DOES A TRAINING FUNCTION HELP AN ORGANISATION TO MEET ITS OBJECTIVES?

"Assessment of the effectiveness and relevancy of training in the growth and Development of Community-Based Organisations in Uganda".

Doctor of Philosophy

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Matriculation Number: 2595

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List of acronyms

AICM	African International Christian Ministries
BUDMI	Bundibugyo Disaster Management Initiatives
CBO	Community Based Organisation
FURA	Foundation for Urban and Rural Advancement
ID	Institutional Development
INGO	International Non-Government Organisations
KI	Key Informant
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
NIFAED	Nakaseeta Initiative for Adult Education and Development
OD	Organisational Development
PAQ	Position Analysis Questionnaire
QQT	Quality, Quantity and Time bound
SD	Standard Deviation

1.0 ABSTRACT

The study attempts to assess the relevancy and effectiveness of training as one of the capacity building interventions in the growth and development of Community Based Organisations in Uganda. Ten Organisations were covered in western Uganda and four in Rwanda. However the organisations in Rwanda were at the formation stage and fully involved in relief provision and very little on training had been done. The goal of the study was to examine the role of training as a force for enhancing/strengthening the process of Community Based Organisations' engagement towards achieving their objectives. The research therefore focussed on how the knowledge, skills and attitudes developed as a result of training have translated into building the capacity of these organisations to handle sustainable development, thus the creation of societies without poverty and injustice. The specific objectives of this study were twofold. The first one was to examine the processes by which training is designed and delivered. The second objective was to examine the organisational changes that have occurred as a consequence of training activities carried out. The study first developed a working definition of the term CBO as a group of people working together for a common purpose within a specific context and time frame. Two definitions of training were used as a reference while considering the above objectives. These definitions are: 'The systematic development of the knowledge/attitude/skill/behaviour pattern required by an individual to perform adequately a given task or job': 'Any organizationally initiated procedures which are intended to foster learning among organisational members in a direction contributing to organisational effectiveness'. Three dimensions of : Internal organisation, External linkages and Projects/Activities which form the main parts of a CBO that interact and support each other to enable the process of achieving her objectives were examined. In otherwords has the training function strengthened the process of interaction and mutual support to enhance a particular CBO effectiveness?

The study was carried out in 10 Community Based Organisations in Western Uganda. Initially 15 CBOs were contacted but only ten responded positively. The study was also extended to four Organisations in Rwanda. In each organisation, five key informants all of whom are in senior leadership positions were interacted with. During the study, a self-assessment approach was adopted whereby each key informant was given an item and in his/her own assessment gives it a score. The scores and any ranking done on individual basis were later analysed in a plenary by adding all the scores of each question and dividng the total with the number of respondents to come up with an average score or ranking.

While examining the training process, a questionnaire with twelve questions was administered to five members of staff in each organisation. Each question had three answers marked A, B and C. The scores for each answer were as follows: 1 for A, 2 for B and 3 for C. Therefore the lowest score was 12 and the highest score was 36. However, the score 24 which is approximately 66% was considered to be about average performance as far as the training process was concerned. The questionnaire was focusing on issues like:

- How the trainees are selected
- How are the trainees briefed before the training
- The aim of the training programmes
- Pre-training analysis
- How do trainers get feedback on their performance
- What supervisors do when trainees return to the workplace
- How results of the training programme are communicated
- The involvement of line management
- The use of the training materials
- Whether the impact of training on organisational effectiveness is regularly assessed

After analysing the average score for every question in the plenary, then final score was computed by adding all the twelve average scores to come up with the total score which was later compared to 24 which was considered as the average score and the benchmark. The scores were later computed as percentages and a bar graph drawn to visually show the various levels at which the CBOs are in institutionalising a training function.

The plenary session was followed by a focus group discussion to reflect on the issues raised in the questionnaire and propose strategies on how they feel training could be more relevant and effective.

The study further assessed changes on organisational effectiveness as a result of the training interventions carried out. A set of questionnaires to assess: Internal organisation, External linkages and Project/Activity outcomes were administered to five key informants in every organisation. Each item on the questionnaire was ranked from 1 – 4 as follows:

- 1 for rarely
- 2 for occasionally
- 3 for often
- 4 for always

The ranking given to each question by the respondents were added and then divided by the total number of respondents to get an average ranking for each question. These were clustered under each key area assessed, added and divided by the number of dimensions in a particular key area to get an average rank that falls between 1 and 4.

Three questionnaires were administered to assess the internal organisation of every CBO studied. The first questionnaire focused on the Mission and Values. The key areas assessed were: mission, strategy, identity and values. The ranking for key areas for individual CBOs were added and divided by four to get an average raking. This was later computed as a percentage out of 16. The second questionnaire focused on whar was considered as management 1 and the key areas were; leadership, staff participation, governing body, planning and financial management. The ranking for key areas for individual CBOs were added up and divided by five to get an average score which was computed as a percentage out of 20. The third questionnaire focused on what was considered as management 2 and the key areas considered were: organisational structure, financial reporting proceedures, human resource management, administrative systems, human resources, self-reflection and learning. The ranking for key areas for individual CBOs were added and divided by six to get the average rank which was later computed as percentage out of 24. The three percentages for each CBO were added and divided by three to get an analysis on the level of who each CBO is interanally organised.

Another questionnaire was administered to assess external linkages and the key areas focused on were: relationship with other organisations, advocacy, rlationship with the community and the capacity to obtain and mobilise resources. The raking for key areas for individual CBOs were added and divided by four to get an average ranking and later computed into percentage out of 16.

To assess projects/activities carried out by individual CBOs, two questionnaires were administered. The first one focused on project planning and implementation. The key areas assessed were: good practice, targeting, beneficiary participation, local culture, monitoring and evaluation. Rankings for these key areas for individual CBO were added and divided to five to get an average rank which was later computed as a percentage out of 20. The second questionnaire focused on assessing project outcomes and the key areas were: achievement of objectives and sustainability. The ranking for key areas of individual CBOs were added and divided by two to get an average score that was computed as a percentage out of eight. The two percentages for each CBO were added and divided by two to get an average assessment on the projects/activities performance.

Later the assessed themes: Internal organisation, External linkages and projects, using the analysed percentages, a bar graph was drawn to visually show organisational effectiveness. The benchmark was considered at 40% being an average perforance.

During the study, the following time-table was used.

	Session 1 **Two hours**	**Session 2** **Two hours**	**Session 3** **Two hours**
Day 1	-introductions -debriefing -introducing the training process questionnaire	-scoring the questionnaire -plenary assessment	Focus group discussion
Day 2	Internal organisation	Internal organisation	External linkages
Day 3	Projects/activities	Projects/activities	Plenary analysis Focus group discussion

The analysis of the training process revealed that all the CBOs had a score below 24 which is approximately 66% indicating a training function which is divorced from organisational realties. All the CBOs surveyed indicated that they have had a series of training interventions but were not clear about the systematic training process and therefore not followed. Focus group discussions with respondents revealed that their partners that support their activities initiate most of the training activities. No training needs assessment is carried out and all the CBOs had no training programmes tailored to neither individual needs nor to improving organisational results and effectiveness. None of the CBOs surveyed had a manpower development plan. The training budget ranged between 2% to 4% of the total annual budgets and some respondents mentioned that at times this budget line is not funded. Almost 80% of the respondents mentioned that they have not had a chance to meet their trainers and therefore couldn't feedback on their performance. All organisations indicated that assessing the impact of training on organisational effectiveness has never been done.

On the changes in organisational effectiveness, the study further assessed the three dimensions of: Internal organisation, External linkages and Projects/Activities which form the main parts of a CBO that interact and support each other. Since the ten CBOs studied had had some sort of training; the assessment looked at how has this training strengthened this process of interaction and mutual support to enhance particular CBO effectiveness
The scores were analysed at a scaling where 40% was considered to be about average performance. All the CBOs where the study was carried out are far below the performance benchmark set. As much as there seemed to be a correlation between institutionalising a training function and effectiveness in FURA and Kitenga, it is difficult to contribute their performance to training since there was no pre-training analysis to estimate the position of individuals with respect to the level of skill required to perform their roles effectively. This would be an area of study to assess why organisations within a similar setting are at different levels of performance.

Focus group discussions held with the CBOs leadership revealed that 80% of the Key Informants had no job description. Job analysis and the key competencies required to effectively perform the roles is not done as they mentioned that they recruit based on the resources available and that qualified people are beyond their capacity.

Since the training function as an approach to CBO growth and development that was carried out by the CBOs studied did not gauge the depth of change required neither was the performance standards and competencies required set, it was difficult for the study to measure the depth and breadth of change in place as a consequence of training activities carried out. As much as some elements of knowledge and skills were mentioned and could be seen by the eye of an outsider, elements of attitudes, individual behaviour and overall organisational behaviour were silent. Organisational assessment sessions as a diagnostic tool to identify what growth and development process is needed to increase the effectiveness of CBOs is not carried out thus limiting refocusing the training function to the mission and strategic goals as a reference point. As a result most of the training activities carried out had no reference point impacting on her effectiveness as outside forces are not considered which would have been identified during the assessment.

All in all, as much as there has been a series of training programmes in which the CBOs studied have taken part, there was a lot of short comings in the training process to contribute to changes in their internal organisation, increased performance of the projects and activities being carried out in addition to enhanced external linkages. All the Organisations studied seemed not to be meeting their goals and targets as they solely depend on their donors and once they delay in releasing funds, they cannot implement their work plans on time. This has had an effect on the extent to which they meet the expectations of the groups that work with these CBOs. Low level of resources has contributed to low level of outputs and flexibility within the changing environment thus reducing their competitive advantage. As a result there is a lot of internal strain, a lot of intergroup conflict and limited flow of information and poor morale was cross cutting through all the organisations visited. Most leaders/managers confessed that, their sustainability was blick as soon as the donors pull out. May be for the training to be effective, there is need for the practitioners to adopt a result oriented approach and set measurable indicators against which to assess changes in: knowledge, levels of skills, attitudes and behaviour, levels of effectiveness and, organisational effectiveness. In this respect, the design, delivery and evaluation of a training programme the individual and his/her workplace needs with performance as a central factor.

To contribute to the growth and development of CBOs through a training function, the need to combine task analysis and the concept of competence approaches be considered during training needs assessment. This will enable the practitioner to consider the occupation, individual and the organisation in totality. In addition to focusing on the training as a gap to be filled, a competence approach based approach gives credit for what has been achieved as well as providing standards to be reached in future. The idea of standards is crucial and should be in-built in all training intervention geared to improving the performance of CBOs. This is because can act as benchmarks and descriptions of the expectations of employment against which the actual performance of individuals will be compared and assessed as competent, or not competent as appropriate. The challenge is whether the CBOs will have the skills to carry out this assessment as most of them lacked trainers to act as change agents. In fact none of the CBOs studied had a position of a Training Officer in their establishments. Once the competence approach is adopted in the CBO training interventions, four main skills will be developed. These are:

- Task skills; the routine and largely technical components that make up any job
- Contingency management skills; the ability to recognise and deal with irregularities and variances in the immediate working environment. For example dealing with the stakeholders complaints, dealing with a breakdown in machinery
- Task management skills; the skills to manage a group of tasks and prioritise between them. For example, serving a customer before loading a shelf, making sure there is enough paper before photocopying documents, allocating time to different tasks
- Job role environment skills; the skills to work with others and cope with specific environmental factors

The idea is that as the standards for the training are being developed these four skills are built into the elements, performance criteria and range of statements as appropriate. This will enable the trainees to take on new challenges and tasks, eliminate everything that stops them from doing a good, effective job, and enable all employees to understand what they are doing and

how their own tasks fit into the context of the CBO as a whole. This requires the trainee to appreciate that learning is not just acquiring new skills and capabilities but also leads to greater awareness and increased sensitivity, and to changed attitudes and beliefs. However, the creation of such learning requires a focus on a vision or a set of guiding principles to make clear what the organisation stand for and what its staff and members try to create. The principles should be deeply rooted in human understanding that the members are willing to commit themselves to them fully.

2.0 AIMS AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Today poverty is seen as a complicated condition in Uganda as we try to consider and incorporate quality of life as one of its dimensions, which acknowledges people's capability to fulfill valuable functions within society. This capability may be determined by a person's access to and control over commodities which include tangible such as food, income, and natural resources, but also cover less tangible, but never the less important, items such as education, good health, social standing and security. However, control of commodities has been linked to the ability to influence decision making on how commodities are both generated and distributed. In other words, powerlessness in society is an additional poverty dimension. Poverty therefore, is seen as a human condition where people are unable to achieve essential functions in life, which in turn is due to their lack of access to and control over the commodities they require. In this way, poverty reduction can be seen as a process through which people progressively gain control over commodities in a rough sequence related to;
Survival (such as food, shelter and warmth); well - being (such as health, literacy, security); and empowerment (such as self esteem and status, and exerting influence over decisions that affect their lives. People then become increasingly entitled to commodities that are environmental, economic, social, cultural and political in nature.

In an attempt to address poverty issues at community level, the civil society has stimulated the formation of Community-Based Organisations at local level. To strengthen these organisations, various training programmes have been conducted. The research therefore will focus on how the knowledge, skills and attitudes developed as a result of training have translated into building the capacity of these organisations to handle sustainable development, thus the creation of societies without poverty and injustice.

The goal of the study is to examine the role of training as a force for enhancing/strengthening the process of Community Based Organisations engagement towards achieving their objectives. In this respect, the research topic focussed on 'the assessment of the effectiveness and relevancy of training in the growth and development of Community Based Organisations in Uganda'.

The specific objectives of this study were twofold. The first one was to examine the processes by which training is designed and delivered. The second objective was to examine the organisational changes that have occurred as a consequence of training.

The study first developed a working definition of the term CBO as a group of people working together for a common purpose within a specific context and time frame. Two definitions of training were used as a reference while considering the above objectives. These definitions are: 'The systematic development of the knowledge/attitude/skill/behaviour pattern required by an individual to perform adequately a given task or job': 'Any organizationally initiated procedures which are intended to foster learning among organisational members in a direction contributing to organisational effectiveness'. Three dimensions of : Internal organisation, External linkages and Projects/Activities which form the main parts of a CBO that interact and support each other to enable the process of achieving her objectives were examined. In otherwords has the training function strengthened the process of interaction and mutual support to enhance a particular CBO effectiveness? The benchmark considered for an effective CBO revolved around the characteristics:

- Clear purpose of where it wants to go
- Clear plans of how it wants to achieve its vision
- Strong values that shape the work and culture of a particular CBO
- Projects that are effective and follow good practice
- Strong leadership
- Clear lines of decision making and accountability
- Good systems of financial control and administration
- Good relationships with other organisations
- Openness to learn and reflect with a desire to improve

The major limitations encountered during the study were:

- Poor timing; the study was carried out between January and March 2004, and 80% of the organisations visited were either working on their annual report for the year 2003 or quarterly workplans for the first three months of the year 2004. This limited the time they gave me and also their concentration on the self-assessment questionnaires and focus group discussions we had
- During focus group discussions, the top executives tended to dominate limiting others from contributing and therefore the validity of information was not easy to verify
- There as a language barrier with the CBOs in Rwanda where the questionnaires were translated in the local dialect

3.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 The changing nature of development

A programme of international development assistance, commonly called the aid system has existed for 30 years or even more. Initially the system assumed that inputs of finance and expertise from Northern donor countries could accelerate and direct change in poorer countries of the world – the South. In later years it became clear that development could not be externally directed, but require local ownership and sufficient capacity to guide the process. Throughout, the primary public goal of international aid remained one of bringing about changes which reduce the proportion of poor or otherwise disadvantaged people in society. About 15 years ago an important condition was added to this goal, namely that change should be sustainable today and for future generations. Even more recently, under the label of reforms for good governance, the purpose of aid has expanded to include the promotion of particular form of politics based on democratic representation, social justice, the rule of law, and adherence to international agreements on human rights.

However, some 30 years of providing aid involving hundreds of billions of dollars, millions of staff and countless projects, together with major shifts in priorities, strategies and approaches, have not made a substantial impact on the scale of poverty in the countries of the South. Transition to market economics through privatisation, liberalisation and structural adjustments in Uganda is likely to have led to increased human deprivation and criminality, with increasing pollution and the unsustainable exploitation of natural resources. Suggesting how to enhance Community Based Organisations (CBO) effectiveness calls for an approach which is both critical and pragmatic, starting from an analysis of what CBOs have to be effective at. The CBOs however have to develop the necessary capacities to be able to carry out the various tasks that must be mastered in order to be an effective force for change within the society. Various interventions have been attempted in order to build the capacity of CBOs to be able to carry out the change agent role effectively. One of the interventions that has been carried out in this regard has been training focusing at imparting more specific knowledge, attitude, skills and habits which will enhance the individuals productivity and organisational competitiveness.

Changing insights about the nature of poverty has impacted the way CBOs operate today. Currently poverty is seen as a complicated condition, but this has not been the case. Initially, poverty was simply treated, as a lack of minimum nutritional intake needed to sustain life; calorie counts became the key measure and feeding programme the response. The poor were then identified as those who fell below the minimum. Subsequently, this limited definition expanded to incorporate the basic set of human needs, including calorie intake, shelter and clothing; it was urged that without these basic needs people could not lead a human existence. Consequently, consumption became the common poverty measure, with a threshold set for the proportion of income that could be spent on basic requirements. The response of CBOs was to consider primary health care, water supply and income generation. Another shift in argument broadened the understanding of poverty to incorporate quality of life; this acknowledged people's capability to fulfil valuable functions within society. This capability is determined by a person's access to and control over 'commodities', which include tangible such as food, income, and natural resources, but also cover less tangible, but nevertheless important, items such as education, good health, social standing and security. From this point it is a small step to link 'control over commodities' to the ability to influence decisions on how commodities are both generated and distributed. In other words, powerlessness in society became an additional poverty dimension. Programmes therefore sought to organise people around common concerns and help to attain greater voice in matters affecting them became the major focus of CBOs.

Today poverty can be seen as a human condition where people are unable to achieve essential functions in life, which in turn is due to their lack of access to and control over the commodities they require. In this way, poverty reduction can be seen as a process through which people progressively gain control over commodities in a rough sequence related to: survival, such as food, shelter and warmth; well-being, health, literacy, security; and empowerment, in the psychological sense of self-esteem and status, and in the political sense of exerting influence over decisions which affect their lives. CBOs and other development partners are engaged in programmes and activities that enable people to become increasingly entitled to commodities which are environmental, economic, social, cultural and political in nature. For CBOs to be effective, the changing insights about the nature of poverty within the area of operation must be analysed and internalised and the causes identified otherwise only the symptoms of poverty will be treated. In the case of CBOs, their impact will not be sustainable in the long term.

There are two stages to development action at the micro-level. The first involves poverty reduction in ways which are sustainable and which lead to the growth and functioning of strong autonomous organisations. These organisations represent people who were poorer but who have gained the ability to engage with other social actors on their own terms. The second stage is a process through which these disparate groupings collaborate, associate and form other social structures within which they exert themselves and pursue their interests. This arena of civic action influences the way society functions and impacts directly on governance. Alan Fowler (1997) argues that the end of the Cold War has brought with it a new concern for something called the institutions of civil society. He further indicates that, the civil society institutions are considered to be the array of people's organisations, voluntary associations, clubs, self-help or interest groups, religious bodies, representative

organisations and social movements which may be formal or informal in nature, and which are not part of government or political parties, and are not established to make profits for their owners. In other words, civil society is often visualised as the arena of association and information between the family and state.

The critical point is that today civil society is expected to play a key role in the way that a country's system of governance evolves. It is here that citizens relate to each other and give collective expression to their demands and judgement on public affairs. In the process of making governance more inclusive and just, civil society is believed to play the following significant functions: provide space for the mobilisation, articulation and pursuit of interests by individuals and groups; provide the institutional means for mediating between conflicting interests and social values; give expression and direction to social religious and cultural needs and nurture the values of citizenship required for democracy. Listening to supposedly knowledgeable people talking about civil society at conferences and other for a, it is easy to fall into the trap of thinking that civil society is a level playing field and the new salvation for development. Too seldom is the point made that civil society is a messy arena of competing claims and interests between groups that do not necessarily like each other, as well as a place for mediation and collaboration. The position of Alan Fowler (1997) indicates that, strengthening civil society is as likely to increase social tensions as to reduce them because more voices are better able to stake their claim to public resources and policies. Nevertheless, the major task at micro-level is to stimulate and facilitate the forming of some civic institutions, as well as strengthening their capacity to engage with each other, with the state and with the market.

The review of poverty describes the sort of changes needed to move people from deprivation to a situation where they have sufficient access to and control over existing commodities or are able to generate new ones with more equal exchange. Effective micro-development requires that people, rather than money, technology or materials are the starting point for the approach that focuses at improving people's livelihoods and physical well being in sustainable ways, building up the capacities of people's organisations and empowering in the sense that, individually and collectively, people are able and willing to make claims on development processes, as well as instigating their own. While attempting to achieve this level, various tasks and interventions have been carried out at CBO level to stimulate development action as reflected in figure 1 below. These tasks targets at empowering communities and individuals, strengthening local institutions and stimulating improvements in physical well-being that is believed to mobilising and strengthening civil society; a process that is likely to translate into socially just and sustainable economies with accountable inclusive systems of governance.

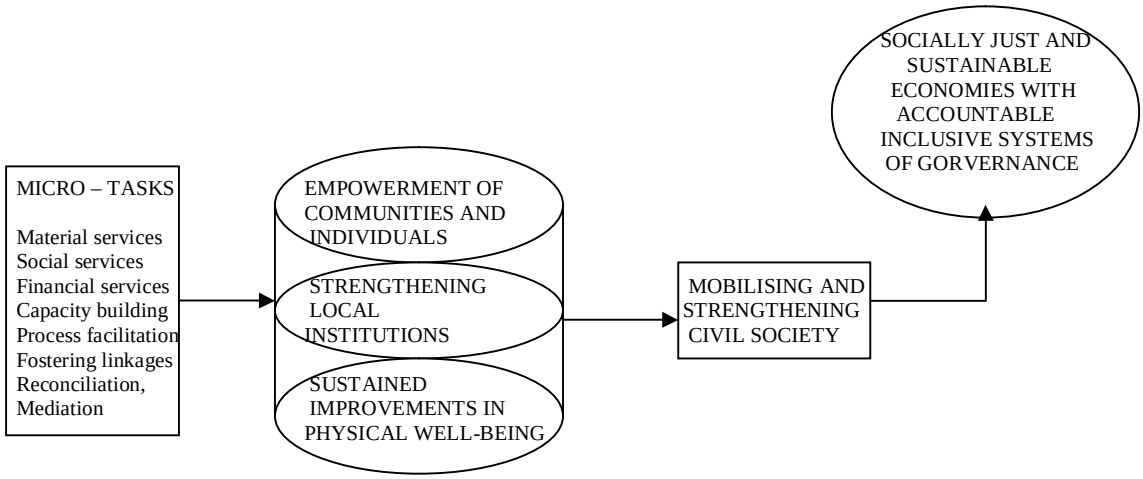


Figure 1. Development action at CBO level: Adopted from Striking a balance; Alan Fowler (1997)

3.2 Training as one of the capacity building interventions

One of the capacity building tasks has been training to engender change in human behaviour and capabilities focusing on knowledge and skills. The process of training employees within an organisational context is defined in different ways by different authors. A typical British definition is offered by the Department of Employment Glossary of Training Terms (1971): 'The systematic development of the attitude/knowledge/ skill/ behaviour pattern required by an individual to perform adequately a given task or job'. The key concepts here are; systematic development which implies planning and control, individual which excludes group and team development, and job or task performance which is a criterion of success. The definition has strength in that it emphasizes systematic process for improving work-based performance. Its weakness is likely to lie in the exclusion of groups and teams, thereby ignoring important aspects of the organizational context. A typical American definition is very different, for example the one offered by Hinrichs (1976): 'Any organizationally initiated procedures which

are intended to foster learning among organizational members in a direction contributing to organizational effectiveness'. The key concepts here are; organizational procedures which puts the training process into an organizational context, foster learning which implies that the responsibility is shared between the organization offering it and the members receiving it, and the criterion of success is organisational effectiveness.

The definition offered by Hinrichs is much broader and it would allow the inclusion of many organizational development activities as well as technical training. The strength of the definition is that it firmly plants training in its organizational context. The synthesis of the necessary core concepts, which I draw from these definitions, can be summarized in the following statements:

- Training should be a systematic process with some planning and control rather than random learning from experience
- It should be concerned with changing concepts, skills and attitudes of people treated both as individuals and as groups
- It is intended to improve performance in both the present and the following job and through this should enhance the effectiveness of the part of the organisation in which the individual or group works

The examination of the process and the changes attributable to changes is necessary and will answer questions about efficiency where as an assessment of improvements in individual and organizational performance explores the effectiveness of training.

3.3 **Models of training**

Peter Bramley (1991) argued that the process by which training is designed and delivered could be evaluated against examples of good practice. He further indicates that any process is made of steps and, if it is systematic, each of these will arise logically from the model on which it is based. Models of training have different assumptions and are suitable for different purposes. Some models encourage discourse and assume that useful learning takes place as a result of interaction with others who have greater or, perhaps, different experience. Some are based on the principal that successful job performance is judged by the assessment of levels of skills and thus the function of training becomes to improve individual skills. Other models focus on improved effectiveness in the organisational context. Therefore, it must surely be worth considering whether the model on which a training activity is based is consistent with the purpose. There are various training models but for the purpose of this dissertation, I will focus on the individual training model and the increased effectiveness model.

3.3.1 The individual training model

The individual training model has its origin in craft apprenticeships where, over a period of some years, a young person learned to imitate the skills of his master. The learning model in use here was an ancient one based upon Socratic discourse, but with some hand-eye skills learned by the method of demonstration followed by further demonstration. Training for trades and technical training in general has been greatly influenced by this tradition of teaching skills to individuals in the belief that they will later find a use for them. The model is, however, being used in other forms of training. Since the 1950s, it has become more and more necessary to train managers and supervisors as well as blue collar workers. With most supervisory and management training, the work situation does not closely resemble that simulated in the training and the changes achieved in the training programme are not necessarily reflected in changes in work performance. As Katz and Kahn (1978) point out, attempts to change parts of organisations by using models like this have: 'a long history of theoretical inadequacy and practical failure'. The logic of this approach is that, as organisations are made up of individuals, it must be possible to change the organisation by changing the members. This is, however, a great simplification of organizational reality. An organisation will have objectives, priorities and policies. It will also have a structure and accepted ways of doing things. All of these situational factors will have some effect on shaping the behaviour of members of the organisation within their work. Often the changed individual may not be able to change these situational factors.

It is worthwhile investigating this further as it is crucial to an understanding of why training sometimes fails to have any impact. The work context can be represented as an interaction between the situation and the people in it. If this interaction is not as effective as it might be, then changing people by training might be considered as a way of improving things. However, this will only be successful if the people are sufficiently autonomous to change the interaction and thus the work situation. This might be possible where people are trained to use a piece of equipment like a keyboard or a lathe, but there is no reason to assume that it is a case with a supervisory problem. Other factors affect the situation and they may have more influence over the way in which the work is done than the skills of the people. Such factors as the structure of the organisation (who reports to whom, how many levels, and whether people can communicate horizontally), the culture (in what spirit people relate to each other, to what extent is individuality valued, the identity, norms and beliefs), the design of the work (the extent to which this is frustrating or stress-inducing), and whether good performance is actually rewarded (by recognition, praise, and promotion as well as financially) will all affect the job situation. It will often be necessary to change some of these and to train the people, as their effect on the interaction may be more powerful than the ability of the individuals to innovate in the job.

A distinction is being drawn here between training and giving information. The latter is a method, which is widely used for changing the 'people' side of interaction. At its most basic this may be feedback on organisational performance and an induction of how far this fall short of expectations, but there may be more sophisticated forms like management briefings and job induction programmes. It should also be noted that changing the people by selecting different people to fill key appointments or regrouping people into teams where more co-operation and less conflict is likely, might be a more effective method than training the people who are in the post.

3.3.2 Increased effectiveness model

Peter Bramley (1991), points out that changing the performance of people in the job is rather more complicated and therefore raised a need to consider a model which is based on changing the effectiveness rather than on educating the individuals. He referred to this as the increased effectiveness model. He further indicates that, in this model, the process starts in a part of the organisation with a decision about what level of effectiveness is desirable. The second stage is to define criteria by which changes towards the more desirable state can be measured, that is, how will we know if we are getting there. In defining the resources necessary (stage three of the model), aspects of the job situation other than the skills of the people will be considered and it may be that changing some of these will achieve the desired improvements without training. If training is thought to be necessary, it is delivered, and the extent to which any learning is useful will be monitored by changes in job performance. This model is much more appropriate for the kind of work where people have some discretion about what they do or the ability to negotiate priorities.

Considering the organisational context when using a model like this can have significant benefits. In a study report by McGarrell (1984), induction training of new employees was redesigned to prepare them for the social context of the job and for the frustrations and opportunities of learning on the job. They also learned how their contribution would fit into their part of the organisation and into the organisation as a whole. The loss of the people by leaving during the three months induction period dropped by 70% and this gave a cost ratio of 8:1. On the other hand, ignoring the organisational context can be expensive. Sykes (1962) describe a training programme in which 97 supervisors in an organisation were trained to be more participative in their management style. The values instilled during training were not those of the management of the organisation and the supervisors were frustrated in their attempts to introduce participative management in the workplace. Within a year 19 of the supervisors had left and another 25 were actively seeking other employment. The training, although efficient in changing the attitudes of the supervisors, was not effective in contributing to organisational goals

3.4 The training process as a systematic cycle

Training is usually planned using a process said to be a 'systems approach', implying that the subsystems within the cycle interact going from step to step in a logical fashion but the subsystems rarely interact nor do they interact with other organisational subsystems like job design, reward systems or organisational restructuring. The result of this is often efficient rather than effective training because the training objectives, once defined, become synonymous with the training need and the training subsystem becomes the closed cycle. In order to open to the organisational context the training should be evaluated against the need originally identified, in the part of the organisation where it existed. This is often not done. The systematic training cycle has five major steps; identification of training need, training objectives, selection and design of programme, carry out training, and evaluative feedback.

A quite different cycle is suggested by considering training as a way of enhancing organisational effectiveness. The process starts with an analysis of the existing situation. The needs identified will be phrased in terms of new work practices which will enhance the effectiveness of one particular part of the organisation. The management of that part of the organisation must be involved at all stages and be committed to changing organizational structures or practices which conflict with the new practices that are being introduced. In almost every case this imply that the managers are involved in the design and delivery of the training. They will also be responsible for encouraging the new behaviours in the work place by appraising performance and coaching or supervising as necessary to ensure that the learning becomes incorporated in standard work practices. The steps of this cycle can be summarised as indicated in the figure 2 below;

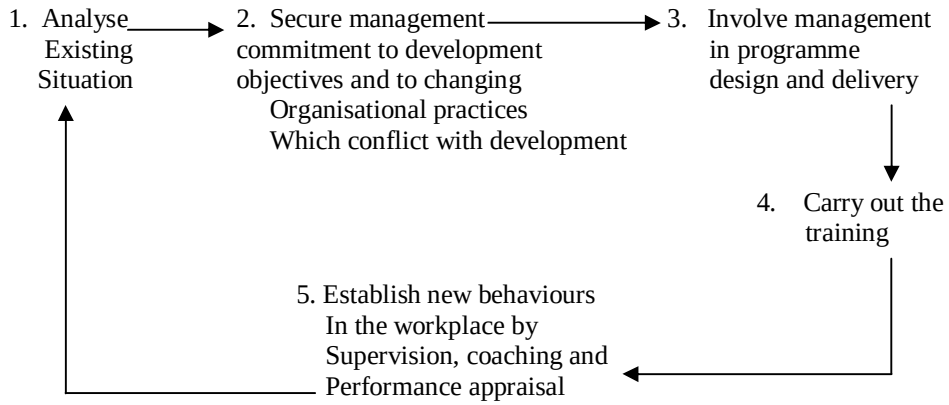


Figure 2. Training as organisational change

3.5 Identification of training needs

The accurate identification of the training needs of an organisation is crucial to its success and development. However, theory does little to assist those who face this difficult task. It is not simply a matter of deciding on the location, scope and magnitude of the needs. Priorities need to be set and linked to those of other functions within the organization as well as to the organisation as a whole. The most influential text on training needs analysis is that of McGehee and Thayer (1961). They argue that training needs analysis requires much more than 'armchair cerebration' and suggest analysis at three levels – the organization, job and person. Although the needs analysis will usually consist of three distinct investigations, McGehee and Thayer argue that these should be interrelated so that they build on each other to produce a complete training needs statement. They further indicate that analysis at organisational level is used to determine where training can and should be used. The focus is the total enterprise and the analysis will look at things like the organisational objectives, the pool of skills presently available, indices of effectiveness and the organisational climate. Analysis at the job level involves collecting data about a particular job or group of jobs. The analysis will determine what standards are required and what knowledge, skills and attitudes are required in order to achieve these standards. The focus on job analysis is how well a particular employee is carrying out the various tasks, which are necessary for successful performance.

Training and development is a subsystem of the organisation and has its own inputs from the organisation and outputs to the organisation. If this interaction is to result in increased organisational effectiveness, then it is clear that priorities for training needs must be related to organisational goals. This implies that the training plan should be constructed in the same context as the business plan and be closely related to it. Hussey's survey (1985) of British companies suggests that only about a third of them actually do this. The report further indicates that, most managers felt that training objectives should be tailored to the individual rather than to the corporate needs. Hussey argues that training should not be for the individual in the hope that it will benefit the organistion; training should be for the benefit of the organisation as this will benefit individuals in it. Thus training objectives, especially those for management development should be reviewed regularly by top management and particularly whenever a change in direction or emphasis is planned. It appears that, in the USA, the likelihood of this happening is increasing. Bolt's survey (1987) shows that between 1983 and 1986 there was an increase in top management commitment to management training and development and that: 'senior corporate management is expecting the training profession to deliver results and to contribute materially to implementing corporate strategies and achieving business objectives'.

Mcgehee and Thayer recommend a number of sources of data to support the analysis of needs at organisational level including:

- Organisational goals and objectives will provide targets for various functions within the organisation. Some of these will imply changes in performance standards and these may have training implications

- The manpower plan will predict gaps caused by retirements, promotions and turnover. This provides a demographic basis for identifying training required to fill the gaps

- The skill pool is an inventory of knowledge and skills held within the organisation. The maintenance of this will indicate training needs. It is also possible to predict some of the skills which will be required in the future and which are not, at present, available

- Organisational climate indices like turnover, absenteeism, short-term sickness, attitude surveys, grievances and strikes, will sometimes indicate training needs as well as altering some aspects of the work situation

- Efficiency indices like costs of labour and materials, quality of product, equipment utilisation, cost of distribution, waste, machine down time, late deliveries, repairs, or customer complaints may indicate a shortfall in performance which can be improved by training

- Requests by line management or surveys of their opinions are often used to build up the training plan

- There is also often a training implication when new systems or new equipment are introduced

The linking of training to the organisational context in which the work is done is fundamental to this level of analysis. One way of doing this which is likely to be useful, is to talk regularly to managers about how they conceptualise 'effectiveness'. This method is based on critical incident analysis whose procedure is as follows:

- Target a function within the organisation and arrange interviews with a representative sample of line managers and supervisors. Arrange to see the more senior ones first
- Discus aspects of organisational effectiveness with each member of the sample. Ask each to describe one or two incidents when things were going particularly well or badly; how the incident developed, what criteria were being used to judge 'well' or 'badly', what was the result of the incident in organisational terms. Some of the aspects used to classify organisational effectiveness are as follows;

Achieving goals
- Increased product/service quality
- Increased output
- Increased productivity

Increasing resourcefulness
- Increased share of the market
- Increased employee versatility
- Moving into new markets

Satisfying customers
- Improved organisational (or functional image)
- Reduced complaints/returned material
- Increased proportion of on-tome deliveries

Improving internal processes
- Increased group cohesiveness
- Increased quality of supervision
- Help resolve departmental boundary problems
- Increasing manager's ability to set realistic and tangible objectives for their departments

This framework for conceptualising organisational effectiveness is derived from the work of Cameron (1980)

As a result of this discussion, try to understand the key results and priorities for a particular manager or supervisor. Discuss to what extent the present training provision helps with these key areas of effectiveness and also discuss whether another form of training activity might help. An integration of the ideas generated in these interviews should give a clear view of what training and development might be able to do to improve the effectiveness of the particular function. This should be fed back to the senior managers in the function and the objectives for the training agreed. There will also be a need to commit senior managers to supporting the training by increased supervision or coaching and/or changing some of the work practices, which are associated with low effectiveness.

To perform its duties well, an organisation must have adequate capacity in five areas; each must be consistent with the other. The first two relate to an organisational design and systems, which link vision to action through appropriate development strategies, programmes and projects; competent and well-managed people carry these out. The next three capacities link the Community Based Organisation (CBO) to the outside world by mobilising necessary resources; maintaining a variety of external relationships; and producing results consistent with the mission. A training function in this respect may be crucial in developing these capacities and creating the right organisational set-up to enhance her effectiveness. For the purposes of this dissertation, capacity will be simply referred to as the capability of an organisation to achieve what it sets out to do to realise its

mission. In this sense, capacity measures an organisation's' performance in relation to those it sets out to benefit. Alan Fowler (1997) argues that while we can look at the many factors which contribute to capacity – people, finances, physical facilities, procedures and systems, these ingredients are not the same as seeing capacity itself; this must be viewed according to an organisation's results and therefore, capacity building must not be separated from assessing external change. However, the problem for CBOs is that results are seldom clear cut. At times, their role may be to 'dissatisfy' some stakeholders, such as governments or development banks when exerting policy influence in favour of people who are poor and disadvantaged. Whatever the mix of specific goals and stakeholders a CBO has, it is vitally important to be consistent about which one is the most significant for example who is the CBO's ' primary stakeholder, because the values and expectations in relation to this group provide the most important standards against which to assess capacity. Therefore the dualism between satisfying some and dissatisfying others leads to the definition of the CBO capacity as the measure of her capability to satisfy or influence stakeholders consistent with its mission. The training function can lead to the development of an effective CBO capacity framework as shown below.

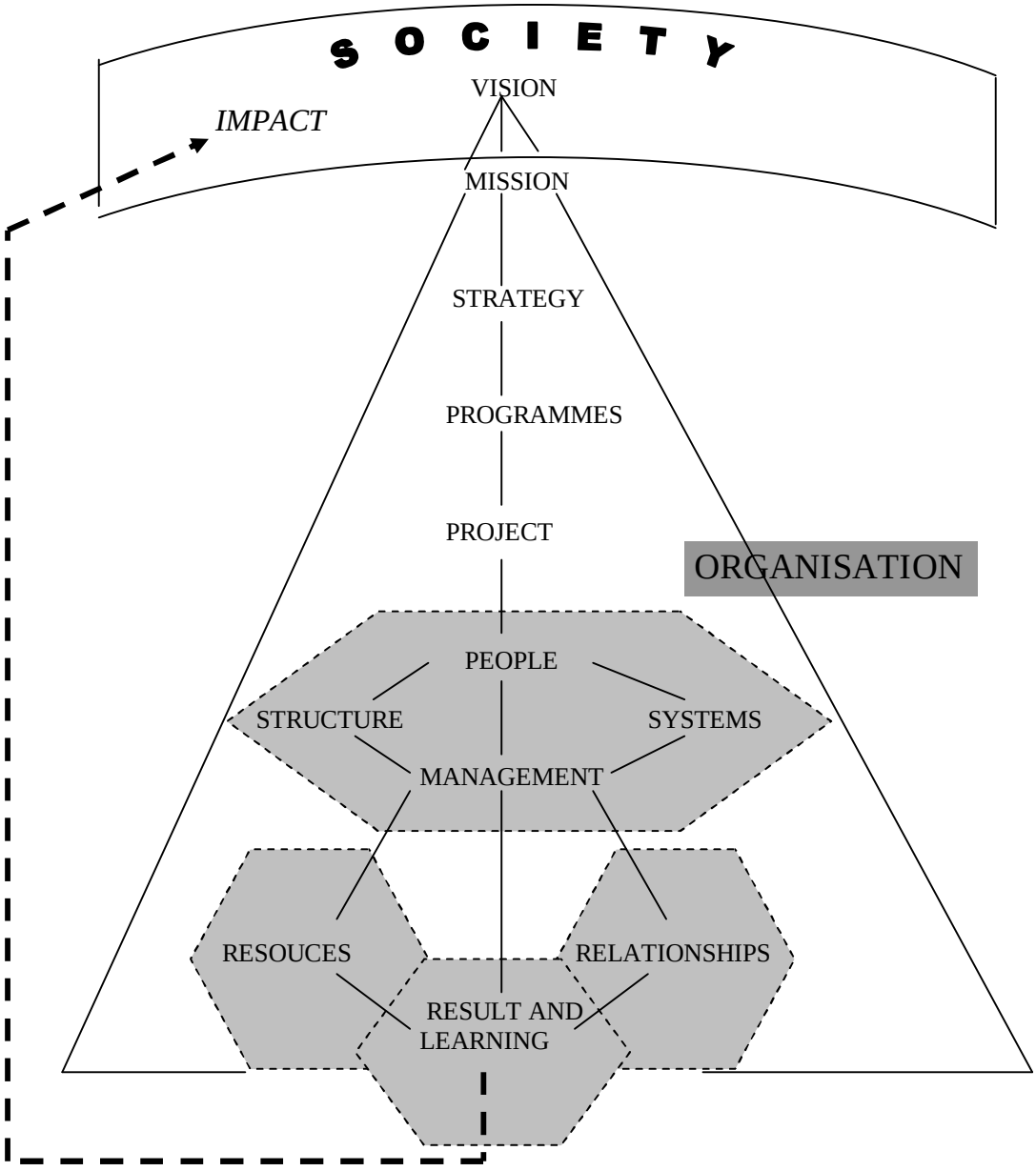


Figure 3. CBO capacity framework adopted from the work of Alan Fowler (1997)

If capacity is the ability to achieve an impact in terms of satisfying or influencing stakeholders, effectiveness therefore refers to achieving this impact to an appropriate level of effort and cost. It means only doing the things that are necessary and doing them well within available resources. The starting point for effectiveness therefore, is knowing what tasks to do, why, and how

they must relate to each other. This involves a reasonably logical set of steps that move from the organisation's vision of a changed society to the actions or activities needed to reach it. In technical terms, this is moving from reaffirmation of mission to ensure it is still relevant, through strategic analysis, into operational planning and then development activities. This calls for CBOs to acquire and develop skills and competencies that will enable them effectively carry out these tasks in a competitive environment. Moving from vision to action calls for two types of consistency: first, between vision and concrete development activities with stakeholders; second, between the chosen activities, the organisational structure and the principles of participation and empowerment. Inconsistency between CBO's vision, what it says it wants to be and what it does is a common source of ineffectiveness. Staff, supporters and the outside world get confused, actions do not combine and support each other in optimal ways, there is a loss of focus and energies become dissipated. It is therefore important that the path from vision to action hangs together. Gareth Morgan (1996), indicates that achieving this condition has three essential stages: re-examination and confirmation of what the CBO stands for in terms of coherence between vision, mission, identity and role in society; linking these to longer-term strategic choices that give it overall direction and maximise impact on society; and translating choices into tangible actions and tasks to be carried out by staff, volunteers and others in collaboration, or perhaps in opposition, to some stakeholders.

Going through each stage properly should ensure consistency throughout the organisation. What makes the whole affair complicated is the knowledge that, to be relevant and sustainable, this cannot be worked out by the organisation on its own. This top-down approach as indicated in figure 3 above must be matched by a bottom-up process of dialogue and negotiation with the external stakeholders that eventually determines if there are lasting social changes and benefits from the CBO efforts. Matching these two directions is one of the most problems facing CBOs. It crops up in virtually everything they do and is a constant tension, which must be managed. Managing this tension is made easier if there is consistency between what a CBO says it wants to be and what it does. Ensuring coherence between vision, mission, identity and role is crucial and contributes to the effectiveness of a CBO. Vision and mission are concepts and statements, which tie CBOs to processes of desired social change. But they are not enough to position a CBO and give it a clear identity and role, which is understood both by insiders and outsiders. The degree of clarity and shared ownership of vision, mission and identity is likely to differ widely between CBOs due to differing ideologies which are likely to influence identity by clarifying beliefs and values.

A consistent vision, mission, identity and social role are preconditions for effective actions; however, they only reside in people's minds, hearts and on paper. Linking these aspirations and intentions to the right activities means understanding what is going on in the outside world and then fitting the organisation's work into the environment in a way, which maximises impact. This task is sometimes called positioning the organisation. A common way of working out the best fit or position is through strategic planning. The objective of strategic planning is to make long-term choices in terms of concrete goals and resource allocations that are likely to maximise impact without compromising identity, autonomy and viability. However this process can only be carried out properly if vision, mission and identity are in place, consistent with each other, widely understood and internalised by staff. Strategic planning can benefit CBOs in adapting to the new world order if it helps them to get their house in order, ensures reorientation towards what they are good at, establishes a common framework for responding to the unexpected, and ensures that third sector principles inspire people to move in the same direction. Therefore managers must develop skills to manage with strategic perspective, have ability to collectively judge the long-term implications of short-term events in relation to the strategic direction and respond accordingly. To achieve this calls for an intensive capacity building package.

Increasing capacity for better development impact can be directed at specific organisations and at institutional relations operating at different levels in society. In both cases the task is to initiate changes which serve or better influence sets of stakeholders. Organisational capacity emerges when CBO staff and volunteers with the necessary competencies interact together in the right way. In short, it is a product of group dynamics properly tailored and focussed on mission-derived tasks. More often than not, realising the CBOs mission means strengthening the capacity of others. It can also mean changing the way organisations relate to each other in civil society and towards the government and the market. In many CBOs, capacity growth is the result of gaining experience and adapting to the outside world. Caroline Sahley (1995) argues that, this type of growth can be accelerated through tailored processes of organisational development – capacity seldom improves in sustainable ways when solely based on predefined packages imported into a CBO or into a society at large. From this perspective, it is more appropriate to see change in organisational capacity as a process of inducing growth in human and organisational relationships, rather than a mechanical process of building with known blocks. Usually insufficient distinction is made between capacity building as a means, ends or process and whether it is intended to improve things within the organisation itself, within society at large or both. The table below indicates the internal and external elements of capacity building. The internal capacity growth is often initiated in order to improve on CBO performance whereas the CBO's organisational development is used as a means to achieve sectoral development or institutional development.

	Means	**Process**	**Ends**
Capacity growth of a CBO: Organisational Development (OD)	Strengthening the CBO's ability to perform specific functions.	Bringing coherence at all levels of internal action with possibility of continual learning and necessary adaptation.	Improves CBO viability, sustainability and direct impact consistent with the chosen mission.
Capacity growth of the CBO community or a subsector of it: Sectoral Development (SD)	Strengthens the ability of the sector to improve overall civic impact	Bringing mutually supporting relations and understanding amongst subsectors	Achieves confident and powerful interaction with other sectors and social actors based on shared strategies and learning.
Capacity growth of civic society: institutional development (ID)	Improves the ability of primary stakeholders to identify and carry out activities to solve problems.	Enables and stimulates stronger civic interactions and communication, conflict mediation and resolution in society, thereby enhancing social capital.	Increases ability of primary stakeholders to engage with and influence the political arena and social-economic system in accordance with their interests.

Figure 4. Concepts of capacity growth adopted from the work of Alan Fowler (1997)

The work of Alan Fowler (1997) shows that increasing capacity within CBOs in order to effect changes within social institutions is distinct from capacity that improves the performance of local organisations. For instance, the primary focus is on relationships, roles and power distribution between civic actors and interactions with other sectors of society; it usually calls for multiple levels of intervention locally, nationally and internationally; and it is more difficult to assess in terms of achievement.

Stimulating capacity growth in community development organisations and institutions of civil society can be similar but there is a different mix of stakeholders and processes. This is illustrated in the diagram below adapted from Richard Holloway's work. The diagram shows an assessment involving different stakeholders, processes to identify areas and types of capacity growth required and four types of intervention, which can be employed singly or together.

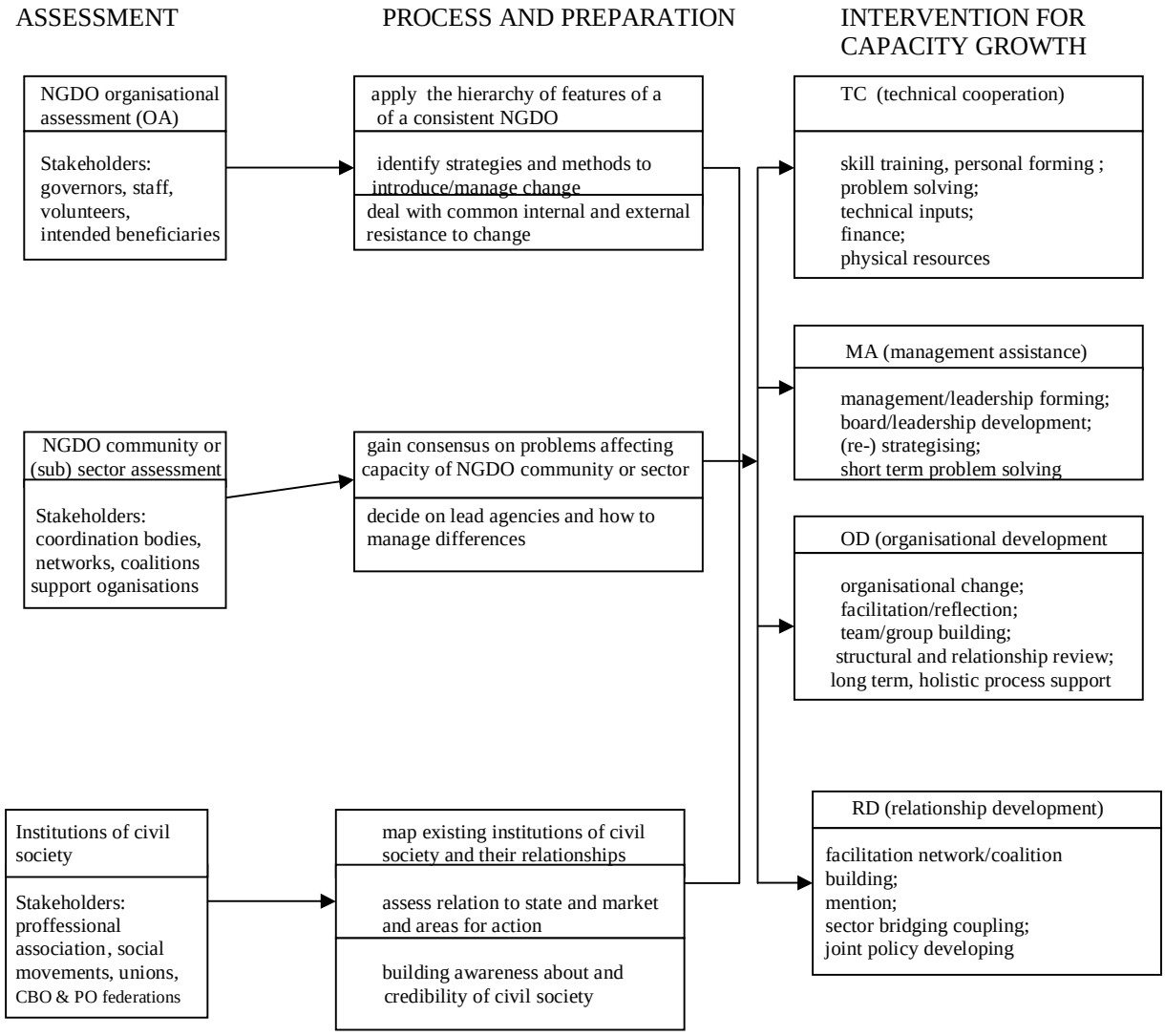


Figure 5. Stimulating capacity growth adopted from the work of Richard Holloway's (1998)

Improving organisational capacity interventions aims at better organisational performance in relation to mission, context, resources and sustainability. However, effective organisational capacity development through experience can be enhanced by the following dimensions.

Action-learning; Capacity development is best treated as a form of action-learning by staff, volunteers, leaders and goovernors. It should be seen as a type of learning which takes place by going through changes and then reflecting on what has happened. While the capabilities of individuals can be built through skill-oriented, prepackaged training courses, the organisation's overall capacity can be improved by locating training within an organisation's development strategy; the organisation needs to gain mastery of itself in order to take responsibility for and adequately utilise the individuals it sends for training. If an organisational development process goes well it never stops, but becomes a way of life. Instead of a limited, specialised, dedicated set of activities, organisational development becomes part and parcel of the organisation's normal functioning. The process of applying continous learning is its product.

Group facilitation; Organisational development is esentially a process of group-oriented research and reflection. While scale and complexity differ considerably, this basic idea holds true for capacity growth across the spectrum of community based organisations. Typically, this means bringing facilitators, similar to change agents, into the organisation instead of taking out individuals for training. If there is no third party involvement, the chances are that self-reflection will be limited: awkard questions that challenge comfortable assumptions are not asked; existing power relations and hierarchy are respected even if they are disfunctional; and lack of experience about comparative experience engenders complacency, with insufficient awareness of how things could be done differently and better. This makes skill group facilitation a key component of organisational development.

Stakeholder judgements; organisational development occurs predominantly amongst CBO staff. However, the definition of capacity ties performance to what stakeholders experience. Consequently, stakeholder perceptions must be brought into the organisational development initiative. Eventually any process of capacity change will have to be assessed through the perspective of those who have a legitimate claim on the organisation.

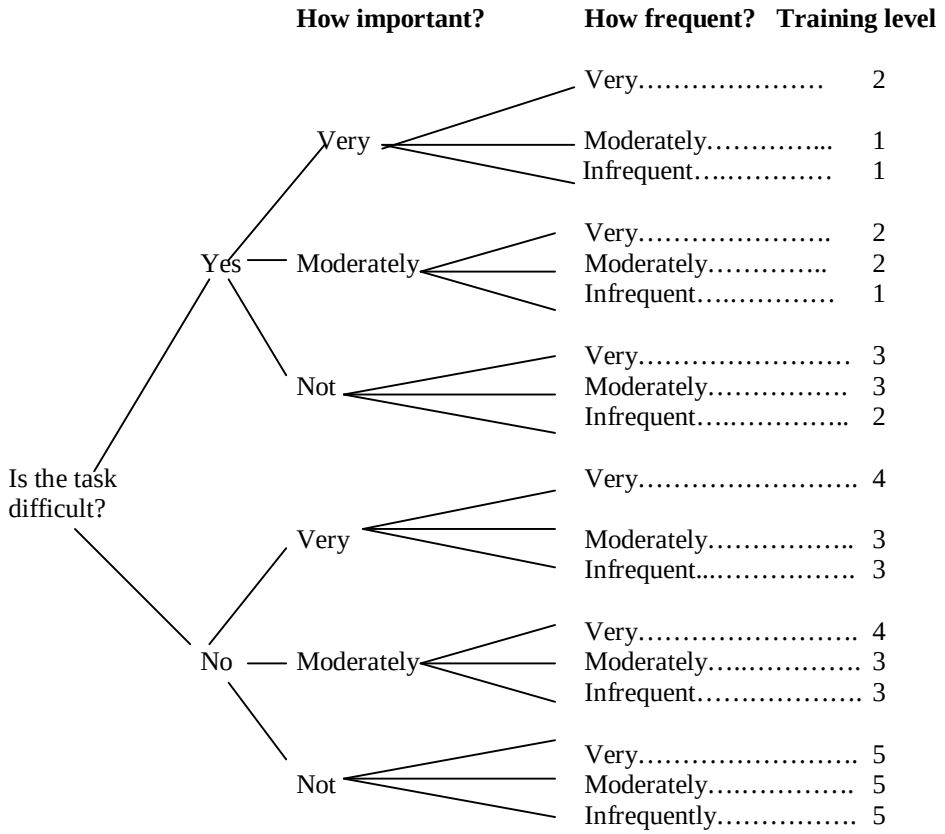
Internal participation;Organisational change should follow the sam principles that a CBO uses to work with communities: honesty, transparency, negotiation and participation. This means that adopting organisational development methods which engage everyone and create space in terms of time and resources. Where change is likely to involve reducing staff or substantially altering the mix of competencies, it is obviously unrealistic to expect participatory decision making to produce consensus on who should go or stay. Eventually it is the task of leaders to make hard choices, but the point is to ensure that decisions are the result of open consultation.

Self-appraisal; Although extreme situations of self denial or power abuse may exist in CBOs, the guiding principle for organisational development is that it is based on self-assessment. This is the only way that responsibility is located within the CBOs not displaced to outside experts. This is also consistent with the principle of participation outlined above.

At the job data level of analysis it is necessary to discover what tasks need to be performed in order to do the job, how they should be performed and thus what needs to be learned in order to perform well. McGehee and Thayer offer a number of techniques for carrying out such an analysis:

- Job description will give an outline of the job and list typical duties and responsibilities. For some jobs these will change each year in response to setting new priorities.
- Job specifications are more detailed than job descriptions and should give complete list of tasks. They may also include standard for judging satisfactory performance in the important tasks.
- Performance standards are usually phrased as objectives for the job and the targets or standards by which these will be judged.
- Actually doing the job is very effective for specific tasks, but has obvious limitations in jobs where there are long gaps between performance and outcomes.
- Job observation or work sampling might also be used to look in detail at particular parts of the job.

Asking the job holder and the supervisor about the job is also a method suggested by McGehee and Thayer. According to Thayer, this has been developed by the Armed Forces into a complex analysis by sending to al incumbents and their supervisors questionaires asking about frequency, importance and difficulty of various tasks which might be part of their job. The answers are analysed using a comprehensive data anaysis method which clusters the tasks, and this gives a complete specification of the job, or more usually, of a group of related jobs forming a trade structure. The training programme is the designed based on decision trees like the one below;



Training Level 1 = Overtrain and reinstate at intervals
Training Level 2 = Train to job proficiency level
Training Level 3 = Train to 'need to be aware of' level
Training Level 5 = Do not train

Figure 6. The difficulty/ frequebcy/ importance matrix

Where the training programme already exist, it is possible to estimate the relevance to successful job performance of the various topics covered. Ford and Wroten (1984) describe a method and its application for evaluating a training programme for police patrol officers. Subject matter experts (patrol officers, sergeants and police officers from other cities) independently rated the importance of knowledge, skills and attitudes learned in training for successful job performance. The extent to which each area of knowledge, aspect of skill or attitude was necessary for satisfactory performance was the calculated as a content validity ratio. The training currculum was then examined and the amount of time devoted to each topic linked to the content validity.

Goldstein (1986) has suggested an alternative method of correlating job analysis information with the amount of time devoted to topics during training. Faley and Sandstorm (1985) describe a method of assessing the relevance of the content of a training programme by using the Position Analysis Questionnaire (PAQ). Training programme analysts used PAQ to analyse the programme as if it were a job. Job incumbents also used PAQ to analse the job itself. The profile comparison identified those areas which the programme over- or under-emphasised.

All the three methods have a strength of firmly defining the training requirement in terms of job performance. It sounds rather obvious but it may be necessary. In my experience, trainers have a tendency to concentrate on what they enjoy teaching or what they believe the trainees will enjoy learning and the training content can drift away from the job requirement.

Kare Pole while outlining the factors that need to be considered when organisations attempt to achieve change through a competency-led approach indicated that competencies are frequently used as a basis for business-led development. Linking development to long term business need is an established concept which is clearly articulated in standards such as the Investor in People approach and the Business Excellence model. He further argues that, for organisations to achieve change through a competency led approach, there are a number of important factors to be considered.

Define the need; Being clear about the organisational need for competencies is vital. The standards are designed to facilitate individual development across a broad spectrum of management skills and , in their revised format, they provide an excellent basis for this. However achieving organisational change or more specific improvements often requires a tailored approach. Tony Manktelow, training manager of thr train operating company, Connex South Eastern, which has been working on its own competency framework indicated 'as part of our transition to a commercially focused organisation we need to sharpen our approach to customer service, increase our focus on results and strengthen our ability to manage business performance. We have now identified eight core competencies that our managers need in order for them to implement the changes that we believe are key to our future success.'

Strategic priorities; Organisations which report improvements in overall corporate performance have linked competencies closely with strategic priorities. They have taken a look to where they are heading. Expanding internationally for example may mean that managers need to develop competence at managing multi-cultural teams and client biases. Systematically analysing the core competencies which will improve business performance in organisations is not easy, particularly where the strategy is dynamic. Like any process, the competence framework and associated development processes must be flexible to reflect organisational priorities.

Keep it simple; Making the competencies real for managers and front line staa remains a challnge. The most effective competence frameworks are usually the simplest. They contain a manageable number of competencies- between six and ten. The basic test of an effective competency is to ask a non-human resource professional to tell you the meaning of the competencies which relate to his or her job. The more complex and esoteric the competencies are, the harder they become to use. Each of the competencies in the Connex model contains a mumber of behavioural indicators, the details of which Connex plan to introduce in stages. Manktelow explained: 'First we intend to introduce people to each of the core competencies and explain what they mean in general terms. Following that, we will help our managers to interpret what the behaviours mean during a development programme. Once they are clear about the relevance, we can use performance checklists and other practical tools to help reinforce the messages.' Embedding a competence-based approach within an organisation means making sure that all the human resource processes are aligned. For example:

- Development planning tools which help people to measure their competence and plan thei individual development
- Development programmes and opportunities in place to help individuals achieve competence
- Job descriptions or job profiles which are matched to performance management systems that use the competencies
- Clear criteria for human resource planning and career succession

Using competencies helps to focus development on the needs of the organisation as well as those of the individual. This is most successful when it becomes a partnership between individuals and line managers, with individuals taking ownership of their own development and line managers facilitating, supporting and coaching.

Pressures; Heavy workplace pressures on both individuals and their line managers can make this difficult to achieve in practice. In the real world, this process often needs facilitation by the human resource department or external providers. Work-based projects are successfully used as a way of developing competence. Frequently they involve individuals carrying out projects in their workplace with the support of their line manager. They also form a basis for cross-team working, looking at strategic priorities. However work based projects should be supported by a programme of learning. This means identifying the knowledge and skills which an individual needs in order to achieve competence. For example, 'Managing Business Performance', may mean that individuals need to develop project management and budgeting skills. They will carry out work-based projects more effectively if they are given opportunity to gain skills first.

Play the roll-out; if a competence-base approach to individual and corporate development is to be successful, it must be firmly embedded throughout the organisation. This requires systematic project planning. The sequencing of events and allocation of responsibilities are both particularly important. Line managers need to develop coaching skills and receive on-going support before they will be able to work effectively alongside the human resource department. In addition, the organisation's human resource systems need to be in place and ready use. There must also be a corporate plan. Launching a competency approach is like launching a new product and therefore to be successful, organisations need to find ways of communicating the benefits to the target users.

Branding; Some organisations prefer to call 'competency' by other names, such as high performance behaviours, believing that this will prompt more whole-hearted support for the programme from those involved. Every step of the process, from the initial research and analysis through to the piloting and launch, presents an opportunity to gain commitment and build demand within the organisation. Techniques used successfully by the organisations include:

- broad consultation through focus groups and questionaires with stakeholders
- publicising the success and comments of pilot groups
- demonstration of commitment by senior managers through actions as well as talks
- identifying champions in each area of the business who will help to drive change

- qualitative and, as the data builds, quantitative evaluation
- briefings and brochures which explain what competencies mean and what will be the future benefits
- simple tools such as checklists that help everyone to use the competencies
- ongoing communications through newsletters, team briefings and so on

Despite the measurement difficulties associated with organisational performance, a growing number of companies are successfully using ompetencies to link business strategy and development. Those organisations which have been successful have invested as much time and effort to the project management and communication processes which ensure that the approach is embedded through the organisation as they have to developing the competence framework and the human resource systems in the first place. This may mean that the process takes longer to implement, produce results and evaluate than originally envisaged, but the longer gains should be significantly greater. In this respect, Karen Pole argues that developing competencies can make a difference.

It is further argued that developing leaders is one of the more complex challenges currently facing CBOs. Increasingly, organisations are recognising that leadership competence needs to be more widely and deeply spread among their workforces and this in turn, is leadng them to seek for leadership competence training. 'First of all, teaching leadership is more than just telling someone how to be an effective leader', commented Pillip Hodgson. 'It involves encouraging the student's curiosity and offering examples'. Hodgson believes that one of the difficulties in defining leadership conpetencies is that leadership has changed during the 20th century. For the first 50 years of the century, leadership was in the hands of 'classic leaders' who came from a relatively small nimber of clearly defined places', he explained. 'After the second world war, research suggested that leadership could be described in two-dimensional terms: concern for the people and concern for the task. Therefore the role of the leader was to plan and control. 'Then the 1970s and 80s, 'we realised this behavioural leadership' was a simplistic view and the 'visionary leader' was born.Visionary leaders set directions and empower others rather than give precise details and instructions. Hodgson believes that the next leadership style will be the leader in uncertainity; that is, handling the increased uncertainity associated with increased choice.

Competence-based approach focuses at setting standards through a process of functional analysis in order to identify key work roles from which units of competences are derived. Standards of competence are specifically designed to reflect expectations of workplace performance. It was argued at the time that training programmes should make explicit and measurable the standards of performance required of a competent workforce. Therefore individuals working within an occupational area should be able to undertake certain tasks and meet the performance criteria based on actions, behaviours and outcomes whch are relevant and has real meaning within an occupational sector. Jessup (1991) argued that most training for occupation or profession tend to concentrate on the technical skills and neglect the wider aspects of performance required to fulfil a work role. For example, secretaries may be good at typing and filling but not necessarily very proficient at judging the priorities between these activities, in the social skills required to function effectively within an office. A doctor may be good at diagnosis but not very good at relating to patients or colleagues. Yet in many aspects, it is the mystery of these general skills which differentiates the effective from the ineffective practitioner or employee. Often it is the case that individuals also require communication and social skills in order to perform as part of a work team. Further more, effective problem solving skills will allow the individuals to enforce contingency plans when confronted by unexpected and typical problems. Jessup has categorised these aspects of competence as 'task management', 'contingency management' and 'role/environmental skills'.

The distinction between specific tasks and work functions has been described by Shirley Fletcher (1991:20) as: task – the work activity to be completed, function – the purpose of the work activity to be completed. The idea behind functional analysis is to teach individuals about complete work roles and functions in order that they will have greater awareness of how partcular tasks relate to the wider organisational structure of the business. It also encouraged the an understanding of both the need for competence within the workplace and how performance would need to change in response to different demands. Greater knowledge and understanding should therefore be seen as two of the underlying characteristics of competence within the work place. Bob Mansfield and Matthews in the mid-1980s (cited in Jessup, 1991) formulated the job competence model that included:

- tasks skills – the routine and largely technical components of an occupation
- contingency management skills – the skills to recognise and deal with irregularities and variances in the immediate working environment
- Task management skills – the skills to manage a group of tasks and prioritise between them
- Role/job environment skills – the skills to work with others and cope with environmental factors which are required to fulfil the wider role expectations

The emphasis on task management, contingency management and role/environment skills is also meant to provide the process or core skills which are seen as more likely to remain relevant than the more technical skills which we can expect to become obsolete. It is argued by many practitioners that training should allow individuals to acquire these transferable skills that would enhance not only their current career prospects, but also future work roles in unpredictable labour market. But these skills must be identified first before a training programme is designed to impart them.

At the individual level of analysis, the intention is to assess performance levels against those required in the job. Theoretically, a training programme can then be designed for each individual to close the gap between present and desired levels of performance. McGehee and Thayer offer a long list of techniques by which individual training needs can be identified. These include the following:

- Performance appraisal which identifies weaknesses and areas for improvement as well as strengths
- Observation and work sampling, or testing of knowledge and skills required on the job
- Interviews and questionaires
- Devising situations like role plays, case studies, business games and in-baskets. Recently these have often been combined in assessment centres where the main purpose is identifying development needs rather than selection

The use of the word 'need' here refers to an observable discrepancy in performance produced by the lack of skill not to mean a job holder's expression of preference for or an interest in a particular programme. It is also worth noting that a performance deficiency does not necessarily imply a training need. For instance, Mager and Pipe (1970) recommend the algorithm shown below. This should remind us that job situation factors like organisational culture, structure and reward systems may be more powerful controllers of job behaviour than the abilities of the individuals in the job.

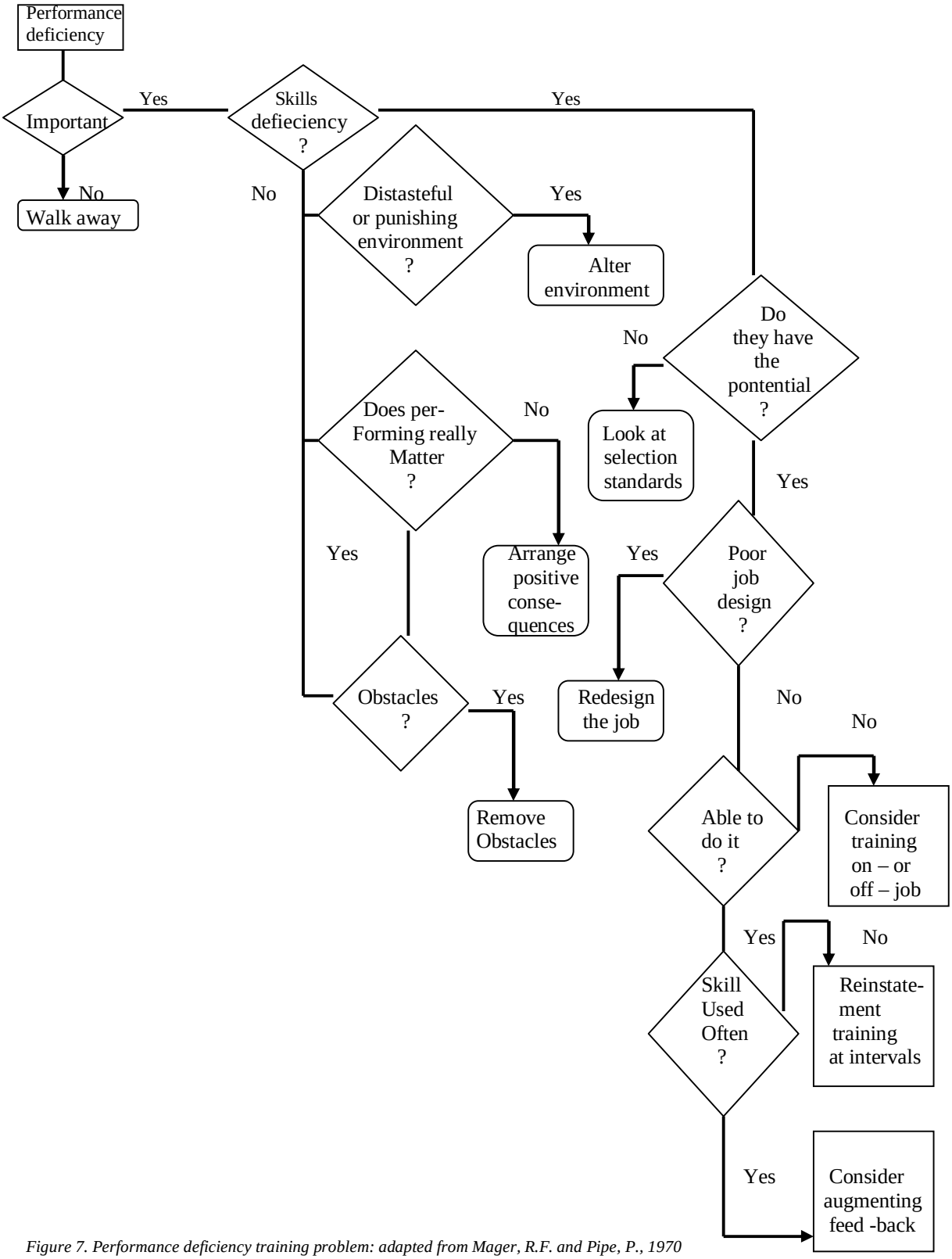


Figure 7. Performance deficiency training problem: adapted from Mager, R.F. and Pipe, P., 1970

Rowland, in 1970, reported on a servey of 4000 managers in which he asked, 'Why do subordinates fail?' The most popular answers given are shown below, listed in order of frequency:

-They do not know what they are supposed to do
-They do not know how to do it
-They do not know why they should do it
-There ar obstacles beyond their control
-They do not think it will work
-They think that their way is beter
-They were not motivated (or poor attitude)
-They were incapable of doing it (or poor skills)
-There was insufficient time to do it
-They were working on wrong priority items
-They thought that they were doing it
-Poor management
-Personal problems

An interesting development in person analysis for managerial jobs has been the recent emphasis on observable behaviour rather than abstract qualities. This usually takes the form of defining competencies which are important for successful performance in a particular job and the appraisal of the incubent against these competencies. Some of the examples of competencies are: analysing problems, representing part of the organisation, chairing meetings, resolving disputes, developing new procedures, making decisions, among others.

Most ot the time, training need analysis often concentrate on the person analysis level and neglect the links with organizational goals which are necessary to ensure that the training is effective in advancing the cause ot the organisation. One way of avoiding this is to carry out the analyses in a sequential manner with a process which starts by examining the performance of the organisation or one part of it. If this suggests a possible training need, then the group of jobs in the area under review is examined. This may lead to an analysis of the individuals in posts to discover whether training is likely to change the current level of performance into one which is nearer the optimal level for the job. An alternative method for integrating training needs is to start from the business plan and cascade objectives down through the organisation. For example, a good practice can be first the chief executive of an organisation to decide his objectives of the coming year. The s/he holds a half-day meeting with the general managers to explain his objetives and then allow each of them to develop their their own objectives and share these with the other general managers. This forms the basis of the business plan. Next each general manager cascades objectives down through their part of the organisation by organising between four and six half-day sessions in sequence so that the higher order objectives are broken down and interpreted. At each level, some negotiation of the objectives is necessary in order to incorporate the realities at that level. The result of this process is that each of the departments and indeed each individual manager will negotiate the objectives for the next year and know how they are integrated vertically right up to those of the chief executive. The next phase is to incorporate these objectives into the nnual appraisal by each manager agreeing with his or her suppervisor the targets which represent the key result areas. Each key result area is analysed for the competence required to achieve it, then the training needs can be identified in terms of competencies thought desirable but not well developed. The training department can thus be able to collect lists of competencies to be developed and, by clustering them, produce a training plan. The data base derived from this proces can produce information for job descriptions, recruitment and bonus payments. It can also produce a profile of the line managers in the organisation in terms of skills available. It can also enable management to establish longer-term development activities required for the management group to meet future challenges. The process can motivate managers as they can see exactly how their contributions fit into the overall effort and can be conviced that the organisation cares about their development.

3.6 Sequencing learning experiences

Having decided that a need can be met with some form of training, and having defined the changes in performances against which the training will be evaluated, the next area which needs attention is the sequencing of the learning. Berger (1977) argued that sequencing learning experiences is comprised of seven key steps in its organisational context. These are; selection to attend training, briefing and preparation, becomong committed to learning, learning, preparing for transfer of learning back to the job, return to work and transfer of learrning to the job.. S/he further indicates that selection is important as the training can be efficient in doing what it sets out to do. However, it cannot be effective if the wrong people are attending. Before the training takes place, the development objectives should be established between the person who is to learn something and the person who is monitoring him or her. Most adult learning is motivated by attempts to reach goals which the individual has set. In order to tap this source of motivation, it is clear the participants must be aware of the objectives and t some extent identify with them as personal objectives.

Learning situations themselves should be sequenced so that people can use various styles of learning and integrate them into a meaningful whole. A useful model to consider is that of Kolb (1984) which is based on adults learning from experience. The theorey requires activity in all four stages for effective learning. This implies that there should be some concrete experience,

with the learners involving themselves fully and openly, and some reflective observation, with the learners helped to step back and reflect upon the experience. These two stages should be followed by a phase when they are helped to integrate their observations into a logically sound framework. The final stage is to put them into active experimentation so that they can test their theories and use them as bases for decision-making and problem solving. During the learning, some emphasis should be placed on examining what is being learned for utility back on the job, and plans should be made for transfering the learning. Usually this will involve an action plan which anticipates some of the organisational constraints on introducing change.

If the first five steps of sequencing learning experiences have been done properly, then it should be possible to return to work and transfer the learning. Often, however, the learning burns off on re-entry because no one in the workplace carries out a debriefing and offers support. One area of training, that of interpersonal skills, has a particularly poor record in transferring as it focuses on changing attitudes with the hope that once people's attitudes are changed this will lead to behaviour changes. Psychomotor skills training does transfer well and it is probably because it has the following outline:

- Isolate critical skills from job samples and specify what they look like in some detail
- Demonstrate the skill, break it down into phases and practice it, giving feedback throughout the exercise to narrow the gap between actual and desired performance
- Transfer the skill to the workplace and give further feedback until the level achieved in training reaches operational standard

Two aspects of this are crucial to the success of the training; the feedback in training must be similar to that of the job situation, and the amount of transfer is directly proportional to the number of elements common to both training and job situations.

The model usually used in interpersonal skills training ignores important aspects of skills model: there are very generalised sets of behaviours that are called skills for example 'communication', the feedback given is artificial, the learning activity takes place off the job and there are very few elements common to both the training and the job. One successful method of training people in interpersonal skills was developed by Goldstein and Sorcher (1974). They adopted the principles of social learning theory and applied them to a programme of training supervisors in behaviours like: orienting a new employee, giving on-job training, motivating the poor performer, handling discrimination complaints and conducting performance review. The training sessions were of two-hour duration off the job and were structured as follows: the importance of the topic to the success of the job was emphasised by the trainers and agreed by the supervisors, a video was shown which portrayed a model effectively handling the type of situation to be examined, key points were drawn from the modelling, group discussion took place on the effectiveness and relevance of the modelled behaviours and role playing by the supervisors with feedback from the group.

The supervisors then went back to the job and reported in the next session, held two weeks later, whether they had encountered the situation and how they had responded to it. It is essential that both the application to the actual situation and reporting back for discussion the outcomes are incorporated in the training process. Without both of them the chances of successful transfer are slight.
Behaviour modelling has become popular as a method of management and supervisor training. Mayer and Russell (1987) were able to review 14 studies conducted in field settings. The research reveals that trainees react positively to behaviour modelling training and also that it is effective at the learning level. The evidence concerning the effectiveness of it in influencing performance is more equivocal. Explanations put forward to account for this variable transfer of learning back to the job usually include descriptions of unreceptive work cultures. This may, however, be too simple. The theoretical basis for transfer of social learning is derived from the work of Bandura (1997, 1986) who argued that cognitive mediating variables play a part in transfer and that the most important of these is self efficacy wich is defined as a self-judgement of how able one is to successfully carry through a course of action required to deal with a particular situation. The level of this will depend not only upon percieved mastery of knowledge and skills, but also upon the perception of the work situation. The implication here is that there should be some support available in the work situation to enhance self-efficacy for those in whom it is relatively low; those in whom self-efficacy is relatively high will be able to use the skills learned. Therefore high environment fidelity is needed in order to achieve high levels of transfer in skills training, however it is important to think of the developing manager as increasing in self-efficacy, that is increasing knowledge and skills and also the perception of being confident in using them.

A quite different theoretical approach is described in the book on interpesonal skills training by Rackham and Morgan (1997) who treated the learning process as information processing (stage by stage reduction of uncertainity by use of feedback). They argue that, the categories of behaviour to be learned are selected on the basis of their having a critical bearing on the effectiveness of job behaviour. The training then is intended to provide a vocabulary to allow the participants to identify categories of behaviour and to give feedback to reduce the discrepancy between the actual use of these categories and their perception of how frequently they used them. The key aspect of all this being the integration between tracking of behaviour change and training.

Patrick, Micheal and Moore (1986) describe six types of learning: learning facts, descriminations, concepts, rules, procedures, and problem solving. The categories are largely based on Gagne's work (1970) and reflect behavioural research on learning. Gagne indicated that the course design proceeds from: identifying the types of learning required, selecting a suitable method for each type, to sequencing the programme from the lowest to the highest type of learning required.

Each of these three approaches – behavioural modelling described by Goldstein and Sorcher, behavioural analysis used by Rackham and Morgan and designing learning in the way suggested by Patrick, Micheal and Moore – has the strength of being founded on a sound theoretical base which gives some unity and purpose to the design of the programme rather than the adhoc pragmatism which is more typical of trainers. Some unity to the design will increase the likelihood of learning and also its transfer to the job. Programmes which are made up of a collection of learning situations, each used because it has proved interesting in the past, usually does not have a unifying design and the learning does not develop in a way which aids transfer.

The final phase in the training cycle is the incorporation into normal work of new ways of thinking or carrying out tasks. Often this is left to the individual, the implication being that the individual has the motivation and the ability to introduce such changes. During the training, it is important to focus on the utility of the learning and to produce action plans for the return to work. Clearly these must include analysis of situations which are likely to test the new learning and the consideration of strategies to enlist support and to deflect opposition. Temporary difficulties are to be expected and the intention must be to prevent these from becoming relapses into old behaviours. Effective transfer leads to self-efficacy in the workplace. People who judge themselves low have difficulty in coping with environmental demands. They imagine that potential difficulties are more formidable than is actually the case and they dwell on their personal deficiencies. People who are strong in self-efficacy has been found to increase when experience fails to support fears and when the skills learned help to master the situation which was felt to be threatening. Much of this is to do with ability to predict and manage percieved threats in a workplace. The challenge is how can a training programme increase self-efficacy. Possibly trainers should endeavour to maximise the similarity between the training situation and the job, if necessary by carrying out the training phases with with job experience interspersed. Or provide a wide range of experience of what is being learned so that the principles can be applied to situations which do not exactly fit the procedure. Or ensure that what is learned will be supported and rewarded in the workplace. Or support goal-setting which is an important dimension because without it, people will have a poor basis for judging their progress. Clear measures of progress are essential for increasing self-efficacy however, trainees should be deterred from setting very difficult and unattainable goals.

One of the key issues on transfer of training worth noting here is that retention is especially difficult when there is a significant time delay between the learning and its application. This is not so serious where perceptual/motor skills are involved but it is serious where the skills are primarily based on cognitive/knowledge processes. Wetzel, Konoske and Montague (1983) have shown that these skills, based upon knowledge of procedures, can be subject to rapid and extensive loss in a few weeks. Another instance of this was described by Prophet (1976) who showed that psychomotor flight skills are retained for many months longer than procedural flight skills. Hagman and Rose (1983) reviewed the retention of on-job skills which were infrequently practised such as emergency procudures, and found that they often showed deterioration to the point of being problematic. This is likely to be true of things covered in management development programmes if the new ideas have not been applied fairly soon after the learning experience.

3.7 Training Methods

Various training methods and techniques have been used for the transmission of specific knowledge and skills and personal-development. Some of the methods include; Open learning, Mentoring, and Work-bases learning. The term 'open learning' although relatively new, has become increasingly popular with the general move towards learner-centredness in the training provision. Although there is considerable debate about the accurate definition of open learning, a definition often inclided in the literature is the one provided by Nigel Piane (1988): We prefer to define open learning as both a process which focuses on acess to educational opportunities and a philosophy which makes learning more client and student centred. It is learning which allows the learner to choose how to lear, when to learn, where to learn and what to learn as far as possible within the resource constraints of any education and training provision. Open learning relies upon the presentation of course materials and study guidelines which the learner can follow in their own time and, crucially, at their own pace. The use of supplementary study-guides recognises that individuals often learn more effectively in their own time away from formal learning situations. The use of thes guides can allow the individual to control the pace at which new information has to be absorbed in order to reach a certain of understanding. Brooke (1988) has identified three main reasons why open learning can be effective: it engages the learner in activity, not in passive listening and viewing, it moves along in logical steps, building confidence and competence in the learner, it continually tests the user's understanding, giving extra help where it is needed and ensuring that new knowledge and skills are consolidated.

Mentoring has been a popular and fashionable method of management development in the USA since the 1970s. This has been reflected in the considerable amount of literature which , since that time, has highlighted the benefits of the formalised

mentoring relationship for the mentor, the protégé and the organisation, has stressed the significance of a mentoring relationship for the advancement of women. Derived from the Greek mythology, mentoring has its origins in the concept of the apprenticeship, in which a master craftsman or a member of the profession would pass down knowledge to his apprentice; the mentor would therefore guide and develop the novice. Clutterbuck (1985) points to the traditional role of the mentor in apprenticeship training and the changes brought about by the British Industrial Revolution, which resulted in depersonalised mass training in technical areas which undermined the basis of the mentoring relationship. Since then, he argues, mentoring has continued to exist, although it has tended to be on an informal basis and subject to the arbitrary whims of individual managers. Clutterbuck states that an effective mentoring relationship will exist where mentor and protégé have mutual respect for one another, recognise each other's need for personal development, and have clear objectives with regard to the relationship.

Mentoring is seen to increase and enhance an individual's career and personal development. Research by Kram (1985) has shown that individuals who have a mentor progress at a faster rate than individuals who do not. His findigs demonstrated that mentors provided their proteges with career and psychosocial opportunities. The career functions of mentors identified by Kram included sponsorship, coaching and protection, while the psychosocial functions included acting as role models, and offering acceptance and confirmation to the proteges. It is also claimed that the mentoring relationship humanises the environment for the protégé and serves as a mechanism for integrating the protégé in the corporate culture of the organisation. Clutterbuck (1985) argues that mentoring has the advantages of drawing on existing networks and resources which operate in an organisation, and placing the responsibility for developing managers on existing departments and a way of training departments. However, a number of risks can be identified in the use of the mentoring relationship as a development tool within an organiation, relating to: the identification of suitable mentors by the organisation, the success with which each mentor and protégé are matched, and, the availability of procedures for avoiding, or respondingto, a breakdown in the mentor-protégé relationship.

The concept of work-based learning highlights the importance of action in the learning process and recommend that individuals' personal experiences of work should be actively utilised in the learning process. Marsick while looking at work as a learning environment characterised this type of approach to learning as a product of organisational environment which encourages: reflection on practice, full and free dialogue about the meaning of goals, norms and values, concern for setting the problem as well as solving it, reflection on learning, enhancement of self-esteem and self directedness, internal rather than external motivation, and, continous informal learning on the job. All these are idealistic goals, but how are moves to be made to achieve them? Marsick and Watkins (1990) argues that it requires a commitment from the senior managers at the top of an organisation, not just in terms of verbal approval but in terms of actions, which can be used as a model by junior members of the organisation. They also advocate for the use of learning plans for individuals, provided those plans are developed, held and monitored by individuals themselves. These plans would need to be independent of any appraisal or official reward system, and would contain learning goals, strategies for achieving those goals and the resources necessary for their achievement. Learning plans would also emphasise strategies to obtain the feedback necessary for self-assessment and the reshaping of goals. Formal training could be incorporated into such plans; for example workshops could be used by individuals to catalyse their fact finding and analysis, problem-setting and networking with colleagues.

The term 'action learning' is associated with the work of Revans (1978), who, in developing his ideas, was reacting to what he percieved to be the failure of formal courses in business management to provide effective, work-related, learning experiences. Revans advocated that learning at work should focus initially on the conduct of the every day task of problem solving, since this is the primary objective of managers; this would require that such tasks be conducted in such a way that the very act of engaging in them is a learning process, in contrast to the conventional approach to training, where problem-solving would be taught by off-the-job training or educational programmes. Revans did not rule out formal training but considered it to be insufficient by itself. Thus, the objective of learning at work is to learn to take action. Learning in this context therefore, implies the power to perform the action as well as to specify it. Revans takes a view that, in learning new behaviours, people need to tackle real problems and opportunities. Such situations must carry substantial risks as well as opportunities, unlike conventional off-the job training situation which rely on simulations and case studies. Revans further argues that behavioural change is more likely to follow the re-interpretation of past experiences than the acquisition of new knowledge, and such re-interpretation is more likely to be achieved by exchanges with other managers who are themselves anxious to learn. Action learning therefore seeks to accomplish three objectives: to make useful progress on the treatment of a problem or opportunity; to give participants scope to find out how best to approach an ill-defined problem; to encourage trainers and teachers to abandon attempts to teach and, instead, to reflect on their role and to modify it in the direction of acting as facilitators for managers' learning. McCabe(1994) studied 17 managers, 12 of whom were Hong Kong Chinese and 5 of whom were British expatriates, a sample which represented 20 % of senior middle management in the organisation. One of his findings of interest was the discovery that by many managers acting as a set of advisors allowed them to contribute to their personal development, through improving personal skills associated with team building, group dynamics, litsening, questioning and influencing which skills are in demand in the new flatter, team-based organisations, in which managers assume more of a facilitative and less of a directive role. The use of managers as set advisors could therefore be a powerful management development tool.

The conventional approach to training techniques makes a fundamental distinction between didactic and participative methods. The term ‘didactic’, refers to teaching which is essentially a one-way process, being instructional in character, with the teacher or instructor providing information which is then absorbed by the trainee. However , developments in training techniques have mirrored the development of learning theories in general, in that increasing emphasis is now being put on the need to engage the cognitive processes of the learner, the significance of social processes in learning, and the role of the teacher as a facilitator. Even conventional didactic methods such as the talk or presentatin are therefore becoming increasingly participative in nature. The changes now taking place in the organisational context of training are tending to bring participative techniques more to the forefront of the trainer’s repertoire.

The didactic approaches to training and development have tended to be associated in the past with the authoritarian styles of management frequently found in older, hierarchical forms of organisation. Such management styles place much emphasis on control. The job role is defined in detail by management, often following the principles of scientific management, and the employee is told how exactly to do it. While there is concern that the employee is obedient and can follow instructions in unquestioning manner, there is little or no concern with workers''attitudes or their knowledge of other facets of the organisation. Trainers, whether line managers or professional trainers, may be told exactly how to train. As the main purpose of training is control and ensure the predictability of worker behaviour, behaviourism provides a suitable theoretical basis for such training. At micro-level, prescribed forms of training or instruction of this type may leave employees knowing exactly what to do and how to do it, but not necessarily why they are doing it

The participative training techniques conceptualises the learner as an active agent in the learning process. The factors that facilitate the process of organisational change, such as the growth of human relations school of thought, which emphasises the importance of workers understanding the tasks they perform and the significance of the attitudes they hold towards fellow workers and the organisation have contributed to a more participative approach that can lead to increased production, Hertzberg (1959), in his study of motivation, suggested that money alone was not enough to motivate employees. Hertzberg regarded needs such as esteem and self-actualisation to be true motivators. He advocated that, in order to satisfy esteem and self-actualising needs, methods of production and job design should be geared to job enrichment.

One of the most widely used facilitative training technique in organisations is that of on-the-job training, in which an experienced employee teaches a trainee the requisite skills. Team training has been introduced as a means of linking the individual employee’s efforts to the organisational objectives. In practical terms, it attempts to open up lines of communication and build up commitment to wider departmental and company objectives. Studies of teams suggest that they go through a series of stages in their development. The first stage is characterised by uncertainity and confusion, as the members seek to orient themselves to the task; during this stage, their uncertainity can lead them to challenge each other or the trainer. The next stage is where confidence is built up as they to support one another and the first sign of cohesion emerge. The final stage is one of maturity, when the team has succeeded in establishing a strucure and ways of working together. These stages have been colloquially termed ‘storming’, ‘norming’ and ‘performing’. Different forms of team training have been tried. For example, ‘management by objectives’ has been used in teams as a means of setting agreed targets. In the research conducted by James Lowe (1991), outdoor training was the approach used. Lowe used a qualitative methodology to reveal the real effects of training and sought to establish the effectiveness of teambuilding in producing successful training outcomes at different levels. Following the work of Hamblin (1974), he distinguishes five outcome levels to which training can lead: reactions; learning; changes in job behaviour; changes in the organisation; and changes in the achievement of the ultimate goals.

Pepper (1984) suggested a matrix that is useful in examining the fit between the training systens and its organisational context. Across the top of the matrix one enters the categories of people who make up the organisation – say senior managers, middle managers, suppervisors, operators and clerical staff. Down the side are various organisational processes.

	Senior mgt	**Middle mgt**	**Supperviors**	**Operators**	**Clerical staff**
Induction for people joining					
Training on being promoted					
Changes of plant or equipment					
Changes in structure and procedures					
Maintanance of					

standards					
Maintanance of capabilities					
Changes in standards					

Figure 8. A training opportunity matrix in an organisation
Source: Adapted from Pepper, 1984

The matrix is drawn as a wallchart and mapped onto it are the training activities offered at present, in the recent past and in the near future. Any specific activity may be presented in more than one box of the matrix, either because different target groupd are included or because different organisational processes are addressed. Looking closely at this matrix gives one a good feel for what types of programmes are being provided and also what is not being provided. Questions can then be formulated to investigate the logic underlying this provision. In large organisations, it will be necessary to draw up separate matrix for each function. Some of the questions raised by the examination of the matrices are best answered by a survey within the functions. A suggested way of doing this is to discuss, with a sample of line managers and supervisors, the ways in which training could help to improve the effectiveness of that part of the organisation for which they are responsible. A second aspect of mapping training activities involves looking at the various methods of delivery which are being used by the organisation. The following questions might be useful:

- Which programmes are being run internally and which are being contracted out? On what grounds were the decisions made to run them this way?
- What is the range of methods of delivery in use? On-job? Team development? Learner-centred discovery? To what extent are these various methods appropriate for the topic and for the type of trainee?
- What investigations are being conducted into the use of new methods and technology? What aspects of learning effectiveness are being considered? Is user-acceptability being examined? Is anyone carrying out cost-effectiveness comparisons?
- To what extent is training devolved into the functions? How active are line managers in the training of their people?

The development of human resources within the organisation will include selection, assessment of performance, estimation of potential and some form of career planning for individuals as well as the overall manpower planning for the future. Skills training should contribute to this process and should be integrated into the planning. Katz and Khan (1978) suggested that one way of integrating this is by the consideration of corporate business plans at three levels of: strategic, co-ordinative, and operational. Strategic plans are the concern of top management, have a long- term perspective and cover the whole organisation. Co-ordinative plans concern middle managers, have shorter time horizons and cover only a part of the organisation (usually each function). Where as operational plans concern junior managers and supervisors, are short-term and refer only to a small part of the organisation. These three levels can be related to the selection and development of staff in an organisation. At strategic level, the requirement is to draw up lpans for the development of management and work force to enable the organisation to change in desired directions. At the co-ordinative level the main requirement is to develop the experience of managers to ensure the supply of future middle and senior managers. At operational level the emphasis should be on training people to improve their performance in their present jobs.

If training is fully integrated into the organisation, the role of the training manager becomes much more wide-ranging – essentially that of an internal consultant on organisational change and development. Wellens (1979) discusses what he calla ‘The broad view of training’. He argues that there is a basic difference in aims between the training function and that of personnel. The latter tends to see management as the administration of systems – formal procedures, agreements, keeping records, among othrs. Training is seen as the instrument for breaking new ground and bringing about change, where as personnel is seen as a function for monitoring the status quo and a form of maintanance management. However, there are two major problems in achieving the position which Wellens believes to be desirable for training. First, the range of skills available in the training department, and, second, the development of power base from which to implement organisational change. Trainig started from a tradition of activities which helped individuals to perform identified tasks within jobs. Changing the focus from clearly specified jobs to the well-being of the organisation implies a profound change in the skills required of the trainers. The skills of job analysis and in clas presentation of material, which are widely distributed in the population of trainers, become les valuable than the problem solving and political skills required for working successfully with line managers. These latter skills are not widely distributed among trainers. Wellens also augues that there is also a problem of the capacity of the training manager to make changes. S/he usually reports to the personnel manager and thus is often not in a position to be pro-active in planning changes within the organisation. Wellens argues for a manager of human resources who sits on the Board and who thus has the position necessary to be involved in forward planning.

Pettigrew, Jones and Reason (1982) reported a survey of the work of trainers within the chemical industry. The study began with an assumption that the training role was changing from the administration and conduct of training courses to one which

involved more consulting and advising activities. What they actually found was that the patterns of role conception and behaviour varied across the sample and could be roughly divided into five types: the provider of training services, the passive provider, the training manager, change agents, and, those in transition from provider to change agent.

3.8 Changes due to training

The training process is designed to achieve changes not only on the way trainees think or the ways in which they act, but also that these changes should result in greater effectiveness in the workplace. Usually learning affects the whole person, and increases in knowledge of skills will usually result in different attitudes to some aspect of the work. Organisational changes occurs at many levels and takes many forms. Consequently, developing criteria by which changes can be evaluated may result in a range of indices. A good place to start is by establishing that learning has taken place at the individual level. This is one of the necessary conditions of those strategies of organisational change which focus upon people. It cannot be assumed, however, that individual changes will lead to a change in effectiveness. Changes due to training are considered at changes at individual levels of knowledge, skills and attitude and later increase in the effectiveness of the individual.

3.8.1 Changes in knowledge

All jobs require a holder to have some knowledge which is considered at three levels. The basic level is that of isolated pieces of imformation – ability to recall simple lists or state simple rules, knowing a range of simple facts about the job area. For instance, a counter-clerk at the Post office would need to know what forms have to be filled in and what documents produced in order to apply for a vehicle licence disc. The higher level is to be able to arrange a good many of the pieces of information into procedures, how to do things, how to order sets of actions. For instance, starting up a processing plant involves a series of actions which must be done in a certain sequence. Higher still is the knowledge with which to analyse any particular situation for its key elements and thus to make a decission about whether procedure 'A' is more likely to be successful than, for example, procedure 'D'. This is essentially a skill to be able to select the most appropriate procedure or method of doing something, given the nature of a problem, the organisational context among others.
This is a hierarchical set and it is not possible to achieve the higher levels without knowledge at lower levels. The function ot training could therefore be seen as: analysing what is required at each of the three levels for the satisfactory job performance, discovering what the trainees know at each level before they attend a training, trying to close that gap, and, communicating to the supervisor or manager to what extent they are below satisfactory job performance levels at the end of the training. The three levels of knowledge have quite different implicationsfor the training process. Isolated pieces of information can be quite easily transferred by lecturers to large groups or by paper-based texts or by programmed packages. Procedures can be learned fairly cheaply by using checklists and prompts plus, perhaps, some supervised practice. Implications of the third (analytical) level are quite different. If this is to be achieved, the trainees will have to practice in realistic situations and make decissions about how to handle them. As this is actually a simulation of some aspects of the job, it will be much more expensive to design and it will take much more time to run than the work at the lower levels. The implications for the sophistication of measurement of changes in knowledge are also different. It is relatively easy to test knowledge of isolated pieces of information and procedures. This can be done by simple testing where the answers can easily be seen to be right or wrong. At the analytic level, the solutions to the problems posed will often have a qualitative aspect to them. This will imply that a subject expert will have to scrutinize the solutions and decide which are acceptable and which are not.

One of the ways of testing knowledge may be the use of the essay. Questions like, 'Discuss the extent to which meetings contribute to organisational growth' are said to distinguish between those whp know some facts about this subject and those who do not. What such questions actually test is not so much what the trainee knows but how well s/he can assemble a logical argument on paper. This skill is important for success in many professions, including the jobs of trainers who set such questions, but it may be unimportant in many other jobs. This form of testing, when applied to training is usually inappropriate, not because of the open-ended nature of the question, because it is testing a skill which is irrelevant. Open-ended questions can be asked to test knowledge of isolated pieces of information and procedures. They can sometimes be used to test powers of analysis. The question should start with verbs like; state, list, label, define, determine, calculate, describe, write among others.

An alternative to testing by using open-ended questions is to ask the trainee to write one or two words, or to select the alternative from a number offered. With these objective test items the rules for scoring are made absolutely clear so that the answer can be recognised as being right or wrong and can be marked so by someone who knows nothing about the subject area being tested. This kind of question is very suitable for testing low levels on our hierarchy but it takes some ingenuity to write them for higher levels. This has led to a folklore that objective test items are only suitable for very trival scraps of knowledge. Some of the objective test questions do test the ability to apply the theory in new situations, a procedure which is quite close to the analysis level of knowledge. Objective test items have the advantage over open-ended questions that they take less timr to answer and the test can therefore cover a much wider area of the topic in the same time. They are also less likely to be testing the level of literacy of the trainees.

The framework for analysing types of knowledge suggests that training could be considered as an attempt to close the gap between present and desired levels of knowledge. From this statement, it appears logical to measure knowledge before as well as after training and thus estimate the gain. This is referred to as pre-test and post-test knowledge respectively. The scores attained are recorded and used to calculate the gain ratio and will give an estimate of the effectiveness of the training programme using the formula:

$$\text{Gain ratio} = \frac{\text{Post-test score} - \text{Pre-test score} \times 100\%}{\text{Possible score} - \text{Pre-test score}}$$

A figure which takes values between 0 and 100 per cent will be obtained for each trainee. This represents how effective the training programme was in teaching the individual what he or she needed to learn. The average gain ratio over a group of trainees gives a course effectiveness measure. Poor levels of gain may indicate that the trainees do not comprise a homogenous group. It is quite often the case that some know a good deal about the topic before training and some know virtually nothing. When this happens the trainers will pitch the learning rate at a level which is too high for some and too low for others. If this is aserious problem, it will be revealed because the gain ratios will tend to cluster into two groups; high for people whose pre-scores were low and low for the others. The implication is that pre-test could filter the trainees into two streams for more effective learning.

Pre-testing also sensitizes the trainees to those aspects of the programme which the trainers think to be important. This is wwidely used in programmed packages as a way of motivating the learners by indicating what the objectives are. The research on motivation by Locke et al., (1981) has shown that many adults appear to be trying to achieve goals which they have set themselves for much of their adult life. This may be a source of energy which might assist in the training process. Alerting trainees to the important aspects will also remove some of the ambiguity and allow them to make more informed astimates of what the programme might be able to offer them. Therfore evaluation can be an integral part of the process of learning by utlizing the feedback on what is known and what needs to be learned. However the evaluation of knowledge is often not complete until the trainee has been followed back into the workplace to discover to what extent the knowledge has been applied.

3.8.2 Changes in skills

While measuring changes in skills as a result of training, it is helpful to first consider a set of different levels . There are basically four levels to be considered here: the first being the basic level with skills is to be able to communicate and for this it is necessary to be able to label items; the second level involves the ability to perform simple procedures, often with the use of instructions or notes; the third level is one of performing physically skilled actions. These usually involve hand-eye co-ordination and learning them requires considerable practice; the fourth level of skill is that involved in judging whether a piece of skilled work is of acceptable quality. It is important to note that, the length of time of spent in training and the sophistication of the testing situation will increase with increasing levels.

Testing levels of skills should be done with practical tests unless the skill of being able to do something can be assumed from the ability to state the correct sequence of actions. Listing the sequence is often a different skill, for instance, Ione can state how to strip, clean and assemble a carburettor, but when s/he does it, the carburretor does not work properly afterwards. Tests for skills can fall into two main types: the first one being that the trainee is set a task (for example to repair an item) and the work is inpected at the end of the period, the second being that the trainee is watched throughout the test so that the methods used can be assessed as well as the final product. The first one type of test is more economical in terms of the time spent by the testers. The second type is more flexible as the trainee who makes an error in the initial stages can be put back on to the correct path by the tester and thus demonstrate ability to carry out other parts of the task. Some tasks will require the second type of test because the result will not show how well the work has been carried out. Some kinds of welding, for instance, need to be watched during the process as the quality of weld will not be obvious from a surface inspection. Observation is a flexible technique for collecting evaluative data. It has some similarities with interviewing in that it can be quite unstructured or be supported by a very detailed schedule.

The use of four levels of skill, and estimating at each level what adequate job performance means, allows the identification of individual needs for training. Effective training will also require some estimate of what the trainees are able to do after the training. Often this can be assumed to be very little but it worth testing. A large company in Uganda – National Water and Sewerage Corporation which employs some hundreds of fitters to carry out the servicing of the water distribution in homes was faced with the necessity of improving the quality of this service because of increasing breakdown and complaints from the customers. An off the job programme of three one week modules was designed to cover the skills necessary to carry out the work. All the fitters were tested using fault finding exercises mounted on boards which represented the main types of water

distribution system. The ways in which these fitters attempted these simple diagnostic tests were used to decide how many of the one-week modules each should attend. It was then possible to plan a programme of training courses which accurately met the skills needs across the population of fitters. Profiling is used in a training context for assessing where trainees are at present and where they should aim to be at the end of the training.

Rackham and Morgan (1977) advocates for the use and process of identifying bench-marks and then regularly checking progress against them in the training for interpersonal skills. The assessment centre has been used for many years as a method of selecting employees for promotion. The individuals being assessed are give a series of exercises which are thought typical of the work at the next level of seniority. For a typical management assessment centre there would be some evaluation of skills like communication, planning and organizing, analysis, judgement and delegation. There might also be some assessment of abilities like business sense or generation of creative ideas. Senior managers in the organisation would be trained to use detailed observation categories and asked to do the assessment. More recently assessment centres have been used for the identification of development needs. The assessment exercises are base upon the analysis of what is required for success at the next level of seniority. The areas identified as being weak are made the basis of individual development programmes. The effectiveness of thes programmes can be assessed by attendence at a second assessment centre after an interval of perhaps one year. Thes candidates are again assessed and improvements noted. Using assessment centre as an evaluative tool was reported by Byham (1982) who indicated that managers who had completd four weeks of training in various management skills took a series of tests in an assessment centre together with a similar number who had not yet been trained. The two groups were matched for level in the organization, education and experience. The assessors were, of course, unaware of who had been trained and who had not. It was found that the group which had been trained performed better than the untrained group on all of the dimensions. They scored about 40 per cent better on skills like oral communication, problem analysis, judgement and delegation. They scored 20 per cent better on dimensions like leadership and decisiveness.

Technical skills which have been properly learned transfer easily to workplace. The reason for following up skills training of this type is not so much to check on transfer as to ensure that the training time is being used effectively, that is, to train for those skills which are actually required and to train people only to the level necessary. The pricipal task is to check that the original needs analysis was correct. While following up skills-based training, a follow up questionaire may be used. It is also necessary to interview a sample of particiants and their supervisors to discuss details of why things are difficult or why some performances are not up to standard.

A training programme may be structured to focus to skills development and also attitude change. An attitude is a tendency or a predisposition to behave in certain ways in particular situations, where as a skill is an ability to perform a task very well. Attitudes can be measured directly but can be inferred from what people say or are seen to do. People behave in ways which they believe to be appropriate to the situation in which they find themselves so that other variables in the present situation may be more powerful in selecting behaviour than attitudes previously held. The process of attitude training has four main stages: first, identify desirable attitudes which are expected to lead to some improvement, usually of culture or climate, in some part of the organisation, Secondly, assess where the participants are with respect to the desired attitude. This is usually done by self analysis. The participant's perceptions of their normal work behaviour classified and shown to have some categories which differ from the ideal. Thirdly, convince the participants of the value of the desired attitudes by giving examples, models or councelling. This is reinforced by allowing them to experience some success in the experiential learning, perhaps by role plays. Finnally if the training is done well, participants accept the new attitude and return to work. Here it is expected that they will display behaviour consistent with the new attitude.

3.8.3 Changes in attitudes and behaviour

As attitudes are measured or discussed early in the programme, it is possible to reassess them towards the end and show changes in the expected direction. Often this is done in an informal way as an end of course discussion of 'what were the most important things for me?'. It is possible to make this more formal by developing action plans – 'what will I do more of and what will I do less of when I return to my work?'. There are also inventories which can be used early and late in the programme.Morris and Fitzgibbon (1978) advocated for the use of semantic differentials as a simple method of checking whether there has been a change in attitude, and in what direction. For example, participants are asked to think about a particular concept at the beginning of the training like 'participative management', and to mark on each of the seven-point scale where their opinion lies. The opinions of the group are usually summarised by frequencies or averages to give more feel for what their overall attitude is to the concept.

The concept of participative management is:

Valuable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worthless
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Insincere
Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Weak
Relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Tense
Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Passive
Warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Cold
Fast	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Slow

A semantic differential

The exercise is repeated at the end of the programme and any changes in attitude can can be identified. The technique is neutral with respect to the direction of the changes. The trainers can then assess whether a change on any paricular dimension is positive and this should be related to the objectives of the programme.

A more rigorous method of finding out what people's attitude are towards a particular concept is to use a repertory grid developed by Stewart (1981). This technique asks the person whose attitudes are being investigated to consider a number of examples of the concept and to say what creteria he or she would use to distinguish between them. This is usually being done during interviews but can be done in groups. Suppose one is about to start on a programme of interpersonal skills training with a group of junior managers. The starting point for the programme is to try to discover what are their concepts of good interpersonal skill. It should then be possible to develop a programme to start with the baseline and move the manager's views closer to those which are thought valuable within the organisation. Using a group repertory grid technique, each participant is asked to write down the names of six managers with whom they have worked: two who are thought to have good interpersonal skills, two who are thought to be poor in this area, and two who are in between. Each name is then written onto a small piece of paper and then coded A, B, C, D,E, F. Participants are then asked to draw out A, B and C from the six and think about what these three might do in work situations where interpersonal skills are involved. What is it that two of them might do that is similar? What is it that one might do that the other two would probably not do? In this way they select a pair who are likely to behave in a similar way and a single who would behave quite differently from the three labelled A, B and C. Next they draw the papers labelled D, E and F from the six and repeat the process of deciding what to do that would be different. It is important for the trainers to supervise the process and to ensure that the descriptions which are being written down are about what managers do rather than personality traits. The procedure is repeated until they have written down a number of contrasts by comparing different combinations of managers. Drawing three from six in ten ways, for example: ABC, DEF, ACF, BDE, ADF, BEF, CDF, ABE, BCD, ACE, will ensure that each manager is entered into the comparison six times and should give enough information on how each participant distinguishes between categories of interpersonal skill.

The contrasts so far are not related to judgements about what the participants think represents good practice. This can be elicited in interview but it is also possible to do it by simple scoring process. On each line the participants score their contrasts on a one to six scale by giving the manager who is most like the pair description a score of 1 and the one who is most like the single description a score of 6. Then scores 2 and 5 are allocated to the next most like and so on with scores 3 and 4. For instance:

Pair description	A	B	C	D	E	F	**Single description**
Supportive	* 6	* 2	* 1	3	4	5	Not supportive
Litsens to what I have to say	5	3	2	* 1	* 4	* 6	Pre-concieved ideas

When they have scored all the ten contrasts, these scores can be correlated with their view of good interpersonal skills. This is done by each of them ranking the six managers who make up the A to F using 1 for best and 6 for worst at interpersonal skills. These numbers are wirtten down on a separate piece of paper say:

Overall	A	B	C	D	E	F
Effectiveness	6	3	2	1	4	5

The Ranking on overall effectiveness is now correlated with that on each of the contrasts, for example:

Pair	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**		**Single**
Supportive	6	2	1	3	4	5		Non-supportive
Overall	6	3	2	1	4	5		
Differences	0	1	1	2	0	0	=4	

Pair	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**		**Single**
Listens	5	3	2	1	4	6		Pre-concieved
Overall	6	3	2	1	4	5		ideas
Differences	1	0	0	0	0	1	=4	

The differences in ranks are summed to give a score. Where the resulting score is small, i.e. 0or2, the description in the contrasts is defining what the participant means by good interpersonal skills. Because of the method of scoring, high scores will result when the positive description is on the right (i.e. the single description). Thus the highest possible scores (18 and 16) are also defining what the participant means by good interpersonal skills. Contrasts which have scores of between 4 and 12 are ways in which managers differ, but are not closely related to the concept of good interpersonal skills. Contrasts which are not opposites will seldom correlate highly with the overall creterion. This is because they are not on a linear dimension which the theory of correlation requires. The contrasts which have scored 0 or 2 or 16 or 18 can be examined with individuals to draw out what, for each of them, is the definition of good interpersonal skills. With a group, these contrasts can be collected and displayed to give an introduction to the programme. One of the groups Stewart and Stewart (1981) produced a list which included the following:

Gets the job done but with concern	-	Self-centred
Treats people as individuals	-	Stereotypes people
Encourages Development	-	Discourages development
Adult reactions	-	Childish
Talks through problems with me	-	Unable to see my problems
Litsens and then acts	-	Listens but does not do anything
Allows people to have discretion	-	Closely monitors

The analysis of this list indicates that some personality traits have slipped in and these contrasts need further expansion. What is meant by ‘adult reactions’? What behaviour would be classified as ‘childish’? Discussing types of behaviour like this gives a good lead into talking about interpersonal skills and thus into the main topic for discussion. This group procedure takes approximately one and a half hours but it gives a good feel for the attitudes that the participants have towards the concept at the beginning of a training programme. It also introduces the area as it requires them to think carefully about the subject and clarifies what they as individuals believe.

Towards the end of the training the procedure can be repeated and the results compared. As they will now be familiar with the process, the second attempt will take much time. Changes can be assessed in a number of ways:

- An improvement in the number of contrasts scoring 0 or 2 or 16 or 18. At the beginning most of them will have only a few such contrasts as their views about the concept are rather diffuse. At the end they should be much more focused on the area which has been discussed
- There should be fewer personality traits and more descriptions of what people do
- Many of the contrasts being used should be close to those offered by trainers arising from the objectives of the programme

It is possible to follow up changes in attitudes back to the work place to discover to what extent they have been maintained, but it is doubtful if this will actually produce useful information. One is still left with the assumption that changes in attitude imply changes in behaviour at work. The approach which seems more likely to help with evaluation is through the use of behaviour scales to measure changes in the ways in which things are done. The bbasic rationale of of using behaviour scales is that they can make explicit what changes are expected to result from training and give some estimate of whether they are actually

occurring. The work of Rackham and Morgan (1977) developed thirteen categories of behaviour which were intended at providing a vocabulary for communicating frequencies of doing things and thus act as an aid to providing accurate feedback which the reciepient can understand. The categories used by Rackham and Morgan were:

- Proposing behaviour which puts forward a new concept, suggestion or course of action
- Building behaviour which extends or develops a proposal which has been made by another person
- Supporting behaviour which involves a conscious and direct reasoned declaration of support or agreement with another person or concepts
- Disagreeing behaviour which involves a conscious, direct and reasoned declaration of difference of opinion, or criticism of another person's concept
- Defending/attacking behaviour which attacks another person or defensivsly strengthens an individual's own position. Defending/attacking behaviours usually involve overt value judgements and often contain emotional overtones
- Blocking/difficulty stating behaviour which places a difficulty or block in the path of a proposal or concept without offering any alternative proposal and without offering a reasoned statement of disagreement. Blocking /difficulty stating behaviour therefore tends to be rather bald, e.g. 'it won't work', or 'We couldn't possibly acceptthat'
- Open behaviour which exposes the individual who makes it to risk of ridicule or loss of status. This behaviour may be considered the opposite of defending/attacking, including within this category admission of mistakes or inadequacies provided that these are made in a non-defensive manner
- Testing understanding behaviour which seeks to establish whether or not an earlier contribution has been understood
- Summarizing behaviour which summarizes, or otherwise restates in a compact form, the content of previous discussions or considerations
- Seeking information behaviour which seeks facts, opinions or clarification from another individual or individuals
- Giving information behaviour which offers facts, opinions or clarification to other individuals
- Shutting out behaviour which excludes, or attempts to exclude, another group member
- Bringing in behaviour which is a direct and positive attempt to involve another group member

Source: Rackham and Morgan, 1977, Fig 2.2, p 31

Thus, with appraisal interviewing the categories thought to be important to good performance might include a high rate of:

- seeking information – proposals, solutions to problems
- testing understanding
- summarizing
- supporting
- building and a low rate of:
- proposing
- blocking/difficulty stating

The frequency with which the participants show these behaviours in early practice interviews is fed back to them and discussed. They then have clear benchmarks against which to measure progress. The best place to do this behaviour tracking is, of course, in actual job situations, but it can also be used during off the job training.

3.8.4 Changes in levels of effectiveness

The ultimate objective of training and development is to increase effectiveness in part of the organization. This is why organizations invest money in it. Yet many will argue that training, and in particular management training, cannot be evaluated against organizational effectiveness. This is either because the changes due to training become indistinguishable from the effects of other events or because the effort of an individual has little effect upon the performance of the organization as a whole. There is some truth in these arguments. It is difficult to isolate the effects of training from other factors and it may be impossible to do this if the criteria by which change is to be monitored have not been established before the training is designed. It is also true that the efforts of any one individual are unlikely to have a noticeable effect on the balance sheet at the end of the year. There is however, no need to use such a general criterion when looking for improvements in organisational effectiveness. It is possible to focus on a small part of the organisation and to link improvements in its performance with training interventions.

Most training and development activities focus on the individual with the intention that the learning will enable him or her to become more effective either in the present job or one which is shortly to be attempted. If the training need, which is to be met, is identified in terms of the improved performance, which should result, then it should be possible after the programme to assess whether this improvement has taken place. This may be quantifiable as an increase in productivity. It might also be expressed as having a wider range of skills and thus offering increased flexibility of employment. These can be integrated in behaviour scales for assessing change and make explicit what changes were likely so that they can be incorporated within annual performance appraisal categories. If this can be done, the employing managers will be able to provide evidence of

whether changes have taken place and, if so, whether increased effectiveness is the result. The study by Latham and Saari (1979) that focused on behaviour modelling as a training method indicates that one of the methods of assessing increased performance an improvement in ratings on the annual appraisal. It can also be shown by increased productivity in the sections for which the supervisors were responsible.

One way of facilitating the transfer of learning back to work is by the use of action planning during training. At intervals during the training for instance, daily on a five-day course, the participants are asked to focus on the utility of what has been discussed. This can be done by giving out coloured sheets of paper and asking each participant to write down two or three things which have been covered during the day which are thought likely to be particularly useful back at work. They should also make a short note against each on how they intend to make use of it. Some sharing and discussing of these will give useful feedback on what they think is important learning, but the main purpose is to focus on utility and build up an action plan for when they return to work. Towards the end of the programme, they cluster the items from the sheets into areas and then arrange them in some order of priority. The action plan for, let us say, the next six months is now drafted by putting some time frame on each area to be tackled. It will also be necessary to write down against each area likely countervailing forces and how these are to be overcome. Some of the questions, which need to be addressed, may include the following;

- Will this action have an effect on other people? How will they react to it?
- Whose authority will be necessary to implement this action? How do I ensure that this will be available?
- What organizational constraints are likely to prevent this action? What can be done to ease them?

The action plan is a piece of positive management. It forms a set of goals to be achieved and gives a time frame and rationale for each of them. It can also be lodged with trainers and followed up later. The action plan should be discussed with the employing manager before or after return to work. During the follow-up let us say about six months later, the questions like the following can be asked:

- How much of your action plan have you been able to implement?
- Which actions have been shelved and why?
- What positive benefits in terms of effectiveness in your part of the organization have resulted from your carrying out your action plan?

A specific form of action planning is through the use of an organizational project as the focus for learning, with input from trainers at stages throughout the project. This project often has as a focus the increased effectiveness of a part of the organisation, and can show a good return for the investment in training. Woodward (1975) described an example of this. The programme investigated was for supervisors and led to a National Examinations Board in Supervisory Studies qualification. There was formal course work, mainly on theories of management, which was examined. There was also a work-based project, which was intended to show the advantages of good supervisory practice. Woodward was unable to show any differences in ways of working as a result of the theoretical part of the course. The critical analysis of this indicates that, theoretical input on the nature of management, without role play or work-based practice may not be a good process needed in order to change the ways in which people do things at work. Woodward was able to estimate the benefits of the project work. Six of the twelve showed positive benefits. Averaged over the twelve, the return on training investment (course fee, travel, subsistence, and equipment costs, pay of trainers and covering costs) was 2.9:1.

Team development is intended to improve the effectiveness of a group of people whose jobs require that they work together. It assumes that the group has some reason for existing, some common goals and problems and also that interdependent action is required to achieve the goals or solve the problems. Team development activities may focus on working relationships or on action planning. There are three main models: problem solving, interpersonal and role-identification.

- The problem-solving model encourages the group to identify problem areas, which are affecting the achievement of group goals. Action planning is then used as a method of tackling the problem
- The interpersonal model attempts to improve decision making and problem solving by increasing communication and co-operation on the assumption that improving interpersonal skills increases the effectiveness of the team
- The role identification model attempts to increase effectiveness by increasing understanding of the interacting roles within the group.

The most widely used example of the problem-solving model is found in ‘quality circles’. A quality circle is a small group of people involved in similar working situations who meet to discuss work-related problems. They usually volunteer to do this, as it is not part of their job descriptions. Implicit in the definition of a quality circle is that it is sanctioned by the organization and meets within the organisation’s time. The group brainstorms problems, agrees priorities, selects and defines problems to be tackled, works together to collect data, agrees possible solutions to problems and presents proposals to management. The group has a leader who may be the supervisor, but the group sometimes elects its own leader from among the members. At least in the early stages, the group will have a facilitator who helps with the process issues.

The concept of quality circles was developed by the Japanese during the 1960s to introduce worker participation into quality control activities. It is estimated that there are now about one million circles in Japan. Noting increasing evidence of Japan's effectiveness in manufacturing, many western management specialists visited Japan to attempt to discover 'the secret'. They often come back with the view that the quality circles were largely responsible for the increasing competitiveness of Japanese products. Hayes (1981) disputes this. He argues that Japanese firms are well managed and they have well trained workforces. Both the workforce and management continually strive for perfect products and error-free operations. Hayes argues that, given these factors, manufacturing success is inevitable and quality circles is a reflection of the company cultures rather than cause of their success. Quality circles have become popular in the UK and the USA. Inevitably, however, some things have changed in translation from the Japanese. In particular western quality circles seem not to be so obsessed with quality control; they are often used as a way to increase worker participation.

In order for quality circles to flourish Ishikawa (1968) has identified eight main principles:

- All levels of senior management must agree and support, encourage and listen to circle activities
- Management must not use circles to further their own pet ideas. Circles must be free to pursue their own priorities
- Management must be patient as circles do not produce change overnight
- Managers must be prepared to accept failures without recrimination but with encouragement
- Participation must be present in every step of the process
- Circle leaders and facilitators must be carefully chosen, well trained and credible
- Facilitators must be given enough time and support for them to carry out their activities of improving group processes
- Circle membership must be voluntary

The Ishikawa principles, which are extracted from the Japanese experience, predict with remarkable accuracy the failure of quality circle in other areas as the violation of one or more of these principles usually leads to the failure of the quality circle.

Dale and Ball (1983) carried out a survey of 86 companies in the UK, which were supporting over 1000 quality circles. Some 92 per cent of the companies claimed that their quality circles were successful. The main reason given for this were, for example, thorough consultation at all levels in the company and full management commitment to the concept. Also thought to be important was a controlled and gradual development without expectation of immediate cost savings. Thorough training and the selection of an enthusiastic facilitator were also considered to be essential. Members of the circles found that there were benefits: increased job satisfaction, better teamwork within the department, recognition of their achievements and better relationships with members of the management were quoted. There were also benefits to management and the three considered most important were that first-line supervisors were placed in a leadership role, that many problems were solved at grassroots level thus allowing management to concentrate on higher priority items, and that it was possible to identify future managers among the quality circle membership. Overall the companies felt that the main benefits derived from the investment in quality circles were: increased involvement of employees, improvement in quality and productivity, a reduction of the barriers between management and shopfloor, and improvement in communications across the company. Dale and Ball concluded that quality circles may lead to significant cost savings, but in some organisations they will do no more than make minor improvements. However, quality circles often improve the quality of working life and this is a worthwhile gain.

Where team development is undertaken using an interpersonal model, the intention is to increase communication, sharing, trust, collaboration and cohesiveness within the group. This was the intention of the T-Groups which were so popular in some American organisations in the 1960s. The T-Groups has had a bad press in evaluation literature, usually because individuals were required to attend and deeply resented the intrusion to their privacy, which was involved. More recent forms of team development are rather less intrusive and there is less coercion to attend. In deciding whether team building is appropriate in the first place, Weisbord (1985) suggests that the senior manager should call a meeting to introduce the idea of team development, state the management goals and request further discussion on the matter. The team builder will interview members to identify their concerns, their objectives, the problems each faces, and the type and degree of help which they need for each other. The data collected by the team builder is analysed and availed to members for feedback and discussion on setting priorities.

One of the most accessible programmes designed for team development using the interpersonal model is that by Woodcock (1979). Types of teamwork problems are identified by using a questionnaire and they are grouped under the following headings:

- Clear objectives and agreed goals
- Openness and confrontation
- Support and trust
- Co-operation and conflict
- Sound working and decision-making procedures
- Appropriate leadership
- Regular review

- Individual development
- Sound intergroup relations

The questionnaire highlights problem areas by frequency mention and this suggests priorities for team building. Woodcock argues that team building should the group through four stages: the underdeveloped group where most people concentrate on their own problems and are not much interested on those of others, the experimenting group where risky issues can be aired, the consolidating group where consensus is achieved by working on interpersonal process issues, the mature group where the emotional needs of all are met.

The question which must be raised, and which Woodcock ignores, is whether this shift from 1to 4 is necessary for all groups in order for them to work to work together effectively. Critchley and Casey (1984) discuss when team building is appropriate and when it appears not to be. They see team building as being as being useful when the group has to make decisions which involve a great deal of uncertainty. Here input is needed from every member of the group and all available expertise, experience and creative ability needs to be drawn upon. If this is to happen, the group will need high levels of trust and openness, and this will imply that feelings are part of the work situation and need to be dealt with.

Weisbord (1985) sees a further use for team building as an effective preparation for change in that it opens up lines of communication and creates the active involvement which is necessary to overcome resistance to change in a constructive way. In an extensive and critical review of the role of team development in organisational effectiveness, Woodman and Sherwood (1980) report that team development based upon interpersonal skills is often used as an aid to the formation of a new team, but their main conclusion is that the available research does not provide a conclusive link between this kind of team building and improved work group performance. What does seem likely is that these team development activities have some effect on attitudes – how one feels about others, the workplace, the value of the team, satisfaction with the work. Many would argue that improvement in indices of these attitudes would be valuable in them and would be likely to be closely associated with other performance measures.

The role identification model approach treats the group as a set of interacting roles and attempts to increase effectiveness by a better understanding and allocation of these roles. Each member of the team is considered to contribute in two ways: in a functional role, drawing on professional and technical knowledge and in a team role, helping the progress of the team towards achieving its objectives. This implies that a team can only deploy its technical resources to best advantage when team members recognise and use their team strengths. Observation of groups where three of four people who are outstanding in their field are recruited to form a team, indicates that the team performs in a disappointing way as usually everyone produces ideas and no one develops them.

One of the best known team role approaches is that by Belbin (1981) which describes eight team roles:

- Someone with leadership capabilities: calm, assertive, welcomes ideas, self-confident - the chairperson
- An ideas person: intelligent, creative and serious – the plant
- Someone to evaluate suggestions: intelligent, analytical, practical and tough-minded – the monitor evaluator
- Someone who carries out agreed plans in a systematic manner: practical, hardworking, predictable – the company worker
- Someone to keep sense of urgency within the team: anxious, conscientious, a tendency to worry – the completer – finisher
- Someone to explore and report on ideas from outside the group: enthusiastic and extroverted – the resource investigator
- Someone who challenges ineffectiveness, who directs attention to the setting of objectives and priorities: dynamic and highly strung – the shaper
- A team builder who fosters team spirit and improves communication between the members: socially aware, sensitive – the team worker.

Belbin indicates that it is not necessary to have eight people in the group, however, someone aware of and capable of carrying out each of these roles should be present. If there is not a good match between the attributes of the team members and their responsibilities (for instance, if the chairperson is actually an ideas person) then the team will not perform effectively. This approach offers a self-perception inventory, which helps people to identify the roles in which they think they are strongest so that they can make a better contribution to the group by trying to fill these roles. If each member of the team completes and scores this inventory, it is possible to use this information to examine whether the group has strength in all of the roles. It is also possible to see where role conflicts are likely to occur. Encouraging people to develop roles in which they think that they have strengths, but which they are not currently filling, is a plausible way to improve the quality of teamwork. It seems likely that with an existing group, peer ratings can reveal most of the characteristics, which are of interest. It would be very interesting to investigate the differences between self-perceptions and the group's perceptions of behaviour within the group, although there might be problems in doing this. For instance, many people are not very perceptive about their own abilities and skills, and it is

also the case that some of the roles are more highly valued than others in social terms. It is therefore quite likely that the group will need a facilitator who is not one of its members if it is to resolve these problems.

Belbin's theory is based upon research using management games where team effectiveness was measured in terms of 'financial' results. This is an interesting training and evaluation procedure; to form teams through a role analysis and then test their performance in the controlled situation produced by a management game. There is, however, a question concerning the validity of this as there is not much evidence so far that the identification of roles results in increased performance in job settings. The model may well have some value in setting up project teams where roles can be allocated and the strength of others (apart from their technical ability) need to be understood. It probably has greater value in providing a vehicle for helping group members to conceptualize the roles necessary and for developing their skills in roles, which they had not previously considered. It ought to be possible to evaluate on a pre-/post basis how peoples' perceptions of their roles have changed and the extent to which they perceive the group as being more effective as a result of training.

3.8.5 Changes in organisational effectiveness

Organisational effectiveness is not a simple concept with the balance sheet at the end of the year as the only criterion to be assessed. There are many ways in which one can look at it, and many writers have offered sets of criteria. One of the early attempts was that of Georgopolous and Tannenbaum (1957) who evaluated effectiveness in terms of productivity, flexibility and the absence of organisational strain. More familiar is the approach of Blake and Mouton (1964) which seeks the simultaneous achievement of high production-centred and high people-centred methods of management. Katz and Khan (1978) argue for growth, survival and control over the environment.

A more recent classification has been offered by Cameron (1980) who considers that almost all views on organisational effectiveness can be summarised under four headings:

- Goal-directed definitions focus on the output of the organisation and how close it comes to meeting its goals
- Resource-acquiring definitions judge effectiveness by the extent to which organisations acquires much needed resources from its external environment
- Contituencies are groups of individuals who have some stake in the organisation. These may include resource providers, customers among others and effectiveness is judged in terms of how well the organisation responds to the demands and expectations of these groups
- Internal process definitions focus attention on flows of information, absence of strain, and levels of trust as measures of effectiveness

The analysis of Cameron's classification indicates that it might be very useful when discussing evaluation of training events with line managers at various levels lower than that of the organisation. This can be simplified by building up an organisational effectiveness matrix as below;

	Individual (my work)	**Work Group (my section)**	**Function (my department)**	**Regional level**	**Organisational level**
Goal-directed					
Resource-acquiring					
Satisfying constituencies					
Internal processes					

Figure 9. The Organisational effectiveness matrix

This matrix can be used to discuss desirable changes in effectiveness which might accrue from training or development events. These should be identified by type of effectiveness and the level at which they will be measured. First of all, it is important to establish what criteria the line managers are actually using to assess effectiveness and by what criteria they themselves are being judged.

The most widely used approach to effectiveness focuses on meeting goals and targets. Directing and sustaining goal-directed effort by employes is a continuous task for most managers, but assessments will usually be a series of point measures over time. Most of the organisations use basic measurement of work output to meet product goals, where the emphasis is on quality or quantity, variety uniqueness or innovativeness of whatever is being produced. Some types of indices which are usually available are:

Quantity	Quality	Variety
Units produced	defects/failure rate	diversity of product range
Tasks completed	reject rates	rationalization of product range
Applications processed	error rates	
Backlogs	rework	
Turnover	scrap	
Units sold	waste	
Money collected	shortages	
On-time deliveries	accidents	

There are also system goals which emphasise growth, profits, modes of functioning and return on investment. Criteria which might be available are:

Productivity	rates of achieving deadlines	work stoppages
Processing time	output pre person/hour	supervisory time
Profit	on-time shipments	amount of overtime
Operating costs	percentage of quota achieved	lost time
Running costs	percentage of tasks incorrectly done	machine down time
Lenth of time to train new employees		accident costs

Increase in manpower, facilities, assets, sales, etc., compared with own past state and with competitors.
Looking at resources changes the emphasis from outputs, goals and targets to inputs designed to achieve some competitive advantage. At the level of the organisation, the evaluation can be a comparison with major competitors, or against 'how we did last year', or against some ideal desired state. At lower levels, increased flexibility is often the measure which is used. Criteria which might be available for assessing increases in effectiveness include:

Increase in number of customers	increase in the pool of trained staff
New branches opened	skills for future job requirements developed
New makets entered	
Takeover of other organisations	increased flexibility in job deployment developed
Ability to change standard procedure when necessary	readiness to perform some task if asked to do so

Developing accountability and responsibility to departments is widely seen as contributing to the flexibility of organisations faced with an ever changing environment. Training is a necessary part of this process and can be evaluated on the basis of what effects would have been likely if no training had been offered.

Effectiveness can be judged by the extent to which the organisation meets the expectations of groups (constituencies) whose co-operation is important. Assessment of effectiveness will be against criteria like the following:

Customer complaints	organisational image surveys
Returned material	customer relation surveys
Repair orders on guarantee	recall costs
Non-receipt of goods	incorrect goods received

Product or service quality	meeting statutory requirements

Most organisations monitor criteria of this nature but few publish the information. One rather useful study which attempted to relate this kind of criterion with training was by Massey (1957). He described a programme of Post Office training and showed that the number of misdeliveries and errors (as well as absence without reporting and abuse of sick leave) decreased in the trained group when compared with an 'untrained' group.

While using the internal processes approach, effective organisations are defined as those in which there is little internal strain, little intergroup conflict, where members feel intergrated with the system and where information flows smoothly. Assessment of effectiveness may be against hard data like turnover of employees, absence, sick leave, etc.; often it is also against surveyed opinions of 'how we were' or 'how we would like to be'. The feeling of belonging and commitment often predisposes people to put in extra effort to achieve organisational goals. At the group level this used to be called morale. Although the word now sounds to be old-fashioned the concept is still important. It can sometimes be assessed by measuring such things as:

- Whether the staff believe that effort will be rewarded
- The motivating climate
- Job involvement
- Job satisfaction
- Group cohesiveness

Measures of these kinds of attitudes were the main interest of the organisational development movement which was so powerful in the USA during the 1970s, and many survey instruments have been developed by consultants and researchers. Useful sources of these inventories are the books by Henerson, morris and Fitzgibbon (1978), Cook et al (1981), and Seashore et al. (1982).

Poor morale may show in the statistics of:

Transfer/turnover	disciplinary actions
Absentism	grievances
Medical visits	stoppages
Accident rates	excessive work breakdown

If they are prevalent, such things can be expensive. Mirvis and Macy (1982) estimate the cost of one day's absence as US$80.6, that of turnover of an employee at US$160.65 and that of a grievance at US$54.52 (all at 1976 values).

Training can have a marked impact upon the patterns of work within parts of the organisation, for instance, by increasing the quality of decision-making, of planning or of supervision. Training can help to improve working within groups and between groups. It can also help people to cope with reduced staff levels and with managing time better. Many of these activities can affect the attitudes of managers and staff and these changes may affect the statistics associated with the low morale.

Costing changes as a consequence of training in an organisation is importat and the three major issues considered are:

- Improving efficiency which refers to achieving the same results with lower costs
- Improving effectiveness means achieving better results with the same costs
- It is possible to get better results with lower costs and this is called improved productivity

Costing systems vary from one organisation to another and liasion with the accounting department is usually necessary to make sure that the system adopted for training costs is compatible with other costing systems within the organisation. A simple matrix for costing training event can be as follows:

	Personnel	Facilities	Equipment
Design	1 (a)	1 (b)	1 c
Delivery	2 (a)	2 (b)	2 c
Evaluation	3 (a)	3 (b)	3 (c)

Figure 10. Costing training events

The cost of design can be spread over the life of the programme (i.e. shared by the proposed number of programmes) as it will otherwise account for some 50per cent of the over all costs. As a rough guideline, technical courses will need some five hours' preparation per hour of delivery. Programmed or packaged instruction might be mich more expensive as up to 100 hours of design are needed for one hour of instruction. With computer-based learning the ratio can be as high as 400:1. The cost of designing the learning event will include things like:
1a. Costs of preliminary analysis of training needs, development of objectives, course development, lesson planning, programming, audio-visual aids production, consultant advice and contractors.
1b. Offices, telephones.
1c. Production of workbooks, slides, tapes, tests, programmes, printing and reproduction.

The cost of delivery, which is actually running the training event will include:
2a. Some proportion of annual salaries of trainers, lecturers, trainees, clerical/administration staff and travel costs.
2b. Cost of conference centres or up-keep of classrooms, buildings, offices.
2c Equipment for delivering the training – slide projectors, videos, computers, simulators, workbooks, handouts, maintanance and repair of aids.

The cost of evaluation may include:
3a. Cost of designing questionnaires, follow-up interviews, travel, accommodation, analysis and summary of data collected and delivering the evaluation report.
3b. Offices, telephones
3c Tests, questionaires postage.

To give a complete picture it is also worth considering a general overhead for the expense of maintaining the training department. This may be allocated to individual training programmes on the basis of hours of participant learning, tutor involvement and level of administration required. Salaries of trainees are often not allocated to training costs. For instance, when a foreman is taken off the factory floor a few hours a week to discuss supervisory methods, it makes very little difference to his 'output' as a foreman. In such a case it seems wrong to include the value of his salary for the hours spent as a cost of training. However, in the survey reported by Weinstein and Kasl (1982), the salary of trainees averaged about a third of all training costs. If this is the case for a programme which is being planned, then it seems worth while to account for it and use it and use it as a criterion when deciding training priorities.

It is important to consider cost benefit analysis whose intention is to discover whether the benefits from training are more valuable to the organisation than the cost of the training. Wherever possible benefits are translated into monetary terms. Many products of training can be costed:

- Product benefits like increased volume or quality of product
- Systems benefits like increased productivity or efficiency, reduced job induction training time
- 'Hygiene' benefits like reduced rturnover, absenteeism, strikes
- Reduction in accidents in a workplace (perhaps costs which are inherent when not training)

Woodward (1975) carried out a cost benefit study of a training activity using supervisors attending a NEBSS course. The average cost of the programme per supervisor was £887 and the average project benefit was calculated at £2576 and therefore a benefit-cost ratio of 2.9:1.
'Quality awareness programmes have become very popular and some of these lend themselves to cost benefit studies. For instance, Girobank decided to focus on improving quality in its Operations Directorate which undertakes most of the processing and data capture functions at the main operational site. A one-day quality awareness module was developed and delivered through 69 workshops. An internal publicity campaign maintained the impetus of the process. There has been a 22 per cent reduction in keying errors, a 28 per cent reduction in stationery re-order , and a reduction in scrutiny of customer transaction documents. The estimated saving is about £1million from an investment of £25,000 in training'. (Source: National Training Awards for 1988, The training Agency). However, the logic underlying cost benefit analysis may not

particularly be appropriate to training and development activities because the benefits are rather diffuse and take some time to be realised. A more compelling logic is to be found in considering the process as one of adding values to employees. Before training, they are considered to need extra skills, knowledge, flixibility in order to be able to work more effectively. After training , they should be able to perform better and thus be of greater value to the organisation. It should be able to attribute some of this added value to the investment in training.

The value added approach has some assumptions underlying it . The first assumption is to take a rather simple definition of performance at work. There is an extensive literature on why some people perform well and others do not. The complexity of the literature is increased by the inclision of the concept of motivation; there are many theories about what encourages or discourages good performance. For the purposes of value added accounting, we need a simple theory of performance. One way in which this can be done is to take a simple combination of the three major elements which appear again and again in theoretical approches. These are:

- There is need for some ability or skills in areas which are relevant to the work
- There must be some motivation to do the job (this may stem from the job context or the individual)
- There must be the opportunity to use the skills and actually perform the job

As a simple equation this can be expressed as:

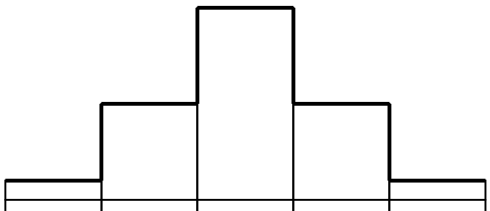
Performance = Some function of (Skills X Motivation X Opportunity)

The implication of the multiplication signs is that, if there is no skill, or motivation or opportunity, the performance will be zero. This equation however does not state what function is involved, how to decide which skill is relevant nor has it attempted to operationalize 'motivation'.

Value added accounting begins with a pre-training analysis which estimates the position of an individual with respect to the average level of skill and of motivation of employees who are doing that kind of work. The scaling is done against a set of proportions:

- The middle 40 per cent are considered to be about average
- Those who are noticeably above average will represent about 25 per cent
- Those noticeably below average will also comprise 25 per cent
- Those who are outstandigly good will be about 1 in 20, i.e. 5 per cent
- Those who are outstandingly bad will also comprise about 5 per cent

These proportions can be presented diagramatically as follows showing normal distribution of ability:



Proportions	5%	25%	40%	25%	5%
Standard deviations	-2	-1	0	+1	+2

Figure 11. Normal distribution of ability

One standard deviation (SD) above or below the mean will give a noticeable difference. Two SDs above or below the mean is the statistical creterion of an outstanding event – a significant defference. If this scale of SD is transposed into one which has 1 as its mean value, then it will allow us to multiply average skills in the job by average motivation and, assuming that opportunity is available, to grade average performance as 1. Keeping the same relative value gives centre points of the intervals 0.33, 0.67, 1, 1.33, 1.67, i.e.

Proportions	5%	25%	40%	25%	5%
Standard deviations	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
Transposed scale	0.33	0.67	1	1.33	1.67

The transposed values when plotted on the matrix as the one shown below will show the effect of multiplying estimated level of skills by estimated level of motivation to give an estimated level of performance.

Estimated level motivation	.33 Very low	.67 Below average	1.0 Average	1.33 Above average	1.67 Very high
Very high 1.67	.6	1.1	1.7	2.2	2.8
Above average 1. 33	.4	.9	1.3	1.8	2.2
Average 1. 0	.3	.7	Average 1.0 performance	1.3	1.7
.67 Below average	.2	.4	.7	.9	1.1
.33 Very low	.1	.2	.3	.4	.6

Figure 12. Estimated level of skills

Inspection of the figure above – estimated levels of performance clarifies the logic of the value-added approach. For instance, an employee who is considered to have an average motivation (1.0) but whose skills are noticeably below average (0.67) is estimated to be performing at 0.7 of what is expected in the job. If training can bring such a person up to the average level of skills, the increment in performance is 0.3 and the value added to the employee by such training is, therefore, 0.3 of the salary for the job.

Employees who are noticeably below average on both skills and motivation are obviously being estimated as having a very low level of performance. It may be that training is not the answer for such people and that they may be better employed in some other kind of work. Employees who are noticeably above average or who are considered to be outstanding might also be considered for redeployment. It may be that the organisation could benefit from giving them a more responsible job.

Training is often aimed at improving skills or motivation. The logic of the value added approach would suggest that if it is considered that employees have the skills but their motivation is low, then the training investment should be on supervisory and management training. If employees are thought to have motivation but to lack some important skills, then the investment should be on employee skills development training. There are some important assumptions underlying all of this. Three of them need particular care:

- Can managers allocate people to these allocations? Some managers believe that all people are above average. Many have difficulty with trying to measure people on scale of motivation
- Is there the opportunity to use the skills and the encouragement to maintain motivation when new skills are being used? If the opportunity is not available, the whole logic collapses
- Are the skills, which are required fir successful job performance being identified accurately, and are they those which are being learned in training?

If these assumptions can be accepted, the approach can be used to estimate the return on training investment. The estimate can also be used for forward planning of training investment. Suppose that it is intended to offer training and group facilitation to introduce group and individual target setting which is related to the business plan. The intention would be to improve motivation and increase the opportunity to use the skills available. If this were to move most of the people who were previously considered average above the norm, either on skills or motivation, the benefit to the organisation would be enormous.

4.0 METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in 10 Community Based Organisations in Western Uganda. Initially 15 CBOs were contacted but only ten responded positively. The study was also extended to four Organisations in Rwanda. In each organisation, five key informants all of whom are in senior leadership positions were interacted with. During the study, a self-assessment approach was adopted whereby each key informant was given an item and in his/her own assessment gives it a score. The scores and any ranking done on individual basis were later analysed in a plenary by adding all the scores of each question and dividng the total with the number of respondents to come up with an average score or ranking.

While examining the training process, a questionnaire with twelve questions was administered to five members of staff in each organisation. Each question had three answers marked A, B and C. The scores for each answer were as follows: 1 for A, 2 for B and 3 for C. Therefore the lowest score was 12 and the highest score was 36. However, the score 24 which is approximately 66% was considered to be about average performance as far as the training process was concerned. The questionnaire was focusing on issues like:

- How the trainees are selected
- How are the trainees briefed before the training
- The aim of the training programmes
- Pre-training analysis
- How do trainers get feedback on their performance
- What supervisors do when trainees return to the workplace
- How results of the training programme are communicated
- The involvement of line management
- The use of the training materials
- Whether the impact of training on organisational effectiveness is regularly assessed

After analysing the average score for every question in the plenary, then final score was computed by adding all the twelve average scores to come up with the total score which was later compared to 24 which was considered as the average score and the benchmark. The scores were later computed as percentages and a bar graph drawn to visually show the various levels at which the CBOs are in institutionalising a training function.

The plenary session was followed by a focus group discussion to reflect on the issues raised in the questionnaire and propose strategies on how they feel training could be more relevant and effective.

The study further assessed changes on organisational effectiveness as a result of the training interventions carried out. A set of questionnaires to assess: Internal organisation, External linkages and Project/Activity outcomes were administered to five key informants in every organisation. Each item on the questionnaire was ranked from 1 – 4 as follows:

- 1 for rarely
- 2 for occasionally
- 3 for often
- 4 for always

The ranking given to each question by the respondents were added and then divided by the total number of respondents to get an average ranking for each question. These were clustered under each key area assessed, added and divided by the number of dimensions in a particular key area to get an average rank that falls between 1 and 4.

Three questionnaires were administered to assess the internal organisation of every CBO studied. The first questionnaire focused on the Mission and Values. The key areas assessed were: mission, strategy, identity and values. The ranking for key areas for individual CBOs were added and divided by four to get an average raking. This was later computed as a percentage out of 16. The second questionnaire focused on whar was considered as management 1 and the key areas were; leadership, staff participation, governing body, planning and financial management. The ranking for key areas for individual CBOs were added up and divided by five to get an average score which was computed as a percentage out of 20. The third questionnaire focused on what was considered as management 2 and the key areas considered were: organisational structure, financial reporting proceedures, human resource management, administrative systems, human resources, self-reflection and learning. The ranking for key areas for individual CBOs were added and divided by six to get the average rank which was later computed as percentage out of 24. The three percentages for each CBO were added and divided by three to get an analysis on the level of who each CBO is interanally organised.

Another questionnaire was administered to assess external linkages and the key areas focused on were: relationship with other organisations, advocacy, rlationship with the community and the capacity to obtain and mobilise resources. The raking for key areas for individual CBOs were added and divided by four to get an average ranking and later computed into percentage out of 16.

To assess projects/activities carried out by individual CBOs, two questionnaires were administered. The first one focused on project planning and implementation. The key areas assessed were: good practice, targeting, beneficiary participation, local culture, monitoring and evaluation. Rankings for these key areas for individual CBO were added and divided to five to get an average rank which was later computed as a percentage out of 20. The second questionnaire focused on assessing project outcomes and the key areas were: achievement of objectives and sustainability. The ranking for key areas of individual CBOs were added and divided by two to get an average score that was computed as a percentage out of eight. The two percentages for each CBO were added and divided by two to get an average assessment on the projects/activities performance.

Later the assessed themes: Internal organisation, External linkages and projects, using the analysed percentages, a bar graph was drawn to visually show organisational effectiveness. The benchmark was considered at 40% being an average perforance.

During the study, the following time-table was used.

	Session 1 **Two hours**	**Session 2** **Two hours**	**Session 3** **Two hours**
Day 1	-introductions -debriefing -introducing the training process questionnaire	-scoring the questionnaire -plenary assessment	Focus group discussion
Day 2	Internal organisation	Internal organisation	External linkages Focus group discission
Day 3	Projects/activities	Projects/activities	Plenary analysis Focus group discussion

5.0 STATEMENT OF RESULTS

The results of the survey are presented at two levels: the training process and changes in organisational effectiveness.

5.1 Training Process**.**

The CBOs studied are:

- Kasambya CBO
- Bageza CBO
- Kitenga CBO
- Nakaseeta Initiative for Adult Education and Development (NIFAED)
- Foundation for Urban and Rural Advancement (FURA)
- Bundibugyo Disaster Management Initiative (BUDMI)
- Self Care
- Literacy and Empowerment
- Bugarungu Women Foundation
- African International Christian Ministries (AICM)

Five members in each organisation were given the questionnaire. These included senior members and policy makers in their CBOs. The questionnaire focused at eliciting information on the training process within each organisation. The questionnaire which is attached as appendix 1, considered a range of dimensions in the training process. These included: how are the trainees selected, their briefing before training, aim of training, how trainers get feedback on trainees performance and the assessment of the impact of training on organisational effectiveness.

Scoring: The answers given were scored as follows:
1 for A, 2 for B, and 3 for C, making the highest score 36.

Kasambya CBO

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	1	2	3	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	19
Respondent 2	3	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	3	2	20
Respondent 3	2	2	3	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	17
Respondent 4	2	2	3	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	19
Respondent 5	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	17
Average Score	1.8	1.6	2.4	1	2	1.4	1.4	1	1	1.4	2	1.4	18.4

Bayeza CBO

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	17
Respondent 2	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	16
Respondent 3	3	2	2	1	2	1	2	3	1	1	3	1	22
Respondent 4	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	17
Respondent 5	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	17
Average Score	1.6	1.6	2	1	2	1.4	1.6	1.4	1	1.2	2	1	17.8

Kitenga CBO

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	3	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	1	21
Respondent 2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	21
Respondent 3	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1	16
Respondent 4	3	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	17
Respondent 5	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	19
Average Score	2.2	1.4	1.6	1	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.8	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.4	18.8

NIFAED

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	3	1	2	3	1	20
Respondent 2	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	3	1	2	2	1	19
Respondent 3	3	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	3	2	20
Respondent 4	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	17
Respondent 5	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	16
Average Score	2	1.4	1.4	1	1.6	1.6	1.2	2	1	1.6	2.2	1.4	18.4

FURA

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	1	19
Respondent 2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	18
Respondent 3	3	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	19
Respondent 4	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	3	2	19
Respondent 5	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	18
Average Score	2.2	1.6	1.4	1	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.4	1	1.6	2.4	1.4	18.6

BUDMI

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	18
Respondent 2	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	18
Respondent 3	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	14
Respondent 4	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	15
Respondent 5	2	1	3	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	18
Average Score	1.6	1	1.8	1	1.6	1.6	1.4	1	1	1.6	1.6	1.4	16.6

Self Care

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	18
Respondent 2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	3	1	19
Respondent 3	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	3	1	2	2	1	19
Respondent 4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	14
Respondent 5	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	15
Average Score	1.6	1.2	1.4	1	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.8	1	1.4	1.8	1	17

Literacy and Empowerment

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	18
Respondent 2	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	18
Respondent 3	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	16
Respondent 4	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	15
Respondent 5	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	16
Average Score	1.6	1.4	1.6	1	1.6	1.4	1.4	1	1	2	1.6	1	16.6

Bugarunga Women Foundation

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	17
Respondent 2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	17
Respondent 3	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	17
Respondent 4	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	3	1	19
Respondent 5	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13
Average Score	1.6	1.4	1.6	1	1.6	1.4	1	1.4	1	1.6	2	1	16.6

AICM

Respondent	Questions												Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Respondent 1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	3	1	2	2	1	18
Respondent 2	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	18
Respondent 3	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	16
Respondent 4	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	15
Respondent 5	1	1	2	1	2	2	1	3	1	1	1	1	17
Average Score	1.6	1.4	1.4	1	1.6	1.6	1	1.8	1	1.6	1.8	1	16.8

Summary

CBO	Average Score	%
Kasambya	18.4	51%
Bageza	17.8	49%
Kitenga	18.8	52%
NIFAED	18.4	51%
FURA	18.6	52%
BUDMI	16.6	46%
Self Care	17	47%
Literacy and Empowerment	16.6	46%
Bugarungu Women Foundation	16.6	46%
AICM	16.6	46%

A score below 24 which is approximately 66% indicates a training function which is divorced from organisational realties. All the CBOs surveyed indicated that they have had a series of training interventions but were not clear about the systematic training process and therefore not followed. Focus group discussions with respondents revealed that most of the training activities are initiated by their partners that support their activities. No training needs assessment is carried out and all the CBOs had no training programmes tailored to neither individual needs nor to improving organisational results and effectiveness. None of the CBOs surveyed had a man-power development plan. The training budget ranged between 2% to 4% of the total annual

budgets and some respondents mentioned that at times this budget line is not funded. Almost 80% of the respondents mentioned that they have not had a chance to meet their trainers and therefore couldn't feedback on their performance. All organisations indicated that assessing the impact of training on organisational effectiveness has never been done.

Figure 13. Analysis of the training process

The figure above indicates that, the CBOs are at different levels of institutionalising the training function.

A similar survey was carried out in four CBOs in Rwanda. These are: Byumba Wholistic Development Programme, Shyogwe Development Foundation, Butare Community Support Programme and Umwana Ukundwa Association. The survey found out that most of these organisations were established to respond to the effects of the war and its aftermath. Since then they have been providing care and support to orphans, widows and providing peace building, reconciliation and counseling interventions. Not much has been done in the area of training. In the year 2003, these organisations have been challenged by her major partner Tearfund UK to shift from relief provision to adopt a development approach in their activities. Tearfund has organised a strategic planning workshop to enable each organisation define her strategic direction in the face of this new challenge. However by the time of the survey, none of the four organisations visited had put into practice what was discussed in the workshop. The major reason raised for this was that the duration of the workshop, which was four days, was too short to enable trainees develop strategic planning skills. They have asked Tearfund to provide post-training support in individual organisations's workplace for guidance through a strategic planning process. They mentioned that a one-off training in not enough.

5.2 Changes in organisational effectiveness

The study further assessed the three dimensions of: Internal organisation, External linkages and Projects/Activities, which form the main parts of a CBO that interact and support each other. Since the ten CBOs studied had had some sort of training, the assessment looked at how has this training strengthened this process of interaction and mutual support to enhance particular CBO effectiveness. The benchmark here for an effective CBO revolved around the following characteristics:

- Clear purpose of where it wants to go
- Clear plans of how it wants to achieve its vision
- Strong values that shape the work and culture of a particular CBO
- Projects that are effective and follow good practice
- Strong leadership
- Clear lines of decision making and accountability
- Good systems of financial control and administration
- Good relations with other organisations
- Openness to learn and reflect with a desire to improve

These characteristics were examined under the following themes:

Theme 1: Internal Organisation;

- Mission and values (key areas assessed were; Mission and strategy)
- Management 1 (key areas assessed were; Leadership, governing body, planning, staff participation and financial management)
- Management 2 (key areas assessed were; Organisational structure, financial reporting procedures, resource management, administration systems, human resources, self-reflection and learning)

Theme 2 External linkages;

Key areas assessed were relationship with other organisations, advocacy, and capacity to obtain and mobilise resources.

Theme 3: Examining projects and activities;

- Project planning and implementation (key areas examined were; good practice, beneficiary participation, culture, targeting, monitoring and evaluation)
- Project outcomes (key areas examined were achievement of objectives and sustainability)

A questionnaire to assess key areas under each theme was administered to five respondents in each organisation. The questionnaires used are attached as appendix 11. The ranking of each dimension in the questionnaire were from 1- 4: 1 for rarely; 2 for occasionally; 3 for often; and 4 for always.

The data collected was analysed as follows:

Internal organisation (mission and values)

	KEY AREAS					
CBO	**MISSION**	**STRATEGIES**	**IDENTITY**	**VALUES**	**AVERAGE**	**%**
KASAMBYA	2	1	2	1	1.5	9.3
BAGEZA	2	2	1	1	1.5	9.3
KITENGA	2	2	2	1	1.8	11
NIFAED	3	1	2	2	2	13
FURA	3	3	1	1	2	13
BUDMI	1	1	1	1	1	6
SELF CARE	2	2	2	1	1.8	11
Literacy and Empowerment	2	1	1	1	1.3	9
Bugarama WF	1	1	1	1	1	6
AICM	2	1	1	3	1.8	11

Internal organisation (Management1)

CBO	Leadership	Staff participation	Governing body	Planning	F/m	Average	%
KASAMBYA	2	1	1	2	1	1.4	7
BAGEZA	1	2	2	2	1	1.6	8
KITENGA	2	3	2	1	1	1.8	9
NIFAED	2	1	1	2	1	1.4	7
FURA	3	2	1	3	2	2.2	11
BUDMI	1	1	1	2	1	1.2	6
SELF CARE	2	2	1	1	1	1.4	7
Literacy and Empowerment	2	1	1	2	2	1.6	8
Bugarama WF	2	1	1	1	1	1.2	6
AICM	2	1	2	1	1	1.4	7

Internal organisation (Management2)

	KEY AREAS							
CBO	**Organisational structure**	**Financing reporting procedures**	**HRM**	**Administrative systems**	**Human resources**	**Self reflection and learning**	**Average**	**%**
KASAMBYA	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4.2
BAGEZA	2	1	1	1	1	1	1.2	5
KITENGA	2	2	1	1	1	1	1.3	6
NIFAED	1	2	1	1	1	1	1.2	5
FURA	2	2	1	2	1	2	1.7	7
BUDMI	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4.2
SELF CARE	2	2	1	1	1	1	1.3	6
Literacy and Empowerment	2	2	1	1	1	2	1.5	6.2
Bugarama WF	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4.2
AICM	2	2	1	2	1	1	1.5	6.2

Analysis of the internal organisation

CBO	*Average %*
KASAMBYA	6.8
BAGEZA	7.4
KITENGA	8.3
NIFAED	8.3
FURA	10.3
BUDMI	5.4
SELF CARE	8
Literacy and Empowerment	7.7
Bugarama WF	5.4
AICM	8

Assessing external linkages

	KEY AREAS					
CBO	**Relationships with other organisations**	**Advocacy**	**Relationships with the community**	**Capacity to obtain and mobilise resources**	**Average**	**%**
KASAMBYA	2	1	2	1	1.5	9.3
BAGEZA	2	1	2	2	1.8	11
KITENGA	2	2	2	2	2	13
NIFAED	1	2	2	1	1.5	9.3
FURA	2	2	1	2	1.8	11
BUDMI	1	1	1	1	1	6.3
SELF CARE	2	1	2	2	1.8	11
Literacy and Empowerment	1	1	2	1	1.3	5.2
Bugarama WF	1	1	2	2	1.5	9.3
AICM	2	1	2	2	1.8	11

Assessing projects (project planning and implementation)

	KEY AREAS						
CBO	**Good practice**	**Targeting**	**Beneficiary participants**	**Local culture**	**M and E**	**Average**	**%**
KASAMBYA	2	1	2	2	1	1.6	8
BAGEZA	2	2	2	1	1	1.6	8
KITENGA	2	1	1	1	2	1.4	7
NIFAED	2	2	2	1	1	1.6	8
FURA	3	2	1	2	2	2	10
BUDMI	1	1	1	1	1	1	5
SELF CARE	2	2	2	1	2	1.8	9
Liiteracy and Empowerment	2	2	2	1	1	1.6	8
Bugarama WF	1	1	2	2	1	1.4	7
AICM	2	2	2	1	1	1.6	8

Assessing projects (project outcomes)

	KEY AREAS			
CBO	**Achievement of objectives**	**Sustainability**	**Average**	**%**
KASAMBYA	2	1	1.5	19
BAGEZA	2	1	1.5	19
KITENGA	2	2	2	25
NIFAED	2	1	1.5	19
FURA	3	1	2	25
BUDMI	1	1	1	13
SELF CARE	2	1	1.5	19
Literacy and Empowerment	1	1	1	13
Bugarama WF	1	1	1	13
AICM	2	1	1.5	19

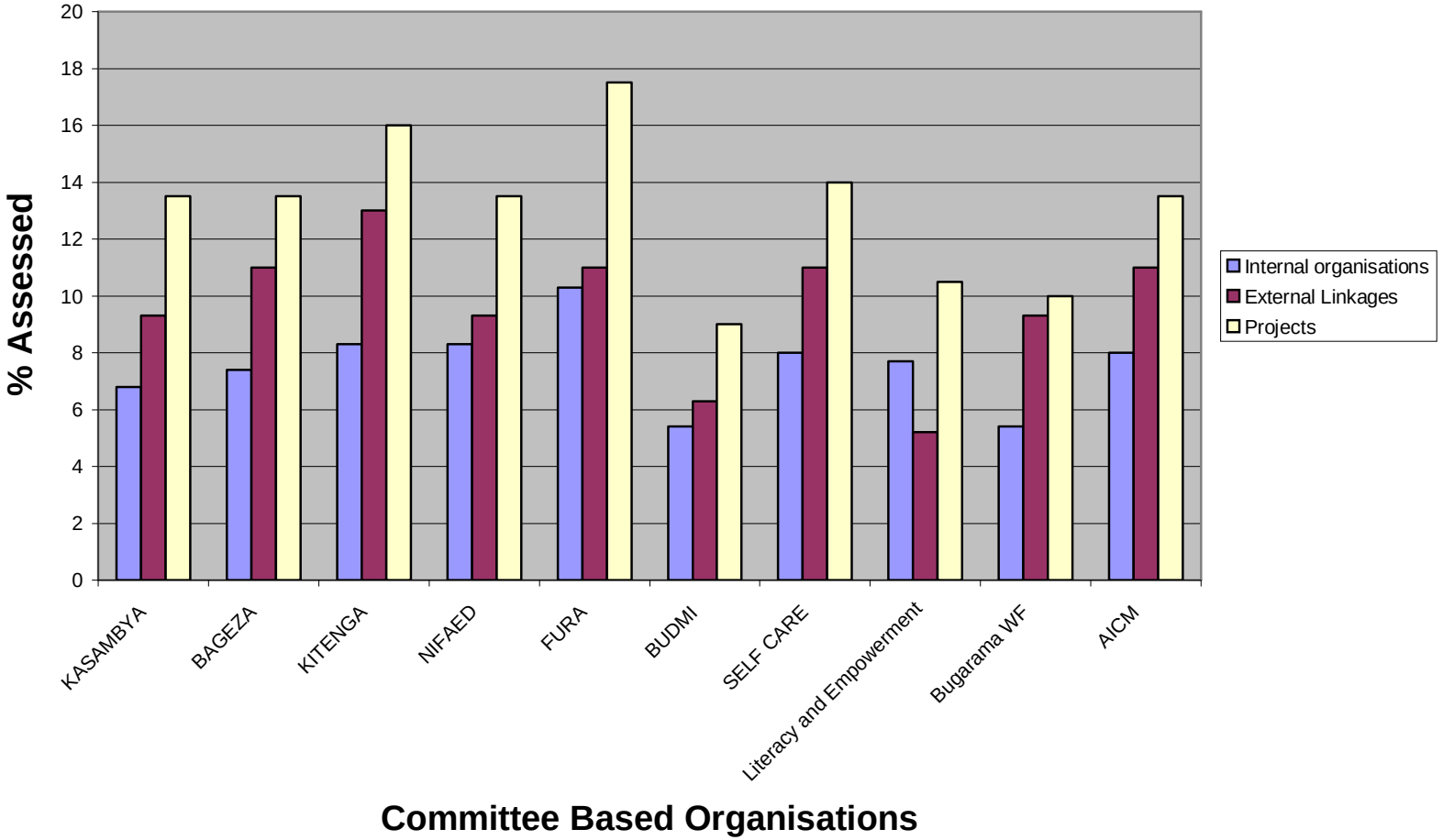
Summary on assessment of projects (planning, implementation and outcomes)

CBO	**%**
KASAMBYA	13.5
BAGEZA	13.5
KITENGA	16
NIFAED	13.5
FURA	17.5
BUDMI	9
SELF CARE	14
Literacy and Empowerment	10.5
Bugarama WF	10
AICM	13.5

Summary

	Assessed Areas in terms of %		
CBO	**Internal organisations**	**External Linkages**	**Projects**
KASAMBYA	6.8	9.3	13.5
BAGEZA	7.4	11	13.5
KITENGA	8.3	13	16
NIFAED	8.3	9.3	13.5
FURA	10.3	11	17.5
BUDMI	5.4	6.3	9
SELF CARE	8	11	14
Literacy and Empowerment	7.7	5.2	10.5
Bugarama WF	5.4	9.3	10
AICM	8	11	13.5

Organisational Effectiveness



The scores were analysed at a scaling where 40% was considered to be about average performance. All the CBOs where the study was carried out are far below the performance benchmark set. As much as there seemed to be a correlation between institutionalising a training function and effectiveness in FURA and Kitenga, it is difficult to contribute their performance to training since there was no pre-training analysis to estimate the position of individuals with respect to the level of skill required to perform their roles effectively. This would be an area of study to assess organisations within a similar setting are at different levels of performance.

Focus group discussions held with the CBOs leadership revealed that 80% of the Key Informants had no job description. Job analysis and the key competencies required to effectively perform the roles is not done as they mentioned that they recruit based on the resources available and that qualified people are beyond their capacity.

6.0 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The positioning of CBOs at the grassroots level provides a competitive advantage to stimulate development action at the micro-level which involves poverty reduction in ways which are sustainable and which lead to the growth and functioning of strong, autonomous organisations. CBOs represent people who are poor but who can gain the ability to engage with other social actors on their own terms to work towards poverty reduction. The review of poverty describes the sort of changes needed to move people from deprivation to a situation where they have sufficient access to and control over existing commodities or are able to generate new ones with more equal exchange. For this to be effectively achieved, it requires that people become the starting point for the approach and that the right inter-play be created between three types of actions which:

- Improve people's livelihoods and physical well-being in sustainable ways
- Build up the capacities of people's organisations
- Empower in the sense that, individually and collectively, people are able and willing to make claims on development process as well as instigating their own

To achieve this, various training programmes have been conducted. Focus group discussions during the study established that such training interventions like: strategic planning, project cycle management, team building, proposal writing and others have been organised by mostly the partners who support the activities/projects carried out by the CBOs. Have these training activities been effective? How have they contributed to the growth and development of these CBOs to meet their objectives?

While examining the training process, it was established that there was no link between training need and the performance required. Almost 90% of the training carried out was done without a clear specification of the nature of the training need (i.e. the gap to be filled) between present level of knowledge/skill/attitude/habit and standard expected. A training plan identifying and specifying people to be trained, by whom, by when and how was none existent in all the CBOs studied. In some cases, the trainers provided training reports to the CBOs however the trainees have not translated the lessons and recommendations arising from the training into practice in workplace. The study couldn't establish the reasons behind this and may be this could be another area of study. Failure to apply some of the learning has an impact on the effectiveness of such training. Evaluating results of most of the training activities carried out is not done may be due to the lack of original identified need and set standard of performance after the training. All in all, a systematic training that would assess each trainee against the job specification so that the resulting gaps could be the basis for a training plan with specific objectives was not followed.

As much as the systematic training approach would revolve around a particular job, it is useful in specifying requirements for each job. However the inclusion of standard expected in the training cycle would help to specify the standards of performance required in any job, a useful element for evaluation because without a clear standard there is nothing against which the training could be measured. During the study, it was noted that, CBOs do not pay attention to the design of the training programmes. The line managers are not involved in the design and delivery of training s they argued that training programmes are organised by their partners and they are only asked to send participants. In this respect, it is difficult for CBOs to assess the outcomes of training. It is imperative for organisations to make clear connections between training inputs and outputs if they are to adapt to change. This is likely to enhance the competence of an individual. The focus on competence development will enable individuals to transfer skills and knowledge to new situations within the occupational area. It encompasses organisation and planning of work, innovation and coping with non-routine activities in addition to those qualities of personal effectiveness that are required in the workplace to deal with co-workers, managers and the community members. The importance of competence approach is that it focuses in the individual, the occupation

and the organisation which are crucial elements that are likely to contribute to increased performance. If the training function is to contribute to the growth and development of CBOs with in the current situation, what would be the best approach? May be this is another area of study. In all the CBOs studied, the staff lacked job competence profiles making it difficult for the managers to assess the ability of their staff to perform activities within their occupation and standards expected in employment.

Fostering empowerment of CBOs has two principal dimensions: psycho-social and relational. The first is a shift n the way people look at themselves within their organisation. Low self-worth, a sense of negation and an attitude of resignation to circumstances and events must alter so that people can better their situation within their organisation. The second dimension is the individual's capability and willingness to exert influence on existing power structures or to build new ones particularly to increase the resources and choices available to them. The two dimensions call for a learning situation that is sequenced so that people can use various styles of learning and integrate them into a meaningful whole. Since all the trainees were adults, the model suggested by Kolb (1984) based on learning from experience would be of help. The four stages for effective learning in Kolbs model implies that there should be some concrete experience, with the learners involving themselves fully and openly, and some reflective observation with the learners would help stepping back and reflect upon experience. This would lead to the formation of abstract concepts and generalisations that would be tested for future action leading o new experiences. Such a learning process is learner–centred with a major dimension of enabling he learner discover things for her/himself. Since the training conducted never involved the learners in the planning stages, the imparted knowledge and skills never considered the learner's experience and therefore it is difficult to determine whether it was learner-centered.

The analysis of the training process (Figure--) indicated that CBOs are at different levels of institutionalising the training function. This ranged from 52% for FURA and Kitenga to 46% for AICM, Bugarama Women Foundation, Literacy and Empowerment, and BUDMI. The benchmark that was considered as average performance was set at 66% and all the CBOs are below the benchmark indicating that a training function is divorced from the organisational realities. Since organisations are operating within a dynamic environment, with changes in plant and equipment, changes in structures and procedures, changes in standards, training function is crucial. This will enhance the process of developing human resources within the organisation with the basic elements of selection, assessment of performance, estimation of potential and some form of career planning for individuals as well as the overall manpower planning for the future. Skills training should therefore contribute to this process and should be integrated into the planning. Katz and Khan, (1978) suggested that one way of integrating the training function is by the consideration of corporate business plans at three levels: at the strategic level the requirement is to draw up plans for the development of management and workforce to enable the organisation to change in desired directions; at the co-ordinate level the main requirement is to develop the experience of managers to ensure the supply of future middle and senior managers; at the operational level the emphasis to be on training people to improve their performance in their present jobs. The priority given to different levels will depend upon the nature of the perceived challenge from the external environment for that particular organisation. If training is fully integrated into the organisation, the role of the training manager becomes much more wide-ranging, essentially that of an internal consultant on organisational change and development. Wellens (1979) discusses what he calls ''he broad view of training'' He argues that there is a basic difference in aims between a training function and that of personnel. The latter tends to see management as the administration of systems - formal procedures, agreements, rulebooks, keeping records, etc. Training is seen as the instrument for breaking new ground and bringing about change. However, there are two problems in achieving the position Wellens believes to be desirable for training. First, the range of skills available in the training department and, second, the development of a power base from which to implement organisational change.

Training started from a tradition of activities, which helped individuals to perform identified tasks within jobs. Changing the focus from clearly specified jobs to the well being of the organisation implies a profound change in skills required of trainers. The skills of job analysis and in-class presentation of material are becoming much less valuable than the problem-solving and political skills required for working successfully with the line managers. These skills are not widely distributed among trainers. There is also the problem of the training manager to make changes. He or she usually reports to the personnel manager and thus is often not in a powerful position to be pro-active in planning changes within the organisation. Wellens argues for a manager of human resources who sits on the Board and who thus has the position necessary to be involved in forward planning. The challenge is that none of the CBOs studied had an established position of either a training manager or personnel manager. As much as in literature, more co-ordinated and farsighted personnel policies are being widely recommended as being the key to improved organisational performance, the study revealed that CBOs have not established clear personnel policies within which the position of a manager of human resources would be established to offer much greater opportunities for the co-ordination of personnel procedures, man-power development

plans, recruiting and training and management development programmes. Maybe this is the time for CBOs to critically think about developing relevant personnel policies and the establishment of a position of a manager of human resources. The challenge is that most of the CBOs might not have the capacity to develop personnel policies and therefore might require the services of the Organisational Development practitioner.

Pettigrew, Jones and Reason (1982) reported a survey of the work of trainers within the chemical industry. The study began with an assumption that the training role was changing from the administration and conduct of training courses to one, which involved more consulting and advising activities. What they actually found out was that the patterns of role conception and behaviour varied across the sample and that could be roughly divided into five types: the provider of training services, the passive provider, the training manager, change agents and those in transition from provider to change agent. The following definitions were used: The provider offers training services and systems which are primarily oriented to the maintenance and improvement of organisational performance rather than to changing organisation in any major ways. The passive provider is more likely to sit back and wait for people to come for help. Many seem to be unaware of ways in which they might gain access to clients or build strategies for influencing key decision-makers in the organisation. Training managers are mainly concerned with supervision of staff and the development and maintenance of the training function. They are often pre-occupied with the need to develop a position of power by the use of written training policies or by links with senior managers. Change agents are concerned with organisational development and changing the culture of the organisation. All the CBOs studied depended on external trainers with hardly any opportunity of meeting again after the training activity. There were no follow-ups after the training and provision of post training support like refresher sessions were not done. Some of the learnings were not readily applied in the workplace thus limiting the rate of retention. Trainers within the organisation would provide constant interactions with the trainees, providing advisory services and reinforcing the application of the learned skills.

Hamblin (1974) argues that there are five levels of training effects as shown below:

	TRAINING
Leads to	REACTIONS
Which leads to	LEARNING
Which leads to	CHANGES IN JOB BEHAVIOUR
Which leads to	CHANGES IN THE ORGANISATION
Which leads to	CHANGES IN THE ACHIEVEMENT OF ULTIMATE GOALS

Figure 15. Hamblin's Cause and Effect Chain of Training Effects

For the training to be successful and produce a change in the achievement of the ultimate goal, Humblin argues that each each of the preceding training effects have to be realised before progress can be made to the next successive level. By setting objectives at each of these levels the progress and development of a training programme can be assessed, assuming of course that these objectives accurately reflect their training effects. The study noted that, the training activities carried out in the CBOs had effect at the two levels of reaction and learning (42 respondents mentioned that the training was good as it enabled them to meet people from other organisations whereas 47 people indicated that they learnt something). Since the trainers had no opportunity of monitoring the application of the effects of the training, it was difficult to trace both where and at what level the training interventions were failing or succeeding. However, it is important to note that training does not occur in a vacuum and certainly there are many non-training activities which are likely to affect the success of the training but which are outside the trainer's control.

The approach adopted during the training is crucial in contributing to the attainment of the desired effects. Honey and Lobley (1986) pointed out that for effective learning, participants should be facilitated to move from task awareness (concern for getting things done) to structural awareness (developing clear objectives and plans) to role awareness (understanding the mix of roles in group activity) to behavioural and emotional awareness (giving and receiving feedback on behaviour, understanding, accepting and discussing openly the emotional factors). In so doing, they developed a

learning cycle with four stages of; having experience, reviewing the experience, concluding from the experience, and, planning the next steps. The study noted that back at the workplace there seemed not to be enough time to devote to the necessary review or feedback sessions. The result of this was that in some cases those interviewed were not able to clearly identify the objectives of the training they attended or relate what they had learnt back to the workplace. Thus, when some of the sample was asked what use the training was back in the workplace, the typical response was, 'we don't get much cause for abseiling in here'. This meant that vital elements of Honey and Lobley's schematic circle such as reviewing, concluding and planning the next steps to the training had not been covered.

The study further examined changes in organisational effectiveness as a consequence of the training interventions carried by the CBOs. The criteria used focused at three dimensions: the internal organisation, the external linkages, and, projects/activities. The major focus being to examine how has the training function strengthened the process of interaction and mutual support among these dimensions to enhance the effectiveness of a particular CBO. Probably the most basic definition of a Community Based Organisation is that they are purposeful, role bound social units. In other words, they are groups of individuals who allocate tasks between themselves to contribute to a common goal. This definition gets very muddled in practice because, for example, not everyone may share the goal to the same degree, or they may be in an organisation for personal reasons which have little or nothing to do with what the organisation wants to achieve. Despite these complications, the two items to bear in mind are: to exist an organisation needs purpose; and an organisation is made up of people who know what their role is (what is expected of them in relation to each other, in order to reach the purpose). Therefore for an organisation to be effective, it must achieve its goals and targets and satisfy its constituencies i.e. the expectations of the people in the organisation. Directing and sustaining purpose directed effort in an organisation is a big challenge as people come to the workplace with different objectives, interests and needs. Studies suggest that people behave the way they need to in organisations either: because they have to, that is, they are coerced: because they have incentives to do so, they are induced; or they are driven to do so by their own internal beliefs and values. Behaviour of people in voluntary organisations like CBOs relies largely on personal values, commitment and self-motivation. An important consequence of self-motivation is that people feel empowered to behave like co-owners, with a corresponding expectation o be treated in such a way by management; this impacts on the organisational culture and decision making processes. This is reinforced by a person's technical competence, experience, aptitudes, personal situation, and aspirations, which are also important for fulfilling a role effectively. These elements can be modeled and developed through a tailored training programme. The study established that, the training activities so far carried out did not include sessions on developing people's behaviour within their organisation to effectively perform their roles to achieve the goals and targets.

Attitudes of people are always cited as reasons for the failure or success of an organisation. Attitudes are said to be entrenched, unco-operative, favourable, encouraging or whatever, and are applauded or deplored according to the sentiment and the views of the commentators. Attitudes at work or in an organisation are formed both in terms of individual experience and social context. An attitude is a predisposition to perceive, evaluate and act in a particular way is relatively enduring. It has three elements: feeling, beliefs and values and a predisposition to act. However, the predisposition to act is not always carried into actual behaviour, not least because some predispositions may be in conflict, as well as being of varying salience to the individual. Various factors like individuality, social influences, individual's experiences outside and inside the organisation in addition to the nature of the wider society especially economic, social and political context have a big influence in the formation of people's attitudes in an organisation and building anticipatory sociolisation. Therefore what is learned from and expected by other significant people modifies behaviour and attitudes. The modification can be in terms of either conformity or nonconformity, depending on whether or not the significant people are adhorred or valued. Attitudes are thus built up through more or less integrated layers of experience, with a tendency for people to select those parts of experience and value which conform to present views. Organisations build on anticipatory socialisation immediately a recruit enters their door. Formal training and induction schemes are often as concerned with generating appropriate attitudes and manners of speech, dress and interaction as they are with imparting skills. Induction into a first job is a critical piece of secondary socialisation, which may often be reinforced, modified or even rejected when a person actually does the job. Apart from the influence of peer groups and some of the environmental factors, deliberate schemes for forming attitudes and behaviour of people for improved performance were lacking in the CBOs studied thus impacting negatively on individual's degree to expend a degree of effort towards achieving particular goals.

Beliefs are the foundation for the organisational values and philosophy of action. Together beliefs and values and the development philosophy form the reference point for what a CBO is and stands for. They are the measure against which the CBO must judge itself and are judged by others. Surprisingly, and unfortunately all the CBOs studied values and

beliefs were not clear to the respondents interacted with and therefore difficult to identify the views that underlie the culture. FURA, AICM, Kitenga and NIFAED had their mission statements written but properly understood by 30% of the staff. In organisational and management terms, clear values and philosophy are essential for effectiveness because they link the CBO's purpose, policies, strategic aims and operational choices. Beliefs, vision and values are at the top of a hierarchy of organisational futures, which need to be done well. Without these foundations serious inconsistencies between policies and real life practices can and do arise. For example BUDMI believes that the veterans of ADF war which affected her area of operation, have a right to national respect and adequate economic support, but her actual activities amount to little more than distributing hand outs, such as food and blankets. The inconsistency between the two is not seen or is simply accepted for reasons for organisational survival. One of the most important negative consequences is that lack of shared beliefs and values reduces internal trust, leading to a top-down, control-orientation which lessens an organisation's ability to respond rapidly, to adapt to diversity or to adopt the truly participatory practices needed in interaction with primary stakeholders. This impacts greatly on the level and degree of attaining the intended goals and targets.

Almost all the CBOs studied evolved from the motivations of social groups thus shaping their identity. In most cases, the founders were recongised as being accountable with other elected members form its constituency to form the Board or the governing body. The study noted that the Board which is elected to serve a specific period had no specific terms of reference and performance standards upon which to be measured at the end of the term. Lack of clear roles and responsibilities makes the board ineffective and likely to conflict with the staff. There are no provisions for board orientation and training specifically for developing governing approaches and systems that would enable the CBO to achieve its objectives. In Literacy and Empowerment the elements of conflict between the board and the staff were so evident that the implementation of her projects had stalled despite high funding support from Actionaid.

The CBOs studied showed varying levels of their internal organisation, which ranged from 5.4% for Bugarama Women Foundation to 10.3% for FURA. They all fall below the assumed average of 40% indicating that moving from social role to development goals is still a dream. Most CBOs seemed to be in infancy stage learnig how to survive as an organisation. A consistent vision, mission, identity and social role are preconditions for effective actions however in some CBOs where they claimed to be only resided in the minds and hearts of a few. Linking the aspirations and intentions to the right activities means understanding what is going on in the outside world and then fitting the organisation's work in the environment in a way, which maximises impact. In most CBOs, all the stakeholders were not aware about the mission, vision and identity of the organisation they represent and therefore could not position it to work out the best fit. FURA and Kitenga tried a process of strategic planning in an attempt to make long-term choices in terms of concrete goals and resource allocations but this process has been compromised by inconsistency in vision, mission and identity. Strategic planning has been neglected by most of the CBOs simply because donors have not been asking questions about effectiveness. With the current trends where strategic planning is now a common way of rationalising and prioritising resource allocations, there is no short cut. Although training was conducted on strategic planning, most respondents mentioned that the duration was too short to internalise the key concepts and skills to properly develop a strategic plan. However, an effective process of strategic planning can only be carried out if vision, mission, and identity are in place, consistent with each other, widely understood and internalised by staff. A strategic planning process can also help in creating and spreading consistency in an organisation. May be a CBO need first to consider her vision, mission and identity before providing service to her constituency as these will shape what services to offer and at what level. What the study identified as a common bottleneck in almost al the CBOs with defining values as a way of clarifying identity is that the task is not taken as seriously enough because it is not recognised as building the foundations for effectiveness. A lesson when defining values that underpin vision, mission and identity is therefore that: it must be seen and treated as an organisation- wide priority endeavour; and allocating time and other resources to dissemination must be built in. During the study, 60% of the respondents were not concrete sure of the values of their CBOs. Clarifying vision and mission, which are usually framed as broad aspirations, provide the necessary initial orientation for choosing paths and goals for action. None of the training interventions so far carried out has focused at building competencies of individual members of these organisations to effectively address these key dimensions.

Consistent with vision, mission, identity and social role are preconditions for effective actions, which can translate into a strategic plan. The process of strategic planning at organisational level starts with setting strategic parameters which include defined beliefs, values, identity, cause and change analysis principles and policies, development priorities, resource/growth estimates and preferred relationships. These parameters may be referred to as policies: principles and choices that are the governors and which should be adhered to throughout the organisation. One key policy may be about financial growth and mobilisation, other policies could deal with gender, relations with other organisations, mandate to

different levels of authority and decision making. Actioniad Uganda supported Literacy and Empowerment to develop policies. However during the study, it was established that the policies developed were not operational. The new Board in place mentioned that they do not clearly understand them since they were not consulted during the process of developing the policies as the staff developed them. This indicates that in the process of developing organisational policies and priorities the CBO leadership must be involved at all stages as leaders and managers have a pivotal role o play in creating the conditions necessary for staff to critically question existing ways of working and to re-evaluate the organisation's role. In this situation, the attitude, styles and competencies of those guiding strategic planning has a strong influence on the degree to which the planning process becomes a form of staff development. FURA and Kitenga developed strategic plans due to pressure from OXFAM the major donor of FURA and ACTIONAID the major donor of Kitenga and as such their priorities are reoriented to the priorities of the donors other than the priorities arising from their internal reflection as such minimising their effectiveness.

For all organisations, dividing task and responsibilities amongst staff and perhaps volunteers creates structure. It also covers the linking mechanisms between the roles, the co-ordinating structures of the organisation, if any are needed. For CBOs, a critical factor that determines their structure is the division of labour between them and the communities, groups or individuals who actually are the focus of all activities. This choice lies at the heart of what is called a CBO's 'development approach', which is a product of founding principles and theory of how sustainable change is best brought about. For example do communities manage and account for project funds and undertake any necessary purchasing, or does the CBO staff does this? Does the CBO raise funds for activities negotiated with communities or help the community to find resources for itself? Does the CBO facilitate social processes to mobilise material inputs and expertise from elsewhere, or provide all this itself? These and many similar developmental questions can be partially answered by the way a CBO structures itself. The guiding principle in CBO design is to start from the connection with primary stakeholders and build up from there. All functions and tasks above this interface must be justified by what is done to support this central role. All the CBOs had put in place structures but with a very loose connection with the primary stakeholders. The founders of the CBOs proposed the delivery structures without considering the tasks and functions to be performed at community level and external pressures that might impact on her operations. In effective CBO set-ups, field operations are almost semi-autonomous units; self-directed and self-regulating within boundaries set by organisational strategies, policies and norms together with result and performance criteria. All CBOs had a level for change agents but their roles and competencies were not properly defined thus compromising their effectiveness. FURA has adopted a team-oriented interaction approach with the communities in Kyambogho sub-county where one of her programmes focusing on livelihood restoration is being implemented. The team is multi-skilled and enjoys a substantial delegation of authority, including negotiation of contracts and agreements with the local government. As per now, FURA has been entrusted with a restocking programme for the entire sub-county by the district local government. In this respect, the change agents are being seen less as individuals but more as teams with a mix of competencies, which can be applied in flexible ways.

Complementing structure, CBOs have two major overlapping sets of systems: procedures, processes and recognised ways of working, which need to function properly. These are both external and internal orientation, the most significant being; decision-making; operational planning and budgeting; reflection, learning and quality improvement; human resource development; information and communication; and accountability. The design and operation of internal systems influences the externally oriented set and the two combines to tilt a CBO towards or against structured flexibility. Internally, a CBO needs to install participatory decision-making and then apply this outside with primary stakeholders. Decisions often relate to plans about activities and budgetary resources, therefore planning and budgeting system must support a participatory approach. Decision-making must be consultative enough for shared ownership of the outcomes and directive enough to be timely, while ensuring accountability. The reason for opting for a consultative process is that people more willingly modify their behaviour when they participate in problem analysis. During the study it was revealed that the founders are the sole decision-makers without consulting the primary stakeholders. In two of the CBOs, the Chairpersons were the sole decision-makers even without consulting the staff for technical guidance.

Decision making in FURA has been delegated to a management team but operates at one level, which is the senior management. The lower cadres of the organisation and change agents are left out. During the study, some limitations on the effectiveness of this team were observed. These were: the team had too many tasks to perform and as such urgent issues were not decided upon in time; there seemed to be insufficient distinction between policy and operational issue leading to overloaded agendas and discussions about items which should be dealt with elsewhere; some individuals of the team lacked skills in decision-making or accurately framing questions. In this respect, CBOs to adopt approaches to human-resource development and team building to help staff work through such limitations.

A budgeting and planning system serves three vital roles. One is to function as an important cycle holding the CBO together as different stakeholders come to plan and budget together. Second planning and budgeting provides an impetus and framework for negotiation with primary and other stakeholders. Third, it presents a regular opportunity to introduce changes from organisational learning. The planning and budgeting system lies at the heart of spreading internal authority and sharing power with outsiders and determines the degree of flexibility the CBO possesses. One common shortcoming identified during the study on the planning was that it is tailored to the negative aspects of project-type demands. In other words, plans are overspecified, trying to predetermine too much and are biased towards accounting as a proxy for accountability. This is understandable as it is the demand from donors but effective plans should also consider some elements of organisational development. One of the strong points identified was that, budgets in all the CBOs was built around the intended changes and controlled by staff. This approach is likely to lead to organisational goals if strengthened. However most respondents mentioned limited skills in operational planning and budgeting system. This is crucial as budgeting influences the way difficult balances are tilted by allocating power, by steering relationships between parts of the organisation, and by bringing into day to day work many of the hidden and tensions inherent to development.

It was evident in the study that all the CBOs had limited capacity to learn, adapt and continuously improve the quality of what they do. None of the CBOs had documented learnings and best practices for the last three years making it difficult to reflect and learn from experiences. In this respect therefore, CBOs urgently need to put in place systems which ensure that they know and learn from what they are achieving as opposed to what they are doing and then apply what they learn. This inability to learn is deeply rooted. It may arise from an ethos, which cannot relate to failure in a positive way; this means that error is not embraced as a source of learning but is denied. Other obstacles to learning were identified: first, critical reflection is insufficiently done because it is not prioritised simply because it is not adequately valued within a culture of commitment to action. Second, the lack of organisational capacity, strength and skill to see lessons learned from failure as an asset. CBOs are operating within a dynamic environment and one wonders why they do not make sufficient investments in learning capacity, systems and practices so as to integrate and build a systematic reflection into her culture and development ad part of the work itself. May be this is an area of further research. Critical reviews (a form of quality audit) on the work and achievements of a CBO would be crucial as a process through which staff are challenged to explain how their work and achievements furthers the CBO's objectives. This encounter may serve as a periodic opportunity for learning and adaptation. It also provides an ongoing check that the organisation is staying true to its founding principles, which acts as a form of identity re-examination and re-enforcement. To make reflection a valued, organisation-wide way of working will require adequate capacity, which has costs. However, as much as action-reflection-learning is a legitimate and necessary part of what CBOs must do if they are to exploit their comparative advantages and be relevant to their constituencies, they are limited by both financial and availability of direct professional resource. In the area studied, there were no professional service providers in this field. CBOs have to tap resource persons from Kampala, which is over 400kms making the whole exercise very expensive. It was mentioned that even these resource persons from the city do not actually understand the context within which CBOs operate at grassroots level thus impacting on their effectiveness. ***'Much of what they do is theoretical'. (K I at AICM***). In the final analysis, the effectiveness of systems and structure is determined by the most essential element of any organisation which is people.

The tasks of a CBO make it dependent on the attitudes and competencies of staff and volunteers. In addition to the availability of other resources four key areas enable staff and volunteers to work effectively. These are: organisational culture, the qualities of leadership, sensitivity to gender, and suitable approaches to human resource management, particularly getting incentives right and forming and empowering staff. The major challenge that face the CBOs studied is how to ensure that the capabilities of the organisation's individuals and groups are adequate and motivated towards its mission amidst the scarce resources.

CBOs can be seen as self-selected communities, which develop their own norms and social structures. In other words, culture can be viewed as a complex whole of solutions that a given community inherits, adopts or invents to face the challenges of its natural and social environment. Hofstede (1990) defined culture as 'the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another'. With this in mind and based on the society they grow up in, people enter a CBO with expectations of how it should function and also how it should be led and managed. In addition individuals bring psychological and material needs which leaders and managers have a role in satisfying. When the CBO does not measure up to people's expectations, it is more difficult for them to comply with what is required, and their effectiveness lessens. Appropriate leadership and management in CBOs calls, therefore, for an understanding of what sort of expectations and needs staff and volunteers bring with them. Cultural analysis is one way of understanding this. The survey didn't go into details of the cultural attributes but the major cultural dimensions observed and cutting across all the CBOs surveyed, were; emphasis on individual rights and responsibility while executing planned

tasks later adding up to collective responsibility in respect to the outputs as a group. It is important to ensure that CBO culture reflects development values and approach. However, achieving this goal requires: that beliefs and values are understood and actively shared; that structures and systems reflect principles derived from CBO values; that treatment of personnel is similar to primary stakeholders, so that staff experience what the CBO preaches in terms of its desired relationship with those it serves. As an organisational task, organisational values should be set against those of society at large which will help focus on the dimensions that need to be re-enforced and identify areas of potential difficulty with staff expectations and needs.

Of all the factors, which make up an organisation, leadership and management are considered to be the most important for effectiveness and viability. In CBOs, this point of view could probably be widened to all staff since every individual brings their own character to the job in hand. The challenge to the leaders and managers is to tap the best out of the staff who have a diversity of characters. Throughout the survey, it was observed that leadership and management of the CBOs were highly personalised. The Chairpersons who at the same time happened to be founders seemed to be taking an upper hand in influencing what is done. This is likely to be a natural outcome of voluntary commitment and co-ownership whereby each person counts as a person not simply as a functionary occupying a chair which is likely to impact on her effectiveness. CBOs are faced with high competition and the environment within which they are working is changing rapidly putting on new demands. This calls for a visionary leader who is able to build a culture of association within the organisation which encourages sharing, and promotes reflection for learning, bring coherence between members' interests and organisational objectives and to enable follower to become leaders themselves. This will require putting time, energy and financial resources into CBO leadership development as a matter of urgency.

The membership registers of the CBOs, which were accessed during the survey, indicated an average ratio of 7:3 females to males but it is only in two CBOs where females were in leadership positions. This expresses the degree at which to which male and female principles are reflected and valued in organisational culture. Gender awareness within a CBO affects her sensitivity to work relationships, and there is a link between the ways in which gender expresses itself and how CBO ultimately perform in development. There is need for the CBOs to develop strategies for creating a gender-balanced CBO culture. Gender dimensions of development have been around a long time, originally framed as WID: women in development. However, the growth of gender awareness is out of step with its translation into practice, which lags along way behind. CBOs need to focus on organisational obstacles to gender sensitive development to enhance their effectiveness. Why should gender be at the forefront of CBO concerns? First, social justice as a moral imperative calls for direct attention to who wins and loses in society. While varying by degree, place and time, women systematically lose out to men in terms of access to society's resources and power over decisions. Further, as producers, women are usually responsible for providing the subsistence foodstuffs and informal 'off-farm' incomes which determine family survival. Consequently, their efforts, abilities and incentives are vital factors in determining the profile and scale of poverty. An additional developmental reason is that investments in women have a greater tendency to translate into increased household well being than into consumption. Socially, women are central in maintaining cohesion, stability and local organisational capacity. All these are important conditions for ensuring the sustainability of benefits, which result from development interventions. In short, for CBOs to be blind to the position and concerns of women is to choose ineffectiveness.

Human resource management is an important function of CBOs, seeing people as a key resource. As much as the requirements for human resource management flow out of a CBOs overall mission, the survey indicated that, in almost all the CBOs visited, there was no relationship between their missions and the human resource needs. Human resource development plans were lacking and human resource management systems were inadequate. This had a bearing on the results of training activities carried out since human resource needs were not defined I terms of competencies; that is, the skills, knowledge, attitudes and values necessary to carry out various tasks of translating vision into action. CBOs lacked profiles of job competencies for the staff and regular appraisal systems and tools. Apart from FURA all other CBOs had no written job descriptions for the workers. Motivation and incentives revolved around salaries and allowances. Leaders/managers hardly maintains their relationships with staff members through consultation, dialogue, listening and joint reflection which are likely to be crucial element of motivation. There is need to strike a balance between tangible and intangible incentives to keep the motivation of workers high in CBOs. Most CBOs studied use Change Agents as catalyst for peoples' development action but this often requires comparative experience with adequate technical skills and knowledge. Key personality traits like patience, a habit of listening rather than talking, interpersonal sensitivity, teamwork, self-confidence, empathy, commitment, respectfulness, diplomacy and perseverance are very essential.

Therefore a crucial task of human resource development is to form change agents. Training might not be effective in this regard as change agents become effective by learning through experience that is, reflecting on what they have been through rather than classroom instruction. The study established that most of the training interventions carried out have been on courses which do not engage participants in real life situations. This builds on Kolb's circle of learning, however, the success of this methodology depends on interpersonal skills. The methodology moves clients through four stages:

- Task awareness (concern for getting things done) that is having an experience
- Structured awareness (developing clear objectives and plans) that is reviewing the experience
- Role awareness (understanding the mix of roles in group activity) that is concluding from the experience
- Behavioural and emotional awareness (giving and receiving feedback on behaviour) that is planning the next steps

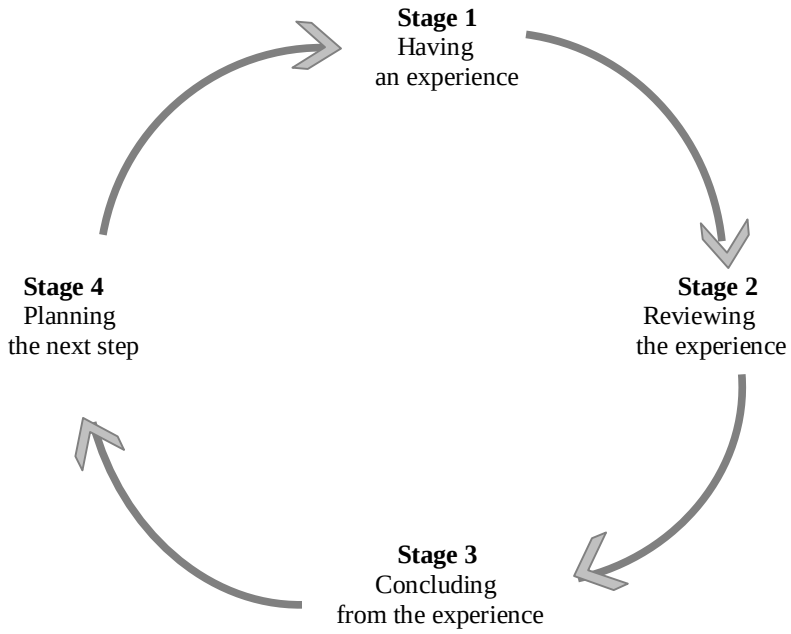


Figure 16. Kolb's circle of learning

This is more of experiential learning. People developing behaviour from their experiences. The methodology if applied properly may enable the client to start asking such questions like why do we do things the way we do them? It encourages reflection and planning ahead through behavioural modeling and change.

Human resource development (HRD) is a label covering a wide range of activities which should lead to better capabilities and hence effectiveness of staff and their organisations. There are various distinctive types of HRD available to CBOs. They can all be considered as forms of training understood as a time-bound process which results in individuals acquiring the appropriate values, attitudes, skills and knowledge required to improve their performance in relation to the organisation's mission. Some of these are:

- Internally designed courses; training events designed specifically for the CBO and therefore tailored to its needs. They are cost effective when a large number of people need to learn the same things. The challenge here is that most CBOs studied had staff members ranging between 5 to 20 and had different training needs
- Pre-packaged courses; prepackaged events whose content is sufficiently similar to the needs of the individual, though per capita costs remain high. This facility was not available for the CBOs studied and most of them indicated that they could not afford it
- Workshops; 'output oriented' gathering, which are useful for solving particular problem especially where joint ownership is needed
- Seminars/conferences; provide an exposure to issues or people, network information, create relationships, and facilitate individual broadening or insights

- On-the job training; a method of practically exchanging expertise between one person to another. It is suitable where it is difficult to release staff, the tasks involved are technical or routine, or where detailed observation is needed to ensure that competence has been gained
- Exchanges; tend to be short term visits to gain an understanding of other ways of doing things, to see innovations, to gain new ideas and horizons and to introduce or induct new staff
- Secondment; normally involves someone taking on a known role in a different setting, with training in mind. Secondments can help people to do things in new ways as they adapt to other circumstances
- Self-study /correspondence courses; systematic ways of gathering knowledge for an individual, sometimes accompanied by group work with others doing the same study

The CBOs studied have used workshops but the challenge was that they seemed not to be output oriented as the expected outputs, indicators of measuring achievements and performance standards were not set before carrying out workshops. Seminars carried out were indicated to have widened the insight of the participants. One other challenge that cut across all the CBOs studied was the absence of a manpower development plan thus hindering the selection of appropriate HRD type that would be suitable to the staff.

The world of CBOs is dominated by choosing relations with others; making them work well and combining their effects towards their own vision and mission. Located in development chain, CBOs are challenged to manage relationships in two directions: with primary stakeholders and with funders; and in many secondary directions, for example with other CBOs, local governments and the general public. However CBOs must be skilled in balancing a variety of unsteady and often unpredictable relational pushes and pulls. The study revealed that most CBOs rely on external linkages for resources, a high risk to sustainability. Focus group discussions with the leadership of CBOs indicated that the process of forming external linkages with funders who mostly happen to be International Non-Government Organisations (INGOs) is not critically observed. At stage one in linkage formation, it is argued that correct entry within an ongoing complex social situation is the key to effectiveness. Various preconditions must b satisfied to ensure that entry goes well and both parties to agree on measures of performance. In most CBOs, measures of performance were not clear. As much as there was a mention of participatory planning with the donors, the overall decision making on resource allocation and funding was done by the INGOs. The budgets are wholly funded by the INGOs compromising effective partnership.

CBOs must be able to take on board and prioritise performance criteria, which are meaningful for the local people and their experiences. Negotiating local measures of success determines to a substantial degree whether interventions being carried out are going to be fully effective or not. Mutually agreed performance criteria are also a prerequisite for effective management; among others, they are needed for delegating authority and for learning. All the CBOs visited during the study lacked performance criteria and staff had no job competencies all of which are likely to impact on their effectiveness especially on the action process which is guided by the processes, objectives and performance measures agreed with all the stakeholders. An incremental process of shared learning from experience produced through the successive cycle can best reach the micro-development objectives in a CBO.

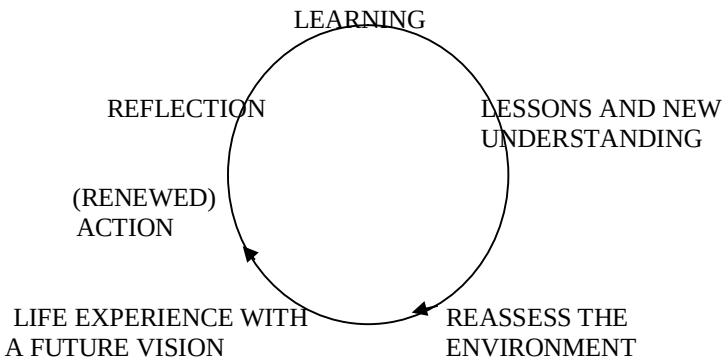


Figure.17 The cycle of micro-development action

Here, the sequential cycles of action-reflection can be viewed as a positive spiral running along the intervention curve. Each cycle is a step, which shifts the organisation's situation with additional learning, increased organisational capacity

and greater intrinsic power to deal with the wider environment. At each step, time is allocated to look at what happened, learn lessons from it, reassess the external environment in relation to the strategy and then define and execute the next step. The study revealed that, within the CBOs studied, the cycle of micro-development action is not yet internalised and practiced. This has limited the documentation of lessons and best practices. Most CBOs had been in operation for over five years but with no properly documented lessons. Reassessment of the environment is not critically done to facilitate the process of integrating CBO activities with other processes in the community.

During the study, it was clear that CBOs visited maintain diverse interactions with other civil society organisations. A medley of names was used to describe different types of relationships between CBOs and the mechanisms used to bring them about. Focus group discussions and probing raised such names as; partnerships, networks, alliances, coalitions, consortia and coordination. The variety suggests that relationships are a necessary and significant feature of CBO life. The most commonly mentioned type of relationship was partnership focusing on mutual enabling, interdependent interaction with shared intentions. Some of the benefits mentioned from this type of relationship were information sharing, additional resources, recognition and collective legitimacy. Another benefit mentioned was social capital development that enables civil society to better deal with state and markets at their levels of operation. Social capital is built up when people solve shared problems and satisfy economic, spiritual, recreational and other needs to levels, which change over time. It is eroded when social trust and a sense of fairness are undermined by for example, cutthroat economic competition, worker exploitation etc. For those who can afford it, loss of trust is made good by insurance, legal contracts and sheltering in enclaves protected by armed guards. For those that cannot afford it, life becomes more insecure, weakening a commitment to legal non-violent norms of behaviour. The glue holding these extremes together is shared capital in society together with civic strength – understood as citizen's ability to engage as first among equals with the state and market institutions which are there to serve them. As social capital and civic strength are depleted, society falls apart in riots, in unregulated pollution and environmental exploitation, in unchecked sale of inferior goods/products, in state abuse of citizen's rights in the name of public security and so no. In CBOs perspective, building and countering the erosion of social capital must be a larger part of a future agenda.

Alan Fowler (2000) argues that there are twelve key organisational features between civic organisations that influence that influence the probability of attaining authentic partnership. These are summarised in the table below:

Rank	Organisational Feature	Explanation
1	Constituency	Owners and supporters are more likely to understand and endorse relationships formed with others having similar socio-economic characteristics.
2	Beliefs, values and culture	Beliefs, values and culture determine organisational behaviour; the more these are shared the better the grounds for mutual respect and confidence.
3	Theory	Shared understanding of cause of problems and of the way societies can be changed lead to consistent, mutually supported choices on issues of public policy.
4	Strategic choices and time scales	Shared strategies imply compatible views of the operating environment, with common goals and understandings about how long intentional change will take to occur.
5	Complementary strength	Shared appreciation of what each has to bring to the relationship, in terms of competencies and comparative advantages, should work against disagreements on roles and divisions of labour – in addition to creating consistency between the rights and expectations of both parties, which reduces competition or duplication.
6	Development policies	Significant differences in understandings of best practice, usually translate as development or technical policies, can be the source of significant friction, especially amongst specialists which leads to time consuming arguments and mistrust
7	Approach to gender	Compatibility in the way gender is approached internally and in external activities reduces the likelihood of insensitivity.
8	Distribution of	Negotiation proceeds most speedily if those involved carry similar

	authority	authority; referrals and consultations lead to delays and added costs
9	Human-resource policies	Disparity between staff motivation, incentives and treatment can give rise to frustration, jealousy or envy, leading to negative attitudes which interfere with communication and sound understanding.
10	Adaptability	The ability to adjust to changing circumstances is important for development effectiveness; mismatches in this area create out-of-stepness, leading to a sense of agreements being taken for granted or ignored.
11	Fund-raising	Similarity in the way funds are viewed and mobilised leads to shared perspectives on accountability; this reduces friction and misunderstanding in a sensitive area.
12	Standards for legitimacy and accountability	A shared concern for, and combined ability to demonstrate, legitimacy should lead to higher donor confidence, giving improved continuity in funding and contributing significantly to joint effectiveness and accountability

Table – Organisational features influencing authentic partnership

While looking at project outcomes especially the achievement of objectives and sustainability, key issues that the study identified were:

- Most leaders and managers of the CBOs studied lacked solid grounds to judge consistency between activities, goals and mission, and how far all relevant stakeholders have been satisfied – in other words assess the adequacy of organisational capacity
- Cost benefit appraisal sessions are not regularly carried out and therefore economic effectiveness cannot be assessed
- Personnel is only judged on the basis of effort, not merit, in terms of their contribution to achieving development goals
- Authority is not delegated with confidence, as there is no external standard against which staff efforts and quality of decisions are judged
- Future sustainability of most of the organisations visited cannot be predicted as they entirely depend on external good will and support
- Lack of demonstrated achievements and documented best practices has weakened the grounds of CBOs to actively participate in state-centred policies and practices like joint planning with the Local Government structures

The study established that there are three reasons why civil society organisations find it so hard to recognise their achievements: problem with assumptions, methodological difficulties and organisational demands. Inconsistencies arise between the assumptions shaping the development systems and the way change occurs in real life and as a result performance assessment has been placed in the context of the development chain in addition to being conscious about external factors. The CBOs studied are carrying out project based interventions relying on the assumption that a straight line of causes and effects can be defined and put in place. These relationships guide resources through the organisation and are allocated in the right way. If this line of the project is carried, then one can predict future outcomes. However such a system would work if organisations could shield the flow of resources and organisational behaviour from negative internal and external influences – which they never can. Logical frameworks deal with such potentially disruptive factors by relegating them to the assumption column. If everything went according to plan, reaching the desired impact would be assured in a controlled process where measurement and accountability for performance would be straightforward. All the CBOs studied didn't have logical frameworks. Focus group discussions with the leaders and managers revealed that although their donors were asking for log frames, they had limited knowledge about it. The lack of log frames for their interventions limits the linkage between activities, outputs, purpose and goal in addition assumptions thus impacting on outcomes.

One of the most important factors in the work of CBOs is to alter human behaviour, which in turn depends on many external historical and local factors, such as power relations, motivational and cultural values. This calls for a participatory critical analysis of the problem with the stakeholders and defining the expected results. The model below of assessing performance along the line can be applied to measure the impact of a CBO intervention.

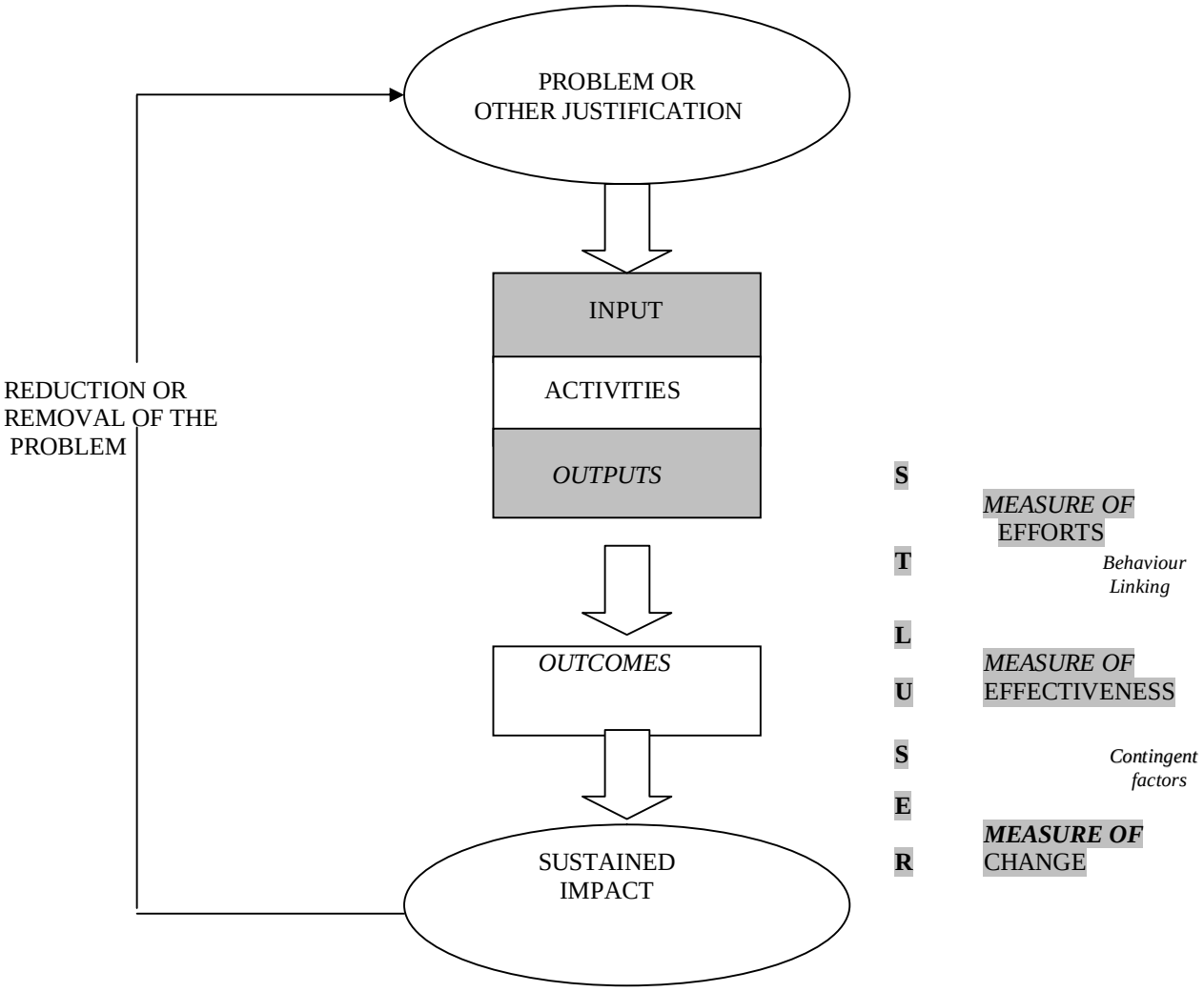


Figure. 18 A framework for assessng performance in CBOs

However, during the study it was established that although most organisations had adopted a participatory problem analysis approach, decision making solely lied in the hands of the donor thus compromising their effectiveness. Because the problem dealt with was not properly defined and quantified, most leaders, managers and beneficiaries talked to were not clear about the outputs and outcomes of their work and the linkage to behaviour change. FURA had tried to set her performance indicators with some technical support from Oxfam GB in Uganda but when tested during the focus group discussion with leaders and managers, they realised that they were not QQT compliant (Quality, Quantity and Time bound).

It was established that, to assess their work and role, CBOs visited employ three instruments: monitoring, review and evaluation. Monitoring is seen as an ongoing process of surveillance on the implementation and outcomes of development initiatives and related organisational functions. Monitoring informs operational decision-making. Information gained through monitoring is usually is usually judged against what has been planned or agreed. A principal focus is on internal on internal management factors, such as the costs and timing of inputs and outputs, level of effort and supervision of staff performance. Monitoring assesses indicators at activities to outputs level as shown below:

	Summary	Indicators	Evidence	Assumptions
Goal				
Purpose				
Outputs				
Activities				

Most organisations studied had not developed monitoring tools and an elaborate monitoring system. Evaluation, which is commonly referred to as an independent assessment of the outcomes, impact, and relevance of a development initiative and its associated organisational functions inform decision-making at the strategic level. Information gained through evaluations attribute change to CBO efforts, identify intended effects and provide learning for improvement. Evaluation is also called purpose to goal review as shown on the log frame below:

	Summary	Indicators	Evidence	Assumptions
Goal				
Purpose				
Outputs				
Activities				

Apart from participating in evaluations organised by their donors, none of the CBO had organised an intensive evaluation of her activities on their own. Leaders and managers mentioned lack of skills to carry out an independent evaluation. Review is a periodic independent appraisal of an organisation's role and capacity. Reviews primarily inform learning and decision-making at the organisational level. The principal focus is translating vision into position, public recognition, social legitimacy and future viability in civil society. However it was identified that review has not properly internalised thus limiting its application. Monitoring, evaluation and review contribute to present and future effectiveness and impact of a particular CBO. However it was noted that most monitoring and evaluation activities carried out do not consider organisational factors especially the organisational conditions or characteristics which might have contributed to the results. Another key issue noted was that the intended outcomes were not identified in advance making it difficult for

monitoring and evaluation to answer the key questions: what has changed; what caused the change; and is the change what was originally intended?

All Organisations studied mentioned that they carried out various training activities with the main objective of improving capacity of their organisations. Like other development concepts, there is little agreement on the characteristics of organisational capacity or how to increase it. Unfortunately CBOs are not guided in capacity building initiatives by a well thought through and conceptually coherent story of what it is all about. By default, and for want of coherent theory, the common mode of thinking is in terms of supplying packages of knowledge and skills. But without a theory, discussions and initiatives go round in circles, means are confused with ends, processes are undervalued because their merits cannot be understood or assessed, and different levels of action get all mixed up. Under the label of capacity building, a lot of resources have been spent and wasted. Increasing capacity for better development impact can be directed at specific organisations and at institutional relations operating at different level in society by initiating changes that serve or better influence sets of stakeholders. Organisational capacity emerges when staff and volunteers with the necessary competencies interact together. In short, it is a product of group dynamics properly tailored and focused on mission derived tasks. More often than not, realising a CBO's mission means strengthening the capacity of others. It can also mean changing the way organisations relate to each other in civil society and towards government and the market. From this perspective therefore, it is more appropriate to see change in organisational capacity as a process of inducing growth in human and organisational relationships, rather than a mechanical process of building with known blocks.

It was noted that insufficient distinction is made between capacity building as a means, ends or process and whether it is intended to improve things within the organisation itself, within society at large, or both. Reference was made to Figure 4:

	Means	**Process**	**Ends**
Capacity growth of a CBO: organisational Development (OD)	Strengthens the CBO ability to perform specific functions	Brings coherence at all levels of internal action with possibility of continual learning and necessary adaptation	Improves CBO viability, sustainability and direct impact consistent with the chosen mission
Capacity growth of a CBO community or a subsector of it (sectoral development)	Strengthens the ability of the sector to improve overall civic impact	Brings mutually supporting relations and understanding amongst subsectors	Achieving confident and powerful interaction with other sectors and social actors based on shared strategies and learning
Capacity growth of civil society: institutional development (ID)	Improves the ability of primary stakeholders to identify and carry out activities to solve problems	Enables and stimulates stronger civic interactions and communication, conflict mediation and resolution in society, thereby enhancing social capital	Increased ability of primary stakeholders to engage with and influence the political arena and social-economic system in accordance with their interests

The three rows above represent internal and external elements of capacity building. Confusion arises from the fact that internal capacity growth is often initiated in order to improve CBO performance in institutional, that is external (civic), capacity building. Put another way, CBO organisational development is used as a means to achieve sectoral development or institutional development. These types of capacity growth are not mutually exclusive. In fact, to be effective the opposite should occur. A competent CBO must be able to address any number at once. For example, a CBO can contribute to the capacity building of informal sector entrepreneurs; facilitate links and relationships between them to form associations which in their turn, strengthen civil society; and contribute to social capital and affect governance by influencing public policy. Here the CBO works on institutional means processes and ends indirectly. Alternatively, a CBO working providing development services such as credit or health care, learns how to tie its work to parallel initiatives coming from the official aid system which increases it impact while collaborating in national networks to lobby and change public policy on informal sector. Here CBO impact is more direct. Therefore for a training function to improve the effectiveness of a CBO, the practitioners must be conscious of the three elements i.e. Organisational development (OD), Sectoral Development (SD) and Institutional Development (ID)

There are three important points to bear in mind when looking at the types of capacity growth. First when moving from top left to bottom right, the scope of required organisational capacities widens and deepens. Second, the degree of control a CBO has on external change lessens. Third, changing social institutions may mean altering CBO's prevailing norms, values or attitudes. For example, the institutionalised low status of women is not located in one place or organisation; it permeates all aspects of life. Yet for a CBO, institutional change is mainly achieved by changing the roles, policies and relationships of other organisations. The challenge facing the CBOs studied is to alter dynamic processes and roles between formal institutions of state, market and civic society and the informal forces, which often determines how things really work.

7.0 CONCLUSIONS

The effectiveness of CBOs that builds on capacity development is best treated as a form of action learning by staff, volunteers, leaders and governors. Put in another way, it should be seen as a type of learning which takes place by going through changes and then reflecting on what has happened. While the capabilities of individuals can be built through skill oriented, prepackaged training courses, the organisation's overall capacity cannot be improved effectively in this way. To be of real use, training must be located in the CBO's development strategy that is, the organisation needs to gain mastery of itself in order to take responsibility for and adequately utilise the individuals it sends for training. The capacity development process should become a way of life. Instead of a limited, specialised, dedicated set of activities it becomes part and parcel of the CBOs' normal functioning therefore the process of applying continuos learning s its product. Organisational growth that leads to effectiveness is essentially a process of group-oriented research and reflection. While scale and complexity differ considerably, this basic idea holds true for capacity growth across the spectrum of community-based organisations. Typically, this means bringing facilitators, similar to change agents into the organisation, instead of taking individuals out for training. This because if there is no third-party involvement, the chances are that self-reflection will be limited, questions that challenge comfortable assumptions are not asked and existing power relations and hierarchy are respected even if they are dysfunctional, lack of input about comparative experience engenders complacency with insufficient awareness of how things could be done differently and better.

Piers Campbell, 1989 described some preconditions for effective growth and development of an organisation indicating links with scope of change to time and difficulty. Campbell further argues that in order to select the right methods, judge the resources needed, and identify likely difficulties, any approach to growth and development must be gauged in terms of the depth of change required. The depth and breadth of change described by Campbell are shown in the figure below:

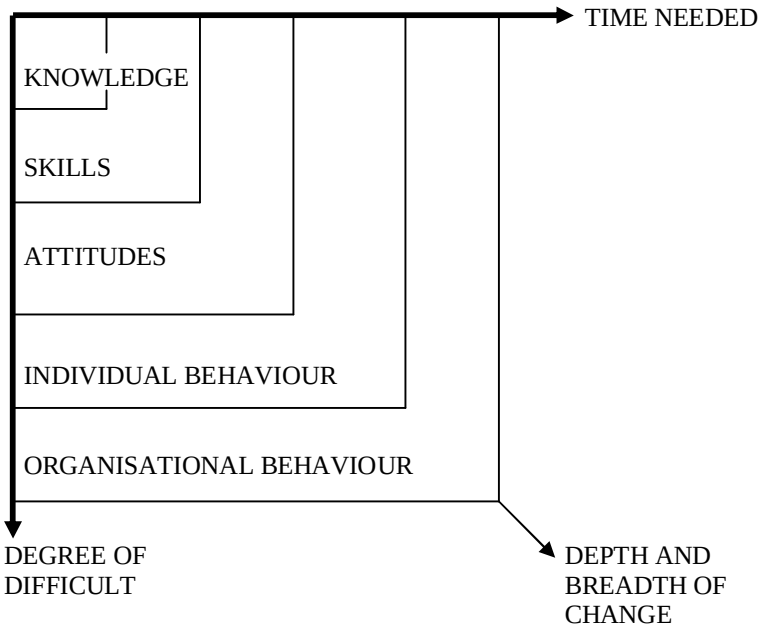


Figure 19. Depth of organisational change

Any intervention focused on organisational growth to build on the existing knowledge and facilitate the development of skills, attitudes and individual behaviour all of that will translate into improved organisational behaviour to contribute to its effectiveness.

Since the training function as an approach to CBO growth and development that was carried out by the CBOs studied did not gauge the depth of change required neither was the performance standards and competencies required set, it was difficult for the study to measure the depth and breadth of change in place as a consequence of training activities carried out. As much as some elements of knowledge and skills were mentioned and could be seen by the eye of an outsider, elements of attitudes, individual behaviour and overall organisational behaviour were silent. Organisational assessment sessions as a diagnostic tool to identify what growth and development process is needed to increase the effectiveness of CBOs is not carried out thus limiting refocusing the training function to the mission and strategic goals as a reference point. As a result most of the training activities carried out had no reference point impacting on her effectiveness as outside forces are not considered which would have been identified during the assessment.

To contribute to the growth and development of CBOs through a training function, the need to combine task analysis and the concept of competence approaches be considered during training needs assessment. This will enable the practitioner to consider the occupation, individual and the organisation in totality. In addition to focusing on the training as a gap to be filled, a competence approach based approach gives credit for what has been achieved as well as providing standards to be reached in future. The idea of standards is crucial and should be in-built in all training intervention geared to improving the performance of CBOs. This is because can act as benchmarks and descriptions of the expectations of employment against which the actual performance of individuals will be compared and assessed as competent, or not competent as appropriate. The challenge is whether the CBOs will have the skills to carry out this assessment as most of them lacked trainers to act as change agents. In fact none of the CBOs studied had a position of a Training Officer in their establishments. Once the competence approach is adopted in the CBO training interventions, four main skills will be developed. These are:

- Task skills; the routine and largely technical components that make up any job
- Contingency management skills; the ability to recognise and deal with irregularities and variances in the immediate working environment. For example dealing with the stakeholders complaints, dealing with a breakdown in machinery
- Task management skills; the skills to manage a group of tasks and prioritise between them. For example, serving a customer before loading a shelf, making sure there is enough paper before photocopying documents, allocating time to different tasks
- Job role environment skills; the skills to work with others and cope with specific environmental factors

The idea is that as the standards for the training are being developed these four skills are built into the elements, performance criteria and range of statements as appropriate. This will enable the trainees to take on new challenges and tasks, eliminate everything that stops them from doing a good, effective job, and enable all employees to understand what they are doing and how their own tasks fit into the context of the CBO as a whole. This requires the trainee to appreciate that learning is not just acquiring new skills and capabilities but also leads to greater awareness and increased sensitivity, and to changed attitudes and beliefs. However, the creation of such learning requires a focus on a vision or a set of guiding principles to make clear what the organisation stand for and what its staff and members try to create. The principles should be deeply rooted in human understanding that the members are willing to commit themselves to them fully.

All the CBOs studied, lacked a written training policy and a training plan and therefore most of the training activities carried out were not linked and tailored to the organisational needs and the context within which it is operating. Most training interventions that were mentioned to have been carried out were initiated from out especially by partners focusing on what they would like to see the workers of CBOs doing to satisfy their demands. As much as these interventions were useful, they limited the ability of training from building on the accumulated experience of the learners. In other words experiential learning is not promoted thus impacting on the effectiveness of training activities carried out. Most training activities seemed to have been targeted on projects and activities carried out by the particular CBO. Other key dimensions like internal organisation factors were not integrated in training. It was therefore not surprising that only 20% of the key informants interacted with could clearly explain the mission and vision of their CBOs. Further probing revealed that a big number of these were founders or leaders of these organisations. To increase the effectiveness of CBOs, the training function should aim at developing skills, capacities and the behaviour among the key actors to internalise, vision, mission, identity and values of a particular CBO so that whatever is done is in line with these dimensions.

The study revealed that, the CBOs visited are at different levels of institutionalising the training function ranging from 52% for Kitenga and Kasambya to 46 for BUDMI, Self Care, AICM and Bugarama Women Foundation. The study had set 66% as the average and since all the scores from CBOs were below shows that the training function is at risk and is divorced from organisational realties. For those who had attended training mentioned that they receive invitations from partners to go for a training without reflecting on whether the training will be of direct benefit in improving their ability to do a particular job or part of it. They also mentioned that most of the training is focused to increasing individuals' knowledge and skills, trainers have not followed up trainees to actually see that people are using in their jobs what they learned and evaluation of the training interventions carried out to assess their impact has not been carried out. Since most of the training activities so far carried out were not aimed at improving organisational results and effectiveness it was difficult for the study to measure the extent to which training has contributed to the growth and development of Community Based Organisations studied. However, members who had participated in some training programmes mentioned increased performance in their particular jobs. As there was no pre-assessment of knowledge, attitudes and skills before the training was carried out, the study could not establish the gain ratio of the participants from the training attended. The absence of performance appraisal systems made it difficult for the study to assess individual changes has taken place and, if so, whether increased effectiveness is the result.

All in all, as much as there has been a series of training programmes in which the CBOS studied have taken part, there was a lot of short comings in the training process to contribute to changes in their internal organisation, increased performance of the projects and activities being carried out in addition to enhanced external linkages. All the Organisations studied seemed not to be meeting their goals and targets as they solely depend on their donors and once they delay in releasing funds, they cannot implement their work plans on time. This has had an effect on the extent to which they meet the expectations of the groups that work with these CBOs. Low level of resources has contributed to low level of outputs and flexibility within the changing environment thus reducing their competitive advantage. As a result there is a lot of internal strain, a lot of intergroup conflict and limited flow of information and poor morale was cross cutting through all the organisations visited. Most leaders/managers confessed that, their sustainability was blick as soon as the donors pull out. May be for the training to be effective, there is need for the practitioners to adopt a result oriented approach and set measurable indicators against which to assess changes in: knowledge, levels of skills, attitudes and behaviour, levels of effectiveness and, organisational effectiveness. In this respect, the design, delivery and evaluation of training programme to focus on the individual and his/her workplace needs with performance as a central factor.

8.0 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

The study revealed to me that, effective capacity building intervention should focus on strengthening the social capital of Community Based Organisations to enable them better deal with the dynamics of the environment within which they operate. The training function within CBOs to focus on strengthening networks of relationships and affinities CBOs rely on for effective service delivery. Strong social capital arising from richer and thicker civic relationships between people and their associations enhances society's ability to democratically regulate their affairs and increase prosperity as acceptable ways of negotiating differences emerge and form a part of cultural heritage. The built social capital will enable people within their organisations solve shared problems and satisfy economic, spiritual, recreational and other needs to levels which change overtime. Training per se will not lead to tangible results unless practitioners focus its activities to building the social capital of CBOs. Training interventions that originate from the outside of the CBO might not contribute effectively towards the four major dimensions of organisational effectiveness, which are; goal directed, resource acquiring, satisfying constituencies and internal processes.

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List of appendices

Appendix 1

QUESTIONNAIRE NO. 1

Q1. How are the trainees selected for the training programmes that are carried out in the Organisation?

a. We do not know
b. They or their supervisors, feel that the programme would be good for them
c. The training will be of direct benefit in improving their ability to do a particular job or part of it

Q2. How are the trainees briefed before the training programme?

a. They receive instructions sent out to them before they attend the course
b. We talk to them about their objectives at the beginning of the programme
c. They discuss with their line manager and a trainer exactly what learning will be available on the training programme and how it is to be applied in the job

Q3. Most of the training programmes in this organisation are aimed at:

a. A group of people (like all junior managers doing a set topic like 'Principles of Management')
b. Individuals to increase personal knowledge and skills or change attitudes
c. Improving organisational results and effectiveness

Q4. Pre-training programme evaluation or cost benefit comparisons of various methods of achieving changes are:

a. Virtually never done
b. Occasionally done for particularly important training programmes
c. Frequently done, almost as a matter of course

Q5. How do the trainers get feedback on their performance?

a. They feel good when they have performed well
b. There are happiness sheets and discussions at the end of the course
c. They actually see that people are using in their jobs what they learned in the course

Q6. When a trainee returns to the workplace his or he supervisor:

a. Welcomes him or her back and gives extra work to make up for the time away
b. Asks if he or she had a good time and whether the course was well run
c. Requires a debrief on what has been learned and becomes actively involved in making opportunities to use the learning

Q7. Results of the training programmes are communicated:

a. Only if required
b. To the head of Personnel and sometimes to heads of other departments
c. On a routine basis to selected audiences

Q8. Training expenditure has to be justified by:

a. The training department
b. Heads of various other departments
c. Line managers

Q9. Line management involvement in the delivery of training is:

a. Nil
b. A few heads of department introducing courses and a few specialists having some input
c. Common, more than half of the training programmes having some input from line managers

Q10. What post training support do you get from the trainers?

a. Nil
b. Refresher sessions
c. Regular visits to my workplace for on the job advice

Q11. How often do you refer to the training materials provided during the training?

a. Not quite
b. Rarely
c. Very often as I execute my work

Q12. At present the training programme's impact on organisational effectiveness:

a. Cannot be assessed
b. Could be assessed but at great cost
c. Is estimated on a regular basis

Appendix 11

Mission and values

QUESTIONNAIRE Mission and values

Name of organisation ……..Date……...

- Please indicate your answers by drawing a circle around the number that best describes your view.
- The more truly and honestly you answer each question, the useful this assessment will be to the organisation.

		rarely	Occasionally	Often	always
1	**STAFF BEHAVIOUR** Staff make personal sacrifices in response it the needs of other staff and project beneficiaries	1	2	3	4
2	**ORGANISATIONAL DOCUMENTS** The organisation's policies and strategies are consistent with the organisation's mission and values.	1	2	3	4
3	**ORGANISATIONAL PLANS** The organisation's plans are consistent with its strategies	1	2	3	4
4	**STAFF AWARENESS** Staff can explain the organisation's mission and values and how these relate to their work	1	2	3	4
5	**OGANISATIONAL ACTIVITIES** The organisation's activities are consistent with its policies, strategies and plans	1	2	3	4
6	**PROJECT BENEFICIARIES** Project beneficiaries are identified on the basis of their marginalisation, economic poverty and powerlessness	1	2	3	4
7	**EVALUATION** The organisation's leadership and staff evaluate the performance of the organisation according to its policies and strategies	1	2	3	4
8	**TERMS ANS CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT** Staff believe terms and conditions of employment, such as salary levels, annual leave and maternity benefits, are fair	1	2	3	4
9	**RESPECT FOR OTHERS** Those with whom the organisation works are always treated as people made in God's image, regardless of their religious beliefs	1	2	3	4
10	**CHRISTIAN VALUES** The values of the organisation are based on biblical understanding of Christianity	1	2	3	4
11	**ORGANISATIONAL DOCUMENTS** Compassion is expressed as a core value in the organisation's important documents, for example, the organisation's Constitution and Mission	1	2	3	4

	Statements				
12	**DECISION-MAKING** When making decisions, staffs consider the needs of marginalised, the economically poor and the powerless.	1	2	3	4
13	**LEADERSHIP** The organisation's leadership refers to, and reminds staff of, the organisation's mission, values, policies	1	2	3	4
14	**TIME FOR PRAYER** The organisation sets aside regular for prayer	1	2	3	4
15	**PROJECTS** Projects are planned and implemented to meet the needs of the marginalised, the economically poor and the powerless	1	2	3	4
16	**TREATMENT OF OTHERS** Staff demonstrate a positive and welcoming attitude towards stakeholders	1	2	3	4
17	**TREATMENT OF MARGINALISED GROUPS** Staff treat marginalised groups fairly, and encourage others to treat these groups fairly	1	2	3	4
18	**VALUE OF PRAYER** Staff value prayer – for one another, project beneficiaries, and the work of the organisation	1	2	3	4
19	**ORGANISATIONAL VALUES** The organisational values support the achievement of the organisation's mission	1	2	3	4
20	**NON-DISCRIMINATION POLICY** The organisation has a written non-discrimination policy that reflects a commitment to equality for staff and project beneficiaries regardless of gender, age ethnicity, religion and disability	1	2	3	4
21	**THEOLOGICAL RELECTION** The organisation incorporates theological reflection into its understanding of poverty, its work and its relationships	1	2	3	4
22	**LEADERSHIP** The leadership ensures that non-discrimination is integrated into all aspects of the organisation's work in line with the organisation's non-discrimination policy	1	2	3	4
23	**SENSE OF MISSION** Staff believe that what they are doing is important and worthwhile	1	2	3	4
24	**STAFF AWARENESS** Staff can explain the organisation's strategies and how these relate to their work	1	2	3	4
25	**RECRUITMENT** Staff are recruited and paid on the basis of their work skills and experience, and not their gender, age, ethnicity, or religion	1	2	3	4
26	**STRATEGY RELEVANCE** The organisation's strategies address the causes of marginalisation, economic poverty and powerlessness	1	2	3	4
27	**STAFF TRAINING** The organisation provides training on non-discrimination to all staff	1	2	3	4
28	**IVOLVEMENT OF STAKEHOLDERS** The organisation's strategies are established through the involvement of stakeholders	1	2	3	4

QUESTIONNAIRE

Management 1

Name of the organisation ……..Date ……

- Please indicate your answers by drawing a circle around the number that best describes your view.
- The more truly and honestly you answer each question, the more useful this assessment will be to the organisation.

		Rarely	Occasionall	Often	Always
1	**COMMITMENT** The organisation's leadership has humility before the poor and a the needs of others above their own	1	2	3	4
2	**FINANCIAL UNDERSTANDING** The staff member responsible for managing the organisation's finances understands the organisation's financial strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4
3	**PROJECT MANAGEMENT** Staff involved in the management of projects	1	2	3	4
4	**BOARD COMMITTEE AND CONSTITUTION** The role and responsibilities of the board committee are clearly documented in the organisation's constitution.	1	2	3	4
5	**STYLE OF LEADERSHIP** The organisation's leadership displays love, joy, peace, patience, kindness, goodness, faithfulness,	1	2	3	4
6	**PLANNING PROCESS** There is a document process for how the organisation should plan and review its work	1	2	3	4
7	**FINANCIAL ADVICE** The staff member responsible for the managing the organisation's finances give clear and relevant advice to the leadership.	1	2	3	4
8	**STAFF OPTIONS** The organisation's leadership encourages staff to express their options about issues, and is open to different points of view	1	2	3	4
9	**BOARD COMMITTEE BEHAVIOUR** The member of the board committee make personal sacrifices in response to the needs of the staff and project beneficiaries	1	2	3	4
10	**COMMUNICATION WITHIN THE ORGANISATION** Planning takes into account the plans of other sections of the organisation	1	2	3	4
11	BUDGET MANAGEMENT The leadership manages the organisation's budget, and anticipates and avoids financial deficits	1	2	3	4
12	**STAFF REPRESENTATION** The organisation's leadership co-operates with a staff representative committee	1	2	3	4
13	**GOVERNANCE** The members of the board committee assist the leadership in establishing the organisation's mission, values, policies and strategies, and in reviewing the				

	organisation's performance and finances				
14	**COMMUNICATION SKILLS** The organisation's leadership communicates well with staff, and clarifies expectations	1	2	3	4
15	**RESOURCES** Plans take account of the financial and human resources available	1	2	3	4
16	**STAFF SKILLS AND EXPERIENCE** The staff members responsible for managing and handling the organisation's finances have relevant professional skills and experience	1	2	3	4
17	**MEETINGS** The organisation's leadership invites relevant staff to attend meetings, circulating agendas in advance of the meetings, and having given thought to work commitments that might prevent attendance	1	2	3	4
18	**DELIGATION OF MANAGEMENT** The members of the board committee ensure that the organisation is well-managed, and do not attempt to manage themselves	1	2	3	4
19	**STAFF MOTIVATION** The organisation's leadership motivates staff through affirmation encouragement	1	2	3	4
20	**DELIGATION** The organisation's leadership delegates wisely, giving staff opportunities to take responsibility for areas of work	1	2	3	4
21	**FINANCIAL TRANSPARENCY** The organisation's financial management is transparent and the leadership is open to discuss financial issues with stakeholders	1	2	3	4
22	**SKILLS AND EXPERIENCE** The member of the board committee have relevant professional skills and experience, risks, the availability of resources, and changes in the current situation	1	2	3	4
23	**DECISION-MAKING** The organisation's leadership makes decisions after analysis of the stakeholders, risks, the availability of resources, and changes in the current situation	1	2	3	4
24	**OBJECTIVES** Plans identify objectives that are realistic and measurable, and have achievable timeframes	1	2	3	4
25	**FINANCIAL TRUST** Stakeholders trust the organisation because it has good financial management	1	2	3	4
26	**INFORMATION** Staff have the necessary information and opportunities to contribute to the organisation's mission, values, strategies, policies, and plans	1	2	3	4
27	**MANAGING CHANGE** The organisation's leadership works together as a team	1	2	3	4
28	**MONITORING** The organisation's leadership and staff regularly monitor the implementation of plans against objectives, and alter the plans where necessary	1	2	3	4

QUESTIONNAIRE

Management 2

Name of the organisation…….……..Date……

- Please indicate your answers by drawing a circle around the number that best describes your view
- The more truly and you honestly you answer each question, the more useful this assessment will be to the organisation

		Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Always
1	**ORGANISATIONAL DESIGN** The organisation's leadership has adopted a structure for the organisation that ensures maximum effectiveness and the best use of resources	1	2	3	4
2	**FILING SYTEMS** The organisation's filling system ensures all documents are well-organised and easy to access	1	2	3	4
3	**FINANCIAL REPORTING** The staff members responsible for handling the organisation's finances report regularly and promptly about their activities	1	2	3	4
4	**STAFF NUMBERS, SKILLS AND EXPERIENCE** The organisation has sufficient people with the necessary professional skills and experience, and key positions are fully staffed	1	2	3	4
5	**RECRUITMENT** Staff are recruited on the basis of an agreed level of skills and experience for each position	1	2	3	4
6	**ACCOUNTING PROCEDURES** The organisation uses reliable accounting procedures to ensure that financial resources are managed properly	1	2	3	4
7	**STRUCTURE** The organisational structure chart shows the lines of responsibility between the different positions in the organisation				
8	**INTERNAL COMMUNICATIONS** Information is communicated accurately and promptly to all relevant staff	1	2	3	4
9	**ACCOUNTING STANDARDS** The organisation's financial reports comply with national accounting standards and are acceptable to stakeholders	1	2	3	4
10	**ORGANISATIONAL DOCUMENTS** The organisation has written personnel handbook or policy that describes recruitment, termination of employment and work rules for all staff	1	2	3	4
11	**LEARNING FROM OTHERS** Before undertaking work, staff learn from stakeholders and others who have relevant knowledge and experience	1	2	3	4
12	**CO-ORDINATION** There is co-ordination between the different sections of the organisation	1	2	3	4
13	**EXTERNAL COMMUNICATIONS** Letters, e-mails, phone calls and faxes are dealt with promptly by appropriate	1	2	3	4

	staff				
14	**FINANCIAL REPORTS** The organisation's financials reports are comprehensive and accurate, including all income and expenditure for the period covered, together with brief explanations for any discrepancies	1	2	3	4
15	**INFORMATION** Staff have the necessary information to carry out their job effectively	1	2	3	4
16	**LEARNING REVIEW** On completion of work, staff review the results with stakeholders, and share lessons learnt with them	1	2	3	4
17	**ORGANISATIONAL REVIEW** The organisation's leadership reviews the structure of the organisation at key points in the life of the organisation to ensure maximum effectiveness and the best use of resources.	1	2	3	4
18	**DEADLINES** The organisation uses a system to help staff meet planning and reporting deadlines	1	2	3	4
19	**ANNUAL INDEPENDENT AUDIT** The organisation's account are audited annually by independent professionally qualified auditors				
20	**STRATEGIC PLANNING** The organisation's strategies and plans include the number of staff needed and their required skills and experience	1	2	3	4
21	**JOB DESCRIPTION** Job descriptions and terms and conditions of employment include the skills and experience required, the duties to be undertaken, the reporting relationships and the key indicators of performance	1	2	3	4
22	**LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES** The organisation provides opportunities and facilities to increase the knowledge, skills and experience of staff	1	2	3	4
23	**LEVELS OF RESPONSIBILITY** The organisational structure allows delegation of responsibility and encourages innovation	1	2	3	4
24	**MEETINGS** Meetings are called in advance, have a clear agenda, are recorded in written minutes, and involve relevant staff members	1	2	3	4
25	**ACCOUNTABILITY** The board committee and the organisation's leadership have access to accurate information about the organisation's finances	1	2	3	4
26	**VOLUNTEERS AND TEMPORARY STAFF** The organisation has motivated and committed volunteers and temporary staff who contribute to the achievement of the organisation's plans	1	2	3	4
27	**APPRAISALS** The organisation ensures that staff performance appraisals are conducted and documented at least once a year	1	2	3	4
28	**RECORDING LESSONS LEARNT** The organisation has procedures for staff to record lessons learnt	1	2	3	4
29	**CONTACT DETAILS** The organisation maintains a database with details of contacts	1	2	3	4
30	**STAFF TURNOVER** The level of staff turnover does not reduce the effectiveness of the organisation	1	2	3	4
31	**PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT** The organisation provides opportunities for the professional development of staff	1	2	3	4

32	**SHARING KNOWLEDGE** The organisation encourages a culture of openness and sharing of knowledge	1	2	3	4
33	**WORKLOADS** Staff have reasonable and realistic workloads which do not discourage them	1	2	3	4
34	**STAFF REPRESENTAION** At least one person is elected by all staff to represent them in discussions with the organisation's leadership	1	2	3	4
35	**LEARNING FROM PRACTICE** Staff regularly review the progress of their work, and put lessons learnt into practice	1	2	3	4

QUESTIONNAIRE

External Linkages

Name of the organisation……. Date……..

- Please indicate your answers by drawing a circle around the number that best describes your view
- The more truly and honestly you answer each question, the more useful this assessment will be to the organisation

		Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Always
1	**PARTNERSHIP** The organisation works with other organisations in partnership on common issues	1	2	3	4
2	**STRATEGIC ADVOCAY** The organisation influences the policies and practices of people in positions of power	1	2	3	4
3	**PARTICIPATION** Project beneficiaries participate in planning and implementation of activities to influence the policies and practices of people in positions of power	1	2	3	4
4	**EMPOWERMENT** The organisation empowers project beneficiaries to express their needs and increase their voices in local and national institution	1	2	3	4
5	**GOVERNMENT** The organisation works with local and national organisations on common issues	1	2	3	4
6	**GOOD STEWARDSHIP** The organisation is accountable to stakeholders	1	2	3	4
7	**COMMITMENT OF SUPPORT** The people and organisations who the organisation's work are motivated and committed	1	2	3	4
8	**MOBILISATION** The organisation increases the capacity of the church to fulfil its ministry to the poor by working with local communities	1	2	3	4
9	**SHARING RESOURCES** The organisation makes its resources available to other organisation	1	2	3	4
10	**ORGANISATION'S PROFILE** Stakeholders respect the organisation for its work to address the causes of margilisation, economic poverty and powerlessness	1	2	3	4
11	**PARTERSHIP WITH THE CHURCH** The organisation's leadership works in partnership with church leaders	1	2	3	4
12	**NETWORKING** The organisation works with like-minded organisations to influence the policies and practices of people in positions of power	1	2	3	4
13	**EMPOWERMENT** The organisation increases the capacity of church leaders to influence the policies and practices of people in positions of power	1	2	3	4

14	**PROJECT ACTIVITIES** Projects incorporate activities to influence the policies and practices of the people in positions of power	1	2	3	4
15	**RELATIONSHIPS** The organisation has good relationships with stakeholders	1	2	3	4
16	**SHARING KNOWLEDGE** The organisation learns from, and shares lessons learnt with, other organisations	1	2	3	4
17	**COMMUNITY SUPPORT** The organisation receives support from the communities with which it works	1	2	3	4
18	**VARIETY OF SOURCES OF FUNDING** There is a variety of sources funding to support the organisation's work	1	2	3	4
19	**PROMOTION** The organisation advertises and promotes its work	1	2	3	4
20	**COMMITMENT** The organisation's partnership with the church displays commitment, mutual learning, openness and respect	1	2	3	4

QUESTIONNAIRE

Project planning and implementation

Name of organisation……..…….Date……

- Please indicate your answers by drawing a circle around the number that best describes your view
- The more truly and honestly you answer each question, the useful this assessment will be to the organisation

		Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Always
1	**INVOLVEMENT** Project beneficiaries are involved in project planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation	1	2	3	4
2	**OBJECTIVES AND IMPACT** Project monitoring and evaluation measure progress towards achievement of project objectives, and the wider impact of projects	1	2	3	4
3	**SENSITIVITY** Projects are sensitive to the cultures and practices of local communities	1	2	3	4
4	**INFORMATION ANALYSIS** Staff use a formal system to collect, record and analyse information about the progress of projects	1	2	3	4
5	**OBJECTIVES** Project objectives reflect the needs and priorities of the project beneficiaries	1	2	3	4
6	**GUIDELINES** Staff use good practice guidelines for project planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation	1	2	3	4
7	**PROJECT DESIGN** Project planning focuses on the marginalised, the economically poor and powerless	1	2	3	4
8	**STRENGTHS AND WAYS OF COPING** Project planning and implementation take account of project beneficiaries' strengths and ways of coping	1	2	3	4
9	**STAKEHOLDERS PARTICIPATION** Stakeholders are involved in the choice and definition of numerical and descriptive indicators	1	2	3	4
10	**PROBLEM INDENTIFICATION** Projects are planned and implemented to address the causes of marginalisation, economic poverty and powerlessness, and not only the symptoms	1	2	3	4

11	**CONFIDENCE** Project beneficiaries increase their confidence through involvement in project planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation	1	2	3	4
12	**LEARNING FROM OTHERS** During project planning implementation, monitoring and evaluation, staff learn from stakeholders and others who have relevant knowledge and experience	1	2	3	4
13	**CHOICE OF INDICATORS** Project indicators are simple and relevant	1	2	3	4
14	**MOBILISATION** Project planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation use participatory approaches to mobilise stakeholders	1	2	3	4
15	**EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK** Project planning and implementation are adapted as a result of lessons learnt through project monitoring	1	2	3	4
16	**MONITORING AND EVALUATION** Staff monitor and evaluate projects to ensure project benefits reach the intended beneficiaries	1	2	3	4
17	**COST AND RESOURCES** Project plans identify the resources needed for implementation, monitoring and evaluation, the overall costs, and the potential sources of funding	1	2	3	4
18	**NEEDS ASSESSMENT** Project beneficiaries are involved in the assessment of their needs and priorities during project planning	1	2	3	4
19	**VALUING KNOWLEDGE** Staff value the knowledge, skills and experience of project beneficiaries	1	2	3	4
20	**RESTRICTIONS TO PARTICIPATION** Staff take into account circumstances that might prevent project beneficiaries from participating in projects	1	2	3	4
21	**RECORDING LESSONS LEARNT** Lessons learnt from projects are recorded and use to improve other projects	1	2	3	4
22	**FINAL REPORTS** Project reports are shared with stakeholders	1	2	3	4
23	**STAFF TRAINING** Staff have the professional skills and experience to monitor and evaluate projects	1	2	3	4
24	**SOCIAL ANALYSIS** Project planning and implementation are based on analysis of social differences and the needs of various groups within the local community, such as women, children and the elderly	1	2	3	4
25	**USE OF CULTURAL METHODS** Project planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation use approaches which are familiar to local communities	1	2	3	4
26	**MONITORING AND EVALUATION PLANNED** Project monitoring and evaluation activities are planned and budgeted for	1	2	3	4
27	**OWNERSHIP** project beneficiaries take a lead in making decisions about the management of projects	1	2	3	4
28	**SOCIAL DIVISIONS** Projects address the causes of inequality and discrimination due to existing social divisions, such as gender, age, ethnicity and religion	1	2	3	4

QUESTIONNAIRE

Project outcomes

Name of organisation……..Date……

- Please indicate your answers by drawing a circle around the number that best describes your view.
- The more truly and honestly you answer each question, the more useful this assessment will be to the organisation

		Rarely	Occasionally	Often	Always
1	**RELATIONSHIP WITH THE ENVIRONMENT** Projects contribute to restored relationships with the environment	1	2	3	4
2	**GOAL** Projects contribute towards the achievement of long-term goals	1	2	3	4
3	**REPLICATION** Projects are replicated in other communities	1	2	3	4
4	**PUBLIC PROFILE** Stakeholders know that the value of organisation are based on biblical understanding	1	2	3	4
5	**RESOURCES** Projects benefits are sustained by the local resources, with no need for external support	1	2	3	4
6	**ACTIVITIES** Project activities are completed on time and to budget	1	2	3	4
7	**COMPASSION** The project contributes to greater love and compassion among stakeholders	1	2	3	4
8	**HOPE FOR THE FUTURE** Project beneficiaries show an increase desire to take positive action to address the causes of marginalisation, economic poverty and powerlessness	1	2	3	4
9	**BEHAVIOUR OF STAFF** The behaviour and lifestyle of staff reflect their Christian faith	1	2	3	4
10	**OUTPUTS** Project outputs are delivered on time and to budget	1	2	3	4
11	**EMPOWERMENT** Projects contribute to a process of positive personal and community change	1	2	3	4
12	**RECONCILIATION** Projects contribute to reconciliation and restored relationships in local communities	1	2	3	4
13	**MOTIVATION FOR WORK** Staff explain to stakeholders that their work is motivated by God's love and	1	2	3	4

	compassion				
14	**THE ENVIRONMENT** Projects use renewable resources and enhance the natural environment	1	2	3	4
15	**RELATIONSHIP WITH THE CREATOR** Projects contribute to restored relationships with God the creator	1	2	3	4
16	**PURPOSE** Project purposes are achieved by the end of projects	1	2	3	4
17	**ACCOUNTABILITY AND TRUST** Projects contribute to greater accountability, trust and generosity among stakeholders	1	2	3	4
18	**TRUST AND RESPECT** The project provides opportunities for project beneficiaries to explore the Christian faith in an environment of mutual trust and respect	1	2	3	4
19	**VOICE AND EMPOWERMENT** Project contribute to project beneficiaries having a voice in society	1	2	3	4
20	**BENEFICIARY KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS** Projects build on the knowledge and skills of project beneficiaries	1	2	3	4
21	**SECURITY** Projects contribute to a reduction in the vulnerability of project beneficiaries	1	2	3	4