The Pennsylvania State University
The Graduate School
The Institute of Public Administration

Training in the Public Service with Special Reference to Sudan

by

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INTRODUCTION

No other aspect of personnel management has received more scrutiny or has involved more controversy than training. Training is hailed as an important function of management towards achieving the objectives and goals of the organization. In the western democracies the need and zeal for training came to the forefront during the World War II era. The savage world combat prompted the infiltration of all kinds of skills to the field of battle. Eventually great numbers of well-trained workers lost their lives. From hence stemmed the need for training substitutes to compensate for the losses.

In the developing countries the reasons were different. The colonial powers, particularly Britain, pledged its colonies independence if they joined the allies in their war against the axis powers. When the war came to a close the colonies clutched to the pledge and national turmoil speeded up complete independence. The nationalists assumed legislative, executive and judiciary powers that had for long rested in the hands of well-trained expatriates. This brought about a drastic drop in the standards of the public service. The remedy that was perceived in the horizon was training. Another strong impetus were the aspirations of the people for economic and social development in the post-colonial era.

Though training is as old as mankind, technological progress gave birth to narrow specializations which in turn gave rise to the importance of training. Training is a continuous and on-going process. The
technological advancement keeps man inspired and on the alert. Life is not static or stagnant and its dynamic nature compels us to keep pace with it. Thus training is necessary to update the service and provide for the requirements of lateral movements and vertical advancement. It aims as well to prepare future managers. Training is a means for promoting efficiency and not an end in itself.

Goals and objectives of organizations can no longer be left for intuition and commonsense. They can only be achieved through training. Training is looked upon as the first step towards administrative reform. It aims at promoting efficiency and increasing the rates of productivity. No organization can thrive, develop and succeed without resorting to training. Its absence might jeopardize the organization's very existence.

Manpower planning, particularly in developing countries is geared to economic planning. As training is the basis for promoting efficiency and increasing productivity, training needs and priorities should be carried out in conjunction with manpower planning and in compliance with the needs of the national economy.

Sudan, in its endeavor to meet the training needs, installed several training institutions ranging from vocational training centers, centers for clerical training, an institute of public administration, to various training centers located in the various departments providing training in specialized fields e.g., forestry, post and telegraph, nursing, banking, agriculture, veterinary science, etc. As most of the chapters that constitute this paper pertain to training in the public service, particularly in the field of public administration and
managerial development. I will devote this part of the paper to examine the numbers trained at the Institute of Public Administration in Khartoum. With regard to other types of training, suffice it to say that the numbers trained in the last ten years do not meet the growing need for various skills. The problem was further aggravated in recent years because of the trend of group immigration to rich Arab oil countries due to the economic hardship and the high rate of inflation from which the national economy suffers. This deprived the country of its scarce human resources.

The table on the next page displays the number of various levels of personnel trained during the period 1971 and 1973. (This is the only available data to which I found access.)

The table illustrates that the numbers that received training are few, and the situation is worse due to natural separations, immigration due to dissatisfaction, and political discards that plagued the public service in the last ten years.

Foreign training is only resorted to where it cannot be provided in domestic institutions. It is expensive and might not be as useful as it is intended. Its basic limitation is that the contents of foreign programs are tailored to solve the problems of the countries conducting them and are thus remote from the needs of foreign participants due to historical, ethical, environmental and value differences. I have no exact reliable data of the numbers of Sudanese who went for training abroad, but a comment here is appropriate. For a long time all training was directed towards Britain as the system established by the British continued persistently after their eviction. But in later years the
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The institute invites university professors and senior officials to participate in lecturing.
monopoly began to loosen and trainees now go almost to all countries.
USA, the USSR and the countries of the eastern block including China
and North Korea. Some, though very few, went as far as Australia. This
no doubt infuses new blood into the veins of the public service that
gives it new experiences.

I will not discuss the particulars of the papers included in the
package here, but I find it necessary to touch briefly on the main
features that prevail throughout the paper.

It is needless to mention that the resources of the developing
countries are so scarce that the decision-makers are perpetually
confronted with the dilemma of allocating them. It is not my intention
to discuss budgeting here, but whenever the case arises and there is
a pressing need to cut expenditures to balance the budget, the first
items to be abolished or reduced are the funds allocated for training,
especially training abroad. This interrupts the continuity of training
and disturbs the plans.

Throughout history it is evident that man is not prone to accept
change without resistance. Man is so habit dominated that he resists any
change with suspicion and skepticism. Thus, the young people who acquire
new knowledge and skills are repudiated cynically in organizations. The
resentment they face is so intense that they start to retreat. The end
result is that some if not all types of training are fruitless and not
worth the efforts and money spent on them.

Determining training needs and priorities pose a subtle problem
that should be resolved if training is to yield any success. In the
absence of job classification and position evaluations, the component
Ingredients of a position are buried in generalized and vague descriptions. This being the case, the training needs are not identified clearly and realistically and thus training priorities become a fallacy. It might be contended that this is an exaggerated and false accusation and that developing countries need any and all types of training, need or no need. There might be a bit of truth in this, but where does the planning function in essence rest?

In the developing countries, tribal and family ties still prevail. Favoritism is an undesirable factor in all aspects of life. This was done behind the curtains in closed offices. The catastrophe became more visible when political affiliation and identification with the system (the spoils system) became the basis of selection, promotion and survival in the service. One might feel sympathetic with the circumstances that gave birth to it. The May Revolution faced many conspiracies and intrigues overt and hidden. It declared that it resorted to this means to protect itself from within. But no doubt the practices that were executed under this pretext were unjust.

These are the main problems that are common throughout the five chapters of this paper.

The theme of this paper is "Training in the Public Service, with Special Reference to Sudan". It consists of five chapters. The first chapter explores the concept of training and the focus is on the purposes and objectives of training, particularly in-service training and its phases. The chapter then examines the establishment and the development of the public service in Sudan. Part of the chapter dwells on the machinery of training in Sudan and explores the advantages and disadvantages of training abroad.
The second chapter attempts to identify the problems of training in Sudan and offers some recommendations to resolve them.

In the third chapter the study is confined to managerial development, concepts and approaches to it, methods and techniques, concluding by examining the various efforts in the field of management development in Sudan.

The fourth chapter examines an important aspect of training: evaluation and explores the methods of evaluation and the strategic problems encountered in the process.

The fifth and last chapter is devoted to examining development planning in Sudan, planning and organization. The study reviews the development policy, then examines the development of the planning organization in the country, and ends by tracing the role of international and regional organizations in the development projects.

The first four chapters are devoted to the investment of human resources, the last of the investment of natural resources, where human resources play a leading role.

The package closes with recommendations and findings that are humbly believed to be operational in resolving some of the problems that face the country in the field of training.
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Comparative Public Administration

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 TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE SUDAN

Ahmed Kamal Tabbani

Presented to:
Dr. Robert LaPorte Jr.
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Chapter I

Introduction

It is now universally recognized especially amongst public administration specialists, that training is the backbone of the public service and industries as well. There are close ties between the aspirations of the people towards economic and social development and administrative reform of which training constitutes a basic building-block. Of the three basic aspects of administrative reform: organization, leadership and training, the last is conceived to be the most effective. It was advocated that in developing countries, training constitutes two-thirds of administrative reform. Organization and leadership alone would not achieve goals and objectives unless personnel were taught what is required of them and how to perform it. Organization and leadership pertain to the structure, while training seeks for the contents.

Though training is essential even in industrialized countries, it assumes greater importance in developing countries for the following reasons:

1. There is a pressing need in developing countries to reorganize constitutional and administrative institutions to meet the new aspirations of the people for economic and social development developed after independence. This was ignored during colonial occupation.

2. There was a sheer lack of trained man-power in every field especially in public administration. The national
personnel to take over from the colonialists should be trained to shoulder top management posts.

Training in the public service is an ultimate must. No one can claim that his education, talents or personal experience qualifies him to become a competent and efficient public servant without acquiring training. Training should be a continual and on-going process through one's life-career in the public service. Only by on-going training programs are we able to keep the public service up-to-date with the renewing techniques of management, and meet the changing needs for training necessitated by change of post and perpetual movements through transfers and promotion.

Training is a wide and extensive theme. For the purposes of this paper, I will focus on in-service training as it is the most effective type of training in the public service. The first chapter is an attempt to explore the concept of training and review definitions of training in some countries. The chapter concludes with an examination of the purposes and objectives of training.

The second chapter will examine the stages and forms of training. The notion of stages here is to emphasize training as an on-going process. It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the various methods of training, as the methodology of public administration training requires a separate paper dedicated to it.

The third chapter will discuss the establishment and development of the public service in the Sudan since the last
decade of the nineteenth century following colonial occupation of the country, up to the post-independence years. The historical chronicle will pin-point events and instances that drew attention to the need for training and the measures adopted to meet those needs.

In the fourth chapter the focus will fall on the machinery of training in the Sudan comparing its three main developments. The chapter will briefly go-around training law and regulations rather than dwell on it.

In the fifth and last chapter a general discussion is agitated about the advantages and merits of training abroad and the disadvantages and failures it might encounter.

The paper closes with a conclusion which includes the assumptions and deductions arrived at throughout the various sections of the paper. It is hoped that the paper achieves its purpose satisfactorily.
Chapter II
What is Training? Its Purposes and Objectives

What is meant by training? Consulting the Oxford Dico-
dictionary, "to train" in general is defined: "to put in the
way to efficiency by instruction and practice."

The United Nations' "Hand-book of Training in The Public
an
Service" illustrates training as "instruction in art, pro-
fession or an occupation consisting of teaching, drill or
discipline by which powers of mind or body are developed.

With particular reference to the Civil Service, training is
the reciprocal process of teaching and learning a body of
knowledge and the related methods of work."

In the United States the Civil Service Assembly interprets
training as "the process of aiding employees to gain effective-
ness in their present or future work through development of
appropriate habits of thought and action, skills, knowledge
and attitudes."

The Government Employees Training Act of 1953 of the
United States defines training as "the placing of employees
in a planned, prepared and co-ordinated program course curri-
culum, subject, system or routine of instruction or education.
These must be directly related to the performance of official
duties."

In the Philippines the definition is related to in-
service training. It reads "In-service training is anything of
structural nature approved, planned or directed by management

*This chapter is mainly based on C. M. Salih "Handbook
of In-Service Training in the Public Service."
with the intent of improving the work, the attitude or understanding of the employees.\textsuperscript{4b}

Dimmock and Dimmock in their book "Public Administration" refer to training as "an organized effort to create, improve or refresh the skills needed in all phases of management, but specially where they contribute to executive leadership."\textsuperscript{5}

Unfortunately the Law of National Training of 1976 in the Sudan and the subsequent regulations fall short of stating a precise definition for training, but it emphasized training as a functional duty for all officials. Likewise is the Republican Directive issued in 1966 in the Egypt Arab Republic.

The above mentioned definitions are specific and analogous. They speak the same language. This illustrates that there is an almost universal recognition of the importance of training, and what it means, and that it is a continual process generated by changing political, economic and social conditions. There is a persistent need for high skills which can only be promoted and developed through training.

Though training programs may vary according to needs and objectives, yet all kinds of training programs comprise three types of knowledge and skills:

1. A program tends to impart the knowledge relating to the specific job undergoing training and its particulars.
2. It teaches the means and procedures to achieve objectives efficiently and with the least cost.
3. It determines the relationships and inter-relationships among the various organizations and individuals in an endeavour to avoid conflicts and misunderstanding that not only consume valuable time, but may shake the desired objectives sought harmoniously by all participants incorporated.

What is the difference between education in general and training? It has been advocated that a clear distinction is that training is related to job, while education is not. "Training is job oriented in a high degree." This may be true in various fields of education, but yet in other fields we can clearly discern the close relationship between education and training. Some kinds of education comprise early training in the future career job, e.g., medicine, engineering, veterinary science, agriculture, law, etc. This may be classified as pre-service education (comprising training) to distinguish it from other kinds of training, i.e. preparatory training and in-service training.

In most systems, if not all, pre-service education level is pre-requisite to entry in the public service. After entry it plays a significant role in advancement up the organization hierarchy. Training likewise depends on the level of education acquired. Training programs are deliberately designed at different levels in such a way that in-service training can be regarded as a continuation of pre-service achievements and acquisitions.

The American system departs from the British system in
that in this respect it does not lay much consideration to the level of education acquired when recruiting new employees. Neither do educational qualifications enhance advancement in the service. The system resorts devotedly to examinations to secure the satisfaction of specified requirements and the possession of specific and relevant knowledge. The Sudan follows the British model.

**Purposes and Objectives of Training**

Training in the Public service is basically conducted through in-service training programs. Not only does in-service training aim to train public servants to perform their jobs efficiently, but it seeks besides to increase group cooperation among employees. The success or failure of a training program in this direction is measured by the type and quality of services rendered to the public.

Broadly speaking in-service training is designed to maintain the following objectives:

1. **Promoting efficiency**: Science has become predominant in our age. It gave birth to scientific management which seeks efficiency in terms of high competence at reduced costs. The main purpose here is to accelerate efficiency and reduce if not eliminate waste.

2. **Speeding-up the Learning Process**: Training programs tend to be positively planned to impart to participants the basic principles, skills and techniques of a certain public activity. To grasp an art, a profession or an occupation can be acquired by two means:
a) By time and long experience through trial and error.
b) By teaching and training in a contrastedly shorter period of time.

Resorting to the second would assuredly save valuable time and wasted effort.

3. The Elimination of Conventional Faults and Vices of Bureaucracy: A British report diagnoses the maladies of the public service as "over-devotion to precedents; remoteness and aloofness from the rest of the community; in-accessibility and faulty handling of the general public; lack of initiative and imagination; unwillingness to take responsibility or to give decisions." In addition to these, other abuses can be made in the public service in developing countries attributed to family and tribal ties. All these views can be vigorously combated and eliminated through planned training programs teaching the new techniques of organization and methods, delegation, utilization of human relations and promoting public relations.

b. Morale-building: The more an employee grasps skill in his job through training the more confidence he gains in himself. The more fact that he is selected for a training course heightens his morale and prepares him for higher posts. Training programs on the other hand provide participants from different units with the opportunity to exchange views and experience.
5. **Career Development**: Training aims at promoting efficiency in the present profession or job on the one hand, and preparing the individual for future posts on the other hand, through developing attitude and wide outlook. This furnishes the way for advancement in the future.

6. **Improvement of General Administration**: Inservice training is the cheapest and most important factor in the endeavour to promote public administration in developing countries. It is the most positive and effective method of reform with the quickest outcomes in the shortest time possible. For example, if we train a group of typists in new techniques, and distribute them to various units they will influence their colleagues that did not participate in the training.

These are the main purposes and objectives of training. Though vital they are, we should not blindly trust in training and believe that it does like magic. The human factor should be focused. The individual who lacks the basic ingredients of success can not be converted into a successful person by training. Therefore, more attention has to be emphasized on recruitment policy and methods.
Chapter III
Training Phases and Forms

As I have noted earlier in this paper, training should be looked upon as a continuous process. No one can claim that the knowledge and skills he acquired suffice him from acquiring more training. Everyday new techniques replace old ones. The civil servant is not stagnant and steadfastly posted to one job. Advancement through promotions and even horizontal transfers make great shifts to posts requiring different knowledge, skills and attitudes. Even in one position new devices and techniques are constantly innovated. Training should keep pace with these developments. Viewed from this angle I shall now discuss in this chapter the phases and forms of in-service training, being the most effective type in the public service.

Phases of Training

1. Early-stage-career training:
   It comprises the following forms:
   a) Orientation training
   b) Induction training
   c) On-the-job training

2. Later-career training:
   It comprises the following forms:
   a) Refresher training
   b) Re-training

It is worth noting here that the forms mentioned above can be conducted through different methods and techniques for
all levels in the public service from top management to the clerical basis. The training itself can be conducted in a classroom, in the field or within industry.

**Forms of Training**

a) **Orientation training**: This form of training is designed to receive newly appointed recruits. It takes place during the first weeks of appointment, and is intended to introduce the freshman to the organization and to acquaint him with its objectives, his duties and rights, his terms of service, etc. Sometimes a manual or handbook containing all this information is distributed. At this early stage the employee is introduced to his superiors, colleagues and subordinates. The benefits of this form of training is to raise the morale of the individual and to eliminate the waste of time consumed if left alone to get to know the job he is assigned to. This form of training should be extended to all new entries in the service.

b) **Induction training**: This form of training succeeds the orientation training. Sometimes it is called portal or vestibule training. Unlike the orientation training which is general in nature, induction training is specific and concise in that it concentrates on the knowledge and skills required for a specific job. This may be challenged by saying that this kind of training can be conducted on-the-job. But it is the purpose of training to save unduly wasted time and quick utilization of resources. The duration of induction training may last from a few weeks to a few months.
according to different jobs, and may be conducted in collaboration with schools and specialized institutes.

c) On-the-job training: It is characterized in that it is conducted during the work hours at the employee's desk, bench or machine rather than a class in a school. Training here emphasizes the method of work, and knowledge is imparted in an informal way rather than a planned training program. The instructor here is not a lecturer but the line-supervisor who should assume training as part of his responsibilities.

The United Nations' "Handbook of Training in the Public Service" defines on-the-job training as "The instruction received by civil servants in a more or less informal manner from colleagues of greater experience or higher rank." It is the most practical form of training and the least expensive. It is closely related to job. It resembles the system of apprenticeship in industry, but it is quicker and more fruitful. The duration of the training varies from a few minutes to a few hours per day or week depending on the time the supervisor can devote to it.

d) Refresher training: This type of training should be conducted systematically either to equip the employee with new skills and techniques on his present job and keep him up-to-date in that direction, or to prepare him for new and higher jobs brought about by transfers and promotions. This type of training was introduced for the first time in the United States. Rural school-masters were often assembled in an educational training institute to enlighten them with new
types of knowledge and new methods of instruction. The form has proved such effectiveness that it was introduced to other disciplines of which one is public administration. The importance of this form of training rests with its inspirational values as its main objective is to stimulate the employee.

e) Re-training: This form of training departs from refresher training in that its purpose is to prepare the employee to shoulder an absolutely new job and new responsibilities, either by horizontal transfer or vertical advancement through promotion. In large, this training method is conducted in executive-development programs from which the future-to-be-top administrators are selected. It is conducted in the United States by programs of group-dynamics, thinking, discussing and deciding together as a balanced team. Its counter-parts are the Administrative Staff College at Henley-on-Thames in Great Britain, L'école Nationale d'administration in France, and a typical institute in the U.S.S.R. Its duration may vary from weeks or months to years as in the case of the French Ecole Nationale d'Administration.
Chapter IV

The Need for Training in the Sudan
A Historical Background

The need for training in the Sudan is closely related to the political and administrative development of the country. Since the beginning of this century it was believed that the chief administrators of the country should have some kind of university education and training. This was contemplated because the Sudan Political Service as the administrative machinery was called at that time, was neither Sudanese nor civil. The British and the Egyptians conquered the country in the last decade of the nineteenth century and were able to crush the national Mahdist revolution. The administration established to rule the country was military with British and Egyptian army officers at the top and Egyptian, Syrian and Armenian civilians at the middle and bottom. It was cherished that military administration was essential and useful in putting down rebellions expected to rise against foreign occupation. But these soldiers-turned-administrators, it was soon assumed, should not be entrusted with the government of the country, and therefore another source of recruiting senior administrators was to be sought. This source was identified to be necessarily universities. Another factor which accelerated the pace towards the de-militarization of the service was the outbreak of the Boer War which drew senior army-officers-administrators to the field of battle, including General Kitchener, the Governor-General and the Chief
of the occupation expedition.

Thus the need arose to replace the army officers by competent and trained civilian personnel. Some civilian British graduates of the universities of Cambridge and Oxford were first appointed in 1901 and followed by others in subsequent years. They were sent back to the university to study Arabic for one year before proceeding to the Sudan, where after two months they had to sit for another examination in Arabic and two years later a third in law. This law examination was because judiciary powers were conferred on them. Thus through this method of careful selection and intensive training was the administration of the country transformed to a civilian machinery. But still it continued to be non-Sudanese.

During the first decade of this century the Sudanese played a very insignificant part in the service, mainly as unskilled labourers. This was partly because schools set up by the British were eyed with suspicion by the people. They feared that the British would convert their darlings to Christianity. Due to this attitude in-takes in the newly established schools were few and only in the latest years of the decade some Sudanese were graduated in the Gordon Memorial College at Khartoum. They joined the civil service as junior clerks and accountants. Others flowed in the subsequent years in the same channel forming the base of Civil Service.

The relations between Britain and Egypt who occupied the country in conjunction, were steadily deteriorating. The
The beginning of the deterioration started after the outbreak of Arabism's revolution in 1919 in Egypt against British occupation of the country. Several middle grade Egyptian administrators were displaced and junior Sudanese staff took over. This created a pressing need for training to acquaint the Sudanese junior personnel with modern-type of government and to equip them with knowledge and administrative skills. Thus a special course of public administration to train junior executive officers was established and conducted in 1919. Various other training courses were introduced to train technicians such as engineers, medical assistants, agriculturists, telegraphists etc. In 1922 the Kitchner School of Medicine was founded.

This progressive movement of Sudanese holding middle-grade posts was further accelerated in 1926 after the assassination of Sir Lee Stack in Cairo. The dispute between the British and the Egyptians came to a dead-lock, and Egyptian army officers and civilians were evicted in large numbers from the Sudan with the intent of replacing them by Sudanese. But most unfortunately this trend was put to an end by the Sudanese uprising, both military and civilian, in 1928 in protest of the deportation of Egyptians and echoing with the revolution in Egypt against British occupation. Only in the late 1930s and the post World War II Second was the trend to assimilate Sudanese in middle-grade level resumed.

Sudanisation and Training in Post World War II

As we have seen earlier in this chapter the conversion of the administrative machinery from foreignism to Sudanism
was generated by the continuous disputes between the British and the Egyptians. Following the close of Second World War a committee was formed to submit recommendations pertaining to planned Sudanization of the Civil Service. It was projected that gradual Sudanization should take place at calculable steps, taking into consideration the training facilities of the country. To meet these training needs certain measures were taken. The Gordon Memorial College recognised in 1945 by the University of London, was developed in 1951 to a degree-giving university college. A department of public administration was created in the faculty of law to train future administrators. The curriculum included accounting, rural economy, police organisation, criminal law and criminal procedure with complete neglect of social sciences in the absence of a faculty of Economics and social studies. In addition to the academic curriculum there was military drill and field work under experienced administrators. Recruits to this course were graduates of the school of arts and to a lesser extent the school of science. The purpose of this post-graduate training course leading to a certificate in public administration was to train senior administrators of the departments of Interior and Local Government.

In the meantime national turmoil was escalated and the country was moving rapidly towards self-government culminating on January 1, 1956 in complete independence. The Sudanization scheme which was carefully drawn and was vehicled through gradual and deliberate stages up to the first years of the
1960 in order to maintain the standards of the highly respected civil service in the Sudan, the scheme was dropped and an almost complete and total Sudanisation was brought about in the Civil Service, the army and the judiciary.

Thus the Sudanese who jumped from junior clerical jobs in the early part of the century to middle-grade posts due to the mass expulsion of the Egyptians, were now hoisted overnight to top management. They neither expected it nor were they trained for these kinds of jobs requiring new types of administrative skill and broad scope and outlook. They continued to perform the new assumed duties the way they knew and trained to shoulder middle-level posts. Likewise the base moved to the middle without training; and the gap in the base was filled with fresh recruits from schools. The result was a drastic drop in the standard of the Civil Service. All of a sudden the thoroughly and intensively trained top personnel were replaced by enthusiastic, patriotic but unfortunately un-trained Sudanese staff. Independence brought about new ministries and new values to meet the aspirations of the people towards economic and social development.

The need for training was deeply felt and an outlet of the mass was to be contemplated. Two measures were taken. The first was the creation of a Faculty of Economics and Social Studies in the University of Khartoum in 1953 which assumed full university status in 1956. Within the Faculty of Economics and social studies a department of Public Administration was set up in 1963. The Senate of the Uni-
versity formally transferred the function of training in Public Administration from the Faculty of Law to rest with the Department of Public Administration of the Faculty of Economics and Social Studies. Now the department in addition to training under-graduates in public administration, also arranges post-graduate courses leading for Diploma and other higher degrees.

At the request of the Government of the Sudan the United Nations sent two experts in public administration: Mr. Ampus and Mr. Mieoff. They stayed for some time in the country and submitted their report "Reconnaissance Survey Report concerning an Institute of Public Administration for the Sudan." In 1960 the project, as a collaborative effort between the Government of Sudan and the United Nations as technical assistance, was implemented and the Institute of Public Administration was founded in Khartoum.

The Institute of Public Administration since then designed and conducted various training courses for all levels of the service. At the start the top administrators kept aloof and were reluctant to join training programs. But gradually the ice thawed and they willingly and enthusiastically joined conferences and seminars on the problems of development and administration.

In addition to training functions the Institute of Public Administration conducts research and gives consultative advice to various departments. In 1972 the Institute which was an independent body in the Ministry of Finance and
Economics, was shifted to the newly-created Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform. This gave a push forward to the Institute to function more effectively, through highly training the staff of the Institute and allocation of sufficient funds to conduct research, and preserving staff who started to quit it by bettering their terms of service.

The era after independence will be discussed in the following chapter in close relation with the development of the machinery of training in the country and the emergence of a law of training.
Chapter V
Machinery of Training in the Sudan
Laws and Regulations

The continual and ever-changing need for training discussed in the previous chapter gave birth to a machinery to operate in the field of training. In the late 1960s, a small sub-section was created in the Establishment Branch (now the Civil Service Department) which formed a part of the Ministry of Finance and Economics. In the late forties and the early fifties there were very few local training centres, largely devoted to vocational training. Thus the section was rightfully called "Section of training abroad". The number of Sudanese embarking on study or training courses abroad were very few. The functions of the section were to prepare the budget for government officials planned to be sent outside the country on study and training courses, issue financial approvals and to confirm further extension if required. Even for those in training courses abroad the section was only responsible for those who were government officials. It had no concern with identifying training needs and planning training programs in accordance with these needs and priorities. The official in charge of the section was an establishment officer in the essence and did not receive any training to turn him to a trainer. The whole process was just futile.

Though the section grew in size after independence due
to the increased numbers of Sudanese embarked on study and training courses abroad, the section witnessed no change in its terms of reference. No steps were taken to train the supposed trainers and equip them with the knowledge and skills to conduct training focused by new responsibilities to achieve peoples' aspirations and enchantment to social and political development.

In 1969 after the May Revolution the responsibility for training rested with the newly created Ministry of Planning. Training, it was advocated, should go side by side with the skills required for the implementation of development projects sponsored by the Ministry of Planning. Training should be planned and the plan drawn in such a manner as to meet needs in merits of priority. A National Committee for Training was set up to handle the matter, comprising the heads of different departments and non-government officials of relevant experience. Its terms of reference was to draw training plans to meet arising training needs with special emphasis and close reference to provide the skilled man-power to run the current and future development projects. To achieve this departments were requested to draw a five-year plan for training in figures specifying fields of training and priorities of training, in close relation to the departments' commitment in the five year development plan.

The Ministry of Planning in an endeavour to utilize to the maximum the trained man-power of the country claimed its dominance over all kinds of training for government officials and non-government officials as well. These included students
proceeding or on under-graduate study in foreign educational institutions, either on scholarships granted to the government by friendly countries or those studying at their own expenses. This part concerning under-graduates was formerly a function of the Ministry of Education.

Unfortunately the experience of tying training to planning was not developed and continued. The years following the detachment of the section of training from the Civil Service Department and its allocation to the Ministry of National Planning, witnessed political turmoil and instability in which attention was wholly focused on securing the regime. For this reason the experiment of training as a planning function did not find the chance to blossom and render fruits, and it is very difficult to defend or condemn it.

In 1972 the governments' administrative structure underwent some changes. A Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform was established and the function of training was conferred upon it. It retained all the previous terms of references except for the control of non-officials under-graduates which was redeemed to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry claimed also over training in local training centres.

Attempts were made to bring about some developments and innovations. For the first time a law for National Training was passed by the legislative in 1976. The law declared training to be an obligation to all levels of the public service. It stressed the responsibility of the heads of dep-
ments to draw training plans according to training needs with special emphasis on the needs required for the implementation of national development programs.

A Technical Committee for national training was created, consisting of some of the heads of departments, the directors of local training centres and representatives of the private industries and the Chamber of Commerce. This is the first time the government pays attention to the private sector in relation to the planning of training. This is due to the government's faith in the private sector as a partner with the public sector in developing the economy of the country. It is stated in the law for National training that the Technical Committee should formulate the basis for providing the private sector with advice pertaining to training and furnishing it with all information and experience relating to the planning of training programs so as to enable the private sector to function effectively and perform the role attributed to it in the national development plan. This is undoubtedly a turning point in the history of training in the country which saves much time and hard currency consumed by the private industries in procuring foreign expertise and sending employees abroad to gain more knowledge and skills.

Accordingly regulations for training took the track of the law. I do not intend to have to list down the particulars of the regulations, but I would like to mention some features innovated for the first time which do in fact accelerate the training process towards achieving desired objectives.
A training unit was established in each department to assess actual training needs and to prepare the annual training plan. After the completion of training programs, these training units were to perform the function of evaluation and follow up to measure the effectiveness of training programs and their impacts.

The stress is also laid upon local training institutions rather than foreign institutions whenever the specific training is available. In compliance with this a Productivity Training Centre was founded to operate in the field of public administration alongside with the Institute of Public Administration.

It is of interest to note that though the section of training underwent many changes through three main phases, the staff running the machinery of training remained steadfast, and constant, and out-lived all these changes. They at last became experts in training through long experience and training acquired in advanced foreign institutions.
Chapter VI

Training Abroad: Advantages and Disadvantages

As early as the late 1930s and early 1940s few Sudanese officials were sent for study and training courses abroad, especially to Great Britain. In the years following independence the number increased due to rising training needs geared to social, economic, and economic development.

Training abroad is one of the most important sources of training for developing countries. To utilize this source and get the utmost benefit of it, plans for training abroad should be dexterously and deliberately drawn. Training abroad has its advantages and disadvantages, merits and defects. Plans of training in developing countries should try to embark heavily on benefits and to suppress and avoid defects.

One of the major advantages of training abroad is that it enables developing countries to make use and benefit of reputed and deeply rooted training institutions. Similar institutions can not be installed at home. Students sent for training abroad live and react with the highly-advanced technical and administrative conditions and situations. Living in healthy environment would breed a wider scope and outlook.

On the other hand training abroad is highly expensive. The costs comprise travel expenses, tuition fees, and support of students. A major disadvantage of training abroad
is that training programs are tailored to meet the needs of the country conducting them, and the design of the programs hence may not meet the needs of developing countries. A third disadvantage is that on completing the training program, no evaluation or follow-up is conducted to measure the effectiveness of training mainly due to ignorance about programs' contents and objectives.

Another disadvantage that has recently assumed greater magnitude is the wastage of trained man-power. Increasing numbers of trainees abroad never went back to their countries due to various reasons. Appealing and un-resistable terms of service are offered them in an endeavor to meet growing needs. e.g. physicians and consultants of medicine. Others are attracted and dazzled by the glitter of modern life. Others still prefer to stay to satisfy personal academic ambitions for research and study which they can not conduct at home due to the absence of equipment and advanced technological tools and machines. They feel frustrated not to be creative and inventive.

Yet despite all these disadvantages training abroad is still indispensable and is gaining more ground. But it is best utilized if it is not confined to one system but to a diversity of systems.
Chapter VII

The importance of training has long been recognized, not only in developing countries but in advanced countries as well. Rising costs of carrying out services, and the low standards of the quality of services rendered to the public stimulated the need for training in developing countries to guarantee efficient performance and economization. The hasty take-over by national bureaucracies after independence without appropriate training contributed to the deterioration that cracked the public service. Rather than being public servants to the advantage of the people, interpreting their aspirations and hopes to facts, the new bureaucrats closed themselves in a nut-shell secluded from the community.

Training is not tied to a limited time-frame, but is vehicled to a long-range time span, pausing at intervals awaiting new technologies that are perpetually developed. Inservice training and its various forms have gained ground as being effective, immediate and cheap.

Some impediments were to be swept to achieve the goals and objectives of training. The bureaucrats devotedly clutched to the prevailing procedures. They believed in them as sacred and invulnerable. But soon they were deliberately and patiently brought in the channel of training.

Various programs were designed and conducted in the Sudan, especially at the Institute of Public Administration to promote efficiency in the public service at all levels.
Expatriates and expertise were procured to assist in the rescue. Friendly countries and international organizations gave all possible technical assistance. Though the seal was to establish local training institutions, external training centres could not be ignored, but should not be solely relied upon.

The outcry for efficient service through training long imparted, lately found recognition and legally enacted in law. Training became a basic function, responsibility and obligation of all public servants. Progress has been made, and the more progress is brought about the more is the zeal and trust in training. Underdeveloped countries will persistently follow the track of training as the only practical way to catch up with the rapidly moving world towards technological dominance.
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Problems of Training in Sudan

Ahmed Kamil Gabbani

Presented to
Dr. Stevens
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Introduction

Chapter I: Machinery and Law for Training

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Conclusion
INTRODUCTION

Training is the slogan of the day, especially in developing countries. It is visualized as the instantaneous and miraculous remedy to the inefficiency of the public service and its maladies. In the Sudan the modern system of the public service was introduced by the British after the re-conquest of the country by the Anglo-Egyptian troops in 1898. The Civil Service consisted of British officials at the top, Egyptian officials at the middle, assisted by junior, auxiliary Sudanese subordinates graduated from the schools established by the British. National resentment for foreign rule was sparked from the start, and despite the cruelty with which it was crushed, it never faded away. Uprisings sprang up and the more brutal the suppression, the more frequent they became.

After the outbreak of World War II, Britain pledged its colonies gradual independence if they joined her in the war against the Axis, consisting of Germany, Italy and Japan. The war came to an end and the national turmoil started seeking complete independence. A Committee was formed to draw a scheme for the replacement of British and Egyptian officials by qualified Sudanese people. The committee was realistic and recommended a gradual displacement in an attempt to avert the probably consequences on the standards of the public service, and to train native officials as counterparts to foreign officials. It is worth mentioning here that the British officials were carefully selected from among the best graduates of the London and Oxford Universities and
All suddenly and all of a sudden the British top officials were replaced by junior, untrained Sudanese officials. What followed was a tragic and drastic drop in the standards of the Civil Service. From hence stemmed the zeal for training. The situation grew so bad that in 1966, the government formed a committee for the "Re-organization of the Civil Service."¹ The committee consisted of university professors, public administration specialists and experienced and reputed Civil Servants. In May 1968, the Committee submitted to the Prime Minister a voluminous report recommending among many other things, the enactment of a law for training to provide for planned, effective and continuous training! They extracted examples from countries that passed acts for training, among which they reviewed "The Government Employee Training Act of 1938" of the United States. The weight and importance of training was declared as a policy objective in the following article.

"An act to increase efficiency and economy in the Government by providing for training programs for civilian officers and employees of the Government with respect to the performance of official duties."²

Besides this brief introduction this paper consists of three chapters and a conclusion. The first chapter will focus on the machinery, law, regulations and objectives of training in the Sudan. In the second chapter an attempt will be made to identify the problems encountered in launching and executing training plans and policies. The third and last chapter will explore solutions for these problems on a systems-approach basis. The conclusion will sum up the paper and attempt to reach some recommendations.
CHAPTER I
THE MACHINERY AND LAW FOR TRAINING

The machinery for training in the Sudan underwent various changes since its creation in the 1940's as a small sub-section in the Establishment Branch (now the Civil Service Department). After the outbreak of the May 25th, 1969 revolution in the Sudan, and the emergence of a full-fledged Ministry of Planning for the first time in the history of the country, the training function was re-allocated to it. Before that, planning was part of the Ministry of Finance and Economics and was always subservient to the Finance Department. The rationale underlying the re-allocation of training to the newly created Ministry of Planning, was that every function of the government was to be planned including training. As the Ministry of Planning was to engineer the development projects, training plans were to be geared to these projects to provide for the required trained personnel. In 1972, the Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform was created, and the function of training was confided to an autonomous administration under the newly formed ministry.

Though the outcry for a law for training was pronounced earlier, it was only in 1976 that the National Assembly (the Central Legislature) passed a law for training. Article 6 reads:

"Training is a functional duty for all employees, and it is the duty of the heads of units to provide for training their employees according to the job requirements and in conformity with the development plans within the prescribed resources and according to the rules in this law and the regulations that may derive from it."
According to this act a technical committee for training was formed under the chairmanship of the Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Public Services and Administrative Reform and the membership of representatives of various departments. The committee comprised for the first time representatives from the private sector like the Chamber of Commerce and the Association of Sudanese Industries. The terms of reference of this committee was to function as follows:

1. The formulation of policy and the levels that govern training programs; the various units which should be directed towards achieving the following objectives:

   a) Promotion of the standards and quality of the public service.

   b) Create an efficient and capable personnel equipped with the most modern methods in science, technology and administration.

   c) Furnish employees with equitable and just opportunities to make use of training programs to promote their efficiency.

   d) Formulation of policy that governs the distribution of scholarships granted by international and regional organizations.

   e) Conclude cultural agreements with foreign countries and explore the study and training fields available in foreign countries, international and regional organizations.

   f) Prepare the annual plan for training submitted to it by the various departments by studying and comparing it to the priorities and requirements of the development plan.

   g) Provide the private sector with all the information, reports and expertise pertaining to training plans to enable it to perform effectively its role in national development.²

²National Training Act, 1976, Article 8.
Apart from these responsibilities shouldered by the technical committee, the Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform would handle the following:  

1. Determine the training needs for the public sector to meet the required needs to implement the development projects.

2. Examine the suggestions for training submitted by the various units and prepare the annual plan for training for the technical committee.

3. Study the possibility of instituting specialized training centers in the country.

4. The execution of the annual plan for training after being endorsed by the Technical Committee.

5. The follow-up on employees on study courses abroad in collaboration with the cultural counselors in foreign countries.

6. The evaluation of the study on training courses acquired with the collaboration of units.

To achieve the objectives of training and to provide for a totalitarian, comprehensive and realistic plan for training, the National Training Act, 1976 called for the creation of training sections in the various units to shoulder the following responsibilities:

1. To rank the training needs by priority based on job classification evaluation.

2. To ensure that the training needs are determined according to a goal-oriented plan.  

According to the authority conferred upon him by Article II of the National Training Act, 1976, the Minister of Public Service and Administrative Reform issued a National Training Regulations in 1976.

5National Training Act, 1976, Article 9.
6National Training Act, 1976, Article 10.
Article 6 of the regulations called for the following to be considered when planning for training. 7

1. The needs of development projects.

2. The general needs for promoting performance of public officials.

3. Training should be minimized to the least — and to meet real training needs. It should not be a means for promoting and advancing employees, but its objectives should be the promotion of efficiency.

4. Give special priority to professional and vocational training.

These are the main features embodied in the National Training Act, 1976 and the National Training Regulations of 1976. In the following chapter I will try to identify the problems that hinder the accomplishment of these objectives.

7 National Training Regulations, 1976, Article 6.
CHAPTER II

PROBLEMS OF TRAINING IN THE SUDAN

The objectives of training mentioned in the preceding chapter seem sound. All laws provide for better things, but the picture seems different in practice. I spent five years working for the Training Section from the time it was a small section in the Establishments Branch, under the Ministry of Planning, but I was transferred when it became an autonomous administration in the Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform. In addition to this, my experience as a Senior Establishment officer in various departments provided me with the chance to see how training plans are designed. This long experience gave me insight into the real problems of training. I will try to explore these problems pinpointing their various aspects and their impact on the objectives and effectiveness of training promulgated in the National Training Act of 1976 and the National Training Regulations of 1976.

Determining Training Needs

Determining training needs is the crucial step upon which the effectiveness of training is based.

The departments in drafting in their annual plans, for training do not pursue a scientific and objective methodology for determining their needs. They are unable to detect their immediate and real needs simply because the objectives of the units are too broad, vague and general in nature. They resemble far-reaching, everlasting goals which
can be broken down into specific operationalized objectives within a defined and limited time span. To aggravate the problem the units have no short-term plans of what they should persistently achieve in the near future.

The Problem of Selection of Trainees

Stemming from the problem of determining training needs is the problem of selection. The Act of Training 1976 restricts and confines training to the minimum level possible to meet the immediate needs for creating expertise or to promote current efficiency. If the training needs were not determined realistically and on a scientific basis, the objectives of training would be blurred. Hence, the problem of selection emerges. The regulations of training provide conditions for nominating officials for study or training courses. It reads:

"The selection for a study or training course should be based on personal competence and efficiency. Selection for postgraduate studies should be based on the basic degree, its grade and its relationship to the required training."3

In reality nothing of the kind takes place. It grew to such extremes as to become the right of the official to go for study or training abroad when his turn comes. Seniority became the basis for selection and officials are accumulating degrees which they do not need to perform on the job.

The Problem of Foreign Programs

As the chances of acquiring training or study courses at the domestic institutions is very limited, most of the training and study

3 Regulations for National Training, 1976, Article II (1).
courses are embarked on abroad. Here another problem arises. These programs are tailored and engineered to meet the needs of the country running them and they fall short of meeting the needs of developing countries. The result is acquiring irrelevant knowledge and skills which will never be utilized. As we all know training abroad is very expensive and it is a waste of money if its contents are irrelevant.

Though many people advocate the benefits of training abroad in that the trainee lives in an advanced society and his mere living in such a society widens his scope, in my opinion this is not worth the money spent if it does not meet the required training needs.

The Problem of Evaluation and Follow-up

After completing the study or training programs either domestically or over-seas, no attempt is made towards its evaluation or follow-up. Evaluation and follow-up besides many other benefits, provides the opportunity of measuring the relevance and effectiveness of the training acquired and its impact on behavior on the job and can be utilized for planning for training. Evaluation and follow-up hits the very objective of training. Training is not sought for itself but to meet some specific objectives and if no evaluation or follow-up takes place this condemns the very process and it is deemed to be infutile and a squanderer of public money.

The Problem of Posting the Trained

This is a real problem. Theoretically it is assumed that a training need for certain knowledge or skill is identified and somebody has to be trained to perform this function. This is in theory but what
happens in practice is far from this. People go back to their old jobs. Acquiring certain knowledge or skills is not followed necessarily by change of the job or new responsibilities. Of course it is assumed that even retaining the same job, the training should have some impact on it by promoting efficiency or simplifying procedures. Even this, if it does happen, remains the responsibility of the individual and not the role of the organization or system and for this reason its effects and impact on the service tends to be minimal. This apathy renders the whole process useless and needs special attention.

The Problem of Applying the Knowledge or Skill Gained

This problem is closely connected with the previous problem and could have been discussed in conjunction with it. But I prefer to tackle it as a separate problem because it simply pertains to the system rather than the individual. It is evident that the bureaucracy is repugnant to change and resists it vehemently. In general, the people who go for training are the young, middle grade officials. They may be enthusiastic and long to introduce innovations and apply the knowledge and skill they have gained. More than apathy they are confronted with resentment. In the end despair creeps to them and they perform the way they used to before acquiring the training. Thus, if the system itself is repugnant to change or sensitive to it the whole process is useless. The result is the accumulations of degrees and training efficiency unutilized because the system recoils and rejects change.

In the following chapter I will attempt to tackle these problems from a systems approach point of view.
CHAPTER III

A SYSTEM APPROACH TO THE PROBLEMS
OF TRAINING IN SUDAN

The concept of a 'system' is getting a great deal of attention in both industrial and academic management circles. Unfortunately, the work has many meanings; for purposes of this discussion, a system is simply an assemblage or combination of things or points forming a complex whole. One of its most important characteristics is that it is composed of a hierarchy of systems.  

The system concept does not claim the monopoly for solving all problems. Neither does it claim miraculous solutions to the problems it handles. Any system can and should be comprehended as an integral whole and the effects of the relationships between its components and its impact on the system as a whole.

Rather than visualize the organization in its traditional structural, bureaucratic and hierarchical motif, with a fixed set of authority relationships much like the scaffolding of a building, we are beginning to view organization as a set of flows, information, men, material and behavior. Time and change is the critical aspects.

The concept of a system is an old one and it has been discussed and debated as far back as the 19th century with the famous controversy between mechanistic and organismic models. The discussion was extended to whether systems are closed or open. In reality every system is open, and it cannot close itself from interaction with its environment. It

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10. Stanley Young. "Organization as a Total System".
comprises:

a) system components  
b) system environment  
c) open and closed systems

The process of systems analysis comprises the following:

1. The definition and limiting of the problem.
2. The classification of the objectives or the goals that the decision-maker hopes to attain with the system being considered.
3. To forecast the environment in which the system is to operate.
4. To determine ways to measure the degrees of attainment of the goals and objectives.
5. To list and define the alternative systems that have some reasonable hope of accomplishing the objectives, and select appropriate criterion for choosing among these systems.
6. Formulate a scheme or model for working out the dollar cost taking into account the changes that take place in the operation and development of the system.
7. Examine the risks and timing in the development.

Following this brief discussion on the concept of system analysis I will proceed to attempt to find appropriate solutions for the problems of training in Sudan listed in the preceding chapter.

The relationship of between the administration for training and the various units is crucial towards aggravating the problems of training. The administration for training though it is exclusively responsible for planning training and formulating policy and issuing regulations regarding training, it seldom, if ever, works out the plans with the

units. It merely issues guidelines and executes the resolutions of the technical committee. To be more effective the administration should have a role in working out the training plans with the various units in teamwork. Not only should it tighten its grip on the process of training but it should extend its function to evaluate and follow-up the trainees.

At the present time the efforts of training seem to be fragmented and should be integrated as a whole under the effective leadership of the administration for training.

Determining the Training Needs

It is an essential prerequisite to training. Without it training will not be goal-oriented and a more useless exercise. Each unit should set a set of goals clearly defined with a limited time-span to achieve these objectives. This will facilitate the determination of training needs and gear them to the specified objectives. Instead of the present annual plan, two plans should go together side by side. A five year plan and its purpose is to provide for the trained personnel required to achieve the specified objectives. In conjunction with this short-term plan another long-range plan to predict the required needs for the coming ten years has to be formulated. This long-term plan has to be drawn carefully and with close connection with the development plan so as to provide the trained cadre when the time for the implementation of the development projects approaches. By this means we can determine the training needs and attain the short-term objectives and secure for future needs. These plans can be reviewed and modified whenever the need arises, for example, changing circumstances and situations or when the development
plan itself is being reviewed at a certain stage to accomplish more effectiveness. The short term plan should be examined closely and a criterion for measuring whether the objectives were attained has to be developed.

The Problem of Selection

At the present time although the regulations specify certain measures to be secured for selecting for training, it does not work in real life situations. Though the universal out-cry is more and more training to promote the efficiency of the public service and fight its numerous maladies, it can be dangerous and costly. Integral selection for training should be planned on the basis of personal merits, qualification and ability not only to assimilate the training, but the wide scope to apply it and the capability to change on-the-job behavior. Selection should be based on two pillars:

1. Excellent performance on the job.
2. Competitive examinations.

It is stated in the Public Service Regulations of 1975 that outstanding officials by merit of their excellent performance, can be rewarded, among other motivations and incentives, by sending them for study or training courses. Though this might seem to contradict with determining training needs as the training is not identified as an existing need, but as a reward, the contradiction can be relaxed by assuming that there is always and at all times a need for training. The need is there; only some good performer was rewarded with it.

Examinations will eliminate the probability of failing to assimilate and benefit from training especially for graduates sent for academic
studies to get post-graduate degrees. Proficiency in foreign languages is an important factor in benefiting from training and this can be secured by testing this by examinations.

The Problem of Foreign Programs

This is a real problem and as we all know training abroad is expensive and a waste of money if the contents of training programs do not meet the requirements for domestic training. A natural solution for this problem might be the installation of local training institutions. But this is very expensive and requires a long time. Besides, there are some established and reputed international training centers which should be used. Thus the need for foreign training institutions is indispensable.

The practical alternative to provide for training in these institutions and to secure the relevance of the contents of their programs, is to examine beforehand the objectives of these programs and the methodology they use in achieving those objectives to determine its relevance to the identified training need and to control for unjustified spending of public funds. This can be done through the cultural counselors in foreign countries. International organizations like the United Nations and its tributaries can help in this connection.

The Problem of Evaluation and Follow-up

This problem hits the very essence of training. If trained personnel are not evaluated and followed-up on the job, the usefulness and relevance of training cannot be traced to allow for modifications and review of training plans. Behavioral on the job change can only
be done by closely observing the incumbent, evaluating the change in performance and whether this change is attributed to the training gained. This should be the responsibility of the administration for training and the training sections in the different units. The former has to speculate the measures and criterion to be used for the evaluation and supervise the process and the latter to apply these measures and criterion on the day-to-day performance on the job, and observe the changes that occur.
Posting the Trained: Reposting the trained after receiving training is a crucial basis for applying the training gained. This requires specifically defined job description and classification, responsibilities, duties and the level of knowledge and/or skill required to run it. A pre-determined policy for reposting the trained according to the type and nature of the training received should be contemplated to provide for optimal utilization of the training. This again can be done by the administration for training in collaboration with the training sections in the various units and the personnel managers.

The Problem of Applying the Knowledge and Skills Required: This should not be left the responsibility of the individual trainee but the function of the organization or system. This in essence pertains to the whole system and the system should be liable and open to change rather than resisting it. Innovations should be tolerated as long as they benefit the system. They should be given the prerogative to introduce change.

I hope that these suggestions would help rectify the training system to achieve its stated goals.
CONCLUSION

Enacting laws does not put policies on the right track. It is true that the force of law would back it, but there are problems that had to be handled by the bureaucracy, and others to be tackled by the system as a whole.

It has been advocated that if training is to be effective and integrated, it should be extended not only to all the levels of the public service but also to the political leaders who assume paramount positions in the public service and affect its policy and performance. Sudan has experienced parliamentary democracy from 1956 to 1958 interrupted by a six-year era of military rule, followed by a four-period of democratic instability, which was brought to an end by the May Revolution in 1969.

The multi-party system adopted proved chaotic and the cabinet used to fall and rise by lobbying and maneuvering and the faces of political leaders changed every few months. Today there is a one-party system. The only legal party operating in the political arena today is the "Sudanese Socialist Party" consisting of a coalition of workers, private enterprises, peasants, the elite and the peoples' armed forces. The party has installed an Institute for Socialist-Studies to train the current and potential leaders. This fills the gap long felt between the civil servants and the political leaders.

The maladies of the civil service cannot be cured by training only. Though planning for training is essential, diagnosis of these maladies should continue to put all symptoms under control. The problems of
training should be given more attention and submitted to extensive study by both the political and the bureaucratic leadership. Social justice will sow the seeds of patriotic nationalism and eradicate the apathy and indifference witnessed in many public organizations. Training will remain to be looked upon for rescue but training alone will not accomplish its purposes without the collaboration of all concerned.

2. Stanley Young, "Organization as a Total System".

3. Lectures of Dr. Stevens, Fa. 577, Fall 1978.


5. The National Training Regulations 1976 (in Arabic).

The Pennsylvania State University
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Public Administration
Manpower Management

Managerial Development
with Reference to the Sudan

Ahmed Kamal Gabbani

Presented to:
Dr. Stevens
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Chapter I
Introduction

As organizations developed in both size and scope, management emerged as a requisite towards achieving the objectives and goals of organizations. In other words management developed as a "profession," whose basic function is to provide for organized and planned training and development to secure a collection of skills, knowledge and principles to aid in carrying out the duties of the organization and escort it to the path of success and prosperity.

It is needless to mention here that managerial abilities and skills can no longer be acquired by practice and common sense only. Management has grown so complicated that experience and common sense alone do not suffice to make an efficient manager. Only through continuous and incessant programs for executive and managerial development can we safeguard competent management.

Some of the undisputed functions of management are: Organization; Planning; Controlling and Leadership. These functions are analogous and similar in all organizations, despite their size and location. It has once been said that "management is getting things done through other people."

The purpose of managerial development is not only to raise the efficiency of current managers but to provide for managers for the future. It is a continuous process to meet the challenges of modern management and equip the manager with the most effective and efficient tools for decision-making.
Besides this general and brief introduction this paper consists of three chapters and a conclusion. The second chapter will attempt to explore the various concepts and approaches to managerial development. In this section details will be avoided as far as it does not distort the purpose and does not blur the picture as it is intended to be envisaged. In the third chapter, I will try to discuss the various techniques for managerial development. The fourth and last chapter will focus on the attempts towards managerial development in the Sudan since it was brought to the surface after the hasty "Sudanization" at the independence of the country in the 5th decade of this century. The paper climaxes with a conclusion that sums up the discussions in the preceding chapters and attempt humbly to submit some recommendations for managerial development in the Sudan.
Chapter II
Concepts and Approaches to Managerial Development

What is Managerial Development?

If we believe that the duties, tasks and responsibilities of management are intangible and dynamic we can easily understand the difficulties encountered in developing managers in an ever-changing society. Managers in our times are developed, not born. Thus, managerial development is, "the application of planned efforts to assist in maintaining and improving managers in order that they can more effectively attain the objectives of the enterprise."¹

The Human Relations school claims that its field is the only appropriate field in which training should be carried out. As has been mentioned earlier in this paper "management is getting things done through other people." If we believe in this saying then we should believe that managers, to accomplish their objectives, should sharpen their human tools.

Scott defines management training programs as:

"Training in the behavioral sciences is an activity of time and staff which has its goal executive development to achieve greater individual job effectiveness, improved interpersonal relationships in the organization and enhanced executive adjustment to the context of his total environment."²

This definition comprises three elements:

1. Training is a function of line and staff management.
2. Training aims at escalating job effectiveness and improving interpersonal relationships.
3. Training is geared to the function of education and its role in executive development.

There is no consensus among writers what the word "training" means.

"To some writers in the field of personnel management, training means developing manpower for particular jobs. Other writers interpret it more broadly, including training for adequate job performance and extending an employee's intellectual range through general education. Still other writers speak of an overall area called development which they divide into education and training. Training, in this instance means fitting the man to the job, whereas the purpose of education fits the man to his environment off and on the job."

Jutenberg and Michan restrict their definition to managerial development as: "the art of the development of mental processes, the improvement of managerial proficiency, the development of more qualified managers from those already involved in the management process, and the education of novices to be practitioners in the field."

Jules and Schlenker believe that: "the development of executive talent requires that both training and educa-
tion take place. Training as used here refers to the acquisition of skills and knowledge required to do the specific tasks in a job. Effective training results in a satisfactory level of job 'know-how'. 'Education' has a broader connotation. It refers here to development of the ability to adapt to one's environment. 3

This is an appealing definition. It stresses the importance of the technical skills to carry out various different jobs and the broad-mindedness required to cope with the changes in the environment. This gives a link to the up-date on-the-job performance and the continuous reaction with change in the environment.

The training and development of managers has received greater importance in recent years especially in developing countries that expelled the trained top and foreign middle managers and looked for a loyal and enthusiastic citizen to the top after independence. Training in general was envisaged as the only escape and managerial development as the only outlet of the chaos that followed.

Terry identifies ten reasons for establishing managerial development efforts.

1. Improved communication among management members and better use of informal discussions.

2. Identification of broad, inclusive problems which affect several operating departments and which require man...

gerial attention.

3. Evaluation of adequacy and suitability of organization policy.

4. Keeping up to date on current managerial developments.

5. Revealing certain weaknesses of superiors hindering subordinate efforts, and suggest possible remedial actions to be taken.

6. Securing better co-operation and team-work among management members.

7. Stimulating managers to appraise and develop their subordinates.

8. Encouraging the promotion of qualified managers.

9. Uncovering poorly place management members and bringing about needed transfers for mutual advantage.

10. Assisting in college recruitment efforts.\(^6\)

The behavioral school which advocates that training aims at improving job effectiveness and the climate of interpersonal relations in organizations, stresses that "training seeks a change in the behavior of the trainee."\(^7\)

The behavioral school distinguishes four aspects for training:

1. Transmission of information: This refers to the process of imparting knowledge to trainees on human behavior, communication, leadership, etc.


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3. Evaluation of adequacy and suitability of organization policy.

4. Keeping up to date on current managerial developments.

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1. Transmission of information: This refers to the process of imparting knowledge to trainees on human behavior, communication, leadership, etc.

---

2. Development of Attitudes: This aims at changing the attitudes of training program participants. The point here is that the transmission of knowledge alone is not enough. It is more important to work on changing the attitude on human behavior.

3. Development of skills: It refers to the process of developing "human skills" in applying the acquired knowledge. In this connection this is better carried out on-the-job.

4. Conceptual level: The emphasis here is to conduct management practice in a higher level of abstraction. The stress should be on developing managers who can think in behavioral science terms.

Current Concepts on Management Development

It is no easy task to define training programs designed to develop managers. They are so diversified and complicated that they cannot be integrated in one simple model. It has long been recognized that managers cannot develop by their own merits and natural readiness, but can only be produced by conscious deliberately planned and organized efforts directed towards managerial development. Managerial development programs have recently departed from systemized patterns long cherished. It has evolved as information discussions and communication. Participation has become an important ingredient of development programs, and the more the participation the more involvement, and the more the assimilation of the contents of the program and eventually the more expected is
chance of behavior which is the ultimate objective. The
objectives of managerial development as Terry sees it, then,
"have changed from that of developing 'learned managers' to
learning managers."

The world around us is changing rapidly, and all of us,
including managers, have to keep pace with it. Training;
managers should not only impart knowledge, expertise and
skills to those but equip them with the ability to cope with
the dynamic nature of society and the organization. The
dilemma between the "know-how" concept and the concept that
called for broadening the minds of managers to change with
society and "rounded" change, has been resolved. Both
receive the value they deserve but not in isolation of
each other. To accomplish the objectives of managerial
development both concepts should be looked upon as inextrica-
ble and by necessity complementary to each other.

In Scott put it: "the function of training and educa-
tion is to relate the concepts and findings of the behavioral
science in a way as to have operational significance for
practicing managers with the ultimate effect of changing
behavior. The emphasis in the last sentence is on operational;
real for good reason. Being confirmed practitioners, managers
is not likely to accept theories which do not have practical
application to the business of running an organization."

Scott, William T. "Human Relations in Management,"
p. 300.
Development programs do not produce managers. Man develops himself. Training programs are fruitless unless the participant is aware of the value of the knowledge and his skills imparted to him and he is ready, and has the initiative and conscious of what is or should be happening to him as an impact of the program both in the short and long runs. Terry asserts in this connection: "Seldom does real learning take place unless the learner sees and understands the value to oneself of learning and applying. Developmental efforts are usually most effective when: 1) the learner perceives a reward from doing so; 2) practice in applying the new knowledge or skill is available; and 3) support and feedback are supplied by a person respected and recognized by the learner as competitive and fair."\[10]\n
I will now proceed to discuss one model initiated by Schein which is called "the Model of Influence."

The essence of development programs is changing peoples' behavior, and this requires a planned program of influence. This model assumes that the individual recognizes to some extent his training needs and is ready to change his behavior. Prior to the change of behavior comes the change in attitude. In other words if a development program is to achieve its goals in behavioral change it has to change the perceptions of what effective leadership is. Three steps have to be followed:

\[10\]Terry, George R. "Principles of Management, p. 459."
1. **Unfreezing**: This refers to the concept of influencing an individual to change his attitude and is best achieved by isolating him from associations that reinforce the attitudes selected for change.

2. **Changing**: This refers to the introduction of attitudes and values intended to be established. The individual identifies himself with these values but there is no commitment at this stage.

3. **Refreezing**: This is the step where the required values and attitudes should be reinforced by informal interpersonal relationships. It is important here that the environment backs and accepts these values and attitudes.

Despite the efforts in this direction it is difficult to discern the effectiveness of managerial development programs, not only due to the intangible functions of management but also to other reasons which Jucius pinpoints:

1. The tendency to put more emphasis on the form or method of training than on the specific goals to be realized.

2. Failure to distinguish between knowledge of the management process and knowledge of technical functions performed. Training an individual in ability will produce a functional specialist, but it does little to develop a man skilled in planning, organizing, directing and controlling.

Management should offer leadership. Training programs as the triple author (Summer, O'Connel and Perry) view it provides development into leadership.\(^{11}\)

---

\(^{11}\) Summer, Charles E., O'Connel, Jeremiah, S., & Perry.
Dr. Lee describes programs designed to prepare employees for management responsibilities as one of the most important forms of training. He goes on to emphasize that "the need for midcareer training for managers and executives has been stressed repeatedly."¹²

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Footnote 11 cont.

Neumann, C. "The Managerial Mind."

Chapter III

Methods and Techniques of Personnel Development

In this chapter I will discuss very briefly the various methods and techniques used in carrying out personnel development. As has been mentioned in the previous chapter training in general, and personnel development in particular aims at changing the behavior of individuals through changing the pre-conceived attitudes. This can best be accomplished off-the-job in isolation, i.e., a resort, an institute or a university campus.

1. On-the-job Training: It is an effective means in personnel development as it offers an invaluable opportunity to handle problems promptly on-the-job. It solves the problem of applying principle as it covers both. But its defect is that it takes a long time.

2. Job-rotation and mix of activities: Job-rotation offers the trainee with a spectrum of work environment, broadens his mind and enriches his experience. Scholars differ regarding the duration in each particular, but it ranges from six months to two years. Despite its unquestionable advantages, job rotation has its limitations. First, it creates a kind of instability due to frequent changes in leadership. Secondly, the ability to learn in a short period of time is limited. These two shortcomings can be overcome by prolonging the duration period in each site and by rotating the lower and middle management and keeping top-management for lower periods of time.
The use of "strategic jobs" is another type for job rotations which hold unusual opportunities for self-development. Terry identifies four factors for strategic jobs:
a) key decisions are made and carried out; b) opportunities to solve difficult problems are present; c) contact with top management and personnel outside the company are required; and effective leadership is needed to fill the job.  

3. Special Assignments: This is a very flexible means of development. The trainee is assigned special assignments with full delegation to handle the situation. The way he resolves the arising problems indicates his competence and effective leadership.

4. Teamwork and training: It provides managers to exchange ideas with equivalent and equals him with practice in analyzing and breaking a problem to its component. It encourages talented managers in leading discussions.

5. Committees: Committees are constituted from specialists in an organization for specific objectives. Nevertheless the committee can be used as a means of training for managers. For example, one individual may or may not be aware of the service rendered him by another department. By choosing him as a member of a committee he gains a wider perspective, experiences situations involving the reconciliation of conflicting ideas, learns to adjust to other viewpoints and work in teams to resolve problems.

6. **Role-playing**: Real work situations are brought before participants. Discussions involve the analysis of the problem, how it was tackled, the errors committed in real-life; and the most appropriate decision to be taken. This technique bridges the gap between theory and practice.

7. **Mental Imagery**: It is an artificial situation that represents a certain conflict. It is meant to be realistic face-to-face encounters between two or more persons. It offers the trainees to cope with variety of situations and develop skills in dealing with people. To avoid the difficulty of applying an artificial situation to a real situation the role must be carefully designed.

8. **Multiple Interviews**: This is not a session technique, but it is constantly used by some private enterprises. A junior board of directors is formed with the objective of training three for the future. They discuss the enterprise problems and submit their recommendations to the authorized board of directors for final decisions.\(^1\)

9. **Laboratory Training**: This is an effective means of managerial development in behavioral sciences. The most important means to change attitude and behavior is sensitivity training or T Group. It aims at developing the openness, support and trust of the individual to others, increasing the listening skills to others views and evaluating joint or collaborative efforts.

\(^1\) Dr. Jacko, Zaki. *Scientific Management for the Personnel*, p. 151 (in Arabic).
Task force: It is set up to meet a specific and non-recurring problem. The force works jointly to analyze and solve the problem. This offers a chance of acting constructively as a group.

There are three participative media for management development. Other non-participative media include the following:

1. Teaching
2. Counseling
3. Lecturer
4. Observation Post-
5. Planned special readings
6. Programmed instructions
7. University management development programs.

I shall not explain these techniques because obvious and commonplace they fall out of the focus of this paper.

To conclude the conscious and effective use of these media will have the great effect and impact on the service through developing the talents and abilities of managers, executives and leaders.
Chapter IV
Training and Managerial Development in the Sudan

Historical Background

Training in Sudan is closely related with the history of the political system, its nature and objectives. At the beginning of the century the Sudan was under foreign-dual rule: Egypt and Britain. The civil service despite its small size (935 employees in 1901) was dominated by the British on the top, Egyptians in the middle and Copts and Armenians at the bottom. The Sudanese were only labourers and unclassified personnel. It continued to be like this even after graduation of the first output from Gordon Memorial College. They joined the bottom of the service as clerks and accountants. As it was non-Sudanese the service was rather military than civil, composed of soldiers. But foreignism and militarism began to be aware, gradually, especially after the First World Great War when the soldiers went to the field of battle. Sudanization as an anti-foreignism factor was accomplished by 95% only in 1956. During this long range between and after the two great wars the civil service underwent great change, namely the expulsion of the Egyptians both military and civilians from the country after the assassination of Sir Lee Stack in Cairo in 1924. Sudanese replaced them and later replaced the British.

Sudanization had a great impact on training in the Sudan. The diagram below illustrates the increase of Sudanese employees and the diminishing of British employees between 1920 and 1958:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Sudanese</th>
<th>British</th>
<th>Egyptians</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>1502 (38%)</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>1650</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>3960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>2670 (59%)</td>
<td>1030</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>5410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1953</td>
<td>7860 (83%)</td>
<td>1168</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>9218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>8774 (87%)</td>
<td>1111</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>10049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>9007 (91%)</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>11021 (95%)</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>12127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>13810 (96%)</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>14373</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sudan Calendar, 1957.

The fact I intend to reveal by displaying this table can be envisaged by the Sudanization process generated by national movement for liberation and complete independence. After the close of the second World War in 1944 after the speech of the Governor General before the Advisory Council for Northern Sudan (the Southern Region was not represented) the Council passed a resolution to constitute a committee at the advice of the Establishment Committee (now the Civil Service Department) to submit recommendations for the Sudanization of government positions in 20 years from 1945 to 1964. Later the Committee submitted its recommendations. They read as follows:

A. Percentage of positions to be Sudanized in Division One:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>38.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>55.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Percentage of positions to be Armenian in Division:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Percentage of positions to be Armenian in Divisions One and Two:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>48.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Report of Armenian Committee (British Version, p. 12)

This was then the plan for Armenization scheduled by the British taking into account the opportunities for training both inside and outside the country. But happened was missing. Instead of 187.4 Armenian positions in 1937, 29.7 positions were Armenian in 1956 (three years into complete independence in January 1, 1956).

Thus the Armenization which enabled the Armenians to leap from third-class positions to second-class positions after the expulsion of the Egyptians in 1927, were now hoisted overnight to top management positions. The individuals who benefited from this were not necessarily trained to shoulder the new responsibilities as top, middle and first-line managers. They were subordinates to British expatriates without the least knowledge of planning, delegation, control and follow-up. Despite the authentic patriotic readiness and resolutions not to fail, this in concurrence with new demands of national aspirations brought a drastic drop in the...
quality and standards of the civil service and tabled the
voting bills for training.

This is a brief review of the history of the civil
service brought forward to explain and justify the necessity
for managerial development in the Sudan.

For top managers the only source of development con-
centrated on domestic round-table conferences and external
short seminars and conferences. At the beginning they were
reluctant to join these domestic conferences out of arrogance
and narrowness and sometimes on the pretext of work-over-
load. But gradually especially after the retirement of old
managers and the takeover of young graduates, they started
to join enthusiastically the conferences and seminars
organized by the Institute of Public Administration in
Khartoum. During the period from 1960 to 1974, 10 conferen-
ces organized by the Institute of Public Administration in
Khartoum or organized by international and regional organi-
sation and held in Khartoum. Most of the top management
attended international conferences and seminars in a diversity
of world systems.

The latest report available to me here shows that upto
1974 the following total number have attended training
courses at the Institute of Public Administration in Khartoum:

- Top Management: 173
- Middle Management: 1926

It is worth mentioning here that the top managers were
excepted from being awarded certificates of attendance for
these courses.

For the middle and first-line managers training abroad is the main source of development. Hundreds of university graduates are sent each year to acquire managerial knowledge and skills overseas in an effort to provide for the managers of the future. The Faculty of Economics and Social Studies of the University of Khartoum runs a nine-month diploma course in public administration to qualify graduates of middle-management scholars. The Institute of Public Administration in Khartoum organizes specialized courses in the various aspects of Public Administration ranging from a few days to several weeks for first-line supervisors.

The latest reports and leaflets on the efforts for managerial development in the Sudan are not available to me here, but we have read of tremendous efforts being embarked upon in the newspapers. But in more important is the statistics and the impact of these efforts on the public service.
Chapter V

Conclusion

Training in general and managerial development in particular has gained wide acclaim especially after World War II and the growth in size and diversification of organizations.

Managerial development is essential not only because of its multiplier effect, but because it prepares leadership which leads the way to prosperity and success. It is a difficult task to produce managers, though there are no born managers, because the process requires readiness, initiation and liability to change attitude and behavior. The behavioral school contributed in this connection towards changing the behavior of individual which is the ultimate objective of training and development. Various participation media and non-participation media are used to transmit knowledge and skill to aid in developing managers.

In the Sudan, Organization called attention for training. Though the top management was reluctant to development in the beginning it soon joined the movement and heartily participated in conferences and seminars. Middle management has embarked and is still embarking on development process and the near future, I hope, will witness a jump in the standards of the public service due to the potential of the line and staff management.

An interesting paper with a lot of potential that could have been better conveyed. The listing of points notice than analysis based recommendations detailed from your approach. Vague statements, give the context instead of broad statements that is the best with less tautology.
Bibliography

10. Speech delivered by Sayed Abdelrahman Abdalla, Minister of Public Service and Administrative Reform before the National Assembly, 1975.
The Pennsylvania State University
Institute of Public Administration

Public Administration
Summer 1976

Research
Evaluation of Training

Ahmed Nabil Gabbani

Presented to:
Dr. Robert W. Lee
I. Introduction ...................................................... 1
II. What is Evaluation? ............................................. 5
III. Strategic Problems of Evaluation ......................... 13
IV. Methods of Evaluation ....................................... 18
V. Conclusion ...................................................... 24
Training and development programs have gained firm ground in both developed and developing countries. Though the need for training stemmed from different sources yet the zeal and enthusiasm for training in both developed and developing worlds is synonymous. Hundreds of training institutions for all levels of the service sprang up, and innumerable programs were contemplated, planned, designed and conducted. Where domestic expertise was lacking, technical assistance from outside was sought. International organizations like the United Nations came to the rescue and millions of dollars were spent in training activities and research pertaining to training. Training, especially in developing countries, became a popular subject and was believed to be the only remedy for the ailments of the public service and does like magic. But what after? What has been achieved from these extensive and expensive training activities? In terms of what was training effective toward, the objectives of the agency, organization or government? Was it in essence worthwhile and do the results justify the spending? As J.K. Sargent has stated in an article,²

1J.K. Sargent was former deputy director, Institute of Public Administration, London.

At a time when training has been accepted as an integral part of management and a vital factor in public administration, it has become important to ensure that organizations are getting value for the time and money devoted to training. With political encouragement and with a heavy accent on career development, the number of training courses have increased rapidly and the standards of tuition have become something of a gamble. Evaluation is a term that has become fashionable insofar as training is concerned, but in practice it means very little.

So little has been written on evaluation, but it is gaining more momentum. William A. Tracey pointed out that the lack of interest in evaluation is a consequence of two factors:

1. The nature of training and development programs themselves.

2. The absence of a suitable conceptual framework and adequate instruments for meaningful evaluation.

But the concept of evaluation is emerging because management no longer trusts in training for its own sake or in assumed benefits derived from it. Evaluation is needed to examine whether the objectives of training and development programs have been achieved in order to eliminate unjustified spending, and improve programs if less than maximal results are obtained, as no moral effort is perfect. Robert A. Burr stated, "Sometimes a sub-conscious objective of evaluation is to justify training. This is putting the cart before the horse."3


Though evaluation, as we are going to see in the following chapter, is a very difficult process, and the research and studies conducted might not render the expected results, yet it should be heavily embarked upon, and should be, like training itself, a continuous and on-going process. Evaluation must be conducted in terms of purposes and objectives, and it must be cooperative in the sense that all participants of a training activity must work in collaboration to encompass all factors; and it must be very specific and based on uniform objective methods, procedures and criterion, if the whole exercise is to prove fruitful. Evaluation, in a sense, is a type of problem solving and should thus follow the systematic, logical and ordered steps employed for rational problem-solving.

This paper, besides this brief introduction, consists of three chapters and a conclusion. The first chapter will attempt to explore the meaning of evaluation and the various aspects the word implies. No specific models of evaluation, most of which were conducted in the United States, will however be referred to as the study is designed to be general in nature and the emphasis is more on theory than practice. Standard evaluation models initiated in a given society might prove inadequate and fruitless in another society with all social, historical, environmental, ethical and value differences.

The second chapter will examine the various problems that encounter evaluators and the studies of researchers in an attempt to overcome or at least control them. This
comprises the various factors that might, besides training, affect the objectives, and thus blur the extent to which the training program has contributed toward the achievement of those objectives.

In the third chapter the different methods and techniques of evaluation will be surveyed. The paper will climax with a conclusion summing up the discussion of the previous chapters and try, timidly and lightly, to predict the prospects and future of evaluation.
Managers, needless to say, expect their manufacturing and sales departments to yield a good return and will go to great lengths to find out whether they have done so. When it comes to training, however, they may expect the return - but rarely do they make a like effort to measure the actual results. Fortunately for those in charge of training programs, this philanthropic attitude has come to be taken for granted. There is certainly no guarantee, that it will continue, and training directors might be well advised to take the initiative and evaluate their programs before the day of reckoning arrives.5

This quotation from Goodacre hoists the flag of evaluation in a warning tone and gives a pre-determined value to it.

What is Evaluation? Donald L. Kirkpatrick defines it "as the process to determine the effectiveness of a training program."6 He argues that though this definition is universally accepted, it is incomplete and meaningless unless it is followed by the question, "In terms of what?". The notion that evaluation is necessary and vital to improve programs and abolish those that prove ineffective, is sound and acceptable, but it is general in nature and Kirkpatrick proceeds to suggest that if evaluation is to be specific, meaningful and worthwhile, it should be broken down in logical consecutive steps. He identifies these steps as:


6Donald L. Kirkpatrick, "Evaluation of Training", Training and Development Handbook, ASTD.
a) Reaction - how participants feel about the program.
b) Learning or knowledge in terms of principles, facts, procedures and techniques.
c) Behavior - the impact of training on behavioral change on-the-job.
d) Results - to gauge the tangible consequences of the program, i.e., reduced cost, improved quality, etc.

a) Reaction: This device is employed to measure feelings and emotions. It acts as a thermometer to indicate whether and to what extent the trainees liked the program. It does not involve any investigation about knowledge gained or anticipated future change. It is subjective in a high degree and might be colored by the personality, amiability, eloquence and impressiveness of the trainer. Yet it is the type of evaluation mostly indulged in and though it seems easy to conduct, it should be employed in such a way as to result in quantifiable measures. The area of reaction investigated ranges from subject matter to techniques employed and performance of trainer. James A. Belasco and Tricedescribed this approach as follows:

The subjective approach has the advantage that it involves less time, cost, personnel and skill than the objective approach. Questions are more easily framed; they can be administered orally as well as written; they need be administered only once; and often smaller samples of respondents are needed to participate.7

To measure reaction it should be determined beforehand which aspect is to be explored. This is usually conducted by a questionnaire with specific questions and inviting comments not covered by the questions. As I have mentioned the responses of the trainees might be affected by the personality of the leader. Some leaders by their own merits, gifts and dynamic disposition might appeal to the trainers and score very high. Others might alienate them and receive unjust grading. Though the problem still remains some recommended that the reaction of a coordinator or a trained observer should be considered in conjunction with the reaction of the group. Though it is important to know how people feel about a training program, and thought the learning process itself might depend to a great extent on how the group feels toward the leader as Spencer put it, "For maximum learning you must have interest and enthusiasm." It ultimately rests with the trainer to stimulate and agitate this interest and enthusiasm. Nevertheless, evaluating the reactions of groups virtually adds very little indeed without supplementing it with subsequent evaluation of knowledge gained and cause-effect relationship between the program and on-the-job behavior and finally the outcomes of the program in quantifiable measures.

b) Learning: As already mentioned reaction does not comprise any measure of learning. A trainer may perform an excellent job in a charming and overwhelming manner, but may impart nothing of value to add to the knowledge of his audience. Learning can best be defined as the sheer
acquisition of principles, facts, techniques and skills. It should be noted that this does not include the application of these principles, facts, techniques and skills to the on-the-job performance. It only involves how well the knowledge was imparted and communicated, explained to the participants and assimilated by them. It is more difficult and tedious to carry out evaluation on learning and contrary to measuring reaction it is objective in nature.

"While the objective approach requires greater investment in time, money, personnel and skill, it is a more exact method to study change because it can both identify and explain more easily." 8

This hard work involves pre- and post-tests, objectivity, the use of a control group not receiving the training, extensive expertise on statistics for planning and analyzing the data and interpreting the results.

For programs structured to teach skills it is easy to test whether or not these skills were grasped by the participants, and can be measured by demonstrations, i.e., skills such as interviewing and role-playing techniques. If the objectives of the program are more oriented to teaching principles and facts rather than skills and techniques the evaluation proves more subtle and difficult. Here it is appropriate to employ pencil and paper tests on a before-and-after basis.

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8 James A. Leusch and Harrison H. Rice, "The Assessment of Change in Training and Therapy", p. 16.
with the use of a control group. By this means one can safely rely to some extent on the results of such an evaluation noting that only what is taught is tested. But still one cannot be positively sure whether the achievements of outstanding participants are due to the effective method and content used in the program or whether it is due to personal readings unless the program is a closed one.

To conclude, grasping principles, facts and skills is difficult and has no bearing on behavioral change on-the-job. Without this behavioral change on-the-job training programs can be useless intellectual manifestations and not worthwhile, luxurious and exorbitant.

c) Behavior: This is the crucial criterion for evaluating the effectiveness of training and development programs. Assuming favorable reaction and well assimilated imparted knowledge, how do these achievements contribute to the promotion of performance on-the-job? In what ways and instances does on-the-job performance change in the interest of the agency, organization or government due to training programs? The mere ability to understand principles and facts and demonstrate skills does not involve behavioral change on-the-job. Who is to blame if no change of behavioral takes place despite the efforts exerted and the ultimate success of the program? The trainer has done a great job and so did the participants. But what else? If the participants continue persistently to perform the way they used to this indicates the utter failure of the training program. But with whom does the responsibility lie? It rests with the participants as Robert Katz
sees it and identifies some basic qualities to exist in persons if any change is to expected:

1. Aptness and readiness for improvement.
2. Self-consciousness and recognition of one's defaults and weaknesses.
3. The work climate or environment should be permissive.
4. Availability of whole-hearted assistance from an interested and skilled person.
5. No restrictions enforced on trying new ideas.

The last requisite indicates that the culprit in absence of change on-the-job is not always the trainee, but some default with the agency or organization.

This transition between learning and behavioral change is critical and requires extensive and elaborate research. It is assumed that to arrive at any reliable findings a before-and-after appraisal of performance is carried out, preferably by more than one evaluator comprising the trainee himself, his superiors and subordinates and should be conducted a few months after receiving the training and the results should be stated quantitatively as far as possible.

But how can we prove efficiency in management? If a supervisor successfully settles a trade union dispute or speeds up production can it be attributed to the study course he has received in foremanship? Even if the recipients of training are more impressive than untrained staff it might be due to experience, scope and general intelligence.

As long as these questions remain unanswered the problem of evaluation and especially management development systems will remain uneased. Another problem is that controlled groups are not easily isolated, and if sufficient time is unavoidable for rehabilitation, many other influences might interfere with the evaluation assessment. But more research should be devoted to this problem. Sargent pointed out:

To some extent training organizations although paying lip-service to evaluation, are apt to produce excuses for partial failure that clouds the assessment. In view of these human limitations it is perhaps obvious that external research should be sponsored to ensure that teaching in fact is proving effective.\(^1\)

d) Results: The results of a training program can virtually be termed the objectives of that program, i.e., reduced costs, promoted efficiency, increase of production etc. But not all types of training and development programs can be evaluated in terms of results especially those pertaining to management development. We can for instance trace the results of a training program on a before-and-after basis when it concerns typing skill and speed. But in management development it proves more subtle. Dr. Lee states,

Objective evaluations are more difficult for managerial work. How is the effectiveness of a training program for first-line supervisors to be gauged? Even more difficult is assessing executive development programs. These often are not intended to have an immediately noticeable effect upon behavior. Proponents of such training claim that benefits are long-term which defy objective measurement. To what extent, then, can the supervisor performance of an executive today be credited to a one or even seven-week training program ten years ago.\(^2\)

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\(^2\) Ibid.
This is really the question that awaits researchers to ease it. Many factors intervene that render evaluation difficult, if not impossible. As E. C. Keachie stated it: "Difficulties in the evaluation of training are evident at the outset in the problem technically called 'the separation of variables'."¹² How much of the improvement observed is due to the program compared to the intervening factors? It is very difficult to isolate factors that intervene and cloud the assessment of evaluating training. Sargent wrote:

One does not expect spectacular results when training managers or senior administrators, but it should be fairly easy to check what knowledge of individual management techniques has been acquired, and this has been done effectively in the Organization and Methods Field.¹³

Robert Burr in this direction wrote:

It has been said tritely but truly that animals are trained and people developed. The inference has merit in emphasizing that training more frequently relates to skills, routinized acts and pre-determined responses. Development is concerned with the growth of the whole man, the expansion of his ability to utilize his capacity fully and to apply his knowledge and experience to the solution or resolution of new and different situations; in the improvement of the present performance of incumbents development may favor slightly of training.¹⁴

The subject of evaluation of training will continue to attract the interest and attention of researchers and it is hoped that very soon studies and researchers especially in the fields of management development will progress.

III

Strategic Problems of Evaluation

We now turn to consider the first impediments that stand in the way of conducting evaluation and accurately assessing the effectiveness of training programs.

Tracey suggests the following three problems which hinder evaluation.15

1. Rarity of qualified staff to conduct evaluation projects. The trainers are so involved in the training process itself that they do not find time for evaluating training programs. To get outsiders to do the job does not work as in this case the training staff becomes the object of scrutiny.

2. The diversity of training and development programs makes it rather impossible to evaluate them with a fixed scale, considering all the differences in goals and objectives, environment and the standards of the participants.

3. The repugnance usually felt toward evaluators renders it more difficult. It is difficult to convince the staff of the value of evaluation. The tools that can help the training manager in this direction to overcome this undue resistance to evaluation are those basic to all motivation, participation and communication.

The essential factors for successful evaluation, among many others, include the support of top management to the evaluation efforts and the availability of efficient, competent and skilled leaderships in all positions to assist in the project; the involvement of all the training activity personnel and the effective utilization of communication and coordination.

Leisaso and Price identify four strategic problems that cloud evaluation efforts:

1. The criterion problem: To select a good criterion for evaluating a training or development program two elements are essential:
   a) The objectives of the training program should be stated in measurable terms and the expected results established.
   b) The selection of a yard stick to verify the attainment of stated objectives. The yard stick must be relevant to the stated objectives, reliable and independent of possible change occurring external to the training program and can be measured quantitatively.

In developing a good and suitable criterion four difficulties arise:

a) Objectives are not always specific and often vague and general and no vivid conception of the results is discernible.

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b) The conflict that always exists whether the objective of the program is individual change or organizational change. Management favors the latter as the real payoff of training, but it is difficult and sometimes misleading to judge organizational effectiveness as most training programs state their objectives in terms of individual change with the hope that it will eventually result in organizational change.

c) The time range for accomplishing training objectives poses another difficulty. Often distinction is made between immediate, intermediate and ultimate objectives. Lippman suggests increased knowledge to be the immediate objective, behavioral on-the-job change the intermediate objective and changes in production, morale, etc. as the ultimate objective. Therefore, the time selected to determine the progress of the effectiveness of a training program is very crucial.

d) Still the difficulty of selecting a good yardstick to measure whether or not the objectives are accomplished remains. "A yardstick is the instrument employed to find out whether change actually took place and to describe what change. The yardstick may range from an open-ended interview to a highly structured attitude questionnaire or an examination of cost cards and absentee information."
2. **The Control Problem**: To employ the yardstick to measure the extent of progress focuses the problem of control. The purpose of control is to eliminate and isolate so many factors that might intervene. Two methods might be employed to secure control: the usage of two groups, one undergoing the training and the other not released for training. The differences of comparing the two groups can be attributed to training (change). Because individuals differ in intellectual ability and scope of mind some sampling may be resorted to to secure safer results of change. A pre- and post-test can be applied to filtrate the change attributed to training.

3. **The Contamination Problem**: Contamination might arise from exposing a measure of the criterion before the commencement of the change experience, e.g., circulating questionnaires to participants before the program referring to certain aspects, might alert them during the change experience. Another contaminating source is the passage of time and the occurrence of uncontrolled events. Sources and techniques of collecting data is a third source of contamination, which are numerous pertaining to evaluation training.

4. **Detective Work**: Overcoming the above-mentioned problems a final problem raises its head: that of reaching all those involved in the training activity and evaluation training. And the only possible way to achieve this is to secure the spontaneous cooperation of all participants.

I have briefly touched the problems that stand in the
way of evaluating training and development programs, but it is hoped that incessant research and study on the subject will throw more light in this direction.
Methods of Evaluation

William J. Tracey suggests two approaches to the evaluation of training and development programs: external evaluation and internal evaluation. By external evaluation he refers to the application of external criterion on the job when the employee is back to duty after the termination of the training program. The external criterion comprises reports, observations, interviewing, questionnaires, work samples and statistical data upon which the value of the program to the organization is measured. Value, Tracey proceeds, is usually stated in terms of organizational benefits and in some cases can be translated into dollars or other numerical index of gain and loss, e.g., absenteeism, customer complaints, employee errors, etc. In terms of decrease, or in attitude toward the organization, e.g., customer satisfaction, employee morale, etc., in terms of increase or improvement.

He explains internal evaluation as the revision of training programs when they fail to achieve their objectives by applying internal criterion, e.g., participation measures; comparison with the mean; comparison with hypothetical concept of a "quality program"; measuring behavioral change, participants reactions, etc.

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Each of these criteria has its merits and defects, but we shall not discuss them in detail as it does not come under the scope of this paper.

Methods of Evaluation

1. Interview: Interview aims to probe deeply into the experience on the course and the use of subject matter on return to the job. It is advised that it should be conducted some time after the course, 1-3 months. The trainee, his immediate superior and whenever possible the head of the department should be interviewed. This interviewing, does not include, however, analysis of the course content, the evaluation of which should be entrusted to the research officer or the training unit within the organization. This is because if too much initiative is left to the student, personal emotions and opinions might stifle pertinent comments. It should be clear that using this method the main beneficiary is the employer and not the individual trainee.

2. Questionnaire: Most of the training institutions throughout the world have developed some questionnaire form, but it is yet doubted whether this method has done any good to evaluation. Compulsory signature on forms usually colors it.

19 This section is based mainly on J.C. Carpenter in "The Evaluation of Training" and some memories from a six-months training course I attended at the University of Manchester, U.K. In 1972 on "The Methodology of Public Administration Training".
with undeserved compliments and in some cases fear of repercussions, while experience has shown that unsigned forms are not popular with students. Sometimes the brilliant participants refrain to answer positively and extensively. Anyhow absolute objectivity is not possible and to attempt to come near it the form has to be designed carefully with specifically accurate wording to avoid both misinterpretation and emotional reaction. Such areas like that of syllabus content can be adequately evaluated through questionnaire forms.

3. Job-analysis: Besides its being an instrument for planning and designing training programs, job analysis can be used as an appropriate method for evaluating the training programs themselves. Usually training programs use general and vague references to administration and management; but this generality does not identify the job. Such questions like: What were the objectives of the course? Why was it designed in that way? Whenever there is a change of behavior on-the-job was it really due to the course? To suppress reactions a re-analysis should be employed at least a year after the termination of the course. This method requires hardware and only by close and intelligent observation can improvement in job performance be noted.

4. Analysis of Student Selection Methods: Evaluation is virtually not possible until one examines the methods of selection of participants for training programs. And unless the latter is successful its impact on the program
will be great. It has been noted that failure was due to bad selection and sometimes some were sent to training programs just because of the availability of vacancies. To guarantee the success of training, the selection of participants must be objective and it is of equal importance as will, that it takes place at a suitable stage in their career.

5. **Evaluation Projects**: At some senior level development it is sometimes possible to make an assessment of training effectiveness. The depth to which students involve themselves, their judgment and their recommendations should not only reflect the trainee but should spotlight weaknesses in training, and for that matter, demonstrate the success of aspects of the course relevant to the exercise. It is more difficult to design projects or to test management effectiveness at the higher level, as failure of the project itself could be significant from the organization’s viewpoint. Nevertheless, the performance of the management trainee asked to deal with a particular labor problem could be of help if the task followed a relevant training course.

6. **Group Assessment**: Only when an identifiable discipline is being taught can a controlled group be observed for long enough to check training methods. Equivalent groups may be compared after variations of training methods, but the difficulty is of course isolating those matching groups. It is in this type of evaluation that the psychologist can make a contribution.
The reactions of a group are more likely to eradicate errors of judgment or emotional reactions, but so far the only group opportunity is the final discussion held on the course itself when emotions run high. The followup course or reunion seminar is a crude method or creating a second group discussion opportunity, but it is no substitute for observations scientifically planned; memories are short-lived and the social activities linger in the mind long after serious discussions fade.

These are the main methods of evaluating training and development programs, besides two others I mentioned in the course of the discussions of the previous chapters, i.e., demonstration for evaluating skill and paper and pencil test for evaluating knowledge in terms of principles and facts.

Evaluation of Overseas Training:

The methods discussed above pertain mostly to training conducted domestically. But some students are sent for study and training courses abroad. How would the effectiveness of these overseas programs be evaluated? Usually training centers send reports on the progress of trainees to their governments, and usually in very general terms. It is advocated that this general report is necessitated by the fact that the trainer only knows the trainee from one aspect, i.e., training, and mostly, excluding long-study courses, for a short and limited period of time. Trainees overseas might be hampered by many factors, e.g., ill health, lack of background experience to
relate new knowledge (It is important here to note that training and development programs in developed countries are tailored to meet the needs of the host country and might not necessarily meet the needs of developing countries. To evade this close examination of the contents and curriculum of overseas training institutions might help in preserving undue and costly expenses), inadequate allowances, climatic changes, etc.. Sometimes the trainers refrain to write adverse reports on trainees for fear of spoiling their careers (and it is advisable but for very rare cases of utter negligence and apathy). In return home no evaluation is carried out and sometimes premature transfers shatter the opportunity of applying knowledge and techniques required overseas.
V.

Conclusion

In post World War II the slogan of the day became training in the developed countries that lost the best of its young men in the war. Soon the ex-colonies or what came to be known as the developing countries, followed suit. The out-cry for training was widespread. The zeal and indulgence in training was frantic and millions of dollars were lavishly committed to the experience. A check up to question the value of training emerged to measure the payoff of training programs. No matter how much gained in terms of knowledge and skill, training is only effective and worthwhile as its applicability.

...one of the pillars of evaluation training contributed a lot in the field, and suggested systematic, ordered steps to measure the effectiveness of training in terms of reaction, learning, behavior and results. Despite all the efforts in the field, it is still difficult to gauge the effectiveness of training and the extent of change attributed to management development. It is possible now to assess the effectiveness of training in routinized skill, but the change in management development defies precise and accurate assessment.

Evaluations stumble over various impediments in their endeavor toward accurate and reliable assessment of the effectiveness of training. These obstacles range from the
selection of evaluation criterion through problems of control, contamination, detective work and the conscious identification and isolation of various external factors that might interfere to cloud the extent of change due to training.

Evaluation is progressing very slowly. The training staff are involved in time-consuming training activities to spare a lot of time for evaluation. External evaluations are eyed with animosity and mistrust. The researchers are branded to belong to the laboratory and to lack insight in job experience. The problem of evaluation requires the collaboration of all involved and research is invited to enrich the field. If such efforts were harmoniously co-ordinated, the prospects of reliable and accurate assessment of the effectiveness of training and development programs will be enhanced.
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Development Planning in the Sudan
Planning & Organization

Ahmed Jamal Gabbani

Presented to:
Dr. Robert LaPorte, Jr.
Contents

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2. Development Policy in Historical Perspective
3. Organization for Development Planning
4. The Role of International and Regional Organizations in the Development of the Sudan
5. Conclusion
Introduction

Brief Historical Background

The modern history of the Sudan begins in 1821 when Mohamed Ali, the viceroy of Ottoman Egypt conquered the country. This Turk-Egyptian rule of the country continued until 1883. The country was divided into provinces and districts and Khartoum, at the junction of the White Nile and the Blue Nile was designated as the new capital of the country. The regime succeeded in installing a number of outposts along the Nile and as far as the Great Lakes. A telegraph line connecting Darfur province in the far west and Egypt via Khartoum was established. But very little was accomplished during this era in terms of the development of the country's resources.

In 1881 a nationalist leader, the Mahdi, "the expected prophet", started a revolution against the corrupt and despotic rule of the Turks. His movement was so popular that most of the tribes joined it and eventually overthrew the Turk-Egyptian government and captured Khartoum. But, unfortunately, the years that followed the Mahdi's death and the take-over of his successor, the Khalifa Abdullah, was beset with external wars and bloody domestic strife. In such conditions no time was spared for the development of the country's resources.

The country was re-occupied in 1898 by an Anglo-Egyptian expedition led by General Kitchner. Though the Condominium agreement concluded between the British and the Egyptians
declared them as equal partners in the rule of the country, the British remained throughout the dominant partner.

The condominium era witnessed the first organized effort towards the development of the country's resources. The development was started with capital expenditure on the construction of railways, harbors, and river steam services, but the greatest economic achievement towards the development of the country was the introduction of modern irrigation schemes, i.e., the Ueiza scheme in 1925 which followed the completion of Sennar Dam. Then followed the introduction of pump schemes along the Nile and its tributaries. The number of private pump schemes grew from 372 schemes irrigating 170,000 feddans in 1946 to 2,229 schemes irrigating 770,000 feddans in 1957.

Meanwhile, the Sudan national movement was emerging in the post-World War I period in resentment of British activities in the country. The movement was escalated to a mutiny of the Cadets of the Military School in 1924. The mutiny was violently crushed and its leaders were shot down. However, this violent action did not stop the Sudanese from re-organizing themselves. In 1938 the elite brought themselves in a cohesive league, "The graduates General Congress." Though the Congress at first engaged in social and educational affairs it submitted a memorandum to the British Governor General and overth

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demanded to speak in the name of the people, but the memorandum was rejected, and it was only in 1953 the British and the Egyptians agreed to provide for a three-year period of self-government under international supervision at the end of which the people were to determine the future of the country. This transitional period lasted for two years and the independence of the Sudan was declared on January 1, 1956.

The multi-party parliamentary system adopted after independence was both corrupt and unstable. The anarchy resulted in a military coup d'etat in 1958. The soldiers were no better than their predecessors and were overthrown by a popular revolution in October 1964. Though the October revolution restored the civilian rule and the parliamentary system the same maladies re-appeared and conflicts arose in the endeavor of each party to seize power. This gave rise to the 25th May revolution in 1969 led by young patriotic army officers. The relative stability that prevailed following this revolution provided for a more effective utilization of the country's resources and a faster rate of economic and social development. The details will be discussed in the coming chapter.
Country and Population

The Sudan is the largest country in Africa, with an area of about one million square miles. It lies between latitudes 3 N and 23 N and longitudes 21 E and 39 E. The country forms an immense basin sloping gently toward the north, with high land on the other three sides - the Red Sea Hills and the Ethiopian highlands on the eastern side, the Jebel Mara range on the western side and the Imatong range in the far south.\(^3\)

Twice was population census carried out in the Sudan. The first was launched in 1955/56 and the second embarked upon in 1973. But the latter census was not completed till now into final tabulations. Table 1 illustrates the estimates (provisional) of the population in 1973 alongside the results of the 1955/56 census.

It is estimated that 79.9% of the population of the country are engaged in agricultural or livestock activities.\(^4\) The preliminary and provisional estimates of 1973 illustrate that about 71% of the total population are settled in rural areas where they are predominantly engaged in agricultural activities, while 10% are nomads. Moreover agriculture contributes 95% of exports directly or indirectly and about 50% of total government revenue.\(^5\)


\(^5\) A. M. El Hassan, op. cit.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>1955/56</th>
<th>1973</th>
<th>Annual Growth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equatoria</td>
<td>903,503</td>
<td>791,738</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahr al Ghazal</td>
<td>991,022</td>
<td>1,396,913</td>
<td>2.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Upper Nile</td>
<td>888,611</td>
<td>836,263</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>All South</td>
<td>2,783,156</td>
<td>3,024,914</td>
<td>0.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Northern</td>
<td>873,059</td>
<td>957,671</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khartoum</td>
<td>504,923</td>
<td>1,145,921</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kordofan</td>
<td>941,039</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blue Nile</td>
<td>2,069,646</td>
<td>3,760,405</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darfur</td>
<td>1,761,968</td>
<td>2,202,345</td>
<td>1.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>All North</td>
<td>7,479,400</td>
<td>11,733,432</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Population</td>
<td>10,262,536</td>
<td>14,758,346</td>
<td>2.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>737,133</td>
<td>2,676,730</td>
<td>7.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>9,525,403</td>
<td>12,071,616</td>
<td>1.5</td>
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</table>


6Up to 1974 the country was divided into 9 provinces. In 1974 and as a result of the restructuring of boundaries the number of provinces was increased to 13.
I hope that this brief outline will be of use to serve as a background for the purpose of this paper. The paper, besides this introduction, consists of three chapters and a conclusion. The first chapter will examine the policy for development in the Sudan since the turn of the century. In this historical perspective I shall examine the policy for development planning until the emergence of the six-year plan 1977-78-81-82.

The second chapter will survey the evolution of the organization for development planning in the country since the British after the reconquest of the Sudan introduced European material culture and institutions, mostly on the British model.

In the third chapter the focus will be on the role of international and regional organizations and their contributions towards the development of the country. Finally the paper closes with a conclusion in which hints are made about the future of development in the Sudan, summarizing the discussion of the preceding chapters.
Chapter 1

Development Policy in Historical Perspective

In an article in "Sudan Journal of Administration and Development" titled "Creating the Administrative Capabilities for Development", Dr. Donald C. Stone wrote:

Most countries are committed to programs of rapid economic and social advance, periodically, they prepare and revise five-year, six-year and ten-year plans with goals that are seldom realized fully or on schedule. Indeed, many programs and projects are never achieved. There are many causes for this lack of achievement: unrealistic, fragmentary or spongy plans; insufficient resources; hoped for foreign investment or assistance that is not forthcoming; economic and social targets not supported by tightly defined and adequately evaluated projects and operations. But the primary difficulty is the lack of administrative capabilities to unite all parts of the government - national, regional and local - in a co-ordinated effort to formulate and implement a plan.

In another part of the article, he wrote:

The most obvious precondition for effective development is an established government which is assured of internal support and continuity by an institutionalized political system.

At the very minimum, the government must be able to maintain law and order, provide elementary public services and collect taxes, but this is only a beginning. Effective self-government requires the assumption of responsibility for the governance of the society under an institutionalized political system which legitimizes the way in which power may be exercised and transferred. Wide internal acceptance of

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8 Dr. Donald C. Stone was Dean of the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs of the University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. In the U.S. Federal Government, he was formerly Director of Administration of the Economic Co-operation Administration and the Mutual Security Agency, and Assistant Director of the Bureau of the Budget, Executive Office of the President. He participated in numerous U.N., UNIDO, and other international conferences and served as a consultant to many governments and agencies on development matters.
this exercise of political power is vital to any pro-
gram of rapid, directed change. Political leadership
should be socially concerned and creative. It must
not be pre-occupied with maintaining the status-quo,
protecting privileged groups, or holding onto authority.
National leaders must be prepared for the grim tasks
of reconciling aspirations with resources, goals with
capabilities. They must test projects with what is
feasible and significant in development terms. Above
all, they must support constraints on consumption pending
economic growth and higher levels of income essential
to the production of consumer goods and services. In
addition the country's leadership must be sufficiently
free of daily crises to focus on tasks essential to
national development.

Dr. Donald C. Stone, in the above extractions, is
putting his finger on the actual cause for the disappointing
accomplishments of development plans and projects. Indeed
what he pointed out gives the clue for the relative failure
and sometimes discontinuation of programs in the Sudan.

Development Policy

Dr. A. Abdelwahab\textsuperscript{9} in an article\textsuperscript{10} distinguishes three
eras of development policy in the Sudan:

1. From the beginning of the century until the close of
World War II.


3. From the beginning of the sixties to the present time.

\textsuperscript{9}Dr. A. Abdelwahab is Under-Secretary, Ministry of
Planning, Khartoum.

\textsuperscript{10}An Introduction to the Sudan Economy", Khartoum
1. Pre-Second World War Period

This era extends through the greater part of colonial rule of the country. The economy was characterized by agricultural exports accompanied by a stagnant traditional sector. The economic development that took place during this period was ultimately attributed to cotton production in the Gezwa scheme. Prior to the end of World War II the Sudan had no plan. A few public investment projects were included in the governments annual budget. The fiscal arm maintained a balanced budget on current account, i.e., recurrent expenditure was fixed at a level equal to or below revenue estimates. When surpluses were possible due to a good crop year or favorable market conditions, the surpluses were credited to "The General Reserve Account." Minor capital expenditure projects were financed from this fund. On the other hand, when in unfavorable conditions the revenues were scarce, the current expenditures were financed from the GRA. This means that rather than being a fund for financing development projects, the General Reserve Account was used as a "fiscal stabilization mechanism." For this reason in 1949 the GRA came to be known as "The Revenue Equalization Account."

Further fiscal stabilization was secured by foreign trade policy. To suppress inflation caused by income increases in the export sector, the imports of consumer goods were encouraged. It is evident from the above discussion that during this period there were no definite plans or programs for public investment. It is also evident that the development expenditure
was constrained by the level of GRA. Most of the projects conceived during this era were small capital projects with a low foreign exchange component and were mostly devoted to social services. The economic philosophy of the era believed in the leadership of the private sector, which at that time was foreign private enterprise. The public sector only served as an infrastructure and a healthy atmosphere. Table 2 best illustrates the role of the public sector during this period.

Table 2
Sudan Government Guaranteed Loans on 31st December 1924

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date of Issue</th>
<th>Maturity</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Net Proceeds £'s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>October, 1919</td>
<td>1929-59</td>
<td>5½% guaranteed Bonds 95½%</td>
<td>3,342,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February, 1921</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>5½% guaranteed Bonds 92%</td>
<td>2,649,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January, 1923</td>
<td>1939-73</td>
<td>4½% guaranteed Stock 93%</td>
<td>3,027,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May, 1924</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>4½% guaranteed Stock 95½%</td>
<td>489,012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November, 1924</td>
<td>1950-74</td>
<td>4½% guaranteed Stock 86%</td>
<td>645,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10,148,612</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Application

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loan Type</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Railways</td>
<td>700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loans to Sudan Plantation Syndicate</td>
<td>400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sennar Dam and Canalization</td>
<td>8,702,754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of Issue</td>
<td>261,027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance Unspent</td>
<td>84,831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10,148,612</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To intensify this policy the more, commercial credit policy was also framed to serve private investment. The activities of commercial banks were exclusively restricted to short-term finance of export-import traffic. Foreign companies like Mercantile Companies provided the links between production, financing and export. It is worth mentioning that during this period the public sector had no control over the level or uses of commercial credit. In the absence of a central bank, this was determined by correspondent accounts between local commercial banks and companies and their European parents.

To conclude, this era, though characterized by the absence of conscious development policy, yet some substantial economic development evidently took place. The private sector led the way, while the public sector provided some infrastructure, some social services, and above all fiscal stability. The public investments were funded from accumulated budget surpluses and from long-term borrowing in the London capital market.

2. The Era 1946-1960

After the end of the Second World War, Britain came out with an expressed commitment toward self-rule to its overseas dominions. To prepare the Sudan for self-government, the British in 1946 established a "Development Priorities Committee." 11

The committee comprised in its membership the two pillars of the civil service: the Financial Secretary and the Civil Secretary. The Development Priorities Committee initiated a number of "Development Programs" which consisted mainly of uncoordinated projects. Yet though this depicts some concern for development, still public investment continued to serve as an infrastructure. The 1946-51 Development Program which comprised some 200 projects, devoted more than 50% of the available funds to public works, agricultural research and rural water supply. The Second Five Year Development Program 1951/56 followed the same track, as Table 3 shows:

Table 3
The 1951/56 Development Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>£'s Millions</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Productive schemes</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport &amp; Communications</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Services (Health &amp; Education)</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Utilities</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration &amp; Others</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>45.5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


One probable reason for the emphasis on social services in the Development Programs of the era might be that the levels of these services were very low, weak or non-existent.
in such a vast country like the Sudan. But still there was a bright side of the picture. These development programs were implemented without resorting to deficit finance locally or seeking external borrowing. This was because the funds allocated annually for these programs were adequately humble, i.e., 2.7 million for the 1946-51 program, and 9 million for the 1951-56 program. Another factor was the generous yield of cotton during the late forties and the early fifties, both in terms of foreign exchange earnings and government revenue. An instance of this is that in the 1951/52 budget the central government surplus available for development was -5.25 million.

By the end of 1951/56 Development Program the country gained full independence. Constitutional and administrative change took place, and this gave vent to societal aspirations long suppressed by foreign occupation. Demands flowed excessively from different factions and different parts of the country that it was conceived more expedient to resort to a series of annual development programs named "The New Schemes Programs." It was formulated in a five-year scheme covering the years 1956/57 to 1960/61 with a total expenditure of £69 million. Though the "New Schemes Programs" retained some of its predecessors' features, i.e., the combination of uncoordinated projects, it showed a divorce from the previous adherence to infrastructure and social service and press the more for productive schemes as Table 4 illustrates.
Table 4
New Scheme Programs (1956/57-1960/61 Sectoral Distribution of Public Investment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ls Million</td>
<td>of Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive Schemes</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Services</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport &amp; Communication</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Utilities</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (including Administration)</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Finance & Economics, Annual Development Budget Estimates for the Respective Years.

This deviation to productive schemes was mainly due to the initiation of large agricultural and irrigation projects during this period, e.g., Managil Extension, mechanized crop production in Kassala and Blue Nile, Sennar Hydroelectric Project and Genied Sugar Factory. The implementation of these projects required the quest for external aid. This period marks the beginning of the country's relations with the World Bank and other international organizations. The latest part of the Development Programs acquainted the government departments with the techniques of identifying, preparing and executing development projects. Where trained manpower were not available, technical assistance was sought from the United Nations Expanded Program of Technical

*It is an extension to the Gerwa Scheme.*
Assistance and United Nations Special Fund (now United Nations Development Program). At this period three units pioneered in development planning in the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Irrigation and the Ministry of Agriculture.

3. The Beginning of Economic Planning, 1960


The year 1960 marks the era for comprehensive and conscious development planning. That year witnessed the birth of an Economic Planning Secretariat in the Ministry of Finance and Economics. To strengthen the secretariat, experts from different governmental units and international bodies were recruited. The task set before it was to prepare a comprehensive development plan, for which the time horizon was deliberately set to be seven years to conclude with the completion of the giant multi-purpose project of Roseires Dam, but a political decision of the military regime reigning then extended the plan to ten years.

The broad objectives of the plan, for the first time initiated read as follows:

to secure:

a) an appropriate increase in per capita income (2.4% per annum),
b) broadening the structure of the Sudanese economy,
c) an increase in export and import substitution,
d) improvement of social services including education, particularly technical education,
e) the maintenance of a stable price level,
A macro-economic model was formulated for this purpose, and government units were requested to submit their proposals based upon these objectives. The proposals were scrutinized by the Secretariat and forwarded to a technical committee which subsequently submitted its findings to the Cabinet. The aggregate investment amounted to £565.4 million. The public sector was to contribute £337.0 million and the private sector £228.4 million. This was distributed among the various sectors as shown below in Table 5.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Public</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>90.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>41.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>63.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Services</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Replacement</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>228.4</strong></td>
<td><strong>337.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sudan Ten Year Plan, p. 30.

Table 6 below depicts that, pertaining to the financing of gross investment, the planners estimated that 66% of private sector expenditure and 65% of public sector expenditure would be provided by domestic savings, while the remainder was expected to come from foreign assistance plus a small draw-down from the country's foreign exchange reserve. It should be pointed out here that the leadership of the public sector in economic activity was neither an objective nor a basic strategy of the plan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financing of Investment, Sudan's Ten Year Plan (as Million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Fixed Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Savings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Exchange Reserve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Capital Inflow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sudan Ten Year Plan, pp. 79-81.

One basic defect of the ten-year plan was that it was irrelevant to the bulk of the rural population of the country in that it emphasized the "modern sector" and ignored the traditional sector. Yet it is not fair to judge for or against the plan as the years of instability that followed frustrated most of its objectives and culminated in its abandonment.
b) The Five-year Plan, 1970/71 - 1974/75

Following the outbreak of the May Revolution in 1969 there was a zeal and enthusiasm for socialism. Accordingly the zeal for socialist measures led to the establishment of a fully-fledged Ministry of Planning for the first time. With the help of a team of Russian experts the five year plan was launched in 1970. The major objectives of the plan read:

a) To increase Gross Domestic Product by an average annual rate of 7.6%.

b) To achieve a ratio of commodity production (in GNP) of 61% by the end of the plan.

c) To increase the volume of agricultural production by 51% by the end of the plan.

d) To increase the volume of marketable livestock by 75.5% by the end of the plan.

e) To increase the volume of industrial production by 57% by the end of the plan.

f) To achieve substantial investments in social services, rural water supply and rural power.

The objectives of the plan as is evident have been given quantitative magnitudes. There is no doubt they are over-ambitious, e.g., the plan intends to increase livestock production by 75.5%. Furthermore, the objectives mentioned above cover a long range of targets. Indeed as Waterson

Experience shows that the greater the number of targets in a plan, the greater the number of coordinated measures needed to achieve them, the more frequent the need for the plan's revisions and the more difficult the realization of the targets. Less developed countries would therefore do well to limit the number of targets in their plans to a few essential ones and concentrate their scarce resources on achieving them. 14

Though the working papers are not available yet some deductions can be made from the tables of the plan. The plan believed that the transport sector was running much below its capacity, and that the increase in agricultural production could be achieved through the intensification of the existing cropped area, with relatively little investment.

Total planned investment and its financing are illustrated by Table 7 below.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Public Investment</th>
<th>Public Surpluses</th>
<th>Internal Deficit</th>
<th>External Inflow (of which projected foreign loans)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970/71</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971/72</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972/73</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973/74</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974/75</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>215.0</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>122.4</td>
<td>122.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In July 1971 the communists jumped to rule through a coup d'état. They seized power for 72 hours but were crushed. The zeal for socialism faded away and in 1972 the five-year plan was substituted by a Phase Program of National Action drawn by the preparatory Committee of the Sudanese Socialist Union. The Phase Program was to work until 1977. The main objectives set by the program are:

1. To attain self-sufficiency in certain basic commodities (mainly sugar, wheat and textiles).
2. To provide essential services to the citizens.
3. To stabilize prices.
4. To attain balanced, sectoral as well as regional growth.
5. To control government's extravagant consumption.
6. To improve and expand the transport network.

The Phase Program brought transport and industry to the top of focus. The impact of these priorities especially regarding transport and industry can be seen in Table 8 in the comparison between budget allocations for 1972/73 before the Action Program and 1973/74 and 1974/75.

---

It is worth mentioning that since 1971 the Sudan adopted the one-party system, i.e., the Sudanese Socialist Union.
### Table 6

**Budget Allocations (as Million)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1972/73</th>
<th>1973/74</th>
<th>1974/75</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>70.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allocation as a % of total budget</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Government of Sudan, National Commission Internal Progress Report

The Phase Action Program was drawn without specification of costs or resource availability. It was a political decision in the essence and executing units worked separately from the central planning agency and even sought foreign financing. An attempt was made in 1974/75 development budget to constrain this through what came to be called "The Umbrella Budget", i.e., no development project was to be hampered for want of funds. But again since no priority system was indicated, the different departments were treated on a "first come, first serve" basis.

But despite all this the program accelerated the pace for economic development, and self-sufficiency in basic commodities, the cornerstone of the program, is progressing rather satisfactorily.
The Six-Year Plan, 1977/78 - 1982/83

The six-year plan, 1977/78 - 1982/83, is the first phase of a perspective plan extending over 18 years (1977/78 - 1994/95) to be implemented in three phases of six years each. It aims at the progressive improvement of the quality of life and general welfare and standard of living of its citizen and seeks the fullest realization of his potential. Dignity and self-respect of the Sudanese individual in the framework of social equity, full, self-rewarding and productive employment and adequate availability of basic human needs and essential goods and services.\(^{16}\)

The objectives of the plan read as follows:

1. Achievement of a substantial increase in per capita income in real terms through development of both the modern and the traditional sectors. The plan aims at an annual growth rate of 7.5% in constant prices, with agriculture continuing to be the pivot of development and the leading sector of the economy. Development in other sectors would be underlinked with agricultural expansion.

2. Conservation of the country's natural resources.

3. Development and modernization of the traditional agricultural sector.

4. Increasing productivity of all sectors and improving the rate of implementation.

5. Expanding productive employment opportunities and limiting unemployment as a first step toward its eradication.

6. Developing industry as a complementary sector to agriculture giving priority to agro-industries and import substitution. Additional investment opportunities would be tapped, particularly in the field of mineral prospecting to broaden the base of the economy.

7. Attaining self-sufficiency in selected food and other agricultural commodities and inputs.

8. Consolidation and expansion of basic infrastructures particularly in the field of transport and communications, power resources, marketing and storage facilities.

9. Improving the balance of payments position through expansion of exports and production of import substitutes.

10. Encouraging the private sector both foreign and local, to play its role fully and effectively in development.

11. Developing the cooperative movement and intensifying its activities to enable it to make its full contribution toward mobilizing all available financial and human resources for development.

12. Providing more social services and upgrading their standards especially in the fields of education and health.

13. Devoting more attention to rural development and advancement of various retarded areas.


15. Devoting greater attention to development administration and raising standards of organizational and administrative cadre.

16. Laying central development planning on regional planning so as to ensure that development programs reflect
the potentialities and needs of every region.

Table 9 below illustrates the financing of the Plan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Gross Investment</th>
<th>Amount</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
<th>Total Amount</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public Sector</td>
<td>1570</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2670</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Investment</td>
<td>2670</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Financed by:

1. Domestic resources 735
   a) Public Savings 650
      i) Public Savings 650
         - 17
   b) Private Savings
      -
   c) Deficit Financing 205

II. External Resources 635
   a) Including the semi-private sector financed jointly by the Arab Authority, the Sudanese private sector and the government of the Sudan.


Table 10 illustrates the projected revenue surpluses from the base year 1977/78 to the terminal year 1982/83.
Table 10
Projections of Revenue Surpluses (1977-83)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Growth Rates</th>
<th>Public Revenues</th>
<th>Public Expenditures</th>
<th>Revenue Surpluses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977/78</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77/78</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78/79</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79/80</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80/81</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81/82</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82/83</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (1977/78 – 82/83): 3310</td>
<td>2660</td>
<td></td>
<td>450</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


We have now surveyed the evaluation of policy in economic planning since the turn of this century to the present day. We now turn to examine the organization responsible for development planning in the country.
Chapter II

Organization for Development Planning

Under the British the financial affairs were handled by a Financial Secretary. In pre-World War II the sole role of economic activity was fiscal administration. As was pointed out in the previous chapter, the private sector was left to lead the way and to indulge in commercial activities and investment, while the public sector provided an infrastructure and rendered some social services. Even the funds for these services were embodied as capital outlays in the ordinary budget which was administered by the Expenditure Section of the Financial Secretary's office. An example of the budget at that time shows that the budget in essence was a comprehensive budget.

Typical Pre-War Sudan Government Annual Budget

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receipts</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Revenue</td>
<td>a) Recurrent Expend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Debt/Credit to Central Reserve</td>
<td>b) Capital Outlays</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The budget at that time was prepared by the Expenditure Section, approved by the Financial Secretary and submitted to...

17 This chapter is based firstly on an article by Dr. Abdel Salam Al Mahaob, Under Secretary, Ministry of National Planning. Secondly, I was in charge of the "Administration for Training" when it was detached from the Civil Service department and allocated to the newly formed Ministry of Planning after the 1955 Revolution. Though four years later I went back to my mother unit, I was again transferred to the Ministry of Planning in 1973 as a Senior Establishment Officer and continued there until 1974.
the Governor General for endorsement. There were no long or medium term plans or even priorities. This does along with what I pointed out in the previous chapter that the development at that time was subservient to the fiscal policy which dominated the field.

In post-war II period the need for conscious planning in the field of development was deeply felt and subsequently in 1946 a "Development Priorities Committee" was formed. It included in its membership, the Financial Secretary (chairman), the Civil Secretary, the Director of Economics and Trade and the General Manager of Sudan Railways. As its name indicates its function was to determine the priorities of development projects. The first task it accomplished was the formulation of the 1946/51 Development Program. But still the execution of the Program rested with the Expenditure Section of the Finance Department. In 1951 the first cell of a planning organism was created in the form of a "Development Branch" within the Department of Finance under the leadership of a Commissioner for Development. Its basic function was to prepare the annual development budgets and control expenditure in this direction. The newly-formed Development Branch carried out the execution of the 1951/56 Development Program.

During the transitional period for self-rule the Cabinet in 1954 formed a "Ministerial Development Committee" under the chairmanship of the Minister of Finance and including the Ministers of Agriculture, Irrigation, Health, Education, Transport, Public Works and Industry and Supply. Its terms
of reference were:

1. To devise means to conserve and develop natural resources of the country in order to raise the standards of living of the population.

2. To examine development project of the various units and to endorse those that appeal to the public taking into account the physical and financial resources of the country, and even to finance supplementary projects not included by units in their budgets.

3. To review periodical reports pertaining to the execution of approved development schemes.

This Ministerial Committee out-lived the parliamentary system throughout the Military Regime of General Abboud, 1958-64. With the assistance of a Planning Secretariat which was responsible for the preparation of the development plans, the committee in 1960 approved the Ten Year Plan.

Between the 1964 popular revolution and the May 1969 revolution, the period was depicted with conflicts and instability. Nothing was made in the direction of development at the political level. Nevertheless at the Civil Service level the planning machinery gained more status. The small Development Branch grew into a Department of Economic Planning headed by an under-secretary at the same status of the Under-Secretary of Finance and responsible directly to the Minister of Finance and Economics.

The May 1969 Revolution with its outspoken socialist policy created a fully-fledged Ministry of Planning with a
senior cabinet member for the first time in the history of the country. With the help of Russian experts the Ministry of Planning worked out the Five Year Plan 1970/75, but as I have pointed out in the previous chapter the communist attempt to seize power frustrated the continuation of the plan.

In the fourth anniversary of the May Revolution, the President declared a reorganization of the executive structure. It divided the cabinet into five specialized ministerial councils:

a) Ministerial Council for National Economy
b) Ministerial Council for Natural Resources
c) Ministerial Council for Rural Development
d) Ministerial Council for Budget and Administration
e) Ministerial Council for Human Resources

Though the terms of reference of each of these ministerial councils were defined, some conflicts arose which were coordinated by periodic joint meetings of the five councils under the chairmanship of the President. Simultaneously the planning organization witnessed a drastic change. A supreme Planning Council was created under the chairmanship of the President and the following as members:

1. Deputy Vice Presidents
2. Chairman of Ministerial Council for National Economy
3. Chairman of Ministerial Council for Natural Resources
4. Chairman of Ministerial Council for Rural Development
5. Chairman of Ministerial Council for Human Resources
6. Minister of Foreign Affairs
7. Minister of Public Service and Administrative Reform
8. Minister of Finance and Planning (Southern Region)
9. Five Ministers dealing with major economic and social services to be appointed by the President.

Subsequently the Ministry of Planning was dissolved and a National Planning Commission replaced it as a technical corps for the Supreme Planning Council. The Commission was headed by a Commissioner for Planning as a junior cabinet member who also acted as secretary to the Supreme Planning Council.

In the absence of the President the Minister of Finance and Economics presided over the Supreme Planning Council. Since the Commissioner for Planning acted as a junior minister and secretary to the Council the National Planning Commission virtually diminished as a department of the Ministry of Finance and National Economy.

This was in tune with the undeclared policy of the government to encourage the flourish of the private sector and the relaxation of central supervision and control which was exercised by the Ministry of Planning. There were even whispered accusations that the Ministry of Planning grew so strong that it retarded development.

Under such circumstances, especially after the promulgation of the National Phase Action Program of 1973, units carried out their own development programs and even contracted with foreign organizations for funds.
In 1975 a number of Republican decrees brought the executive structure back to a single cabinet and transferred the powers of the Supreme Planning Council to the Cabinet which was headed by the President. The planning organization was re-structured as follows:

a) Council of Ministers (headed by the President)
b) Ministerial Planning Committee (headed by the Minister of Finance and National Economy)
c) National Planning Commission (headed by the Commissioner for Planning)
d) Planning units in other government departments

The Commissioner for Planning was appointed an ex-officio member and convener of the Ministerial Planning Committee. But still the terms of reference of the Planning Commission remained unchanged. No change whatever took place in the relation of the planning organization with the Ministry of Finance and National Economy.

Recently the Ministry of Planning resumed its status as an independent Ministry under a senior cabinet member. Whatever restructuring took place in the organization and functions of the planning setup, I have no literature pertaining to it.

I have very briefly traced the evolution of the planning organization in the Sudan from the turn of the century up to now in an effort to link its different phases with the policy of development planning discussed in the previous chapter.
Chapter III
The Role of International and Regional Organizations in the Development of the Sudan

It is a common experience, especially in countries with low income that the domestically available funds fall short of the requirements for development. The country has then to seek foreign financial assistance under bilateral arrangements or loans from international or regional organizations.

The Sudan is a relatively open economy. In the period 1960-72 exports represented over 10 per cent of Gross National Product, a shortage of domestic savings and investment capital required an infusion of foreign capital funds. Lack of technology and organizational expertise makes it necessary for the country to avail itself of imported technicians and business specialists, again placing pressure on the limited resources that are available to cover import requirements. 18

After gaining independence in 1956 the government passed the "Approved Enterprises Act", 19 which was designed to encourage certain private enterprises investment in the Sudan. It provided few concessions and was replaced in 1967 by the "Organization and Promotion of Industrial Investment Act." This period following independence marks the beginning of relations with the World Bank and other international organizations. The 1967 act provided a greater number of concessions and facilities than its predecessor, but gave no investment guarantees.

19 Ibid., p. 121.
In 1971 the foreign investment policy of the Sudan has become increasingly more positive in attracting foreign investment. The reasons behind this were as follows:

1. The development plans hitherto failed to achieve their objectives.

2. The need for inflows of foreign private as well as public investment capital in order to secure successful economic growth.

3. Some Arab brother countries emerged as major foreign exchange earners through oil exports.

4. The desire to put off the economic losses caused by the nationalization and confiscation measures taken in 1970.20

To attract private foreign investment the government passed three laws:

a) The development and Promotion of Industrial Investment Act, 1972.


c) The Development and Encouragement of Industrial Investment Act, 1974.

All these acts offered elaborate concessions, facilities and guarantees for foreign investment.

20Ibid., p. 121.
The need for international financing organizations emerged since 1940 when the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) was established, followed by the International Finance Corporation (IFC) in 1957 and the International Development Association (IDA) in 1960.21

The regional organizations came into existence when it was realized that the international organizations were not able to meet all the needs of all developing countries all over the world. In 1957 the first regional organization came into being: the European Investment Bank.22 Many others followed in the subsequent years in Asia, Africa and the Middle East.

Regarding the Sudan, foreign investment operated in a diversity of sources. This included Kuwaiti loans for the Sudan railways and for manufacturing enterprises; inter-governmental loans from a number of Western European countries, i.e., W. Germany, France and Sweden; a loan from China for construction of a conference center; FAO aid; loans from private banks (Swiss); a British loan to develop water pump irrigation facilities; several loans from Saudi Arabia to develop food production; U.S. government credits in connection

with commodity sales; several Egyptian loans; and a number of World Bank credits.23

Table II below illustrates the contribution of the World Bank group in the development of the Sudan to 1967.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>WB Loans</th>
<th>IDA Credits</th>
<th>IFC Investments</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>105.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>118.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In the same year the commitment of the World Bank Group in agriculture in the Sudan amounted to $48.0 million.

A recent report on the sources and magnitude of foreign loans and credits since 1950 up to 1977 shows that the total contribution of the World Bank group amounted to 343.00 (4.1 billion) to be repaid in a period ranging from 20 to 50 years. The fields of investment include, transportation, agriculture, irrigation, education, electric power and industry.24


Some U.S.A. Corporations, other than the World Bank Group, like the International American Development Agency, Group of City Bank, Bank of Chicago, contributed during the same period with 64.6 ($Millions) for a diversity of development aspects.25

Many European Western countries, Eastern Bloc countries and Asian countries made some contributions. To mention some and not all: Italy, Holland, Denmark, France, Japan, Belgium, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, China, Korea, United Kingdom, W. Germany, Sweden, etc.

The contributions of the regional organizations in the Middle East and Africa, the major subscribers being the Arab oil-exporter states were intense. It offered grants and loans to many African and Arab states, amongst which the Sudan enjoyed a considerable proportion due to its great agricultural potentialities. The Sudan is looked upon as the main source of food for both the African and Arab countries. The regional organizations operation in the field include the Kuwaiti Fund, the Saudi Fund for Development, The Abou Zabi Fund, the Arab Fund for Socio-Economic Development, the United Arab Bank and the Arab Company for Investment, the African Bank for Development, and the African Development Fund.

The various Kuwaiti corps contributed from 1968 to 1977

25 Ibid., p. 3.
76.7 (million Kuwaiti Dinar). The Saudi organizations offered during the same period 155.1 (4 millions). Abu Dhabi contributed 96.5 (million Barhins); the Arab Fund for Socio-Economic Development 34.8 (million Kuwaiti Dinar). The African Development Bank and the African Fund for Development offered 19.6 (accounting units).

I hope that this depicts a vivid picture of the role that the international and regional organizations and foreign governments played toward the development of the Sudan, which is how eyed as the "reserve basket of food" for Africa and the Middle East.

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Conclusion

The Sudan during the colonial era witnessed no planning in the endeavor toward economic and social development. Some developmental efforts were embarked upon but in a fragmental and uncoordinated manner. The need for development planning was, however, felt in the post World War II era, especially with the outspoken will of the British to let the people of their colonies determine their future. Some programs were initiated for a term of five years each. When the country gained its full independence in 1956 a Ministerial Committee was created to handle development planning to meet the aspirations of the people long suppressed by the British. This Ministerial Committee outlived the parliamentary system, the military regime and the second parliamentary system up to the outbreak of the May Revolution in 1969.

The various development plans launched met with no great success due to many factors the most important of which was that they were too ambitious and that the foreign inflow expected was disappointing. This was the case with the five year plan 1956/1961, the ten year plan 1960/1970.

The May Revolution adopting a socialist policy brought planning to the forefront of the economic scene and created for the first time a Ministry of Planning. A five-year plan on the socialist model was drawn with the help of a team of Russian planners. It was accompanied by measures of nationalization and confiscations of private enterprises, foreign and
domestic. After the attempted communist coup d'état in 1971, the country was awakened to re-formulate its policy. Various acts were enacted to attract private enterprises. The six-year plan formulated after these amendments was launched in 1977 to close in 1982, but I am not in a position at this point of time to evaluate the experience which is its first year of implementation.

The evolution of the planning organization in the Sudan witnessed many changes ranging from omnipotence to feebleness. This was colored by the political trends fluctuating from instability to socialism, to free economy. Central supervision by the planning organization was relaxed recently to permit the private enterprise to flourish.

The international and regional organizations shared in the efforts for economic and social development in the country. Now the major share is of the regional organizations, financed by the Arab oil countries, which is engaging heavily in various development projects in the country. The return of this for the Arab and African countries is the provision of food for their nations in vast millions of acres of virgin fertile land.
I. Books
2. A. O. A. Ooaman and H. S. Ooaman, "The Economy of Sudan."
3. A. M. El Assan (Editor), "An Introduction to the Sudan Economy."
4. Francis A. Lees and Hugh Brooks, "The Economic and the Political Development of the Sudan."
5. A. A. Sullivan, "Issues in the Economic Development of the Sudan."
6. Albert Waterston, "Development Planning."

II. Periodicals, Journals and Reports
5. Ministry of Planning, Sudan, "The Six-Year Plan of Economic & Social Development."
CONCLUSIONS

The need for and the importance of training are well recognized. Despite this fact, however, various controversies arise regarding many aspects of training. But I will confine my comments on the aspects that manifest themselves conspicuously in training for the public service in Sudan.

There are two sources for training: domestic centers and international institutions. Which of these can provide better training for developing countries? On the one hand domestic centers, besides their few numbers, were only recently installed and greatly lack the experience in planning, designing and implementing training programs. On the other hand, famous, well-rooted and reputable overseas institutions are indispensable, some advocate, but the contents of the programs they undertake are mostly designed to meet the identified needs of a certain society, under certain environmental situations, at a certain time, taking into account the historical, cultural and social differences; differences in customs, ethical values and level of development. All these factors cast their shadow on training programs and their impact is predominantly prevalent. Another important consideration is the cost incurred in external training. It is by far more expensive than internal training and involves the consumption of hard currency badly needed for purchasing essential developmental equipment. Not to abandon training abroad alone and helpless in the field, it provides trainees with an invaluable opportunity to get in touch with the advanced
disciplines, techniques and the technological progress that has changed the face of life in the developed countries. Nevertheless, it has its shortcomings. Trainees might feel secluded, foreign and out-of-place, especially after a long stay overseas. The frustration due to the absence of advanced equipment at home throws them into a state of utter despair, despite their readiness, zeal and enthusiasm. In the end the glitter of the advanced knowledge acquired fades away and training abroad looks not at have the least impact. This point is connected with another important point: the attitudes of top-managers and leading figures towards the intellectuals trained. It shall receive its share of analysis later in this chapter.

I conclude that the case against training overseas is substantially strong in many respects: costs, contents, applicability, etc. Thus the case for domestic training is established. Do not take me wrong. I am not in the least condemning international training institutions. I am only asking to hold the reins of the foreign horse to a halt for some time and give its domestic counterparts the attention they deserve. The numbers trained in the last two decades overseas can act as a foundation of expertise to help the internal institutions stand on its own feet.

There are two local training centers which I think should receive the utmost attention: The Institute of Public Administration in Khartoum, and the Productivity and Administration Center. This is because the other training centers are departmental and the nature of training they indulge in is technical and highly related to the tasks and duties of the departments running them. On the other hand, the two above mentioned
centers operate in a diversity of functions ranging from training top
management to clerical and typing skills. Most of the staff of these
two centers were highly trained abroad or are in progress now abroad.
In addition, there is the academic staff of the five universities of
the country who can offer unlimited assistance. The government should
financially support these centers to enable them to plan and conduct
training programs to meet the immediate needs and plan for future
training needs. No doubt the programs will be realistic and will
benefit greater numbers. Even in time of economic depression when the
budget had to be trimmed, the funds of training should not be vulnerable
for elimination or reduction. The local training centers should
establish themselves as worthwhile in bringing some tangible change in
production and performance.

Another problem which has a great impact on the fruits and out-
come of training is the repugnant attitude with which management and
supervisors visualize training. Man by nature resists change. It seems
everybody is happy with the pattern of life he is leading and eyes with
suspicion and mistrust any attempt for change. But it seems that the
bureaucrats are especially sensitive to change. They might be
instinctively reacting for their own survival as the changes that come
might leave them obsolete and inadequate. Thus the point I am raising
here might serve two purposes:

a) Convincing management of the importance of training at the
organization and its members.

b) Pursuading them to break out of their nut-shells and ivory
towers and indulge in managerial development programs to
put them in the channel of change.
How can we achieve these two objectives? It is not an easy task but I suggest that the most appropriate measure for trainers to take is to talk with these managers and patiently, consciously and deliberately convince them of the importance of training and the benefits that can be derived from it. It is needless to mention here that the trainer should fully conceive, assimilate and reach an optimal satisfaction with the program before attempting to brief management on its importance. He should be prepared to answer all anticipated and unanticipated questions regarding involvement in the program and he should never allow despair to creep into his heart. If one meeting does not produce the expected results, the trainer should persistently arrange for more meetings and arm himself with patience. It is advisable, due to the degree of acquiescence or repulsion, that managers should be approached individually in closed meetings starting with those who support to whatever degree and gain them to the side of training. Having thus ploughed the ground, though your success might be limited, proceed to joint meetings. I presume only very stubborn bureaucrats will stand steadfast and constant and adhere to suspicion.

This is the path I conceive that is capable of producing satisfactory results if not optimal. I strongly stand against the extremist view that advocates change or not change. If it is change, then go ahead with it by sheer force. This is an undemocratic stand, brutal and leads to instability, chaos and anarchy. It breaks the continuity of human life and progress and disrupts human heritage and the normal flow of history.
I think I have now established two findings: the importance and economy of domestic training programs and the suggestions to persuade management to participate and accept training for their interest, the interest of the organization and its members. These two notions are prerequisite to an important aspect which I will now examine: the problem of planning for and determining training needs and priorities.

By planning training I mean the ability to determine current training needs and predict future needs in the various levels of the service for the purpose of placing the right person, in the right job at the right time. The planning should have two phases:

1) A short plan to meet the current training needs or rectify the inadequacy in certain positions or levels of positions.

2) A long range plan that predicts future needs, that seeks to provide for expected change in number, methods and techniques of work and prepare a shadow workforce.

To secure rational and reliable plans, the training needs should be determined beforehand. There are various techniques for identifying the needs of which the simplest and most practical should use the following steps:

1. Meetings with managers and line supervisors to determine the actual level of performance and the conceived or stated level, collection of data on job-classification, job-satisfaction and position evaluation of each job and comparing it with the qualifications and experience of the incumbent to determine the deficiency and thus identify the training needs.
2. By observing employees on-the-job to distinguish the level of performance and in some cases study time and motion.

3. By examining the appraisal performance reports of the employees in question.

4. By making a study of cost-benefit analysis to determine poor performance or undue extravagance.

By thus determining the training needs we can secure relatively high productivity, motivation and morale building.

Next in logical sequence comes the problem of selecting participants for training courses. The maladies of the public service, tribal associations, family ties, friendship and lately political identification with the regime plague management functions of which training is one. It is a subtle question that does not lend itself to solution. We cannot expect the invalid to recover over-night but we should not give up trying. I perceive it in two ways:

a) A highly integral central training center characterized with merit, values and ethics.

b) Some day and I believe very soon the public service will be dominated by young honest men who resort to their consciences.

I might call for selection by competitive examinations and high performance on the job. But the latter is highly subjective (at least at the present time) and the former cannot be detached completely from contamination. Of course I do not condemn the whole system but I am an idealist who dreams of a Utopia.
Evaluation is a complementary part of training. It seeks to
gauge the success of the program and whether it achieved its stated
objectives. It reveals whether modifications are necessary and focuses
on weaknesses and deficiencies. I have devoted a whole chapter in the
paper to evaluation and it will be mere repetition to reiterate my
recommendations on the best methods of measuring the effectiveness of
training in terms of knowledge, skill and behavioral change on the job
that can be attributed to training. More subtle is measuring the effect
of management development programs. I prefer here to refer the reader
to the paper on evaluation in the fourth chapter of this paper. This
is done to avoid undesired redundancy of information.

What is the likelihood of the adoption of the findings and
recommendations of this paper? I have spent two years at Penn State
University in an endeavor to acquire knowledge and join in the rescue
of the public service. The taxpayer has sacrificed thousands of dollars
to train me. I have accumulated knowledge which is believed to be of
value in the promotion of the public service. I have in mind, if not
a vivid picture for the problems of training in my country, at least
glimpses of some of the most important and conspicuous problems in the
area and hereby examined paths to eliminate them. What are the chances
of implementing these recommendations? I really cannot tell. I cannot
guarantee even that it might be looked upon and reas. It will surely
be added to the collection of theses and writings of Sudanese abroad
in the University of Khartoum, Central Documents House and the Library
of the Civil Service Department. The department of training which is
the central agency functioning in the field of training will not have a
copy. Though I worked for the training section for more than five years (1967-1972) I was transferred to the civil service department (Central Personnel Agency) and hence I have no chance to infiltrate some of it into my performance on-the-job. Needless to say, repudiation of the bureaucracy is most likely and inevitable. The only chance I can see is that I work in a department where a section for training called for by the Training Act of 1976 and the subsequent regulations, does not exist. Being a personnel manager the training function will rest in my hands. Only there can I find the opportunity to implement some of these recommendations. Even then it will be limited and insignificant unless I am appointed director for training.

Though my stay at the Pennsylvania State University lasted for two years, I was not able to extend my study on training or its various components. The short duration of the term, study and examinations, and the absence of data deprived the papers from close study and analysis. If my stay in the U.S.A. is extended for two more years I would prefer to devote it to writing a thesis on just one aspect of training. I would have the time, the academic guidance, and ask for references and data on the subject. I would choose the topic of Managerial Development and Evaluation of Executive Development. The subject has not received much focus and many of its aspects remains unsolved. I think that my contribution would be more elaborate and fruitful. But it is only a wish. If ever I come again, it will be after two years on-the-job and I cannot tell whether at that time, with my age over forty I will have the same enthusiasm or it will fade and die away.

The probability thus being uncertain I better recommend others to do what I have left unfinished. The area of the methodology of
of training, especially public administration training is left untouched. It is vital importance as the methodology used, besides other factors determines the success or failure of a training program.

Planning for training and designing training programs constitute an important aspect. Managerial development, evaluation of training, particularly management development programs need more study, analysis and elaboration. Training trainers passed unmentioned though it is of utmost importance ot prepare the heart of the success of training: trainers.

In the end I hope that this paper will stimulate more and more study-efforts on a subject that gained and is still gaining firm ground and attention and will not loose its glitter in the foreseeable future.
Vita

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Joined the "Establishments Branch (now the Civil Service Department) in May 1966 and worked as a personnel officer in various central departments. Seconded to the local government as Assistant Commissioner for Personnel in 1974.

Last Position Held:

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