Technical Assistance and Aid Agency Staff

Alternative Techniques for Greater Effectiveness

Jerry M. Silverman
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ABSTRACT

Institutional technical assistance is a slow process that requires, to succeed, continuity between successive iterations in its design and implementation and the active substantive involvement of local professionals and potential beneficiaries. Yet most aid agency staff tend to make design recommendations on their own and merely on the basis of field interviews of national staff.

This paper suggests that, instead, aid agency staff involved in identifying, preparing and appraising the nonengineering (or institutional) aspects of projects act as "teachers," "partners," and "mobilizers," and make more systematic use of the workshop technique to (i) identify local perceptions of problems and constraints; (ii) identify value-based and attitudinal limitations to which program/project responses must be adapted; (iii) mobilize potential local supporters and implementors; and (iv) obtain the commitment of appropriate supporters and implementors.
L'assistance technique à dominante institutionnelle est un processus lent et itératif dont le succès exige une continuité entre la conception et l'exécution de l'assistance et une participation active des cadres locaux et des bénéficiaires eventuels. Pourtant la plupart des agents des organismes d'aide appliquent rarement ces principes et ont tendance à formuler par eux-mêmes leurs recommandations simplement sur la base de leurs entretiens avec des fonctionnaires locaux.

Ce document propose que les agents chargés d'identifier, d'élaborer et d'évaluer les aspects non techniques (ou institutionnels) des projets jouent le rôle d'"enseignants", de "partenaires" et d'animateurs" et qu'ils utilisent plus systématiquement la technique des groupes de travail pour i) déterminer comment les problèmes et les contraintes sont perçus localement; ii) déterminer le système de valeur et les comportements dont il faudra tenir compte dans les projets ou programmes; iii) mobiliser à l'échelon local des personnes qui pourraient être favorables à l'opération envisagée et prêtes à y participer; et iv) s'assurer de leur adhésion.
La asistencia técnica institucional es un proceso lento que, para tener éxito, requiere continuidad entre las repeticiones sucesivas de su contenido y ejecución y la sustancial participación activa de los profesionales y futuros beneficiarios locales. No obstante, la mayor parte del personal de los organismos de asistencia tiende a formular recomendaciones en cuanto a su contenido por cuenta propia y simplemente sobre la base de entrevistas con el personal nacional en el terreno.

En el presente documento se sugiere que, en lugar de ello, los funcionarios de los organismos de asistencia involucrados en la identificación, preparación y evaluación de aspectos no técnicos (o institucionales) de los proyectos actúen en calidad de "maestros", "asociados" y "promotores", y utilicen de una manera más sistemática el método de trabajo práctico en grupo para: i) identificar la percepción local de los problemas y limitaciones; ii) determinar las limitaciones derivadas de valores o actitudes a las cuales el contenido de un programa o proyecto deba adaptarse; iii) movilizar recursos humanos locales que puedan convertirse en elementos de apoyo o ejecución del programa, y iv) obtener el compromiso y dedicación de estos elementos apropiados de apoyo y ejecución.
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I. INTRODUCTION

Awareness has been growing within the World Bank and other international donor agencies that to meet overall economic development objectives, developing countries need to develop their institutions.1/ This awareness has been accompanied by concern that, although conceptual approaches to institutional development are becoming more sophisticated, approaches to technical assistance (TA) in the field have remained essentially the same since the 1950s.

The problem has been described and recommendations for new approaches to institutional TA have been suggested in a number of recent publications.2/ The purpose of the present paper is to identify: (i) particular contexts and objectives for which alternative TA models are appropriate; and (ii) techniques which aid agency staff can use (a) to identify fundamental institutional problems and constraints (rather than merely their symptoms), (b) to specify policies, programs and/or projects in response, and (c) to win the commitment of governments and beneficiaries to these proposed remedies.

The discussion in this paper is limited to "Institutional TA (TA/i)" as distinguished from "Engineering TA." As described in World Bank Staff Working Paper 586, TA/i consists of:


"(a) diagnostic and prescriptive assistance such as advice on institutional (financial, legal, organizational, managerial) or policy matters, studies concerned with improving the operation and maintenance of a particular sector or entity, and assistance in implementing the resulting recommendations; and (b) managerial, technical, or other direct operational support to public or private entities, and the provision of fellowships or other forms of training assistance. These services deal with problems or needs that are difficult to define and resolve since the state of the art is unclear. Moreover, institutional problems cannot be solved with the precision possible in engineering activities, and the results are often less tangible and harder to assess. Often it is a matter of opinion whether institutional TA is needed, and rarely can such assistance be effective or successfully implemented without a thorough understanding of the particular society, culture, and institutions involved, and without behavioral changes in the beneficiary."

The need for "a thorough understanding of the particular society, culture, and institutions involved" if "behavioral changes in the beneficiary" are to be achieved is as necessary at the design stage as during implementation. That need has not often been met by the individual interviews and reviews of reports that are normally used by donor agency staff in the course of sector reviews and missions to identify, prepare, and appraise projects and programs. That is, in part, because the agendas may differ among donor staff and the country's leadership, the managerial, administrative and technical staff of government, and the proposed beneficiaries of project or program lending (page 4).

Experience with a number of donor agencies in a variety of TA/i assignments suggests that very little, if any, relevant information on local perceptions or short-term interests surfaces in the normal course of
Reasons for this include the following:

(i) The format of an interview most often leaves the identification of subjects to the interviewer (i.e., the donor agency staff member) and, thus, focuses on the donor's agenda;

(ii) Raising issues of personal or local group interests and incentives is often believed to reflect selfish motives; local personnel fear doing so might threaten the transfer of financial and/or material resources offered by the donor;

(iii) Donor staff are viewed as outsiders and, therefore, as unable to understand or sympathize with the more "selfish" concerns of local personnel;

(iv) Donor agency staff and local personnel rarely share the same language, or at least the same nuances of language; and

(v) Individual local personnel, even if they were willing and able to share their candid views on such issues, lack an objective, comprehensive and systematic view of the sum of local competing interests and how it affects the manner in which the institutional system actually operates.

3/ Political leaders must balance concerns for economic improvements against current political pressures and the cultural values which define the boundaries of legitimate tradeoffs. The normally more limited horizons of government bureaucrats, technicians, and third party beneficiaries can be understood primarily in terms of personal incentives.
Successfully providing institutional technical assistance is, therefore, extremely complex. Institutional development is a long-term process which must be carried out in a dynamic environment in which changes are the result of multiple interactions among a wide variety of social variables, only a few of which can be controlled.

Foreign consultants and/or staff of donor agencies cannot conduct—by themselves—adequate assessments of personal and group motivations, involving a wide variety of different actors, within countries which they might be visiting for either the first time or for successive short periods of time. Lack of knowledge or of time, and political sensitivities all inhibit attempts by foreign staff to map the TA/i environment adequately. Yet, if local professionals are relied on exclusively, it is often difficult to avoid distortions resulting from their own direct or indirect involvement in that same area. In addition, the desire of donor agencies to have their interests represented in the process of assessment and design is a legitimate one. Therefore, it is necessary to involve both foreign donor agency staff and a critical mass of representative local personnel in order to make accurate assessments of current conditions and to begin designing organizational systems.
II. TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE MODELS

With all their limitations, technical assistance and training remain the most appropriate donor-financed methods of assisting governments to organize and improve their institutional capacities. While training can change the behavior of people and the organizations they work for, technical assistance—when provided at high enough decision-making levels—can change the structure of the environment within which organizations must operate. Unfortunately, distinctions between different technical assistance models have seldom been recognized by either donors or governments. Choices between them are seldom explicitly made and the degree of fit between institution-building requirements and the type of technical assistance actually provided is most often accidental.

Concern for the issues summarized above has resulted in attempts to identify a broader range of TA models than have been relied on in the past. Appendix A summarizes two similar sets of models presented in recent studies⁴/ and provides a synthesis in terms of six TA models. These are summarized below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TA Model</th>
<th>Principal Characteristic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Performer</td>
<td>Product or service focus: outside specialist performs a discrete activity at request of client.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Substitute</td>
<td>Job focus: outside specialist performs line function in the (temporary) absence of local staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Guest</td>
<td>Catalyst: outside specialist expresses non-judgmental surprise at local practices to create awareness of alternatives.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⁴/ Honadle, Gow, and Silverman, op. cit. and Lethem and Cooper, op. cit.
4. Teacher

Mixed focus (person and product): on-the-job training of local counterpart expected together with performance of discrete activity.

5. Partner

Mixed focus (person and product): outside and local specialists with complementary skills work in partnership and share responsibility for outcome.

6. Mobilizer

Mixed focus (product and organization): outside specialist in advisory and advocacy role is responsible for getting local staff to act, e.g., by building coalitions to achieve the objective of the assignment.

Two points should be apparent:

(i) The six models are not mutually exclusive; one or more than one might be used simultaneously or sequentially depending on objectives and/or circumstances.

(ii) The six models distinguish alternative roles or behavior patterns of TA/i personnel on the basis of their relationship to local personnel, rather than on the basis of their technical knowledge. Thus, these six models emphasize a necessary cross-cutting dimension of TA/i: the role through which technical knowledge should be transferred.

Appendix B summarizes the characteristics of eight "forms" of TA "that are intended to assist project or TA designers to develop a system or 'package' of assistance most appropriate to a particular project or program
and specific situation, "5/ and identifies the TA models which are most likely to be relevant to each form. Three models emerge as the most likely to be appropriate for use in most circumstances when addressing TA/i issues: Teachers, Partners, and Mobilizers. However, they are not equally appropriate for all forms nor for each task required for any one form. Additional insight into the relative merits of each model is provided further below in Appendixes C and D.

Phases in Institutional Development

A program of institutional development can be divided into three broad phases: (i) pre-project/program identification, preparation, and appraisal; (ii) first-phase implementation; and (iii) subsequent phases of implementation. However, the distinction between the first phase (design) on the one hand and the second and subsequent phases (implementation) on the other hand should not be rigid for at least two reasons:

(i) By its very nature, a program to improve institutional capacity must be implemented over a long period within a changing environment. Thus, the program must be designed to allow continuous modification, based on learning and innovative problem-solving rather than on the routine application of solutions determined during an earlier planning and design phase.

(ii) In the context described above, initial planning and design activities should themselves be viewed as the first phase of implementation through the direct involvement of those whose capacity is to be improved.

5/ These "forms" are derived from eight of ten presented by Kenneth Murrell in a background note for World Development Report 1983 and included as Annex 3 in Lethem and Cooper, op. cit., pp. 77-82.
The conventional approach to institutional design—which distinguishes between the design and implementation phases—normally places local professionals and potential beneficiaries in the role of informants and the foreign professional in the role of designer. Only after a project is negotiated and agreements signed (i.e., after the project is "designed") are local professionals and potential beneficiaries given active roles. Further, "implementation" is sometimes carried out under the leadership of foreign "experts."  

The alternative approach recommended here views initial identification, preparation, and appraisal as an integral part of a multi-stage implementation process based on iterative planning. The participation of officials and other beneficiaries in that process from the very beginning should be viewed as part of the capacity-building program.

Nevertheless, the initial design and appraisal phase of a project or program is the stage in which the staff of an aid agency such as the World Bank are normally most directly (and crucially) involved. For that reason, and because the author's experience within the World Bank has been limited to the initial design phase, the remainder of the paper will be limited to a discussion of appropriate TA/i models and techniques for use by aid agency staff during identification, preparation, and appraisal missions.

6/ According to R. K. Ready, there are at least eight reasons why productivity and satisfaction are lower when plans are made by people other than those responsible for their execution: "(1) sense of accomplishment is less when executing someone else's plan; (2) there is less tendency to try to confirm the validity of another's plan by executing it successfully—less confidence that it can be done; (3) there is less commitment to see that the plan works well; (4) there is less flexibility and less room for modification and initiative to make improvements in an assigned plan; (5) there is less understanding of an assigned plan; (6) human resources are not so well utilized; (7) there are more communication problems and consequent errors and distortions in following instructions; (8) there are competitive feelings aroused between planners and doers, to such an extent that it appears as if the former 'win' and the latter 'lose!'" (quoted by Robert Youker in "A Participative Process of Group Project Planning," EDI, Course Note 317, Washington, D.C., February 1982).
TA Models for Institutional Design

The purpose of the initial design process is to establish preconditions acceptable to both the donor and the recipient government for the commencement of a formal project or program and, perhaps, the establishment of some new supporting policy initiatives. Regarding the institutional aspects of a project and within the context of existing World Bank procedures, Staff Working Paper 375 suggested that the objectives during each of the three stages in the design process should be viewed as follows:

(i) **Identification**: Organizing the "Appreciated Environment" to benefit the project, i.e., the external entities whose actions affect project performance directly or indirectly.

(ii) **Preparation**: The choice of organizational structure, control, and coordination patterns.

(iii) **Appraisal**: Specifying the detailed organizational arrangements and designing the learning processes.

As suggested by the rapidly expanding literature on this subject\(^7\), these three pre-implementation stages are the time to mobilize commitment among a critical mass of implementors to the goals of the project. These goals should not be stated as a detailed "blueprint" of activities over an extended period of time, but rather, as a commitment to prioritized strategies and to the outlines of an action-learning process to achieve them.

Appendix C relates, in summary terms, the various models of TA/i introduced above (Appendix A) to the identification, preparation and appraisal stages of the project cycle, with regard to the identification of institutional development problems (and constraints), the generation of government and beneficiary commitment, and the specification of program/project response. Again, as when viewed in terms of "forms" (Appendix B), the Teacher, Partner, and Mobilizer models emerge as the most likely to be appropriate for use by aid agency staff in most circumstances (with the same qualifying statements in mind).

Although the "Performer" model could conceivably be applied in three of the twelve situations illustrated in the table, it would in most cases be the least appropriate. It is important to stress here that the "Performer" model is at the same time the one most often used by aid agency staff (or consultants hired by them or by national governments at their behest) and the least relevant to the task. One reason for the continuing use of the "Performer" model is that it embodies the most natural of expert roles. Experts are understood to be knowledgeable in the field of their professional employment. They expect to be able, based on prior education and experience, to identify problems and recommend precise solutions. Experts—and their employers—want to know, often in a hurry, what to do so that it can be done as quickly as possible. Alternative models, at least at first glance, appear to suggest that, at best, institutional TA can be effective only at an unacceptably slow speed (i.e., the speed of the students' learning process) or, at worst, can be no more than the "blind leading the blind."

Furthermore, the discussion of different TA models remains at an abstract conceptual level. In practical terms, even if an aid agency staff member accepted the arguments presented for the adoption of the Guest, Teacher, Partner, and/or Mobilizer models, how could he/she translate that acceptance into actual behavior? Given constraints of time and the absence of new techniques for the use of these new models, how could he/she be expected to abandon a form of behavior already established and rewarded within his/her own institution? Reliance on an established model, even if recognized as inappropriate, is most often viewed as more acceptable, and certainly more comfortable, than "leaping into the unknown".
The purpose of the next section is to make the "unknown" a little more "known" by: (i) introducing workshops as a specific technique which can be used by "teachers," "partners," and "mobilizers" while on identification, preparation, and appraisal missions; and (ii) placing that particular technique in the context of the more conventional techniques already practiced by most aid agency staff. Thus, Appendix D provides a summary of five "techniques" which can be used, in combination, by personnel who adopt Guest, Teacher, Partner, and/or Mobilizer models of TA/i. Further, Appendix D provides a brief summary of both aid agency or TA staff and recipient personnel roles when using each technique in terms of each model.

With the context provided by Appendix D in mind, the use of workshops during the design process is discussed below.
III. USE OF WORKSHOPS

As indicated above, workshops\(^8\) supplement more conventional planning and implementation techniques. However, they are the most powerful tool for achieving four fundamental objectives:

i) identifying local perceptions of problems and constraints;

ii) revealing values and attitudes to which the program/project's approach must be adapted;\(^9\)

iii) mobilizing a critical mass of local supporters and implementors; and

iv) generating sufficient commitment of appropriate supporters and implementors.

By bringing a large number of local participants together and conducting a set of exercises which require them to address specific questions in a systematic manner, the foreign "expert" facilitate a process of local clarification, negotiation and acceptable compromise. Further, as well as integrating the knowledge of the foreign expert (which is primarily technical) with that of local professionals and potential beneficiaries

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8/ The type of workshops described here have been used in one form or another (and under a variety of auspices), in countries in the Middle East, East Asia, Eastern and Western Africa, and the Caribbean. In addition, the first multi-national workshop with a similar approach and content, was successfully organized by The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) in New Delhi during 1984 for participants from 14 Governments, and 25 projects in Asia, Africa, and the Near East, and 6 multi-lateral aid agencies. The organizational literature also refers to them as "search conferences" (Smith, Lethem, Thoolen, op. cit.). "Project launch" workshops have been used mostly by Bank staff in the urban sector (see L. R. Satin, "Project Launch," The Bank's World, October 1982).

9/ For data on the importance of this specific objective, refer to Geert Hofstede, loc. cit.
(whose advantage is in understanding local conditions), workshops also serve as mechanisms for informal on-the-job training. During the pre-implementation phases of the project cycle, that training focuses on developing skills in problem identification and project planning.

**Sector Reviews and/or Program/Project Identification**

In the course of Sector Reviews and Program/Project Identification Missions, when problems and constraints affecting the optimization of performance within a particular sector or sub-sector are identified, an attempt should be made by aid agency staff and project designers to organize the "appreciated environment," i.e., the environment composed of those entities that can affect a program/project's performance but are unlikely to be either controlled or influenced by those who will become responsible for program/project management. It is important to identify those entities which compose the appreciated environment and the possible conflicts of interest among them. Accurate information on such matters allows for the identification of supporters and likely inhibitors, and candidates for implementing the program/project, and for the revelation of political problems to be resolved and constraints to which adjustment must be made.

With those objectives in mind, technical expertise is not the main qualification required of participants in workshops at this stage. The need is for adequate representation of the broad range of groups whose interests will be potentially affected by organizational change. Not until subsequent phases does a distinction need to be made between external supporters of the process and those directly engaged in the subsequent projects.

To cite an example, two problem identification workshops were conducted among local government staff during an Agriculture Sector Review Mission in a West African country in late 1982. The first workshop involved 41 extension agents working in one of the country's Integrated Agricultural Development Projects. The six-hour workshop engaged participants in three exercises. The first of these required them briefly
to list the components of the agricultural sector. The purpose, which was presented to the participants by the consultant/facilitator, was to identify the substantive boundaries of the agricultural sector, based on a recognition that the sector is not limited to the current mandate of the Ministry of Agriculture. The second exercise required participants to specify, in order of importance, problems and constraints affecting their job performance. From these lists, specific institutional problems were identified: (i) inappropriate priorities; (ii) maladministration; (iii) insufficient trained personnel; (iv) inadequate communication between extension agents/farmers; and (v) inappropriate/inadequate incentives for extension workers. In the third exercise, one of these problems was assigned to each of five working groups. Each group prepared "Problem Identification Trees" using the format in Figure 1.

10/ For an example in the health sector, see "Nominal Group Technique" in P. Delp, J. Motiwalla and N. Seshadu, Systems Tools for Project Planning. International Development Institute, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, 1977.
Figure 1. Problem Identification Tree
The second workshop involved approximately 50 participants from 14 ministries, agencies, projects and educational institutions; most of them occupied positions at the national level. The 15 hour workshop was conducted over two days. The exercises conducted were similar to those included in the workshop described above, but the substantive topics addressed were broader and focused much more on intersectoral linkages and a broader understanding of the "appreciated environment."

The results of the two workshops, which consumed a total of only three days of a three-week field visit, can be summarized as follows:

(i) The formal, written identification of 276 distinct problems at different levels of precision (124 among the extension agents and 152 among middle and senior level officials);

(ii) The formal mapping of relationships between those problems;

(iii) The training of 41 extension agents and approximately 50 middle and senior officials from 14 different government agencies and parastatals in specific problem identification techniques;

(iv) The identification of potential supporting and opposing "power centers" within the existing political field; and

(v) The fostering of commitment to future activities designed to resolve those problems.

As well as assisting local personnel directly, observation by the aid agency staff or consultants of their discussions, negotiations and compromises, rather than conducting individual interviews, can provide unusual insight into problems as perceived locally and, thus, can identify useful lines of further inquiry.
Purpose and Problem Identification workshops—in combination with more conventional methods—provide a process for "surfacing the most frequently mentioned obstacle to organization design...(i.e.) the accommodation of the differing purposes of the aid agency, the Borrower, Intermediary Organizations, and the Beneficiary."\textsuperscript{11} They also serve as a mechanism for identifying "a set of project components and a means for implementing them that will satisfy the purposes they share" (italics added).\textsuperscript{12} Information of that kind is necessary if fundamental disagreements are not to be "swept under the rug," only to surface during implementation.

Program/Project Preparation

The preparation of programs/projects should include a choice of appropriate organizational structures and planning and management systems. Although responsibility for program/project preparation is, according to World Bank and many other donor agencies' official policy, supposed to reside with the potential recipient government and consultants hired by them, the fact remains that many governments do not take the initiative in drafting detailed project proposals. Thus, mostly in the "people-oriented" sectors, aid agency staff often prepare such proposals themselves, either in response to the identification of problems or constraints and a generalized proposal by governments, or in response to their own assessment of problems and constraints. It would not be surprising if the latter were especially common for the institutional aspects of programs/projects.

Some of the reasons why government personnel are reluctant to assess institutional problems and constraints themselves have been outlined on page 3. In addition, local governments often lack the procedures and the staff to plan and design sophisticated projects/programs nor have they staff with the necessary skills to design, in detail, a programmatic response to identified problems and constraints. Indeed, many proposed

\textsuperscript{11} Smith, Lethem and Thoolen, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 1

\textsuperscript{12} \textit{Ibid.}, pp. 15-16.
projects are themselves designed to develop that capacity. Further, the preparation of proposals with the details and within the formats required by the World Bank and other aid agencies is itself a specialized activity, whose requirements may even differ from donor to donor. Thus, it is also simply easier for local governments, once they have identified or acknowledged a set of problems and constraints and suggested a response in general terms or acquiesced to a response proposed by others, to simply leave preparation of the detailed design to aid agency staff.

With that milieu in mind, workshops can be used to draw local government personnel into the detailed design process without simply leaving it to their own initiative (and the resulting risk of lack of progress). As an example, during the preparation of a Decentralized Training and Management Project for consideration by a bilateral aid agency in a Middle Eastern country (1981), project planning workshops were held over a two-week period in each of three provinces. Each workshop involved approximately 40 government officials representing the appropriate Regional Planning Office, all provincial level line agencies, and senior district officials. These workshops included similar problem identification exercises to those described on pages 13-14, followed by project preparation exercises; including exercises to:

(i) Identify data required;

(ii) Identify data sources;

(iii) Identify methods for collecting data;

(iv) Identify activities required;

(v) Plan the sequence of activities;

(vi) Allocate activities to National, Regional, Provincial, District, and Village Levels;

(vii) Assign responsibilities to specific organizations at each level;
(viii) Plan the sequence of tasks for each organization (e.g., Critical Path Analysis as a heuristic technique);

(ix) Identify resource requirements; and

(x) Draw up action plans for the first phase of implementation.

Ideally, "homework" should be assigned to participant task forces during extended recesses (sometimes extending for one or two months) in the workshop schedule. Opportunities of this kind are available to World Bank staff and borrowers because of the established sequence of preparation and appraisal in the project cycle.

With reference to the training of government officials in project planning techniques, identification of potential supporting and opposing "power centers," and the fostering of commitment to and ownership of future activities designed to resolve identified problems, the results of the workshops in the Middle Eastern country were similar to, but more far-reaching than those of the Western African country workshops. Differences between the two experiences essentially depended on the time devoted to them.

**Appraisal**

The content of workshops which can be used during project appraisal will not be described in detail here. It will vary somewhat depending on local conditions, the results of workshops conducted during Identification and Preparation, and the time available. To specify organizational arrangements and an action plan ideally requires ten days, but persons using the workshop method should be flexible and prepared to adjust content and schedule according to circumstances. It is better to conduct an abbreviated workshop than not to have one at all--even if all that can be accomplished is the initiation of a dialogue between parties involved in the design and implementation process.
Procedures and Responsibilities

The suggested use of workshops during identification, preparation, and appraisal is not meant to displace the conventional methods of literature/document reviews, interviews, and report-writing and review. As illustrated in Appendix D, all of these techniques can, and should, be used to design a technically sound and socially/politically feasible institutional development program/project (or component). Workshops are best used to provide information on local views and interests and participation in project design.

As indicated on pages 17-18, the lack of adequate skills often hinders the participation of national staff in designing projects and institutional arrangements. The results of a workshop to design an appropriate primary care scheme for a health project in the Sahel are typical. Aid agency staff interviewed reported that although "as a process the workshop was beneficial, the technical outcome was of dubious value." Therefore, the agency staff and consultants became primarily responsible for specifying the technical aspects of the project design. However, they considered that the workshop "process" element made an important contribution by generating commitment by national staff and providing information on the bureaucratic context within which the project would operate. Thus, it was also reported that the "workshop provided the opportunity to 'open' the preparation and 'depersonalize' the project...[and] it was the first time that a discussion of the project...went beyond generalities and focused on programs and activities."

Thus, aid agency staff (or consultants hired by them or at their behest) do not, and should not, abdicate their responsibility to exercise their professional judgement, especially during appraisal, when preparing project/program design documents. Aid agency staff would continue to prepare for missions by reading the available literature and, once in the field, conduct interviews with selected local officials in order to identify appropriate initial agendas for workshops, categories of participants and objectives. Finally, they would obviously retain their
professional responsibilities vis-a-vis the aid agency in preparing
identification, preparation, and appraisal reports and/or background papers
to those reports.

It is particularly important that formal arrangements are made by
the host-agency within government and that the workshops are clearly
perceived locally as sponsored by government.\footnote{13/} Senior local officials
would be expected to select the individuals to attend workshops and the
results of the workshops should be shared with them. Unless workshops are
approved by senior officials of government (or relevant other agencies),
they should not be held. The purpose and benefits of workshops should be
clearly explained in advance to the senior officials of sponsoring local
agencies. The latter should understand that it is a method for increasing
their agency's contribution to the design of a potential project, that they
will select participants, and information resulting from the workshop will
be shared with them. Aid agency staff (or consultants) proposing to use
the workshop method should make whatever adjustments are necessary; keeping
in mind that, if a distorted sample of participants is selected or
permission is not granted for the workshop because senior local officials
feel threatened by it, such behavior might also be important data itself.

\footnote{13/ The Minister of Agriculture in a West African country explained to the
workshop participants what he expected from them as follows:

"For the next five days [the consultant's] team
will be assisting you to understand, plan and
offer suggestions for the operations of [the
Ministry] over the next twelve months. I am
indeed gratified at this type of approach. What
we are doing with the support of [aid agency]
finance is to present you with the skeleton and
asking you to create the body. Often in the past
ideas of which we have been skeptical have been
thrust upon us. Now, we are all as senior
officials of this Ministry, being given the task
of helping shape future structure and organization
of the Ministry. You are all as participants
involved. Should the end result be unfavorable,
we will be unable to apportion the blame anywhere
but outside our own front door. It is your views
and opinions which this week will shape the
direction of the structure of this Ministry for
the years to come."}
Experience with workshops in countries in the Middle East, East Asia, and both Western and Eastern Africa suggests that workshops are most effective when participants are close to each other in rank or social status. Thus, although it might seem a good idea to include participants from the "bottom" (e.g., farmers) to the "top" (e.g., senior government officials in the capital city) in the same workshop so that they can communicate directly with each other, in practice the presence of the latter could be expected to inhibit the participation of the former.\footnote{Experience with workshops including farmers or exclusively involving farmers has not been extensive and has been limited to participation during project implementation, not design (for an example, refer to Michael M. Cernea, Measuring Project Impact: Monitoring and Evaluation in PIDER Rural Development Project--Mexico, World Bank Staff Working Paper No. 332 (Washington, D.C., June 1979), and Michael M. Cernea, A Social Methodology for Community Participation in Local Investments: The Experience of Mexico's PIDER Program, World Bank Staff Working Paper No. 598 (Washington, D.C., August 1983). During design phases, participation of farmers raises particular issues and risks (page 24).}

Therefore, conducting separate workshops for different levels of participants is often necessary, with the mobilizer/facilitator communicating the results of earlier workshops to the participants in later ones.

Information generated during the workshops--through the group worksheets prepared by participants, their verbal reports to each other in plenary sessions, and the foreign expert's observation of the process--will suggest further lines of inquiry to be pursued by the expert during subsequent interviews. As described in Appendix D, depending on the model of institutional TA employed, the donor agency staff member (or consultant) would, in most cases, retain the primary responsibility for drafting technical reports. During field missions, the most appropriate time to schedule workshops is at least one week after arrival (so that arrangements are made by the host-agency within government and the pre-workshop interviews can be conducted and the organizational arrangements made) and no later than a full week before departure (so that results can be shared with senior officials and new lines of inquiry suggested by the workshop process can be followed up).
Although local costs vary, it would be unusual for the costs of a workshop, including instructional materials, food, lodging, and transport allowances for participants to exceed the equivalent of US$10 per person per day outside the capital city and US$50 per day in the capital city (e.g., 50 participants in a provincial town for two days = US$1,000). Government and the aid agency would need to agree on who would bear such costs.

Risks

To date, the use of workshops for the purposes described in this paper has not resulted in any serious problems. However, a few potential risks can be hypothesized.

(a) Mobilization of lower-ranking personnel through participation in workshops might be viewed by political leaders and/or senior officers as threatening. This potential risk can be reduced if the procedures described above (pages 21-22) are implemented.

(b) Participation of local officials (at any or all levels) in workshops can generate among them a level of expectations and commitment regarding project/program coverage, financial support, and/or timing to which the aid agency may not be able to respond. Local impatience for delays caused by the aid agency's internal procedures for drafting, reviewing, and approving preparation and appraisal reports is likely to be increased. It is, therefore, important that the particular aid agency's procedures are explained to all participants so that they understand where the workshop fits into those procedures and what will be the likely schedule for follow up.
(c) If specific program/project components recommended by local participants in the workshops are misinterpreted, amended, ignored, or rejected by aid agency staff (or consultants) in their reports, the view that such aid agency's involvement in the design process is a form of external interference might be created or heightened. This risk can be reduced if it is clearly explained at the outset what is the role and obligations of the particular field mission and the role of that workshop as a part of both that mission's and their own government's objectives, rather than as the sole input into the process.

(d) Whether or not to include ultimate beneficiaries such as farmers in problem identification and project design workshops, is a difficult question. The main problem is to determine how representative a particular group of farmers is, especially in terms of (i) the interests of smallholders, tenants, and landless laborers; (ii) women; and (iii) the younger generation(s). Farmers are not as easily categorized, in terms of their socio-economic roles, as government civil servants or staff of private sector enterprises.15/ Although these difficulties can be overcome, extreme care must be exercised in preparing, conducting, and assessing the results of workshops involving farmers (especially during project design phases). However, a systematic and comprehensive discussion of this issue is beyond the scope of this paper.

(e) Workshops require both process (facilitator) skills and substantive knowledge of the field to be addressed. If conducted by a knowledgeable expert who lacks experience and/or skills as a facilitator, a workshop can be counterproductive. Staff conducting workshops need to be professionally familiar with the subject matter because much of the benefit of workshops results from observing and listening to the participants and being able to sense the implications (or hidden agendas) of their discussions, analyses, and proposals. Facilitation skills can be learned quite readily by those donor agency staff who feel at ease using this approach; short, systematic in-service training followed by participation in the conduct of a workshop with an experienced facilitator ought, in most cases, to be sufficient preparation.

Although the potential risks identified above should be considered in any decision to propose and conduct workshops as part of the design process, they should not—in view of the benefits—be considered sufficient reason for rejecting the method altogether in most cases.
IV. CONCLUSION

As discussed on pages 7-8, rigid distinctions between planning and design on the one hand, and implementation on the other hand, should be abandoned in cases of institutional technical assistance. As already noted in Staff Working Paper 375:

"One of the major findings of this study was that many of the problems labelled 'management' are really problems of design. Many of the factors that influenced management performance were not in fact subject to management control .... Increasingly, rural development practitioners found that ... projects, in spite of their design, were subject to influence from entities outside their organizational boundaries and in turn had to exercise influence over those entities .... Moreover, project success was determined as much by skillful handling of such external influence relationships as it was by project resources under the control of management .... Hence, there is a need for an organization design that is sufficiently flexible for adaptation to environments that are likely to change ... (and, thus) the newer (type of) projects require a continuum where each of the stages is part of an iterative process that may repeat the cycle several times during the project life."

Therefore, an institutional development project is best understood as a process divided into discrete phases; each of which is designed, approved, and implemented as a project in its own right. Successive projects provide for the appropriate evolution of the program with the clear understanding that the implementation stage of each project also involves the systematic identification, preparation, and appraisal of the next project in the program. It is possible to provide detailed planning of the first project—to be implemented over a two or three year period—in the program. A common mistake has been to attempt to accomplish too much too soon, or to plan the longer term process in more detail than is possible. By dividing the time required for institutional development into successive two or three year projects, each project can be sufficiently specified in turn. In the new context provided by that
approach, supervision and evaluation missions might be used—at least in part—to identify, prepare and appraise the next project in line. The workshop method described in this paper should be as applicable during "implementation" as in design.

Thus, workshops should be used at each stage of the project cycle. During identification missions, workshops focus on what are the problems and why they occur (the "what" and "why"). During preparation missions, workshops focus on appropriate methods to solve those problems (the "how"). It is important that workshops to identify "what" and "why" are followed by workshops to specify "how." Supervision missions should use workshops at appropriate times to re-examine "what" and "why" during project implementation itself, especially as a substitute for conventional approaches to mid-term evaluations and planning and management training.¹⁶/

Nevertheless, the use of workshops as a practical technique requires a disciplined approach combined with tactical flexibility. Although experience in a number of developing countries, as well as, recently, within major American based multinationals, suggests that use of the method has positive results in a wide variety of cultural settings and political climates, that experience is still too limited to know whether the method is applicable universally. The next step should be to experiment further in the use of workshops, within the context of normal World Bank and other aid agencies' operating procedures, as a supplement to the more conventional techniques currently in use.

## MODELS OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Honadle, Gow</th>
<th>Latham, Cooper</th>
<th>Synthesis</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performer</td>
<td>Performer</td>
<td>Performer</td>
<td>Product or service focus; team or individual performs discrete activity; emphasis on technically correct diagnosis and technically sound recommendations (prescriptive).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitute</td>
<td>Substitute</td>
<td>Substitute</td>
<td>Job-focus; outside expert performs job while local staff is overseas for training; accountable for work; performs line function within host government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prescriber(^1)</td>
<td>Host/Guest</td>
<td>Host/Guest</td>
<td>Catalyst; expressing non-judgmental surprise at local practices and/or serving as outside non-responsible channel for communication of unorthodox analyses or recommendations from local subordinates to superiors. Emphasis on sensitive use of &quot;foreigness.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Counterpart</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Mixed focus (person and product); focus on on-the-job training of local counterpart; high priority on both writing and process skills; high priority on academic training and seniority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner</td>
<td>Partner</td>
<td>Partner</td>
<td>Mixed focus (person and product); focus on working in partnership with local staff, but ensuring that they perform key functions; sharing of responsibility for success or failure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobilizer</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Mobilizer</td>
<td>Mixed focus (product and organization); outside expert in advisory and advocacy role; accountable for getting others to act; priority given to process for enhancing local skills, identifying new skill needs, and developing them; orientation toward identification of conflict and conflict management (coalition building); good working relationships with local groups (collegial) critical for success; process consultation approach.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Latham and Cooper's "Prescriber" included in synthesis as "Performer."

**Sources:**


## APPENDIX B

### FORMS AND MODELS OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms/Characteristics</th>
<th>Models/Models</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Planning</strong></td>
<td>(a) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) On-the-job form of TA; planning activities themselves become a form of TA.</td>
<td>(b) Partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
<td>(c) Mobilizer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Consultation</strong></td>
<td>(a) Performer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Advice offered or recommendations made by outside expert.</td>
<td>(b) Mobilizer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Performer</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Process consultation in which outside experts serve as catalysts; asking questions, introducing methods for answering questions and planning responses by local staff.</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Mobilizer</td>
<td>(b) Partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Design Participation</strong></td>
<td>(a) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA provided in context of systematically planned on-the-job learning experience for local planning and management staff.</td>
<td>(b) Partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Training</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. Coaching</strong></td>
<td>(a) Partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA built on personnel relationships formed between involved parties (expatriate and local).</td>
<td>(b) Mobilizer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Performer</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. Modeling</strong></td>
<td>(a) Partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA serves as role model for local managers; on-the-job training through example.</td>
<td>(b) Financing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Mobilizer</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Twinning</strong></td>
<td>(a) Financing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matching recipient organization with similar organization in another part of the world.</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Mobilizer</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>7. Administering</strong></td>
<td>(a) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing practical step-by-step management training for local staff who eventually replace foreign managers/administrators as a function of the foreign management process itself.</td>
<td>(b) Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Performance</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8. Forcing, Penalizing</strong></td>
<td>(a) Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influencing project performance through fear or threat of punitive action.</td>
<td>(a) Performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Performance</td>
<td>(b) Teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Sources:


B/ Appendix A.
# APPENDIX C

## STAGES OF DESIGN PROCESS: APPROPRIATE TA MODELS

[(+) = positive; (-) = negative]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Identification of ID Problems</th>
<th>Generation of Government Commitment</th>
<th>Generation of Beneficiary Commitment</th>
<th>Specification of Program/Project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Identification:</td>
<td>(a) Performer (-)</td>
<td>(a) -</td>
<td>(a) -</td>
<td>(a) Performer (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Guest (+)</td>
<td>(c) -</td>
<td>(c) Guest (+)</td>
<td>(c) Guest (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(d) Teacher (+)</td>
<td>(d) -</td>
<td>(d) -</td>
<td>(d) Teacher (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(e) Partner (+)</td>
<td>(e) -</td>
<td>(e) -</td>
<td>(e) Partner (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Preparation:</td>
<td>(a) -</td>
<td>(a) -</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>(a) Performer (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Guest (+)</td>
<td>(c) -</td>
<td>(c) Guest (+)</td>
<td>(c) Guest (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(d) -</td>
<td>(d) -</td>
<td>(d) -</td>
<td>(d) Teacher (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(e) Partner (+)</td>
<td>(e) -</td>
<td>(e) -</td>
<td>(e) Partner (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Appraisal:</td>
<td>(a) -</td>
<td>(a) -</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>(a) Performer (-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
<td>(b) -</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(c) -</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(d) -</td>
<td>(d) -</td>
<td>(d) -</td>
<td>(d) Teacher (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(e) Partner (+)</td>
<td>(e) -</td>
<td>(e) -</td>
<td>(e) Partner (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
<td>(f) Mobilizer (+)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### APPENDIX D

**SELECTED MODELS OF INSTITUTIONAL TA AND APPROPRIATE TECHNIQUES/ROLES FOR AID AGENCY STAFF**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Models</th>
<th>Literature/Documents Review</th>
<th>Interviews</th>
<th>Workshops</th>
<th>Preparation of Documents/Reports</th>
<th>Review of Documents/Reports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Guest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) TA Personnel</td>
<td>Reads; assesses prior analyses; identifies questions for interviewees, especially in terms of differences between &quot;scientifically correct&quot; and local cultural practices.</td>
<td>Initiates/raises questions concerning anomalies observed or read about; seeks views of foreign resident TA personnel, academic specialists (foreign and local); and local staff responsible for decision-making (policy) and implementation (management) on individual basis.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Recipient Personnel</td>
<td>Not usually participant in donor or TA personnel’s review of literature/documents; although might be asked to recommend appropriate literature/documents.</td>
<td>Responds to questions raised by TA personnel; might initiate attempt to use TA personnel as channel of communication to local superiors in order to reduce personal risk.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) TA Personnel</td>
<td>Reads, assesses prior analyses; identifies skill gaps/themes for on-the-job training.</td>
<td>Initiates/raises questions to identify skill gaps among local personnel and/or &quot;teaches&quot; interviewee during discussion; seeks views of local personnel on individual basis.</td>
<td>Uses workshop as technique for transferring information to recipient personnel by participating directly as teacher and evaluating work produced by participants in terms of its technical soundness openly with participants (as individuals or groups); teaches and grades (contrast with &quot;partner&quot; and &quot;mobilizer&quot; below).</td>
<td>Based on own knowledge and experience, has ultimate responsibility for preparation of draft document or report for aid agency and/or local government alone or with other members of the aid agency team.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Recipient Personnel</td>
<td>Reads, assesses prior analyses at suggestion/direction of TA personnel.</td>
<td>Responds to questions raised by TA personnel; might raise questions to be answered by TA personnel; local counterpart would accompany TA personnel on third party interviews as observer (for learning purposes).</td>
<td>Receives instruction from TA personnel and, in groups with other recipient personnel, participates in exercises to demonstrate understanding and ability to use instructions.</td>
<td>Might contribute to draft document or report at discretion of TA personnel.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Partner

a) TA Personnel

Reads, assesses prior analyses; shares summaries and views with recipient personnel (TA personnel review literature/documents in part; recipient personnel review remainder).

b) Recipient Personnel

Reads, assesses prior analyses; shares summaries and views with TA personnel (recipient personnel review literature/documents in part; TA personnel review remainder).

Participates, along with individual recipient personnel or with recipient personnel, in collegial atmosphere of "give and take".

Participates, along with TA personnel, in workshops conducted by other TA personnel. Participates as a "teacher" (as in 3a above) or as a "mobilizer" (as in 3b below).

4. Mobilizer

a) TA Personnel

Reads, assesses prior analyses; identifies micro-system and specific institutional issues, especially in terms of understanding the component parts and connecting interests within the "appreciated environment".

b) Recipient Personnel

Not usually a participant in donor or TA personnel's review of literature/documents; although might be asked to recommend appropriate literature/documents.

Might or might not write draft report or document depending on expectations of donor or local govt. (ultimate success represented by working group of local personnel preparing acceptable joint report). If own report written, evaluates information gathered primarily in workshops supplemented by review of literature/documents, interviews, and personal knowledge and experience.

b) Recipient Personnel

Not usually a participant in donor or TA personnel's review of literature/documents; although might be asked to recommend appropriate literature/documents.

Participates, along with recipient personnel, in workshops conducted by other TA personnel. Participates as a "teacher" (as in 4a above) or as a "mobilizer" (as in 4b below).

Participates, along with TA personnel, in workshops conducted by TA personnel. Participates as a "teacher" (as in 4a above) or as a "mobilizer" (as in 4b below).

b) Recipient Personnel

Not usually a participant in donor or TA personnel's review of literature/documents; although might be asked to recommend appropriate literature/documents.

Contributes to draft report in some form from minimum of raw data and analyses generated in workshops through maximum of drafting all of any reports.

b) Recipient Personnel

Not usually a participant in donor or TA personnel's review of literature/documents; although might be asked to recommend appropriate literature/documents.

Superior local officials review draft document or report.
Sub-Saharan Africa: Progress Report on Development Prospects and Programs
A review of the foregoing book two years later.
Highlights some of the major problems that African governments have faced in designing and implementing programs of reform. Examines changes that have been introduced in the level, pattern, and design of World Bank economic work and operations in support of such reforms. Reviews the extent of donor government responses to the increased and changed needs of African countries for external assistance.
1983. 37 pages.
Stock No. BK 9169. Free.

Decentralization in Developing Countries: A Review of Recent Experience
Dennis A Rondinelli, John R. Nellis, and G. Shabbir Cheema
Reports on the objectives of decentralization. Notes that many developing countries began decentralization during the last 10 years to find ways of using limited resources more effectively. Evaluates types of decentralization and conditions and factors affecting the implementation of policies supporting decentralization. Provides information on political commitment, administrative support, effective design and organization of programs, and the need for adequate resources. Annexes look at Indonesia's provincial development program, China's "production responsibility" system, and Tunisia's deconcentration program.
Stock No. WP 0581. $5.

Development Strategies in Semi-Industrial Economies
Bela Balassa and Associates
Provides an analysis of development strategies in semi-industrial economies that have established an industrial base. Endeavors to quantify the systems of incentives that are applied in six semi-industrial developing economies—Argentina, Colombia, Israel, Korea, Singapore, and Taiwan—and to indicate the effects of these systems on the allocation of resources, international trade, and economic growth.
Stock Nos. JH 2569, $39.95 hardcover; JH 2570, $18.50 paperback.

Eastern and Southern Africa: Past Trends and Future Prospects
Ravi Gulhati
Stock No. WP 0413. $3.

Economic Growth and Human Resources
Norman Hicks, assisted by Jahangir Boroumand
Staff Working Paper No. 408. 1980. 40 pages (including 3 appendixes, bibliography, and references).
Stock No. WP 0408. $3.

Economic Reform in Socialist Countries: The Experiences of China, Hungary, Romania, and Yugoslavia
Peter T. Knight
Describes the Soviet-style system of centralized planning as a prelude to an in-depth discussion of reform design as experienced in China, Hungary, Romania, and Yugoslavia. Some lessons from the reform of these countries are noted as possibly relevant to future attempts at improving the efficiency of both of socialist economies and state sectors of mixed economies.

The Extent of Poverty in Latin America
Oscar Altimir

Prices subject to change without notice and may vary by country.
Implementing Programs of Human Development
Edited by Peter T. Knight; prepared by Nat J. Colleta, Jacob Meerman, and others.
Stock No. WP 0403. $15.

International Technology Transfer: Issues and Policy Options
Frances Stewart
Stock No. WP 0344. $5.

Managing Project-Related Technical Assistance: The Lessons of Success
Francis Lethem and Lauren Cooper
Practical guidance for technical assistance designers and appraisers based on feedback from aid agencies and technical assistance recipients in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East who participated in successful projects. Planners and practitioners will benefit from the proven advice in this report. Covers identification of need, design of services and administration, implementation and management of technical assistance.

First Things First: Meeting Basic Human Needs in the Developing Countries
Paul Streeten, with Shahid Javed Burki, Mahbub ul Haq, Norman Hicks, and Frances Stewart
The basic needs approach to economic development is one way of helping the poor emerge from their poverty. It enables them to earn or obtain the necessities for life—nutrition, housing, water and sanitation, education, and health—and thus to increase their productivity. This book answers the critics of the basic needs approach, views this approach as a logical step in the evolution of economic analysis and development policy, and presents a clear-sighted interpretation of the issues. Based on the actual experience of various countries—their successes and failures—the book is a distillation of World Bank studies of the operational implications of meeting basic needs. It also discusses the presumed conflict between economic growth and basic needs, the relation between the New International Economic Order and basic needs, and the relation between human rights and basic needs.
Stock Nos. OX 520368, $18.95 hardcover; OX 520369, $8.95 paperback.

The Japanese and Korean Experiences in Managing Development
Miyohesi Shinohara, Toru Yanagihara, and Kwang Suk Kim
The special style of economic management that has produced the "economic miracles" of these two countries is analyzed. Of particular interest are inferences about the power of prices and role of competition, both internal and external. Korean and Japanese economic management are characterized as pragmatic and flexible.

Levels of Poverty: Policy and Change
Amartya Sen
Stock No. WP 0401. $3.

The Hungarian Economic Reform, 1968-81
Bela Balassa
Staff Working Paper No. 506. 1982. 31 pages (including references).
Stock No. WP 0506. $3.

Managing the Public Service in Developing Countries: Issues and Prospects
Selcuk Ozgediz
Identifies better ways to manage human resources to meet escalating demand for improved public services in developing countries, where public service employment is growing four times faster than in developed countries. Resultant problems in personnel management, public service training programs, and the applicability of western management practices in developing country settings are considered.

Models of Growth and Distribution for Brazil
Lance Taylor, Edmar L. Bacha, Eliana Cardoso, and Frank J. Lysy
Explores the Brazilian experience from the point of view of political economy and computable general equilibrium income distribution models.
Oxford University Press, 1980. 368 pages (including references, appendices, index).
Stock Nos. OX 520206, $27.50 hardcover; OX 520207, $14.95 paperback.

Patterns of Development, 1950-1970
Hollis Chenery and Moises Syrquin
A comprehensive interpretation of the
structural changes that accompany the growth of developing countries, using cross-section and time-series analysis to study the stability of observed patterns and the nature of time trends.


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**Pioneers in Development**

Edited by Gerald M. Meier and Dudley Seers


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**Planning in Developing Countries: Lessons of Experience**

Ramgopal Agarwala


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**NEW**

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Glynn Cochrane

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A retrospective look at Chenery's thought and writing over the past two decades and an extension of his work in Redistribution with Growth and Patterns of Development. Develops a set of techniques for analyzing structural changes and applies them to some major problems of developing countries today.
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1982, 118 pages (including 7 annexes, bibliography).

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