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Michiel S. de Vries • Geert Bouckaert
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I. Abstract

Governments have made on-going investments to maintain and improve their civil servants' mastery of their policy leadership functions. In addition to the remedial aspects of education and training, more proactive activities have been organised in order to upgrade the competence levels and enlargement of the skill sets of the civil servants to prepare them for redeployment in the multi-tasking job environments of the 21st century.

Despite constant improvements of the instructional process of training and despite the establishment of "Standards of Excellence in the Public Administration Education and Training" (2008) and the development of accreditation schemes at the institution and programme level, results of these efforts in improving training at the in-service training institutions (ISTIs) show limited outcome in terms of institutional performance improvement (Yiu & Saner, 2009).

Leadership development needs to be embedded within the larger contextual frame of a government's overall strategy and social contract. A stakeholder-based approach is necessary to increase the relevance of leadership development programmes. Ownership and engagement of the primary stakeholders of such training programmes requires additional management and staff time and resources at the ISTIs.

This chapter introduces a quality assurance dimension, which is not sufficiently addressed by the Standards of Excellence for Public Administration and Education (2008). The authors describe the benefits of applying the ISO 10015 Standard for Training. This standard ensures efficient organisation of the learning process but also shows that successful training requires stakeholder involvement in the training of proper governance processes and a close alignment between leadership competence and the country's development strategy.

2. Challenges in Human Capital Formation through Training within Governments

Governments rely on the appropriate application of knowledge, skills, and abilities of their employees to produce goods and services efficiently, effectively, and responsively. "As governments modify their employees' responsibilities to fit the increasingly interdependent world, and as they increasingly face competition from non-governmental service providers, they must ensure continuous renewal of their employees' competencies. Training is (also) increasingly important for sub-national and local government entities that must cope with rising expectations of their citizens/customers following the decentralization and restructuring of recent years (Asian Development Bank, 2000).

The digitalized world has created additional new challenges for public administrations who have to regulate and steer the use of this virtual public space. The need for upgrading the internet literacy and related competence of the civil servants across all spectra of responsibility has increased, in addition to the traditional personnel concerns for succession planning, performance improvement and other leadership development topics in the public administration.

The causal link of training -> capacity building -> performance improvement of the civil service/public administration has been taken too much for granted. Traditional approaches to training have relied on four general assumptions:

Assumption 1: Acquisition of knowledge leads to action.

Assumption 2: Participants learn from what trainers teach.

Assumption 3: It is possible to simulate "real work situations" in the classroom.

Assumption 4: Transfer of learning is the individual trainees' responsibility.

These four assumptions are problematic and remain untested. They fail to take into account changing individual motivation, the ever-changing nature of “work” and work environments, resource constraints and organizational culture and norms. All these factors intervene whenever knowledge is to be translated into action. This is very much the case for leadership training.

In-Service Training Institutes (ISTIs) rarely consider it as part of their routine tasks to ask questions like, “How will the trainees transfer their learning to their job site? What support might they need in order to apply or practice their learning at work? What kind of learning partnerships are needed with the sponsor and other stakeholders to make change happen at different performance levels, i.e., personal, team, and organizational? To what extent is learning captured at the work place?”

3. Research Evidence

Studies abound which show that this causal link needs to be reviewed closely and necessarily institutional conditions need to be put in place to make the traditional training formula work (UNDP/IASIA, 2007). Lack of close alignment between the training programmes and the actual work demands and institutional strategy has affected the design of the training curriculum and choice of training modality. Inadequate attention to these links and interdependencies has resulted in difficulties in transferring learning to the workplace and in meeting changing performance criteria triggered by globalization and the digital revolution.

In a comparative study of 15 countries and regions¹⁰ Saner, Strehl & Yiu (1997) found support for this observation. Some of their key findings were:

- In-service training is neither sufficiently needs or demand oriented, nor does it reflect day-to-day best practice. None of the countries reported a *systematic training needs analysis* (italics added).
- Systematic development of target group oriented training... is not being undertaken in most of the countries studied.
- Traditional administrative culture and attitudes (are) a hindrance to a modern utilization of training. *In-service* training is often seen as remedial, sometimes even as punitive-corrective. Such traditional views and hierarchical defensiveness result in an under-representation

10. Countries included in this study are: Algeria, Austria, Cameroon, Canada, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Italy, Lithuania, Mexico, Quebec, Slovenia and Switzerland.

of the *officials from the upper hierarchies* who prefer not to be seen as being “in need of training”. This in turn leads to information gaps and insufficient readiness by top management to support the application of new skills and knowledge to the workplace by *middle and junior staff* (italic added).

- Interrelationships between training and change or vice versa are not analysed to a sufficient degree in order to be a fruitful basis for a training programme design.
- No clear and unanimous interrelation between training and *organizational* change can be identified... Training may or may not lead to organizational change; however, it may lead to change on the level of individual job positions or within a department by means of different skills, competencies, views or perceptions acquired by the trainees. As such in-service training is a contribution to small, incremental, non-systematic change. Even planned change is rarely accompanied by training programmes fitting the change process and performance goals.

Lack of a demand-driven orientation and little contribution to learning content by user/sponsors and trainees have limited the “learning effect” at organizational level. The ISTIs have not established a standardized work method or procedures which would allow them to interact with the stakeholders of their programmes, before, during and after the training process.

This lack of systematic feedback from their “external” stakeholders (e.g., managers of the trainees, senior management of the services, politicians, citizen/customers, etc.) inhibits continuous improvements and innovations of on-going practices. These shortcomings were not restricted to the countries studied by Saner, Strehl & Yiu (1997). Instead, similar conclusions were found in many of the in-service training programmes of most countries today.

The findings of Saner, Strehl & Yiu pointed to a general weakness of the ISTIs in their training management orientation and a lack of institutionalized quality assurance system, both in terms of a quality framework and related management instruments. (Their research methodology can be seen in Annex 1). ISTIs have not been explicitly asked by their political leaders to be accountable for results at the collective level, nor have they been measured against such outcomes. Training evaluation rarely goes beyond “happy scale feedback sheets” reflecting the level of satisfaction of the trainees with the course, but not the actual use of learning on the job. As a result, ISTIs continue with what they are accustomed to provide, namely generic education of a universal nature and a focus on individual learning and individual career trajectory.

These conclusions are even more alarming when one considers the goal and objectives of leadership training, especially at the senior level.

After all, training of senior civil servants is intended to equip them to lead the development/change processes within the public administration. If the training and competence development of these leaders do not lead to desired results, i.e., institutional performance improvement in public service delivery, then what else can be done to improve competence levels of future leaders?

In a comparative study which examined the use of training for public administrative reform in different CIS states, Luckings (2003) identified five external factors or basic choices, that together shape the form and effectiveness of the civil service training systems. They are:

- sustained political commitment;
- strategic vision to guide the process and avoid pitfalls;
- the goal of a professional career-based civil service to shape the human resource management structures;
- the strength of the financial and human resource base;
- the end-goal of good quality services and good governance.

These five basic choices identified by Luckings can be grouped into two clusters namely, the basic factors which are necessary, but not sufficient and the enabling factors needed to ensure success of a training investment. The basic factors denote the necessary minimum of ISTI’s operating budget. Enabling factors on the other hand, are conditions that allow ISTIs to excel. These clusters of factors are by no means exhaustive. Other factors can be added to capture common and differentiated characteristics of specific ISTIs. Table 1 provides an illustration of these two sets of factors which exert different influences on the performance ability of a ISTI.

Table 1. *A non-exhaustive classification of Basic Factors and Enabling Factors for ISTIs performance (derived from Luckings, 2003)*

Basic Factors	a. financial and human resource base
Enabling Factors	a. professional career-based civil service, b. political commitment, c. strategic vision d. end-goal of good quality services and good governance

These findings suggest that ISTIs need to organize learning beyond their classroom settings and instead go into the work environment of their target groups. They also need to learn advocating for a better performance environment (the “basic factors”). However, without ensuring the “enabling factors”, the best efforts in providing quality leadership training

could be in vain when measured against mid-term and long terms goals of the public administration

4. Demands for Greater Accountability and Institutionalising New Ways of Governance

“Training is still frequently used as a device to avoid unpleasant but necessary personnel decisions, and as a refuge for non-performers. Even when well run, government training programmes are often unrelated to employees’ actual or prospective tasks, giving them new skills that quickly atrophy from lack of use” (*in* “To Serve And To Preserve: Improving Public Administration In A Competitive World”, p. 465)

For a long time, training and education in public administration remained immune to the type of scrutiny that is used in private sector organizations of our societies. This is no longer the case, partly because some of the public services are losing their protected and privileged status, and partly because they are being increasingly held accountable. Education and training are more and more seen as services to be either outsourced to external training providers and be subjected to competition rules. ISTIs are confronted by the call for “value for money” (World Bank, 1996). In other words, ISTIs have to demonstrate ability to “create value” through providing more specific and targeted training products in order to justify the financial contributions that they receive through the state budget. ISTIs are expected to deliver greater impact not only on individual learners but more importantly on the administration itself. These changing performance requirements, from output to outcome, have become mainstream thinking in developed and developing countries alike.

Civil servants at different levels of administration are now increasingly called upon to respond to unscripted situations. These unscripted situations vary from social upheavals and natural disasters, to ethnic strife and reconfiguration of global power structure. Programmed instructions – a term used by Revans (1971) – are no longer adequate to prepare civil servants, especially the ones in leadership positions, to meet their performance requirements.

On-going and targeted training and on-the-job-learning which focus on problem solving and questioning insights (Ravens, 1971, 2011) need to be at the center stage of the training and human capital development in the public sector. Formative education in the Institutes and Schools of Public Administration lays the important foundation for future learning at the

entry level, but conventional class room training alone is far from satisfactory at the middle and senior levels. More interactive learning methods and collective learning platforms are needed to train a greater number of civil servants within a relatively short time span. Reinvestment is needed for majority of the ISTIs to adapt to these new task requirements.

In-service training, especially in the developing countries, continues to be plagued by supply-driven thinking and an ex-cathedra style of lecturing. Programmes are delivered with little attention to the preconditions for their effectiveness. These practices invariably lead to inefficient use of resources and duplication of efforts. According to the Asian Development Bank, government training programmes have been one of the *single largest sources of wasted financial assistance* (italics added) to developing countries (Schiavo-Campo and Sundaram, 2000).

Efforts have been made over the years to improve productivity of the ISTIs, e.g. calling for the use case method (Brinkeroff, 2005) or action learning (Yiu & Saner, 2000), better and responsive instructional design (Wooldridge, date unknown; Gupta, 2007, Dominic & Kessy, 2009), a Critical Event Model which incorporates human performance technology into instruction design (Wooldridge, 1988), greater use of Level 4 evaluation (Brinkerhoff, 2005; Nadler, 1984), and emphasis on non-training related success factors (Chen, Sok & Sok, 2007; Haslinda & Mahyuddin, 2009). These calls for improving training performance cumulated into a Standards of Excellence for Public Administration Education and Training (The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs and International Association of Schools and Institute of Administration, 2008).

5. Innovation Has not Sufficiently addressed deeper layers of System Deficiency & Resistance

Innovations mentioned above have contributed to the better performance of the ISTIs. However, these measures have not gone far enough, especially when it comes to leadership development and training. They remain expert-driven and supply-oriented, looking at the performance of training services from a producer perspective; other than demand-driven and context specific. A Critical Event Method alone, for example, cannot ensure that training in leadership will *always* be closely aligned with the strategic objectives of the client organisation, since it may require on-going surveillance of the training needs and be practiced by all trainers/designers within the same ISTI. Furthermore, these proposals for improving working

methodology or a performance standard, are most of the time not integrated into the day-to-day management practices of the public administration training institutions, despite being recognized as “best practices”. This omission of seeking quality management system interventions to improve training productivity can render ineffective all the investment made in leadership training since leadership is culture sensitive and culture specific (Hofstede¹¹, 2001; Saner & Yiu, 2001; Nair, 2009).

Implementing innovation in government is a complex activity often coming up against various forms of resistance. This challenge of resistance to change can be witnessed in the on-going effort in improving the relevance and quality of higher education in the OECD countries. Lack of transparency in work practices and related pedagogical processes, compounded by the lack of active participation of stakeholder groups, hinder institutional learning and self-directed improvements within higher education institutions. Various well-publicised international rankings of universities had a positive benchmarking effect but provided no process relevant feedback for institutional governance. ISTIs face a similar challenge to implement innovations but with fewer quality assurance instruments than the higher education institutions have at their disposal.

External inputs and feedback from stakeholders offer some impetus for content relevance, higher productivity and effectiveness. However, without mechanisms in place and an operational framework, consultation with stakeholders tends to become pro forma without any real implications for the curriculum, methodology or training evaluation.

A stakeholder-based monitoring system is needed to overcome inertia and to spur sustained effort to improve the results of the leadership development programmes offered by the ISTIs within the public sector. Without a learning partnership shared by the public, elected officials, and public servants with the ISTIs, implementation of any innovation will be difficult and unsustainable, since change inevitably creates both winners and losers. Without rigorous monitoring, entropy sets in when no accountability is asked of the staff and the management of the ISTIs. “Avoiding making mistakes”, and “popularity contest” are no substitutes for good management or good governance, which involves on-going decisions in defining user/beneficiary expectations, granting authority for action, verifying performance and driving continuous improvement.

11. A closer look at the Geert Hofstede Cultural Dimensions and related country scores, can be found at <http://www.geert-hofstede.com/>

6. Need for A Multi-stakeholder based Monitoring System to Ensure Training Quality

A multi-stakeholder based monitoring system can ensure quality, relevance and responsiveness of in-service training. It is needed to ensure on the job behavior change of trainees through application of newly acquired knowledge and skills which in turn ensure an ROI (return on investment) of the in-service training. This multi-stakeholder monitoring system *complements* and *operationalises* the Standards of Excellence for Public Administration Education and Training¹² and takes into account relevant ISO Quality Management principles and other quality assurance systems. It also acknowledges the complex demands confronting the public administration in delivering results. In-service training, especially when it goes beyond the induction and basic training, needs to enhance the senior officials' capability in dealing effectively with their complex working environment and multitude of constituencies/stakeholder groups in modern day societies. Therefore the process leading from problem identification to design and then to evaluation must incorporate the needs and demands of the respective stakeholders as part of the training delivery.

Quality in this stakeholder-based monitoring approach means designing institutionalized mechanisms for consultation, standards of engagement and resource allocation, defined evaluation criteria and standardized operating procedures for alignment and coherence. These measures need to be documented for verifiability and data collected shall form the basis of a training information system for meta analysis and modelling.

7. Conventional Quality Assurance Measures

Quality in the education sector has traditionally been controlled by three common means. First, quality is ensured by tight control of the service provider, be it an individual trainer or a training company. Specific qualification criteria which cover both physical infrastructure and personnel highlight the minimum standards required for accrediting educational and training

12. The institutional criteria for measuring excellence in programme organisation of the Standards require demonstrated use of a Quality Assurance System. "The programme should have an adequate (continuous, circular and comprehensive) and formal quality assurance system (strategy, policy and procedures) in which the involvement of relevant stakeholders is assured. The output of this system should be publicly available. (p. 7)

institution to operate. In a similar vein, many governments have explicit licensing schemes to qualify individual faculty members and educators.

The second measure of quality control, which is practiced more for the primary and secondary education and less so for the tertiary education, is the standardized teaching materials and curricula. This level of quality control aims at minimum deviation of the content and of the subject matters.

The third measure has to do with the quality control of outputs. Students are graded according to their academic performance in examinations, term papers, theses, and dissertations. Unlike the manufacturing sector, the probability and desirability of “reworking” (repetition or cramming schools) are limited.

In this regard, the governance of in-service training in public administration is even more lax. Evaluation of training outcome tends to stay at the “reaction”¹³ or “happy scale” level, focusing on the level of satisfaction as perceived by the participants shortly after the completion of the training. Training, as a result, projects an image of “rewards” or “incentive package”, rather than competence development in delivering service objectives of the public administration. Ex-ante training needs assessment similar to ex-post evaluation exercises does not involve active participation of the stakeholders, groups that have direct interest in the success of the programme. Hence, there is little investment from the ISTIs to build consensus at least with the supervisors of the trainees on preparation for learning transfer and achieving performance results by the trainees. Without front-loading in deciding first the evaluation criteria or success indicators with the sponsors of the programme has created difficulties in undertaking evaluation at higher Kirkpatrick level or level of ROI by the ISTIs.

8. Operationalising Training-to-Performance Linkages

Few efforts have been made so far to ensure adequate quality of training by supplementing conventional measures with a quality management system approach. The training-to-performance process remains a black box that has not been scrutinized. Little systematically-documented data is available to discern the actual decisions taken and assumptions made at various choice points of training – from setting objectives to design and delivery of training and training evaluations if conducted, remain opaque. Training

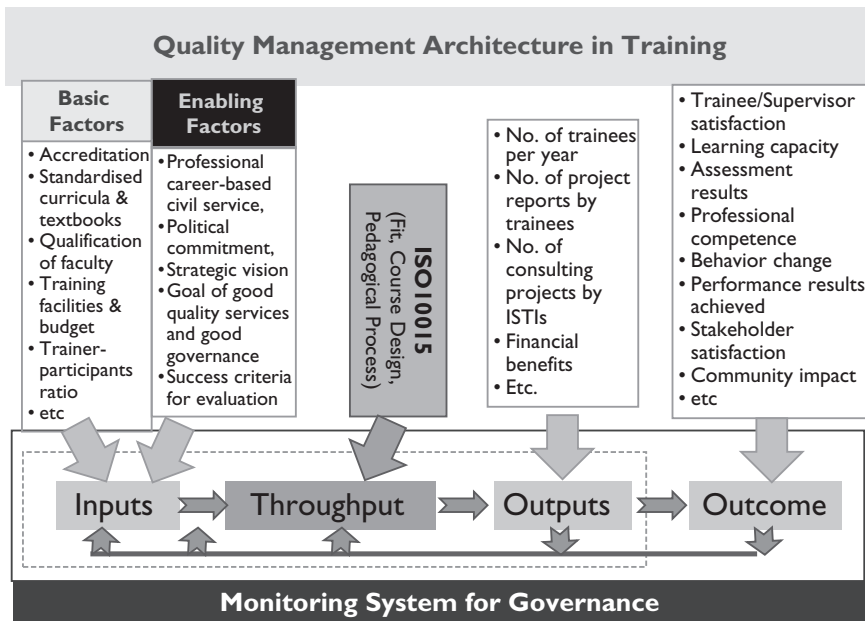
13. Using the terminology of Kirkpatrick who first published his work on training evaluation in the 1950's. Evaluation involves 4 different levels, i.e., reaction, learning, behavior and performance.

production has become an automated system, running smoothly and requiring little care. A stakeholder-based monitoring system would alter this outdated practice and help ISTIs meeting the Standards of Excellence so that high level performance can be attained.

Two essential elements of this proposed quality management architecture are: 1) mechanisms and guidelines for stakeholder engagement; and 2) a monitoring system, or training management information system that documents, collects and measures. Such information systems could be rich sources for knowledge creation over time (Elena, V.V. and Teodora, V., 2010).

Conventional quality control measures tend to be externally driven, such as granting the rights to operate but complimentary efforts need to be made internally in order for training to remain relevant and responsive. A quality management architecture containing policy, operating procedures, indicators and measurements should be installed in order to safeguard the desired quality and to establish timely feedbacks loop for correction and improvement. This monitoring system will scan, document and store information spanning the whole training-to-performance operational processes in order to deliver sound training management and transparent governance (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Monitoring Input-Output Relationship and Its Corresponding Quality Control Measures (Source: Adopted from Yiu & Saner, 2009)



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9. Stakeholder Engagement and Participation

The basic premise of a stakeholder approach to quality assurance and training performance improvement is that several groups inside and outside the public administration have a stake in training conducted for civil servants, especially at the senior level. They also possess some privileged insights regarding the performance gaps of the public administration. Any efforts to design, develop, deliver and evaluate training must take into consideration their needs and requirements in addition to the operating environment of the administration. Otherwise, operating in isolation puts at risk the results of any subsequent training falling short of expectations in strengthening service delivery and policy formulation.

Qualified trainers, well-endowed training facilities, high quality training material, well-designed training programmes and pedagogy are essential for training but insufficient to guarantee positive training impact. Instead, other contextual issues as identified by Luckings (2003), Saner, Strehl and Yiu (1997) and W.K. Kellogg Foundation (2002) come into play representing different interests and stakeholder requirements. However, what typically happens is that the interests of most of the stakeholders are subordinated to the interests of the training institution, trainers and their managers.

Who are the stakeholders of public administration training and development? A stakeholder is defined as a person or group with an interest in seeing an endeavour succeed and without whose support the endeavour would fail (Jinnings, 1999; Nickols, 2005). Freeman (1984, p. 46) defined a stakeholder as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievements of an organisation’s objectives.” Table 2 illustrates various potential stakeholders that should be involved at different stages of the training quality assurance process as specified in Figure 2. Among them, a typology of primary and secondary stakeholders (Clarkson, 1995) can be differentiated and accorded different weights in consultation process.

A well designed training can achieve different objectives which would respond to different stakeholder interests of a public administration. Looking at the various training objectives, Table 3 identifies potential stakeholder groups accordingly.

Table 2. *Illustrative Stakeholder at Each Stage of Training Quality Assurance*

Training Management SOP	Stakeholder Group/Constituencies
Identify Organisation's Needs for Improvement (performance gaps)	Citizen groups who are affected by this performance deficiency and their political representatives, civil society groups, government officials responsible and other constituencies
Analyse the Cause of Organisation's Performance Gaps (products, equipments, supply chain, financial resources)	Senior management of the agencies of public administration, citizen groups, and constituencies, managers of horizontal and vertical independencies in performance delivery
Identify the Performance issues related to Competence Gaps	Managers who are responsible for improvement, civil servants who perform the task, performance improvement experts, and human resource managers
Decide on Training Solutions	Top management, Senior HR managers
Define Training Needs Specification	Managers responsible for improvement, their superiors, human resource specialists, funding managers
Design and Plan Training	Trainees, trainee's managers, instructional designers, course developers, training managers, finance department
Provide for Training	Trainees, vendors, trainers, training managers
Evaluate Training Outcome	Senior management of the agencies of public administration, citizen groups, constituencies, managers who are responsible for improvement, civil servants who perform the task, trainees, trainee's managers, instructional designers, course developers, training managers, finance department
Monitoring Training Governance	Senior management of the agencies of public administration, citizen groups, constituencies, managers who are responsible for improvement, civil servants who perform the task, trainees, trainees' managers, instructional designers, course developers, training managers, finance department

(Source: Clarkson, M.B.E. 1995)

Table 3

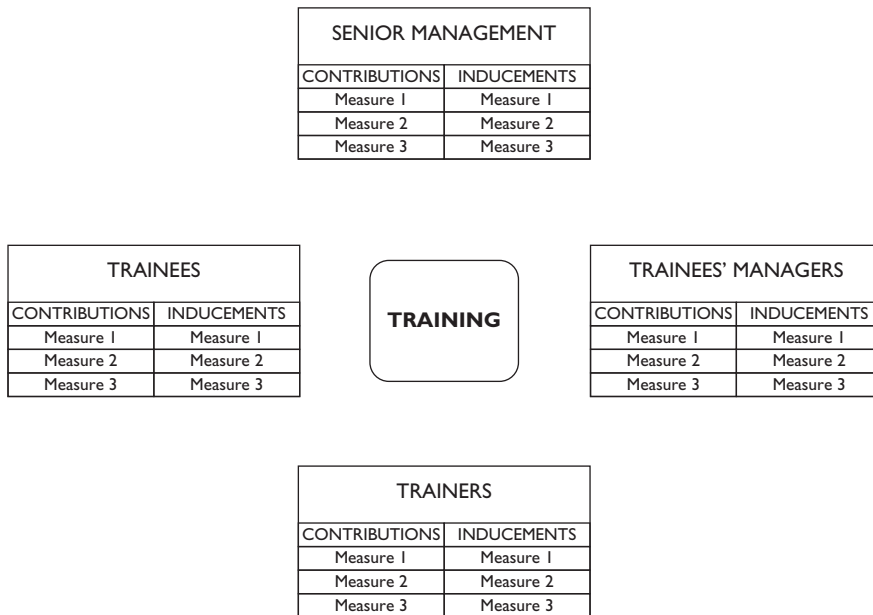
Training Objectives*	Interested Stakeholder Groups
Improve efficiency (reducing unit cost)	Community and citizen groups, businesses
Help make government personnel or civil servants more flexible and adaptable	Top management, parliament, staff unions, Human resource departments
Motivate civil servants	Top management, staff union
Lead to better and more responsive public service	Civil society organizations, citizen groups, businesses
Equip government agencies with the skills and expertise they need to manage the policy making process in order to advance national development goals	Civil society organizations, businesses, International communities in the case of developing countries
Equip government agencies with the skills and expertise they need to achieve their strategic objectives of the agencies	Top management, civil servants
Achieve specific personnel management objectives, such as employment equity, and build capacity in specific sectors	Human resource department, staff unions, special interest groups

* (adopted from Schiavo-Campo and Sundaram, 2000).

Engagement of stakeholders can ensure relevance and responsiveness of training offers. Clear identification and engagement of the line management, one of the internal stakeholder groups, help to ensure support and active participation in ensure vertical or horizontal transfer of learning. Clear identification and engagement of external stakeholders, such as citizen groups, civil societies or buffer organizations and associations, ensure adequate specification of the public service requirements at the frontline and at the policy level. In turn, trainees can be better equipped with the needed knowledge, skills and attitude in responding to these needs and requirements. Engagement of stakeholders in the process of training ensures communication, receptiveness, ownership, feedback and continual improvement.

A stakeholder scorecard can be envisioned to identify typical contributions and inducement that could be considered for various stakeholders with respect to particular organizational performance issues. Figure 3 is a sample from Nickols (2004) on the structure of a stakeholders Scorecard for training. This scorecard can be established to assist the ISTIs in sustaining the stakeholder interest in staying engaged. Most of the stakeholders do not necessarily have obligations or direct interests in a learning partnership with the ISTIs.

Figure 3. A sample of the structure of a stakeholders Scorecard for training



(Source: Nickols, 2004)

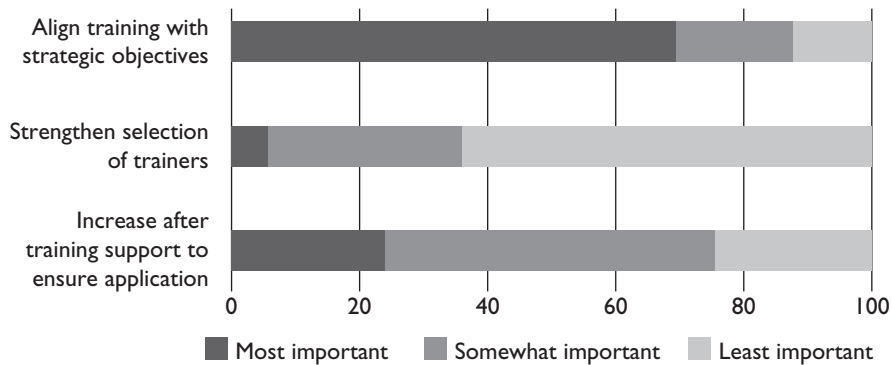
10. A Monitoring System for Institutionalization of Stakeholder Approach

According to Tolbert and Zucker (1983) the adoption of a policy or programme by an organisation is determined by the extent to which the measure is institutionalised, whether by law or by gradual legitimation. However, more time is needed to engage the stakeholders in the training

design and implementation process, thus rendering the reduction of time efficiency, a disincentive in itself. Therefore it is a must to embed the stakeholder participation in a quality assurance system and corresponding monitoring system.

In a survey conducted by Saner and Yiu (2009), respondents representing different European companies indicated “aligning training with strategic objectives” as the most useful aspect of a reassessment of training, with “increasing after training support to ensure application” the second most important change needed (see Figure 4 below).

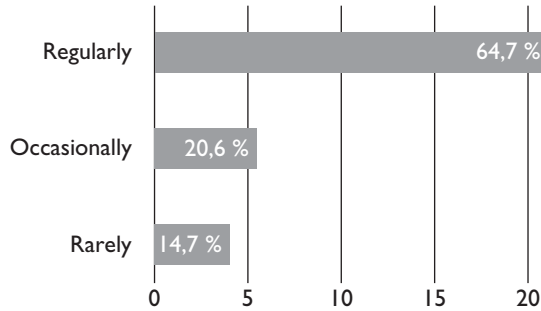
Figure 4. What changes would be most useful to undertake in a reassessment of training



(Source: Saner and Yiu, 2009)

When asked “How often does your management require to see the results of training?”, only 65% of the respondents answered “regularly” (see Figure 5). What this finding means is that training remains sidelined even within the corporate context where measurement and accountability is embedded and demanded by the top management. Public administration does not have a similar measurement and accountability culture despite political pressure demanding the same level of transparency and depth. This finding resonates with the findings by Saner, Strehl and Yiu in 1997 that public administration training faces a similar situation of getting little attention from their political boss.

Embedding the stakeholder participation in a quality assurance system and corresponding monitoring system has a normative effect. Otherwise, the gap between knowing and doing within the ISTIs will continue to exist. Leadership programme remains generic and risks being devoid of local content and relevance.

Figure 5. How often does management require to see results of training

(Source: Saner and Yiu, 2009)

II. What Value Is Added by An Institutionalised Quality Assurance approach?

One of the strengths in adopting a quality assurance approach is to ensure consistent practice instead of following fads or ad-hoc experiments. Quality assurance is about reducing variations of outcomes, processes or products. It is a system designed to monitor the *actual* functioning of the whole supply chain or workflow of training-to-performance process on an *on-going basis*. Working with organizations in both public and private sectors, the following added values have been observed:

- It focuses everyone on the value proposition, that is, the value to be provided by training.
- It checks the actual practice in implementing the training according to specifications and SOPs by different actors at different phases of training.
- It reviews the training-to-performance process and identifies opportunities for improvement
- It accommodates the Kirkpatrick model (1959) and the ROI approach – when and as they are relevant for the stakeholder groups.
- It creates transparency and supports accountability within the system.
- It provides consistent data for research and validation of organisation's training-to-performance model.
- It develops a reflective praxis within the system.
- It supports organizational learning and transformation.

12. Existing Quality Assurance Instrument for Training

Monitoring offers traceability. Monitoring is the basis for good governance and supports institutionalization of best practices. A quality assurance system exists for this purpose, and has been available since the beginning of Year 2000. ISO Quality Guideline for Training and Education (ISO 10015:1999/2005) was designed to fill the gap. The role of ISO 10015 is to “provide guidance that can help an organisation to identify and analyse training needs, design and plan the training, provide for the training, evaluate training outcomes, and monitor and improve the training process in order to achieve its objectives” (ISO 10015:1999/2005).

ISO 10015 based quality management architecture also has a built-in requirement for involvement of personnel “whose competence is being developed, as part of the training process, (which) may result in those personnel feeling a greater sense of ownership of the process, resulting in their assuming more responsibility for ensuring its success.” The same can be said about other stakeholders, especially the managers of the trainees, who will have a direct effect on whether learning can be practiced on the job. Other stakeholders would share same reactions concerning ownership and commitment if their inputs were sought and considered early on.

The process of training-to-performance that affects institutional performance requires reflective praxis and scientific inquiry by the professional members of ISTIs. Monitoring in the sense of quality assurance consists mainly of documentation on the actual process. Over time, this documentation may develop into a training management information system which supports scientific inquiry and better quality decision making. The main purpose of the monitor is “to ensure that the training processes... is being managed and implemented as required so as to provide evidence that the process is effective in meeting the organisation’s training requirement” (ISO 10015, 1999, 5.1).

13. Conclusions

If one accepts the notion that training has multiple constituencies or stakeholders, whose needs, wants, requirements and preferences must be taken into account, one must also accept that the only effective way of doing this is take them into account during the design, development and delivery of the training. Anything else is bound to come up short of achieving a broader learning effect.

Moreover, it should be borne in mind that, although training providers and their constituencies might agree in general about the results to be obtained through training, they also have very different perceptions of the needs for training intervention and criteria to be used in evaluating training programmes (Michalski, 1997). For this reason, it is a must to incorporate a stakeholder-based monitoring approach to in-service public administrative training so that best practices may be adopted by the institutions.

In the case of the leadership training and development of the senior civil servants who have policy responsibilities, ensuring the positive outcome of learning is crucial, going beyond delivering a good quality course in itself. Efforts need to be made by the ISTIs to engage the multiplicity of stakeholders inside and outside the public administration in order to bring the operational reality into the learning setting so that leadership learning is commenced with clear context. Stakeholder engagement ensures the relevance and responsiveness of the training offers and ensures cooperation in the use of acquired learning.

Like all organizations, training and educational organizations can also suffer from inertia. Changes, especially when they require shifting of mindsets, ways of organising work processes and redistribution of resources, are not possible without installing additional management systems to ensure their implementation. One instrument that can be applied here is to set up a monitoring procedure, based on ISO 10015, to ensure that members of training and educational organizations are indeed implementing programmes that are customer focused and not just paying lip service to a laudable concept

Training and development programmes are the core tasks of any HRD department and of ISTIs. They have to be accountable both for the utilization of resources and for the actual return on investment expressed in outcome measures. Such governance structure, whether ISO 10015 or other quality assurance tools, is the key to enhancing the effect of leadership development effort and ensuring sustained institutional capacity in achieving national development agenda.

Finally, a close learning partnership with different stakeholders coupled with a process focus and an institutionalized monitoring system are recommended as the most effective path to improvement of ISTIs performance.

Annex I. Research Matrix in Saner, Strehl & Yiu Study (1997), “In-Service Training as An Instrument for Organizational Change in Public Administration”, IIAS, Brussels

Table I. Research Matrix (Level of Analysis × Analytic Components × Subjects)

Data Analysis Components Level of Analysis	Description (What)	Analysis (Why)	Evaluation (Effective? Efficient?)	Conclusion (Lessons learned)
I. Description of Current System of Country’s In-Service Training as it relates to “Routine” change	Environmental Mapping: – Producers – Users – Beneficiaries – Sponsors	Causal-Effect Analysis: – Producers – Users – Beneficiaries – Sponsors	Cost-Benefit Analysis: – Producers – Users – Beneficiaries – Sponsors and – External Constituencies (Chambers of Commerce, Unions, Professional Associations, Provincial Governments or other Governments)	Summary and Recommendation
II. List of Critical Incidents over the last 10 years (which called for the use of training during which crucial change occurred)	– Identification of Incremental vs. Crucial Major Change – Triggers for both changes	Ditto	Ditto	
III. Case Study (where in-service training played a crucial role in the change process)	I. & II.	Ditto	Ditto	

Training for Leadership

If the needs for training for leadership are recognized as urgent, we need to ask whether the training institutes are doing the right things and question the effectiveness of training institutions.

This book calls for a serious and critical reflection on the way in which we conceptualize training for leadership in the second decade of the 21st century.

The different chapters reflect the ideas, theories and practices being dominant today. The thread of the contents show that something is amiss in such training. In general it does not have the expected effects and it often does not address the needs of recipients. The implication is that training for leadership in the future has to be redefined taking into account the specific contingencies, problems and complexities, leaders – especially in developing countries – have to deal with.

Leadership cannot be seen as an isolated factor. The different chapters in this book argue that training for effective leadership and good governance practices need to be combined. All ask for leadership that is less hierarchical and more interactive, collaborative, and takes also stakeholders outside the public sector seriously.

This has serious implications for the question how leadership training is organized; the different chapters of this volume address this issue from a theoretical as well as an empirical point of view: developments in theorizing about leadership, styles of public sector leadership, leadership in turbulent times and the importance of contingences on leadership in changing times.



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