Strengthening MDIs

The Role of Management Development Institutions in Public Service Reform

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Commonwealth Secretariat

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The Role of Management Development Institutions
in Public Service Reform

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Institutions in Public Service Reform

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FOREWORD

A strong and achieving public service is a necessary condition for a competitively successful nation. The Management and Training Services Division of the Commonwealth Secretariat assists member governments to improve the performance of the public service through action-oriented advisory services, policy analysis and training. This assistance is supported by funds from the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation (CFTC).

Commonwealth co-operation in public administration is facilitated immeasurably by the strong similarities that exist between all Commonwealth countries in relation to the institutional landscape and the underlying principles and values of a neutral public service. In mapping current and emerging best practices in public service management, the Management and Training Services Division has been able to draw on the most determined, experienced and successful practitioners, managers and policy-makers across the Commonwealth. Their experiences are pointing the way to practical strategies for improvement.

The publication series, *Managing the Public Service: Strategies for Improvement*, provides the reader with access to the experiences and the successes of elected and appointed officials from across the Commonwealth.

Strengthening Management Development Institutions recognises the current shortage of managerial talent with appropriate skills, knowledge and competence as being a critical constraint in managing public service reform. It highlights efforts to enhance the capacity and capability of Managing Development Institutions to deliver training to top and senior managers in government in a down-to-earth, practical way which can be used by practitioners, trainers, policy-makers and managers engaged in public service reform.

The series complements other MTSD publications, particularly the *Public Service Country Profile* series which provides a country-by-country analysis of current good practices and developments in public service management. Our aim is to provide practical guidance and to encourage critical evaluation. The *Public Service Country Profile* series sets out the where and the what in public service management. With this new Strategies for Improvement series, I believe we are providing the how.

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HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Management Development Institutes were established in most of the African countries soon after independence. Their role was to provide training, consultancy and research services to governments, particularly to the indigenous populations who had assumed senior positions in the state machinery. The main target group and recipients of their services were the top-level, senior and middle managers within the bureaucracy. They were accorded a high profile because of the nature and type of skills and knowledge that they were to acquire. In addition to building capacity for the public administration system, they were also expected to serve as think-tanks through their research into public policy formulation and policy reforms.

The mandates for establishing management training institutions and for training top and senior managers in the public sector (civil service, local government and public enterprises) were fairly similar in essence. The mandates for Ghana, Gambia, Tanzania, Swaziland etc. were formulated on the same basis and, as a result, the structures and objectives of these management institutes bore the same characteristics.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this publication is to identify ways and means by which management development institutes can be strengthened in their role of facilitating the public service reform process. The intended readers are ministers, permanent secretaries, directors of management institutes and training institutions, managers, administrators, training consultants, donors and practitioners. The essence of this publication is, therefore, to assist practitioners and institutes in improving their performance in delivering service to the public and in particular in the reform of the public service.

The content of this publication is based primarily on the experience of both policy-makers and management training institutions in Commonwealth African countries. The author has also drawn on rich material resulting from regional and round table meetings and seminars and workshops organised by the Management Training Services Division of the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation. However, the major problems, issues experiences were identified at a regional workshop organised by the Commonwealth Secretariat held in Maseru, Lesotho in February 1998.

Tremendous strides have been made over the past thirty years in the development of training throughout the world. Public service training in Britain was largely confined to on-the-job and departmental training prior to the creation of the Centre for Administrative Studies in the early 1960s. Training in the majority of Commonwealth countries that had only recently attained independence or were still under colonial governance was very limited indeed, if it existed at all in any formal sense. Then came a period of rapid expansion in the training function spurred by the need to localise the middle and senior levels of the public service and to cater for the demands for skilled manpower to implement ambitious social and economic development programmes. Initially the expansion relied heavily on technical assistance from a range of multi- and bilateral donor agencies. Increasingly, highly qualified nationals have replaced expatriate staff in executive positions, although there are still many expatriate advisers. By the beginning of the 1990s public service training had been firmly established.

Yet despite this impressive record of growth, both in quantity and quality, to which the Commonwealth Secretariat has made a significant contribution, there is still much to be done to improve the effectiveness of training in improving managerial performance. Writers for the World Bank (Kubr & Wallace, 1983; and Paul, 1983) expressed disappointment at the impact of training on the quality of public service management in many developing countries. They identified specific weaknesses in the training function, the bulk of which is done through training institutes. Our own experience and that of the workshop participants suggests that these findings still apply. In summary, the typical weaknesses are:

(a)   training tends to be treated as a discrete event rather than an integral part of human resource management and development;

(b)   the training function is seldom regarded by managers as a matter of their concern;

(c)   training policies may not exist and, where they do, they often bear little relationship to wider development policies or tend not to be implemented;

(d)   training needs are seldom assessed accurately or tend not to be acted on; and,

(e)   the design of training programmes too often ignores both policy and needs and may rely too heavily on borrowed models.

Two points need emphasis. First, these constraints are by no means confined to developing countries. Second, while they do appear to be fairly common, there are many excellent training establishments within the Commonwealth where

institutional training has reached a very high standard and these defects are strictly limited. The difficulty is that the above weaknesses cannot be solved through the institutes alone.

This publication aims to help overcome these defects with a thoroughly down-to-earth approach. There is a growing literature on training, some of which deals with policy, needs assessment and programme design. However, the problem is that most of it is based on research and experience in the private sector in industrialised countries. That which derives from developing country experience tends to be confined to journal articles and official reports which are seldom available to the training practitioner. The United Nations organisations – especially the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the Department for Technical Cooperation and Development (TCTD) – and the World Bank, have published useful papers on training but their coverage of policy, needs assessment and programme design is surprisingly slender (though there are a few notable exceptions such as Kubr and Prokopenki, 1989). There is also a tendency for such organisations to be shy of criticism (Reilly and Clarke, 1990).

CRITICAL REVIEW OF MDIs
AND THEIR PERFORMANCE

MDIs in Africa have been the subject of considerable criticism by academics and practitioners alike. Those criticisms relate to genuine problems whose solutions the critics have reason to believe could be provided by the MDIs. In this section we review a few general critical comments on MDIs in Africa. Peter Blunt and Merrick L. Jones (1992 p. 315) writing on management in Africa, were quite categorical in their statement that the record of the continent's many national institutes of public administration is disappointing. Such criticisms were not limited to external researchers like Blunt and others.

The Report to the Regional Training Council of SADCC (NASPA 1985) was quite representative of African MDIs when it reported that "National institutions for training in public management are in trouble". Safavi (1981) explained the trouble in Africa MDIs to include the fact that they faced conflict between classroom and culture and between western theory and African reality. Balogun (1986) once a chief executive of an African MDI, judged the performance of these institutions to be "well below standard ... they have failed to influence development policy and public sector management practices .. their contribution to the cross-fertilisation of ideas between the public and private sectors is minimal". Other African academics like Adamolekun (1989) and Kiggundu (1991) subscribe to the criticisms by calling for the reform of the MDIs to meet critical shortages of skills to make "a significant contribution to management development in Africa".

However, the deficiencies in managerial capability in Africa should not just be attributed to ineffective contributions by MDIs alone as some critics have tended to do. Montgomery (1987) describes Africa as "one of the most difficult administrative settings to be found anywhere in the world", and goes on to suggest that "the changes the administrative system needs are the hardest to bring about" This view is shared by other writers like Jones (1990); Jenkins (1982); and Rutherford (1991). As Leonard (1987) admits we certainly have no clear knowledge now of "what reforms might be (best) used to improve performance of Africa's public organisations".

It is also appropriate to suggest that MDIs as organs in the 1990s may not be exactly what they have been portrayed to be by the many critics in the 1970s and 1980s. The major criticisms and shortcomings of the MDI were first that they were no longer focusing on the real needs of the client or consumer. Such needs were changing in line with the global and environmental changes taking place in society. Human resource management techniques were not moving away from mechanistic structures since human resources policies had become aligned with organisational strategy. To this extent, their approach was not client-centred. Secondly, MDIs

organisational culture was still pyramidal with the chief executive at the apex and staff along the base. They remained hierarchical in structure, even in situations which required lean and flat organisations capable of delivering services to the clients efficiently and effectively. While the client had changed, the MDI had not changed fundamentally. Consequently, the needs of the clients were not adequately served and criticisms were publicly expressed by the clientele.

THE DEGENERATION OF MDIS

Over a period of time, MDIs were gradually pushed from the centre of advice and expertise to the periphery of the administration. They were no longer consulted before governments took policy decisions and were consequently accorded low status, inadequate funding and insufficiently skilled personnel to provide the required services. As a result, MDIs were no longer capable of offering the technical advice and service expected of them and were effectively marginalised by the system. The training and research functions were referred to outside agencies to which governments paid heavily for the services that could have equally been provided by the institutes.

Although many reasons have been advanced for the failure of MDIs in the policy reform process, the following are among some of the contributory factors:

1. Limited budgetary allocation by governments making it impossible to conduct research, offer best training services, attract qualified, competent personnel and provide facilities and infrastructure for executive training.

2. Lack of a systematic approach to human resources development and an absence of a well co-ordinated and defined training policy for senior managers in policy development and management.

3. Lack of appreciation of the value of training and development management and its contribution to improved performance and policy management. This has resulted in the emergence of negative attitudes towards management training, especially among the professional and technical personnel who often regard themselves as "above training" (Dlamini 1995).

4. Absence of institutional linkage for co-ordination and co-operation with MDIs became evidence of poor management development policy and a lack of necessary leadership and guidance which sometimes resulted in the design of inappropriate curricula.

5. Management development was in the main offered by the donor agencies often abroad or in the region by institutions, often with little knowledge of local needs and social environment.

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6.   Poor remuneration and conditions of service of staff made it difficult to attract and retain suitably qualified personnel, while MDIs' close links with the government denied it the necessary autonomy and flexibility needed for independent decision-making in recruitment, appointment and promotion of staff.

7.   Because of limited funding, lack of attraction of qualified and competent staff, whatever little training offered by the MDI became ineffective and insignificant. The impact of training on personnel was not effective, noticeable or formally recognised as an important tool in improving the performance of the human resources, particularly in the changing environment in which the public service is being reformed.

8.   The poor morale, poor remuneration, lack of incentives, absenteeism, poor promotion opportunities, and fear of becoming redundant, which prevailed in the public service also existed in the management institutes which were still part of the civil service and the Ministry of Public Service and Personnel. The management institute was therefore bedevilled by the very same negative factors prevailing in the public service. Consequently, the performance of the institute was negatively affected.

THE PARADOX OF MARGINALISATION

The privatisation of certain public enterprises and the related commercialisation of agencies of government resulted not only in an increase in competition to provide services to government but also made it possible for ministries to select training services outside government institutions. Because of the deteriorating competitiveness in MDIs, they could not compete favourably with the already established institutions in the private sector. Government could now purchase services anywhere and, in most cases, preferred the more modernised, customer-friendly, private sector training institutions which tended to design their training to suit the needs of the customer.

In some instances, when the government needed training services urgently but did not have adequate funds, it would expect the MDI to provide such services since it was a government-owned institution. In equally worse situations, government delays making its payments for services rendered by MDIs. Some MDIs have complained of non-payment by governments because ministries have exhausted their budgets before the end of the financial year.

Delay in payment, or non-payment for services already rendered by the MDI, affects the survival of MDIs and incapacitates it in the delivery of services. They cannot compete favourably with other training institutions if financial resources are not available. One of the indirect and unintended consequences of these situations

is that an MDI is forced to provide services to clients who can either pay or pay promptly. In such instances, the MDI would be more than likely to offer training services to the private sector or non-government organisations who can pay on service delivery. The consequence of such a change in providing services to non-government clients by a wholly-owned government institution leads to goal displacement. In other words, the original goals of providing training services to government would be replaced by the need for survival of the MDI. Goal displacement leads to pressures brought to bear on the change in its status, mandate, structure and focus by the government. Some governments have even privatised public institutions for training, as in the case of the Royal Institute for Public Administration (RIPA) in the United Kingdom.

Attempts to transform MDIs in order to suit the changing environment and client needs is, therefore, paradoxical. The paradox lies in deciding whether to offer training services to government knowing full well that the government may or may not pay for the services rendered. Such decisions are made in the circumstances in which the grant from the government is no longer made available since the institute is supposed to be autonomous and self-financing. The other side of the paradox is "whether the institute should concentrate on those clients who can pay for the services rendered even if they are in the private sector". The transitional process is paradoxical.

THE QUEST FOR AUTONOMY, SURVIVAL AND REVIVAL

Most MDIs in the region were, until recently, departments or units or divisions in the Ministry of Public Service or Personnel. The management of human and financial resources was the responsibility of a permanent secretary, who was the accounting officer. The Director of an MDI was accountable to the permanent secretary. The recruitment and promotion of staff were controlled by the ministry which often did not have the expertise to select trainers or consultants at the Institute. All purchases, including the purchase of a fax machine, had to be approved by the Permanent Secretary. There was, therefore, little delegation of responsibility to the Head of the MDI as all routine tasks and decisions were referred upwards. As a result, the Permanent Secretary was over-burdened with responsibilities and operational duties, leaving little time for substantive training functions. The paucity of appropriate resources, facilities and infrastructure for executive training contributed to the deterioration of standards at the Institute, resulting in negative attitudes towards training for managers as a whole. The recruitment of inappropriate staff led to the design of poor curricula which were not based on the identification of the needs of the state.

Because of bureaucratic procedures and practices, hierarchical reporting structures, deteriorating infrastructure facilities, under-funding, under-staffing and being under-rated, the original image and importance of the MDI declined tremendously. Consequently, Institutes were unable to provide the required services or to function adequately.

An evaluation of the role of MDIs revealed that if their performance was to improve they had to extricate themselves from the bureaucratic procedures and re-examine the structures, the co-ordinating relationship and, above all, the control by the parent or responsible ministry of public service or personnel or human resources.

Civil service structures inherited from the colonial administration had many attributes that rendered MDIs unsuitable for the challenges of modern management. For instance, civil service posts were filled by administrators without adequate professional qualifications, excessively dependent on seniority rather than merit for promotion with negative implications for morale and efficiency of the staff.

The need for change in the status and direction of MDIs was facilitated by the nature and type of civil service reforms which can be broken into three:

1. The first generation of reforms related to the needs and demands of sovereignty with major thrust on localisation, Africanisation or indigenisation.

2. The second type of reforms was the results of Civil Service Review Commissions which stressed the need for the reform of policy-making and strategic institutions.

3 . The third type of reforms was those related to Structural Adjustment Programmes which, in some instances, focused on the downsizing or right-sizing of the civil service (Nti 1996).

The result of achieving an autonomous status in some countries had negative implications. Most of the information in government was regarded as confidential and could not be made available to independent organisations such as MDIs. In still other countries, there was jealousy of the improved salaries and conditions of service for employees of public enterprises by the mainstream civil service. Some ministries preferred to send their staff abroad for management training rather than referring them to the local institute. Such managerial behaviour contributed to the marginalisation of MDIs.

THE IMPERATIVES FOR COLLABORATION

Despite the seeming marginalisation of MDIs, there is evidence that both they and the Public Administration System need each other, particularly in the administration reform initiatives. The imperatives for joint collaboration are dictated by the need to find appropriate solutions to emerging problems. The imperatives are linked to various types of transition that require sharing of information and the identification of appropriate strategies for solutions and policy formulation. The transitions have been related to the political, economic and organisational factors. Within the political arena, the transition is characterised by the movement from one party or military regime to multi-party democracy. In this regard, there has been pressure to resolve conflicts and establish peace in a democratic manner. In the economic field there is transition from a state-dominated economic order to a market-based economic system with emphasis on the private sector development. The organisational structures that are responsible for executing these policy measures have had to change in order to suit the new circumstances. The organisations are expected to be business-like in their approach in order to satisfy the needs of the customers and clients.

Questions have been raised as to whether public servants have the credibility and impartiality to manage these transitions and whether public administration can manage economic policy consistency and credibility when it lacks independence and a knowledge base. These questions all point to the need to strengthen the public administration as an integral part of policy reform. One useful and innovative strategy in this respect, for strengthening the autonomy and professional competence of public servants, is through the use of Management Development Institutes which have a mandate to conduct management research, offer policy advice and train managers in the management of the new responsibilities and functions.

Thus, the transition to a market-based economy has three main implications for public administration; namely providing an effective regulatory framework that is vital to efficient functioning of markets; re-orienting the public service to be efficiency-conscious with regard to cost and time; and greater reliance on market mechanisms for the management of public enterprises (commercialisation). The transition to democracy poses challenges of strengthening watch-dog mechanisms – organisations for upholding accountability whether democratic, legal or professional; and promoting and protecting the neutrality and professionalism of the public service. As regards the transition from conflicts to reconciliation, the main challenges are instilling public trust in the disciplines of law and order agencies; fostering policies that promote economic and social equity; and increased opportunities for popular participation in decision-making process (Asmelash 1994).

The one common, unifying theme that runs through these challenges is the need to develop the management skills and knowledge needed by policy-makers and managers for them to be efficient and effective. In order to meet the challenges of the future, MDIs can contribute to the debate which seeks to develop partnerships, ethical relationships, common goals and trust between officials, service-providers and the public. Since MDIs are think-tanks in policy development and management, they can contribute a great deal to the organisation of debates, the dissemination of knowledge and the latest thinking, and the sharing of best practices.

THE WAY FORWARD: IMPROVING RELATIONSHIPS

The Commonwealth Secretariat-sponsored workshop held in Maseru, in February 1998, on the role of management institutes in the public service reform process, outlined the expectations of the key role-players, namely the ministries responsible for MDIs, and the MDIs in meeting the latter's performance obligations. In order to improve the functional relationship between parent or responsible ministry and the MDI, the seminar made the following recommendations which could be summarised as follows:

A Memorandum of Understanding

In view of the mistrust and poor understanding between MDIs and governments, there is a need to develop proper understanding and better working relationships between MDIs and government. This can be achieved by preparing a Memorandum of Understanding which would spell out areas of operations and collaboration between the two key players. This Memorandum could include factors that enhance an environment that promotes a fair chance for MDIs to compete, to be involved in the civil service reform process, and to accept and recognise the advisory role of the MDIs.

There should also be joint identification of management needs, utilisation of available skills in the re-structuring and re-organisation of the state machinery, and joint involvement in the development and management of human resources.

The mission, objectives and strategies of MDIs for relevance to the reform process

In order to match the expectations of governments involved in public service reforms, the missions, objectives and strategies of MDIs should be transformed and aligned with the government's reform orientation. They should bear in mind the environmental changes currently going on in the public sector. These include:

- changes in the philosophy of the government where market-orientation entrepreneurship, good governance and accountability are being emphasised;

- restructuring of the public service which includes downsizing or right-sizing, decentralisation, deregulation, etc.;

- change in the value systems emphasising efficiency and effectiveness; responsiveness and accountability; customer care; integrity; honesty etc.; permanence versus contract; and openness versus confidential reports;

- management of reforms in areas such as performance management; strategic management; executive agencies; management by objectives etc.

Since many MDIs seem to be lacking in strategic corporate plans, they should prepare them for, say, five years with a clear vision and mission, incorporating therein all other essential elements like objectives, strategies, time-frame, and physical and financial implications.

Since there is a general complaint that programmes run by the MDIs often lack relevance, are not job-specific, and are not based on identified needs, they should ensure that, apart from a few programmes of a generic nature, most of the programmes they run are needs-based. For this, training needs assessment (TNA) should be carried out periodically and new curricula developed on the basis of the needs identified. There should also be an appropriate organisational mechanism to undertake TNA in ministries, in collaboration with MDIs. TNA should be undertaken by specially-trained management trainers.

Research and consultancy

Among the main functions of training, research, and consulting, many MDIs seem to concentrate only on training at the cost of the other two important functions. Some African MDIs are very poor in research and consulting activities. They are trainers and not consultants. Accordingly, efforts should be initiated to carry out research in areas relevant to public service viz, size of staff and productivity; impact of retrenchment; turnover rates; gender balance in productivity etc., with a view to enhancing their collaboration and co-operation with the public service. By so doing, the public service will see MDIs as reliable and credible allies in helping them to prevent and solve policy reform-related issues and problems.

Initiatives of policy reforms

Having regard to the fact that MDIs, due to their own inadequacies, have been pushed to the periphery of policy-making, they should henceforth seize the initiative of policy reforms by conducting viable research and consultancy on public sector issues for their governments. In this way, they can be more credible and perceived as allies of government.

Recognising that one of the major obstacles to a cordial relationship between MDIs and the ministries, the lack of autonomy of MDIs, and recalling that the Commonwealth Secretariat had convened a workshop in Lesotho on autonomy ten years ago, the workshop recommends that immediate action be taken to getting MDIs that are not yet autonomous to work towards autonomy with the necessary legal framework. The workshop further recommends that for cordial relations between MDI and their stakeholders, the Boards of MDIs should include representation from the various stakeholders.

Critical skills and strategies for coping with reforms

In order for MDIs to be more relevant and useful to government in policy reforms they should:

(a)   Acquire specialist knowledge in relevant areas of public administration so that they will be advantageously positioned to render professional advice on policy reforms.

(b)   Acquire critical skills including negotiation, lobbying, presentation, analytical and monitoring skills which they and their clients need to cope with policy reforms. But with reference to the latter they should make special efforts to pass on these skills for improved performance.

Networking and exchange of programmes

Recognising the need to increase local capacity to meet the demands for training, research and consultancy, the workshop recommended the need for networking at the local, regional and international levels. The workshop called on all MDIs to develop a strong network relationship with other MDIs, the universities and other training institutions within their respective countries in order to build up a formidable team to undertake the required teaching, research and consultancy needs in their respective countries.

In view of the fact that all the MDIs are not on the same professional platform, staff and programme-wise, the workshop concluded that MDIs in Africa should embark on a massive exchange programme so that they can profit from the collective wisdom of each other. This could initially be done through their networks.

The workshop further called on the Association of Management Training Institutions of Eastern and Southern Africa and the West African Management Development Institutes Network to continue the close collaboration they had started and to work with other African networks in fulfilling some of the requirements of the African region. The networks are further urged to co-operate with other international networks.

Infrastructural development and funding

In order to improve the physical facilities of MDIs, governments should ensure the availability of appropriate and suitable buildings, capital equipment and other necessary facilities. MDIs, on the other hand, must expand their resources through research and consultancy, the lease of facilities and negotiation for loans and grants.

Support for infrastructural development could be further enhanced through:

(a)   Donors

Recognising the importance of international donors in the development of various economies and the high respect governments have for the donors, the workshop urged all MDIs to develop a close relationship with donors and use the relationship to attract funds and get donors, where possible, to stress the importance of MDI in the public reform process.

(b)   The Commonwealth Secretariat

The workshop appreciated the role being played by the Commonwealth Secretariat in enhancing the capacities of MDIs to cope with public service reforms. Participants requested it to do more by:

- assisting those MDIs which do not have strategic plans to develop them;

- including Directors of MDIs in meetings and workshops for principal/ permanent secretaries and ministers responsible for public service in Africa so that they can make inputs to discussing and follow up those issues of concern to them;

- assisting MDIs to enhance the skills of the leadership of MDIs to enable them play an effective role in the reform processes of their countries;

- organising on a biannual basis, similar workshops to take stock of the performance of policy reforms in the region with a view to improving what is on the ground.

STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE PUBLIC SECTOR PERFORMANCE

The priority of the MDI should be to make government work better through the following strategies:

- enable public sector bodies to improve productivity and provide better services;

- manage shifting boundaries in policies and complex relationships resulting from policy shifts;

- promote partnership, consultation and co-operation between and among executing agencies;

- collaborate with regional and international organisations;

- promote responses to the peoples' needs and accountability to the public;

- develop a public service ethos to be shared by both the public and private sector;

- identify and develop skills and competencies for future public service leaders.

These strategies are proposed amidst some concerns about problems experienced in policy formulation in most African countries. The concerns, according Paul Anangwe[4] (1997) are:

- that policy-makers do not seem to understand their policy environments and the kinds of problems they face;

- policy-makers seem to be making choices without adequate information because of poor articulation between political and administrative roles in the policy process;

- research institutions have been marginalised to the extent that their findings do not meaningfully impact on the policy process;

- the inability to mobilise adequate resources, as well as the inability to effectively utilise available capacity, render policy-making a symbolic exercise;

- policy implementation rates, particularly national development plans, have ranged from between 5% and 30%;

■ policy-makers do not like to hear that their policies are performing poorly. Hence previous mistakes remain undetected and uncorrected. At the same time, no meaningful lessons can be learnt from past performance within this milieu.

The contribution of MDIs to national development can be facilitated by well-formulated training policies which can be invaluable to policy-makers, managers and trainers in enabling them to take the initiative, to draft a policy and try to obtain agreement from the highest authority in government. Training policies should cover the nation as a whole, the public service and particular sectors such as local government and public enterprises. The national training policy on human resources should cover such issues as the nature of government's commitment to human resources development and training, how it is to be organised and managed, and priorities in terms of content areas, levels or approaches. These will be discussed below in detail, but first we discuss why we believe a formal training policy can be useful.

In this regard, MDIs can assist government through conducting policy analysis studies with a view to understanding the problems associated with the policy intervention strategy and provide advice based on well-researched information. Such professional advice can be provided through collaboration with the policy analysis review unit which is usually placed in the Cabinet Office, the heart and hub of central government. The policy analysis review process provides an opportunity to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the policy itself in order to identify the capacity with which to facilitate public service reform, for example. The mechanism for collaboration, co-operation and co-ordination formulated through the auspices of the institute gives an opportunity for policy-makers and managers to establish a better understanding of each other's role. The collaborative policy framework contributes to the meaningful utilisation of the limited resources available in providing local solutions to local problems and, above all, to the sharing of skills and knowledge for the public service reform process. Dialogue between MDIs and the Cabinet Office creates an opportunity for their objectives and mission statements to be reviewed and make them relevant to the needs and demands of the public service reform process.

DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAINING POLICY

As the majority of developing countries appear to manage their training function without a formally-documented training policy, one might ask whether it really does serve a useful purpose. Our view is that it does. A policy document is no more than a tool. In itself it is nothing, but in the hands of those capable and determined to make use of it, a well-formed policy can strengthen the hands of human resource developers. We identify six purposes.

(a)   *Commitment.* A policy statement that declares government's commitment to training can be quoted as an authority for training proposals. Few managers object to training in the abstract but when times are difficult and resources scarce, training is one of the first activities to be cut. Training is concerned with developing people for the future and in a crisis situation the emphasis is on the present. Thus, training initiatives tend to need all the official backing they can get to be accepted by managers with other priorities on their minds.

(b)   *Focus.* By reflecting the overall policies of government, a training policy statement can provide a focus for training in line with government priorities in other fields. It is not uncommon for governments to declare certain national policies such as increasing opportunities for women, concentrating on food production, decentralisation of government or the privatisation of state-owned enterprises. Such policy declarations usually provide the foundation for the national economic and social development plan. They should also provide the platform upon which a training policy can be built. This helps to ensure that training has a sense of direction in keeping with government's policies. Using the above examples, preference would be given to women to undergo training, resources would be steered towards agricultural programmes and for local government, and training designed to assist privatisation would be given priority.

(c)   *Priorities.* Priority guidelines as to who should receive training, how and where. "Who" means the level – senior, middle or junior; the sector – private, central civil service, local government or public enterprises; and possibly key functional areas such as agriculture, health or education. "How" might indicate whether emphasis should be given to management development within the organisation – using organisation development (OD) techniques or training on-the-job; by establishing local training institutes; or through distance learning methods. "Where" is primarily concerned with whether training should be done at home or abroad, and the criteria for each. Without policy guidelines, however broad, there is a

danger that training is conducted on an *ad hoc* basis, leading to duplication, lack of direction and the dissipation of scarce resources.

(d)   *Role Clarification.* A policy should help to clarify the roles of managers and trainers in human resource development. This can be especially helpful in emphasising the responsibility of managers for the development of personnel within their organisations. Typically, training is regarded as the exclusive business of professional trainers. Yet, if it is to make a contribution to increasing organisational performance, it must be taken seriously by the managers as it is they, and only they, who can ensure that the most appropriate officers are selected, that the training meets their needs and that it is properly utilised by the organisation. Indeed, managers could actually do some training themselves.

(e)   *Organisation and Co-ordination.* It should clarify the institutional framework for managing public service training: define the roles and responsibilities of each agency and the means of co-ordination. For example, it might well stipulate which government agency is to be ultimately responsible for public service training, how it might be organised in each ministry or department, and the co-ordinating mechanisms and broad responsibilities of each training establishment. Such stipulations are unlikely to eliminate empire-building, the desire to hang on to sources of power and patronage, and rivalry between different organisations but they should help to establish some sense of order and who does what.

(f)   *Strengths and Limitations.* A training policy document can usefully point out the strengths and limitations of training. Paradoxically, training is declared as a waste of time and a panacea for the problems of an organisation almost in the same breath. Of course it is neither. Training can make a most valuable contribution to both individual and organisational development but at best it can only be a partial solution. A statement of the realistic objectives of training can help to publicise this important message.

CONTENTS OF A NATIONAL TRAINING POLICY

General observations

The content and style of a national training policy depends on so many variables peculiar to a particular country that it would be misleading to try to provide a blueprint. Despite the need for a tailor-made approach, we have noticed how often models are taken from other countries whether or not they are strictly appropriate. Therefore, instead of presenting a model, we suggest below a number of elements

that we have found useful as a checklist. Some may already be included elsewhere, in a law, regulation, administrative instruction, another policy document or in the national plan. If they are covered elsewhere there may be no need to repeat them. Alternatively, it might be useful to make at least a brief reference to all the relevant elements in a single document.

The style in which national policy statements are written is often rather legalistic or flamboyant. Below is an example taken from an actual policy document:

> "with the trend towards a properly planned economy manifest in the four year national development plan, the government continues to demonstrate its commitment to action and results oriented development. It does this on the basis of its full realisation and faith in its natural endowment of manpower as a basis for the stimulation and promotion of the action programme activities for the attainment of the objectives of the plan ....."

The statement continues in the same style for several more sentences! We are not suggesting that this is wrong and it may be a cultural preference, but something shorter and more direct would probably be more effective:

> "In line with the national development plan government endorses its commitment to the developments of skilled human resources through training."

We refer to policies at national level but remind readers that similar principles would apply to training policies at levels below, such as the civil service or local government service or for a single organisation.

ELEMENTS OF A NATIONAL TRAINING POLICY

Style, order and emphasis is a matter of choice. The following is a summary of the main elements that we have found useful to consider when drafting a policy statement.

(a) *Government commitment to training.* A short yet clear statement of government's (or the top management's in the case of an organisation) commitment to manpower development and training. Brief reasons and a general statement as to how this is to be achieved might be appropriate. This commitment might also be linked to other statements of government policy and the national development plan.

(b) *Definition of Training.* Clarification of what is covered and not covered by the use of the word "training". For instance, a distinction between training

and education on the one hand and personal development through job rotation and other personnel policies on the other.

(c)   *Objectives of training*. A statement of what is seen by government as the primary objectives of training expressed in practical and realistic terms. Three prime areas might be:

   (i)   improving the efficiency and effectiveness of organisations by improving the performance of individuals in their jobs;

   (ii)   preparing individuals for future jobs; and

   (iii) assisting the development of individuals for the sake of their careers and personal fulfilment.

(d)   *Strengths and limitations of training*. For the sake of the majority who probably have little idea of what training can and cannot achieve, it is wise to indicate the role of training in improving performance. As a part of a national training policy this can hardly be comprehensive but as a concise explanation it should help to clarify how training can assist in the acquisition of knowledge, development of skills and shift of attitudes. It should also emphasise that training cannot cope with problems such as the lack of material resources, poor selection, political interference or other numerous barriers to progress.

(e)   *Manager's responsibilities*. Emphasising that it is the responsibility of line managers to train and develop the staff of their organisation could be a most valuable element in a policy paper. It is an area that many managers tend to leave to their personnel management and training staff, yet it should be one of their primary responsibilities. Training specialists can be agents and advisers but they cannot take responsibility for the line managers' personnel and this needs to be understood.

(f)   *Trainer's responsibilities*. To complement the section on the manager's responsibilities and obligations to training, there should be a section describing the trainer's role. This needs to be in broad terms only as later sections should deal in more detail with the different categories of trainer. The point of this section would be to emphasise the role of the trainer as providing a service to the line manager. It might dwell on the function of the trainer being to facilitate the learning process.

(g)   *Training and change*. A reminder that the purpose of training is to bring about change: changing the way people behave and how things are done. This could be included under the heading of objectives but as a separate element it might add emphasise to the importance of training for the future.

(h)   *Managers of training.* A section should be set up to provide a framework for the appointment of officers within various ministries, departments, agencies and authorities as well as at the centre who would be responsible for the management and administration of training.

(i)   *Direct trainers.* A statement on who will do the training – which training institutes will be responsible for what. This is particularly important where there are several institutes with overlapping functions as one way of limiting unnecessary duplication and the disputes which can all too easily arise over the extent of different institutes' functions. Additionally, it might be useful to explain briefly why the different institutes have been selected to take responsibility for specific aspects of training.

(j)   *Co-ordinating machinery.* Policy regarding the appointment of the most senior training co-ordinators and co-ordinating committees and their respective responsibilities. While avoiding detail, which can be left to an administrative directive, it should provide guidance on issues such as the level of appointments, the powers of the officers and committees and the scope of their operations to ensure that they have a chance of being effective.

(k)   *Professionalism* in training. A statement on the importance of persuading both the managers of training and direct trainers to establish professional standards within the training function.

(l)   *Government's priorities for training.* Since resources are unlikely to be adequate to meet every identified need, it would help to have government's view of its priorities. Who is to receive preference for training: men or women; senior, middle or junior staff; the private sector; civil service; local government; or public enterprises. What are the priority subjects: general management; financial management; or the management of agriculture.

(m)   *Approaches and methods of training.* There are many different ways of providing training, including organisation development (OD) and "performance improvement and planning" (PIP) techniques; training on-the-job; departmental instruction; the use of itinerant training teams; institutional training done centrally or using regional training centres; through university programmes; by using visits of observation or practical attachments; or by making use of offers of training overseas. There is no single best approach. Each has its place. For example, the OD and PIP approach can be one of the most effective methods of improving management within an organisation but it requires heavy managerial commitment and highly-trained facilitators, either of which may not be available. Training within the country is likely to be cheaper and more relevant than overseas training but the necessary expertise may not exist

locally. It can be useful to have an official policy on what approach should be used and in what circumstances.

(n)   *Finance for training.* There are several ways of funding training. Government can allocate funds in the normal annual budget; training levies can be imposed; institutes can charge fees; and financing can be obtained through development projects. A training policy can provide guidance on the available methods.

(o)   *Qualifications.* Government should lay the foundations for a system to determine the standards of any qualifications such as certificates or diplomas being offered. Unless there is a mechanism that can be monitored, there is a danger that testing and awards become meaningless.

(p)   *Training and promotion.* Training can be encouraged by officially relating it to promotion and other aspects of an individual's career such as salary increments or opportunities for personal development. A policy statement recognising this relationship can be valuable. It may require the setting up of an executive development scheme, which in some countries has proved very beneficial. However, linking training with increments and promotion can have its dangers so this policy initiative would need to be carefully considered in relation to local circumstances.

(q)   *Selection of trainees.* This is another area that can easily get out of hand and become subject to personal or political influence. Policy direction may not solve the problems but it can help to establish a system of selection on the basis of need or merit.

(r)   *Obligations of trainees.* Trainees may need to be reminded of their obligations and duties both during and after training. Such issues as bonding could be stipulated here.

THE MODE OF CONTRIBUTION OF MDIs TO NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of MDIs, institutions of higher learning and training and research centres should be to implement training policy in order to:

- enhance the interface with government with a view to further the contribution of national experts and "think tanks" to the formulation, implementation and evaluation of national policies, strategies, programmes and projects;

- revise curricula to reflect current African realities and provide managers with knowledge that is relevant to dealing with today's and tomorrow's problems in general and to meeting the challenge of development management in particular;

- take the necessary steps in consultation with government and other relevant actors to retain faculty and provide them with incentives to be more productive in both training and research;

- initiate and participate in the development and promotion of indigenous technology, drawing on ideas and resources both within and outside existing management and research institutes;

- network with managers, researchers, and administrators in government, business and other sectors with a view to transferring knowledge for application in the world of business; and to learn from past mistakes and promote debate on management issues (Agere 1993).

- promote inter- and intra-African co-operation among centres of management.

INSTITUTIONALISATION OF THE
TRAINING POLICY FRAMEWORK

When all the training has been formulated, policy instruments and training systems designed, best practice guidelines formulated, and the organisation restructured to accommodate the change process, there is a need to ensure that the training policy is incorporated into the entire government so that it becomes sustainable. It should be mentioned that the incorporation of the training policy, while desirable, may meet with resistance from within the organisation, especially by those agents who may be threatened by the new training policy framework. In this regard, due care should be taken to ensure that the new system is appropriately institutionalised. For the institutionalisation or internalisation process to be successful, the following should be taken into account:

Location: The new policy framework should be located in the Head of Government offices, such as the President, or Prime Minister and Cabinet, in order to become an important part of the centre of government.

Authority, influence and power: In order for the framework to be respected, especially by heads of ministries who report to the centre in their own individual way, there should be a line of authority to co-ordinate with ministries directly. This can be done by the Cabinet Office issuing a directive which makes it mandatory for all ministries to collaborate with the training unit in implementing the training policy.

CO-ORDINATION ROLE

While the training policy unit has power and authority to execute its duties, it should also be regarded as a co-ordinating instrument, in matters of training, to assist the Head of State to take an appropriate decision. The co-ordinating role should include consultation, communication, collaboration and co-operation with those ministries it is supposed to work with. The co-ordinating role contributes to the reduction of duplication, confusion, competition and conflicts between and among ministries, departments and other agencies.

RANK AND CAREER STRUCTURE

Once the training policy unit has been established, it should be staffed by professionally competent personnel with a career structure compatible with the civil service structure. It should be seen as part of the system and not divorced from it, as this can create hostility between and among other agents of government. The rank of head of the training unit should be that of permanent secretary or head of ministry for

ease of co-operation at colleague-level with heads of ministries. The staff, in the unit, should have a potential for lateral or vertical transfer to other departments of government and should not feel that it is a dead-end job.

POLICY CO-ORDINATING UNITS IN SECTORAL MINISTRIES

For the training unit to be effective, it is suggested that small training units be established in other ministries for ease of co-ordination. The units in ministries, while being accountable to their heads of ministries, should have a direct link with the training unit in the Cabinet Office. The ministerial training units would be responsible for co-ordinating all ministry's policies, including the departments and public enterprises in that ministry.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

By far the most important instrument for accelerating the institutionalisation process is the continuous training of staff and management development for top officials. The staff in the training unit should always upgrade their skills and knowledge in research, planning, monitoring and evaluation. They should also be in a position to use the latest instruments in technology, such as computers and other communication technologies.

Training contributes to behavioural and attitudinal change as well as the breaking down of barriers, resistance and rigidities. The training programme should focus not only on their daily activities but also on change management, policy decision-making processes, inter-governmental co-ordination and civil society's organisations such as labour, unions, interest groups, professional staff associations such as teachers, nurses and lawyers and other non-government or community-based organisations.

USE OF EXTERNAL SIGNIFICANT ORGANISATIONS AND INSTITUTIONS

The training policy unit should be able to tap the knowledge, skills and information of national universities, colleges, management institutes and other institutions of higher learning. It may also work closely with regional organisations that deal with research, policy and planning issues. The Eastern and Southern African Institute (ESAMI) is one such institute that is to be used for training managers in the region.

CONCLUSION

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING

1. The need to develop people as better managers is widely recognised as an essential element of any public sector reform programme. People can be made more effective as managers if they develop relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes. Information is now growing at such a phenomenal rate and information technology provides instant access to so much information. So the importance of knowing a great deal is being superseded by knowing where particular information can be obtained and having the means to obtain access in a timely fashion. Developing skills, and particularly inter-personal skills, is more important to managers. The skills inventory of an effective manager includes communication (by mouth, pen and ear); negotiation; planning and decision-making; and delegating and appraising.

2. Knowledge and skills can be developed through training programmes, although the style of training needs to be very different depending on the content. For example, people do not develop good negotiating skills through being lectured on the topic. Participative approaches using role-playing exercises are more appropriate.

3. Even if someone develops every relevant skill and has access to every imaginable piece of relevant information, the result is that he/she is not a manager if the attitudes are wrong. Attitudes to the value of other people; to the value of providing service to clients of the highest possible standard; motivation; commitment; integrity; cultural and gender sensitivity – these and many others are important in developing good managers. Inspirational lectures can have a transitory impact on attitudinal development. What really changes people's attitudes is how they are treated and the reward/punishment systems that apply within their organisations.

4. An understandable response to identifying the importance of training is to allocate more resources to training institutions but success is not guaranteed unless there is a very close connection between the real needs of those to be trained and the training programmes provided. The training institution must also go through a change process, with a very strong client orientation ensuring that provision is demand-driven rather than dominated by the interests of the training staff. One way is to allocate all training budgets to ministries, forbid the use of the money for anything other than training and allow ministries to buy training from whichever organisation or individual best meets their needs. Given a "level playing field", if a training institution within the government structure cannot survive in these circumstances it probably does not deserve to survive at all.

5. One key issue is the attitude that managers have to the training of staff for whom they are responsible. "If my staff are trained they only get other jobs". "If my staff go on a course it disrupts the work of the organisation". There are clearly disincentives to encouraging the training of staff and the organisation needs to create some counterbalancing incentives. One way is to be explicit in the manager's appraisal process – what steps did you take this year to ensure the development of the staff for whom you are responsible? Reward systems change people's attitudes.

6. Elsewhere in the world there is much good practice of relevance to Africa. The Canadian Centre for Management Development is very closely associated with the Canadian public service reform programmes (PS2000) and its course programme is directly geared to supporting change. In the UK, the Civil Service College has been revolutionised by the approach described in paragraphs 4 and 5 above. The College now receives no core funding from its parent ministry and all its income must be earned by winning business from other government departments and external sources. This has required a complete change in the College's approach to market research, course design and course promotion. The fact that its programmes continue to grow demonstrates that its staff have learned to respond to the needs of ministries. Simultaneously, a Division within the Cabinet Office with no direct functional responsibility for the College, has been active in promoting staff development and the management systems needed to relate improved organisational performance and human resource development.

SOME LESSONS FROM THE CASE STUDIES

1. Training of middle and senior managers from whom permanent secretaries would be recruited.

2. Mandatory training for permanent secretaries in the managing change process.

3. Linking training with succession plan, promotion and salary awards.

4. Training is demand-driven as it is tied to advancement in the civil service.

5. Formulating and institutionalising training policy in the entire government.

6. Training of human resources becoming a high priority of government.

7. Increasing funding for training purposes rather than reducing the training vote as many African countries have done.

8. Demonstrating leadership will and commitment to increasing the skills for top civil servants, as in the case in Malaysia.

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CASE STUDIES

GHANA

THE ROLE OF THE MDI IN CAPACITY-BUILDING AND REFORMS IN GHANA

INTRODUCTION

Inherent in the concept of organisation is its capacity to maintain a viable technology to enable it to respond to change in the task environment (Thompson 1967). This is without regard to the discipline from whose perspective the concept is viewed, whether sociology, economics, political science or other. This view holds valid in developed as in developing contexts. In Africa, where many aspects of the modern organisation as a system remain inadequately researched, what studies exist have also upheld that perception. Similarly, in a continent endowed with a complex network of cultural values and norms, there is some agreement that successful development and reform there depend on measures rooted in the peculiar cultural and organisational environment (Jones, Blunt and Sharma 1996). Failure to give due weight to the cultural dimension has resulted in many failed attempts at economic and social transformation.

The principal institutions established in the early stages of national independence to build capacity for managing the peculiar needs for development were management development institutions (MDIs). These institutions with a mission for management excellence were not only expected to engineer their own survival in a turbulent world, they were also expected to help build the capacity to adapt the post-colonial administration to local needs and to anticipate changes. In addition, they were expected to provide evolving management know-how to overcome the environmental impediments that bedevilled the attainment of development objectives. There is widespread interest among scholars and donors in how well MDIs in Africa are meeting their performance expectations in specified areas and how well those in Ghana can be assessed to have the capacity to achieve the objectives set for them.

In this paper a determination of how well the MDIs are striving to meet their raison d'etre requires that we review their terms of reference vis à vis some of the criticisms recorded from the stakeholders of those institutions. In addition, it requires an examination of the factors in the environment which influence the output capabilities of the MDIs including training policies, their focus, strengths and weaknesses; a review of the effects of training top-level managers, especially those at the permanent secretary or Chief Director level; on the performance of the Civil Service; evidence of the existence of and impact of morale among civil servants, as well as the problems of funding and utilisation of the outputs of MDIs. Finally, the particular role of an MDI in the reform process is also discussed as an indication of the extent of its utilisation by policy-makers. The paper is presented in the form indicated in order to establish clearly the impact of certain aspects of MDIs' role on national development.

The post-independence period of the 1960s was characterised by the need to build institutions to create capacity for national development. The establishment of Institutes of Public Administration (IPA) in Africa and elsewhere was meant to meet one such important need. They were either attached to universities or ministries or created as autonomous institutions under the office of the Head of State. They were expected, due to the exigencies of the period, primarily to develop capacity for self-government. This they did by producing persons with administrative and professional competence to plan and administer national, regional and local services and to develop knowledge, research and consultancy assistance facilities essential to those purposes (Stone 1969).

The institutes of public administration or management development schools and centres were expected to provide appropriate institutional base for teaching management and helping to improve it in practice. They are perceived as "bodies able to generalise experience, develop new theory, transmit generalised experience to both would-be and practising managers and help increase the learning and problem solving capacity of organisations" (Kubr et al, 1982 p 11). These are important social functions which management institutions were expected to perform. Other methods for improving managerial performance on the job, such as coaching, job rotation, self-development, study leave, secondment are also employed.

Indeed, management development institutions have evolved quite comprehensive mandates over the years with country-specific variations. For example, in Ghana, the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA) has, in addition to the general objects common to other MDIs, the new mandate to offer masters and doctorate degrees in collaboration with the University of Ghana. Additionally, the MDI is expected to offer education and training programmes for management personnel; provide management consultancy services, encourage or sponsor the publication of the results of studies or research into management and administration; award diplomas, certificates and degrees; and collaborate with local and international organisations whose objects are similar to those of the Institute. (GIMPA Law, PNDCL 318, 1993).

From the objects of the MDIs, three main activities have become established as their traditional functions, namely:

- Management training – formal, regular courses with post-experience orientation, and special, tailor made/in-plant courses.

- Management research – contract and individual research on management related topics.

- Management consultancy – various clients and functional areas. Formal and informal consultancy commitments.

The basic outcomes expected from MDIs' activities for the economy include:

- greater managerial efficiency and effectiveness, increased productivity and profits for all organisations;

- greater understanding and co-operation between public and private sector agencies with regard to their roles in managing for national development;

- greater capacity for change management, involving values, attitudes and needs of society during reforms; and

- ultimately increased economic development (higher productivity and standard of living) for nationals of the country is expected through improved management practices.

A CRITIQUE OF GHANA'S MDIs

GIMPA's mandate PNDCL 318, (1993) has been outlined above. GIMPA, by that mandate, has traditionally undertaken management training, research and consultancy for the public services, state enterprises or parastatals and private sector organisations. The services rendered are expected to meet the requirements of the clients and to contribute to overall improvements in management practice and national development. The main stakeholders' perceptions are in that direction.

For example, the Chairman of Ghana's State Enterprises Commission (SEC), William Ada, (1989) observed that "it would be presumptuous and naive to overlook the achievements of the management development institutions in Ghana. They "have no doubt established themselves and are striving to accomplish their objectives through training courses, research and consultancy, workshops, seminars, conferences". He argues that the diversity of the enterprises patronising those courses suggest the need to develop a prototype curriculum catering to the commonalities of the manager's function in all types of enterprises but retaining a flexibility that will make the learning experience directly relevant to the participants. The main criticism by Ada was that "the programmes are usually not suited to the specific needs of the state-owned enterprises (SOEs), particularly those which are profit-oriented". He therefore suggested that MDIs should develop special courses to suit the needs of SOEs.

In a similar submission the Head of the Ghana Civil Service, Emmanuel Sai (1989) suggested that MDIs must keep pace with changes in national economic development policies to define their mandates. They should aim at being proactive rather than reactive; they should break new ground and even lead the way in policy changes

affecting them (and the nation). MDIs are perceived to have an "inalienable role to play in the improvement of management capacity. They should endeavour to share a common role perception, (with policy-makers) and be concerned with building up a respectable stature and a fair measure of autonomy". There should be "consistency, cohesion and correlation between the policies and programmes of the MDIs and the macro-policies and programmes of government to ensure responsiveness of the MDIs to governments' expectations". The foregoing recommendations by the Head of Ghana's Civil Service could also be interpreted as criticisms indicating the gap between the present status of the MDIs and what they should do to increase their utility for capacity-building for the government and other clients.

Indeed, the criticisms and suggestions made by the Heads of the Civil Service and the State Enterprises sector could be generalised to include those from private sector clients of the Institutes as well. They all suggest the need for planning and offering user-specific training and services that could effectively enhance their contributions to national development.

HUMAN CAPACITY BUILDING POLICIES

The work of MDIs is influenced by a number of factors an important one of which is the prevailing macro and other training policies in the task environment. External training policies affect the size of the demand for MDI inputs, their funding availability and utilisation of their outputs. Data on the macro-training policies in Ghana exist in well-documented sources. The Constitution of the Republic of Ghana (1992) outlines basic human resource development policies under sections on "Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms", (Chap 5) as well as under the "Directive Principles of State Policy" (Chap 6). Without exception, all major development policies and plans of the country, from the first major plan, the "Seven-Year Plan" (1964) to the current "Ghana Vision 2020. The First Medium-Term Development Plan", 1997–2000 (1997) stresses the need for continuous training and retraining of workers at all levels (p.31). The "Draft National Employment Policy of the Government of Ghana" (1996) argues that it is the responsibility of both private and public sectors of the economy to undertake training and human resource development in the economy (p 76). There are fourteen (14) public services in Ghana with the Civil Service as the largest. Each service has a training policy which is affected by the existing national level policies, and which influences the level of fulfilment of the mandates of the MDIs.

The Civil Service Training Policy (1995) has the main purpose of developing the potential of civil servants to enable them perform to higher quality and performance standards. There are three main aims of the training policy:

(i)   improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable staff perform current jobs effectively;

(ii)   preparing staff to meet future manpower needs of the Service, and

(iii)   educating officers to create a congenial environment for private sector led economic growth.

In the field of human resource planning and utilisation, a clear training policy statement has several advantages. First, it points to the prevailing national development priorities such as "private sector led economic growth". This emphasis on private sector-led growth is a recognition of the sector as the "engine of growth" for Ghana's development based on the Vision 2020 Plan. Secondly, it provides a clear mandate to plan and implement training policies deemed important in attaining national development or organisational objectives. Thirdly, the policy provides the justification for budgetary allocations to be made to training. Fourthly, it provides a commitment to plan training into career development plans and ensures utilisation, in the right positions, of the outputs from the training institutions or from on-the-job training activities. Without a published training policy there is a lack of focus and a tendency to ignore or not to sustain training interventions, planning or budgeting the implementation of training plans.

In practice, training policy statements, once formalised, can be quickly forgotten or ignored, like the many forgotten Committee reports found hibernating in cabinets in civil service offices. In Ghana, the formulation of the 1995 Civil Service Training Policy has not been matched by observable ministerial commitment to training. The training vote, once agreed, is subjected to the same unpredictable budgetary cuts, mid-stream, as in other areas, thereby rendering any planned training programme impossible to sustain. Even well-recognised career development training programmes in the Civil Service stand the risk of being sacrificed on the altar of budgetary inadequacies. This obviously has serious implications for the future capacity of the Civil Service to function fully and effectively. The Directorate of the Training and Manpower Development Division of the Office of the Head of Civil Service confirms that it encounters problems securing the timely or adequate release of the training allocations for the entire Civil Service.

Even before the Civil Service Training Policy (1995) was formalised, most civil servants knew of the existence of career progression courses and examinations required for promotion to higher levels. The Secretarial class, the Accounting class, the Executive class, the Administrative Officer class, and others, all had prescribed courses and examinations for their promotion. In this regard, it was generally assumed that by the time one climbed the ladder all the way to Permanent Secretary/Chief Director, several relevant courses would have been attended. The publication of the Training Policy in 1995 has emphasised that practice or perception. But, as indicated above, the policy statement of 1995 was expected to have made much more visible impact than what is apparent now. In effect the Civil Service Training Policy of 1995 has not improved much on the conditions prevailing before its promulgation.

FUNDING AND DONOR SUPPORT

The main aim of national human capacity building policy is articulated in The Ghana Vision 2020. The First Medium-Term Plan 1997–2000 (1997) is to progressively increase national self-reliance through the development and improvement of skills, aptitudes and accountability systems (p 56). The Civil Service Training Policy (1995) statement closely identifies with this national policy by its concern to develop the potentials of all civil servants to enable them perform to higher quality and performance standards both in their present and future jobs. It is anticipated that by the end of the Medium-Term Plan period in the year 2000, some clear results would have been obtained from those policies. But it is clear that that expectation can only materialise when and if the present funding and other training policy implementational problems are resolved.

Local funding of training by government and other employers has been supplemented by donor support in the form of direct funding of training in various public sector organisations or capacity building for training institutions like GIMPA or the Management Development and Productivity Institute (MDPI) to produce the multiplier effect on national training outcomes. For example, the last two reforms, the Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP, 1987–1993) and the Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme (CSPIP, 1995–2000) have had considerable donor support. The CSRP was supported by the World Bank and much training support by the Overseas Development Administration (ODA) in both local and overseas institutions. Other donors like the Commonwealth Secretariat, the European Union and other bilateral agencies made relevant contributions. In a Progress Monitoring Report by Glentworth, (1990) on the CSRP it was asserted that "five Departmental Management Services Units had staff training overseas and staff of recipient ministries also received considerable overseas training". An example of the request for training support from one organisation, was the Controller and Accountant-General's Department for fourteen of whose officers were to be trained each year: twelve in overseas training institutions and two senior managers in a local institution, GIMPA over a period of five years (See Appendix 1, Glentworth, 1990). The current Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme depends on the Department for International Development (DFID), formerly ODA, for much of the funding for overseas and some local training.

TRAINING OF PERMANENT SECRETARY-LEVEL STAFF

Local, top-level management development and training for Chief Directors and Directors, Ghana's equivalents of senior and ordinary level of permanent secretaries elsewhere, are offered by the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA).

Two main courses are available to those levels in Civil Service Management, the Chief Executive Programme (CEP) and the Senior Management Development Course (SMDC). Table 1 below shows the total number of attendance on those courses covering the period 1988–1997.

It is estimated that the average yearly rate of attendance by the top Civil Service Managers on these two courses is 19 per cent. The predominant group trained on those courses is from the parastatal or state enterprises sector. Private sector participation is the lowest over the period at about seven per cent.

The Table shows that the top administrative levels of the headquarters of the Ghana Civil Service are not adequately manned. The vacancy position with respect to the top management positions of Chief Director and Director is 32 per cent. At the middle, Deputy Director and Assistant Director I levels, there is a very high vacancy rate of 94 per cent. At the bottom, Assistant Directors IIA and B levels, there is a vacancy rate of 79 per cent. The total vacancy position of the core administrative/managerial class is over 70 per cent. This fact dispels the often-held view that Civil Services in Africa are bloated. The reality is that the Services are undermanned at the critical levels at the top and bloated at the lower, junior official levels.

Furthermore, if account is taken of the current manning levels at the three topmost grade levels in the Administrative Class of about 90 and the rate of training of 9 participants on the top level GIMPA courses per year, it would take each official about 10 years before receiving another training in a local institution. It is obvious from this fact alone that top civil servants receive inadequate training. That could also explain the low productivity levels in the Ghana Civil Service which the on-going Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme (CSPIP) is trying to resolve. The situation may have improved somewhat in recent years, but between 1975 and 1982 it was recorded that total factor productivity of the economy declined at an average annual rate of 4.5 per cent per annum (Leith, 1996).

By comparison the Lesotho Public Service in December 1996 had a staffing and vacancy position typical of African public services. The grades with the highest vacancy rates were at the top-level managerial and professional grades of 36 per cent.

Table 1

Participation in Training Courses at GIMPA
Chief Executive and Senior Management Courses 1988–1997

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	Total
Chief Executive	13	17	14	17	20	14	-	11	13	9	128
Senior Management Development	28	28	23	39	39	35	28	30	36	19	305
Total (Year)	41	45	37	56	59	49	28	41	49	28	433
Top Civil Servants	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	

Source: Various sources HRD Division – GIMPA

Table 2

Ghana Civil Service – Administrative/Managerial Grades
Establishment and Vacancy Situation – 1997
Ministry Headquarters

MINISTRY	CHIEF DIR.	DIR.	DEP. DIR	ASST. DIR I	ASST. DIR 2A	ASST. DIR 2B	TOTAL	VACAN-CIES
ESTABLISHMENT	1	4	4	8	8	8	33	
1. Head of Civil Service	2	8	1	-	-	-	11	22
2. Education	1	2	-	-	1	4	8	25
3. Health	-	3	-	-	-	3	6	27
4. Food and Agriculture	1	2	-	-	-	2	5	28
5. Works and Housing	-	4	-	-	1	3	8	25
6. Youth and Sports	1	3	-	-	1	4	9	24
7. Roads and Transport	1	2	-	-	1	2	6	27
8. Lands and Forestry	-	2	1	-	1	2	6	27
9. Employment/Social Welfare	-	4	-	-	2	1	7	26
10. Environment, Science and Technology	1	4	-	1	1	3	10	23
11. Interior	-	3	-	-	1	3	7	26
12. Tourism	1	4	-	1	-	3	9	24
13. Trade and Industry	1Ag	1	-	-	1	3	6	27

MINISTRY	CHIEF DIR.	DIR.	DEP. DIR	ASST. DIR I	ASST. DIR 2A	ASST. DIR 2B	TOTAL	VACAN-CIES
14. Local Gov't & Rural Dev.	1	3	-	-	-	6	10	23
15. Mines and Energy	-	1	-	-	-	1	2	31
16. Foreign Affairs	1	6	3	1	1	8	15	18
17. Finance	1	5	4	1	5	4	20	13
18. Defence	-	1	-	-	-	3	4	29
19. Justice	1	1	1	-	-	1	4	29
20. Communications	-	2	1	-	1	4	8	25
21. Parliamentary Affairs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33
Total	13	61	11	4	17	55	161	532

Source: Office of the Head of Civil Service Data. "Distribution of Administrative Class Officers in Ministry Headquarters" 1997. Also from Evaluation Panel data Report on Performance Agreement for Chief Directors, 1998. p 68.

Only seven per cent of the total employment are at professional and managerial levels (see Table 3 below).

Table 3

Lesotho Public Service Employment and Vacancy Position, December 1996

	OCCUPANCY	VACANCY	%
Professional and managerial	1,061	606	36
Executive	2,685	722	21
Clerical	11,321	2,121	16

Source: Ministry of Public Service, Government of Lesotho, computer print-out, May 1997

Similar to the position in the Ghana and Lesotho Civil Services the Cameroon Civil Service portrays manning levels totalling 20 per cent for the Executive and Professional levels and the middle and lower levels accounting for over 70 per cent of total employment (UNDESD, 1992, p 87).

IMPORTANCE OF MANAGEMENT TRAINING

Training is recognised generally as one of the major solutions to the human resource capacity deficiency problem. But this positive correlation between training and improved performance happens when three logical steps have been observed: (i) if training needs were carefully analysed; (ii) if training interventions were carefully planned and implemented; and (iii) if the results of training were evaluated back on the job to determine relevant impact. In spite of the fact that many management development institutes strive to observe these logical steps in training, results on the job have not generally been positive. The experience of Jones (1990) seems to be that in African organisations there is "an extraordinarily powerful belief in the ability of training to solve organisational problems". This leads to "the expenditure of vast sums on inappropriate and often unnecessary training". Morris (1977) similarly observes that "the assumption that managerial effectiveness is primarily a result of adequate training is not only unquestioned, it is unquestionable" (p 75).

The reasons for this faith in training and education may not be entirely unfounded. Human capital theorists, in particular Psacharopoulos (1984), indicates that in Africa investment in education and training explains nearly twice the proportion of economic growth than it does in more affluent Europe and North America. The

explanation is that human capital is much scarcer in the poorer countries and as such the macro-rate of return on investments in education is expected to be larger. In that regard, African countries could expect more from training and education provided that the training is planned and appropriate for the job and is sustained for continuous employee career development.

Training of management level staff, and in particular, top and senior civil servants is viewed with the expectation that it would have a positive impact in Ghana. The approved career development courses for staff in the administrative class hierarchy are offered by the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA). The nomenclature for the Administrative Class who have been beneficiaries of those courses has been changed since 1993 (see Table 4).

Table 4

Ghana Civil Service – Administrative Class Hierarchy

1957–1993	1993–Present
1. Senior Principal Secretary	Chief Director
2. Principal/Permanent Secretary	Director
3. Principal Assistant Secretary (Glass I)	Deputy Director
4. Senior Assistant Secretary (Class II)	Assistant Director I
5. Assistant Secretary (Class III)	Assistant Director IIA
6. Assistant Secretary (Class IV)	Assistant Director IIB

The career development plan for senior civil servants requires that by Deputy Director-level incumbents would have completed the GIMPA Certificate in Public Administration Course, the Diploma in Public Administration Course and any or a combination of functional courses in Personnel Management; Budgeting and Financial Management; Project Planning and Management Course; Production Management; and other courses.

From the Deputy Director-level upwards to Director and Chief Director-levels the two courses offered for career development and effective performance, the Senior Management Development Course and the Chief Executive Programme cover the following subjects:

- Strategic Planning and Management
- Management of Information
- Negotiation Skills
- Communication Skills

- Total Quality Management
- Policy Formulation and Analysis
- Team Building Skills.

Subject areas not presented are:

- Examination of Corruption
- Reduction in Mismanagement.

In addition to the subjects offered in the Senior Management Development and the Chief Executive Programmes above, the two GIMPA courses cover the following relevant management areas as well:

- Quantitative Management
- Human Resource Development
- Business Policy Exercises
- Computer Applications for Managers
- Legal Aspects of Business
- Time Management.

Other short presentations on relevant topics by practitioners in the field are also arranged according to the needs of the participants.

EVIDENCE OF TRAINING IMPACT

The question has been asked whether training of managers in the areas indicated has been effective in solving reform implementational problems of Ghana, using the Economic Recovery and Structural Adjustment periods 1983 to 1995 as a test. The response to this crucial question can be approached from three angles:

(i) evidence of the impact on reforms of the human capital dimension; (ii) evidence from the job based on performance evaluation/assessment; (iii) evidence from GIMPA's Post Course Evaluation of the Chief Executive Programme.

(i)   In a study, *Ghana Structural Adjustment Experience*, Clark Leith (1996) points out that factors that cannot fully account for the failure of reforms to restore Ghana's economy to its full potential include the stock of human capital, the terms of international trade and pattern of saving and investment (p.29). After an intensive review of data on enrolments in schools, the number of teachers and the student teacher ratios which declined in the early years of reforms, the labour force emigration to and their reversed expulsion from Nigeria in 1983, Leith (1986) came to the conclusion that "the human capital dimension does not provide an explanation of the failure of actual output to reach their calculation of potential output in the post reform period (p.31). Like Leith, writers on

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Ghana's recent macro-economic reforms have generally not factored in the human capital or the management capacity dimension to determine their measurable impact on the nation's economic performance. But whatever the level of economic performance that may have been achieved human capital theorists would assume a considerable proportion of it to be due to the quality of the available human or management inputs.

(ii)   It has not been possible to obtain yearly performance evaluation data on top civil servants to determine the extent to which their performance levels have been periodically assessed on the job or how performance has been affected by their participation in the senior and top level management courses at GIMPA. Data on yearly performance appraisal were not available from the Office of the Head of Civil Service or from the Public Services Commission. There is, however, a report prepared by an Evaluation Panel, on the "Performance Agreement of Chief Directors" (1998). Chief Directors, as Ghana's equivalent of Senior Permanent Secretaries (in other African countries) signed Performance Contracts in 1996, holding them responsible for a set of ten performance deliverables to their ministers/ministries. The Performance Contracts were evaluated by a panel of consultants in March 1998. All of them − thirteen Chief Directors − were assessed to have met the demands of their contracts, at varying levels of achievement. One relevant characteristic of 92 per cent of the Chief Directors was that they had, to their credit, post-graduate qualifications, and had attended a number of management courses, including the GIMPA Senior Management Development (SMD) and Chief Executive Programme (CEP) courses. They had all attended conferences and workshops, both locally and overseas, in their areas of sectoral jurisdiction. This could indicate that the senior and top-level management courses they attended, such as those offered at GIMPA, may have been beneficial in their selection as Chief Directors and in meeting the deliverables stipulated in their contract.

(iii)   GIMPA routinely prepares periodic post-course evaluation reports on its regular courses. An Evaluation of the Chief Executive Programme (1995), was conducted by the Institute's Management Research Division, covering six previous Chief Executive Programmes from 1988 to 1993. The evaluation involved 99 past-participants on the course. As indicated earlier, the attendance rate of top civil servants on GIMPA's top-level courses is about 19 per cent (see Table 1).

A fairly high response rate of 74.3 per cent was achieved from mailed questionnaires. A total of ten former participants had retired and another twenty-one had left their original place of employment. Only three or 11.5% had changed status from acting to substantive positions, and 88.5% had no change in their positions because they were already in the top management position as at the time of their participation on the course.

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The Chief Executives contacted during the Evaluation exercise indicated that the GIMPA Chief Executive Programme helped them to do a better job. Fifty-eight per cent confirmed some of their ideas, 69% presented them with new ideas and approaches pertinent to their work, 92% acquainted them with problems and solutions from other organisations, and 65% and gave them a good chance to look objectively at themselves and their jobs. The findings from the evaluation suggest clearly that participants benefited from their training, either in the form of better job performance or personal professional efficacy. There is the added dimension that the impact of training takes time to register on-the-job by which time the direct benefits may not be easy to isolate from other causes.

The point is worth noting from Table 2 that approximately 70 per cent, representing the four top grades out of five in the administrative/managerial class, that is from Assistant Director 2A up to Chief Director grades, have been trained on at least one GIMPA course. Whatever successes the nation's senior to top-level administrators have achieved can be partly attributed to their career training at GIMPA.

MORALE AND LOYALTY

Reports on African Civil Service organisations portray widespread incidence of poor morale and low job satisfaction (UNDESD, 1992). The United Nations report on *Size and Cost of the Civil Service: Reform Programmes in Africa* (1992) did not give reasons for low morale, in the case of the Ghana Civil Service, to be due to redundancy, retrenchment or downsizing. Considerable reductions of the Civil Service and the non-teaching members of the Ghana Education Service (GES) were recorded as follows 12,100 in 1987, 12,100 in 1988, 12,849 in 1989 and 7,789 in 1990. (p. 37). In spite of these retrenchments the commonly cited causes of Civil Service ineffectiveness were, in decreasing order of importance: poor morale; poor pay; low benefits and lack of incentives; absenteeism; ineffective promotion and career development policies and procedures (p 95). From the foregoing assessment, the main causes of poor morale are shown to be poor pay, benefits and incentives. In a report by the African Governors of the World Bank presented to the President of the Bank in 1996 they asserted:

"Civil Service remuneration (in Africa) is extremely low, and employment benefits (such as pension schemes, health facilities and loan schemes) which used to make the civil service attractive, are no longer attainable in many countries. This has led to "institutionalised corruption", laxity and general lack of discipline in the civil service". (p 6).

The World Bank's Dunstan M. Wai (1995) also summarises:

"It is no secret that inadequate salaries direct public officials into unprofessional forms of behaviour ... There must also be incentives to perform their jobs effectively and honestly". (p 25).

The evidence provided in support of this view by Numberg and Nellis (1989) is that in 1983, real wage rates for highly skilled members of the Civil Service were 11 per cent of what they were in the mid-1970s in Ghana; 5 per cent in Uganda; 30 per cent in Nigeria, and 45 per cent in Zambia. Another review found that government wage bills divided by the number of employees tended to show sharp reductions up to 40 per cent in the 1980s, (Berg 1993, p 204). Another recent study by Ul Haque and Sahay (1995) confirmed the plummeting salary levels in African countries. That view is further corroborated by Lindauer (1994) and Klitgaard (1991). The result of this situation, which has implications for many donor funded "capacity-building projects, is that as soon as public servants are trained to higher skill levels they depart to the private sector (Klitgaard 1997, p 494) or what is worse, they migrate to other developed countries as brain drain. (Wereko, 1997, p 51).

FUNDING AND UTILISATION OF MDI SERVICES

The view has been expressed that Africa governments under-fund, under-rate, under-utilise and under-staff MDIs. This section reviews that assertion from the perspective of an MDI in Ghana to confirm or disprove any or all of the claims. Most African MDIs were established in the 1960s, soon after independence, when the coffers of the newly-independent nations were full, some with large reserves, when assistance from donors to build the structures was forthcoming, and when the expectations of the possible attainments of the MDIs were high. In those days the programmes offered by the MDIs were fully funded and participants from ministries and other organisations were on government scholarship. Generally, as the national coffers ran dry and various reform measures had to be instituted, one of the first areas to be affected was funding tertiary education and management development. Economic Recovery Programmes and Structural Adjustment policies have resulted in deepening the crisis of funding MDIs to the point where the divestiture or privatisation net is fast being extended in that direction.

THE GIMPA CASE

The WAMDEVIN Newsletter (Sept. 1996) in an Update of Members' Activities ran the headline "GIMPA Excels on Sustainability Drive". The point was made that even though GIMPA was classified as a fully subvented institution, the Government of Ghana's contributions towards running the institution had been in decline. The reality was that GIMPA had accepted a self-imposed challenge to generate as much of its operational expenditure as possible. The Government, which had been facing budget constraints in recent years, had gradually shed an

increasing portion of its subvented responsibilities to the point where the Ghana Government's "Provisional Estimates 1998" shows a commitment to pay only a portion of the salary bill with nothing more, for maintenance, equipment and others under Items 2–5 for the year (p 14). This means the Institute has to generate most of the income in 1998 to run its programmes (see Table 5 below).

The subvention figures in Table 5 confirm declining government funding of this MDI since the mid-1980s to the point where every penny earned by the MDI was correspondingly withheld by government. Thus, what started as an MDI's self-imposed challenge to fund itself has become an established government policy to withhold its subvention. It is admitted that the government's policy now is to push all tertiary institutions to seek alternative funding to lessen the burden on the subvention funds. But what is happening to GIMPA is likely to kill the incentive for other subvented institutions to generate any percentage of their operating costs because there appears to be no reward for making the effort. The net result of this situation is that GIMPA may be able to run its operations on earnings made but may not earn enough to maintain or purchase capital equipment and other fixed assets. Eventually its capacity to make the requisite contributions to the national development effort may be seriously impaired.

Table 5

GIMPA – Financial Performance Data (¢'000) 1989–1998

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
GIMPA Income (GI)	142,485	178,880	185,119	304,792	489,108	688,134	1,058,014	1,528,753	1,584,999	1,745,000
*G.I as % Total	59.3	57.7	45.8	50.4	57.4	60.2	63.3	70.8	-	-
Government Subvention %	40.7	42.3	54.2	49.6	42.6	39.8	36.7	29.2	-	-

Sources: GIMPA Audited Accounts for Years Ended 1989-1996, Ayew Agyeman Turkson & Co., Chartered Accountants; 1998 GIMPA Budget; and the "Provisional Estimates 1998". Republic of Ghana. p. 14

*G.I GIMPA income as a percentage of total income.

PATRONAGE/UTILISATION

One of the tests of an MDI's performance is the extent of patronage of its services, especially courses, by the key stakeholders – organisations and individuals – participants and other clients having a direct interest in the organisation. The first measure of patronage is whether the demand for its courses goes up or down. The second measure is the utilisation of the Institute's facilities and services by the government and other users in areas other than direct training such as consultancies, contract research, rental of facilities, invitations to serve on Committees, advisory boards or think-tank facilities, can also be assessed.

GIMPA, for the first twenty-two years of its existence, from 1961 to 1983, was offering less than ten courses with participation averaging 140 per year. For the last fourteen years the number of participants has more than doubled at 375 per year. Between 1990 and 1996/97 participation has again increased to an average of 473 per year and to an average of 21 regular courses offered yearly (see Table 6).

Table 6

GIMPA Regular Courses and Total Attendance 1990–1996

ACADEMIC YEAR	NO. OF COURSES	PARTICIPATION
1990/1991	16	347
1991/1992	19	442
1992/1993	18	494
1993/1994	17	415
1994/1995	24	494
1995/1996	23	479
1996/1997	29	642

Source: GIMPA HRD Division. Basic Statistics 1990–1996.

From the analysis of patronage of GIMPA courses there has been a 263 per cent increase in patronage since the first 22 years of its existence. Over the last seven years 1990/91 to 1995/96 there has been a further increase of 126 per cent in the total participation on courses over the last fourteen years. It can therefore be concluded that GIMPA has continued to benefit from increasing patronage of its programmes. That in part explains the increasing financial performance and increasing independence of the Institute in recent years indicated earlier. There are other indications of utilisation of the Institute's facilities, such as work on Committees, various fora, rental of Institute conference facilities, advisory boards

and consultancies which also contribute to its funding. Other sources of funding are special, tailor-made courses offered on campus or on location to clients. The patronage of these courses has also increased quite dramatically since the 1980s.

When patronage of courses offered by the Institute is comparatively assessed among the major clients, government (Civil Service ministries), parastatals, and the private sector, variations emerge. For example, in 1994/95, parastatal organisations participated at the rate of 55.2 per cent in all regular courses run by the Institute compared with 37.8 per cent from the Civil Service and 7.1 per cent from the private sector. The next year, 1995/96, Civil Service ministries had the highest participation at 54 per cent, 35.9 per cent from parastatals and 9.4% from the private sector (Director-General's Report 1996 p.66, 67). From these indications it is concluded that patronage of GIMPA courses by government as a client has remained somewhat constant, with a slight indication of an increase in recent years.

SIZE OF FACULTY

The quality and number of professional staff or Faculty and support facilities available are the basis for effective performance of any MDI. In practice a core of very good faculty can at times make up for inadequate facilities. In GIMPA the size of faculty had tended to decrease with increasing volume of work – e.g. courses ran, consultancies, research. Table 7 below indicates that in GIMPA over the last nine years faculty strength has decreased by 32 per cent while the number of courses has nearly doubled. The implications for faculty workload and capacity to conduct relevant research are obvious.

The reasons for the situation are twofold: (1) the decreasing funding by Government makes it difficult to replace retired and other separated faculty; and (2) the shortage of qualified faculty in the country constrains the ability to recruit and MDIs are forced to hold on to retired faculty for as long as possible. Currently 13 per cent of the faculty have been employed on contract since 1994.

There is not very conclusive evidence that government (Civil Service organisations) underate GIMPA's capabilities beyond a certain feeling that many top officials may not fully appreciate what roles GIMPA can play or that they cannot help acting as they do. The obvious preference for external consultants in many Civil Service reform project areas may be due to the fact that donors tend these days to ensure that the lion's share of donor funds returns to donor sources. Many external consultants come to work in Ghana as part of the donor package or conditionality without regard to the availability locally of capable consultants. Many qualified consultants are also forced to leave Ghana to avoid redundancy resulting in a brain-drain to other countries.

Table 7

GIMPA Faculty Strength and Workload

ACADEMIC YEAR	NO. OF COURSES	NO. OF CORE FACULTY
1988/89	12	25
1990/91	16	34
1995/96	23	27
1996/97	29	23

Source: GIMPA Brochures and Director-General's Reports

CONTRIBUTIONS TO MAJOR REFORMS

MDIs, like GIMPA by virtue of their stock of expertise in management and their mandate to promote management excellence, are normally absorbed into major reform initiatives in several capacities. The capacities in which such contributions are made include:

- member of consulting team preparing the reform agenda or formalising the particular annoyance factors for reform;

- member of the reform implementation committee – monitoring and evaluation;

- selection panel to select senior and top level managers and professionals to implement the reforms;

- member of evaluation team to assess reform impact and redirect;

- member of reform sub-committees on relevant reforms sector specific management issues;
- implementation of courses to build capacity in relevant reform topics or areas;

- contribution of papers to reform journals, publications or workshops;

- member of Overview Committee, committed to ensure overall co-ordination and implementation of reforms.

In these and other capacities, the MDI, like GIMPA to be specific, has served in all the last four major reforms in Ghana, namely:

(i)   The Public Administration Restructuring and Decentralisation Implementation Committee (PARDIC) 1983–1992. The reform succeeded

in consolidating the decentralisation policy, in providing the prototype of the ministerial structure of four directorates and formalising the new ministerial nomenclature of Chief Director, Director, Deputy Director, Assistant Director I and II A & B, in place of the old permanent secretary nomenclature.

(ii)   Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP) 1987–93. It implemented the new ministerial structure with four directorates at the Office of the Head of Civil Service and in other ministries, affirmed the four-tier decentralised local government system; strengthened the OHCS to spearhead reform implementation, with logistical support, through an institutionalised reform review Committee – the Committee on Administrative Reform (CAR) and implemented salary reviews.

(iii)   National Institutional Renewal Programme (NIRP) 1994 – on-going umbrella programme is spearheading co-ordination of all major reforms in good governance, accelerated economic growth, compact and efficiently managed public service with strategic focus on private sector partnership, enhancing attainment of Ghana Vision 2020 objectives.

(iv)   Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme (CSPIP) 1994 – ongoing concerned with developing capacity of the Civil Service and constituent institutions to improve their effectiveness in service delivery under the mantle of good governance.

OUTCOMES OF REFORMS

All four major reforms were undertaken over a period of the past sixteen years with a common objective to improve management capacity in public service organisations for national development. In that regard, the reforms have been interdependent, overlapping and commonly focused. Like reforms elsewhere, the expectations appear to have outpaced the outcomes, as evidenced by the realities on the ground. Based on first-hand observations of an evaluation team (Wereko et al, 1998) it can be asserted that, to date, not all ministries are fully restructured or manned as proposed by PARDIC. Decentralisation as a core policy has not been fully implemented nor the structures fully staffed and equipped. There is a high vacancy rate of up to 70 per cent in the critical managerial and professional grades. The ministries are not adequately accommodated and equipped and systems for improved performance are in the process of being installed or are not yet in place (pp 25,26). The requisite improvements in civil service remuneration have not fully materialised, in spite of several salary reviews. Funding of critical reform objectives including staff salaries remains constrained.

In the area of building capacity for reform implementation, gaps exist in critical skill and knowledge areas and new priority training areas have emerged or have

been re-emphasised. The Training and Manpower Development Division (TMDD) of the Office of the Head of Civil Service (1997) has identified the following training areas for reform focus:

- Policy Formulation and Analysis
- Strategic Planning and Management
- Financial Management and Budgeting
- Target setting and performance measurement
- Managing the Process of Change and Reform
- Personnel Management and Management Training
- Contracting Out – Privatisation

It is expected that most of these training need areas would be addressed by the MDIs, in particular GIMPA, which already offers aspects of those topics on existing programmes.

Some of the visible achievements of the Civil Service reforms in Ghana are:

- Improved pay level for all grades of civil servants.

- Re-introduction of manpower budget hearings and improved establishment control systems.

- Implementation of the revised performance appraisal system.

- Development of an integrated computerised payroll/personnel information system.

- Institutional strengthening of the Office of the Head of the Civil Service (UNDESD 1992 p 37).

The Ghana Vision 2020 First Medium-Term Development Plan (1997–2000) isolates some of the training-related problems that have persisted, in spite of the many reform efforts, whose resolution could improve achievement of reform targets, namely:

- inadequate attention paid to the training needs of small-scale and informal enterprises, especially in the rural areas;

- weak linkages between training institutions and the different sectors of the economy;

- inadequate financial resources and facilities available to training institutions;

- a shortage of instructors generally and in some critical skills areas;

- weak linkages between training institutions and industry;

- lack of information on training needs in different sectors of the economy;

- training programmes tend to be supply driven rather than by demand;

- a bias toward academic rather than practical and experiential form of training (p.94).

COMPLEMENTARITY OF ROLES

Reforms of necessity depend on many role-players to achieve meaningful outcomes. It seems obvious, however, that of the two most important role-players in the reform process, one is the group of policy-makers who engineer the reforms. The other group is the capacity-building institutions like MDIs which provide the improved management practices and skills, changes in values, attitudes and the structures needed to carry reform objectives to fruition. A third group of role-players are the implementors and the beneficiaries of the ultimate outcomes of the reforms. In acknowledging that there are many role-players in the reform process, it is also the reality that reform success depends on quite a complex mix of roles and other inputs. It is therefore not easy to isolate one player from the others in the apportionment of blame for reform failure. Such judgement should first be based on a careful and lengthy process of study and evaluation of roles vis à vis the declared objectives of the reforms.

With regard to the two main role-players, the policy-makers or reform-initiators and the capacity-building institutions, the MDIs, what seems strongly indicated is an indispensable partnership orientation for both in order to achieve successful reform outcomes. The policy-makers should learn to use the captive resources of the MDIs at three levels, the reform initiation and formulation stage, at the reform implementation stage and at the reform consolidation and evaluation stage.

(i)   *Reform policy formulation stage.* MDIs with their stock of expertise can assist the policy-makers with the initiation and formulation of the reform policy and agenda. They can modify the politician's/policy-maker's tendency to exaggerate possible outcomes of the reforms; help understand and anticipate likely problems, assist planning and sequencing as well as time-tabling the reform agenda. They can assist in making a more realistic estimate of resource costs. As has happened in Ghana at GIMPA on a number of occasions MDIs can test run the reform/policy document at a workshop for formulators, implementors and reform agency staff before actual launching or implementation.

(ii)   *Reform implementation stage.* MDIs can assist in the implementation of reforms by helping to build capacity through training and consultancy

services. They can serve on reform implementation and consolidation committees to monitor, modify or re-define or re-direct aspects of reform implementation. In the case of GIMPA in Ghana, membership of the Civil Service Committee on Administrative Reforms (CAR) enables MDIs to assist in monitoring the following on-going reforms: CSRP, NIRP, CSPIP among other civil service performance improvement initiatives. CAR is expected also to carry out an evaluation of aspects of the reforms completed in order to determine the extent of completion and additional measures deemed necessary to achieve expected or better results.

(iii) *Reform Consolidation/Evaluation stage.* Most reforms fail because of the lack of consistent monitoring and evaluation to assess results or re-direct resources utilisation. MDIs can offer consultancies to carry out reform evaluation, offer new training courses identified as causes of reform failure, or conduct research to determine why some reforms failed. Successful reforms can also be assessed at this stage and best practices internalised or consolidated.

Evaluation of reform outcomes may set in train other reforms in order to maintain continuous improvements in managerial performance. The role of MDIs in reform evaluation and recycling can be defined or specified whether a training, research or consultancy role or a combination of all three.

CONCLUSIONS

The foregoing presentation has sought to review the realities of the contributions of the MDI to human capacity-building and to the reform agenda, influenced by environmental factors such as the prevailing national training policies, their focus, strengths and weaknesses; the impact of the training of top-level policy-making chief directors/permanent secretaries; the performance of the Civil Service as influenced by the training or inadequacy of training; the incidence of low morale; funding problems and utilisation of the outputs of the MDIs; as well as the role of the MDI in the reform process. In the course of the review it is clearly established that the MDIs were created to fulfil mandates that impinge directly on the capability of the Civil/Public Services to function effectively by providing human capacity-building inputs through training, research and consultancy and by serving, in related capacities, such as on reform committees, think-tanks etc. to achieve those ends. The nature of environmental responses to the MDI through policies, patronage of programmes funding, recognition of and active encouragement by stakeholders in turn determine the quality of the services the MDI is enabled to render. This situation of mutual interdependence once appreciated and nurtured could result in the enhanced capability of both the MDIs and the stakeholders and create the right environment for the ultimate purpose of increased development of the host nation.

THE WAY FORWARD – RECOMMENDATIONS

The recent Commonwealth Secretariat-sponsored workshop (February 1998) on the Role of Management Development Institutions in the Public Service Reform Process exhaustively outlined the expectations of the two key role-players, namely the Ministry responsible for MDIs and the MDIs in meeting the latter's performance obligations. They boil down to two main recommendations to point to mutual co-operation to realise their mandates and to achieve national prosperity.

In order to move forward it is recommended briefly that:

(i)   Government, through the appropriate ministry which established the MDIs, should consciously support and forge closer links or collaboration, provide financial and logistic support, develop and use the capacities of the MDIs in the areas of training, research, and consultancy, strive to get value for money, evaluate MDI contributions and encourage changes in attitude that should be mutually beneficial to the two collaborators.

(ii)   MDIs on the other hand, conscious of their raison d'être always, should strive to fully equip themselves and be able to respond appropriately to the many demands on them, doing so in the most efficient and effective manner as to earn the confidence and support of their main stakeholders, especially the government.

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MALAYSIA

THE CONTRIBUTION OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT TO IMPROVED PERFORMANCE OF OFFICERS IN THE PREMIER CATEGORY OF THE MALAYSIAN PUBLIC SERVICE[*]

OBJECTIVES OF THE PAPER

Both theorists and practitioners alike have advocated the need for training and development to enhance individual performance and thereby the performance of the organisation. Accordingly, the need for the training and development of officers in the public service has often been adopted as a norm. The public service in Malaysia has in place a well-defined training plan for its officers, particularly for those in the professional and managerial group. Few public services, however, have evaluated the benefits and impact of such training, especially at the level of senior officers. This paper addresses the following issues:

a.   an overall perspective of training for officers in the professional and managerial group with particular emphasis on officers in the premier posts (Grade C) category;

b.   the mandatory course that those in the premier posts category must attend;

c.   the benefits of the course;

d.   the outcomes of the course; and

e.   the critical roles played by political leaders and top government officers in the training and development of senior managers.

THE MALAYSIAN PUBLIC SERVICE

The size of the Malaysian Public Service was about 885,000 strong at the end of 1995 serving a population of over 20 million. About 47% of these employees are in the education service and in the armed and police forces. The remaining employees are in the general services of the federal and state governments. The Malaysian Public Service is divided into four hierarchical levels. These are the Premier Grade Category; the Managerial and Professional Group; Support Group 1; and Support Group 2. In terms of composition, close to 83% of the employees in the general services are in Support Group 2, while another 10% are in Support Group 1.[1] As shown in Figure 1, only about 7% of the employees in the general

services are in the professional and managerial group while an even a smaller percentage, a mere .06% are in the premier posts category. Appendix 1 shows a sample of posts in this category.

Figure 1
Composition of Employees in the General Services, 1995
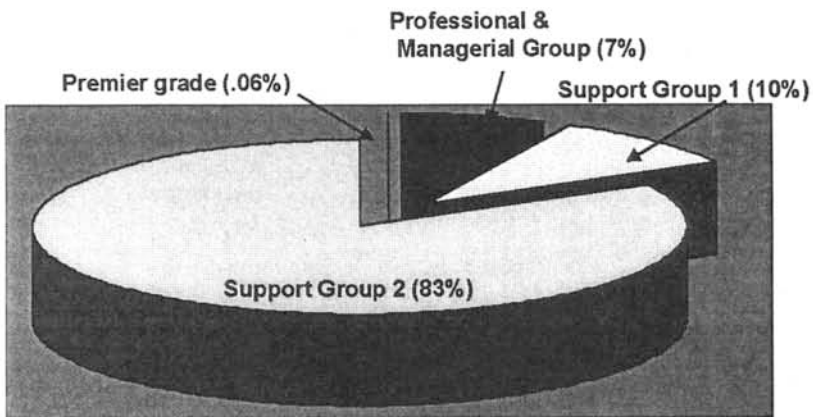
Source: Managing Change in the Malaysian Public Service – Performance Assessment and Human Resource Development Strategies. Paper presented by Dr. Mazlan bin Ahmad at the Presidential Review Commission on Public Service in South Africa: Seminar for Directors General, Pretoria 25–29 November 1996

TRAINING IN THE MALAYSIAN PUBLIC SERVICE

Two eminent scholars, Professor John D. Montgomery from Harvard University and Professor Milton J. Esman from the University of Pittsburgh, were commissioned by the Ford Foundation to conduct a study on the administrative capacity in Malaysia in 1965. They submitted a report for the consideration of the government in 1966.[2] Among the recommendations were the need to improve the government's education and training programmes for all levels of the civil service through the creation of a graduate programme for administrative development at the University of Malaya, the creation of a mid-career professional course, and seminar programmes for higher echelon officers. These were intended to strengthen the professional competence of the Malaysian Civil Service. The Development Administration Unit, established on the recommendation of the Montgomery-Esman Report, in its report on 'Training for Development in West Malaysia' recommended that the Government Staff Training Centre be renamed the National Institute of Development Administration to conduct short courses for

civil servants.[3] The Report also recommended the adoption of top management training programmes to focus on advanced management training for the higher level officers.

SERVICE CIRCULAR 1 OF 1970

The issuance of Service Circular 1/1970 dated January 13, 1970 helped to strengthen further the role of training. According to the circular, it is the government's training policy to provide training that gives equal opportunities and is fair to all civil servants. The circular emphasised the need to create administrators who are efficient, skilled and knowledgeable and who keep abreast of the latest developments in scientific, economic and management techniques, both within and beyond the realm of the civil service.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (INTAN)

The old Government Staff Training Centre was renamed the National Institute of Public Administration (or INTAN) and was officially opened by the then Deputy Prime Minister (the late Tun Haji Abdul Razak) in 1972 with the following objectives:

a.   To improve the administrative system to ensure effective implementation of national policies and programmes.

b.   To enhance the knowledge, skills and understanding of government officers.

c.   To promote a deeper understanding among civil servants of their roles and the implications of government actions on the nation's political and socio-economic system.

d.   To promote progressive approaches and inculcate positive attitudes among civil servants performing leadership roles as primary agents of change in Malaysia's multi-racial society[4].

The role of the government, and hence the training provided to public servants, changed with the socio-economic and political developments of the country.[5] In designing and developing appropriate training courses, INTAN was guided by the strategy of aligning itself to the changing requirements of the government. The model in Figure 2 illustrates how the courses conducted by INTAN were designed to meet the changing requirements of the environment and the customers.

Figure 2:
Aligning Training to the Needs of the Government
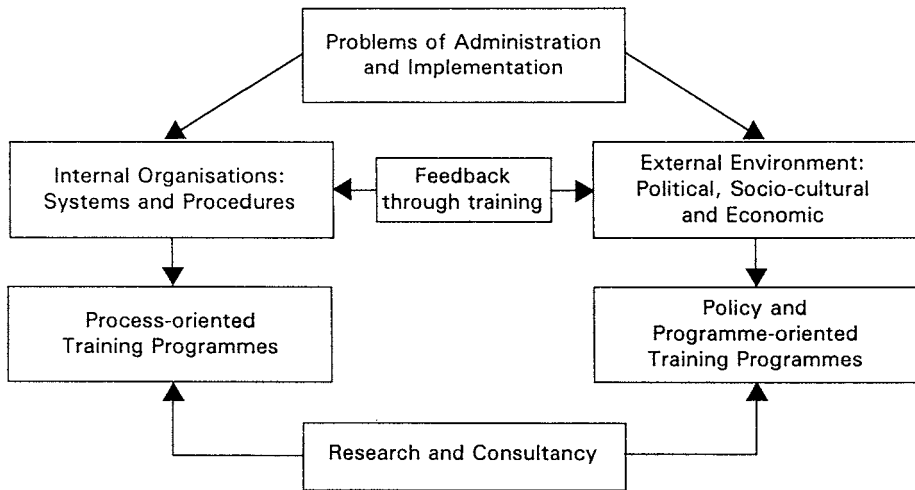
The political, socio-cultural and economic changes in the country constituted the external environment to INTAN and changes in this environment had to be constantly monitored and responded to. In fact, it was explicitly stated in the Third Malaysia Plan (1976–1980) that administrative efficiency would be crucial given the larger size of investment effort, in particular the need to ensure effective implementation of development programmes for the redressal of socio-economic and structural imbalances. This necessitates improvements being made to the administrative machinery requiring higher level of professional capability, human understanding and dedication in the formulation and implementation of programmes and projects.[6] At the same time, the internal efficiency of the organisations will have to be improved as well. Thus, INTAN has policy and programme-oriented training programmes to handle the former and process-oriented training programmes to handle the latter. Feedback, research and consultancy contribute to further improving the quality of the training programmes at INTAN.

INTAN'S BUDGET

As a government training agency, INTAN receives its annual budget allocations from the Treasury. The budget includes allocations for operating as well as development expenditures. For example, for the year 1997, INTAN's allocation for operating budget amounted to RM. 42.4 million while the allocation for development expenditure amounted to RM. 4.1 million. In line with its expanding

roles and functions, the budget allocation for INTAN has increased over the years. The budget allocation for 1994 through to 1997 is as in Appendix 2.

Participants, therefore, attend the courses conducted at INTAN for free. They are only charged a nominal registration fee. For diploma courses, the registration fee is RM50.00 while for other short courses it is RM20.00. Participants can claim this money back from their respective agency. The monies collected in the form of registration fees is deposited into INTAN's Trust Account. Monies from the trust account are used to purchase equipment and other accessories such as computers and LCD projectors for the benefit of the students.

INTAN'S STAFF STRENGTH AND COMPETENCIES

As of September 1998, INTAN has a total of 739 positions at its main campus in Bukit Kiara and its four regional campuses. Of these, 159 positions are in the Managerial and Professional Group; 90 in Support Group 1; and the remainder in Support Group 2. Of the 159 positions, 16 are involved in management and operational functions. INTAN has about 139 officers (from the Managerial and Professional Group and Support Group 1) who are involved in teaching. The remaining employees perform administrative and other supporting functions such as domestic, library, printing and computing services. About 8% of the officers in the Premier Grade and the Managerial and Professional Group hold a PhD while 47% hold a Masters degree, 41% a Bachelors degree and the remaining 4% a Diploma.

Most of the officers serving in INTAN are from the Administrative and Diplomatic Service and from the Information Systems Service, both of which are open services. As such, officers from these services get posted to INTAN for a certain period of time before they are posted elsewhere. To ensure that all new officers joining INTAN have the expertise to teach, each new officer is required to undergo a one-month induction programme after which they serve as an apprentice trainer for about a year. They become experienced trainers over a period of five years during which time they must have done some research and written case studies apart from teaching in their field of expertise. These officers will become master trainers after a period of 10 years, during which time they must have written and presented papers at local and international seminars and conferences. Currently, some of the officers in INTAN are national experts in their own fields. In line with the government's objective of downsizing the public service, INTAN has developed a Strategic Information Technology plan to computerise its operations and is currently engaged in multi-skilling its officers and staff to reduce the need for clerical and support staff.

KINDS OF COURSES CONDUCTED AT INTAN

The kind of training courses delivered at INTAN too evolved over time. While in the 1950s and 1960s, the public service was concerned with revenue collection and the maintenance of law and order, in the 1970s it was concerned with development, particularly rural development. In the 1980s, the government decided that the private sector should be the engine of growth with the public service playing the steering and facilitative role. The focus of the public sector was on improving efficiency and encouraging public-private sector co-operation. To remain relevant, INTAN continuously aligns its focus areas and training programmes with changes in government policies and objectives. Thus, for example, while policy formulation and development administration was one of INTAN's focus areas in the 1970s, improving public sector efficiency through private-public sector co-operation, quality management, inculcation of values and good work ethics and improvements to systems and procedures were the focus areas in the 1980s and 1990s. The number of courses conducted at INTAN and the number of participants attending them has increased over the years and this is shown in Appendix 3.

FOUR CATEGORIES OF TRAINING

INTAN currently conducts training for all levels of staff. The training conducted at INTAN can be classified into four categories. First is generic training where courses are designed to meet the needs of officers and staff across agencies. The second is client-based training where courses are designed to meet the needs of specific agencies or a group of officers. Third is mandatory training which encompasses induction and promotion courses. Induction courses are for new officers who join the public service and it is a requirement that they attend these courses before they can be confirmed in the service. There are three promotion courses namely, from Grade 3 to Grade 2; from Grade 2 to Grade 1; and from Grade 1 to Premier Grade C. The fourth category encompasses international courses and includes courses conducted under the Malaysian Technical Co-operation Programme, the Commonwealth Secretariat, the Japanese International Co-operation Programme and the Colombo Plan.

THE SPECIAL COMMITTEE OF THE CABINET ON SALARIES FOR THE PUBLIC SECTOR

The Report of the Special Committee of the Cabinet on Salaries for the Public Sector (hereafter referred to as the New Remuneration Scheme or NRS) stated that the role of the public sector 'has to be more facilitative, supportive and advisory'.[7] Among others, the Report identified the need to improve public sector management capabilities; introduce elements of flexibility to enable the public service to be more responsive and efficient; simplify service classifications and

reduce hierarchy in the civil service; acquire innovative, talented and creative employees and improve and promote work ethics. The Report also emphasised the need to upgrade the capacity and quality of management leadership to ensure more effective public sector management. Leadership that is dynamic, innovative and creative is necessary to play a strategic role towards improving public sector management capabilities in coping with changes and challenges in the process of national development. Accordingly, it recommended the establishment of premier posts at the highest level of management to focus on organisational management and policy formulation. The creation of premier posts was justified on the following grounds:

a.   to upgrade management capacity and leadership in the administration of the country;

b.   to attract, motivate and retain high quality and dynamic top management personnel; and

c.   to initiate a strategic measure in the long-term effort of inculcating competitive values and culture.

The duties and responsibilities for the premier posts are as follows:

a.   To articulate, formulate and advise on policies within the functional areas relevant to the organisation.

b.   To lead and co-ordinate the tasks of planning, formulating and implementation of programmes.

c.   To co-ordinate, supervise and evaluate the implementation of organisational programmes.

d.   To ensure effective management and utilisation of the organisation's resources with full responsibility and accountability.

With the implementation of the NRS in 1992, the 574 schemes prior to 1992 were reduced to 274 schemes and restructured into 19 service classifications based on similarities of roles and functions.[8] Such reclassification was necessary to ensure more effective organisation and management of tasks, manpower planning and training and to facilitate a neater system of remuneration administration. Public sector organisations were restructured in line with the reduced schemes of service to eliminate duplication of posts and functions. A number of grades were banded to reduce the hierarchy in the public service. For example, the original timescale and senior timescale grades were combined into Grade 3; Superscale G and Superscale F were banded into Grade 2; while Superscale E and Superscale D were banded into Grade 1. Officers in these three grades belong to the Professional and Managerial group. Superscale grades C and above, that is Superscales C, B, A,

Staff III, Staff II and Staff I remained. They were grouped into the Premier Grade Category. These resulted in the delayering of organisations and flatter hierarchies that will necessarily lead to a reduction in red tape and thereby expedite the decision-making process.

MANDATORY TRAINING

To move from one grade to another, that is from Grade 3 to Grade 2, Grade 2 to Grade 1 and from Grade 1 to Premier Grade C, officers are required to attend mandatory training for promotion at each stage.* These mandatory promotional courses are important elements of the educational and executive development process to enhance professionalism among managers at the lower, intermediate and senior levels. These courses are intended to evaluate the suitability of candidates for promotion to the next higher grade. Under the NRS, all new officers and staff are also required to attend mandatory induction courses under their respective service classifications. (Prior to 1992, only new officers joining the Administrative and Diplomatic Service were required to undergo induction training, and officers in the Senior Timescale category were required to attend mandatory training before they were promoted to Superscale G.) The approximate duration of time that officers will remain in each of the categories and the required mandatory courses for officers in the Professional and Managerial Category to move from one grade to another are as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Mandatory Training Under the NRS

	Grade	Est. Duration in each Grade (yrs.)	Mandatory Course Required
	Premier Staff III, II, I		Nil
	Premier B & A		Nil
	Premier C	Above 25	Nil
	Grade 1	20–25	Promotion to Premier Grade C Course
	Grade 2	15–20	Promotion to Grade 1 Course
	Grade 3	10–14	Promotion to Grade 2 Course
	New Recruits*		Induction course (6 weeks)

* Entry qualification is a First (Bachelors) Degree Honours or above.

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* Under the New Remuneration Scheme, the entry point to the Management and Professional Group is Grade 3 after which they progress to promotional grades 2, 1 and the Premier Grades.

THE PREMIER POSTS CATEGORY

The premier posts category is therefore a category of posts above the professional and managerial category. It consists of a hierarchy of posts with premier post C at the lowest level and progressing steadily to premier posts B, A, Staff III, Staff II and Staff I. Officers in the professional and managerial category who have shown excellent performance and have high potential are eligible for consideration for promotion to Premier Grade C. Given the nature of the duties and responsibilities of officers in the premier grades, personnel management for the premier posts requires systematic and effective planning and this includes aspects of selections, emplacement, promotions and performance evaluation. One of the recommendations made in the report was "Candidates who are eligible to be chosen for consideration should comprise personnel who have been identified earlier as having potential and have successfully undergone a compulsory course to be introduced".[9] Thus, beginning in 1992, all officers to be promoted to the premier post C are required to attend the pre-Premier Grade course at INTAN. However, no further mandatory training is required for those in Premier Grade C to be promoted to higher grades thereafter.

COURSES FOR OFFICERS IN THE PREMIER GRADE CATEGORY

Though officers who have attended the pre-Premier Grade course are not required to attend any more mandatory courses for further promotions, INTAN offers several courses and seminars for officers at this senior level. These include INTAN's executive talks, special seminars and briefing sessions. INTAN's executive talks is a series where experts, both local and foreign, are invited to make presentations on topics of current interests. These topics can range from information technology to management, economics and managing the present currency crisis. Some of the speakers at these executive talks and their topics are shown in Appendix 4.

Special seminars, normally half-day or one-day sessions, are held at INTAN to launch and/or familiarise senior officers with the latest reform efforts that are introduced into the public service. For example, recently a one-day seminar was held to familiarise Secretaries General and Heads of Departments of their roles in managing for accountability and integrity. At other times, INTAN is also requested to arrange for briefing sessions where the Hon. Prime Minister, Hon. Deputy Prime Minister and other Ministers including the Chief Secretary to the Government address senior officers in the Premier Grade category.

THE PRE-PREMIER GRADE COURSE

This is a mandatory course for all officers who are to be promoted to the Premier Grade C. The theme of this course is 'Building and Preparing Top Management

Capabilities for the Next Millennium'. To achieve a world-class public service, senior managers must have expertise in the three Cs, namely, 'Concept', 'Competence' and 'Connection'. Accordingly, the course is designed to meet future requirements and it therefore focuses on strategic thinking and visioning. The goal is to have premier grade officers who are 'priority-setters, change-masters and integrators'.[10]

This course is designed to help officers in the premier grade category to perform their duties and responsibilities as outlined in the special report mentioned earlier and therefore has the following objectives:

a. to evaluate the suitability of officers in Grade 1 of the Professional and Managerial category for promotion to Premier Grade C;

b. to provide them with knowledge and skills that will be required of them at the premier post category; and

c. to broaden the thinking of officers to encompass new ideas pertaining to leadership and management and to further enhance their capabilities to lead change and reform efforts at the premier grade level.

The pre-Premier Grade course is also designed to achieve the following learning objectives:

a. to inculcate a proactive attitude towards innovations and improvements;

b. to create high commitment and a desire to enhance and expand one's knowledge;

c. to have an open mind towards the changing environment; and

d. to be able to manage a learning organisation.[11]

The course therefore focuses on developing competencies among the Premier Grade officers in the following seven areas:

i.   internalisation of the vision and mission of the country;

ii.   leadership integrity and internalisation of management values and ethics;

iii. managerial skills such as communication, inter-personal relations and teamwork;

iv.   high performance management;

v.   resource and environmental management;

vi.   management of the public service of the future; and

vii.   management in the era of globalisation.

Among the topics covered are team-building, balanced development, public speaking, creativity, issues of electronic government, rural development, accountability, foreign affairs, performance evaluation, discipline, policies and strategic management, quality, trade and globalisation, ethics and morality, leadership, national security and learning organisation. Appendix 5 lists the topics covered in the last pre-Premier Grade course (7–29 August 1998)

The duration of the course is three weeks. Senior officers and external consultant experts are often called to give inputs. An interesting part of the course is the initial team-building exercise that helps to create a close-knit group among the participants. Since the participants are divided into groups, the team-building exercise is intended to help participants work in teams subsequently to produce several outputs that are expected of them such as the syndicate presentation and the team project paper. Very senior officers in the public service such as the Chief Secretary to the Government of Malaysia (the highest ranking civil servant) and the Director General of the Public Service Department have special dialogue sessions with the participants. It is a forum for the two senior officers to state their expectation of officers moving into the premier grade category and to discuss other current issues facing the public service.

EVALUATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Monitoring and evaluating the performance of the participants during the course is an inherent part of this course. Participants are evaluated based on their presentation and communication skills, their attitude and their ability to articulate their thoughts. Evaluation is done by two groups of people. First is the evaluation by peers. Second is the evaluation by a Panel of four or five senior officers.

Each participant is required to do peer rating at two levels. First, each participant is required to rate his peers on 15 dimensions on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 refers to 'weak' and 5 refers to 'very good'. Among the 15 dimensions are the ratee's conceptual skills, creativity, analytical skills, initiative, drive, confidence, resilience and responsibility. Second, each participant is also required to evaluate himself and all his peers in his group (each group has 7 or 8 members) using the instrument called 'Leadership Practices Inventory'. For self- evaluation, the participants use the 'Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI): Self' instrument. Each participant rates each of his peers in his group using the 'Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI): Other'. Both the instruments contain 30 statements of different behaviours. For example, two of the 30 items for self-evaluation are 'I praise people for a job well done' and 'I create an atmosphere of mutual trust in the projects'. The two same items that appear in the instrument used to evaluate peers

(LPI: Other) are 'He praises people for a job well done' and 'He creates an atmosphere of mutual trust in the projects'.

An evaluation panel, consisting of four or five senior officers appointed by the Director General of the Public Service Department, is established to evaluate each of the participants. Each participant is evaluated as an individual and as a member of the group. This is done as follows:

a.   The Panel rates each individual participant based on his/her written reaction paper, public speaking ability and attitudes displayed during the duration of the course.

The Panel also rates each individual's ability to work as a member of the group. This is done based on:

i.   The discussion and syndicate presentation that each group has to make on a particular topic that is assigned to the group; and

ii.   The project paper that each group has to submit and make a formal presentation on.

The total score computed from all the above evaluations will form the final score for the individual participant. These scores are then sent to the Service Division of the Public Service Department for use as one of the inputs in deciding if a participant is to be promoted or not. The pre-Premier Grade course structure and evaluation is summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Pre Premier Grade Mandatory Course – Course Structure and Evaluation Methods

Skills & Knowledge	Learning Method	Assessment		
		Individual	Group	Peer
▪ Personal Development	▪ Lectures ▪ Individual presentation ▪ Interpersonal interaction	▪ Effective communication		▪ Attitude (LSI) ▪ Effective commun-ication
▪ Team Development Skills	▪ Lecture ▪ Group presentation ▪ Syndicate work ▪ Case studies		▪ Syndicate discussion ▪ Project and paper presentation	
▪ Knowledge and Competencies	▪ Lectures ▪ Individual reading	▪ PC exercise ▪ Reflection paper		

COURSE EVALUATION

As is the case with all courses conducted at INTAN, a post-course evaluation is done after each of the pre Premier Grade course. This course evaluation is done immediately after the course. Participants complete an evaluation form that seeks to establish the extent to which the objectives of the course were achieved, if the knowledge and skills of the participants had increased after the course and also their level of satisfaction with the facilities in INTAN. The last four Pre-Premier Grade courses (3 in 1997 and 1 in 1998) were used to examine the extent to which the course objectives were met. This is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Extent to which the objectives of the pre-premier course were met

No.	Objectives	Average score*
1.	To evaluate the suitability of officers in Grade 1 of the Professional and Managerial category for promotion to premier grade C.	6.18
2.	To provide them with knowledge and skills that will be required of them at the premier post category .	6.24
3.	To broaden the thinking of officers to encompass new ideas pertaining to leadership and management and to further enhance their capabilities to lead change and reform efforts at the premier grade level.	6.45

* On a scale of 1 to 7 where a score of 1-2 refers to 'not achieved', 3-4 refers to 'somewhat achieved', 5-6 refers to 'achieved' and 7 refers to 'fully achieved'. For information, INTAN's quality system under MS ISO 9001 requires a minimum score of 5.0 to meet its quality standards.

PROFILE OF OFFICERS WHO HAD ATTENDED THE PRE-PREMIER GRADE COURSE

Since 1992 and up to 15 July 1998, INTAN has conducted 12 pre-Premier Grade courses. A total of 320 officers have attended these courses. The profile of officers who had attended the last three pre-Premier Grade courses is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Profile of officers attending the last three pre-premier grade courses

Item No.	Characteristics	Min	Max
1.	Age (years)	43	55
2.	Years of experience in the public service	20	35
		Frequency	
3.	Qualifications		
	Diploma and below	7	
		27	
		-	
		44	
		6	
	Bachelors Degree		
	Post-graduate Diploma		
	Masters Degree		
	Ph.D.		
4.	Position in the organisation at the time of attending the course		
	Director General	11	
	Deputy Secretary General	5	
	Deputy Director General	17	
	State Secretary	2	
	Chief Executive Officer of Statutory Body	5	
	Director/Head of Division	32	
	Deputy Director	2	
	Other designations	10	

BENEFITS AND THE IMPACT OF THE PRE-PREMIER GRADE COURSE TO PARTICIPANTS

A post-course survey was undertaken to assess the benefits as well as the impact of the course. During the duration of the three weeks, more than 20 different topics, excluding orienteering and team-building exercises, are discussed. Among the topics were balanced development; electronic government; creativity; current financial crisis; accountability and public sector managers; performance evaluation and discipline; ISO 9000; globalisation; leadership; corruption and its avoidance; ethics and morality; leadership; environment; and managing change in organisations. New topics are added from time to time to reflect the changes in the environment. The currency crisis is one such example.

Are the knowledge and skills acquired during the course beneficial to the participants on their return? The participants were asked to rate the extent to which the materials covered under each of the topics benefited them. Rating was on a

scale of 1 to 7 where 1 refers to 'Good to know/enlightenment'; 4 refers to 'Good potential for usage'; and 7 refers to 'Fully used in current job'.

The pre-Premier Grade course participants were also asked to indicate the extent to which the knowledge and skills that they acquired, as well as the possible change in attitude brought about during the course, helped them to perform better on the job. A total of 18 potential outcomes and three inhibitors to change were identified. Some of the outcomes include cost-reduction; better teamwork; efficient and effective information management; better communication; more effective negotiation; effective presentations; accurate and quick decisions and the ability to resolve problems quickly. Some inhibitors of change were the lack of support from superiors and the lack of support from peers.

The potential outcomes and the inhibitors were expressed as statements. Participants were asked to rate the impact of the course, as defined by the 18 statements, and the inhibitors to change as defined by three statements. They were requested to use a scale of 1 to 7 (where 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Somewhat disagree, 4 = Uncertain, 5 = Somewhat agree, 6= Agree and 7 = Strongly agree).

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The questionnaires were sent to 180 officers in the Premier Grade C category, all of whom had attended the pre-Premier Grade course in INTAN in the 1996–1998 period. Responses are still coming in. The analysis that follows is based on the responses of 50 respondents (28%).

Of the 50 respondents, 5 had attended the course in 1996, 29 in 1997 and 15 in 1998 (one respondent did not respond to this item). The majority of the respondents were males (86%). In terms of qualification, 8 respondents hold a Ph.D., 19 had Masters, 4 had post-graduate diplomas and 17 had basic degrees. On the average, the respondents had served 26.5 years with the government. The minimum and maximum years of service with the government were 22 and 34 years respectively. Of the 50 respondents, 41 or 82% had been in their current position for two years or less.

RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE BENEFITS OF ATTENDING THE PRE PREMIER GRADE COURSE

Some of the topics discussed during the course may be good to know and may provide enlightenment, some others may have good potential for future usage and yet others can be fully used in the current job. Respondents evaluated the relevance of 28 topics that were discussed in one or more of the pre-premier grade course. Table 5 gives the mean scores in descending order for the 28 topics.

The respondents rated seven topics as being rather useful in their current jobs (score of 6.0 and above). These are team-building; leadership; public speaking; accountability; managing change; corruption and its avoidance; and ethics and morality. The choice of these topics is in line with the duties and responsibilities expected of officers in the premier grade category. These include the articulation and formulation of policies; leading and co-ordinating implementation; supervision and evaluation of policies and projects and ensuring effective management as well as responsibility and accountability in the utilisation of resources. Three of the seven topics, namely, accountability, corruption, and ethics and morality, are closely related.

Another 15 topics had a mean score of 5 to 5.9. These include, among others, performance evaluation and discipline; organisational learning; policies and strategic development; ISO 9000; computers; creativity; civil society and the environment. However, current issues such as the financial crisis, the economy, balanced development and electronic government were not seen as being very useful for their current job. The mean scores were in the range of 5.1 to 5.2 only. This is to be expected as many of the respondents may be working in positions where these issues do not involve them directly.

Another seven topics had mean scores of less than five. These topics include national security; the social agenda; foreign affairs; globalisation; rural development and agriculture. Knowledge and skills obtained about these topics during the pre-premier grade course have potential for use in other jobs when these officers get transferred or promoted subsequently. It is probably not surprising that both rural development and agriculture obtained the lowest mean scores of 4.3 and 3.9 respectively since the country has advanced to become an industrial country.

Thus, the participants of the Pre-Premier Grade course found the knowledge and skills acquired from most of the topics covered during course to be useful when undertaking their current jobs. They found issues such as accountability, corruption, ethics and morality, leadership and team-building to be most useful in performing their current jobs. Based on the mean scores, no topics were rated as being good to know or for the purpose of enlightenment. The participants view some even relatively distant topics to have a good potential for subsequent usage.

THE IMPACT OF THE PRE-PREMIER GRADE COURSE

The pre-premier grade course is intended to help premier grade officers perform better on the job. Better performance could be evaluated in terms of effectiveness and efficiency that can be gained through teamwork, communication, negotiations strategic planning, resource utilisation and formulation and implementation of policies. The findings of the study indicate that organisations must have benefited

Table 5: Relevance of the topics discussed in the pre-premier grade course

No.	Topics	Mean	Skills
1.	Team-building	6.4	
2.	Leadership	6.4	
3.	Public speaking	6.3	
4.	Accountability and public sector managers	6.3	
5.	Leading/managing change in organisations	6.3	
6.	Corruption and avoidance	6.1	
7.	Ethics and morality	6.1	
8.	Performance evaluation and discipline	5.9	
9.	Learning organisations	5.9	
10.	Policies and strategic development/management	5.8	
11.	ISO 9000	5.8	
12.	Computers – hands on	5.7	
13.	Creativity – Six thinking hats	5.6	
14.	Personal health	5.6	
15.	Development of the civil society: issues and challenges	5.4	
16.	Caring for the environment	5.4	
17.	The current financial crisis	5.2	
18.	Economy – managing the national economy	5.2	
19.	Balanced development	5.1	
20.	Electronic government	5.1	
21.	Myers Briggs Type Indicator	5.1	
22.	National security	4.9	
23.	Social agenda	4.8	
24.	Malaysian political economy	4.8	
25.	Foreign affairs – Malaysia, the United Nations and the challenges ahead	4.7	
26.	Trade globalisation	4.6	
27.	Rural development	4.3	
28.	Agriculture	3.9	

The Skills column spans the full height with an upward arrow labelled "Fully used" at the top and "Potential for use" at the bottom.

from the pre-premier grade course attended by its officers. The 18 items that were used to assess the outcome of pre-premier grade courses can be categorised into six dimensions, namely, teamwork; communication and presentation; strategic planning, policy formulation and implementation; information management and decision-making; managing for quality, creativity and problem-solving; and budgeting and cost-control. The mean score for each of these dimensions is shown in Table 6. The mean score for each item is presented in Appendix 6.

Table 6: Mean scores by dimensions

No.	Dimensions	Mean*
1.	Teamwork	6.1
2.	Communication and presentation	5.9
3.	Strategic planning, policy formulation and implementation	6.0
4.	Information management and decision-making	5.9
5.	Managing for quality, creativity and problem-solving	5.7
6.	Budgeting and cost-control	5.3

*   On a scale of 1 to 7 where 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 7 means 'strongly agree'

It is difficult to ascertain the exact impact of the pre-premier grade course by itself on the performance of the premier grade officers. Nevertheless, the respondents agree that the course has had a positive impact on their performance. The impact of the course by the six dimensions mentioned above are as follows:

a.   *Teamwork*

    Close to 80% of the respondents agree that the course has further enabled them to work with others as a team. With a mean score of 6.1, the ability to work as a team was seen as the most important impact by the respondents.

b.   *Communication and presentation*

    Another significant impact of the course is in the area of communication and presentation. The mean score for the 5 items under this dimension is 5.9. Most of the respondents agree that the pre premier grade course has enabled them to communicate better with their superiors, peers and subordinates and to make effective presentations.

c.   *Strategic planning, policy formulation and implementation*

    The respondents feel that the course has also contributed to their effective participation in strategic planning sessions and in the effective formulation and implementation of policies. The mean score for the 3 items under this dimension is 6.0. This is to be expected since the course covers a broad range of current issues, some of which are not necessarily in the functional areas of the participants but nevertheless is useful in giving the participants a broader picture. In fact, one respondent confessed that his job does not allow him to keep abreast of developments in fields other than his functional area. He felt that the pre Premier Grade course was really useful as it provides him with some of the recent developments in several other areas that will help him perform better on the job.

d.   *Information management and decision-making*

    The respondents also reported that they are now able to manage information more efficiently and effectively and that they are able to make quick and

accurate decisions. The mean score for this dimension is 5.9. These could be the result of the broader knowledge acquired about information technology and leadership during the course.

e.   *Managing for quality, creativity and problem solving*
Most of the respondents agree that by attending the course they are more able to control the quality of the processes, products and services produced or provided by the agency, further improve their creative skills and resolve problems more easily. The mean score for all three items is 5.7. Probably, a broader understanding of management and how it fits into their functional areas could have helped enhance their performance.

f.   *Budgeting and cost-control*
The respondents only 'somewhat agree' that the course had contributed to reducing wastage, incidents of corruption and overall operating costs of the agency as well as undertaking pre- and post-budget planning effectively. The mean score for this dimension, which covers 4 items, was 5.3.

CONSTRAINTS IN BRINGING ABOUT CHANGES

From a systems perspective, the success of any change effort depends on the support that the change agent gets from his/her superiors, peers and subordinates. Participants who attended the pre-premier grade course will have many ideas to further improve their individual as well as their organisational performance. However, they may face constraints from the existing system in planning and implementing what they had acquired during the course. Most of the respondents felt that they could bring about changes once back in the organisation. Only about 25% of the respondents were not certain if they could bring about changes because of the lack of support from their superiors, peers and subordinates. More than 50% disagreed with the statements that they could not bring about changes because of the lack of support from their superiors, peers and subordinates. These findings seem to indicate that officers at the premier grade level, as leaders in their organisation, are in a better position to introduce changes.

We are not aware of any similar studies done elsewhere to evaluate the benefits and impact of an executive development programme such as the promotional course in the Malaysian Public Service. We are therefore unable to compare the 'performance' of this programme with similar programmes elsewhere. We hope that the findings of this study can be used as the basis for comparison when similar studies are done elsewhere in the Commonwealth countries in the future.

The Hon. Prime Minister, Ministers and Deputy Ministers, Chief Ministers and top government officers have made significant contributions to ensure the success of INTAN as the premier public training institution in the country. From the very beginning, INTAN was aware of the importance of establishing linkages with local and foreign institutions. These linkages are of four types, namely functional linkages, enabling linkages, normative linkages and diffused linkages. Functional linkages refer to relationships with government agencies which define and/or influence the courses and activities to be undertaken by INTAN. These include the Treasury, the Public Service Department, ministries and departments and other client agencies. Their training needs constitutes the source for the design of training programmes at INTAN.

Enabling linkages refer to the relationships with central agencies such as the Treasury, the Public Service Department and the Panel for Administrative Improvement which provide the resources and support for INTAN's activities. It also includes the support that INTAN receives from ministers and top government servants. Since taking office in 1981, the Prime Minister has been instrumental in initiating a number of administrative reforms which include the use of name tags, punch clock, manual of office procedures and desk files, and formulated new policies which include the privatisation policy and the Malaysia Incorporated concept. The recent introduction of MS ISO 9000 into the Malaysian public service is attributed to the wisdom of the Prime Minister. In his keynote address at the official opening of the Commonwealth Association for Public Administration and Management (CAPAM) in Malta in 1996, the Prime Minster said that public sector agencies should adopt the use of ISO 9000 standards to provide quality services to the private sector. The Prime Minister's concern for human resource development is reflected in his statement that, "In our drive to move vigorously ahead nothing is more important than the development of the human resources. ... Without a doubt, in the 1990s and beyond, Malaysia must give the fullest emphasis possible to the development of this ultimate resource."[12]

The Prime Minister himself wears a name tag, and uses the punch clock and the desk file and these have had a strong demonstration effect on others in government and public service. Such display of commitment at the highest level has made it easier for INTAN to conduct training for officers and staff in the planning and implementation of administrative reforms in the public service. Many ministers and deputy ministers accept INTAN's invitation to officiate numerous ceremonies in INTAN and these include the opening and closing of international courses and the launching of new reform efforts. They also participate in forums organised by INTAN. Some ministers and chief ministers (of States in Malaysia) also provide input in courses that are conducted for senior officers. The dialogue sessions that the Chief Secretary to the Government and the Director General of the Public Service Department have with senior officers is yet another reflection of the commitment of these senior officers.

It is not surprising therefore that numerous awards are named after the Prime Minister, the Chief Secretary to the Government and the Director General of the Public Service Department. For example, the top national quality award is named the Prime Minister's Quality Award and is given to one agency each in the public, private and socio-economic sectors for showing excellence in implementing Total Quality Management. The Public Service Quality Awards are for public sector agencies that show excellence in implementing Total Quality Management. There are three categories of awards, namely, the Chief Secretary to the Government Quality Award; the Director General of the Public Service Quality Award; and the Director General of the Malaysian Administrative Modernisation and Management Planning Award.

In INTAN, for each of the three diploma courses conducted at INTAN, namely, the Diploma in Public Management course, the Diploma in Information Management course and the Diploma in Management Science course, the top three or four candidates are selected for the presentation of awards. For example, four awards are given under the Diploma in Public Management course. The Prime Minister's Award goes to the participant who shows excellence in overall performance. The Chief Secretary to the Government Award goes to the participant who displays leadership qualities. The Director General of the Public Service Department Award goes to the participant who excels in academic performance, while the Director of INTAN Award goes to the participant who excels in co-curriculum activities. The Chief Secretary to the Government also gives awards to the top five participants of the pre-premier grade course.

The Panel for Administrative Reforms chaired by the Chief Secretary to the Government with the Malaysian Administrative Modernization and Management Planning Unit (MAMPU) as the Secretariat is another important committee for INTAN. Among the members of this Panel are the Director General of the Public Service Department, the Director General of the Implementation and Co-ordination Unit, the Deputy Secretary General of the Treasury and the Director of INTAN. It is responsible for initiating administrative reforms and monitoring its implementation. As a member of the Panel, INTAN is therefore able to monitor the changing requirements of the public service and align its training programmes accordingly to remain relevant at all times.

Normative linkages refer to relationships with other training institutions and universities and are used to establish norms for training. Currently, the Vice-Chancellors of both the University of Malaya and the Northern University are members of INTAN's Advisory Council. INTAN also runs a Masters programme in co-operation with Putra University and will be running another Masters programme with the Northern University of Malaya in the near future. The Director of INTAN also chairs the National Consultative Committee on Training and Development that deliberates on possible areas of collaboration between public and private sector training institutions. The Committee publishes the

biannual National Training Bulletin and has organised workshops focusing on issues of professionalism in training and ethics of trainers.

Diffused linkages refer to relationships with professional associations both locally and internationally to promote co-operation and collaboration. For example, INTAN has a strong association with the Commonwealth Secretariat; the Japanese International Agency for Co-operation; the British Council; and the ASEAN-EC Management Centre. At the local level, INTAN also participates in the activities of many professional associations among which are the Malaysian National Computer Confederation, the Management Science and Operation Research Society of Malaysia and the Administrative and Diplomatic Service Association. Numerous courses and conferences are organised jointly with these institutions. These four linkages are shown in Appendix 7.

CONCLUSION

Training is seen as a prerequisite to improve employee performance at all levels of the organisation, including those at the senior management level. Recognising this, the NRS in Malaysia has envisaged mandatory training for officers to be promoted from one grade to another. This paper focused on the benefits and impact of the mandatory training for officers in the pre-premier grade category.

A study was done to assess the benefits and impact of the pre-premier grade course. It is clear from the findings that most of the topics covered during the three-week course had benefited the participants. They felt that the course had had some significant impact on their performance. The impact was in the areas of teamwork; communication and presentation; policy formulation; strategic planning and implementation; information management and decision-making; and quality, creativity and problem-solving. The impact seems to be less in the area of budgeting and cost-control. The findings also suggest that officers in the premier category group have the support of superiors, peers and subordinates in bringing about changes in their respective organisations.

Equally important for the success of INTAN and the training of senior officers is the supporting role of political leaders and top government officers and the supporting roles played by other agencies and institutions. They provide the commitment, the direction, the resources, and help to establish the norms in training.

A SAMPLE OF POSTS IN THE PREMIER GRADE CATEGORY

1. The Chief Secretary to the Government of Malaysia
2. Secretaries General of Ministries (Premier Grade B, A, Staff III, II and I)
3. Directors General of departments and statutory bodies at the federal and state levels (Premier Grade C, B, A, Staff III, II and I)
4. State Secretaries (Premier Grade C and B)
5. Deputy Secretaries General of Ministries (Premier Grade C, B and A)
6. Deputy Directors General of some departments and statutory bodies (Premier Grade C)*
7. Directors of some Divisions/Units (Premier Grade C)*

* The Deputy Director Generals of some smaller departments and statutory bodies as well as most divisional and Unit heads are still in Grade 1 of the Managerial and Professional category.

BUDGET ALLOCATION FOR INTAN, 1994 – 1997

Year	Operating Budget	Development Budget	Total Budget
1994	33,752,900	5,665,000	39,417,900
1995	32,535,000	8,393,700	40,928,700
1996	46,800,400	5,390,000	52,190,400
1997	42,379,300	4,102,000	46,481,300

Source: Annual Report, INTAN, 1997

NUMBER OF COURSES CONDUCTED BY INTAN AND THE NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS ATTENDING THEM, 1985–1997
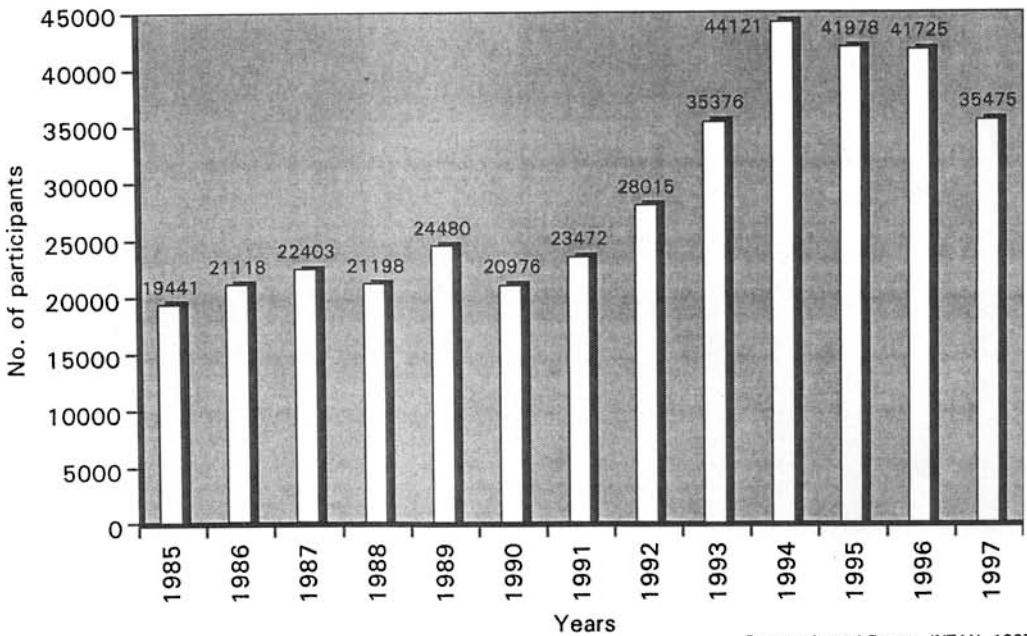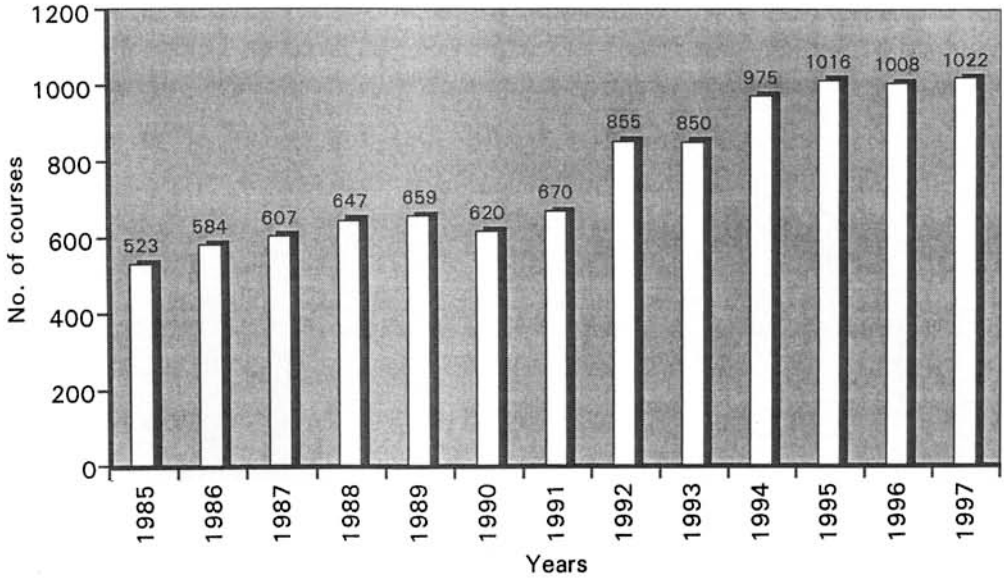
Source: Annual Report, INTAN, 1997.

A SAMPLE OF SPEAKERS AND TOPICS AT
INTAN'S EXECUTIVE TALKS

1.	Dr. Thomas J. Barry (Management Consultant)	'Balance and Harmony for Excellence in Organization'
2.	Dr. Ani Arope (Past CEO, Tenaga Nasional)	'The Entrepreneurial Manager'
3.	Mr. Wali Ghaib Mutazammil (Management Consultant)	'Developing a Global Mindset for the 21st Century'
4.	Prof. Francis Burke (Visiting Fellow)	'Transactions and Transformations: Leaders as Change Agents'
5.	Prof. Edward Conlon (Visiting Fellow)	'Leadership and Managing Autonomous Teams'
6.	Tan Sri Abdul Halim Ali (Chief Secretary to the Government, Malaysia)	'The Malaysian Public Service: Stepping into the next Millennium'
7.	Prof. Dr. Shozo Hibino (Visiting Fellow)	'Breakthrough Thinking'
8.	Mr. Eric Berg (Price Waterhouse)	'Technology Forecast 1997: A Look into the Future'
9.	Mr. Razali Ismail (President, 51st Session, United Nations General Assembly)	'Malaysia and Challenges of the 21st Century'
10.	Prof. Werner Delfman (Visiting Fellow)	'Strategic Networking: Opportunities and Risks of Strategic Partnerships'

11.	Dr. Jamaludin Mohd. Jarjis (Chairman, Public Accounts Committee)	'Accountability in the Public Service'
12.	Mr. Muhammad Ali Hashim (CEO, Johor State Development Corporation)	'Organizational Challenges of 21st Century – The Leadership Dimension'
13.	H. E. Sir Robin Butler (Cabinet Secretary, United Kingdom)	'United Kingdom Civil Service – The Next Step'
14.	Prof. Philippe de Woot (Visiting Fellow)	'The Learning Organization'
15.	Dr. Marian K. Silverman (Visiting Fellow)	'The Healthy Organization: At What Costs?'
16.	Hon. Mustapa Mohamed (Minister of Entrepreneurial Development, Malaysia)	'The Road Ahead for Malaysian Entrepreneurs'

LIST OF TOPICS COVERED UNDER THE LAST
PRE-PREMIER GRADE COURSE (7 – 29 August 1998)

1. Balanced Development: Achievement, Challenges and Responses
2. Managing the Current Financial Crisis: Threat and Opportunities
3. Second Rural Development Transformation: The Way Forward
4. Management of the National Economy: Macro- and Micro-Perspectives
5. Social Agenda
6. Security Situation in Southeast Asia and Implication
7. Leading Change in Organisations
8. Six Thinking Hats
9. Your Heart and You
10. Agriculture: A Matter of Being Creative
11. The Malaysian Political Economy: Looking Ahead
12. The Creation of a Learning Organisation
13. Transformational Leadership
14. Accountability and the Public Sector Managers
15. Issues of Electronic Government
16. Implementation of MS ISO 9000 in the Public Service: Issues and Lessons Learned
17. Ethics and Morality
18. Development of the Civil Society: Issues and Challenges
19. Trade Globalisation: Malaysia's Position
20. Malaysia, United Nations and the Challenges Ahead
21. Caring for the Environment
22. Requisition and Asset Management
23. Public Service in the Next Millennium
24. Managing Crisis in the Public Sector
25. Fighting Corruption: Strengthening the Public Service
26. Managing Performance Evaluation and Discipline
27. Business Policy and Strategic Development
28. Values-Based Leadership: Its Significance to Modern Organisation
29. Rural Re-engineering: A Strategic Plan

Source: Programme Booklet for the Pre-Premier Grade Course Series 13, No. 2/98, 7 – 29 August 1998
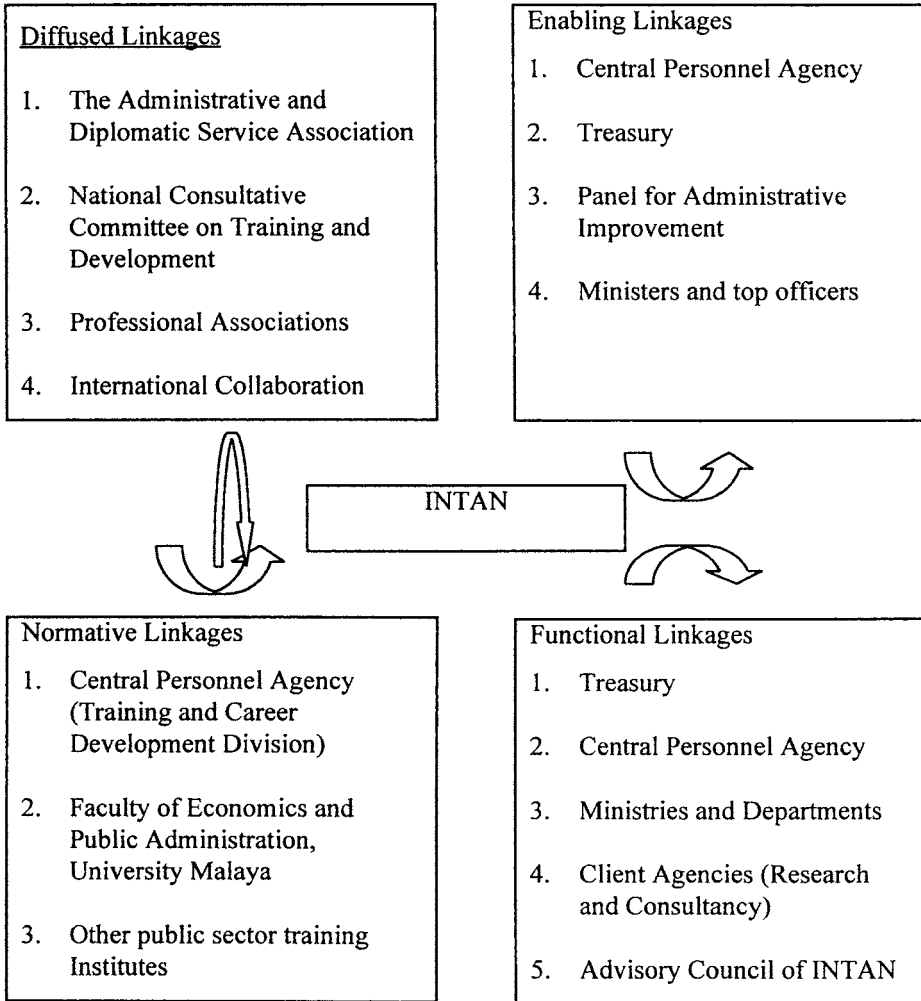
MEAN SCORES BY INDIVIDUAL ITEMS

No.	Impact	Mean*
1.	Able to work with others as a team	6.1
2.	Able to participate effectively in the strategic planning process in my agency	6.0
3.	Able to manage information more efficiently and effectively	6.0
4.	Able to communicate better with superiors	6.0
5.	Able to communicate better with peers	6.0
6.	Able to communicate better with subordinates	6.0
7.	Able to make more effective presentations	6.0
8.	Able to formulate more effective policies	6.0
9.	Able to implement policies more effectively	5.9
10.	Able to make accurate and quick decisions	5.8
11.	Able to enhance my negotiation skills	5.7
12.	Able to control the quality of the processes, products and services produced or provided by my agency	5.7
13.	Able to further improve my creative skills	5.7
14.	Able to resolve problems more easily	5.7
15.	Able to reduce wastage in my agency	5.5
16.	Able to undertake pre- and post-budget planning effectively (i.e. cost control)	5.4
17.	Able to reduce the incidents of corruption in my agency	5.4
18.	Able to reduce overall operating cost of my agency	5.0

*   On a scale of 1 to 7 where 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 7 means 'strongly agree"

INTAN'S KEY LINKAGES

<u>Diffused Linkages</u>

1. The Administrative and Diplomatic Service Association

2. National Consultative Committee on Training and Development

3. Professional Associations

4. International Collaboration

Enabling Linkages

1. Central Personnel Agency

2. Treasury

3. Panel for Administrative Improvement

4. Ministers and top officers

INTAN

Normative Linkages

1. Central Personnel Agency (Training and Career Development Division)

2. Faculty of Economics and Public Administration, University Malaya

3. Other public sector training Institutes

Functional Linkages

1. Treasury

2. Central Personnel Agency

3. Ministries and Departments

4. Client Agencies (Research and Consultancy)

5. Advisory Council of INTAN

Source: Presentation made for the Hon. Prime Minister of Pakistan, 1997

END NOTES

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[9] Ibid, p 69.

[10] National Institute of Public Administration (1998). Prospectus on Mandatory Courses Organised by INTAN (in the final draft stage and in the Malay Language).

[11] National Institute of Public Administration (1998). Course brochure for the 12th Pre-Premier Grade Course, 13 April –14 May 1998.

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SINGAPORE

THE CIVIL SERVICE COLLEGE'S ROLE IN SUPPORT
OF PUBLIC SERVICE REFORMS IN SINGAPORE

Dr. Eric Chong, Management Consultant, Civil Service College, Singapore presented a paper on 'The Civil Service College's Role in Support of Public Sector Reforms in Singapore'. In his presentation, Dr. Chong described the evolution of the College since its establishment in 1971 as a Staff Training Institute under the Ministry of Finance until it attained its present status as a Department of the Public Service Division under the Prime Minister's Office. He encapsulated some of the significant policy directions from the 1960s through to the 1990s with a focus on the strategies envisioned for the 21st century.

Dr. Chong referred to three major government reform initiatives in Singapore:

i. the formation of statutory boards and private companies out of government agencies to enable them to operate in a competitive environment;

ii. the introduction of a zero manpower growth policy by which ministries and departments were forced to increase productivity with the existing manpower; and

iii. the introduction of a Civil Service Computerisation Programme to facilitate the implementation of the new manpower policy.

To meet the emerging challenges of the 1990s, a new initiative called Public Service for the 21st Century, or PS21, was brought forth in 1995 by the permanent secretaries of ministries and the CEOs of statutory boards with four elements, viz. Staff Well-Being; Excellence through Continuous Enterprise and Learning (ExCEL); Organisational Review; and Quality Service. Each of these elements had a high-level committee headed by a permanent secretary to operationalise all the initiatives that came under its purview.

Dr. Chong further elaborated each of the above four elements. He said that 'Staff Well-Being' covered a wide spectrum of activities – from periodic health screening and aerobic classes to offering programmes on healthy lifestyles and stress management, life skills and personal development.

Promotion of Work Improvement Teams (WITs) and the Staff Suggestion Scheme (SSS) is considered an important step in the Excellence through Continuous Enterprise and Learning. Today there are 9000 WITs operating in the public sector with a participation rate of 88 per cent. Similarly, under the Staff Suggestion Scheme as many as 100,000 public officers contributed a total of 500,000 suggestions in 1996–97. Under ExCEL every servant irrespective of his rank and seniority is expected to undergo training for a minimum of 100 hours per year. Every individual,

together with his supervisor, draws up individual Training Road Maps on the basis of his need and in keeping with the Master Training Plan drawn up for the ministry. Training of WITs facilitators, profiling job competencies, establishing core competency in information technology, training in the use of computer software, and conducting modular programmes in Human Resource Management are some of several other steps being taken under ExCEL.

The whole process of identifying, examining, sponsoring and implementing cross-ministry work-flow falls under the sphere of Organisational Review. A number of steps have been taken to facilitate work in many agencies through computerisation such as processing applications for work permits, payment of tax in the Inland Revenue Authority, TradeNet to link all relevant trade authorities electronically, thus saving time, energy and money. Another major outcome of the Organisational Review is the devolution of powers to ministries and departments. The concept for Budgeting for Results (BFR), introduced in 1994, brought about drastic changes in the management of ministries. Under the BFR framework, ministries will be managed as Autonomous Agencies enjoying greater flexibility in financial and personnel matters.

The fourth element, 'Quality Service', emphasises an attitude of service excellence with courtesy, accessibility, responsiveness and effectiveness in dealing with the public. Training in customer service, converting knowledge and skills into desired behaviour, establishing a feedback system, and provision of reward and recognition are some of the steps being taken to promote excellence in the quality of service.

Concluding his presentation, Dr. Chong said that to ensure the implementation of the various reform initiatives, a formal structure would be put in place with a Central Steering Committee chaired by the Head of the Civil Service with all permanent secretaries as members. The Committee meets once a month to exchange ideas and review progress. A PS21 Office located within the Public Service Division of the Prime Minister's Office co-ordinates the new initiatives and monitors the progress. The Civil Service College works closely with the PS21 Office to provide necessary training support.