain liaison with local nominating screening organizations,
 - b. Provides local testing and screening of candidates for U.S. admissions, including verification of local credentials.
 - c. Provides test preparation for highly viable candidates taking U.S. standardized admissions tests.
 - d. Provides cross-cultural pre-departure and re-entry orientation and counselling for candidates and graduates, with assistance from alumnae organisations.
 - e. Responds to all applications and enquiries received from individuals and organisations regarding the scholarship program.
 - f. Forms and acts as secretariat for project selection committees.
 - g. Maintains liaison with USAID and GOK in matters regarding the program.
 - h. Organizes Alumni Organisation and provides support services until returned participants can/will take over the functions.

- II. Provide services from U.S. based office
 - a. Participant placement in schools, training programs and OJT sites.
 - b. Monitors and supports participants on study in the USA e.g. counselling, legal advice, tutoring arrangements, per diem, tuition payments, travel etc.
 - c. Maintains records on grades, progress reports and accounts.
 - d. Designs specialised courses and training programs to meet specific training needs of individuals.
 - e. Insures that participants complete all requirements and return to their community as planned and agreed in training plans.

SOME CRITERIA FOR SELECTING A CONTRACTOR

The contractor selected for the implementation of this Project should have strong capabilities both locally and in the U.S. Locally the contractor should have available the services of a highly capable sub-contractor who is familiar with Kenyan political, social and economic systems. Access to, and strong linkages with the institutions which will play a key role in the screening and selection of candidates will be necessary.

Administrative capacity, especially in record-keeping, correspondence and in closely linked communications with the placement, monitoring and support operations in the U.S. will also be crucial.

Cross cultural experience and sensitivity on the part of the U.S. expatriate staff will also be highly necessary since there is expected to be a good deal of interaction between Americans and Kenyans on a daily basis.

On the U.S. operations side, experience in placing, supporting and briefing participants should be considered an essential requisite.

Secondly, the contractor will need staff familiar with the design of cross-cultural orientation programs, both to design and implement their own, viz. entry and re-entry orientation, and in order to guide subcontracted institutions to specific Kenyan national, local and individual needs.

Present capacity to expand to meet the needs of this project will also be a critical factor. This capacity must include accounting and processing of timely payments for tuition, books and per diem. Further, smooth relations with a travel agency, or internal capacity, for arranging a large volume of travel to and from country, academic, OJT and other training sites.

Access to expertise on legal matters, including immigration, civil and criminal law, has also been found to be very useful asset for organisations handling large numbers of foreign nationals in the U.S. Organisations with existing operations and experience in this field can usually show economics of scale in making such services available to an add-on program.

CONTRACTING ARRANGEMENTS: OPTIONS AVAILABLE

The USAID has two alternative modes of facilitating the implementation of a project through a contractor: The host-country contract and direct contract.

Under the host-country contract the funds set aside for implementing the work is made available to an agent of the host country, usually a government ministry, which then provides all support and services required by the contractor to implement the scope of work.

Under the direct contract mechanism, the contractor works directly with the local mission and is reimbursed by the USAID by means of vouchers submitted for services and expenses incurred.

It is strongly recommended that this project adopt the latter, direct contract mechanism, for the following reasons:

1. This project will involve a considerable number of individual payments for travel, tuition, per diem, interviewing honoraria, etc. all of which must be paid promptly. If the contractor is to be held responsible for these aspects of the Scope of Work, he must have the means to do so without delays or interference due to inefficiencies or interference by a government agent.
2. If the project is administered through a host-country mechanism, it is possible that payments will not come on time to enable the contractor to pay participants on training their per diem on time. Such an event can be disastrous to the individual living on limited means far from home. Experience with the Nigerian Manpower Project (U.S./I.D.C.A. 1979-83) where the Nigerian MOE was repeatedly late with financial transfers to the U.S. Treasury, provided constant and serious crises to program staff and participants.

CONTRACTING OPTION

In previous training programs funded by the USAID the DPM has been used as the administrative organ handling the project. This mechanism is not considered feasible as the Leadership Project will be catering to the private sector and USAID feels that the DPM does not have the experience with administering programs for the private sector. There are supposed to have been problems with spending in AMDP.

The Ministry of Finance out of its general oversight responsibilities can contract for this Project and get support for all parties concerned. The DPM can act as a clearing house.

Assuming that the program will be by direct contract to a U.S. firm with a local sub-contractor, we think this is the only viable and feasible contracting arrangement possible.

SUB-CONTRACTING CONSIDERATIONS

Implicit in the above is the assumption that at least two types of local sub-contractors will be needed to support the U.S. prime contractor:

1. Test-preparation and testing services
2. Local back-up and services.

Test Preparation and Testing Services

Standardized testing is a fact of life in obtaining a ticket to the American educational system. Being bright and motivated is frequently not enough to obtain satisfactory test results and recognition of this factor has given rise to a whole new industry devoted to preparing students for test taking.

The cross-cultural element is a significant factor lowering scores of students from educational systems not using multiple choice testing, and tests are often composed of items requiring deductive reasoning, conceptual thinking and a high level of English competency.

In the interest of giving otherwise bright Kenyans the best possible advantages for entering top schools, it is recommended that they be given an opportunity to learn how to take tests. The pool of candidates should be confined to highly viable candidates reaching the final stages of selection.

Testing itself should only be done by ETS licensed experts. This service is available from the current USIA contractor in Kenya on a per participant cost basis, which could be paid by the USAID contractor for the projects. Results are forwarded to ETS in New Jersey and must include schools of choice to receive test scores. Where viable candidates have on their own initiative been tested and accepted into U.S. universities, their candidacy for a program should be given serious consideration.

Local Contracting Services

At present, there is no U.S. contractor operating in Kenya familiar with the various organisations and government bodies involved, or potentially involved, in processes of nominating, screening and selection of participants.

Secondly, if candidates are to be recruited, selected and placed in time for Fall 1987 academic placement it will be imperative that the U.S. contractor be able to begin operations in Kenya no later than the late summer or fall of 1986. The alternative would be to postpone the start of the placements to 1988, a loss of a full year.

For these reasons, it is recommended that the RFTP specifically require organisations interested in being considered by USAID to implement this program to have a local sub-contractor available to help get the program started as rapidly as possible.

The local contractor would be responsible for, among others:

1. Establishing office facilities and hiring local staff.
2. Facilitating housing for expatriate staff.
3. Arranging meetings to familiarise prime-contractor staff with their personnel and organisations and to establish liaison needed for the project.
4. To assist with the Alumni Association.

ALUMNI ASSOCIATION

At this stage, it is only possible to suggest a set of steps, a process which USAID and its contractor may wish to follow in establishing and institutionalising such an organisation.

An initial, and fundamental assumption is that an alumni organisation built only on the premise that those who have studied in the U.S. have enough commonality to form and maintain an organisation, is doomed to failure from the start.

In order to obtain and keep members, any organisation must have a service and must meet a set of needs broad enough to cover all of the membership.

One of the most important functions served by Alumni organisations is to meet the need to maintain contact with friends and associates made during the training experience.

It is recommended, to meet this need, that the contractor initially be required to establish a list of names and addresses of as many as possible of past and present U.S.G. supported participants. This list amended annually, will be made available at the cost of the membership fee to anyone who responds to a newspaper advertisement. (Non participants can of course also purchase).

Secondly, it is recommended that the contractor start a newsletter containing information on the new Training for Development Program, mailed to participants in the U.S. and former participants, from earlier programs, who have joined the organisation. The editorship and production of this letter should be the work of returned Kenyan participants specifically hired for this purpose. Salaries should increasingly be subsidized by membership fees as revenue goes up, with the newsletter eventually supporting itself and the Alumni staff as an independent entity.

Thirdly, participants abroad will be encouraged to participate as correspondents, reporting on life in America, amusing or serious incidents, as well as comments and suggestions for selection, type of training or anything else fit to print.

Fourth, the newsletter can be an important vehicle for university or training institutions to maintain contacts with their former students. When addresses are sent to university alumni organisations, they often can and will respond by adding former graduates, long since considered lost in the deserts and jungles of their countries, to their own mailing lists. In addition to requests for contributions to the universities (which alumni are sure to receive), they may also receive valuable mailings of professional news of their field.

Fifth, the association will sponsor seminars, lectures and other presentations by prestigious speakers, particularly by contemporary leaders from business public affairs, the professions, arts and scholarly circles.

Sixth, the association will be invited to participate in evaluations of the project. The extent of much participation will be determined when the returnee group is established during the second operational year of the project, before long-term participants begin to come back.

Funding of Alumni Association

It is recommended that the USAID contractor be provided with funding to help support the Alumni organisations for the first few years. As indicated, this could include salaries for an editor of the newsletter, production, distribution and record-keeping costs.

In addition, the contractor should be prepared to support costs for professional memberships for each of the TFO fellows for 2 years after return to Kenya. Expenditures should also include an institutional membership for the Alumni Association for each membership given to an ex-participant. The information received about professional activities could provide valuable material for the newsletter and should become part of the inventory of the Alumni organisation.

Finally, it is proposed that production equipment purchased by the contractor, e.g. typewriters, filing cabinets, desk-top, computer etc. be transferred to the Alumni Association at the termination of the contract, provided the Alumni Association meets basic criteria of fungibility and viability at the time. Without such resources, it is doubtful if the organisation could continue to carry out its activities.

WOMEN AND THE TRAINING FOR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

As indicated in the design of the project, all training categories are open to women, and they will be explicitly encouraged to apply for the training grants through the training committees.

In addition, it is proposed that each functional committee be required to have at least one woman member and that the selection committee not be said to have a quorum without at least one, voting woman member present.

Private businesses, nominating through the KAM Training Committee, will be directed to seek out women candidates from both the business communities and from small productive enterprises which may be of a non-profit or commercial nature. It is expected that some of these nominations will come from the more than 800 KIE operated industrial estates' enterprises and will serve to encourage women to use these underutilised and subsized production facilities.

Women sitting on training committees of the project are of course free, as are their male colleagues, to encourage women to apply and can act as their advocates to the maximum extent of their convictions and powers.

LOCAL CONTRIBUTION

In our investigations we have found evidence that local authorities, the private sectors and cooperatives will continue the practices established in previous GoK training programs. These inter alia include:

- a. Salary payments while the individual is away up to 80% to support the individual's family. The remaining 20% is the individual's contribution to his training.
- b. The handling of the nominations by the private sector, cooperatives and local authorities will be a cost which should justifiably be counted toward the minimum non-USG contribution of 25%.
- c. If out of these two major activities the minimum local contribution is not covered we are of the opinion that all nominating bodies should give token contributions to be used in the OJT component of the program. The various organisations reviewed above have agreed to this. We do not believe this cost should be passed on to the individual.
- d. All organisations expressed the need to bond those selected for the training. Although we do not think this will deter anyone from extending his stay in the U.S. (tight control over the visa process through the contractor is likely to be more effective), we defer to them on this.

- e. Where individuals are accepted without sponsorship, e.g. recent graduates currently unemployed, USAID through its contractor, may want to consider a stipend, paid in local currency, where there are families to be supported.

12. LINKAGES TO KENYA STRATEGIES AND PROGRAMS

Kenya is shifting its development strategies and programs to an emphasis on the private sector. Recently, while opening Parliament, President Moi stated:

"We seek to concentrate our limited resources on fewer but more carefully selected projects which have a higher efficiency and a greater potential for growth. Emphasis will be placed on improving the utilisation of existing capacity". (Daily Nation 15th March 1986).

Towards that end, a new GoK Sessional Paper No. 1, 1986 is in draft.

Discussions with high officials in private, PVO and cooperative sectors, indicate that training in the private sector will be emphasised from now on. Specialised overseas training for the PVO's, cooperative and public sector will be sought where there are no facilities in-country.

In our interviews among high level GoK officials and private and cooperative sector, we have been informed that there is no opposition to overseas training by the three groups. On the contrary there is support for overseas training for they feel it not only teaches new skills but imparts an attitude to work.

This is in keeping with the position held by the GoK for sometime. For example, as early as 1984, in the midst of the national debate on starting a second university, President Moi stated that:

"What is required is quality education, otherwise our society will be saturated with people with a string of degrees which are valueless". (Daily Nation July 22, 1984).

The Presidential Commission on Employment 1985, has stated that:

"The economy is still short of skilled manpower upon which crucial development projects depend".

These are the articulated public positions on training in the recent past. They have been backed by practice.

The Wamalwa Report of the Committee of Review into the Kenya Institute of Administration 1978-1979 states that:

Government undertakes to pay all expenses for training. (Para. 133.14).

This is still the official view as was learned in discussions with high level public officials.

For example, since 1981 even with the foreign exchange restrictions, the Central Bank has been directed to give all overseas student foreign exchange needs priority, even when the country has been short of money. Where privately sponsored students have had financial problems in foreign countries, the Government has stepped in and actually financed them to complete their courses. Kenyan students in India for example, have had these problems lately.

The GoK has also shown support for overseas training in other programs. All major donors' sectoral programs have an overseas training component, particularly for "counterparts" to expatriates. All District Commissioners, for example, have gone through a training program in the U.K. during the past three years.

This project will therefore fit into the GoK strategy of sending Kenyans overseas in those skill areas not available in the country. However, note should be taken of the fact that since the Leadership Training Project will train for the private sector, among others, the GoK has not had experience with such a program. Its institutions have concentrated on identifying training needs for the public sector.

Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986 on Economic Management for Renewed Growth, tabled in Parliament, sets out the GoK strategy for the next 20 years. It, inter alia states "The urgent need is to renew economic growth in ways that will provide jobs for the growing labour force, prosperity for the mass of people in the rural areas, equitable and widespread sharing of the benefits of growth, and a continuing provision of basic need for all". (Preamble)

It further identifies the numbers and their location within the nation as follows:

... at current trends, the urban population will reach 9 to 10 million by 2000, over one-fourth the total population, compared to only 3 million (15%) in 1984. Unless new workers can be attracted in large numbers to jobs in smaller urban centres and on prosperous farms, it will be necessary to build at least six cities the size of present-day Nairobi, or to watch Mombasa and Nairobi expand into cities of two to four million each ... (Page 1)

"... obviously, the modern, urban, industrial sector cannot be depended on to employ much of the growing work-force".

Their employment will be in smaller outfits away from the large centres. To do that, the manufacturing sector "... needs to attract and generate Kenyan entrepreneurs and managers" (page 90) for the "... aim of locating industry in rural areas and the smaller cities of Kenya is an important element in achieving rural-urban balance" (Page 97).

The forward strategy also calls for increasingly allowing the private sector to be involved in the management of small town activities which have been in the public domain. To wit "... policies will be formulated that encourage the involvement of the private sector in the provision of facilities and services, either as a partner or as a principal agent ... partnerships between government agencies and private firms offer a promising approach for the development of urban industrial or commercial sites, construction of residential housing, building of public infrastructure, or the leasing and operation of public facilities and services" (Page 50).

To ensure that these new functions get the human resources trained in the country, graduates "... will be encouraged ... to seek jobs in the private sector, where employment will be expanding and Government will assist diploma and college graduates to find private sector positions" (Page 3).

Furthermore, to ensure that cooperatives which are in the rural/small urban centres have sufficient manpower for tasks in marketing, credit and export, "Government will encourage cooperatives to invest in training managers both in Kenya and abroad" (Page 85).

The twin goals of the GoK over the next 20 years will be "accelerated employment creation, especially in the private sector, to ensure that all Kenyans can participate in a growing economy (and) gradual structural change from an agrarian into an urban based industrial economy and services leading the way for the next 15 years as

modern industry is restructured to play its essential development role" (Page 102).

Since "Government has long recognised the indispensable qualities that the private sector brings to development" (Page 23), to fulfill its future strategy it will increasingly support the training in the private sector. This has been recognised and the Permanent Secretary and Director of Personnel Management (who is the GoK officer with oversight powers on human resources development) has reiterated it. To quote " The country ... continues to be confronted with constraints emanating from insufficient (sic) trained manpower ... [GoK will continue to negotiate] for scholarships with friendly countries, donor agencies and organisations ...". (FKE/ILO Management Seminar, 24/3/86).

PROGRAM EVALUATION

A program with a goal such as "Leadership Development" can measure its effectiveness in two ways: long-term career success and short-term changes in individual variables agreed to be significant in leadership development.

From the point of view of social science research methodology, nearly all training evaluation results are suspect due to the considerable difficulty of separating the differential effects of on-going growth and development of the individual from the inputs of training, life experiences (especially cross-cultural) and the passage of time, especially at a formative age.

In other words, it is often forgotten in such research that other (young) individuals, not subjected to the opportunities of overseas education, may also be undergoing significant learning experiences which would equally prepare them for leadership.

Investment in overseas training, however, is predicated on training making a measurable difference in knowledge, skills and attitudes. This program will have the advantage of having a screening procedure by which a number of highly eligible candidates will be tested, some of whom will be selected.

This testing, and the existence of a control group of near-eligible, non-selected candidates, can form the basis for a 2 x 2 pre-post evaluation design:

Testing

Pre-training Post-training Differences

A.	Selected	Base-line on leadership variables	Evidence of changes in leadership variables	A-A
B.	Non-selected (control group)	Base-line on leadership variables	Evidence of changes in leadership variables	B-B

t_1

t_2

$(A \rightarrow A) - (B \rightarrow B) =$
training impact hypothesis

This design will require that both non-selected, viable candidates, as well as selected and trained candidates, be tested at t_1 and at t_2 (before and after selected candidates' training).

This assumes that the test score differences between groups A and B are not significant at the time of selection i.e. that there will be a pool of equally eligible participants (e.g. 40 for selection of 20) and that final selection among the 40 finalists is essentially random.

It also assumes that those not selected from the finalists pool stay in Kenya while the selected candidates are on training in the U.S. and that this control group and the trained group can be made available for post-testing.

Changes in Group B test scores during the period while their selected colleagues were on training could then be said to be a function of their personal development, over the same period of time, without the benefit of the training.

The difference between the growth and learning of the two groups, during the period while one group was in the U.S. and the other stayed in Kenya, would then be an indicator of the possible impact of the program on those selected and trained.

It should be noted, that adoption of this research and evaluation procedure will affect assumptions of selection: If there is a measurable difference between selected and non-selected candidates, then there can be no control group and the pre-post design will have lost its methodological anchor.

This also assumes that tests used for screening and selection are in fact sensitive to short-term changes brought about by training and experience, a factor which should be taken into account in selecting instruments for this purpose.

STRUCTURED LEARNING ~~EXPERIENCE~~ AND SHORT-TERM TRAINING

Non-academic training in this project can be divided into:

1. Specially arranged learning experiences for academic participants during Summer breaks, and -
2. Special programs arranged for short-term participants.

A. Enrichment Programs for Academic Participants

It is strongly recommended that all participants in this program be given an opportunity to join together in a 3-week development management seminar specially designed and conducted by the contractor and/or sub-contractor.

Such a seminar should cover not only the structure of the world economy, North-South and South-South exchanges of resources, finances and information, but should also provide a process guide to the analysis of Kenya's social and economic systems.

From this MACRO-perspective, the seminar, using simulation, role-playing, in-basket and other experiential training methods, should move to expose participants to the procedure of planning and implementing private and public sector projects and programs.

It is proposed that this seminar be at least 3 weeks in length, residential, and composed of all TFD fellows in the U.S. at a given time. Outstanding participants who have gone through the course, and who are available for the subsequent course, should be invited to play a leadership role in the next course.

Secondly, it is proposed that this "gathering of the fellows" would also be used as:

1. An opportunity to provide support and guidance on their programs, and
2. Would be used to provide working time and review of individual plans for other learning experiences.

The sample "experiential learning menu" can be further developed with the group in a brain-storming session, with each individual preparing (and sharing orally) his plan with the group for feed-back and suggestions.

Provided the individual learning plan does not violate resource limitation and program restrictions, the contractor would then facilitate the participants to carry out their individual learning plans by making arrangements for visits, travel, etc. Whenever possible the individual would be encouraged to take the initiative to make his or her own arrangements as an element in self-sufficiency/leadership training.

B. Short-term Training

As indicated earlier, the contractor will need to either design or find suitable short-term training to meet specific needs of short-term participants.

It is considered likely that this activity will be focussed primarily on:

1. Placement in special, short-term courses in management (12-18 weeks).

A number of institutions have had extensive experience conducting such programs, among them, for illustrative purposes, can be mentioned: Harvard (tax-seminars), Syracuse (Financial Management), University of Connecticut (Local Government, training of trainers etc.), USC (Public Administration; and University of Boulder (Economics).

All of these have a cross-cultural developmental perspective and usually have a variety of participants from developing countries and the U.S. in their courses.

2. Placement in Businesses and Organisations

Carefully planned and arranged attachments of 4-8 weeks in public and private sector organisations similar in scope and purpose to their own, can be a powerful source of new knowledge as well as attitudinal changes.

Such attachments require knowledge of both the individual's training needs and a realistic idea of what the organisation can provide. More successful assignments usually include a specific plan enabling the individual to move through the organisation and a final, written and occasionally orally presented, summation of what has been learned.

Properly arranged, with a bright and motivated participant-observer, such a program can provide valuable insights for the company as it sees itself through an entirely different set of glasses. Finally, the advantages of the cross-cultural exchanges to members of the company in daily contact with the participant, as well as potential trade exchanges in the long run, are all aspects which make this approach highly attractive as a means to learning and two-way technology transfer.

3. Attendance on Courses for American Managers

Many companies offer management training themselves, others send their managers to special courses in universities and institutions. Where appropriate, and where the contractor has carefully assessed

its usefulness, some courses such as A.M.A. seminars may be utilized for senior managers. The contractor should have comprehensive idea of needs for short-term training carried out by staff based in Nairobi. This information could be fed into a computer, sent to the U.S. where the contractor could provide a match with a computerised inventory of training opportunities of a suitable nature.

In spite of the marvelous advantages of the computer a small Caveat is perhaps in order here: On-the-job training and company attachments are delicate matters requiring diplomacy and excellent inter-personal skills on the part of contractor staff and participants. Where a company has had a successful experience, the door can remain open for many years and for many participants, where not so successful ...

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ATTACHMENTS

USAID/OIT TRAINING EFFORTS IN KENYA: 1957-1985

TABLE 1

USAID Training 1979-1985

<u>Type of Training</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
1. Agriculture	315	52.15
2. Communication	48	7.94
3. Health	21	3.47
4. Housing	20	3.31
5. Manpower utilisation	18	2.99
6. Water Engineering	15	2.48
7. Economics	12	1.98
8. Statistics	12	1.98
9. Energy conservation	11	1.82
10. Family planning	10	1.65
11. Demography	10	1.65
12. Community Development	10	1.65
13. Unknown	9	1.49
14. Education	9	1.49
15. Law	8	1.32
16. Computer Data	8	1.32
17. Home Economics	7	1.15
18. Labour Unions	6	0.99
19. Service Industry	5	0.82
20. Transportation	5	0.82
21. Industrial Management	5	0.82
22. Accounting	3	0.49
23. Analytical chemistry	3	0.49
24. Business Administration	3	0.49
25. General Miscellaneous	3	0.49

<u>Type of Training</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
26. General - Private	3	0.49
27. Remote Sensing	3	0.49
28. Rural roads	3	0.49
29. Public Administration	2	0.33
30. Development Planning	2	0.33
31. Forestry	2	0.33
32. Social Welfare	2	0.33
33. Sociology	2	0.33
34. Development Investment	1	0.16
35. Graphics	1	0.16
36. Nutrition	1	0.16
37. Power	1	0.16
38. Public Budgeting	1	0.16
39. Secretarial	1	0.16
40. Social Security	1	0.16
41. Supply Services	1	0.16
42. Youth Administration	1	0.16
Total	604	100

TABLE 2

USAID TRAINING 1979-1985 BY SPONSOR ORGANISATIONS

<u>Employer/Sponsoring Institution</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
1. Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock	200	33.11
2. Ministry of Cooperative Development	118	19.53
3. Agricultural Finance Corporation	62	10.26
4. Ministry of Health	33	5.46
5. Office of the President	21	3.47
6. University of Nairobi	18	2.98
7. Ministry of Transport and Communications	13	2.15
8. Ministry of Energy and Regional Development	12	1.98
9. Public Service Commission	10	1.65
10. Ministry of Labour	10	1.65
11. Ministry of Education	9	1.49
12. Ministry of Water Development	9	1.49
13. Ministry of Economic Planning	8	1.32
14. Ministry of Commerce and Industry	8	1.32
15. Ministry of Works	8	1.32
16. Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources	6	0.99
17. Ministry of Finance	6	0.99
18. Egerton College	5	0.82
19. Ministry of Local Government	4	0.66
20. Office of the Vice President and Home Affairs	4	0.66

<u>Employer/Sponsoring Institution</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
21. Judicial Department	3	0.49
22. Ministry of Constitutional Affairs	1	0.16
23. Department of Defence	1	0.16
24. Ministry of Culture	1	0.16
25. Department of Industry	1	0.16
26. Ministry of Lands	1	0.16
27. Unknown	32	5.29
Total	604	100

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF TRAINEES BY GEOGRAPHICAL
ORIGIN

<u>Origin</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
1. Nairobi	319	52.81
2. Kitale	15	2.48
3. Nakuru	15	2.48
4. Embu	13	2.15
5. Kakamega	13	2.15
6. Kisumu	10	1.65
7. Nyeri	10	1.65
8. Mombasa	9	1.49
9. Eldoret	8	1.32
10. Machakos	8	1.32
11. Muranga	6	0.99
12. Meru	6	0.99
13. Bungoma	5	0.82
14. Kabete	5	0.82
15. Kerugoya	5	0.82
16. Kisii	5	0.82
17. Kapsabet	4	0.66
18. Nyahururu	4	0.66
19. Naivasha	4	0.66
20. Karatina	4	0.66
21. Homa Bay	3	0.49
22. Kericho	3	0.49
23. Kikuyu	3	0.49
24. Kitui	3	0.49

<u>Origin</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
52. Kabarnet	1	0.16
53. Kajiado	1	0.16
54. Kangema	1	0.16
55. Kiganjo	1	0.16
56. Kilifi	1	0.16
57. Kinangop	1	0.16
58. Koru	1	0.16
59. Lamu	1	0.16
60. Limuru	1	0.16
61. Makany	1	0.16
62. Mandera	1	0.16
63. Maragoli	1	0.16
64. Maragua	1	0.16
65. Maralal	1	0.16
66. Mbabane	1	0.16
67. Muguga	1	0.16
68. Ndhiwa	1	0.16
69. Ngiya	1	0.16
70. Ngong	1	0.16
71. Nyilima	1	0.16
72. Nzauni	1	0.16
73. Ol Kalou	1	0.16
74. Ol Joro Orok	1	0.16
75. Oyugis	1	0.16
76. Saba Saba	1	0.16
77. Rogo	1	0.16

<u>Origin</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
25. Njoro	3	0.49
26. Sotik	3	0.49
27. Athi River	2	0.33
28. Bondo	2	0.33
29. Chuka	2	0.33
30. Iten	2	0.33
31. Litein	2	0.33
32. Karen	2	0.33
33. Kendu Bay	2	0.33
34. Kwale	2	0.33
35. Makindu	2	0.33
36. Malindi	2	0.33
37. Mandera	2	0.33
38. NARHS	2	0.33
39. Nanyuki	2	0.33
40. Taita	2	0.33
41. Thika	2	0.33
42. Wundanyi	2	0.33
43. Arusha	1	0.16
44. Baringo	1	0.16
45. Butere	1	0.16
46. Elisama	1	0.16
47. Emuhaya	1	0.16
48. Gabarone	1	0.16
49. Garissa	1	0.16
50. Githunguri	1	0.16
51. Isiolo	1	0.16

<u>Origin</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
78. Sakwa	1	0.16
79. Siaya	1	0.16
80. Thika	1	0.16
81. Turbo	1	0.16
82. Voi	1	0.16
83. Wajir	1	0.16
84. Webuye	1	0.16
85. Unknown	42	6.95
Total	604	100

TABLE 4

PARTICIPATING TRAINING INSTITUTIONS 1979-1985

<u>Institution</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
1. Unattached/unknown	164	27.15
2. USDA Graduate	126	20.86
3. New Mexico	31	5.13
4. West Virginia	16	2.64
5. Colorado Polytechnic	12	1.98
6. Georgetown	12	1.98
7. Bureau of Labour	11	1.82
8. University of Minnesota	10	1.65
9. University of California	9	1.49
10. World Trade Center	9	1.49
11. Texas Tech.	8	1.32
12. Indiana State	7	1.15
13. Arthur D. Little	7	1.15
14. Kansas State	7	1.15
15. University of Minneapolis	7	1.15
16. Texas A & M	7	1.15
17. Bureau of Census	6	0.99
18. Florida State University	6	0.99
19. George Washington	6	0.99
20. Harvard University	6	0.99
21. Iowa State	6	0.99
22. University of Texas	6	0.99
23. Cornell University	5	0.82
24. University of Georgia	5	0.82
25. Utah State	5	0.82

<u>Institution</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
26. Dept. of Agriculture	4	0.66
27. Colorado State	4	0.66
28. John Hopkins	4	0.66
29. Mississippi State	4	0.66
30. North Carolina	4	0.66
31. Sam Houston	4	0.66
32. University of Florida	4	0.66
33. University of Kentucky	4	0.66
34. University of Nebraska	4	0.66
35. West Illinois	4	0.66
36. Auburn University	3	0.49
37. Oklahoma State University	3	0.49
38. Southern University	3	0.49
39. Syracuse University	3	0.49
40. University of Tennessee	3	0.49
41. University of Massachussets	3	0.49
42. University of Pennsylvania	3	0.49
43. University of Pittsburgh	3	0.49
44. University of Oregon	3	0.49
45. Boston University	2	0.33
46. California State University	2	0.33
47. Georgia Institute	2	0.33
48. Michigan State	2	0.33
49. North Dakota	2	0.33
50. Ohio State	2	0.33
51. Penn State University	2	0.33
52. South Illinois	2	0.33

<u>Institution</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
53. University of Connecticut	2	0.33
54. University of Maryland	2	0.33
55. University of Texas	2	0.33
56. Utah State University	2	0.33
57. Virginia A. Polytechnic	2	0.33
58. Virginia State	2	0.33
59. Williams College	2	0.33
60. Bentley College	1	0.16
61. Environmental Protection A.	1	0.16
62. Iowa State University	1	0.16
63. Labour Department	1	0.16
64. Louisiana State	1	0.16
65. Morehead State	1	0.16
66. S.E. Oklahoma State	1	0.16
67. Social Security Dept.	1	0.16
68. Tulane University	1	0.16
69. U.S. Geological Survey	1	0.16
70. University of Michigan	1	0.16
71. Washington University	1	0.16
72. University of Wisconsin	1	0.16
Total	604	100

ATTACHMENT II

KENYAN CIVIL SERVICE MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS 1978/79-1982/83

SITUATION CADRE	NUMBER INPOST MID-1979		DESIRABLE ESTABLI- SHMENT MID-1979	DEFICIT SURPLUS MID- 1979	DESIRABLE ESTABLI- MENT MID 1983	ADDITIONAL SUPPLY REQUIRED BY 1983
	KENYAN	NON KENYAN				
DOCTORS	526	98	1022	.496	1438	912
CLINICAL OFFICERS	1004	37	1455	.451	1878	874
REGISTERED NURSES	1358	22	1653	.295	2490	1132
ENROLLED NURSES	5155	6	6846	.1691	8982	3827
DENTISTS	21	26	147	.126	198	177
DENTAL TECHNOLOGISTS	16	1	119	.103	196	180
PHARMACISTS	39	0	160	.121	248	209
PHAM TECHNOLOGISTS	227	1	667	.440	1031	804
PUBLIC HEALTH OFFICERS	329	0	363	.34	390	61
PUBLIC HEALTH TECHNICIANS	692	1	754	.62	2741	2049
AGRICULTURAL OFFICERS	527	20	825	.298	1233	706
ASST. AGRIC. OFFICERS	796	3	10549	.7847	20438	17736
VETERINARY OFFICERS	247	9	298	.51	750	503
ANIMAL HUS- BANDRY OFFICERS	62	0	150	.88	362	300
ASST. ANIMAL HUSB' OFFICERS	99	0	2000	.1901	3000	2901
ANIMAL HEALTH ASSISTANTS	1142	0	2375	.1233	8242	7100

SITUATION CADRE	NUMBER INPOST MID-1979		DESIRABLE ESTABLISH- MENT MID- 1979	DEFICIT SURPLUS MID-1979	DESIRABLE ESTABLISH- MENT MID- 1983	ADDITIONAL SUPPLY REQUIRED BY 1983
	KENYAN	NON KENYAN				
SURVEYORS/ PHOTOGRAMMET- RISTS	130	3	212	.82	842	353
SURVEY/PHOTO- GRAMS ASSTS.	1465	1	1785	.320	2334	869
CARTOGRAPHERS	141	1	223	.82	455	314
MECHANICAL ENGINEERS	32	5	80	.48	140	108
MECHANICAL INSPECTORS	225	7	332	.107	372	147
CIVIL/ROADS ENGINEERS	73	44	164	.91	480	407
CIVIL/ROADS INSPECTORS	142	4	219	.77	332	190
ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS	36	8	98	.62	177	141
ELECTRICAL INSPECTORS	90	2	202	.112	341	251
MATERIALS ENGINEERS	9	3	21	.12	31	22
STRUCTURAL ENGINEERS	29	4	36	.7	57	28
BUILDING INSPECTORS	130	23	259	.129	412	282
WATER ENGINEERS	45	45	146	.101	206	161
WATER INSPECTORS	235	3	319	.84	560	325
TELECOM. ENGINEERS	77	4	147	.70	512	435

SITUATION CADRE	NUMBER INPOST MID-1979		DESIRABLE ESTABLISH- MENT MID- 1979	DEFICIT SURPLUS MID-1979	DESIRABLE ESTABLISH- MENT MID- 1983	ADDITIONAL SUPPLY REQUIRED BY 1983
	KENYAN	NON KENYAN				
TECHNICIANS	550	83	1441	.891	3236	2686
MECHANICS	1463	0	2046	.583	3170	1707
ARTISANS	1301	0	2429	.1128	3617	2316
ARCHITECTS	76	28	270	.194	473	397
DRAUGHTSMEN	120	2	200	.80	337	217
LAB. TECHNOLOGISTS	401	13	939	.538	1425	1024
LAB. TECHNICIANS	683	5	1562	.879	2143	1460
LEGAL OFFICERS	187	22	260	.73	314	127
ECONOMISTS/ PLANNERS	41	1	67	.26	132	91
STATISTICIANS	3	0	10	.7	23	20
ACCOUNTANTS	81	1	137	.56	168	87
AUDITORS	129	5	245	.116	298	169

ATTACHMENT III

KENYA CIVIL SERVICE PROJECTED TRAINED MANPOWER SUPPLY 1979-83

CADRE \ YEAR	1979/80	1980/81	1981/82	1982/83	TOTAL SUPPLY BY 1983
DOCTORS	189	105	115	130	539
CLINICAL OFFICERS	163	110	109	109	491
REGISTERED NURSES	327	180	180	180	867
ENROLLED NURSES	1142	643	671	671	3127
DENTISTS	48	22	28	30	128
DENTAL TECHNOLOGISTS	7	5	5	5	22
PHARMACISTS	52	30	30	33	145
PHARM. TECHNOLOGISTS	45	31	31	31	138
PUBLIC HEALTH OFFICERS	39	22	22	22	105
PUBLIC HEALTH TECHN.S.	174	135	135	135	579
AGRICULTURAL OFFICERS	120	136	145	181	582
ASST. AGRIC. OFFICERS	107	120	145	160	532
AGRICULTURAL ASSTS.	274	309	282	393	1258
VETERINARY OFFICERS	30	45	61	75	211
ANIMAL HUSBANDRY OFFICERS	6	10	18	24	58
ASST. ANIMAL HUSBANDRY OFFICERS	41	32	36	36	145
ANIMAL HEALTH ASSTS.	81	63	184	72	400
SURVEYORS/ PHOTOGRAMMETRISTS	60	66	69	69	264
SURVEY/PHOTOGRAM. ASSTS.	286	141	140	134	701
CARTOGRAPHERS	20	22	25	26	93
MECHANICAL ENGINEERS	16	20	21	23	80
MECHANICAL INSPECTORS	44	35	31	23	133

CADRE \ YEAR	1979/80	1980/81	1981/82	1982/83	TOTAL SUPPLY BY 1983
CIVIL/ROADS ENGINEERS	17	21	26	28	92
CIVIL/ROADS INSPECTORS	19	25	25	25	94
ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS	19	21	23	26	89
ELECTRICAL INSPECTORS	16	12	12	12	52
MATERIAL ENGINEERS	2	2	2	3	9
STRUCTURAL ENGINEERS	7	7	7	7	28
BUILDING INSPECTORS	26	40	40	40	146
WATER ENGINEERS	40	40	40	40	161
WATER INSPECTORS	90	46	46	46	228
TELECOM. ENGINEERS	16	26	30	40	112
TECHNICIANS	181	137	120	170	608
MECHANICS	47	143	74	77	341
ARTISANS	234	292	268	262	1056
ARCHITECTS	12	10	10	9	41
DRAUGHTSMEN	25	19	21	21	86
LAB. TECHNOLOGISTS	91	87	83	84	345
LAB. TECHNICIANS	136	106	106	100	448
LEGAL OFFICERS	16	13	12	12	53
ECONOMISTS/PLANNERS	8	16	23	23	64
STATISTICIANS	3	5	4	4	16
ACCOUNTANTS	9	14	12	14	49
AUDITORS	24	22	22	22	90

ATTACHMENT IV

HIGH LEVEL POSITIONS ADVERTISED IN FRIDAY DN 1ST FEBRUARY TO
31ST JANUARY 1986

	LAW	COMP- UTER	HOTEL	AGRIC ULTURE	MEDI- CINE	ACCOUNT- ING	MANAGE- MENT	ENGI- NEERING	TOTAL
FEB. 1985	1	3	3	9	14	26	8	17	81
MARCH	3	3	1	3	4	34	6	20	74
APRIL	5	2	8	2	3	20	8	9	57
MAY	0	7	9	7	10	39	11	16	99
JUNE	0	4	2	6	3	42	9	20	86
JULY	2	2	9	9	12	38	9	20	101
AUG.	1	1	3	6	11	35	16	27	100
SEPT.	1	2	1	1	6	35	5	21	72
OCT.	3	1	1	4	3	27	7	17	63
NOV.	0	3	11	5	15	43	16	35	128
DEC.	0	2	6	4	3	22	9	20	66
JAN. 1986	2	6	6	9	11	44	12	33	127
TOTAL	18	36	60	65	95	405	116	255	1050

ATTACHMENT V

MEDIUM LEVEL POSITIONS ADVERTISED ON FRIDAY DN 1ST FEBRUARY
TO JANUARY 1986

	PROFESSIONAL LOW	TECHNICAL LOW	TOTAL
FEB. 1985	12	9	21
MARCH	1	5	6
APRIL	2	12	14
MAY	8	12	20
JUNE	8	8	16
JULY	5	11	16
AUGUST	6	9	15
SEPT.	4	6	10
OCT.	3	7	10
NOV.	15	19	34
DEC.	4	12	16
JAN. 1986	5	17	22

ATTACHMENT VI

MOST ADVERTISED TRAINING PROGRAMS BY PRIVATE SECTOR COMMERCIAL
FIRMS: FRIDAY ISSUES DAILY NATION FEB. 1, 1985 TO
JANUARY 31, 1986*

1. Diploma, TelOperator/Reception
2. Salesmanship, Storekeeping, Purchasing & Supply, Sales Promotion, Marketing
3. Computer Training
4. Word Processing
5. Dressmaking/Embroidery/Fashion Design
6. Electrical/Electronics
7. Catering
8. Automobile Engineering
9. Motor Vehicle Mechanics
10. Architecture/Draughtmanship
11. Shipping, Clearing, Forwarding and Declaration
12. Craft Course
13. Technician Course
14. Commercial Art/Interior Textile Design
15. Auto-electrical, Motor, Radio and TV
16. Building Technology
17. I.A.T.A. - Travel and Tours/Fares/Ticketing/Reservation/Tours/Airfares
18. Accounts ACNC Banking
19. Cookery

* Not in frequency order

ATTACHMENT VII

DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING: 1984 ACTIVITIES

	Apprenti- ceship	Craft/ Technician	Local Management	Overseas Training
Building	267	203	52	1 (Electroplating)
Plantation	168	108	612	6 (Management)
Printing	19	3	137	2 (Management)
Engineering	500	277	106	19 (11 Electronics 8 Plastic Technology)
Commercial/ Insurance	9	8	1110	5 (Insurance)
Sawmilling	56	2	17	0
Food Processing	77	57	390	11 (Food Technologists)
Chemical/ General Manufacturing	68	17	915	40 (Management)
Motor	248	196	336	18 (Management)
Textile	132	94	489	33 (Textile Technicians)
Banks	9	1	363	7 (Management)
Total	1554	966	4527	142

ATTACHMENT VIII

DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING: 1984 SECTOR TRAINING INCOME
AND EXPENDITURE

Sector	Income	Expenditure	I-E
Building	2,465,173.60	5,457,680.70	-
Motor	3,301,247.55	2,652,007.55	+
Printing	957,479.70	2,287,212.05	-
Engineering	5,497,987.30	5,391,414.10	+
Commercial	2,284,801.55	5,331,510.90	-
Sawmilling	1,810,170.95	1,345,590.95	+
Plantations	1,562,357.45	2,958,377.40	-
Textiles	5,985,396.05	15,212,125.75	-
Chemical	5,543,639.60	4,897,967.75	+
Food Processing	3,663,615.30	5,815,195.30	-
Banks	3,965,331.75	3,898,607.75	+

ATTACHMENT IX

FKE MEMBERSHIP 1984

<u>Associations</u>	<u>No.</u>
1. Association of Local Government Employers	65
2. Pharmaceutical Industry	5
3. Distributive and Allied Trader Association	46
4. Kenya Association of Hotel-keepers and Caterers	122
5. Engineering and Allied Industries Employers Association	33
6. Kenya Association of Building and Civil Engineering Contractors	252
7. Motor Trade and Allied Industries Employers Association	51
8. The Kenya Bankers (Employers) Association	20
9. Commercial Banks	6
10. Agricultural Employers Association (150 members)	394
11. Kenya Coffee Growers Association (215 Registered Estates)	45
12. Kenya Sugar Employers Union (18 members)	1
13. Kenya Tea Growers' Association (49 members)	1
14. Sisal Growers and Employers Association (20 members)	20
15. Nairobi Petrol Stations Association	34
16. Timber Industries Employers Association Urban and Rural	34
17. Timber and Furniture Manufacturers Employers Group - Kisumu	2
18. Kenya Vehicle Assemblers Association	3
19. Textiles Manufacturers Association of Kenya	15
20. Kenya Association of Air Operators	20
Total	1169

Companies

1. Accountancy, Company Secretaries etc.	17
2. Advocates	2
3. Advertising Agency etc.	5
4. Airways and Aerial Work	27
5. Architects and Consulting Engineers	15

<u>Companies (cont'd)</u>	<u>No.</u>
6. Baking, Biscuit Making and Confectionery	4
7. Booksellers, News Agents etc.	3
8. Building Society	16
9. Blacksmiths, Locksmiths etc.	1
10. Distilling Group	3
11. Brewing and Bottling	13
12. Book-makers	2
13. Building Construction, Civil Engineering and Decorators	21
14. Chemicals and Non-metallic Industries	55
15. Kenya Paint Manufacturers Group	5
16. Charitable and Religious Organisations	37
17. Chemists etc.	5
18. Clubs, Societies etc.	31
19. Nairobi Coach Builders Group	9
20. Communications, Broadcasting etc.	4
21. Cooperatives	37
22. Quarry Owners Association	11
23. Cargo Handling	1
24. Tally Contractors	3
25. Diplomatic Missions	1
26. Domestic Cleaners and Fumigators	5
27. Education	26
28. Driving School	1
29. Electronic Group of F.K.E.	3
30. Engineering - Minor Engineering Employers' Group of F.K.E.	39
31. Engineering (miscellaneous)	62
32. Electrical Engineering	7
33. Electrical Engineering & Automobile (miscellaneous and marine electronics)	34
34. Entertainment	1
35. Mombasa Cinema Owners Group	4
36. Nairobi Theatre Employers	3
37. Farms and Ranching	12
38. Finance	14
39. Food Manufacturers and Distributors	59

	<u>No.</u>
<u>Companies</u> (cont'd)	
40. Furniture Group of F.K.E.	31
41. Florists	1
42. Garages	18
43. Kisumu General Engineering Employers Group	10
44. Hairdressers and Saloons	3
45. Hospitals	26
46. Hotels, Coffee and Bars	27
47. Night-clubs and Cultural Centres	1
48. Insurance	31
49. Jewellery	3
50. Laundries, Dyers and Dry-cleaners	8
51. Manufacturers	130
52. Manufacturers Representatives	15
53. Marketing	5
54. Muranga Merchants Group	2
55. Thika Merchants Group	3
56. Mining, quarrying, Brick Manufacturers, Stone Dressing and Supplying	23
57. Musical	3
58. Museum	1
59. News Agencies	1
60. Office Machines and Equipment Printers and Stationers	16
61. Printing Trades Group of Federation of Kenya Employers	55
62. Paper Merchants Association (EA)	3
63. Paper Manufacturers (miscellaneous)	7
64. Precast Concrete Products	3
65. Petroleum Joint Industrial for the Oil Industry	9
66. Photographic etc.	8
67. Power and Light	1
68. Personnel Training Consultants	9
69. Plantations (miscellaneous)	1
70. Property Owners	2

	<u>No.</u>
<u>Companies</u> (cont'd)	
71. Racing Horse Breeders and Training Gamblings etc.	2
72. Real Estate Agents	12
73. Investments and Management	3
74. Animal, Bird Dealers, Game Trappers and Research etc.	6
75. Retail Shops	48
76. Road Transport, Removals, Packing, Storage, Clearing, Ware-housing, Shipping and Water Transporters etc.	55
77. Spray, painters and Panel Beaters	5
78. Security Services	17
79. Safari Outfitters	1
80. Services	8
81. Schemer-Irrigations	1
82. Saw-millers	1
83. Kisumu Service Stations Group	2
84. Mombasa Service Stations Group	1
85. Shipping Employers Group	9
86. Shoemaking, Tanning and Leather Working	14
87. Secretarial Bureau Services	6
88. Textile Working Spinning and Weaving	2
89. Blanket Manufacturers Group	45
90. Clothing Industries Mass Production Group	59
91. Soap and Silicate	5
92. Stockbrokers, Tea Brokers etc.	3
93. Shop fitting and Designers	1
94. Supplies to Armed Forces	2
95. Surveyors and Chartered etc.	7
96. Taxidemists (miscellaneous)	1
97. Tent and Canvas Goods Manufacturers Group	5
98. Tobacco Manufacturers	2
99. Travel Agents, Tour Operators and Self-drive Cars	26

	<u>No.</u>
<u>Companies (cont'd)</u>	
100. Wholesalers, Distributors, Importers and Exporters	68
101. Sugar Employers Group	8
102. Materials Testing	1
103. Tailors of Made-to-Measure Suits etc.	1
104. Member Schools of the Kindergarten - Headmistresses Association	<u>54</u>
Total	<u><u>1515</u></u>

ATTACHMENT X

MANAGEMENT TRAINING ACTIVITIES - GTI, MOMBASA (USAID)

The following is a list of training events, either carried out by USAID, GTI-Mombasa or both institutions, in collaboration, designed to meet local authority training needs. GTI has been designated as a local authority training centre by DPM and MLG, and USAID has invested resources and time in GTI to assist in its institution development efforts. District Focus workshops are listed because they have included local authority officials and because District Focus plays such a major role in the allocation of resources at the local level.

I. Training programs co-sponsored by GTI/USAID

<u>Type of Training</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Origin of Participants</u>	<u>Duration</u>	<u>Date</u>
Training of Trainers (TOT) Advanced Management	GTI, Mombasa	20 from LA., 9 from GTI	2 weeks	Dec. 1984
Follow-up TOT	Eden Roc Malindi	25 from LA., 9 from GTI	10 days	March 1985
Executive Development Program	Eden Roc Malindi	22 from LA., 8 from GTI	3 days	March 1985
LAPD Review No. 1	Nyahururu	20 from LA.,	3 days	May 1985
LAPD Review No. 2	Eden Roc Malindi	22 from LA.,	1 week	Sept. 1985
Hawkers Conference	Nairobi UN.	70 from LA., NGOs	3 days	Sept. 1985
Urban Management (Co-sponsored with UN/HABITAT)	UN, Gigiri	30 from LA., 11 countries	4 weeks	Oct-Nov. '85
Supervisory TOT	GTI Mombasa	16 from LA., 9 from GTI	1 week	Feb. 1986
District Focus	Kilifi Eden Roc	60	1 week	Jan. 1986
District Focus	Kwale Dist. Eden Roc	50	1 week	Feb. 1986

Type of Training	Location	Origin of Participants	Duration	Date
Financial Mgt. Revenue Gen.	Eldoret	28 LAs.	1 week	Aug. 1985
Financial Mgt. Revenue Gen.	Kakamega	32 LAs.	1 week	Nov. 1985
Financial Mgt. Planning and Budgeting	Kakamega	28 LAs.	1 week	Nov. 1985
Financial Mgt. Planning and Budgeting	Kericho	28 LAs.	1 week	March 1985

II. Training Programs Sponsored only by USAID

Type of Training	Location	Origin of Participants	Duration	Date
Financial Mgt./MLG	Nakuru	16 from LA.,	3 days	Jan. 1984
Workshop on Low Cost Housing and Planning Standards	25 NCC	NCC Personnel	3 days	1984
Sanitation Standards	Dudúville	40 LA., and NHC	3 days	May 1985
NHC Workshop Site and Service and low cost Housing	Nairobi	36 NHC prof. staff	3 days	Oct. 1984
Organisation development workshop NCC Housing dev. department staff	Limuru	20 manage- ment personnel	3 days	Scheduled for March 1986

III. Training Programs Sponsored by GTI but Influenced by USAID'S Involvement with them

Type of training	Location	Origin of Participants	Duration	Date
Supervision Development Course No. 1	Mombasa	25 Mombasa Mun. Council	1 week	Aug. 1985
Supervision Development Course No. 2	Mombasa	25 Mombasa Council	1 week	Oct. 1985
District Focus	Mombasa District.	50	3 days	Oct. 1984
District Focus	Kanamai Dist. Div.	25	1 week	June 1985
District Focus	Kanamai Dist. Level	35	1 week	June 1985
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Committee Mombasa Dist.	40	1 week	Sept. 1985
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Kitui	50	1 week	Oct. 1985
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Committee Taita Dist.	33	3 days	Jan. 1986
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Tana River	30	30 days	Jan. 1986

FUTURE SCHEDULED WORKSHOPS

Type of Training	Location	Origin of Participants	Duration	Date
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Embu	50	3 days	Aug. 1986
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Machakos	50	1 week	Oct. 1986
Supervision Dev. No. 3	GTI	25 Mombasa Mun. Council	1 week	Apr. 1986
Supervision Dev. No. 4	GTI	25 various Mun. Councils	1 week	July 1986
Supervision Dev. No. 5	GTI	25 various councils	1 week	Oct. 1986
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Committee Lamu	50	3 days	March 1986
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Garissa	50	3 days	Apr. 1986
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Wajir District	50	3 days	June 1986
District Focus	Dist. Exec. Mandera	50	3 days	June 1986
Financial Mgt. Expenditure	Eldoret	to be arranged		-----
Financial Mgt. Admin. and Auditing	-----	to be arranged		-----
Financial Mgt.	-----	to be arranged		-----

ATTACHMENT VIII

MANAGEMENT TRAINING ACTIVITIES: VADA/NGO SUPPORT PROJECT (USAID)

1. INTRODUCTION

A cross section of NGOs surveyed by VADA shows that their middle and senior management need training in management and other specialised fields which are related to the development activities they undertake. The NGO personnel need to be trained in order to acquire relevant skills, knowledge and attitudes that are necessary to carry out the tasks effectively for the realisation of organisational mission. VADA has therefore embarked on providing institutional support to the NGOs, through training and advisory services. These services are tailored for the NGOs with an objective of improving their efficiency and effectiveness in carrying out their development activities. The training needs of NGOs can be identified by looking at what is expected of their performance as well as current performance level and whether it is in line with their overall objective.

By undertaking NGO sector survey, VADA has recognised various general training needs of most of the NGOs. VADA is therefore offering training in the following areas, which most, if not all of the NGOs require training in:

- a) Organisational development - this will entail training in personnel management, departmental organisation, reporting procedures and other areas which help the organisation achieve their objectives.
- b) Financial Management - this includes good financial systems, planning and monitoring the use of resources.
- c) Project development - this includes training in all stages from project identification through project monitoring and evaluation.
- d) Technical - training is offered to cover all the technical aspects of project development especially in various sectors like Agriculture, Water, Sanitation, Health, Energy, etc.
- e) Training is also offered in leadership development.

It is expected that if training in the above areas is well mounted to cater for the needs of NGOs, the personnel performance in this sector could be greatly enhanced.

II. PROCESS OF IDENTIFYING TRAINING NEEDS

Many NGOs, especially those of Kenyan origin have acute management problems. Various studies testify to this fact. The problem may not be lack of manpower but the lack of certain skills and training to develop the required skills by the persons who man these organisations.

VADA in consultation with many NGOs has recognised the problem and has designed training sessions, in the relevant areas, to incorporate an evaluative process of the needs of NGOs. This is done during the training sessions as well as advisory services or consultancies that VADA provides to individual NGOs. The training sessions are provided in form of seminars and workshops whereby the NGOs' participants share experiences and are requested to point out the problems they encounter when undertaking their activities. The advisory or consultancy services are provided to individual NGOs and these services are very instrumental in identifying or learning the needs of individual NGOs as well as individuals who require training. This process or approach will help to develop a dynamic picture which will show the needs for training as they change over time.

VADA's approach to training in form of seminars and workshops is short-term; the services take 3 days to a maximum of 2 weeks duration. The consultancies provided to individual NGOs take a maximum of 6 weeks but could be longer with special arrangements. VADA therefore, views the proposed training as a linkage between short-term and long-term training. It is our hope that the proposed training of 3 to 6 months will be complimentary to the short-term, 3 day to 2 weeks sessions. VADA welcomes the proposed training and sees itself in the forefront of preparing the trainees for a relatively longer training sessions.

VADA is in a unique position to identify individuals and specific training needs and could advise on designing the right kind of program. This has been possible due to the wide range of support services that VADA provides to the NGOs as well as consultations

with them whereby experiences are shared and needs expressed. The type of training programmes to be organised for the NGOs would therefore depend on the needs identified and the tasks that should be performed.

The training programmes should be seen to respond to these needs. The duration of the courses should vary with training needs as well as time available for different levels of NGO personnel.

III. OTHER CONSIDERATIONS

VADA outlines here below some criteria that could be used to select trainees for the proposed longer programs. This outline is subject to adjustment, for as mentioned earlier, NGOs activities change constantly and thus the need to have flexible criteria. These suggested criteria are tentative and VADA would be ready to discuss them further if required.

Selection Criteria

NGOs:

It may be necessary to note that not all NGOs may be eligible due to the nature of activities they undertake. The following factors may be considered in selecting the NGOs for the training:

- a) Those engaged in relevant Development Activities preferably in rural areas and urban poor.
- b) Kenya and U.S. NGOs (PVOs)
- c) Innovative in its approach to development.
- d) Demonstrated capability (or experience) to deal or interact with the beneficiaries.
- e) Those which show interest in areas which are inadequately served by the formal and informal establishments and enhance the welfare of the people they reach.

Trainees Selection Criteria

We can look at the categories of trainees who could benefit from a training programme before suggesting a criterion for selecting them.

1. Trainees Categories:

These are basically two when considering the NGOs to benefit.

- a) Top-level managers of NGOs
- b) Middle level managers - these could be those in charge of:
 - Finances
 - Project or Programmes
 - Administration
 - Technical

2. Selection Criteria for Top Managers

For a top manager to qualify for training, he/she should fulfil the following requirements:

- a) Relevant experience with the NGO. He should have worked for that NGO for a reasonable period.
- b) He should have a minimum academic qualification, preferably form four level with some years of experience and/or some professional training in the activities of the NGOs that he/she is heading.
- c) Should be of the age that is conducive for training. An age of 50 or above would not benefit from NGO very much.
- d) Dynamic with a positive attitude towards his/her work and training.

3. Criteria for Middle Level Managers

- a) Should possess the requirements stated above.
- b) Should show genuine positive commitment in the NGO sector.
- c) Should have specialisation or a bias towards specialisation.
- d) Should exhibit some talents that make him/her be prepared for leadership of the NGO (in other words the candidate should show aptitude and attitude, initiative and ambition).

Top Management:

A maximum of three months course should be adequate for the top persons. This is because of their busy schedule and amount of responsibility they hold.

Middle Level and Technical Staff:

Courses of the duration ranging from 3-6 months would be reasonable. These have to cover more concepts for they are more or less technically oriented.

Award:

Graded certificates should be awarded for the successful completion of the courses. This would give them (certificates) recognition.

VADA feels that the courses would be more helpful if the participants were drawn from various economies, that is from the developed economies' NGOs and developing countries' NGOs. This will bring in a wealth of experiences that will widen the exposure.

ATTACHMENT XII

KENYA ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS, MEMBERSHIP BY I.S.I.C. CLASSIFICATION, 1985

I S I C. No.	Sector Description	No. of Firms
3111	Slaughtering, preparing and preserving of meat	4
3112	Manufacture of dairy products	3
3113	Canning and preserving of fruit and vegetables	10
3114	Canning, preserving and processing of fish	-
3115	Manufacture of vegetables and animal oils and fats	10
3116	Grain mill products	14
3117	Manufacture of bakery products	7
3118	Sugar factories and refineries	10
3119	Manufacture of cocoa, chocolate and sugar confectionery	9
3121	Manufacture of food products n.e.c.	29
3122	Manufacture of prepared animal feeds	5
3131	Distilling, rectifying & blending of spirits	3
3133	Malt liquors and malt	1
3134	Soft drinks and carbonated waters industries	11
3140	Tobacco Manufacture	1
3211	Spinning, weaving and finishing textiles	15
3212	Manufacture of made-up textile goods (except wearing apparel)	10
3213	Knitting Mills	6
3215	Cordage rope & twine industries	3
3216	Cotton ginning and ginneries	-
3219	Manufacture of textile n.e.c.	1
3220	Manufacture of wearing apparel (except footwear)	48
3231	Tanneries and leather finishing	3
3233	Manufacture of leather products (except footwear and wearing apparel)	4
3240	Manufacture of footwear	1
3311	Sawmills, planing and other wood mills	7
3312	Manufacture of wooden containers including carvings	2
3319	Manufacture of wood and cork products n.e.c.	10
3320	Manufacture of furniture and fixtures (except primarily of metal)	20

I S I C. No.	Sector Description	No. of Firms
3411	Manufacture of pulp, paper and paperboard	2
3419	Manufacture of pulp, paper and paperboard articles	12
3420	Printing, publishing and allied industries	20
3511	Manufacture of basic industrial chemical (excluding fertilizer)	11
3512	Pyrethrum extraction	1
3513	Wattle bark extraction	2
3514	Manufacture of fertilizer and pesticides	6
3520		1
3521	Manufacture of paints, varnishes and lacquers	12
3522	Manufacture of drugs and medicines	27
3523	Manufacture of soap, perfumes, cosmetics and other toilet preparations	32
3529	Manufacture of chemical products n.e.c.	30
3550	Manufacture of rubber products	14
3560	Manufacture of plastic products	33
3610	Manufacture of pottery, china and earthenware	1
3620	Manufacture of glass and glass products	4
3691	Manufacture of structural clay products	1
3692	Manufacture of cement lime and plaster	4
3699	Manufacture of non-metallic products n.e.c.	24
3700	Basic metal industries	6
3811	Manufacture of cutlery, hand tools and general hardware	6
3812	Manufacture of furniture and fixtures primarily of metal	16
3813	Manufacture of structural metal products	35
3819	Manufacture of fabricated metal products n.e.c.	75
3820	Manufacture of machinery (except electrical)	15
3830	Manufacture of electrical machinery, apparatus, appliances and supplies	29
3841	Ship building and repairing	1
3843	Manufacturing and assembly of motor vehicles	6
3844	Manufacture of motorcycles and bicycles	1
3845	Manufacture of aircraft and repair	1
3850	Manufacture of professional and scientific equipment, and optical goods	1
3900	Other manufacturing industries	31

K.A.M. PROPOSAL FOR DONOR SUPPORT

A PROGRAMME OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT FOR PROMOTING
SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIAL AND MANUFACTURING ENTERPRISES
IN KENYA

1. BACKGROUND AND JUSTIFICATION

Since the independence of Kenya and especially starting around the late nineteen sixties, there has been a remarkable growth and expansion of the private small-scale industrial and manufacturing enterprises in our country. The small-scale manufacturing sector is making very substantial contribution to the socio-economic development of the economy. Thanks to the government for recognising the importance of this sector and hence supporting it.

The Kenya Association of Manufacturers was privately conceived and initiated to provide essential services such as coordination, advice, assistance and support to the development and promotion of the manufacturing sector. The role and mission of the Kenya Association of Manufacturers is to help the manufacturing enterprises to become economically viable, competitive and self-sustaining organs of economic growth of our nation. Some of the several hundred of manufacturing enterprises registered with the Association are now capable of producing commodities for both the domestic and the export markets. This is quite an achievement during the first two decades of the independence of the Kenyan people.

The majority of the small-scale manufacturing firms which were started after independence and particularly those that were initiated by the Wananchi came into existence in a very simple and humble way. Most of those people who pioneered into starting these enterprises had neither the requisite technology nor enough capital. Nevertheless, despite lack of sufficient capital and other resources, these enterprises were started and have been managed by people most of whom have very low formal educational background and their industrial experience is very minimal.

Although there are hundred of small-scale industrial and manufacturing firms in the small-scale enterprise sector and they have considerable scope and potential for growth and expansion, the Kenya Association of Manufacturers is concerned about their present performance and future growth and expansion.

Most of these enterprises were started by pioneers and entrepreneurs who did not secure gainful employment with the government or with the large-scale industrial establishments. Some enterprises were started by people who retired from public or private establishment. Whether or not the pioneers of small-scale industrial and manufacturing enterprises are people who retired but felt they could keep themselves busy after retirement or are people who failed to secure salaried employment because they could not have adequate formal educational qualifications or are successful businessmen who thought they could diversify the motivation to pursue one's own gainful self-employment, it has given birth to several hundreds of such enterprises. Such enterprises are not only producing valuable commodities and services but have also created opportunities for fulfilling personal goals of economic achievements which in turn is a major source of rewards, initiative and creativity. The future thrust of the nation's economy will continue to thrive upon this sort of achievement motivation and self-drive.

The hundreds of industrialists, entrepreneurs and owner managers of small-scale industrial and manufacturing ventures in Kenya today are the first generation of a class of people that Kenya can rightfully claim as being really indigenous. They have done a good job although some of the enterprises have not operated as efficiently and profitably as they should. It is because these people have very limited knowledge and techniques of modern business management. This impinges upon the present performance of these enterprises and is a serious draw back of future performance in this sector.

The present growth and future expansion of the small-scale manufacturing firms will depend on the execution of the free enterprise policy of the government and more so on the efficient and capable management of these enterprises. Short of adequate management capabilities, the small-scale manufacturing enterprises will fail to grow and spread in proportion to the growth of the Kenyan economy. Appropriate management capabilities to manage these enterprises will seldom come by unless the industrialists, entrepreneurs and owner managers are exposed to modern business management training and retraining.

The Kenyan Association of Manufacturers has realized that there is lack of business management knowledge and skills in marketing, production, finance and personnel management in small-scale manufacturing enterprises. Lack of management know-how cripples productivity and efficiency of these enterprises and unless management training is given it will be very

difficult to raise the performance of those enterprises; hence their future development can seriously be affected. In view of that, KAM is proposing a training and development programme that is believed can enhance management capabilities of the small-scale industrial and manufacturing enterprises.

2. THE NATURE OF SCOPE OF THE PROGRAMME

A systematically developed action-training and development programme that can promote and enhance techno-economic efficiency and managerial competence in small-scale manufacturing enterprises.

Such a programme will be executed for a period of 3-5 years starting 1986. It is a programme that should be capable of raising general management and supervisory skills of industrialists, entrepreneurs and owner managers who are operating industrial and manufacturing enterprises without any formal business management training.

The programme will consist of a series of interrelated training and development activities which can be organised into a systems approach to the improvement of general and specialist management skills. Such activities may be viewed as specific projects and sub-projects that can engender a total system effect. For example, the design of a series of short training course of 1-2 weeks and development of training materials all based on training needs assessment can be made for 40-50 companies registered with the KAM while the course is being conducted.

The initial design of the small-scale enterprise management training series or modules will be made in consultation with members of the Association so that the priority training areas can be established. Then course material and course notes can be developed to meet the knowledge requirements of each module. After that the course modules will be run in form of sandwich courses and while running the courses the training needs and skill gaps will be clarified in classroom and while the participants are back in their work. Continuous assessment of such needs will feedback into the programme design and training material refinement. Development and improvement of the whole training system will be supported by consultancy and research services through discussion and advice at the plant or company premises where then management and organisational problems are diagnosed and courses of action taken and so on.

The business management training courses will have to be tailored to meet training needs of the industrialists, entrepreneurs and other managers. The courses have to be skill oriented, simple and relevant to the people with low but diverse educational and experiential backgrounds.

In the context of this proposal, it is envisaged that the training modules will cover such areas as follows:

1. MARKETING AND SALES MANAGEMENT
2. PRODUCTION MANAGEMENT
3. FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT
4. ACCOUNTING AND BOOK-KEEPING
5. INVENTORY AND MATERIALS MANAGEMENT
6. OPERATIONS AND PLANT MAINTENANCE
7. PERSONNEL AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS
8. INVESTMENT ANALYSIS

An adequate coverage of disciplines such as the above ones will require continuous assessment of training needs and continuous refinement of the relevant training materials during training as well as through plant visits and discussions. Finally, this activity will lead to development of course materials and teach yourself business publications. The programme will be in two phases. Each phase will be of 2 years duration. Main reason for viewing the programme into phases is the fact that some industrialists, owners and entrepreneurs are fluent in English and can follow courses in English provided the medium of instruction is in simplified English. But other industrialists and owner managers are fluent in Kiswahili and cannot follow a course with English as the medium of instruction and therefore theirs has to be conducted in Kiswahili. But teaching business management in the 8 disciplines above in Kiswahili is a big challenge and therefore it would be advisable to use the experiences of the English phase to develop the Kiswahili phase of this programme. At the end of each phase business management training manuals will be developed, the first in English and the second in Kiswahili and both based on Kenyan experiences.

Phase one of this programme will be 1986-1987 and phase two 1988-1989. There is an overlap during 1987-1988 of one year during which translation work from English to Kiswahili has to be started on the basis of experimental courses in Kiswahili in preparation for the second phase.

During the implementation of the two phases a special Action Research sub-project will be undertaken by the trainers/consultants of the programme. The expectation of the Kenya Association of Manufacturers with regards to improvement of managerial skills and efficiency in small-scale manufacturing enterprises is both short-term and long-term. In the short-term which is actually the two phases of this programme, our main focus is overall improvement of managerial and organisational skills necessary to raise performance standards in small-scale manufacturing enterprises.

In the longer-term which is beyond 1989, we will emerge as a result of the 4 years of experience with this proposal. For example, the need to have Mobile Small-Scale Enterprise Extension Services for provision of advisory management services to industrialists, entrepreneurs and owner-managers. The special case of women entrepreneurs would have received more pronounced impact during the implementation phase and through the Action Research project. The thousands of Kenyan women entrepreneurs and industrialists are a big asset to the nation and at some stage they would warrant a special attention by the KAM. These are some of the predictions KAM can make with regard to the future of this proposed programme although the concern at present is the improvement of business management skill gaps during 1986-1989, the four years of the programme.

3. PROGRAMME OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this programme is to help improve management capabilities of small-scale manufacturing enterprises which are registered with the Kenya Association of Manufacturers in order to enhance technological and managerial efficiency of these enterprises so that they can contribute much more to the economic development of Kenya.

In more specific terms, the proposed training and development programme will expose owners, managers and entrepreneurs of small-scale manufacturing industries to training and development activities they never had before. They would upgrade their knowledge, skills and techniques of effective business management of small-scale manufacturing enterprises.

At the end of the programme the industrialists, entrepreneurs and owner managers of small-scale manufacturing enterprises would be capable of:

- (i) Conceptualizing the businesses they are doing both in terms of environmental dynamics affecting their businesses and the internal strengths and weaknesses they ought to do something about in order to improve their business performance.
- (ii) Planning and controlling the operations of their enterprises to accomplish clearer business goals of profitability, growth and survival.
- (iii) Analysing problems and constraints which affect marketing, production and financial performance of their enterprises as well as taking proper action and decisions to improve their human resources management.
- (iv) Applying techniques of marketing, production, accounting, financial and human relations skills to improve the various aspects of business management of their enterprises.
- (v) Developing more self-confidence in their management approaches to business and improved styles in managing and supervising their subordinates.

4. TARGET GROUPS

Owners, managers, industrialists, entrepreneurs and supervisors of about 50 small-scale manufacturing enterprises registered with KAM. Assuming there will be 3-5 such persons from each company who should attend the programme, the number to be trained is between 150 to 250 people, say 200 private small-scale business executives.

The 200 executives of small-scale manufacturing enterprises cannot be trained all at once, they will have to be trained in batches of 25 in a series of courses totalling 8 in number and within the four years of the programme.

5. COURSE STRUCTURE AND METHODOLOGY

The complete course is twelve weeks consisting of 8 modules as shown hereunder:

Module: 1:	Marketing and Sales Management	2 weeks
2:	Production Management	2 weeks
3:	Financial Management	1 week
4:	Accounting and Book-keeping	2 weeks
5:	Inventory and Materials Management	1 week
6:	Operations and Plant Maintenance	1 week
7:	Personnel and Industrial Relations	2 weeks
8:	Investment Analysis	<u>1 week</u>
	Total	<u>12 weeks</u>

The executives will come to say the Marketing and Sales Management Module for two weeks classroom training 5 days a week, Monday through Friday. After the two weeks they will go back to their companies and with the assistance of the trainers begin to apply the newly acquired knowledge in their business. Life application of the new knowledge and skills will take two weeks as well. During the life application the trainers and consultants will follow-up on the participants partly to assist them to utilise the new knowledge and partly to assess skill gaps and business problems or managerial problems in the field of marketing and sales management. The needs assessment will help improve and refine the same course which will be run for other batches of executives later.

After this module has been covered both in class and on-the-job application, the executives will come to the second module of Production Management for two weeks followed by another two weeks of life application of the module in their companies. This general structure will apply to all modules. A module of 2 weeks will require 2 weeks life application and that of one week will also require one week application.

On completion of the 8 modules each executive would have covered 12 weeks of formal classroom business training and 12 weeks of practical application.

The classroom business management training will be conducted following the approach as follows:

- 1st Plenary (a) Concept Presentation i.e. short lectures on concepts lasting from 30-45 minutes with questions and discussions.

- Group Discussion (b) Application of Concepts in solving problems and short case studies lasting another 45 minutes to one hour.
- 2nd Plenary (c) Recapitulation and wrap up of individual sessions.

The course will therefore have to be highly participative, discussion based with short exercises to test understanding and application in their business management.

6. IMPLEMENTATION SCHEDULE OF THE PROGRAMME

PHASE ONE (January 1986 to Decembr 1987.

Training the 1st Batch of 25-30 Business Executives.

Marketing and Sales Management Module

January 13-24, 1986: Classroom Training
January 27-February 7: Life Application and follow up.

Production Management Module

February 10-21, 1986: Classroom Training
February 24-March 7: Life application and follow up

Financial Management Module

March 10-14, 1986: Classroom training
March 17-21 : Life application and follow up

Accounting and Book-keeping Module

March 24-April 4, 1986: Classroom Training
April 7-April 18, : Life application and follow up.

Inventory and Materials Management Module

April 21-25, 1986: Life application and follow up.

Operations and Plant Maintenance Module

May 5-9, 1986: Classroom training
May 12-23 : Life application and follow up.

Personnel and Industrial Relations Module

May 26-June 6, 1986: Classroom training
June 9-June 20 : Life application and follow
up

Investment Analysis Module

June 23-27, 1986: Classroom training
June 20-July 4 : Life application and follow up

Training the 2nd Batch of 25-30 Business Executives

Marketing and Sales Module

July 7-18, 1986: Classroom training
July 21-1st August: Life application and follow up.

Production Management Module

August 4-15, 1986: Classroom training
August 18-29 : Life application and follow up

Financial Management Module

September 1-5, 1986: Classroom training
September 8-12, : Life application and follow up

Accounting and Book-keeping Module

September 15-26, 1986: Classroom training
September 29-10 October: Life application and
follow up

Inventory and Materials Management Module

October 13-17, 1986: Classroom training
October 20-24 : Life application and
follow up.

Operations and Plant Maintenance Module

October 27-31, 1986: Classroom training
November 3-7, : Life application and
follow up

Personnel and Industrial Relations Module

November 10-21, 1986: Classroom training
November 24-December 5: Life application and
follow up

Investment Analysis Module

December 6-12, 1986: Classroom training
December 15-19 : Life application and
follow up.

Training the 3rd Batch of 25-30 Business Executives

January-June, 1987: Following the pattern of
the previous year.

Training the 4th Batch of 25-30 Business Executives

July-December 1987: Following the pattern of
the previous year.

By the end of phase one which is December 1987, between
100 and 120 Business Executives of small-scale
manufacturing enterprises who can follow the course in
English would have gone through the complete 24 weeks
of rigorous business management training, 12 weeks
in classroom and 12 weeks on the job application.

Assuming there will be 3 classroom sessions each one
lasting one and half hours every day, the general
time table will look as follows:

9.00-10.30	1st Session
10.30-11.00	Coffee Break
11.00-12.30	2nd Session
12.30-2.30	Lunch Break
2.30-4.00	3rd Session

Each day there will therefore be four and half hours of
classroom training sessions. Since there are 5 working
days and the course will be 12 weeks actual classroom
contact weeks, the complete 8 modules will amount to
270 classroom contact hours. These should be enough
to impart basic business management knowledge, skills
and techniques.

PHASE TWO (January 1988 to December 1989)

This is the phase for training business executives of
small-scale manufacturing enterprises in Kiswahili
especially those who cannot follow the course in English.

The pattern of the course scheduling will be the same
as phase one, namely:

January-June 1988 - Fifth Batch of 25-30 Executives

July-December 1988 - Sixth Batch of 25-30 Executives

January-June 1989 - Seventh Batch of 25-30 Executives

July-December 1989 - Eighth Batch of 25-30 Executives

At the end of phase two, between 100-120 Business Executives would have gone through the Business Management Training Programme conducted in Kiswahili.

JULY 1987 - JUNE 1988

There will be a period of one year of overlapping the implementation programme of this proposal.

First the July-December period of 1987, during which the translation of the Business Management Training should be made in Kiswahili after having run the course in English 3 times previously.

Secondly, during the same period of July-December period of 1987 and that of January-June 1988 the Action Research Project aimed at improving the entire two courses should be conducted with a time spread of one year.

The first experimental course in Kiswahili will be run January-June 1988, all the 8 modules as scheduled above.

Development of training materials, course manuals, "how to teach yourself" publications and so on will have to be done continuously throughout the entire life of 4 years of the programme. The time of 4 years is enough for testing and retesting and refinement by the trainers and consultants of the programme.

7. ORGANIZATIONAL MACHINERY FOR IMPLEMENTATION

The Kenya Association of Manufacturers does not have the personnel to implement this 4-year training and development programme. It will therefore be necessary to set up a joint consultative committee that will be responsible for the overall supervision of the programme implementation. Such a committee will consist of representatives as follows:

A representative from the Directorate of Personnel Management, Office of the President, Kenya Government.

A representative from Kenya Chamber of Commerce and Industry.

A representative from Kenya Ministry of Labour.

Two representatives from the Executive Committee of Kenya Association of Manufacturers.

The Director and Chief Executive of the Kenya Association of Manufacturers.

A representative from Federation of Kenya Employers

The seven-man consultative committee will elect its own Chairman and Secretary. The committee will be doing a part-time job of meeting at least two times a year to get full report on how each course has been conducted and give their views on further improvements to the Kenya Association of Manufacturers and to the trainers and consultants conducting the programme.

The Kenya Association of Manufacturers is negotiating with the Eastern and Southern African Management Institute, Arusha, Tanzania, to conduct this programme as external consultants. ESAMI has provided business management training to industrialists, entrepreneurs and owner-managers of small-scale enterprises over the past 5 years. Such an experience is of great value to this proposal. There is a possibility of getting 3 ESAMI consultants to work full-time on this programme and they could be assisted on and off by other ESAMI consultants specialised in different business management fields.

For purposes of continuity KAM is suggesting that a national training institution such as Kenya Institute of Administration or Kenya Institute of Management or any other such body be involved. This could be in a way of attaching 2-3 of their instructors to work with the ESAMI consultants on this programme. On completion of the programme the participating national management training institution would have developed some professional business management training capability in the field of small-scale enterprise management.

8. ADMINISTRATIVE AND FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS

This programme is fairly huge and will require day to day administrative organization of KAM and the ESAMI consultant in-charge of the programme to work on an

implementation team.

This team will co-opt a staff development officer of the DPM Office of the President and a representative of whoever will be willing and ready to support the programme financially.

The programme will require a fairly large sum of money both in foreign and local.

The companies which will be sending participants to the programme will have to meet certain local costs such as ground transportation and other out of pocket expenses. Participants may have to stay at home. Should that be so, accommodation expenses and food should be met out of the scholarship moneys.

The 2-3 Kenyan instructors to be involved in terms of their own staff development opportunities and institution building of their organisation will continue to be paid their salaries as usual but will require some allowances to be given to them by their institutions.

There is a need therefore to seek foreign technical assistance from organisations such as USAID, EEC, CIDA, DANIDA etc. to fund the programme. A prospective sponsor may fund the whole or parts of the programme.

The Consulting/Training Institution for running the whole programme will be paid training/consulting fees to be negotiated.

9. THE ESTIMATED BUDGET

(Based on ESAMI normal standard charges for fees)

Fees for one participant attending a course for one week is US\$ 300.00.

(a) There are 2 courses in all, each covering 12 weeks of classroom training.

2 courses x 12 weeks x 300 dollars x 25 participants
= US\$ 180,000

(b) Development of training materials

Paper and stationery = US\$ 10,000

Administrative and Secretarial support = US\$ 15,000

Total US\$ 25,000

The Budget Summary

(i)	Delivery of 2 courses for the 1 year period	=	US\$ 180,000
(ii)	Development of training materials	=	US\$ <u>25,000</u>
	Total	=	US\$ 205,000

	Participants accommodation, meals and transport 6.25 x 50 x 12 x 2 x 5	=	US\$ 37,500
	Total	=	US\$ <u>242,500</u>

ATTACHMENT XV

K.A.M.: LIST OF SMALL-SCALE INDUSTRIES (Shs. 5-10m)

1. Ombi Rubber Industries Limited
2. Kawan Enterprises (K) Limited
3. Prime Industries Limited
4. Hymel Metres Limited
5. Kenya Scale Company Limited
6. Kenya Fruit Processors Limited
7. Associated Steel Limited
8. Kenya Engineering Industries Limited
9. Seracoatings Limited
10. Crescent Investments Limited
11. Plastics Products (K) Limited
12. Kay Jay Rubber Products Limited
13. Gladhome Bicycle Co. Limited
14. Autoparts (E.A.) Limited
15. Bobs Harries Engineering Limited
16. Canvas Manufacturers Limited
17. Mother's Choice Bakery Limited
18. Nakuru Brake Industry Limited
19. Brush Manufacturers Limited
20. Joy Shoes Limited
21. Ceramic Industries (E.A.) Limited
22. Chai Limited
23. Coral Industries Limited
24. Datini Mercantile Limited
25. Diazo Industries (K) Limited

26. East Africa Spectre Limited
27. Educational Materials Manufacturing Ltd.
28. Eldema (Kenya) Limited
29. Engineering Development Limited
30. Geedi Industries (K) Limited
31. Union Locks (Kenya) Limited
32. Hobra Manufacturing Limited
33. Hygiene Products Limited
34. Insulated Electrical Conduit Limited
35. Jiko Manufacturers Limited
36. Kapi Limited
37. Kenwax Industries Limited
38. Kenya Highlands Dehydrated Foods and Allied Products Limited
39. Kenya Suitcase Manufacturers Limited
40. Kirloskar Kenya Limited
41. Telec Limited
42. Radbone Clark and Company Limited
43. Septaria Limited
44. Veneers Kenya Limited.

The Mechanics of Influence, From Playground to Boardroom

By Daniel Goleman
New York Times Service

WATCH any childhood battlefield. Some children are fighting, while others — maybe just one — may be trying to settle it. The mediator, not the combatant, is likely to develop and use the skills that will lead to the exercise of influence and the possession of power in adult life.

Such observations illustrate a new understanding of how and why some people go through life getting their way while others follow them. Psychologists have begun to outline some of the specific skills that a great many, if not all, persuasive people have had, from Mahandas K. Gandhi, to Martin Luther King Jr. to Franklin D. Roosevelt.

"People like Gandhi, who are extraordinarily successful in getting people to follow them in radically new undertakings, have an underlying core of talents that can be traced back to early childhood," said Dr. Howard Gardner, a psychologist at the Harvard School of Education.

The research, which to some degree bears out some popular notions of how to win friends and influence people, adds to these an understanding of the motives that underlie the ability of the motives that this ability calls upon and a sense of how these skills develop — or fail to — through childhood.

One of the most important skills, the research shows, is seen in people who have an nearly unerring ability to understand the motives and desires of others regardless of what is being said or done on the surface. These people also seem to understand themselves. This empathy and self-understanding, the research suggests, is often joined with self-confidence and a desire for power. The result is a person who is able to reconcile his motives with those of others to move toward a solution to a problem that has never really been stated.

Such facility can be combined with a sense of who the truly important people are in a situation. An example of this skill at work was offered by Dr. Lyle Spencer, a psychologist at McBer and Co., a business consulting firm in Boston: "In a study we did of State Department officials we found that one of the outstanding Foreign Service officers had been able to go to a new assignment in a foreign capital, and very quickly figure out that it was the prime minister's mistress' nephew who really

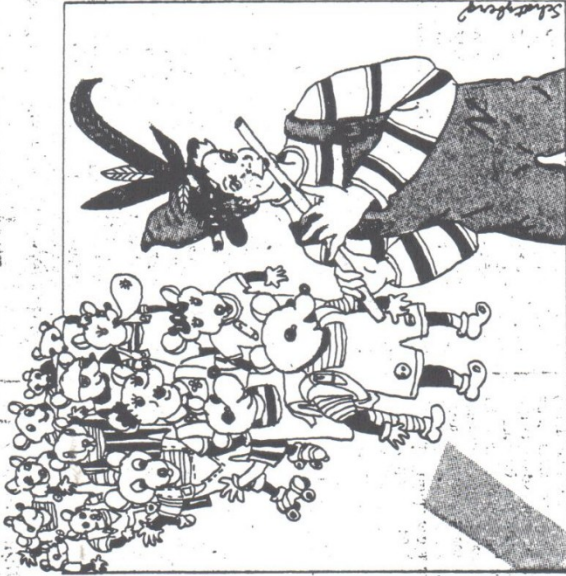
called the shots on oil policy — and how to get to this nephew."

Dr. Spencer said: "One of the key competencies is an objectivity that allows you to see clearly the other person's feelings without your own getting in the way. Another closely related ability is being able to monitor your own feelings moment-to-moment. But these skills go hand-in-hand with knowing how to use them to achieve your goals. In one of our tests people would watch a tape of a few minutes of conflict during a meeting and then say what the different people were feeling and what they would have to say to get them to make one decision or another. To do this well, you have to be able to pick up people's covert agendas. The best executives, we found, do this automatically."

Dr. Gardner said: "While everyone has these abilities to some extent, some people are remarkably obtuse about the games being played right around them. And there are people who know these things intellectually, but cannot act on them effectively."

It is not enough to be able to know what feelings and wishes lurk behind what others do, psychologists say. Along with these skills must go a social self-confidence, the sense that one will succeed. "People with what used to be called 'presence' who are naturally in control of any social situation — are very secure about themselves," said Dr. Richard Boyatzis, a psychologist and president of McBer. Furthermore, psychologists say, it takes a need for power to mobilize these skills to influence others. Dr. Spencer said a high need for power sets those who naturally take over a group apart from, say, the gifted therapist. "It's like playing interpersonal chess to see several implications of a given action," said Dr. George Klemp, a psychologist at Charles River Consulting in Boston. "In a complicated organization, it's a great challenge, because each gambit has many calculated impacts, and any of them may backfire. If the games you are playing are partly covert, it complicates things even further. And if your career depends on you being right most all the time, there's a great deal of stress."

Researchers at the Pennsylvania State University School of Medicine have found that executives who think in complex ways about the many ramifications of their deci-



Joan Schatzberg

In a study at Harvard, Dr. Gardner and Tom Haich are observing children as young as 3 to search for early markers of what Dr. Gardner calls "personal intelligence." He sees this as one of seven major kinds of human intelligence, others include logical and mathematical skills, musical talents and the mastery of the body exhibited by great dancers and athletes.

"Even at 4, some children are good mediators," he said. "They are the ones on the playground who settle disputes. Others are talented caretakers; they comfort the upset kids. And some are leaders, who continually mobilize other kids to help attain some goal."

The capacity to negotiate, many psychologists say, is one of the keys to social intelligence. This ability emerges in most children between the ages of 8 and 11, although they cannot describe the process until about age 13, according to research by Dr. Robert Selman, a psychologist at Harvard Medical School.

"The biggest milestone in learning to negotiate is being able to step out of an interaction and look simultaneously at both people's points of view," said Dr. Selman. "It's not enough to do this mentally; you need an emotional understanding of the need to be balanced in how you look at the interaction." Dr. Selman found that women tended to be better at this sort of negotiation than men.

The ability to negotiate well is a crucial lesson of adolescent social life, said Dr. Selman, who has devised a treatment for teen-agers who have trouble keeping friends. In work with colleagues at Harvard Medical School, teen-agers who are inept at negotiating are paired up and see therapist together. Using videotapes of their therapist's interactions, the therapist is able to pinpoint their problems and help them learn to collaborate better.

mark children as budding leaders included an ease at communicating, a sense of humor and an ability to arbitrate with other children. While some intelligent children shared these traits, intelligence itself was no guarantee of having them. Some studies found that intellectually gifted children were sometimes less popular than those of average intelligence because they offered advice to other children in an insensitive, domineering manner.

The development of what psychologists call "social intelligence" has been studied since the 1930s. The elements of social intelligence fit well with the observations reported by those who study the underpinnings of influence in adults. Among the aspects of social intelligence studied in depth have been children's abilities to recognize people's feelings by reading their facial expressions, to guess the motives behind what people do and to negotiate smoothly.

sons are more prone to heart disease than are those who read fewer implications into what they do. "If you're the kind of person who naturally tracks all the covert agendas going on around you at work, there can be a personal cost," said Dr. Boyatzis. He cited executives who "are so caught up in their minds with what's happening at work that they barely notice what's happening in their families. People who are attuned to these covert personal levels seem to spend lots of time mulling it over. That's why they often prefer hobbies where they are alone, like jogging, cooking or fishing — they get the time they need to think things through. "But being the kind of person in a meeting who reads people's hidden motives and feelings, along with whatever else is going on, is not necessarily stressful," he added. "It can also make things much more interesting and involving."

Studies at Tulane University have shown that the personality traits that

Attachment X

ATTACHMENT XVI

K.I.A.: TRAINING OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT OFFICERS

Background

Kenya Institute of Administration has been training local government personnel since its inception in 1961. The training programmes have been in the traditional areas of accounting and general administration where participants were required to enrol for examinations leading to award of professional qualifications of the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants and Chartered Institute of Secretaries examinations of the United Kingdom. From 1967, local government accountants and administrators pursuing professional training have had to enter the examinations of the Kenya Accountants and Secretaries National Examinations Board.

In recent years, it has been found that local government administration and management is not confined to these two groups only but that in the service are many others whose training has been conducted outside public administration and accountancy schools and whose knowledge about public administration and local government management processes is just as crucial if they have to improve on their performance. Arising from this realisation, KIA designed a number of new training programmes for discussion with the Ministry of Local Government and the local authorities so that the same could be introduced in the Institute's training programmes. A series of local government chief officers' workshops were accordingly organised in 1984, with funds provided by the Directorate of Personnel Management to discuss the training needs of local government where over 90 such training needs were identified. The KIA's Department of Regional and Urban Studies which has been charged with responsibility for organising local government courses then developed about 10 new training programmes for introduction, the most important and urgent of which have been:

- a) Local Government Management: For senior officers of local authorities and the Ministry of Local Government. The course covers general principles of management and their applicability to local government management. It also discusses current issues and problems of local government administration and management and the application of new concepts and techniques in management.

- b) Financial Management: For treasurers, accountants and internal auditors of local authorities, together with finance officers of the Ministry of Local Government and auditors from the Controller and Auditor-General. This training programme gives participants an opportunity to study the basic principles of financial management and how these are applied in a local government situation. It also discusses current issues and problems of local government finance and financial management.
- c) Solid Wastes Management: For officers of local authorities involved in cleansing services and general environmental upkeep. The programme discusses issues and problems relating to management and administration of cleansing services and involving organisation and management of work, plant and equipment, and the general handling and control of wastes - both liquid and solid.
- d) Project Development and Management: For all senior local authority and the Ministry of Local Government officers. In the programme participants learn skills connected with regional and local planning, project analysis, project evaluation, project implementation, management and control. It also covers the role of local authorities in the district focus strategy for rural development.
- e) Housing Estates Management: For officers of local authorities specifically engaged in housing service delivery. The programme involves the acquisition of skills for identification of housing needs, development of housing projects and related services, community participation in housing development and management, maintenance of existing housing stock, rent collection machinery, and general maintenance of the housing environment.
- Participants in the first programme conducted in 1985 attracted participants from the Ministry of Works, Housing and Physical Planning and the National Housing Corporation.
- f) Councillors' Seminars: For elected and nominated Councils. The programme aims at creating an awareness among the members of their role as leaders and being sensitive to the needs of their electorate. It also discusses the processes of local government management, place of members in the system, and how they can make useful contribution to the local government cause.

- g) Urban Development Management: For officers of local authorities, the Ministry of Local Government and all others involved in urban development process. The course discusses the dynamics of urbanisation, strategies for urban development, urban/rural linkages, provision and maintenance of urban services and public participation in urban development and management.

Scope of KIA

The Institute's capacity to service all the above training programmes has been hampered by the lack of physical facilities, finances and the right manpower. Due to these limitations, the Ministry of Local Government requested KIA to organise Training of Trainers' programme for local authorities officers so that some of these programmes and others could be organised on an in-house basis. The Ministry also intended to encourage local authorities within given geographical regions to pool their resources and organise local courses, using those who have been trained as trainers, and inviting resource persons from the Ministry, training institutions like KIA, and experienced officers from local authorities for contribution.

Concern Over Urban Growth

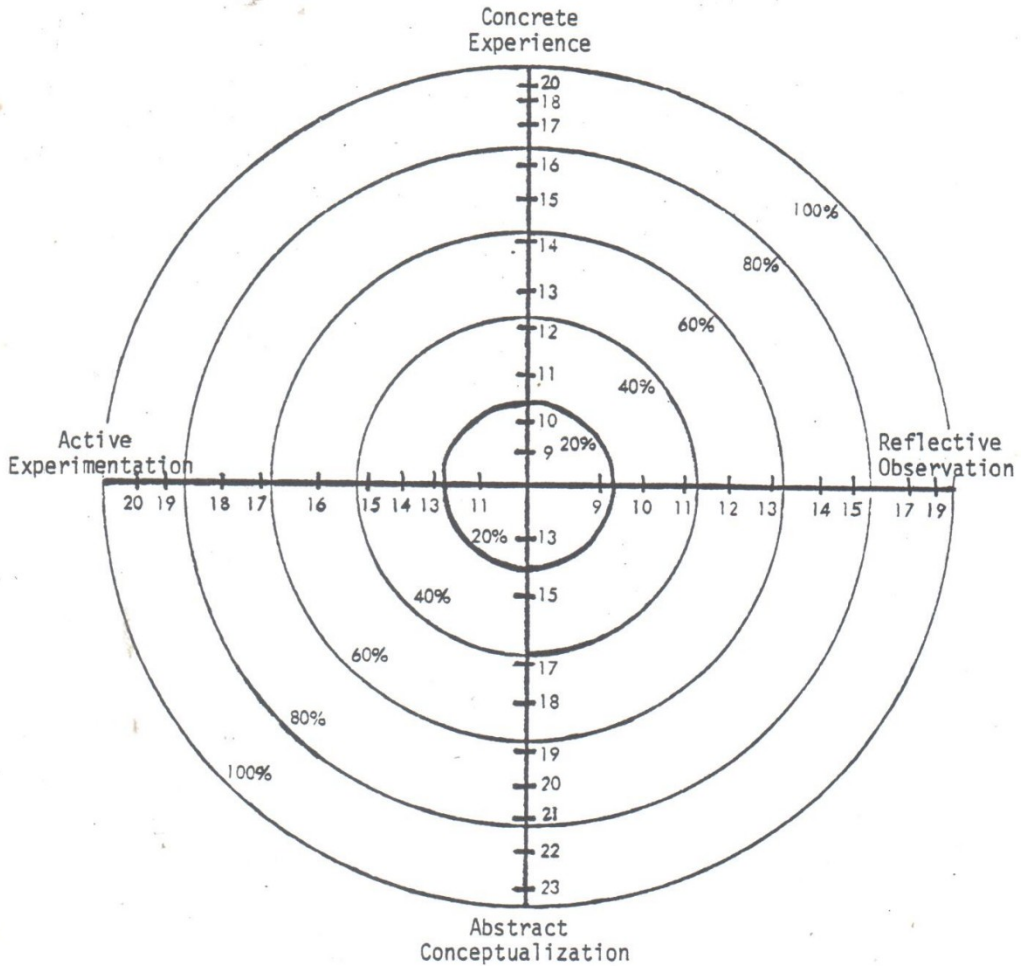
One of the most important areas of local government management is concerned with issues and problems of urban development and management. These problems have generated concern due to the manner in which urban areas have sprung up in the country since the end of the 2nd World War. A census taken in 1948 gave the number of urban centres in the country as 17, with a population of some 0.276 million, representing only 5.1% of the total national population. In 1962, the number grew to 34 with a population of 0.671 million, or 7.8% of the national total. The 1969 and 1979 census saw the urban units drastically increase to 47 and 91 respectively with populations of 1.1 million and 2.3 million and representing 9.8% and 15.1% of the total population. Growing at double the national rate (8.0%) the urban population is expected to double in 9 years. It is today estimated that by the turn of the century Kenya's urban population will be 14 million, representing over 40% of the total national population.

This trend in urban growth is already causing concern for those responsible for urban development and management and although the current development strategy is focused towards rural development, sufficient attention has to be paid to urban centres whose numbers and population will continue to grow to provide banking, communication, administration, commerce and other social and economic infrastructure and

administration. They will thus be able to learn from their colleagues who perform similar duties in their respective countries.

ATTACHMENT XVII

Learning Style Profile
Norms for the Learning Style Inventory



The concentric circles represent percentile scores based on the combined responses of 127 practicing managers and 512 Harvard and M.I.T. graduate students in management. (For example, a raw score of 21 on Abstract Conceptualization means you scored higher on this dimension than 80% of the managers and students tested, a score of 24 would indicate you scored higher than anyone in the population on which these norms are based.)

ATTACHMENT XVIII

Draft Advertisement

INTERNATIONAL FELLOWSHIPS

A NUMBER OF FELLOWSHIPS FOR STUDY IN THE USA HAVE BEEN MADE AVAILABLE THROUGH AN AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE GOVERNMENT OF KENYA.

APPLICANTS SHOULD BE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 18-35 AND SHOULD HAVE COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL WITH DIVISION 1 PASS OR HAVE GRADUATED FROM COLLEGE WITH FIRST CLASS HONORS AND/OR UPPER SECOND HONORS.

APPLICANTS SHOULD SUBMIT FOR REVIEW BY THE SCREENING COMMITTEE: (1) THE ATTACHED FORM, (2) A TYPEWRITTEN STATEMENT OF MAXIMUM 250 WORDS (MAXIMUM ONE PAGE) DESCRIBING WHAT YOU WANT TO STUDY, WHY YOU WANT TO STUDY IT, AND (3) WHERE YOU WOULD WANT TO STUDY IT.

NO TELEPHONE CALLS, PERSONAL APPEARANCE OR OTHER CORRESPONDENCE WILL BE RESPONDED TO OTHER THAN PROPERLY ADDRESSED APPLICATIONS AS INDICATED ABOVE.

PLEASE SEND APPLICATIONS TO:

BOX NAIROBI, BY DATE/TIME

LIST OF INTERVIEWS

1. Ermon Kamara - American Universities Preparation and Learning Centre
2. Joe Stepanik - USAID/K
3. Richard Green - USAID/K
4. Gordon Bartolin - USAID/K
5. Theresa Muraya - USAID/K
6. Derek Singer - USAID/K
7. Justus Omolo - USAID/K
8. Beth Rhyan - USAID/K
9. Fred Fisher - USAID/K
10. Martha Menya - USAID/K
11. Maria Mulei - USAID/K
12. Ciira Cerere - DPM
13. J.K. Koinange - Kenya Institute of Management
14. Cameron Short - Ministry of Planning
15. John Cohen - Ministry of Planning
16. Esther Keli - Ministry of Planning
17. Judith Geist - Ministry of Planning
18. J.D. Kimura - Kenya Institute of Administration
19. Jennifer Selbstad - Ford Foundation
20. William Saint - Ford Foundation
21. Silas Ita - Kenya Association of Manufacturers
22. Kent Smith - Canadian High Commission
23. Bill Ralston - Canadian High Commission
24. Martin Nzyoka - Citibank
25. J. Dondo - Kenya Institute of Management

26. Ben Makau - Institute for Development Studies
27. Kabiru Kinyanjui - Institute for Development Studies
28. G.M. Ruigu - Institute for Development Studies
29. Betty Bassin - VADA
30. J.N. Otido - Kenya Association of Manufacturers
31. Manu Chandaria - Comcraft
32. J.O. Kayila - Kenya Institute of Administration
33. D.N. Nzomo - Faculty of Commerce, University of Nairobi
34. W. Lukaasavich - USIS
35. Peter Ndoria - USIS
36. Camille Atiker - USIS
37. Donald - Ministry of Education
38. J. Ngaira - Partners for Productivity
39. Jacob Mwangi - VADA
40. Job C. Mukule - Cooperative College
41. R.M. wa Makau - Machakos District Cooperative Union
42. J.M. Mbwika - Machakos District Cooperative Union
43. P.K. Mulwa - Machakos District Cooperative Union
44. S.M. Kyalo - Machakos District Cooperative Union
45. J.M. Kithome - Machakos District Cooperative Union
46. Management Committee - Kakuyuni Coffee Cooperative Society
47. J.P. Mbogua - Ministry of Local Government
48. T.C. Ryan - Ministry of Planning
49. Sam Kobia - National Christian Council of Kenya

- 50. Raphael Waita - Caltex
- 51. Phoebe Asiyu - Member of Parliament
- 52. J.H. Obaso - Professional Training Consultants
- 53. E.K. Kiptiness - Rural Industrial Development Trust
- 54. Mrs. Janis Mwosa - Commercial Bank of Africa
- 55. Mbatawa wa Ngai - Business Age
- 56. George M. Mutisya - Tropical Building Society
- 57. Larry Ngutter - Ministry of Finance
- 58. George Odiko - COTU
- 59. L. Sawe - Office of the President DPM
- 60. M. Odipo - Ministry of Local Government
- 61. Joseph K. Kuria - Africa Development Foundation
- 62. P.N.K. Gufwoli - Faculty of Commerce, University of Nairobi
- 63. S.K. Akivaga - College of Adult Education
- 64. R.G. Mwai - E. African Bag and Cordage
- 65. Rukudzo Murapa - Faculty of Arts, University of Zimbabwe
- 66. A.M. Ndetei - Federation of Kenya Employers
- 67. I. Gill - Harritz and Bell
- 68. S.J. Shah - Steel Africa
- 69. V.H. Harding - Inchcape Mackenzie (Management) Ltd.
- 70. Stephen Talitwala - Daystar University
- 71. Ralph Mono - First Secretary, Swedish Embassy
- 72. Patrick Staven - Assistant Representative, The British Council

- 73. Joe Githinji - Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Labour
- 74. M.A. Mueke - Directorate of Industrial Training
- 75. G.N.K. Mbugua - Directorate of Industrial Training
- 76. E. Alwora - Directorate of Industrial Training
- 77. S. Njagi - Nation Printers and Publishers

ADDENDUM -

XX SHORT-TERM MANAGEMENT AND TECHNICAL
TRAINING IN THE U.S.: SURVEY AND COMMENTARY

The following is a set of comments and observations based on a survey of brochures and cable announcements of U.S. short-term courses offered for overseas participants available in the USAID Kenya Mission.

The list presented in the tables is not intended to be exhaustive, however, given that all of the universities and institutions offering this type of service market either through USAID Washington and/or directly to the Missions, it is reasonable to assume that at least 80-90% of what is available in 1986 has been listed.

Commentary is based not only on what is written in brochures and letters, but also on personal familiarity with a number of the courses taught. Resources at hand do not permit an in-depth evaluation of the entire system of "Development Administration Training", however, it is recommended, in item No. 27, that USAID consider initiating a survey of the entire system of "Development Administration Training" to see if it could become more responsive to the private sector initiative, more relevant to the needs of Third World managers, and, possibly expanded to cover more of the 350,000 foreign students in the United States than the present 20% estimated who receive some sort of management training.

Also attached is a copy of the I.I.E. "OPEN DOORS" survey of participants in U.S. 1984-85 which provided the statistics referred to in the commentary.

Notes and Observations on U.S. based, short-term Management Training

1. Short-term participants (non-degree), in management and practical training total 10,690 out of 342,113 foreign students in the U.S. 1984-85 (about 3%).
2. There has been a great increase in computer training courses recently, especially tied to data-processing as a management tool.
3. Costs range \$500-1,200/week, tuition only (about 40-50,000 per course).
4. The majority of short courses are offered in summer months - linked to faculty and participant availability.
5. Most training focuses on U.S. management practices with some aimed at "Development Management" - few offer comparative content.
6. Few offer associated practical experience (e.g. OJT placements), some have field trips offered on optional basis for groups (change from 60's - 70's).
7. Most aim at experienced managers, few have academic pre-requisites (mostly for technical courses requiring B.S. Engineering) - none are post-doctoral or post M.Sc.
8. Few advertise faculty experience in third world or ex-patriate 3rd World Faculty - and almost all instruction is in English.
9. Few offer follow-up and consultation in home country.
10. Several use term "organization development" but do not make use of O.D. methodology in structuring of courses (e.g. team training, consulting skills, organization analysis, in-course problem solving or planning).
11. None offer Macro-Analyses - e.g. North-South, South-South Economic inter-actions, or anything on political content of development.
12. Few offer individualized personal development options.
13. The majority offer class-room based, semi-experiential, didactic models of learning about management.
14. When include 65,000 degree students in business and management with 6,300 non-degree, of whom probably 50% attend management training, at most 70,000 out 342,113 foreign students (about 20%) receive some sort of management training while in the U.S.

15. Assuming that approximated 5,000 short-term participants receive some sort of specialised "development management" education in the U.S. annually, of 3 weeks length, costing approximately \$15,000 each, including travel, per diem and tuition,
- thus, $5,000 \times \$15,000 = \$75,000,000$ is being invested in U.S. training in management for 3rd world countries by the U.S. tax payers as part of U.S. foreign aid
16. Institutions and courses listed (see table) are estimated to cover most of the 6,300 non-degree participants in the U.S. in any given year. (It cannot be determined from the I.I.E. open doors census if some of the 4,310 participants attending "practical training" do not also attend short courses and/or degree programs).
17. The U.S. government, according to I.I.E. sponsors 7,320 participants annually, since most short-termers are U.S. sponsored, it would appear that U.S. Government sponsors very few degree candidates. More likely that there are many sponsored by U.S. Universities, Consulting firms, and PVO's (U.S. private) using U.S.A.I.D. funds passed through them.

Assumptions of Training

18. The content and structure of most management courses offered by different institutions is very similar, and appears to have changed little since the 1960's and 70's.

Their basic assumptions appear to be:

- (a) problems of development are problems of public sector institutions.
 - (b) training of managers of P.S. institutions will improve productivity by introducing new practices transferred from the U.S.
 - (c) Management can be learned in a classroom, and classroom learning will produce changed managerial behaviour in the back-home organizational setting.
19. Having discovered (or assumed) there is such a thing as "management" i.e. that people behave in certain ways in certain types of institutions, we may have to abandon it if we accept that it is the institutions which make people behave the way they do and not the other way around. Changing one individual, one part of the institution, by training, is not likely to change the way that that institution functions.
- Changing (O.D. approach) many people in that institution may not change it either, leaving us without a theory of change since training was our theory of change.

20. What then, changed our western institutions, bringing along this new management, which we teach as if it were the engine of change? Technology changed productivity and technology can, and probably will, eventually eliminate most production management (through cybernetics).
21. We may be out of phase teaching 20th Century American management, including computerisation, to countries trying to make the most of labour intensive production technologies abandoned 30 years ago in the U.S. - we are ships passing in the night - we do not want to and do not know how to teach the kind of management appropriate to the kind of production in which they are engaged in the 3rd World. Also, at the time, we figured out how to manage labour intensive industries, why do we assume they cannot now (after all, it is not new any more).
22. What do we mean by management then? Management, like parliamentary politics, marriage or most ceremonial religious practices, can be considered as a set of behaviours which help make an institution function. Particular institutions need particular sets of behaviours; if we change those behaviours (e.g. through training) we do not necessarily change the institutions, however, we could make them less able to function. Management behaviour must be relevant to the needs of the institution in its own cultural setting, those needs are not necessarily for production.
23. Development administration is also based on the premise that 3rd World institutions are in fact Western structures which only need western management training to function. They are not and they will not, at least not until many other political and social factors on which our institutions depend are moving into place.
24. Where institutions, for technical reasons, are less culturally bound, management differs little or not at all. In the piloting of an airplane, for instance, we find there is no "Kenyan" or "Chinese" way to fly a plane, only a right way and a wrong way. It could be argued that an airplane is a machine and an airline is an institution, and many of the latter are in highly culturally specific ways.

Computerization, which means cybernetization, however, is making institutions increasingly bio-machine like: self-correcting, and using data on its own performance to make programmed decisions. Many chemical plants and automated airline reservation systems, require little or no production management once decision-rules have been programmed and telemetered into the computerized cybernetic system. The difference between the airplane and the airline may only be in scale and technology.

25. What does all this mean for third world management training? It means, first, that labour intensive management, without access to data, is the most difficult stage of all.

Secondly, it means that a certain kind of management geared to dealing with cheap, unskilled labour, rickety equipment and high cost capital, may be most appropriate for the time being.

Thirdly, it means that schools of management in the U.S. and abroad, who would help train managers, might begin by looking at what is in the real world of the managers whom they are seeking to train.

Fourthly, it does not mean that we should teach "Taylorism" in our schools of management, (although familiarity with the concepts might be a good idea) even though that school of management was developed for precisely the stage at which most 3rd world countries now find themselves.

Fifth, the answer is like the glasses on the tables too near us to see: The Third World must learn from itself, from countries such as Singapore, Korea, Taiwan and others who have recently and in a non-western institutional setting, succeeded in creating effective, labour-intensive management.

Sixth, there is an urgent need to separate management policies from management practices, in attempting to offer something useful in management training to the Third World. Personnel management, for example, is practised in many different ways and is highly sensitive to cultural patterns. Each society and each institution has to solve the problems of attracting, screening, placing and promoting talents in its own way.

Differences in productivity, however, may be significantly related to training policy, research and investment policy (including marketing intelligence), technology scanning and quality maintenance to name a few, all of which are policies related to productivity.

To become useful to the 3rd World, U.S. Management training must once again become comparative, must seek out convincing reasons why and how productivity was maintained and increased under particular circumstances. Why are the Germans more productive than the British currently? Is it because they spend 8 times more on training? Because their industry was rebuilt after World War II? Because they are harder working? Because their unions do not strike as much? Because their managers have more technical training? Answers to such questions could be very helpful to 3rd World countries interested in increasing productivity.

Recommendations

26. How could changes be made in management training by the U.S. for improvement in 3rd World productivity?
- a. The number of foreign students in U.S., out of 350,000 who receive management training should be increased greatly by means of fellowships and bursaries to enable more to become exposed to work-life in public and private organizations.
 - b. Government and Industry organizations should be rewarded for efforts spent to assist foreign nationals learn about management and technology. The private sector should be brought into this in a major way.
 - c. Opportunities for 3rd Country visits, sponsored by U.S. and arranged through foreign embassies and cultural attaches, should be greatly expanded. Research on other models of management can be facilitated by structured reports written by participants as part of their experience.
 - d. management training should focus on preparing participant for what to observe, i.e. how to learn from the experience. "Management training" should evolve towards learning together (participants, instructors, institutions) how social structures work.
 - e. An in-depth survey of all special management training courses offered for 3rd World nationals should be conducted to determine:
 - 1. Assumptions underlying the designs
 - 2. Evidence of impact - what is actually learned, what applied back home.
 - 3. Differential effect of various teaching methods.
 - 4. Who is being impacted by this training
 - 5. What could be done to improve and expand these efforts

Seventh, there is an urgent need to look for successful models where management factors can be said to make difference in productivity. The search for Excellence by Peters and Waterman is an example of this methodology, it should be expanded cross-culturally, we ought to know what is the most effective management of a low wage, successful shoe-making company in Taiwan, in Kenya and in Guatemala. Can they be compared or are the cultural differences so great that no taxonomy is possible?

SAMPLE SHORT-TERM TRAINING COURSES DESIGNED FOR
OVERSEAS PARTICIPANTS

COURSE NAME/SUBJECT	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE- REQUISITES	TUITION	DEADLINE	COMMENT
A. Water Supply	Layton & Associates Int'l, Inc.	4	Ron Layton-212S Wash. St., Neosho, Missouri 64850 (417) 451-5807	None	3000		
B. Waste Water Treatment		4		None	3000		
Leadership for Development	NTL Institute	2	P.O. Box 9155 Rosslyn Station Arlington, Va 22209 (703) 527-1500	None	1700		
CBIM: Labour Training Methods Course (TOT)	U.S. Department of Labour	N.A.	Office of Foreign Relations, Bureau of Int'l. Labour Affairs, U.S. Dept. of Labour Room 5-5016 200 Constitution Avenue, N.W. Wash. DC, 20210 (202) 523-7621	None	N.A.		
Economic & Social Development Programs (ESD)	University of Pittsburgh, GSPIA	30-36 months		B.A./B.S.			

COURSE	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE-REQUISITE	TUITION	DEADLINE	COMMENT
Marketing Courses	Int'l Marketing Institute	2	Dr. Jerome Brightman IMI, 29 Garcoen St. Harvard Square Cambridge, MA 02138 (617) 547-9873	Leaders of Industry & Government	N/A	N/A	
Investment Appraisal and Management	HIID	6	Dr. Glen Jenkins P.I.A.M./HIID 1737 Cambridge St. Cambridge, MA 02138	B.A. (Competitive)	7,250 (B & B)	May 15	
Computer Technology and Applications for Development	State University of New York, Stony Brook	3	Institute for Technology Policy in Development, Suny, A-134, Stony Brook, N.Y. 11794-3825 (516) 264-8230	None	3,500	Dec. 5, July 18	
Advanced Development Management Seminar	University of Pittsburgh/GSPIA	7	Dr. Lawrence G. Howard GSPIA, 3E3 Forbes Quadrangle University of Pittsburgh, Pa 15260 (412) 624-4740	Senior level managers	5,000		

COURSE	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE-REQUISITE	TUITION	DEADLINE	COMMENTS
Cooperative Education and Management	U. Wisconsin Extension Service	16	Dr. Howard S. Whitney Coordinator University Center for Cooperatives 514 Cowell Hall, 610 Langdon St. Madison, Wisc. 53703 (608)262-3981	Senior Exec's in Coops	9715	N.A.	
Applied Development Management	Coverdale	2	Suite 300 2054 N. 14 St. Arlington, Va 22201 (703) 528-1990	Open to Participants in the U.S. already	1,200	N.A.	
Banking & Monetary Policy	HIID	1	Dr. David C. Cole HIID	Senior banking and finance officials	3,000	April 1	
Rural & Community Development	University of Pittsburgh	8	Institute of Training & Organizational Development, University of Pittsburgh, Pa 15260 (412) 4762	None	4,500	-	

COURSE	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE-REQUISITE	TUITION	DEADLINE	COMMENT
Project Monitoring	School for Int'l Training, Brattleboro, Vermont		SIT, Kipling Rd. Brattleboro, Vt. 05301 (802)-254-5935	Managers of Development projects	4,900	May 30	
Aquaculture	Auburn University	3	Alabama 36849-4201 (205) 826-4786	Working in Aquaculture 2 years + university	3,000		
International Tax Program	Harvard Law School	36	Director of Training International Tax Program, Pound Hall, Harvard Law School, Cambridge MA 02138		14,300		
Port Management Training	American Assn. of Port Authorities	3	Mr. Paul Kent Ports & Waterways Institute, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, La 70803-7519 (504) 388-6299	Waiting List	1,500	Dec. 29	

COURSE NAME/SUBJECT	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE- REQUISITE	TUITION	DEADLINE	COMMENT
Effective Management and Decision-making	Northern Illinois University	5	Division of Int'l and Special Programs (No address or phone number in brochure)	None	3,500		
- Fisheries Economics - Fisheries Data Mgt. - Water Quality/ Aquatic Ecology	Oregon State University	3-4	CIFAD Training Programs 443 Snell Hall OSU, Corvallis, Or. 97331 (503) 754-2624	None	4,500	April 1	
- Development Project Evaluation Sem.	University of Minnesota	2	Fred Hoefer, 405 Coffes Hall, University of Minnesota, 1420 Eccles Avenue, St. Pane, Mn 55108 (612) 373-0725	Senior Level	2,200 (R & B ino.)		
- Staff Training and Development		2					
Mgt. Training and Development Institute • Project Planning • Entrepreneurship • Town planning (C.D.) • Management - Communication • Assessing technical information • Micro computers	MTOI/Mgt. Systems Int'l.	Var. (5-12 days)	600 Water St. SW P.O. Box 23975 Wash. DC, 20026 (202) 863-0212	None	1,150 (12 days)		

COURSE	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE- REQUISITE	TUITION	DEADLINE	CON-FE-E
International Public Management Development Programs - see (many courses - see catalogue)	IPD International Institute of Public Service, University of Connecticut	8-28	Dr. Ian Mayo Smith 1800 Asylum Ave. W. Hartford, Ct. 06117-2699 (203) 241-4924	N/A	4,700 - 4,900 (varies)		
Techniques of Hydrologic Investigations	Water Resources Division, USGS	6	470 National Center Reston, Va 22092	Practising Hydrologist	7,600		
International Computer Training Program	George Mason University	3	Dr. Barry Render 4400 University Drive, Fairfax, Va 22030	University Professors & Administrators	2,700 q	July 4	
Management skills Development (and other programs in Port administration)	World Trade Institute	2	Vincent Seglior World Trade Institute, One World Trade Center, 55W New York, N.Y. 10048	N.A.	2,500		
Misc. Courses in Management of Health (see catalogue)	Management Sciences for Health	4	165 Anandale Rd. Boston, MA 02130 (617) 524-7799	N.A.	3,800		
IPA Workshops for Managers of Development (see catalogue for other courses)	Institute for Public Administration	3	1717 Mass Ave. N.W. Wash. DC, 20036 (202) 667-6551	N.A.	1,850		

COURSE	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE- REQUISITE	TUITION	DEADLINE	COMMENT
Management and Computers (also project evaluation, staff training, micro-computers)	University of Minnesota	3	N.A.	Senior level public officials	N.A.		
Housing Finance	FECS Center of Government, University of Pennsylvania	3	N.A.	N.A.	3,000		
Shelter Planning	M.I.T.	1	N.A.	N.A.	850		
Manager Development	Duke University	2	Ray Watson The FIGUVA School of Business, Durham, N. Carolina 27706 (919) 684-5310				
Engineering Technology (six short courses)	M.I.T.		Center for Advanced Engineering Study				
I.L.I. Seminars	International Law Institute Wash. D.C.	3	N.A.	N.A.	4,500		
National Economic Accounting	U.S. Department of Commerce	44			850	Dec. 6	
Procurement and Supply Management	Afro-American Purchasing Center, N.Y.	4			1,500		

COURSE	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE- REQUISITE	TUITION	DEADLINE	CCM
Cooperatives Training	Land O'Lakes	N.A.	Jill Kohler (612) 481-2513	N.A.	N.A.		
- Planning & Mgt. Service delivery Family Planning	CEDPA	4	CEDPA, 1717 Mass. Ave. N.W., Suite 202, Wash. DC, 20036, (202) 667-1142	Women in F.P. Mgt.	3,000		
- Supervision/ evaluation	"	4		M/F in Health & F.P.	3,000		
Epidemiology Summer Program	NEEI		The New England Epidemiology Institute, Dept. Sc. P.O. Box 57, Chestnut Hill, MA 02167, (617) 734-9100	N.A.	800 (3 courses)		
Training Courses in Natural Resources using remote sensing	University of N. Mexico	a. 3½ b. 2½	Technology Appli- cation Center	N.A.	a. 2,675 b. 1,850		
Planning and Mgt. of Rural Development	University of Pittsburgh/ Kentucky State University	3		N.A.	5,000		
- R & D Project Mgt. - R & D Institute Management	World Techno- logy Group Inc.	3½ 3½		B.A. & exp. in R&D pro- ject Mgt.	3,600 or 7,000 both	Apr. 1 May 1	

COURSE	INSTITUTION	LENGTH/ WEEKS	CONTACT	PRE- REQUISITE	TUITION	DEADLINE	CCM
Malaria Vector Control	University of S. Carolina		International Center for Public Health Research, Colombia S. Carolina	Vector Control exp.	1,300	Feb. 15 July 31 (sp.)	
- International executive development Laboratory - Management effectiveness program	U.S.C.			8 years exp. Mgt. 2 years exp. Mgt.	4,200 4,000		
Water/Sanitation courses for rural areas L.D.C.'s	I.F.C.W.R.M.	2 (rural water) 3 (water/san)	International Training Center for Water Resource Mgt. Sophia Antipolis BP 13- 06561 Valbounne CEDEX France, (Tel. 93743100)	Engineers and planners	N.A.		
Public Enterprise Workshop	HIID	Summer	Richard M. Hook	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	



FOR FURTHER INFORMATION
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FOR RELEASE: October 9, 1985

INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
REPORTS 342,113 FOREIGN STUDENTS
IN U.S. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

There were 342,113 foreign students enrolled in U.S. colleges and universities in the academic year 1984-85, the Institute of International Education (IIE) reported this week. This was a 0.9 percent increase over the 1983-84 total.

Academic year 1984-85 was the second consecutive year in which the number of foreign students in U.S. higher education grew by less than one percent. This leveling-off is in sharp contrast to the pattern of the preceding decade, when the foreign-student population grew by 10 percent or more each year.

The figures are based on IIE's annual survey of foreign students, funded in large part by the U.S. Information Agency and published under the title Open Doors.

An increase of 8.6 percent in students from South and East Asia was offset by decreases in numbers of students from Africa, Latin America, and the Middle East. The number of foreign students from Europe and Oceania increased slightly.

(more)

By far the greatest number came from South and East Asia: 143,680, or 42 percent of the total. Students from South and East Asia have traditionally made up the largest group, and in recent years have replaced Middle Eastern students as the fastest-growing group as well. For the second year, there were more students from Taiwan than any other country or territory -- 22,590, a 2.9 percent increase over last year. Numbers of students from some other leading South and East Asian countries increased significantly over last year: the People's Republic of China by 24 percent, Korea by 18.5 percent, Malaysia by 19.7 percent, Indonesia by 17.7 percent, and Singapore by 16.1 percent.

There were 56,580 students from the Middle East, 6.7 percent fewer than last year. Iranian student numbers continued their sharp decline, with 16,640 students, 18.3 percent fewer than last year. This is a 68 percent drop from a peak of 51,310 in 1980. For many years Iranians represented the largest single nationality among foreign students in the United States.

Latin America and Caribbean students numbered 48,560, down 7.2 percent. Venezuela had by far the most Latin American students -- 10,290 -- but also showed the greatest drop -- 23.4 percent, representing 3,150 fewer students. Students from Mexico, despite national economic stringencies, increased 2.7 percent.

Students from Africa totaled 39,520, a 5.2 percent decline since 1983-84. Students from Europe numbered 33,350, a 4.7 percent increase. Students from Oceania numbered 4,190, up 2.4 percent.

(more)

Following Taiwan, the nine other leading countries of origin were, in order, Malaysia, Nigeria, Iran, Korea, Canada, India, Japan, Venezuela, and Hong Kong.

California, as it did last year, attracted the largest number of foreign students: 47,318. New York remained in second place, with 31,064. Texas was third, with 29,429.

Engineering continued to be the leading field of study for foreign students, followed by business and management, mathematics and computer sciences, and physical and life sciences.

Miami-Dade Community College remained the institution with the largest number of foreign students, 4,316, followed by the University of Southern California (3,761); the University of Texas/Austin (3,286); the University of Wisconsin/Madison (2,901); and Columbia University, Barnard, and Teachers College (2,773).

Copies of Open Doors will be available in January and may be ordered in advance by sending a check for \$29.95 to the Institute of International Education, Publications Service, Office of Communications, 809 United Nations Plaza, New York NY 10017.

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HIGHLIGHTS OF THE 1984/85 INTERNATIONAL STUDENT CENSUS

Total Foreign Students in U.S. Colleges and Universities: 342,113

Leading Countries of Origin

Taiwan	22,590
Malaysia	21,720
Nigeria	18,370
Iran	16,640
Korea, Republic of	16,430
Canada	15,370
India	14,610
Japan	13,160
Venezuela	10,290
Hong Kong	10,130

Fields of Study

Engineering	75,370
Business and Mgt.	64,930
Math./Computer Science	35,630
Physical/Life Sciences	25,960
Social Sciences	25,000
Fine/Applied Arts	15,900
Health Sciences	13,410
Humanities	13,030
Education	12,140
Agriculture	7,540

Academic Level

Associate	39,470
Bachelor's	158,170
Graduate	122,590
Intensive English	11,190
Nondegree	6,380
Practical Training	4,310

Primary Financial Resources

Personal/Family	226,510
Home Government	41,060
College or University	39,680
Foreign Private	10,080
U.S. Government	7,320
Employment	7,070
U.S. Private	6,570
Other	3,820

Leading States

California	47,318
New York	31,064
Texas	29,429
Florida	17,658
Massachusetts	16,357
Illinois	13,935
Michigan	12,175
Ohio	12,026
Pennsylvania	11,586
Dist. of Columbia	9,798

Leading Institutions

Miami-Dade CC	4,316
U. of S. California	3,761
U. of Texas/Austin	3,286
U. of Wisconsin/Mad.	2,901
Columbia U.	2,773
Ohio State U./Main	2,606
N. Texas State U.	2,570
S. Illinois U./Car.	2,565
Boston U.	2,462
U. of Houston/U. Park	2,424

World Regions

South and East Asia	143,680
Middle East	56,580
Latin America	48,560
Africa	39,520
Europe	33,350
North America	15,960
Oceania	4,190

Male

238,760

Female

103,350

Two-Year Institutions

42,083

Four-Year Institutions

300,030

Public Institutions

223,529

Private Institutions

118,584

FOREIGN STUDENTS BY STATE AND TERRITORY 1984/85

<u>State</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Rank</u>	<u>State</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Rank</u>
Alabama	4,027	29	Nebraska	1,986	33
Alaska	215	51	Nevada	518	48
Arizona	4,998	23	New Hampshire	948	42
Arkansas	1,789	37	New Jersey	6,565	14
California	47,318	1	New Mexico	1,510	38
Colorado	4,386	27	New York	31,064	2
Connecticut	3,881	31	North Carolina	5,617	19
Delaware	732	45	North Dakota	683	46
District of Columbia	9,798	10	Ohio	12,026	8
Florida	17,658	4	Oklahoma	7,762	12
Georgia	5,356	21	Oregon	4,943	24
Hawaii	3,402	32	Pennsylvania	11,586	9
Idaho	954	41	Rhode Island	1,363	40
Illinois	13,935	6	South Carolina	1,985	34
Indiana	7,089	13	South Dakota	761	44
Iowa	5,527	20	Tennessee	4,237	28
Kansas	4,777	25	Texas	29,429	3
Kentucky	1,842	36	Utah	3,943	30
Louisiana	8,963	11	Vermont	556	47
Maine	383	50	Virginia	4,607	26
Maryland	6,113	15	Washington	5,907	16
Massachusetts	16,357	5	West Virginia	1,437	39
Michigan	12,175	7	Wisconsin	5,723	17
Minnesota	5,043	22	Wyoming	412	49
Mississippi	1,873	35	Guam	679	
Missouri	5,719	18	Puerto Rico	628	
Montana	765	43	Virgin Islands	163	