



# Services for Rural Development

Sector Project "Knowledge Systems in Rural Areas"



## Reader: Rural Training

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## 1. Introduction

In developing countries and emerging economies up to 80% of the total population and 75% of the absolutely poor live in rural areas. Rural population often have to cope with natural disasters, fragile infrastructure and limited access to the economic growth of their states. These limitations make the diversification of income generating activities (beyond agricultural production) of farm households, small and micro-entrepreneurs and self-help groups imperatively. One central pre-condition for employment is education and training which directly improves chances for income generation.

According to the respective state of economic development, qualification needs are different. In rural Africa with low prices for agricultural products and stagnant productivity, diversifying the sources of income through small income generating activities outside of the agricultural production is often the only way to overcome extreme poverty. In Latin America, the trend is to integrate agricultural production into more comprehensive production chains. Economic promotion in rural areas often strives to strengthen economic clusters, opening up new chances for the rural population. A similar trend can be observed in parts of Asia with attempts to include rural areas in economic reform processes. In Eastern Europe the extreme and narrow specialization of former kolkhoz employees requires further training and re-training to prevent the further growth of a new poor rural population.

Skills and knowledge, as important location factors do not only influence the national and international competitiveness of labour, production facilities, economic sectors and regions, but also play an important part in the distribution of income and the chances of individuals to contribute to economic growth. In many developing countries and emerging economies, opportunities for training tend to be situated in urban areas, industrial production and parts of the service sector and they are often geared towards higher education rather than towards employment or self-employment. Entry requirements, duration and the place where training is offered tend to be rigid. Financing this type of training has turned into a problem even in industrialized countries and especially in economic sectors where private stakeholders are not prepared to take over a major share of training provision and costs. For these reasons, traditional forms of formal training tend to remain closed off to

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rural target groups.

All methods of providing information or advice as well as imparting knowledge include aspects of training. When distinguishing it from rather selective and specific problem solving approaches or from general education, training provides opportunities for applicable long-term relevant options for improving the quality of rural livelihoods.

### 2. Specific Context of Rural Training

Looking at training in a broader context of framing conditions and linking it with other services is a general rule for creating an impact on rural families' livelihood. This becomes even more important in cases where rural areas are remote and where a win-win situation for both, the rural population and possible service providers is not evident at the first glance.

Training in rural areas for rural target groups needs to deal with constraints like low population density, long distances between farms and villages or huge catchment areas with socially or culturally inhomogeneous population structures.

Where formal training is offered, it predominantly falls under the responsibility of the respective sector Ministry (e.g. Ministry of Agriculture), which is in charge of regulatory issues and is often the sole formal training delivery agent. Even in most of these cases, little emphasis is put on regulating training for and with target groups in rural areas. Non-formal training for rural target groups is slowly gaining the attention of policy makers especially in countries where donors and development banks were or are pushing the development of Poverty Reduction Strategies or Sector-Wide Approaches. In these cases, interest at policy level in non-formal training for rural areas and with rural target groups is high and private NGO initiatives are finding a supportive climate for their operations or even government support and co-ownership by government.

Related sector policies (e.g. on micro finance, on small enterprise development, on rural development etc.) or other sectors strategic plans (e.g. Five-Year Plans as drawn up in many countries) are sometimes making reference to training in rural areas or for rural target groups or can serve as reference points when it comes to a policy dialogue with national or provincial government (e.g. five-year handicraft plan in Rwanda).

In a growing number of countries, a tendency can be observed to create multi-stakeholder Training Authorities to take over regulatory functions (like the development and implementation of training standards, assessment, certification and accreditation procedures and the quality control of training providers) and to bring all sector-specific training under the umbrella of these Training Authorities (e.g. South Africa, Uganda, Laos, Bhutan).

### 3. Strategies and Concepts of Rural Training

#### 3.1. Overview of Strategies and Measures of Rural Training

The selection of strategies and concepts depends on the ability to learn (e.g. according to individual social and economic pre-conditions or cultural aspects) and the content of learning. Following strategies and related measures generally exists for rural training. The *table 1* might suggest certain rigidity in what strategies and concepts to use under which conditions. Therefore, it is important to clarify: Especially in remote rural areas, flexibility is the trump card and everything should be considered possible, as long as it leads to the desired impact.

In order to have the desired impact on peoples' living conditions, non-formal skills development (not aiming at career of higher education), but as well formal training needs links to other services supporting sustainable gainful employment and self-employment, such as micro-credit schemes or business development services (see for example BAFIS Laos). These services are either provided to graduates of courses or programmes or are, to a limited extent, available for students carrying out their own projects during training.

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In some cases, training is interlinked with community development activities in order to deepen the students' roots in their original environment.

*Table 1: Strategies and Concepts of Rural Training*

Strategies	Concepts	Target groups	When and where best applicable?
<p><b>Community-based training</b></p> <p>→ Rural Training Networks e.g. CMR Ivory Coast, BAFIS Laos</p> <p>→ Linked local learning from farmer to farmer (peer learning e.g. through mutual visits)</p>	<p>Short courses based on individual or small groups needs, often combined with study tours (to a farm, next village etc). Design, coordination and implementation predominantly through trained locals according to the changing needs of target groups.</p>	<p>Everybody who wants to improve his/her living conditions</p>	<p>Very remote rural areas with little/no access to (basic) education.</p> <p>Improvement of subsistence conditions and creation of first links to market economies.</p>
<p><b>Alternate center - farm non-formal training</b></p> <p>(e.g. "Escuelas de la Familia Agrícola", Misiones, Argentina or similar in Nicaragua) and non-formal apprenticeship schemes.</p>	<p>Mostly modularized and time-based longer-term training. Follows the cycles of (agricultural) seasons and mostly includes agricultural production, basic entrepreneur and farm management aspects and consequently literacy and numeracy).</p>	<p>Young adults with or without basic education coming from families which own land or are working on land permanently</p>	<p>Rural areas with considerable number of small-holders with little access to basic education. Market access for agricultural or processed products exists</p>
<p><b>Center-based non-formal training</b></p> <p>(e.g. BAFIS Laos).</p>	<p>Mostly short courses on topics which need the basic infrastructure of a center (e.g. training on food processing under hygienic conditions).</p>	<p>Everybody who wants to improve his/her living conditions</p>	<p>Rural areas with basic road infrastructure and certain population density. Multi-purpose centers for formal training and other purposes.</p>
<p><b>Integrated approaches,</b> linking formal and non-formal training (centre-based, alternate training and training types which are not bound to a certain place)</p>	<p>Leading ad-hoc designed short-term training courses into formally training programmes with horizontal and/or vertical articulation and officially recognized certification and access to higher education. Modular, often competency-based approaches, e.g. GTZ supported Skill Development Initiative South Africa and BAFIS</p>	<p>Everybody regardless of prior learning success. Based on (official) recognition of prior learning.</p>	<p>Interest at the policy level of governments is a pre-condition. As these approaches tend to be complex, institutional capacities at regulatory and implementing organizations have to be existent or</p>

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	Laos.		developed during implementation.
<b>Formal centre-based or apprenticeship schemes</b> (Morocco) or alternate (centre-farm) training (CEPT Argentina)	Long-term, mostly time-based and occupation-oriented training, sometimes including periods of students' projects, (basic) farm management and entrepreneurial aspects. Certificates officially recognized; often allow access to higher levels of education / training.	Youth, young adults with formal primary or secondary education completed.	Centre needs access to land for doing the practical training. Cater for the needs of small farmers with economic growth potential and medium-sized to big farm establishments. Pre-condition: Government interest

### 3.2. Needs Assessment of Rural Training

Clarity about knowledge and skills needs of rural people is essential for selecting the proper concepts and strategies. The appropriate manner for assessing these needs largely determines the usefulness of the information collected. To a much bigger extent than in urban and industrialized environments, families or clans build production units. They are an important source for any needs analysis. Local producer groups or rural communities are playing a similar role when it comes to determining needs for training which enables individuals to make a living in their rural environment.

A convincing assessment of training needs requires a strategy looking as much at the needs perceived by individuals and groups as at the skills, abilities or attitudes necessary to perform in economic sector with a development potential. Methodologies used differ and are often not documented in a way which allows easy access for other interested users. Quite some projects are using elements of the participatory rural appraisal tool box or refer to other methods of participatory action research. Others are relying on personal interviews with individual or groups especially in remote areas where communities are small or almost non-existent. In order to check individually perceived training needs against market conditions, the BAFIS project (Laos) uses a combination of interviews in local communities and surveys of goods and labour markets.

For long-term structured training, DACUM (acronym for developing a curriculum developed by the Ohio State University consisting of a storyboarding process), strictly adapted to local conditions, seems to become an attractive instrument not only for curriculum development, but as well for assessing skills needed to perform in a specific job in a quick and structured way. It involves the "experts in the field" and builds on what a person does in terms of duties and tasks. A further step of identifying knowledge, skills and traits needed has to be added to the original version in order to make it a target group-driven instrument. In a simplified and adapted form, this tool might well fit into the "participatory rural appraisal" tool box.

The peoples' immediate environments is mostly used as the "point of departure" for assessments aiming at identifying needs for training which allows people to stay in their rural environment. Training aspects being considered are:

- How to broaden and strengthen the subsistence basis (diversification);
- How to reduce the dependence from agricultural production only;
- How to become and remain part of the market economy.

For designing and carrying out need assessments it is important to keep in mind that people in rural areas don't need occupation-oriented training only. More often they need to compensate for lacks in basic education (literacy, numeracy etc.) in order to make technical and entrepreneurial skills relevant for income

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generation. These needs have to be equally assessed, and close cooperation with governmental and non-governmental actors in the field of education might be sought.

Most projects emphasize the importance of moderators or needs assessment specialists coming from the same social environment and talking the language of the potential trainees. In some instances, these moderators are specially trained community members (e.g. Ivory Coast) or trainers (e.g. Laos and Argentina). In all cases, special professional training for the moderators is necessary. Needs assessment should be a continuous process: New needs arise while students are carrying out small projects and slowly move away from agricultural production issues to the necessities of e.g. entrepreneurial behaviour or marketing. In these cases, it is advisable to link needs assessment and tracer studies, as the latter provide valuable inputs on requirements for further training or re-training. Needs assessments and tracer studies are important elements of quality management.

### **3.3. Converting Needs Assessment Results into Training Curricula**

The results of needs assessment have to be converted into training delivery. This means for example the development of training standards or occupational profiles which need to be translated into curricula and syllabi. Achievements should be checked against set benchmarks through assessments like tests or examinations. Completing their training, trainees often receive a certificate to prove that knowledge, abilities or attitudes have been acquired. In the case of competency-based approaches a certificate proves that the ex-trainee is able to perform a set of tasks.

**Formal training** is mostly done according to set profiles or training standards and doesn't vary much over the years. In some instances, centres are using a mix of set curricula to meet the requirements of government certificates for their trainees and flexible, strictly need-based curricula adapting training to agricultural and non-agricultural topics of relevance for the respective area or target group. Methodologies used for the development of profiles or standards and curricula are the same as for other technical training. Where competency (output or performance) based training is being introduced, DACUM seems to be a widely recognized technique. The structure and strategies for testing and examinations don't vary from those used in other technical training. In some cases, the assessment and recognition of prior learning – irrespectively of the way it had been done – provides an entry door from non-formal to formal training and herewith the chance for learners to progress vertically to higher levels of training and education.

In **Non-formal training** the demand-orientation of needs is crucial. This leads sometimes to a situation where curricula are developed ad-hoc, and the flexible inclusion or exclusion of subjects in the course of training is a must. This requires flexibility on the training material side, e.g. through the development of Training Material Packages which can be arranged at short notice. Another way to deal with changing needs of inhomogeneous target groups is to prepare small modules (each up to 3 hours) which can be combined flexibly and are either part of the "standard repertoire" of all trainers or can be bought-in easily. In other cases, training plans developed between trainees and trainers substitute more elaborate curricula herewith guaranteeing that the contents and methodologies are adequate for both and that the learners' group remains the owner of the learning process. Non-formal training is often carried out by experienced practitioners with little formally recognized education. Curricula and training materials have to take this into account responding to the needs of the students as well as paying attention to the potential and capabilities of the respective trainers. Next to the development of technical, business, entrepreneurial or management skills non-formal training programmes strive for the empowerment of individuals or groups by developing key qualifications like problem solving, communication or self-organized learning and elements of functional literacy and numeracy. A frequently used methodology paying attention to the resulting complexity is the planning, implementation and evaluation of real-life projects by the students, guided by trainers.

Formal assessments of knowledge, abilities or competencies required are often replaced by the evaluation of these learner projects' successes. These are as well opportunities to define further needs of training necessary to improve the performance. Another way of assessing the outcome of training is skills competitions or innovation competitions where individuals or groups compete according to set criteria.

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Non-formal assessment in the form of the assessor's or even the trainee's perception of progress is equally important.

Certificates are the critical issue of most non-formal training: Whereas the organizers tend to consider them as superfluous (as trainees might be tempted to train for the sake of a certificate and not for a real-life application), trainees all over the world tend to value training without certificate less than the one which leads to a recognition of success in writing. Many of them have to compete in societies which are highly relying on written proofs, or they simply appreciate this form of expressing recognition that the trainee has performed well. There seems to be a growing tendency to issue certificates, and in cases where a certain non-formal training measure has gained a good reputation with local employers, credit institutions etc., this recognition of the trainee's success might be even more useful than an official certificate issued by a government institution and recognized country-wide.

Organizing training along production chains might, in many instances, call for a mix of formal and non-formal training. In any case, a relatively formal curricula approach might be useful in order to secure the knowledge, abilities and attitudes required along the whole line of production and commercialization of goods. Methodologies as mentioned above under "formal training", adapted to local conditions, might give the desired results.

### **3.4. Organization of Training Delivery**

Different modes of training delivery are requiring their respective suitable organizational structures. Organizational set-ups of training could be centre-based or non centre-based and often requires the involvement of the government or other relevant stakeholders.

#### **3.4.1. Centre-based Training**

Centre-based training requires the management of permanent staff for training delivery, administration and support services as well as the establishment and maintenance of the necessary infrastructure like buildings (often including hostels), land and equipment. Next to a number of trainers permanently employed to cover the standard curricula, trainers are often contracted as and when required for special courses or to cope with peak numbers of trainees. Fixed costs for permanent staff, maintenance of buildings and equipment are major challenges for the management, which has to seek for capacity utilization strategies allowing for cost-effective ways of running the centre. In most cases, the pressure on cost-effectiveness is higher on privately or corporately run centres.

Especially centres delivering formal training depend on government and organize delivery of training only. They receive standard curricula and have to stick to testing and/or examination procedures which are not always appropriate to the realities in their region. In this case, the risk of trainers and centre management to lose contact with the needs of target groups and economic sectors is high: Some centres try to prevent this by sending staff out for tracer studies or for delivering extension services to farmers. Many centres delivering partly or exclusively non-formal training have their own units for needs assessment, curricula development, course design and testing / examination issues or relate closely to respective government institutions, which use their inputs for curriculum and course development or approval of short and longer-term courses. Where training centres share responsibilities for training delivery with farmers, the risk of losing contact with the reality on the farm is reduced. This shared responsibility is properly reflected in implementation (e.g. joint committees for examinations or for course modification) and management structures (e.g. boards) and as long as the trainers are obliged to work with the farmers, e.g. by supervising the trainees on the farm or by offering advisory services to the farmers (often the trainee's parents).

#### **3.4.2. Non Centre-based Training**

In cases where predominantly non-formal training is offered in villages or on the production side, it is mostly organized from the stage of target group identification and course design up to implementation and follow-ups. Training providers are often organized as foundations or trusts and are mostly non-profit organizations. Many of them work with a slim set-up of a (permanent and centralized) core staff for

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management, administration and quality assurance in training design and delivery, and employ permanent field staff to facilitate and structure the self-organization of learner groups in communities. Field staff is mostly community members or are at least coming from the same area as the target groups for training (e.g. Projovem Brazil and CRM Ivory Coast). Trainers are contracted as and when required according to the type of training to be delivered. Formally trained trainers (graduates of a teachers' training) are rather the exemption; more importance is attached to their integration in the cultural setting and their expertise in the respective training subject.

In some cases, self-organization is driven to the extent that learner groups form their own associations in a rather "bottom-up approach", organize their training independently and only relate to the central unit for special services. Networking among these associations plays a key role (CMR Ivory Coast). Most initiatives following this principle are facing the challenge of ownership considering the question to what extent are the learner groups determining what is happening in training and what is the role of the central unit.

### **3.4.3. Government Involvement in Training**

Except for cases where government takes the role of a regulatory and implementing body (Morocco), government involvement tends to be strong and supportive where there is interest in bridging the gap between formal and non-formal training and create and follow an integrated training policy (e.g. CMR Ivory Coast and BAFIS / Laos). There is little evidence in governments restricting initiatives in rural skills development (other than by general regulations which hamper NGO or private sector activities), as this is, in most countries, an area not well covered by government-driven training activities.

Most formal training centres have to recruit their trainers through government, which in many cases leaves them little influence on the selection of candidates. As this implies as well the adherence to the generally very low government salaries, the implications in terms of staff motivation and qualification are often critical. There are as well cases of training centres exclusively or partly delivering non-formal training to seek government assistance in providing (and paying the salaries for) trainers. The consequences of this step in terms of flexibility in training design and delivery can be severe, depending on the further conditions imposed by government when responding to this demand.

### **3.4.4. Other Stakeholder Involvement in Training**

Families and villages are important stakeholders for training in remote rural areas. The "path to prosperity", encompassing as well asset creation or producing a tradable surplus, starts there. In many cases, the family's farm is the only asset to depart from when broadening the basis for income generation and, at the same time, is providing the field for practical training. Strengthening communities by letting them decide on skills and knowledge relevant for better surviving in their specific environment or opening up ways of marketing surpluses is the key for preventing migration. This can only be successful by respecting traditional social structures and involving e.g. village chiefs or shamans, asking them for advice and leadership in setting up new initiatives (e.g. CRM Ivory Coast). Next to the ownership and relevance aspects, the learner group approach ensures that families and communities contribute important resources to make training happening like shelter for trainees, a sheltered venue where training can take place, food for trainees and trainers and their time in designing and monitoring the training (e.g. BAFIS). Other than in urban settings sector associations tend to play a relatively insignificant role in most rural training initiatives except for rural areas with good access to national and international markets. In remote areas, farmers are rarely organized, and these associations are having special focuses, e.g. campaigning against expropriation or securing ownership of land.

## **4. Funding of Rural Training**

Even basic skills development initiatives cannot be offered on a cost-recovery basis as they are catering, especially in rural areas, for vulnerable target groups, which often are trying hard to guarantee their subsistence. As training for rural target groups is not in the limelight of public attention the specific

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challenge for training providers in rural areas is to combine different mechanisms and to be inventive and innovative in accessing untapped resources. Funding of training is mainly done in the following ways collected in table 2.

*Table 2: Funding of Rural Training*

<b>Procedure</b>	<b>Advantages and disadvantages</b>
<b>Budget provision</b> according to <b>inputs</b> (e.g. salaries, maintenance, investments) considered to be necessary to run training.	+ security for providers. - no incentives for efficiency.
<b>Budget provision</b> according to <b>output</b> of training (e.g. number of students at a certain time, graduates, or self employed ex-trainees)	+ cost-efficiency. - tendency to exclude "weak" students. Pre-requisite: external M&E.
<b>Tendering</b> : Government or private parties invite training providers to compete for designing and implementing training delivery.	+ cost-effectiveness - needs capacity for organizing and quality control. Pre-requisite: effective M&E system in place
<b>Voucher systems</b> : Trainees receive vouchers and buy training to their choice.	+ influence on access for target groups. + competition between providers. - training market often not transparent.
<b>Loans or grants</b> for accessing training.	+ when specific target groups are addressed: can positively influence equity issues - loans are usually for the better-off. Pre-requisite: Bank to administer loans and grants as experience proofs management by non-financial institutions to be difficult.
<b>Matching grants</b> : The training contribution a provider can raise elsewhere is matched by a government grant of the same or a smaller size.	Pre-conditions: Government interest in what the training provider is doing. Needs an M&E system on the government side. Risks: The matching grant might come with conditions, which influence the flexibility to offer training negatively.
<b>Revolving fund</b> : A credit or donation used for developing and selling e.g. training courses or training materials in areas of demand and of purchasing power available. The income generated returns to the fund.	+ helps to get new products started without fully depending on sponsoring. - absorbs management capacities at the training institution (monitoring).
<b>Training incentives</b> to farmers or local companies in the form of tax rebates, reimbursement of training costs (both by government) or by offering collateral services like advice or counselling.	+ help to secure training on the work place. + work towards the sustainability of income generation at farms - tax rebates and reimbursement of training costs work with formal enterprises only.
<b>Cost recovery</b> and other income generation by training providers: Training fees, renting out venues or equipment, selling training materials or having their staff contracted by third parties for assignments, extension services, "selling" training or concepts to donor agencies etc.	+ boosts cost-effectiveness. + creates entrepreneurial spirit within institution. - When combined with other funding mechanisms: Needs separate management and accounting - balance of economic and training interests difficult to maintain. Pre-requisites: Financial autonomy or clear regulation on use of income generated by the training provider. The institutions training mandate to be prior. Transparent accounting procedures.

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Cost-consciousness is a critical issue especially with government providers, aspects like monitoring their costs per trainee or calculating development costs for new courses are paid little attention to. A course package for entrepreneurial management of training institutions seems to raise awareness and offer some solution to this problem. A good example for efficient costing and monitoring of costs provides Projovem Brazil (Projovem / Brazil). Useful principles for keeping cost aspects in mind are set by CMR / Ivory Coast, where e.g. trainees are asked to design their own training projects and submit them for funding. Most non-government centre- and non-centre-based training providers raise some sort of (at least nominal) fees for training. In many cases, these fees can be paid in kind or through doing some work for the training provider (e.g. BAFIS and CRM Ivory Coast).

### **5. Qualification of Trainers**

The profile of trainers differs with their role in training: Whereas permanent training staff in centres are predominantly tasked to make a change in skills, knowledge or attitudes of their trainees by sticking to pre-fabricated curricula and – in the case of formal training – ensuring that set training standards are met, organizations providing non centre-based training seem to look rather for "jacks of all trades": persons who combine technical expertise with good facilitation, communication and leadership skills, know about project planning and implementation, are able to flexibly develop and carry out training plans and do the respective monitoring. Most formal training centres (government as well as private ones) have to recruit their trainers through government, which in many cases leaves them little influence on the selection of candidates. As this implies as well the adherence to the generally very low government salaries, the implications in terms of staff motivation and qualification are often critical. There are as well cases of training centres exclusively or partly delivering non-formal training seeking government assistance in providing (and paying the salaries for) trainers. The consequences of this step in terms of flexibility in training design and delivery can be severe, depending on the conditions imposed by government when responding to this demand. In many countries, standard training of trainer (ToT) courses, mostly geared towards methodological aspects, are offered by government or private institutions and in some instances, centres are obliged to send their staff (especially when offering formal training). Little is known on the impact of these rather unspecific capacity building measures. Some centres expect their trainers to work part-time as extension officers, thus helping to assure that they keep in touch with real life on the farms. Capacity building for trainers who deal, at centres, with target groups in rural areas seems largely to depend on the availability of funds (often donor programmes) and the degree of demand orientation of the centre or the degree stakeholder groups (e.g. communities, farmers' associations or the trainees' families) are participating in decision-making. The situation of staff development in centre-based formal and non-formal training is better in countries where government takes an active interest in linking formal and non-formal training and is formulating respective policies and strategies for upgrading trainers (e.g. BAFIS). In these cases, rural areas are slowly moving towards the focus of attention. Next to specifically developed ToT programmes, there is for example „tandem or group or mentoring approaches", attaching less experienced training staff to more experienced colleagues or forming teams for counselling and supervision. Management training needs are similar to those of urban-based training centres regarding management of budgets / funds and personnel. In many instances, capacity building could be done jointly. Non centre-based, non-formal training initiatives, which are running individually developed training concepts, have to consciously think about the profile of their training staff. What counts first, is a solid "anchorage" in the respective social context, to be in good standing with traditional and modern authorities and the ability to gain and maintain acceptance with the local stakeholders and target groups. Formal schooling requirements are mostly ranking low. As these "development agents" were often never exposed to structured training situations, capacity building for staff is ranking high on the priority list of most non centre-based training initiatives. Besides structured introductions and further training courses (including methodologies like "micro-teaching" or subjects like moderation techniques and conflict management), peer counselling, supervision and mentorship programmes are applied. In many cases, individual staff development plans are developed and monitored. Generally, the budget share going into staff

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development seems to be higher than in training centres, especially the ones doing formal training. Management structures are, in most cases, very slim. This calls for individually designed management training measures.

### **6. Quality Management of Training**

There is evidence that many training providers do some sort of output monitoring. Most formal training providers see, for example, the results trainees are achieving at examinations or tests as an important element of their monitoring procedures. Where training standards exist, this training is mostly being evaluated against these standards. Certification of training providers is another instrument used to ensure quality training delivery (e.g. CMR, Ivory Coast). In some cases, trainers are being certified according to internally developed occupational standards. Where trainees are working on own real-life projects, monitoring and final evaluations of the outcome or impact are often built in as an element of training. Site visits by trainers (e.g. on farms in the case of alternate or apprenticeship training) or supervision of training lessons by peers or superiors are other elements used in the process of training to monitor quality. There are also cases where external consultants are hired to do an evaluation on site (e.g. Projovem / Brazil).

The international discussion on impact monitoring has progressed considerably over the past few years. It is now widely accepted that it is nearly impossible to measure a single project's contribution to higher aggregated development levels. It is also impossible to construct and observe a 'parallel universe' without the project's intervention. It is believed to be plausible that training, even if it addresses immediate needs is generally one of the development interventions with a very far 'impact horizon'. Nevertheless, there are different tested procedures in place for contributing towards a meaningful outcome (e.g. the use persons are making of training) or impact monitoring. The results of a range of case studies emerges the following aspects:

- Only few training providers seem to carry out tracer studies being done in order to check on the ex-trainees' whereabouts and their obvious or perceived changes through training. An exemption from this is BAFIS / Laos and Morocco.
- Some providers use the methodology of project-related training to introduce impact indicators to their students and have them evaluate the desired impacts themselves.
- Where participatory rural appraisal methods are used, the picture created of e.g. a village, created at the beginning of a training intervention, can be used, years later, to measure the impact of this training. However, this requires to develop, from the beginning, indicators which clearly refer to the change training is supposed to make (e.g. CMR, Ivory Coast).
- Especially some non centre-based training initiatives are working with self-evaluation and reflection methodologies building on target groups' impressions of changes created through a specific training.