TRAINING EVALUATION FOR OMANI CIVIL SERVANTS:
AN ASSESSMENT OF PRESENT PRACTICES

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DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in this study has
been submitted in support of an application for
another degree or qualification to this or any other
university or institution of learning.

DEDICATION

TO THE LASTING AND AFFECTIONATE MEMORY OF MY FATHER,

AHMED, WHOSE LIVING MEMORY WAS A CONTINUOUS SOURCE OF

GUIDANCE AND INSPIRATION.

TO MY MOTHER RAFAT FOR ALL THE SACRIFICES SHE MADE.

TO MY YOUNGER BROTHER, MOHAMMAD, WHOSE ILL-FORTUNES HAS

DEPRIVED HIM FROM SCHOOL.

FOR THEY ALL TAUGHT ME MUCH MORE THAN WHAT ONE COULD

LEARN FROM BOOKS ALONE.

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However, the author alone remains the sole responsible individual for any defects, imperfections and frailties.

ABSTRACT

An assessment into administrative and other forms of supervisory training evaluation in the Omani Civil Service was the direct object of this thesis. As it were, and in less developing countries characterised with acute, even chronic shortage of qualified indigenous labour force as well as other general forms of deformities in the national labour market, the public sector is seen more and more whether properly prepared or otherwise, to be spearheading and undertaking as well as supervising the massive developmental efforts amidst an overall state of resource limitations. Particularly, managerial and supervisory skills.

Management and other forms of supervisory training were regarded more often than not as one way out so as to bridge the existing gap in managerial capabilities and to enable the government employees to upgrade their performance and sharpen their skills so as to dwell upon the very challenges posed by massive developmental efforts with the efficiency and effectiveness expected by the public at large as well as by policy makers .

The research hence, sought to unveil government administrative and managerial training policies and practices at large so as to capture the full weight and scale of the problem as well as the boundaries of the area of expedition and investigation. Once the policy issues and practices were fully highlighted, a quota sample of government sponsored supervisory and management training in almost every civilian function in the executive branch of the government were evaluated.

Training evaluation was duly conducted into some twenty, off-the job,

government sponsored, supervisory courses implemented along an entire calendar year. Those twenty courses were divided into eight programme groups who represented the following: Personnel, Local Government, Finance, Organisation and Methods, Clerical, Hospital Administration, Auditing and finally Social workers.

The course the evaluation process has taken was wide and extensive. Three groups of audiences were identified as major sources of evaluatory information. These three grouped were, the trainees, the trainers and/or training organisors and finally the trainees immediate supervisors. First hand primary data was sought via questionnaires, personal extensive, semi-structured interviews as well as participant observation. The major thrust of the thesis at this point was to establish whether or not management and supervisory training in the public sector have reached the stage of fruition;i.e. realised their objectives. Objectives achievement, however, was considered little more complexed, multi-faceted, as well as multi-phased.

It was concluded, that the training programmes assessed for the purpose have in effect realised their respective stated objectives insofar as the immediate reaction as well as the intermediate levels of assessment back in job setting. At the organisational level, training related gains in the areas of knowledge and information, the acquisition of skills and attitudinal as well as behavioural gains were manifestly evident demonstrated via a pre-training post-training self rated questionnaire conducted upon the conclusion of training and in job setting.

To further consolidate findings and to counter validate trainees perception of the ensuing gains, similar pre-training, post-training design was employed only this time addressed to the trainees immediate supervisors.

In conclusion, and upon comparing and contrasting the results, the general outcome was seen to be very impressive indeed. Encouraging progress associated with training was demonstrated by the results and the resultant t-values.

However, knowledge gains, and skill acquisition as well as positive behavioural changes, demonstrated by the results and across the eight programme groups although were substantial but varied in magnitude as denoted by the t- values. Some groups have made more progress than others. Others have maintained their status quo on the few of the dimensions assessed.

None-the-less, and in conclusion, the results cannot be ultimately conclusive. There still remains some grey areas where further research is strongly warranted if more rigorous evidence is sought particularly in the quest of full meaningful evaluation of management training in the public sector. The costing factor for example is an important one indeed. Another area viable for more scrutiny is the impact such training could have in furthering the achievement of organisational goals and objectives.

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale

Oman emerged from a deep lull since as recent as mid 1970, precisely when the present ruler H.M. Sultan Qaboos bin Said ascended to power with a personal pledge to establish a modern state and to make up for the deprivations of the past. What has happened ever since is immense and breathtaking indeed. Now, by the end of 1989, Oman has concluded its second Five Year Development Plan and more than halfway through its third plan with record success. Deadlines were met, obligations fulfilled, pledges realised and social educational and perceived economic goals and objectives accomplished.

Amidst times of global economic uncertainties, demonstrated by the dramatic decline in oil revenues, instability and unforeseen fluctuations in oil markets, the country seemed to have managed its capital resources in a manner that crises and pressures of such nature would not hamper, interrupt or indeed impede its development commitments and thus maintain growth in a not-so-rapid yet reasonably systematic fashion.

There were indeed signs of economic hardships inflicted by the sudden decline of oil revenues, none-the-less, priorities remained unchanged. Areas of human resources development continued to be of growing importance. The education system which was extremely preliminary prior to 1970 has now developed and was further consolidated and augmented by the establishment of the country's first university, ever. Emphasis on human resources development theme was further cemented by focussing on vocational education and training to help meet market demands for properly

trained indigenous manpower. Regionalisation policies and regulations were enforced though were generally based on priorities.

Nevertheless, the change triggered by massive economic as well as political changes have caught the nation (policymakers as well as people at large) unprepared. Hence, the shift was never smooth and had its teething problems. Such problems were further accentuated by the fact that public employment was regarded as a right (Niblock 1980)

The unprecedented pace of growth in the government bureaucracy and the abrupt multiplicity of its complexed sophistication hence the immediate demand for qualification and skill soon helped shape the magnitude of the problem, let alone the heavy drain employment policies have had on the already meagre national workforce. Allied to that, the fact that recruitment regulations required, by and large, no form of competition and likewise, promotion and organisational upward mobility. Earlier on, employment policies have effectively put little emphasis on qualifications particularly scholastic. The situation was further aggravated by immense flexibilities in Civil Service regulations. Therefore deformities and performance ailments so widely pronounced currently can well be interpreted by the symptoms of the early starts and the subsequent relatively slow pattern of reforms so earnestly necessitated to make up for past erroneous policies. There were times when the public office was sought for ease, comfort social prestige as well as at times a vehicle to promote personal interest.

Given the scale of present economic hardships, this is no longer the case now. Employment policies are subjected to tighter scrutinies. Productivity improvements are now being urged, encouraged and expected to form the criteria to determine who remains in the public office. The

dramatic reliance on none-national expertise which seemed to be hither to an affordable luxury can no longer continue, hence such policies are massively revised and contractual non-indigenous recruits are eventually substituted by their indigenous counterparts even though they may be no immediate match. The consequences of such a move is far too obvious. On the other hand, those who were initially recruited on no other merits but citizenship find it more difficult to continue once efficiency, quality of performance, productivity levels and other effectiveness criteria are properly employed.

There is a growing consensus among policymakers and politicians alike of the crucial importance of the efficiency of Government machinery as a vehicle to implement, supervise and follow-up development. Given its present state and shape, government bureaucracy is widely seen to be incapacitated to meet the challenges and demands put forth by policymakers and brought forth by developmental challenges, (AL Tawil, 1985). On the other hand, the absence of skillful and qualified middle level manpower is being widely pronounced to have handicapped the proper development of an adequate and effecient civil service, (Al Essa 1981:90).

Henceforth, performances appraisal is further scrutinised to prove more instrumental so as to ensure efficiency. Both management and organisation development are now emphatically pronounced, advocated and hence supported. Training policies and training centres are initiated and viewed more and more as vehicles to introduce and activate change in the nation's surge for improved performance.

To help offset deformities and ailments in the public administrative machinery, legislations were introduced as one way of launching reforms.

Two Civil Service laws were issued in less than a decade while the third is being contemplated`to help curb the most problematic areas and to bring the government machinery under tighter control. Training as pronounced in both laws was seen as a must and an occupational necessity.

No opportunity was spared to instrumentally utilise training so as to bridge the gap and help upgrade performance standards. Efforts were massive to help train, orient and assist civil servants to professionalise.

In the areas of management and administrative training, policymakers responded to the urgency of the matter by constant administrative development processes, first sought outside the country, and when proved prohibitive and impractical accelerated to establish its own national training centre hence the establishment of the local Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in early 1978.

More than ten years have passed since the establishment of the local (IPA), the figures of government employees reported to have attended management and supervisory training courses are far too impressive. Year in year out, IPA prospectus heralds a massive training endeavour. Yet there still appears to exist a great deal of scepticism and likewise lack of consensus with regard to the real value and worthiness of those training efforts. Whether or not such training serves the ultimate purpose of job related performance improvements are yet to be established. Objective realisation need to be examined far beyond the programmes stated goals.

1.2 The Importance of training evaluation

Trainers, hitherto, seem to have shied away from conducting or endorsing any meaningful result oriented evaluation. Much of training evaluation has been based more or less on trainers 'faith' and 'feel' for the degree of success insofar as objective realisation was concerned (Hayes & Williams 1971). Trainers appear not to have been specifically concerned with the immediacy as well as urgency of generating evaluative data as a first priority. Such tendency can only be understood in the light of many pressurising factors, amongst them is the pressure to get some type of training programme organised and functioning. Allied to this is the fact that evaluation of training particularly in supervisory and managerial skills in the public sector is too complex an area where evidence of job related improvements is lacking and considered far more elusive that demands skills and resources not readily available for trainers as well as recipient organisations. In the development context, Brown (1989) looks into the performance of bureaucracies in third world countries and stresses the point that, 'Attempts to improve public sector managerial performance in the third world need to give as much attention to operational issues as to conventional targets'.

Howell (1978) reported by Brown (1989) acknowledges a wider consensus that public resources are being mismanaged hence an effective improvement in public management is in fact a requisite of viable sustained development.

The general perception about the nature of problems in relation to development in developing countries is that of poor management.(Drucker,1969) Hyden (1983: XIII) postulates that the 'incapacitation of the institution of national development...and the need

for drastic changes in the present structure of development' a point strongly supported in the Oman's context recently by Abdul Khaliq (1989) who stresses similar premise in his evaluatory study of the Omani management development devices and organs.

Reilly (1987) refers to the little progress made in public personnel performance despite a dramatic increase in management training in the past two decades in many developing countries. It is also claimed that management competence may have actually deteriorated despite the general observed increase in training activities. Reilly goes even further by claiming an intertwined conspiracy among the elite that helps promote and thus maintain the status quoh. On the other hand, in the majority of training endeavours in developing countries, there is little empirical evidence for training actual job related impacts. Particularly so in the context of management and supervisory training (Yagi 1987). Let alone the fact that management training evaluation literature even in the western context is reported to be scanty, insufficient and far too little to substantiate wider applications and generalisations (Hoyle 1984; Caiden 1968; Meigniez et al. 1963). Research, therefore in this area is strongly warranted and can not only help to contribute to fili in the existing gap in the evaluation literature both in the developing countries context as well as worldwide, on the other hand it also sheds light on core issues at the national level pertaining to training policies and the evaluation of formal government sponsored off the job management and supervisory training.

Hence evaluation of civil service management and supervisory training in Oman is the major burden of this thesis in order to determine empirically whether or not such training interventions have in effect

reached the stage of fruition.

To serve this end, the investigation strategy as extensive as it may seem was primarily twofold. At the macro level, the query sought to develop an insight as well as an understanding into departmental current practices and policy patterns in relation to administrative training. First hand data was sought by personal semi structured interviews in order to explore how government units perceived and embarked upon their training endeavours. Once a thorough policy pattern was properly expedited, an extensive evaluation research was conducted at the micro level. For the purpose a quota sample of government sponsored management and supervisory training intervention was evaluated to determine whether or not objectives were realised. The evaluation strategy was meant to generate as much data as possible that is amenable for subsequent analysis.

1.3 The format of the Thesis

Therefore, the final layout of the thesis was meant to respond as well as address itself to both areas of breadth and depth of the issues pertaining to evaluation of training in the Oman's Civil Service particularly in the context of supervisory and management training.

In order to appropriately set the stage, a more general country background was seen imminent so as to properly locate the training scene against its historical perspective. Hence chapter two has endeavoured to highlight few of the factors that could unfold the country's main features. Amongst the features introduced were the economic, educational and manpower situations. The most prominent features were pronounced. The chapter concludes with the present emergence of government administrative machinery, its growth stages, the legal, structural as well as manpower

composition of the apparatus were adequately expedited.

The expedition made possible by bringing forth the nature of government bureaucracy has logically led into a proper focus at the training scene in the public sector. Investigations into training practice, was the object of chapter three. Training government policies at the central level were analytically described. The central organ for administrative training was sufficiently investigated so as to relate the most pressing issues in relation to training to the subsequent discussion.

Once the background was appropriately portrayed, Chapter four has focussed on a general, yet massive sweep of the literature addressing training. Definitional issues were explored so were the issues distinctively brought forth centering around management and supervisory training. Special focus reflected by the literature into civil service and public training in less developed countries was also explored.

Training is not an end by itself. Therefore, training evaluation was seen as the only way to tell whether investments were worthwhile. Evaluation literature was seen rather meagre particularly for management and supervisory forms of training. Therefore the object of chapter five was to investigate evaluation, its basic philosophies, its objectives and at times conflicting paradigms. The aim is to further bring out into the open the basic issues revolving around the evaluation and evaluatory practices.

Methodological considerations were discussed briefly in chapter six. The process of strategy formulations was introduced, the choice of research design and data collection techniques that was meant to serve the empirical phase of the thesis were considered.

Chapter seven projected the countenance of the sample population and the different audiences approached in the context of establishing the evaluation strategy. The basic features of the sample characteristics were surfaced as briefly as possible. The training programmes selected for evaluation were also briefly introduced. An expedition of the personal features of sample members is well suited to serve the subsequent evaluation process. No sooner the general features were properly addressed, an expedition into government departmental practices with regard to training was sought in chapter eight. The purpose is to link up actual practices at the micro level in parent organisation, so as to properly relate the issues by the evaluation variables addressed later.

Chapter nine has focussed on course evaluation given the trainees perspective. The purpose is to pinpoint the many interrelated factors that determine the course of events in the evaluation process. A broad almost all encompassing lengthy approach was pursued to establish the respondents' perception and their immediate reaction to course proceedings.

Once trainees' viewpoint was adequately assessed, trainers and/or training organisor's perception was sought in chapter ten. Looking at the effectiveness of training through trainer's dimensions was meant to compliment findings as well as assess the latters' reaction to the many issues raised by training including the institutional as well as logistical constraints.

Having had the immediate reaction evaluated upon course completion, expedition into the impact training has had on its recipient was ascertained in job setting in parent organisations. To assess training

related changes chapters eleven and twelve were designated to discern the intensity of those changes by seeking respondents assessment of their perceived changes in the areas of attitude formation, skill acquisition as well as knowledge gains on before and after level, (chapter eleven) and then to validate those responses against that of their immediate supervisors (chapter twelve) to establish areas of comparability.

Finally the summary of the research and conclusions as well as few of the possible implications were introduced in the final chapter with the aim to briefly highlight the major issues discussed and to distil the core findings.

CHAPTER TWO

COUNTRY BACKGROUND

2.1. Introduction

Little is known of Oman. This chapter is designated to introduce, in brief descriptive fashion - with the risk of oversimplification - the many demographic, historic facets, as well as the government apparatus formation, growth and development. The justification is extremely valid, if the later discussion is to be placed in proper perspective.

The chapter begins by briefly describing the country's basic demographic features; rather explicitly the population controversial debate, leading into the country's economic status through projecting the massive shift triggered by the oil boom era since the 1970s with its ultimate unprecedented repercussions at all levels.

Considerable details were introduced in relation to the country's government apparatus, history, genesis, and other general development trends. Familiarity with the state's administrative machinery is a requisite if training in the public sector is to be properly based. Development in the government size was traced since before 1970 onward till now with the basic characteristics of the Civil Service laws being indicative of each stage's general features. The general features of education and training in the state was touched upon at the end so as to exhibit areas of emphasis given by planners in relation to human resources development issues.

2.2 Oman: A Brief History

Geography shapes history; so we are told; therefore a brief description of the country may prove relevant as a prelude to a wider background of the issues later discussed. In historical records, Oman is reported most probably to be the land of Majan, as indicated in the Sumerian records with which cities like Ur of the Chaldes established commercial links in the third millenium B.C. (Phillips, 1967: 1). Roman geographers do mention the city of Omana.

'Oman' or 'Uman' as a name is probably originated from 'amana' or 'the abode' or 'the land' (Landen,1967:29 ;Phillips,1967:1). Nur el Deen al Salmi, the Omani historian quoted Ibin Khaldoun the prominent Moslem sociologist indicating that the name was one of the legendary Oman bin Qahtan being the first Arab settler from the Qahtani stock of the Azd tribes migrating after the devastating flood that demolished the Ma'rib dam in Yemen at the other corner of the Arabian Peninsula. It was also reported that Oman was the name of one of the valleys in the country. Several other names were also given to the country in different stages of history.

2.2.a. Location

The country stretches on the eastern southern toe of the Arabian Peninsula, and enjoys more than one fourth of the entire Peninsula's 4000 miles of coastlines. With more than 1600 km of coastline spreading on the Gulf basin from the north, the Gulf of Oman, in the middle, and the Indian Ocean (Arab Sea) in the south. The sea, hence, was the major consonant shaping the nations destiny. (Pridham, 1987) Flanked by the United Arab Emirates to the north and west; Saudi Arabia to the west and by People's Democratic Republic of Yemen in the south west. The country also controls the Straits of Hurmuz where 80 per cent of the

present industrial world's oil supplies passes through this strategic and hazardous waterway.

With an area nearly the size of Britain of 300,000 sq. km, the country is the second largest, in size, in the Peninsula with the exception of Saudi Arabia; it is for example, three times larger than U.A.E. and 13 times larger than Kuwait and 20 times bigger than Bahrain or Qatar.

2.2.b.Geography

Very much like an island the country is surrounded by seas from two sides; stretching to the west and north is the 'Rubi-el-Khali' i.e. the desert of the 'Empty Quarter' which further isolated the country with yet another natural barrier. Therefore the country was, moreorless, isolated in the past in the remote corner of the Peninsula and basically outside 'the major currents of Arab history' (Phillips, 1967). Oman may very well be divided into three distinct geographical areas, with mountains stretching for the length of 18,000 sq. miles, the densely populated coastal valleys, 3,600 sq. miles, and the 'wadis'(i.e.valley plains) and desert areas forming the overwhelming area of 98,400 sq. miles.

2.2.c.Climate

Climate is as diversified as the country's terrain. In the coastal plain in the northern parts it is extrmely hot and humid in summer; temparature varies between 30 degrees to 49 degrees. In the interior region, except for the higher areas it is hot and dry whereas for the mountainous terrain it is mild and temporate in summer.

In Dhofar in the southern region, the weather is tropical, with the monsoon drizzle pouring for the period from June until the end of September. Natrionwide, the rainfall is basically low and very irregular and at times scarce except for the southern region.

2.2.d.The People

The people of Oman come mainly but not solely from two main tribal clusters, the Qahtan who migrated from South Arabia and the Nizar who came from North. Oman was one of the first countries to be converted to Islam. Prophet Mohammed (PBUH) said, "May Allah bestow benevolence on the people of Oman: they believed in Me without having seen Me".

The Omanis then played an important role in the early days of Islam in the and later in the Gulf basin as far as Iraq to the north and in the Indian subcontinent, and in north and East Africa and subsequently managed to estbalish their own system of government, the'Imamate', which was the form of government in the early days of Islam in the turn of the eighth century, when the Ibadhi doctrine embraced by the majority denied that the right of succession was hereditary neither in family nor in class or tribe.The first Imam who was the political religious leader under the Sharia (Quranic Law) was elected in 751 with the collapse of the Omayyad dynasty in 750.

The system of the Imamate as a unique independent entity survived and sustained off and on through different phases of history; since then and until as late as the early fifties of this century when there was a spectacular coexistence (Modus Vivendi) between the Imamate's form of government operant in the interior region of Oman, and the Sultanate system based on political grounds with varied degrees of complexities and imposed harmony on account of power balance. Sultan

Said bin Taimur resolved the matter with forceful persuasion, and asserted his dominance and overall control as the Imamate system stepped aside and eventually withered away. Ahmed bin Said, the founder of Al Busaid Dynasty was elected the nations Imam in 1749; it is hence one of the oldest existing dynasties in the Middle East.

2.3 Population

The country's population figure has long been a controversial issue. As yet no official figure is released. Figures widely quoted hitherto by international agencies vary significantly. The government endorces the figure of 1,500,000 for 'planning purposes'. At the turn of the century Lorimar predicted half a million; the same figure was referred to by the late Sultan in the early 60s whereas the present Sultan Qaboos quoted the figure of 750,000.

The first economic survey after the accession of Sultan Qabous held in 1971 made an estimate figure of 450,000 while the World Bank team submitted a compromise figure of 600,000 in 1972 which is widely referred to in non-governmental documents published by international agencies. However, if the 600,000 population figure so widely referred to is to be quoted and with the average growth rate revolving around 3 per cent, figures would fall within the vicinity of 920,000 in 1981.

The difficulties raised by population differentials are immediately apparent for planners and policy makers alike when several irreconcilable figures need to be quoted and addressed almost simultaneously upon embarking on any form of systematic economic planning. However, the figure of half a million reported in the earlier half of the 20th century was conceived to be plausible given the high infant mortality rate which was equivalent to the overall birth rate,

that was in the region of 50 to 60 per thousand on annual basis which resulted in the procrastination of the average growth rates (Ayyana 1983). Allied to that, heavy outmigration being a constant factor in Omani history since as early as 680s. Outmigration and other pull and push factors accelerated and/or slowed down determined by political climate and/or economic constraints whichever took precedence in the given time.

The migration to Zanzibar and the east African Coast which was later to be ruled by the Omanis until 1870 and by decendents from the same dynasty until 1964 was singularly the most important massive migration the Omanis have been through. Since the 1964 coup in Zanzibar, there has been a massive exodus back to the country following the aftermath of the coup. Until today, albeit in extremely smaller figures, there are still Omani decendents on the Ugandan side of Lake Victoria, Rawanda, Zaier and Tanzania. Migration to the Gulf region including Saudi Arabia was mainly as a result of the economic and living hardships at home crowned by political climate on the one hand, and work and employment opportunities made available by the newly oil rich Gulf states on the other.

In 1970 the whole political and economical spectrum has changed and Omani subjects in their self chosen exciles began back migration in their thousands in the light of the massive changes in the course of events taking place in the country once the new ruler Sultan Qaboos bin Said took charge. Such confusion adds a new dimension to the dilemma facing planners.

On the other hand in the area of manpower planning, the projections

made pertaining to the population would prove equally confusing. The
world bank report using the 760,000 population figure would conclude
that 160,000 Omani nationals are employed within the country with a
further 20,000 nationals working outside the country. If an alternate
1.5 million figure is to be incorporated of which 1.3 are nationals,
the total workforce would be that of 319,000. (World Bank, 1981)

Signifying concerns over the need of a solid and accurate data base
for national economic planning, a national cross ministerial conference
was held to address the burning issues pertianing to the optimum
utilisation and development of national manpower. The conference which
took two years of tedious systematic labour by experts from all walks
of human resources development agencies, co-sponsored by the Ministry
of Education and Youth Affairs and the Ministry of Labour and Social
Affairs has concluded, among other things, the pressing need to base
human resources development needs and demands against a solid,
comprehensive data base, hence the necessity to conduct a comprehensive
population census conducive to better valid assessment of human
resources and manpower supply and demands as basic requisites for
proper planning.

Therefore, and as emphasised earlier, manpower estimates,
projections and analysis against demands necessitated by economic
growth would ultimately have to vary substantially following the
population figure used as a data base. As a matter of course, such
differentials can be very misleading if they are to be interpreted
within context. Misinterpretations would change the order of priorities
and thus cast doubt and hamper plans and hence failure to get to the
prescribed objectives.

2.4. Economy

Development prior to the year 1971 was extremely minimal. There has

been an overwhelming shortage of basic needs. The late Sultan Said bin

Taimur upon the commercial production of oil in 1967 analysed his

country's financial situation since the days of his grandfather Sultan

Faisal bin Turki (1914-1920) and summed up the state of the affairs

inherited then as that of bankrumptcy, with 'no budget, no planning and

no organisation' (Townsend,1978). In a heavily debted country, modern

methods were introduced to maintain sound financial practices and

priority was given to reducing the country's debts. Financial advisors

succeeeded each other in order to improve the country's financial

standing.

The nations' budget in 1931 mounted to some £50,000, and when Sultan

Said bin Taimur took over the reins of power upon his father's

abdication in February 11th, 1932, the treasury was empty. Sultan

Said's remarkable achievement was to improve the financial standing,

liquidate debts, remove the deficit and even the building of a national

reserve fund to meet emergencies. With the defence consuming nearly 50

per cent of the budget Sultan Said bin Taimur maintained personal

control over the country's spending and explained that 'We were anxious

to introduce various urgently needed reforms for the welfare of the

country, but found that there was not enough leeway either in the

budget or in the reserves to support any sort of planning, for we did

not want to overburden the Sultanate's finances and weigh her down with

new debts, after having paid off all the old ones." (Townsend, p. 195)

Undoubtedly then, 1970 can stand as a watershed in the history of

modern development in Oman. Extensive development was made possible by means of oil revenues commercially produced since 1965. The country's First Five-year Development Plan (FFYDP) was the first policy statement strategy for the nation that underwent ages of deprivation. Planners stressed diversification of economy as an ultimate strategic national option leading to economic self reliance.

The Second Five Year Development Plan (SFYDP) issued in 1980, followed up the theme of diversifying the economic base through further substantial increase in investments for the income yielding sectors and considered expanding infrastructure and public services.

2.4.a. Oil and Economy

Oil in Oman is undisputedly considered the vehicle of development without which there could have been no such massive change. The country's oil-based economy grew rapidly to an extremely impressive rate of 13.8 per cent in 1985, the conclusive year of the Second Five Year Development Plan (SFYDP) despite a sharp slide of oil prices due to anarchy and overloaded international oil market.

The gross domestic product (GDP) for 1985 was reported to reach a record figure of R.O. 3,464.4 million as opposed to R.O. 2063.5 millions in 1980 with an annual growth rate of 10.9 per cent. The second five year development plan achieved a growth rate of 11.1 per cent (provisional in GDP current prices, only 2 per cent short of the stated target. Oil naturally stood as the major contributor at R.O. 1.609.3 million providing the bulk of the country's export earnings and the national revenues.

The growth rate in the oil sector in 1985 stood at 14.2 per cent as

opposed to only 4.1 per cent in the year 1984 thus increasing the country's market share value to a peak figure of R.O. 1.597 up by R.O. 196 million over 1984. The heavy intensive investment in oil exploration paid dividends and helped make up for the sharp decrease of oil value by increasing the total production to 181.8 million/barrel a year in 1985 compared to 103.7 million/barrel 1980 thus maintaining an average annual increase of 11.9 per cent.

The Sultanates recoverable reserves stood at 4.01 billion/b at the end of 1985 versus only 2.5 billion/b in early 1981 thus the figure of 500,000 barrel/day was made possible still 28 million barrels annually less than the discovered quantity, another significant development in the surge for a diversified economy in the big rise of natural gas production from a figure of 93 million/cubic feet in 1980 to 142 million cubic feet in 1985.

The continuous growth in non-oil exports over the years has been a national drive so as to revive once historical entropot significance of the nation before the steam power newly introduced in seafaring and commercial shipping plunged the country into the unknown. In 1985 the non-oil exports generated some 33 per cent increase from R.O. 17.2 million to 22.9 million.(One Omani Rial= £1.7) However, the re-export industry which kept accelerating during the first five year development plan to a figure of R.O. 109.4 million in 1984 dropped to R.O. 97 million in 1985 due to economic realities that dominated the entire Gulf and indeed worldwide stage at the time.

Now that major infrastructure projects are concluded the main feature of the TFYDP (1986-1990) would naturally be a gradual shift of

government expenditure in the pursuit of income earning projects and better utilisation of non-oil resources.

In general, the TFYDP reflects the air of economic crisis due to the dwindling oil revenues hence displays additional conservatism in financial policies. Maximum ceiling on net borrowings to ensure that proper means and procedures are taken to tackle the impact of oil crises.

2.5 The Machinery of Government in Oman

This section is intended to furnish an insight into the government apparatus prior to 1970. It is indeed inevitable if a rationale is to be placed in proper perspective. Narrative it may seem, yet some description of the administration, size and function would cast some light necessary to understand the course of events. In doing so the focus will remain on the present government machinery. To understand the genesis of the present shape of the government bureaucracy, its development is to be projected along three stages (DPA,1983); Prior to 1970; the period until 1975; the period until 1980 and from 1980 onward. Such distinction is well founded since they form stages of development signified by legal frameowrk, and the overall course the national development followed.

2.5.1 Prior to 1970

The late Sultan Said bin Taimur, ascended to power in 1932. He has inherited a legacy of profound and endless problems; heavy debts; disorganised administration; negligible financial resources; threats to national unity, and escalating problems of security. His immediate aim was to rescue the nation, sustain financial security, settle the country's debts and organise its finances. The Treasury depended almost

entirely on custom dues with smaller contribution of fish and date export. Sultan Said bin Taimur's remarkable achievement was stabilising the administrations financial stand. Debts were settled, financial deficit was reduced and then diminished altogether. Sultan Said took a personal pledge not to allow the country to fall into another debt again. He did not want to 'overburden' the nation's finances after, 'having paid all the old ones'. He rightly knew as an experienced statesman, that to be indebted is to loose ground of authority, sovereignty and power hence reluctance to take such detrimental risks.

The form of government then was heavily centralised. He delegated no authority as he wanted to supervise every act of reform himself. Military expenditure and build up took precedence during his reign since internal unrest was escalating. Therefore, reform modernisation expansion and organisation in other facets of the state were limited and further dwarfed by an air of mistrust, suspicion and general reluctance on the part of the Ruler for fear of loosing touch with tradition and culture on the one hand, and for lack of resources necessary to lubricate any substantial expansion of government in the light of military and security threats on the other. Nevertheless, the state of government machinery, though by all standards, limited and rudimentary, yet functioned reasonably alright, in the circumstances. Oil commercial production started in 1967, by 1966 the government bureacracy formed some 1100 attending to the needs of the country that basically lacked everything. By 1970 the government machinery grew to a figure of 1750; a step that reflected a big non traditional shift by Sultan Said to help back-up the new development team working on the newly planned infrastructure.

The general features of this era could be summed up to be the following:

a) Administration was in an ambriotic stage hence lacked any cohesive concrete form of a government in its modern terms and organisational manifestations.

b) Authority and power were extremely centralized.

c) Lack of any form of legally binding framework that specifies employment, pay scale pension and promotion policies.

2.5.2 From 1970 to 1975

Sultan Said bin Taimur did provide the nation with a period of relative peace and stability but failed to sell his timid programme of reform and modernisation. It was thought that financial restraints have become a way of life and that the newly acquired oil income was not sufficiently used on both time scales and magnitude to genuinely make up for deprivation of the past. (Clements, 1980) On July 23rd 1970, Qaboos bin Said, his son, lead a palace coup and assumed duties with the task of 'quick establishment of a modern government' being his first priority.

No sooner the promise was made, four Ministries were almost immediately established, Education, Health, Interior and Justice and the former smaller agencies functioning in these areas were understandably integrated in the new Ministries. Expansion was inevitable as the massive infrastructural projects finally saw the light of day. Government machinery in the newly emerging modern state was massively growing to attend to the requirements and challenges and changes so earnestly waited upon by the nation. Government offices branched out to meet the new needs in areas of education, vocational

training, foreign affairs, interior and local governments, land &
housing, social welfare, information, economy, communications,
transportation, environment protection, culture, water & electricity
and Islamic Affairs. Similarly, several other advisory bodies were
established to further assist in accelerating the decision making
process.

Such massive expansion, by definition, meant heavy reliance on non-
nationals to make up for shortages of qualified indigenous manpower
whose influx from their exiles did help meet substantial needs but fell
short from meeting the entire demand in the quality and quantity
necessary to run the services as efficiently as they should. At a stage
of administrative development during the seventies, even Ambassadors
appointed in foreign countries were by and large non-Omani's seconded
by their governments. The 'old guards' of walis, secretaries and even
tribal leaders and other dignitaries were assimilated into the new
system by appointment and through other forms of integration thus
continuity was ensured; traditional styles of administration and
functions were also maintained in relevant areas. The traditional
tribal power structure was assimilated hence cementing the influence of
the central government. (Clement, 1980)

Thus, the Government Machinery developed from a rather 'archaic and
cumbersome' (Clement; p.69) in a rudimentary state of course of 1100
employees into an apparatus in the western terms of varied degrees of
efficiency and effectiveness yet of massive complications and
sophistication staffing some 19123 in 1975 with a growth rate of 1800
per cent compared to 1966. The rate of growth was unprecedented yet
disorganised and unplanned. Administrative bodies were created,

initiated contingent upon most pressing needs and demands, therefore their growth was even less controlled. In the lack of a centrally legally binding framework; policies of employment recruitment pay and promotion and appraisal were subject to individual units discretion. Fragmentation was seen to be dysfunctional and areas of overlap and duplication in areas of jurisdiction were already being spotted and hence the call for prompt action to help organise growth and rail development in a more formidable legal controlled framework.

2.5.3 From 1975 to 1980

In January 1975 a Royal Decree formed a nine member committee to look into the Government administration. The committee immediately started an overall study of the Government machinery, even discussed trend and directions with people in charge and conducted an extensive six month task until it arrived at the legal backbone of government organisation later known as, 'the Law of the organisation of the State Apparatus'.

The 'Law' organising government apparatus was the nations 'constitution' per se and the first government piece of legislation set forth to provide the legal framework of a modern state. Almost simultaneously, the next Royal Decree proclaimed the first Civil Service Law in 1975. It should be directly relevant to describe some of the features of these two pieces of legislation to help link up the developments at later stages.

2.3.5.a.General Features of the Law

a.As a constitution, this piece of modern legislation was a pioneering event in the history of a nation that was ruled in

accordance to Sharia and other traditional forms of established practice.

b. It was the first instance that legal grounds were set in the areas of executive functions of the Government, the way they are initiated, organised, assigned with responsibilities, areas of

jurisdiction their locus and status in the organisational hierarchy of the country.

c. Authority was specified within legal structure so was its delegation and thus some form of power decentralisation was recognised and was thus provided for by the power of the law.

d. The establishment of the already functioning ministries were confirmed, several others were added while provisions were made in the general terms for other forms of government institutions to be established once the need arises and catered for by a Royal Decree. By the same token, provisions were likewise made for expansion, change and rectification through assigned legal channels.

e. The 'Law' signified literally the shift in terms of the actual functions of the Government machinery, from the traditional 'Law and Order and Taxation' i.e. the 'Guardian' of the state role, into the welfare state functions and hence relating its activities in a direct fashion with the national development plans.

2.5.4 The First Civil Service Law in 1975: Some General Features

The aim of the civil service law at this stage was to unify terms of reference, introduce a legal framework whereby personnel functions are regulated by law. But such a legal step meant no bar insofar as growth is concerned. If the figures of government employees in 1970 to be recalled to form some 1750 booming up to some 19123 in 1975, it then nearly doubled in 1980 during the lifetime of the first central civil

service law to reach 38840.

Setting the legal framework and the provision of rules and regulation were no bars in the course of massive growth that seemed to multiplicate. The figure of government employees in 1970, stood at 1750, then 19123 in 1975 and nearly doubled to 38840 in 1980 the immediate conclusion would then be that of surprise and dismay at the same time. For with all the leniency and flexibility provided for in the law and with the formal encouragement for white collar posts have had immediate repercussions not only in terms of magnitude of national employment share in proportionate terms but also in terms of quality and efficiency of performance and its direct bearing on training and manpower development in the public sector of which there was no policy, not that the researcher knows about.

To sum, the main features of government apparatus in this phase of development were:

a) The initiation of the first civil service law as a legal framework for the administrative machinery, thus, unification of regulation and rules, establishing the frame of reference hence stabilising the instituion of the Government.

b) The country's constitution was literally drafted during this period where the parameters of ministerial jurisdiction and authority were established The executive branch of the government was fully defined since the legislative power was similarly confirmed to rest absolutely with the Sultan.

c) Establishment of government institutions was not conducted

entirely in a logical systematic fashion. Actions at times were contingent upon the most pressing need. Hence growth in the administrative arena was not fully controlled.

d) The civil service law identified the need for efficiency and effectiveness to be introduced in the newly established government agencies by emphasising the role of training within the context of national human resources development and in recognition of the important role qualified manpower can play towards the effective fulfilment of national development.

e) This era of civil service life was characterised with extraordinary leniency and flexibility in terms of recruitment, promotion and upward mobility. The policy was one of encouragement for nationals to join the Government service, therefore qualification was handled rather lightly so was promotion. The result was reflected in the massive sweep from the lower grades to the higher ones at times in a 'frog leap' fashion, where no real substance was attached to any form of efficiency performance, examination or competition for that matter. The grave repercussions were faced and felt until the present date.

2.6 From 1980 up to 1986

The growth of public employment continued in giant strides, to reach 57962 in 1985 and 60423 in December 1987. With such pace of growth it was only logical to reconsider legislation and areas of emphasis in the public sector. In a country now identified with continuous massive change, the civil service cannot remain static. Hence the call for another form of organisation device for the civil service now that the first development plan has come to conclusion and shortage of qualified manpower was recognised as being an impediment to national development.

It has also been recognised that further encouragement to join white collar civil service is now being done at the expense of other sectors and is even dysfunctional in its own right as growth was seen not directly linked to real need.

New Ministries were established, others were amalgamated into existing ones thus changes were introduced to the Law of the Organisation of the State Apparatus. Furthermore, a new law for civil service was drafted and proclaimed law by virtue of the Royal Decree issued in 1980.

The new civil service law was meant to be more comprehensive than its predecessor with wider responsibilities for the Civil Service Bureau and its executive arm, the Diwan of Personnel. Personnel practices, now have come to the stage of maturity thus were standardised and catered for within the framework of the law. Strangely enough, the new law of civil service was issued as a general guideline while the details were to be accomodated for in the executive charter which was to follow as soon as it was approved by the ministerial council. The fact that the Executive Charter was made law four years later caused tremendous confusion as whether government agencies were to follow the new civil service law or stick to the rulings of the old one. The actual practice advocated then by the Civil Service Council, was to follow the interpretations provided for in the old law, guided by the new law in anticipation of the new charter.

2.7 1986 up until now : General features

1.The establishment of the country's first national university was a landmark providing a natural conclusion of the infrastructural build-up

in the areas of human resources development. Complementing the educational system and the provision of alternate routes outside the general education system by building the Omani Industrial college and upgrading vocational training centres would have direct bearing on the quality and quantity of the Omanis available in the labour market hence calls for revision of the present rules and practices of the existing Civil Service law to respond to the challenges of efficiency and as a scrutiny exercise to ensure that public employment is cost effective.

2. At the organisation level, one major reshuffle was introduced into the Civil Service by establishing a Ministry of Civil Service with a permanently assigned Minister while reorganising the Civil Service Council which has now been expanded as a manifestation of additional emphasis on the part of the Government. The Institute of Public Administration was brought in to fall under the jurisdiction of the new Ministry in order to ensure that training and development policy as well as other executive functions were closely co-ordinated and better followed up.

3.Thereafter service pension law was introduced earlier and early retirement was sought as an option open for decision makers to help the aged, unqualified, non productive elements for a chosen turnover outside the public service and thus accommodate a new breed and new blood of better qualified, better experienced public employees to advance and take over.

4. Again further development was introduced into the Government machinery, the Ministry of Diwan which functioned as a cabinet secretariate among other things was dissolved, and its functions were

distributed, while the secretariate for the Ministerial Council was already being promoted to a ministerial level; corporate parastatals were established as one form of decentralised efficient organisational set up.

5.The revision exercise for the Civil Service this time was conducted in a cool-headed style, when Ministers were approached to provide input and feedback as to where change is seen mostly needed and thus, in line with the Government intentions to introduce different forms of regulations and efficiency patterns in every facet of the government machinery lifestyle coupled with economic hardships inflicted through the present external economic factors; the expectations are plentiful and the role of training and development agencies can well be seen in perspective.

2.8 The State of Manpower: A General Overview

The Second Five Year Development Plan (SFYDP) has rightly emphasised the role of training and education in the areas of human resources development as important elements in facilitating economic development. To serve that end, investment in education has risen dramatically from some 1.3 million in 1971 to R.O.37.9 million in 1980 to 45 million in 1983. In proportionate terms, education expenditure has amounted to some 4.3 per cent of total government expenditure and risen steadily to some 9.7 per cent in 1980 and little over 9.9 per cent in 1983. Myrdal(1968) convincingly argued that the allocation of resources for education ought not be divorced from the actual content of education. Based on his experience in the developing countries, the problem" is not of providing more schools; it is as much or more a problem of eliminating miseducation and large scale waste of educational

resources" he endorces a more purposive selection of knowledge, skills, thoughts, and the attitudes implanted and the learning methods employed.(Al Essa 1981:95)

Nonetheless, such steady growth in the Omani context, is unlikely to continue and may indeed retreat for reasons of slower economic growth rates triggered by sharp decrease of national revenues. In the areas of training, an expert report have identified it to be underscored insofar as policy makers and investments allotments concerned in a manner that is not commensurate with the high priority given to the Omanisation process. The role of education can only be augmented and complimented by that of training.

2.8.1.The State of the Omani Labour Market

A close scrutiny into the labour market would reveal an immense deformity in national and non national proportionate figures, Table 2.1 shows that the non Omanis constitute nearly 70 per cent of the total employment figures in the modern sector of which they form an extremely high share of the professionals and highly qualified skills. Nearly 61,000 of the nationals are employed in the modern economic sector i.e. 38 per cent of the total national count. 16 per cent of the nationals are reported in government (defence and armed forces are excluded) employment. Further scrutiny would show that nearly 65 per cent of the Omanis employed in the modern sector are unskilled.

Table 2.1 National and non-National Manpower in economic sectors
1980

Economic Sector	Omani No.	%	Non Omanis No.	%	Percentage of Omani Participation
Agriculturure & Fisheries	99,000	61.9	5,000	3.4	95.2
Oil, mining and port services	2,500	1.6	2,200	1.5	53.6
Industry	1,900	1.2	3,400	2.3	36.1
Construction	12,800	8.0	56,600	39.4	18.3
Trade Food and Hotel Industry	7,000	4.3	48,800	33.9	12.2
Communication and Transport	5,500	3.4	2,800	1.9	66.4
Banking and Finance	900	.6	3,800	2.1	24.2
Personnel services	5,600	3.5	6,400	4.4	46.7
Public Administration	24,800	15.5	15,800	11.1	38.9
Total	160,000	100	144,000	100	52.6

*Source: World Bank Report cited in the final report of the National
Conference for Manpower, April 1984.

In total, some 80 per cent of the indigenous share of employment recorded in 1980 are reported to be categorised as unskilled. Nearly 3 per cent of the Omanis are employed in the higher echelons with university degree qualifications, while nearly 6 per cent are categorised to be semi skilled. The implications are great with regard to training and education. An expert report has noticed a general tendency on the part of policy makers to emphasise formal pre-service education and training to the extent that on-the-job training is neglected and under evaluated.

Table 2.2 Estimates of Sectoral Manpower Needs

Sector	1985	Percentage*	1990
Agriculture & Fisheries	112,000	25.8	152,401
Mine Workers and Port Services	5,300	1.2	7,116
Industry	12,600	2.9	17,197
Construction	116,900	26.9	159,517
Trade, Restaurant and Hotel Industry	83,600	19.2	113,856
Banking and Finance	7,100	1.6	9,488
Personnel Services	19,800	4.5	27,278
Public Administration	63,300	14.6	86,578
Total	434,800	100	593,000

* Percentage all the same for the years 1985, 1990
Source: World Bank Country Report Cited in the Concluding Report for the Final
deliberations of the National Conference for Manpower, April, 1984.

2.8.2.Future demands

Based on the assumption of reasonably optimistic economic growth
rate in non oil and other productive sectors Table 2.2 projects
manpower needs over the period from 1985 to 1990. Thereupon if such
assumptions were proven to be wrong or inaccurate future demands
estimate will have to follow suit. Thus with an annual increase
compared with current prices of the economy, the demand in 1985 would
be 435,000, such figure estimate was based on fairly optimistic
production growth rate whereas if such optimism was unfounded the
figure estimate will shoot even higher. And by the same token higher
growth rate would necessitate a higher estimate. In either case, the

size of the indigenous workforce would form yet a lower figure in proportion to the overall figure. The implications are far too obvious, further procrastination in Omanisation efforts. 7.5 per cent annual growth rate in labour market if it happened is by all means too quick an expansion and difficult to control or manage for that matter. It was concluded, even though sufficient and accurate data base was not available that a figure estimate of 593,000 labour force would be the demand of the labour market in the year 1990 based onan annual growth rate in the labour market of only 4.6 per cent.

2.8.3 Manpower in the Government Sector

In December 1987 the total number of employees in the Public Sector reached its level high of some 60423 nearly five thousand higher than the previous year. Table 2.1 traces the growth of public employment and its distribution amongst nationals and non-nationals.

As the figures exhibited in Table 2.3 over a time series of nearly two decades show the massive growth of government employment (excluding defence and police); a figure proliferating nearly 50 fold if 1970 is to be taken as a base year reflecting conclusively the massive growth of services rendered by the government. The growth was nearly stable and proportionate from 1970 till 1972 while a sudden jump characterised the neads for employment between 1973 (when the country's oil generated revenues were boosted by price rise) until 1975 (included) when the country's first five year economic development was launched. While some 21161 more government employees were recruited along the five years plan as an indicator of massive growth in infrastructure services and maintenance while another 13678 were employed during the second five year development plan.

Table 2.3 The Growth of Employment in the Government

Year	Total	Omanis Number	%	Non Omanis Number	%
1970	1750	1630	93.1	120	6.9
1971	3112	2857	91.8	255	8.2
1972	5318	4765	89.6	533	10.4
1973	9073	7403	81.6	1670	18
1974	12035	9035	75.1	3000	24.9
1975	19123	13616	79	5507	21
1976	22311	15668	70.2	6643	29.8
1977	26765	17269	64.5	9496	35.5
1978	28681	17313	60.4	11367	39.6
1979	35030	21216	60.6	13814	39.4
1980	40284	24398	60.6	15886	39.4
1981	40098	25096	62.4	15002	37.6
1982	37856	25340	66.9	12516	33.1
1983	41089	28093	67.7	13396	32.3
1984	52143	32482	62.3	19661	37.7
1985	54962	33772	61.4	21190	38.6
1986	55442	34412	62.1	21030	37.9
1987	60423	37261	61.7	23162	38.3

Source: Shoun Al Khidma Al Madaniah (Civil Service Affairs) Civil Service Periodical, 4,16,11, 1985, and other subsequent unpublished figures.

The indigenous component of the civil service witnessed, in percentage terms, a general decline from 92.8 per cent in 1969 to a total of 64.5 per cent in 1977 and fluctuated within nearly the same range until it reached 61.7 per cent in 1987, while in real terms the total number in relation to overall figures have shown a steady growth from 1253 in 1969 to some 37261 in 1987.

The non national component grew steadily in percentage terms from merely 7.2 per cent in 1969 to 29.8 per cent in 1976 to more-or-less a stable figure revolving around 35.5 per cent in 1977 to 38.3 per cent

in 1987 while again the actual figures would only give the real meaning to all that. The size of the non national component in the public sector grew massively from 97 only in 1969 to 5507 at the commencing year of the first five year development plan in 1975 and reached some 15866 in the fifth year of the plan in 1930 to some 21190 at the end of the second five year development plan jumping into 23162 in 1987 thus increasing the total percentage to 88.3 per cent.

Table 2.4 Male and Female Component of the Civil Service

Year	Female	%	Male	%	Total No.	Total %
1984	7825	15	44318	85	52143	100
1985	8513	15.5	46449	84.5	54962	100
1986	9385	16.9	46057	83.1	55442	100
1987	11632	19.3	48791	80.7	60423	100

Source: Statistical Analysis of Civil Service unpublished reported by the Ministry of Civil Service, December 1987.

In general terms there is a tangible annual increase of Civil Service population. (Table 2.4) The overall female component grew steadily from a 15 per cent share in 1984 to that of 19.3 per cent in December 1987 which is logically understood in the light of the general improvement in the wellbeing of the female population through educational facilities spread all over the country on the one hand, health standards reaching the grass roots and social acceptance of women going to work together with economical reasons where additional earnings against the continuously rising standards of living conditions is welcomed.

Nevertheless, the size of the Omani female share of the total female component is still low ranging from 33.3 per cent in 1985 to 34.1 per cent in 1987 which is not in line with the overall share of the national labour force. The general trend expressed by policy makers in the human resources development domain is to encourage larger female participation in the labour force not only as a logical rightful option for women to play, but also as a means of reducing heavy reliance on expatriate labour force. The major bulk of female component currently being processed through the training and educational system are still held back from entering the labour market and hence an overall increase is very much expected in a few years time. Another point to be emphasised is the establishment of several avenues for training and education in the country crowned by a tertiary education made available locally would generally encourage parents to support female education, who otherwise have had to be sent abroad for higher education, an option the majority of parents were reluctant to take.

2.9 Civil Servants distribution in the grading system

The grading system in the Civil Service underwent development to provide further flexibility for the massively growing Civil Service. Before the introduction of the second Civil Service law, the grading system was pretty tight, too convenient and provides an extremely short route for upward mobility particularly when initial recruitment and promotion were conducted in a rather lenient fashion. There were nine grades in the general ladder and two in the Special grades while a special category for contractual employees was provided under the term contract (F) category outside the Civil Service regulation. No sooner it was realised that upward mobility was conducted in quickening paces and government employees, recruited on a certain grade, remained there

for the necessary six months required before they were to be promoted to the next grade and at times stride even to the next one. Organisational titles followed suit. He, who resides in the first grade is a director and the one in the second grade was a deputy director while the holder of a third grade was a head of a section. Meanwhile, occupants of the (F) category contractual employees, were non nationals, and provisions were made that their contracts were not only automatically renewed but their annual increase was conducted as a base salary percentage of at least 10 per cent with additional provisions left for the Minister in charge to decide.

The very first issue revised in the second Civil Service law was the grading system which proved to be extremely unfair and conducive to deformities and abnormalities in the general countenence of the Civil Service. Climbing up waves of ascending employees had to come to a halt or slow paced as it was realised that very soon every recruit will end up a manager, or in a managerial rank in no time. Instead, a three clusters (rings) of grades in the general ladder system was revised so as to room upward movement rather flexibly without jeopardising people's rightful expectation to advance, though upon merit. This is together with a special ranking category of five grades, ranging from (E) the beginning and (A) the end of the line: A and B were for ministers and undersecretaries while generally speaking a Royal Decree was required to qualify for the special ranking category A and B. The holders of (F) category contract grades in the old system were reinstated in the new system in line with their current pay scales.

In the general system , the first ring being the highest and accommodated six grades, the sixth being the first entry and ascends

all the way through. While the second ring accommodates eight grades from the eighth being the lowest and one being the highest. For example, a university graduate would qualify for the second grade of ring 2. Promotion also was further limited along a different set of criteria. Civil Servants are entitled to an annual pay increase, though tied to an annual appraisal report, yet the standard practice is that it was granted almost automaticlaly. Promotion, on the other hand - in stride fashion is unlawful; and in normal circumstances is tied to at least two years of service in the third and second rings, while three years are the requisite for candidacy. Movement between rings is further restricted, though in theory, subject to qualifications and experience. The third ring, almost solely accommodates non skilled, non qualified, preferably nationals and constitutes of five grades.

In 1984 45.2 per cent of the entire Civil servants resided in the third ring which constitutes the non skilled, non qualified employees of the lower scale of pay, 60 per cent of them are Omanis. In the second ring 51.6 per cent is the percentage share; 37 per cent of which is the indigenous share in the same year. 2.4 per cent is the share in the first ring of which 2.3 per cent is the indigenous share. The special ranking total percentage share was 0.08 per cent. In 1987 the percentage distribution has . shifted slightly in favour of Ring Two with 57.7 per cent while the Third Ring share declined to 38.8 per cent with nearly the same percentage in Ring One 2.8 per cent and 7 per cent for the special category.

It is extremely relevant to note that 90.2 per cent of the occupants of the special ranking grades are non-Omanis in 1987 statistics that represents the highly qualified experties mostly recruited by the

Ministry of Education to cater for the academic staffing needs of the newly established university and the newly opened teachers training colleges.

Table 2.5 Civil Servants Grade Distribution

| Year/percentage | Special grades | General Grades | | | |
		1st	2nd	3rd	Total
1984	386	1254	26919	23584	52143
%	8%	2.4	51.6	45.2	100
1985	436	1421	29394	23711	54962
%	8%	2.6	53.5	43.1	100
1986	387	1487	30808	22760	55442
%	7%	2.7	55.6	41	100
1987	430	1701	34827	23465	60423
%	7%	2.8	57.7	38.8	100

Source: Statistical Report of Ministry of Civil Service December 1988.

In the Second Ring the Omani segment that accounted for 42.7 per cent in 1986 climbed up to from 44.8 per cent in the following year while the indigenous share in the first ring revolved around 2.7 per cent to 3 per cent in 1986, 1987 respectively. (Table 2.5)

2.10 Education and Training

Policy makers in Oman have chosen to tie the education and vocational training system to the pressing needs and demands for qualified manpower within the context of human resources development.

Central to government concerns is education that developed as mentioned earlier from just above 909 male students enrolled in three primary schools, two of them in the capital region and one in the

southern region Dhofar.

2.10.a. General and technical education

The education system in Oman follows the 6 + 3 + 3 six primary and three preparatory and three secondary level, first entry age ranges between 6 - 7. In the academic year 1986/1987 there were 650 schools divided as follows: 354 primary schools accommodating 194996 students; 238 preparatory with 39015 students; 57 secondary schools with 11646 students; a model preparatory school with 223 students together with 322 students accommodated in the Islamic secondary school.

Education starts diversification in the tenth year in the secondary level where there are other options besides general education in technical education as follows:

a.1 The agricultural institute in Nizwa in the interior which is a secondary level technical option made available to the inhabitants of the interior whose major profession is agriculture with a stated capacity of 36 annual graduates and whose enrolment in 1986/87 was 130.

a.2 The commercial secondary school with a capacity of 120 annually whose enrolment in the same year was 426.

a.3 The industrial school whose capacity is estimated to be growing to reach 72 students and whose enrolment in the given year was 183.

a.4 There are four Intermediate teachers training colleges aiming to boost the Omanisation process in the teaching profession where the stated policy is to start regionalise 70 per cent of the primary teachers in the next ten years while the national university would endeavour to meet the demands of Omani teachers in the subsequent stages.

a.5 With the establishment of Sultan Qaboos university, the state would have complemented the educational ladder and free education is now provided up to the tertiary level. The university started with six colleges, Engineering, Agriculture, Science, Medicine, Education and Arts and Islamic Studies. The choiceof disciplines stresses areas of national emphasis in tying education to meet the local needs. 582 students are seen to be the university capacity of Omani secondary school leavers who concluded 12 years in education and compete for a placement in the newly established university. The first year is dedicated as preparatory with intensive classes in English science before being able to carry on where the medium of instruction would be English.

2.10.b.Vocational (technical) training

Generally speaking, the bulk of vocational training both public and private was under the immediate responsibility and supervision of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. In January 1990, a Ministry for Labour and Vocasional Training was established to be in charge of technical training. The newly established Ministry runs the total of nine vocational training institutes throughout the country. Training is conducted basically on three levels:

b.1 Two years preparatory (there were three and the first grade preparatory was abolished due to the introduction of a new system). Enrolment accommodates general education school leavers mainly males aged 11 - 21, whose total number of enrolment reached the figure of 873 students in the academic year 80/81, accelerated to the figure of 1304 in 83/84 and declined again in 86/87 to the figure of 476.

b.2 Secondary level of two years in commercial and technical areas spread over two years with a diploma certificate for successful completion; this was initially planned to be a four year post preparatory level training undertaken by students in what was originally planned to be a technical institute with a capacity of 480 students with an estimate annual graduates totalling 110 of skilled manpower and less technical.

b.3 Oman Technical Industrial College was established as a means of providing further options for high school graduates in line with the country's stressing need for more skilled and technically qualified manpower. The college (moreorless a polytechnique) offers four areas for specialisation, civil, electrical and electronic, mechanical and automative engineering and laboratory technology besides business studies (banking, account, management).

2.10.c. Other forms of training

Other forms of vocational pre-service training outside the jurisdiction of the two Ministries are: the Institute of Health Sciences, affiliated to the Ministry of Health; the Institute of Bankers affiliated to the Central Bank; the Institute of Religious and Quranic Law affiliated to the Ministry of Justice; the Postal Training Centre and the Institute of Public Administration affiliated to the Ministry of Civil Service in charge of administrative training.

Summary

With the fear of over simplification, the chapter has endeavoured to establish a meanginful brief description of the general features of a country so little is known of. The general economic picture was drawn against the historical background and the uniqueness of the nation's

political stance in the early days of history. Modern development was traced since as early as 1970 as a marked watershed in the country's twentieth century form of development. Against this background the development of the government apparatus was introduced along significant indicators; legal as well as structural facets of the government development were touched upon in as brief as meaningful as possible. The composition of the Civil Service in terms of manpower, and distribution and other similar issues were introduced.

Finally, some basic headings of manpower and human resources development issues were introduced in a brief manner so as to give the reader a flavour of the seriousness of training and manpower development issues in a country characterised with overall paucity of resources including qualified manpower necessary to sustain growth and steer the development vehicle.

CHAPTER THREE

CIVIL SERVICE TRAINING:

THE INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (IPA)

3.1 Introduction

Once the shape of the government machinery is properly located within both historical manpower and legislative perspectives, expedition into the organisational profile of the central organ assigned with the task of government administrative training is logically sequenced. This chapter, to serve this end, is devoted to describe analytically the Omani Institute of Public Administration (IPA). Issues pertaining to the Institute's initial establishment and its course of development, its manpower, organisational set-up, its activities, inputs, products and constraints were discussed in details. As the national change agent, the establishment of IPA has undergone several of the Institutional developments and inbuilt teething problems. Prospects of growth and development for the institution amidst environmental and organisational constraints were explored. Additional distinction was given to the process whereby training plan formation, the assessment of training needs were simultaneously expedited. The purpose is extremely legitimate as it is intertwined not only with the training function centrally assigned to this institution, but also to the subsequent analysis of practices in relation to training at the government level.

3.2 Training in the Civil Service

The need to manage the Civil Service growth and to control, contain and professionalise its practices was seen eminent. The pace

of growth, as mentioned in the earlier chapter was unprecedented. breathtaking and overwhelming. One way of introducing efficiency and effectiveness into civil servants practices was training. Carmichael (1984) has reported U.N's report aknowledging the following factors to be the major contributors to the bizare state of affairs of public training in the African context; a) that comprehensive training policy guidelines and related laws do not exist, and b) training activities at the departmenral level are uncoordinated..

The two Civil Service Laws issued in 1975, 1980 consecutively as well as the subsequent executive regulations have made it clear that training is to be considered as an occupational obligation. However,the interpretation of such an obligation was not evident. The regulations have stressed the role of individual government units to act in the way they see fit in securing adequate standards of performance at all levels. Primarily then, training was considered a management responsibility. Nonetheless, such a responsibility was neither specified nor enforced by any means of legislation.

Article (42) of the Executive Act of the Second Civil Service Law number (8) has made it clear that each government unit is to have its own training budget, not to be exceeded and that ministerial rules and regulations regarding training would have to be drafted in line with the 'national' training plan approved by the Civil Service Council. There were not - prior to 1970 - any form of organised training in the government civil employment. Then, from 1970 until the issuance of the first Civil Service law in 1975, no systematic form of administrative training was reported while from 1975 until the establishment of the Omani Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in late 1977, training efforts have suffered duplicacy and

fragmentation. However, the training scene at the central level has not come to any stage of coherence until the first central administrative training plan ever in the short history of Omani modern civil service. The first plan was inaugurated in January 1983 to cover the rest of the Second Five year development plan in 1985. The Institute of Public Administrations' role since the inception of the Central Administrative Plan has grown and hence given additional significance being the central organ for administrative development. For this reason, an insight into IPA's institutional set up is a requisite to understand training practices at the government level.

To help clarify the state of the art with regard to training; government practices have basically taken three forms: a) training within ministries, being mainly technical in nature, but including some forms of on-the-job training, b) training sponsored directly by the recipient organisations both locally and abroad, c) and, central administrative training basically but not exclusively at the local Institute of Public Administration.

The rationale for the establishment of national training unit was highlighted mainly by the following factors:

1. Training was considered a no man's land, whose domain, terrain and responsibilities were vague and unspecified.

2. The absence of an organisation empowered with policy making and hence follow up and evaluation of training have in effect added to the state of duplication and fragmentation of training endeavours.

3. Prior to 1978, training was conducted basically abroad; advantageous may be, but prohibitive in terms of cost and incorporated, at times, practices and patterns alien to the local

needs and conditions.

3.3 The Institute of Public Administration (IPA)

3.3.1 History

A U.N. advisory assistance was sought for an assessment of civil service in the early seventies. By 1973 the UN expert's report recommended the establishment of a local training and development centre in the form of a local Institute of Public Administration (IPA). Only through a local change agent most suited to the national needs that training interventions as well as other facets of administrative development, can reach the state of fruition. Although the recommendations were made as early as 1973, no action was actually taken until early 1977 when allocations were made to process plans for the establishment of the National Institute of Public Administration. In January 1978 phase one of the project was handed in by the contractors that included the library and the administrative block.

The first batch of IPA's staff was appointed in the vicinity of the same period and the first batch of trainees who were undergoing financial and auditing training within the Department of Audit were soon transferred to the newly established institution. The U.N. advisor resigned his office in the international agency and was requested to follow the project through hired by the Government of H.M. the Sultan.

The IPA started functioning under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Royal Diwan Affairs. The early days of the new Institution were not quite smooth. It had its teething problems. In the absence of a legally binding framework, IPA had to specify its own frame of

reference, areas of jurisdiction and functions within the Civil Service rules and regulations and in line with the recommendations presented in the U.N. sponsored report. It was then assigned to embark upon its task through training, consultation and research as the three aspects are inter-related dimensions for organisaional development in pursuit of administrative reform. Thus it was perceived that IPA's territory was to incorporate the following:

a. enhancing performance standards among civil servants through general training and educational courses designed for the purpose and through imparting modern administrative skills, techniques patterns and procedures.

b. launching studies and empirical research into the ways and means government agencies operate in order to diagnose areas of malfunctions as a step necessary to embark upon a remedy conducive to more effective management capable of sound efficient decision-making in relation to development.

c. offer consultation and advice in areas of public administration to government agencies and units upon mutual arrangements.

d. conduct seminars and national symposiums and/or panel discussions to call upon and address issues pertaining to contemporary public administration and challenges posed by development to assist not only in sensitizing issues and enhancing awareness but also to design,where and when possible, better ways and means most suited for the government units to improve their overall efficiency.

e. the initiation of the first national management public library designed to promote cultural life among public administrators and for the provision of a local data documentation and

literature centre for researchers to utilise.

f. establish close ties between IPA and similar institutions in regional, Arab and international levels to promote dialogue and maintain professional links necessary to enrich and consolidate the local IPA experience in similar spheres.

Despite shortages of qualified personnel, the IPA embarked upon its daunting mission by establishing seven training units to include:

1. Department of public administration
2. Department of financial administration
3. Department of clerical training
4. Department of personnel administration
5. Department of library and documentation
6. Department of English language
7. Department of research.

Not only those seven departments were poorly staffed but some of them remained literally nonexistent hence inactive. The immediate task for the management of the new IPA was to establish and assert the identity of the institution and specify its areas of jurisdiction and hence involved in an intensive public relation exercise to sell the new image. Training was prioritised on IPA's agenda because the impact was concieved to be immediate in the form of a given number of trainees and corresponding courses hence convincing evidence for recipient organisations for more support. Therefore, the early choice to prioritise training was determined by necessity and convenience rather than by sufficient field analysis.

Not until April 1980, the identity crises in the legal frame of reference was nearly settled when the Royal Decree No. 181, 1980 proclaimed officially the establishment of IPA as a scientific

corporate character affiliated to the Ministry of Diwan Affairs with

a high ranking policy making body as its Board of Directors chaired

by the Minister of Diwan Affairs who was the chairman of the Civil

Service Bureau, with the Ministers of Education and Labour Social

Affairs as well as the Undersecretary of Finance, Director General of

Diwan of Personnel, and the Director General of IPA as members.

Never before, such a coordination between policies of civil

service and that of their training and development was made possible.

Bringing the Ministers in charge of human resources development

within the policy making body of the IPA signified national awareness

of the level of importance placed upon administrative development and

training. The full-fledged task of the newly established IPA was now

being specified

Basically the functions stipulated prior to the introduction of

the Royal Decree were generally the same only they now have the

support of the law in case of possible overlap or confusion when it

comes to boundary definition with other agencies and institutions.

3.3.2. IPA in 1986 and onward

The Ministry of Diwan Affairs was dissolved in November 1986, and

IPA's Board of Directors was placed under the new appointed

chairperson of Civil Service Bureau as per Royal Decree No. 60/1986.

The change was significant in the development of the now corporate

and autonomous institution. It also coincided with the establishment

of a Civil Service Council under the chairmanship of the Minister of

Culture and National Heritage who also was the vice chairman of the

Council for education and training policies Council. The new changes

introduced in 1986 also established the post of a resident vice chairman of Civil Service Council among several other changes in the Civil Service Council structure. Later in the year, another all important change was introduced. A Royal Decree announced the establishment of the first Civil Service Ministry ever. IPA was affiliated this time to the newly established ministry whose functions included, among others, the joint design of a national administrative training plan and follow up. As yet, no further changes were reported, but practically the Board of Directors will either have to be renamed to accommodate for the new changes or there would be a major change in the structure of IPA's affiliation so as to relate more specifically within the jurisdiction of the new Ministry of Civil Service which is probably more likely.

3.2.3 Resources

In 1978, its first year in action, IPA has recruited some 10 backing staff with 17 administrative personnel with the help of 15 ancilliary, the total of which was 42. In 1985 there was a total of eighty two; twenty two of them were members of the academia while thirty one were on the administration side and another twenty nine in the ancillary services.

A major shift has also taken place in the facilities made available by the completion of phase II and III of the construction project. IPA is now known to be better equipped with proper training facilities, an amphitheatre, dining and living accommodations together with an overall improvement in the offices, training halls, audio visual aids; literally in every other aspect IPA has suffered shortages in the past. Such lack of facilities not only hampered any foreseeable expansion of services in both terms, quantity and

quality, but were generally seen to be inadequate and have hitherto caused resentment on the part of government personnel who seemingly had the option to seek training elsewhere and who could compare and contrast amongst training facilities provided here and there.

The number of indegenous trainers in the IPA grew from only 5 in the inaugural year though representing 50 per cent of the entire training crew grew steadily to its highest point of 79 per cent in 1981 then descended to 40 per cent in 1983 due to high rates of turnover then improved to 55 per cent of the entire training crew of 22 in 1985, Table (3.1).

The fact that IPA is governed by Civil Service regulations in terms of pay and incentives have had negative repercussions on the Institution's share of qualified Omani staff who would otherwise find it more attractive and rewarding to seek other job placements where prospects of growth and upward mobility are pretty in sight.

Some eight university graduates who joined the IPA since its establishment were soon disenchanted with the prospects of growth and hence drifted out to other government agencies.

The total number of those who left IPA since its establishment totalled some 54, which depicts a high rate of turnover figure judging by the ultimate size of IPA employees in 1985 that is eighty-two all in all. Efforts made to associate training profession in IPA with an allowance resulted in a modest increment addendum to the salary. However, the allowance was conceived to be too modest an accomplishment to attract qualified job seekers to go for IPA-based-

career as an option. Those who will eventually join IPA as a last resort or as an option they wilfully have made would eventually demonstrate dissatisfaction as well as frustration.

Table 3.1 National and Non national Staff Members of IPA from 1978 - 1987

Year/Nationality	Omani No.	%	Non Omani No.	%	Total No.
1977/78	5	50	5	50	10
79	11	61	7	39	18
80	10	67	5	33	15
81	11	79	3	21	14
82	12	63	7	37	19
83	8	40	12	60	20
84	11	50	11	50	22
85	12	55	10	75	22
86	14	56	11	44	25
87	14	56	11	44	25

Source: IPA Publications 'IPA 7 years' achievements, 1977 - 1985, p.235

On the other hand, new recruits are in no immediate possession of expertise and skills necessary to embark upon the tasks of training consultation and research. Most of them have had little or no experience in government service or in actual training, consultation and research prior to their appointment in IPA and hence are in no position to immediately discharge their highly demanding responsibilities. Therefore, having the new recruits properly trained is both vital and requisite prior to any active full-fledged participation.

3.2.4 Budget

The IPA budget grew steadily from R.O. 264093 in 1987 to some R.O. 398970 in 1982 and then jumped to R.O. 576421 in 1983 with the

inception of the first national administrative training plan and continued to climb upward to R.O. 587137 in 1985 while was cut to R.O. 503113 in 1987 (figures of 1986 are not available). However the encrouchment of pay and salary allocations on the recurrent budget is evident leaving less provisions for other major functions undertaken by IPA. One way of resolving budgetary restraints is by resorting to external support from recipient agencies.

Table 3.2: IPA Recurrent and Capital Budget over the years *

Year	Recurrent	Capital	Total
1978	205093	59000	264093
1979	222601	17562	240163
1980	294286	18372	312658
1981	358899	21072	379971
1982	377770	21200	398970
1983	516671	59750	576421
1984	529614	45189	574803
1985	555222	31915	587137
1987	N/A	N/A	503113

* Source: IPA's Records

The fact that IPA does not charge for its professional services is to be revised urgently so as to ensure not only other sources to supplement its own but also to create a state of joint responsibility to finance training and development activities sought by the government units and rendered by IPA. It may so happen that such a move would also assist government agencies, to be proactive with regard to scrutiny exercised in the choice of training candidates and the programme to be attended as well as better follow-up and evaluation policies.

3.2.5 Output

a. _Training_

IPA embarked upon training as a priority option dictated by necessity for reasons we have mentioned earlier and hence trainig was the only major task in the early stages until only very recently. However the internal executive regulations issued in 1982 do   state that IPA should dwell upon its functions by discharging training, research and consultation in the administrative domain for the purpose of upgrading performance and improving both efficiency and effectiveness in the public sector.

a.1.Number of Courses:

In the area of training services rendered by IPA over the past ten years, Table 3.3 reflects significant developments both in magnitude and the range of training courses made available to the public employees.

It appears that IPA has developed its activities considerably from 1977 until 1987, with the total volume of programmes offered growing from only 13 to 45 in 1983 which corresponds with the inception of the first national administrative training plan.

Table 3.3 Number of Courses conducted in IPA during years from 1977-1987

Year	Programme	Seminars	Total	percentage
77/78	13	-	13	4.6
79	18	-	18	6.4
80	24	2	26	9.2
81	18	1	19	6.7
82	28	1	29	10.3
83/84	45	6	51	18.1
84/85	36	6	42	14.9
85/86	40	12	52	18.4
86/87	26	6	32	11.4
Total	248	34	282	100

Source: IPA Publications

The sudden decline indicated in 1987 and 1988 is understood against budgetary cutbacks on the one hand and emphasis shift to pre-service training, newly introduced which is to be discussed later in this chapter, on the other.

a.2.Number of participants

The number of participants taking part in IPA training courses has grown dramatically over the years. Figures shown in Table 3.4 indicate corresponding growth in the number of government employees benefitting from training programmes over the years; growth was steady and massive from 1978 until 1983/84 then declined relatively in 1984/85 then climbed up to a record figure of 1075 in 1985/86 the conclusive year of the Second Five Year Development Plan (SFYDP). While the slight decline in 1984/85 was due to the heavy construction work carried out towards the completion of phase three for the IPA building complex. Nonetheless since 1983/84 until 1987, the total

number of 3575, i.e. 66.8 per cent of the entire count have attended training programmes, which indicates in general the substantial growth rates since the inception of a control national administrative training plan.

Table 3.4:   Number of Trainees over a ten years period from 1977 to 1987

Years	Number	Percent
77/78	232	4.3
1979	261	4.9
1980	479	8.9
1981	356	6.7
1982	450	8.4
83/84	910	17.0
84/85	802	15.0
85/86	1071	20.0
86/87	792	14.8
Total	5353	100

Source: IPA Records

a.3.Participants' managerial level

Growth in the number of trainees has also shown, over the years a wider mix of managerial levels in attendance, Table 3.5 explicitly shows the general trends.

By excluding 1142 trainees attending language and typing courses that represent some 21.3 per cent of the entire figure, the rest of the participants were classified according to their hierarchical managerial levels; i.e. lower middle and senior level of management. 1700 have had training designed for lower management thus representing 40.4 per cent of the entire figure. Next came the middle management share with approximately 1678 representing 39.8 per cent

while understandably the senior's share stood at 19.8 per cent reaching some 832. It is worthwhile mentioning that particularly for middle and senior management levels, the normal practice of government units has always been to nominate candidates not compatible with the requirements of the specific course or seminar.

Table 3.5 Trainees Managerial levels

Level/year	Lower	Middle	Senior	Total
77/78	103	64	20	187
79	64	27	24	115
80	97	90	192	379
81	118	77	60	255
82	194	81	18	293
83/84	278	353	50	681
84/85	250	313	105	668
85/86	262	423	215	900
86/87	334	250	148	732
Total	1700	1678	832	4210

Source: IPA publications

More often than not, a middle manager is sent for a senior management programme while a junior one is sent to a higher ranking one. It is not the researcher's intention to go through this point any further now, while the issue would be discussed elsewhere in the area of training needs assessment.

a.4.Areas of training

Training courses offered by IPA over the period of ten years have not only signalled massive growth both in magnitude and the number of participants involved, but also the varieties made available by the

seven training departments. Table 3.6 shows the wide range of courses, attended by the three managerial levels.

Table 3.6 Distribution of trainees according to areas of training and departmental levels

Department	Lower mgt.	Middle mgt.	Senior	Total
Finance	540	288	206	1034
Personnel	335	465	85	885
Clerical	769	160	–	929
Library & Docum.	56	162	94	312
Local Govt.	–	257	125	382
Research methd.	–	–	13	13
O & M	–	267	172	439
* Joint Activity	N/A	79	137	216
Total	1700	1678	832	4210

* Source: IPA Records

* * Joint activities refers to courses jointly coordinated amongst different departments.

It appears then, with typing and language courses being excluded, that financial courses' share of the entire figure is the highest; 1034 trainees or nearly one quarter of the total while the clerical training share came second with 22 per cent, while personnel management's share came third with 21 per cent. For the middle management financial courses again ranked first with 17 per cent, with Organisation and Methods (O & M) having 15.9 per cent of the share. Local government scored third with 15.3 per cent of the count. For the seniors; finance came first also with nearly one quarter while O & M came second with nearly 21 per cent of the share while local government's share was third with 15 per cent of the share.

a.5: Consultation and Research

Research and consultation were not identified as distinct separate activities for IPA prior to April 1984 when the decision was made to establish a seperate unit designated with research and consultation responsibilities.

It then appears that administrative provisions for these two major facets of IPA functions was introduced as late as 1984 and remained idle until late 1985 when a head of the department was named and later consolidated by the appointment of a full time researcher with two others to work as a backup team.

Therefore any fair judgement to activities in these areas will have to consider the overriding factor of: a) recency of organisation of this field b) that research and consultation activities were to be conducted with the coordination of other departments who are fully involved in their own departmental activities.

Table 3.7: Consultations provided according to field in 1978 to 1986/87

No.	Area of consultation	No.
1.	Archive and office organisation	15
2.	Job procedure simplication	5
3.	Library and Documentation	4
4.	Reorganisation	2
5.	Planning for training	2
	Total	28

Source: IPA publications

Table 3.7 shows that there are grounds for consultation activity to prosper to meet the real growing demands generated by the rapid

growth of Government mechinery and the challenges brought forth with change and varied degrees of sophistication and complications facing government organisations. IPA has rightly recognised the importance of this form of service yet fell short from doing anything substantial in this regard for two reasons. a) acute shortage of qualified trained staff, b) administrative bottlenecks where consultation, although assigned to IPA as a major activity yet the institution had no say when such a service was rendered by other organisations or liasoned via other organisations. Consultation is a highly specialised activity thus demands highly experienced qualified expertise; it is therefore imperative for IPA to make provisions for such expertise to develop within IPA and thus establish a solid base for such highly specialised services, before any substantial achievement are expected.

In the area of research, the same criteria applies. Research work conducted in IPA is still scanty and falls short from providing such crucial activity so vital not only to promote the academic life within IPA but also to dwell upon problematic areas of Government units conducive to findings necessary for remedial forms of activities in the training and consultation arena.

Research work is again coordinated with other training departments who are expected to contribute in the field along with their other undertakings. Nonetheless, against all odds, IPA has managed thus far to contribute though in a modest fashion in the area of administrative research. Five research works have been produced while another six studies are underway whose completion would very much depend on the staff availability and time allocations amidst a very

tight schedule.

3.4 Training Needs Assessment

Assessment of needs for the purpose of programme design was practically nonexistent prior to 1982. Training programmes were designed under the assumption that they address real needs, which was supported by the number of turnouts once a course was announced to the general public. However arguable the point may be, there was no other way for the newly established institution to embark upon prior to actual course design.

Systematic assessment in early 1978 would have meant that a) IPA was well-equipped with personnel qualified to conduct such a massive survey, b) that such a survey would have taken place in the context of an appropriate job description, performance standards and performance appraisals geared towards performance improvement, c) conducting such an exercise requires a massive public relation efforts, high degree of coordination between government units on the one hand while employees consciousness of the existence of such an exercise need to feel unthreatened, d) IPA was in a state of early establishment whose mission, doctrine, organisational structure as well as legal term of reference were yet to take shape. That was not the case. Therefore, the choice was made, then, to start off training functions under the assumption that there would be a true need anyway. In a sense, that course of action was sought as an expedition exercise of know-how, and a way through where links are to be established with representatives of a clientelle system who could transmit the message back into their organisation and hence the whole government bureaucracy gets sensitized in a positive manner to the

issue of training and how needs can best be diagnosed and assessed.

A preliminary exercise was conducted upon completion of the first year in action as an indicator of needs in the government units at large. Government units were requested to state what form of training did they prefer more for IPA to do. Such a process was not yet consistent. Not every government unit was asked and not all who were asked cared to respond. The process by which a training prospectus was designed was then a result of what IPA could do rather than what it was needed to do. Training units in IPA were requested, towards the end of the training year to design their training courses for the following year. Such an exericse was not the best possible way but the organisational constraints from within in the form of shortages in every respect and restraints from without displayed by the not yet settled legal identity of IPA were taking precedence on other professional considerations.

With the provision of the legal framework, certain legal issues were resolved but only to give rise to another set of issues. There were, as mentioned earlier grey areas that were not yet sorted out. Examples of those grey areas were; who is in charge, IPA or other central civil service organs when it comes to policy formulation, implementation and supervision in the areas of training and organisational development. Organisational rivalries have had some counter productive impacts where so much energy was consumed and hence exhausted in search of assertion of identity and domain.

In any event, the course training needs assessment has taken remained subjective and was very much left to the discretion of individual government units to ponder upon the way they saw fit. All

that IPA had to do was announce a programme through the Diwan of Personnel to government units inviting them to advance their nominees at a certain date. Understandably government units not faced with the question of their training needs in the first place found it more convenient just to select a candidate either in a rule of thumb or through some sort of affirmative action.

3.4.1.Assessment of needs for the national administrative training plan

a. The first national multi years' plan:

Government units were caught unprepared when the circular issued by the Diwan of personnel requesting training needs assessment for the period of three years. So specific was the circular that it identified areas where possible training is requried as it also specified procedures on how needs assessment can best be conducted. Advantageous may be, yet the guidlines included in the circular, failed to readily create the data base which was not available at the time. Training units were not yet properly organised or adequately staffed.

When pressed to decide, government units did finally respond. The needs were specified, by areas of training as well as by candidates' names; who would attend what programme, along three years in the following pattern.

Table 3.8 Needs assessment (spread over 3 years)

Job grouping	1983	1984	1985	Total
Senior management	75	8	7	90
Executive management	414	189	116	179
Specialised jobs	69	45	34	148
Office clerical	441	459	339	1229
Total	1265	701	846	2452

Source: IPA publications

In response, IPA designed its training plan in the light of the needs reported by government units. A costing process followed suit and eventually the following layout was projected to form IPA's Agenda.

Table 3.9 Courses designed to meet the demands

Courses	No. of trainees	No. of programmes
Senior management	75	3
Executive management	487	17
Specialised jobs	69	4
Office and clerical	460	16
Special courses	94	5
English language	123	4
Total	1313	49

Source: IPA Records

The layout was spread over 2676 training sessions. Once the plan was approved by the Civil Service Board and the IPA boards of directors, the costing exercise was developed into a budget. By the end of the first year of plan implementation, the result looked as follows:

Table 3.10   Number of trainees planned vs. actual attendance

Management level	Plan estimates	No. Actually trained	%ofactual toestimate
Senior	75	40	53.3
Middle	414	236	57
Specialised	69	41	59.4
Office and clerical	441	401	90.9
Special courses	138	206	149.2
Education courses	128	88	68
Total	1265	1012	80%

Source: IPA Records

Table 3.10 does show some variations between projected figures and actual ones. Such variation was understood in the light of the nature of the assessment exercise on the one hand that resulted in trainees nominated for the given programme not being available at the time. On the other hand, as a requisite for IPA to embark upon such a massive increase in the volume of its training activities it has been suggested that resources, in the form of training quarters, additional training staff to be drawn from the civil service at large were again conceived to be not readily available at the time or were ill-prepared to take part in any effective form in the training.

The results show that the best performance was in the office and clerical training where there were a dramatic increase of nearly 50 per cent in the specially tailored courses which indicates a rather contingent plan by government units who either missed the assessment exercise or felt it was more convenient to do so.

IPA has responded positively to the late calls for specially tailored programmes under the assumption that they represent genuine needs that are to be accommodated. It also reflected a certain desired degree of flexibility on the part of the training institution when needs are not static or absolute and may take different forms and different order of priority. 15 per cent of the entire trainees assigned to take part in that years programme took part in these added programmes. While on the other hand, some 10 courses, represented 28.7 per cent of the programmes were either excluded or substantially modified to suit the objectives. IPA on the other hand was aware that for programmes to realise objectives, training needs should be accurately specified in the light of established practices on the basis of well established process; it was therefore decided to include a programme addressing the issue of assessment of training needs to be conducive to an actual assessment project whose results would be used as indicators for the following year arrangements.

In sum, IPA's actual plan, though varied from the initial central plan, yet proved more relevance to the real needs. Added to that twelve government agencies out of 34 did not respond to the initial assessment exercise yet sent their employees once the programmes were publicised. Hence the plan although was declared a success but valuable lessons were to be derived if training was to address real needs.

The second year of plan implementation was in substantial disharmony with the originally reported needs. IPA responded positively to inputs and feedback generated by its close involvement in training and close ties established with individuals and client

organisations. New forms of training were introduced basically to address senior management levels who were still reluctant to take part; and to associate that with IPA's wider role definition within the development context.

Seminars were conducted for senior management levels on issues like, contemporary management techniques, regional development, environment protection, decision making, project management, manpower planning, hospital administration and the like. So strong was IPA's thrust that the number of participants reached 37.3 per cent of the entire figure for that year.

It then appeared that while IPA was making some progress in attracting wider range of trainees spread over wider government agencies, as well as maintaining the normal pool of participants in the repetitive courses, especially for lower levels of management, while successfully getting the message across, IPA could not reconcile with the original training needs plan. Major disparities were observed with regard to the actual versus projected figures of participants. Together with the Diwan of Personnel (DPA), the issue was discussed in detail so as to avoid similar deficiences in future plans. Again the IPA's drive for a more well founded need assessment as interpreted in a programme offering for manpower planning in the government sector as a follow up to the earlier needs assessment programme offered in the previous year.

b. The needs assessment process (1987/88 - 1988/1989)

An air of dissatisfaction prevailed in conclusion with relation to the previous assessment patterns. Resolved to deal with the difficulties, a joint working group was summoned to work on the need

assessment process to be based on more thoroughness and scrutiny. The working group was jointly formed from members of IPA as the training institution and DPA as the executive functional civil service organisation. Courses of action were evaluated against several factors. Time being of prime importance, the working group chose to design the central training circular to incorporate the new dimensions in search for accuracy. Two bases were considered; who are the would be trainees, and what are the areas of training sought.

Initially, twenty three areas for training were provided as guidelines against which units were to rank their needs. For fear of confusion a short list of only fifteen areas of training was derived. The areas of training represented basically what the training units in IPA could offer in the first place, and to help focus the units concerns where needs can be met. A training circular was issued in February, and mid April was specified as a deadline for units to respond. The following needs chart was drawn in May 1987.

Upon completion of the new expedition, the general feeling expressed in an IPA document, was that while a certain degree of accuracy has been realised there still remains the issue of how such need is substantiated and whether training sought is in fact part and parcel of the units manpower planning and development process. It was also reported that some 15 units failed to meet the deadline, out of thirty four, hence the above figures are the projection of nearly 63 per cent only of the entire government machinery. These needs were then referred to IPA so as to design its training plan accordingly.

Table 3.11 Training needs projected over two years

Areas of training	Yearly Allocations 87/88	88/89	Total
Clerical	488	416	904
Finance	366	284	650
Local government	94	148	242
Computer	62	51	113
O & M	301	223	538
Personnel	363	271	634
Consult. Research	22	21	43
Library & Document.	37	22	59
English language	323	323	647
Total	2056	1774	*3830

* The figure is the Diwan of Personnel's version while IPA have quoted 3311

Source: IPA and DPA Records.

IPA has drafted its first year training agenda to include 703 trainees spread over 33 programmes thus representing 34 per cent share while there still remains 1353 training needs to be appropriately addressed. DPA has suggested to partially accommodate as many as it can of the needs through training institutions outside the country as well as inside. The fact that 904 total request for clerical training includes primarily typists while another 647 are after English language courses, would mean that 1551 can moreorless be accommodated through other institutions whether on a commercial basis or otherwise and thus some 811 or closer to this figure would relieve IPA from a substantial burden and would allow emphasis in terms of resources be put elsewhere.

3.5. IPA, Expectations and Obstacles

a. Having had its legal identity established by the Royal Decree in

1980, IPA still envisages grey areas that need to be clarified in terms of jurisdiction for example. IPA considers itself as the sole provider for administrative training in the Government domain and hence advocates channelling all such training either to IPA as a final destination or to be processed through it. Much energy is consumed in this quest. The fact that the government apparatus employs some 66 thousands with further prospects of growth would cast doubt that training needs can be met by a single change agent no matter how resourceful it may turn out to be let alone the fact that training is cyclical in nature accumulative in prospects and while there is a starting point there is no end. Therefore, the task is concievably beyond the institutional capabilities of a single training unit.

b. While there are nearly 10 vocational training centres and another ten are available on commercial basis there is no reason that IPA sticks to providing typing and language classes in the magnitude reflected in the statistics shown by the tables while that sort and level of trainees can be accommodated for by other agencies who have the facilities and the readiness to do so while on the other hand IPA can either maintain the supervision if it so chooses or give it up altogether or follow the option of establishing a separate clerical training institution if it has the capacity. The reason for this is that many typing courses are long by nature, and involve extremely low situated government personnel whose presence together with highranking officials for training courses is rather awkward and works as disincentive for the latter. It is inconceivable that IPA should insist on its pursuit in this respect and complain at the same time that senior managemnt is still reluctant to actively take part

in training activities in the way they should.

c. IPA has identified its role to incorporate that of management development as a prerequisite for its natural and functional growth. Hence the demands to broaden its areas of functions so as to include preservice training for university graduates who are to join government service as well as academic recognition for IPA graduates Pre-service training for highschool leavers who are to join Government service. Highschool leavers were finally accommodated into IPA specially tailored clerical courses conducive to terminating the contracts of non Omanis who are employed to do these jobs. It so appeared that to accommodate the highschool leavers for a specially tailored course came substantially at the expense of other activities and would further drain the already dwindling resources. The IPA is still suffering an identify crises. Training or Academics, such shift has been observed in similar institutions whose very justifying rationals of existence is training. Professor Sildberman of UCLA reported by Yahya (1984) observes the following reasons for that shift and attributes it to the following. 1) Since few have professional background in research and consultation then teaching and lecturing is seen to be a very convenient way out, 2) training necessitates lengthy periods of preparation and demands realistic problem setting while teaching and lecturing demands short easy handy preparation, 3) it requires specially talented people with specific qualification to conduct training, 4) academics have certification status and assumed to be more prestiguous than training while training would definitely benefit someone else, 5) academics can operate independent from the Government agencies, while trainers have no such option. They need to be present when on the job training is

conducted and they may get under foot very often and thus become a nuisance. While Yahia (1984) advocates the academic option in his assessment of the Somali Institute of Public Administration observes none-the-less a serious identity crises.

d. Training is conducted at the expense of other activities and at times to the detriment of research and consultation. Such under emphasis is well-founded from the institutions viewpoint. It helps develop support; easily noticed and provides quantifiable figures for management to justify resource allocation and is more easy to conduct. But the consequences are grave and policies of the sort may seem convenient and persuasive on the short run but soon are short lived when opportunities are missed.

Summary

In the examination conducted into the IPA organisational profile it appears that certain significant developments have taken place with regard to identity formation and the establishment of the organisation's task territory. Although the legal boundaries look much more defined given the two points of time, establishment and now; still the corporate autonomous character need to be additionally defined so as to make room for more flexibility as well as for more functions to be conducted in relation to the activities currently undertaken. One theme seemed to be apparent, is that of scarcity of resources; budgetary cuts; lack of qualified trainers; and the like. However, other facets were heavily emphasised in relation to incentives and working climate. Ironically, incentives not only to be tied to training accomplishment exhibited by trainees, but also trainer's incentives to be incorporated within an organisational

service rules and regulations that would improve service conditions and attract the best of qualities available in the labour market.

The issue of needs assessment is being laboured in additional depth it rightly deserves. IPA staff members, the trainees and trainers feel and express emphatically the need to conduct a comprehensive well orchestrated preplanned needs analysis that programme designs and objectives need to address and accordingly against which objective realisation can be scrutinised. Current practices reflect wide gaps and rather hasty handlings in that respect.

CHAPTER FOUR

TRAINING: LITERATURE REVIEW

4.1 Introduction

With the subsequent intention to relate training literature reviewed to that of management training, this chapter is being developed to touch upon, in very broad terms, few definitional issues pertaining to that of training being differentiated from education and development. Such a definitional introduction seemed necessary to embark upon what management training really meant and tentatively distinguished from that of management education and development. Such persistence to draw the lines, though in a blurry fashion, is justified so as to narrow down the focal point. Nevertheless, what managers do and what determines their effectiveness, was the area of emphasis in the next part with the aim to identify few of the highly debatable issues in relation to management training. Management and/or administrative training in the context of the public sector and the very general features of training practices in less developing countries was finally expedited though in an extremely brief manner, the chapter ends with a summary.

4.2 What is Training?

The U.S. Government Employee Training Act defines training as "... the process of providing for and making available to an employee, and placing or enrolling such employee in a planned, prepared, and coordinated programme, course, curriculum, subject, system, or routine of instruction or education, in scientific, professional, technical, mechanical, trade, clerical, fiscal, administrative, or

other fields which are or will be directly related to the performance by such employee of official duties for the Government, in order to increase the knowledge, proficiency, ability, skill, and qualification of such employee in the performance of official duties".(Fraser et al.1978)

While the above definition provides a considerably detailed coverage of what training generally involves, but in essence it clarifies that training function is in fact, a preplanned learning intervention an employee is exposed to although systematic provision of knowledge, proficiency skill leading to enhanced performance. In the UK, the Manpower Services Commission's Glossary of Training Terms (1981) confirms, although in a less detailed fashion the same areas of emphasis; it says of training as being 'a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities'. As with regard to the ultimate purpose of training, the definition goes on to say, 'the purpose, in the work situation, is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future manpower needs of the organisation'. It appears, however, that what is taken to be implicit in the US Government Employee Training Act with regard to the role of training in the organisational manpower plan, is explicit in the UK Glossary definition, nonetheless, in entirety, the two definitions seem to be projecting, in essence, the same areas of emphasis.

Oatey (1970) however concedes with a much shorter yet concise and instrumental definition of training by considering it as 'any activity which deliberately attempts to improve a person's skill at a

task. Oatey, one would presume takes it that other procedural factors are understood. Filippo (1980) perceives training as the act of increasing the knowledge and the skills of an employee for doing a particular job. In both, Oatey and Filippo's terms the point to be emphasised is that training is job-specific. Hesseling (1971: 93) looks at training as though it is, "a sequence of experiences or opportunities designed to modify behaviour in order to attain a stated objectives". The term 'stated objectives' is a key word in Hesseling's definition. Hamblin (1974: 6) sees the above definition to be too general, and may connote education as well as development, his version of training is thus intended to zoom in and narrow down the domain of the concept of training; he looks at it at a more operational level as 'any activity which deliberately attempts to improve a person's skill in a job'. While Hamblin's reference to "any activity" would unintentionally include other forms of organisation activities which may or may not be in the vicinity of training domain, Goslin (1975: 1) speaks of formal training as 'the planned provision of efficient learning situations which enable and encourage participants to achieve those measurable behavioural objectives established in relation to organisational performance and goals'. In Goslin's understanding, training is an organisational vehicle to goal attainment through enhanced performance. Joyce, (1978), cautions against taking for granted objective realisation via training without due concern or consideration for a) the interrelatedness of organisations, their goals and their constituent members b) the content and quality of the training intervention. Hence, Joyce calls for a broader definition of training that "captures the essentials of the training process, as it is actually carried out'.

Brethower and Rummler (1979: 16) and Warren (1969: 15) Burack and Smith (1977: 223) fosters a system view of training and advocates, thus positioning training as a subsystem within the larger system of the organisation.

Warren (1969: 7) postulates that "what makes a training subsystem valuable is its ability to bring about required behaviour change in terms of skills, knowledge and attitudes, not the number of programmes it runs or its ability to utilize the newest technical advances in the field of education". Therefore, the deficiency detected in Goslin's definition is made up for in Warren's consideration of training. He also draws attention to the fact that training function must be differentiated from that of its operation, it is the function which is to be viewed as a subsystem that is to bring about planned behaviour change within the organisation whereby training operation is merely a mechanical means to get the training function going. Warren insightfully attributes many of the training failures to achieve optimal results to the fact that organisations, more often than not develop a training organisational unit without equally developing training function; he also calls for criteria measure in determining desired behaviour job related changes attributed to training operation. A view shared by Burack and Smith (1977: 123) who postulate that, 'effective training must be closely tied to the job responsibilities and should include the skillful analysis of human resources needs and proper methods for bringing about controlled behaviour change."

In the system approach, the training function is conceptualised to fit into the rest of the organisation and that training process would follow a sequence of stages listed as follows:

a) determining training needs.

b) choice of approaches most appropriate to impart the type of training contents.

c) objective definition of the training intervention.

d) a training programme to be developed.

e) selection of trainees whose needs are more pressing.

f) launch the training.

g) and towards the end, the need to determine whether objectives were met.

Nevertheless, the system approach to training was subjected to further critical scrutiny and it was suggested that there were few drawbacks stemming from the above sequence of events (Brown, 1966; Crawford, 1962; Odiorne, 1965) reported by Campbell et al (1970: 267) to be identified as follows:

1. the determination of training needs are seen not to be sufficient and that the goals of the entire organisation must precede to establish whether training needs are relevant.

2. the steps mentioned up connotes that a training programme does have a beginning and an end points and upon its satisfactory completion a decision can be reached as to the objective attainment which isn't the case as critics say; training according to cybernetics model is a continuous process with a continuous feedback loop.

3. establishing that a programme has met its stated objectives is not possible to measure in any degree of certainty at any point of time.

4. the traditional conceptualisation of the system approach is not aware of the fact that a given organisations' training programme in the shape of knowledge, skills or attitudes interacts with the outputs of other programmes conducted by the organisation.

Yet, still the system theory approach to training offers a broader concept of training within the overall organisational system and conceives the role of training within the human resources development process of the whole system. Training being an investment in human resources, is a departure point that we intend not to labour out, but the fact that such an investment, like the ones in education and other forms of human resources, development, the returns of which are neither crystal clear, nor easily traceable, yet as an investment, training should bear fruit and eventually compete with other forms of investment within the organisation by applying all possible criterion measurement to prove the validity of training costs. Keeling expresses scepticism (1972) on the point of potential difficulties, in proving the return of many management training activities in any degree of certainty, he says:

> For training, including much management training, the return over say one to ten years is difficult to identify and impossible to quantify. In those fields training has to rest on some degree on faith - which is unfortunate - for investment and faith are uncomfortable if not unknown bedfellows (Keeling 1972:16).

4.3 Training Education and Development

Training, education and development crop up at times interchangeably, at others complementary but are known to be rather distinct terms. In the following part, we will be exploring the rationale for such distinction.

The Glossary of Training, terms (1981) offers a valid starting point in its definition of education: it is referred to as 'activities which aim at developing knowledge, skills and moral

values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than a knowledge and skill relating to only a limited field of activity.' Whareas on the other hand, and in the organisation context the Glossary defines development as 'the growth, or realisation of a person's ability, through conscious or unconscious learning". Understandably, distinguishing between the two concepts within the organisation context is neither straight-forward nor possible as the two terms strongly overlap. For Kenney and Reid (1986: 3) both education and training are concerned with promoting and guiding learning and assisting in the accomplishment of goals that would enable the individual to apply his learning in job related settings.

A number of writers have made such distinction between education and training in relation to what both activities are assigned to achieve (Hamblin 1974; Nadler 1980; Parry and Robinson, 1979) Hamblin looks at training as being job-specific and thus concerns itself with the specified requirements of job related enhanced performance, whereas education is perceived to embrace more general knowledge as well as understanding of the environment which is assigned to formal schooling system where individuals are oriented in a broader developmental fashion to assist them in the adjustment and coping process with the environment which is, in turn, conducive to the betterment and advancement of the society at large. Beach (1975), also conceives such a distinction insofar as their ultimate purpose is concerned. For him, education is not geared to teaching specific skills nor does it prepare individuals to befit a particular profession where as training on the other hand, is 'the organised procedure by which people learn knowledge and/or skill for a definite purpose. Nadler (1971; 1980) points out the wider scope of education

and refers to it as 'almost all human resources development activities which are designed to improve the overall competence of the employee in a specific direction and even beyond the presently held job'.

Hamblin (1974: 7) nurtures the notion that the immediate objective of training is primarily learning, which is an activity every individual is indulged and involved into doing whether intentionally or otherwise. Hence, any boundaries between the two is seen to be blurry and artificial. This stance is further supported by This and Lippit (1966: 2) who consider the attempts to distinguish between training and education as futile, inconsistent and as 'petty inasmuch as both are concerned with the process of human learning'.

Berelson and Steiner (1964) quoted by This and Lippit (1966) define learning as 'changes in behaviour that result from previous behaviour in similar situations. Mostly, but by no means always, behaviour also becomes demonstrably more effective and more adaptive after the exercise than it was before'. For Bass and Vaughan (1966), the theme of learning is again emphasised in any training situation where the initial objective is seen to be influencing behaviour to initiate behaviour changes necessary for a better performance.

Kenney and Reid (1986: 7) consider differences between training and education being more than 'academic' or 'semantic' and caution against confusion or misconceptions of what the two terms might mean, operationally speaking. In sum, they see the differences stemming from a) the degree to which their objectives could be specified in behavioural terms b) in the time normally needed to achieve these

objectives c) methods of learning d) material content involved and finally e) the context in which learning materials are used.

Pertaining to development, Campbell et al (1970; 233) acknowledge the existence of such distinction on the grounds of either the subject matter involved or the organisational level from which the participants are drawn. It is suggested that, in the former case training is normally associated with somehow specific, factual and narrow-range content whereas development refers to emphasis on general decision making process and human relation skills. In relation to the other distinction, development is basically concerned with activities rendered for middle and upper management. However, the writers effectively disregard the differences between the two terms in relation to management as both functions are planned initiated after the individual joined the service and involves learning geared towards enhanced performance. On the other hand Hacon (1961: 32) conclusively confirms the fact that, 'Training should not be thought of as always remedial; far from it, much of training and all of education is developmental'.

4.4 Management Training, Education and Development

Having gone through the distinction exhibited by the literature in relation to training in general, it would now seem appropraite to project such distinction amongst the three terms within management training context. However, bringing forth such distinction is not done for the purpose of drawing borderlines, because there are none; the three terms many a times are used interchangeably in management training literature, after all, they are, irrespective of semantic differences, considered to be forms of developmental planned

activities that aim ultimately at improving the overall effectiveness of the individual within the organisational context with the emphasis being placed either upon the managers themselves, or their profession or their organisation. Nevertheless such emphasis was manifest across boundaries, in the form of the given orientation of the organisation be it private or public, or for that matter, across hierarchical structure.

The distinction between the three terms is forseeable in the light of the specific objectives and methodologies employed in any of these activities (Hawrylyshyn 1983). Management education thus aims at, 'developing a broad range of abilities, based on appropriate knowledge, attitude and skills to enable managers to cope with a large variety of tasks often ill-defined, in a large variety of organisationl or situational contexts', hence it is neither task nor organisation specific and would understandbly take longer time to achieve and more importantly it is conducted externally and prior to service entry.

As for management training, the objectives are seen to be associated with the development of job-specific skills that are conceived to be immediately useful with the intention to prepare either the managers themselves or managers to be to perform specified tasks in a reasonably well-defined job context. On the other hand, management development, a widely debatable issue, is conceived to be potentially confusing on both theoretical and practical grounds (Ashton and Smith 1979). Much of the confusion stems from frequent failure to identify the different perspectives within which management development is expected to operate on the one hand, and

failure to differentiate between structural perspectives and process perspectives of management development on the other.

Ashton and Smith (1979: 4) postulate that the ideal objective of management development, 'is to ensure that managerial and equivalent professional specialists' positions are filled by capable suitably trained and motivated employees, according to the needs of the organisation, and that the best use is made of the experience and ability available to enable individuals to find satisfaction in their work and achieve a realistic career ambition'. Management development involves primarily, learning through experience and on-the-job.

With the major emphasis of many management, training, education and development activities on indivuduals, managers apply their newly acquired skills, knowledge and attitudes within the organisational context and system and this would involve and affect other people. This has given rise to the problem of training or learning transfer which brought forth yet a broader term coined as 'organisation development'. With the focus on the behaviour aspects, organisation development 'aim at improving relationship, communication, effective team functioning, changes in the managerial styles, etc., rather than emphasising the learning of new quantitative techniques and new scientific procedures in management. (Hawrylyshyn 1983)

4.4.1 Choosing Training and Educational Objectives

Since there is no such thing as a unified conventional theory of management, it is therefore conceivably necessary to furnish a variety of methods whereby training programmes are designed on the basis of equally varied educational models. Hawrylyshyn (1983: 246) has introduced the general features of three main approaches that

determines the shape (including content and objectives) of the training models; they are: school of thought, survey of needs and analysis of tasks' approaches. Henceforth is a condensed description of them:

a. School of thought: three varied interpretations to what management is about are pretty distinct; they are: the pragmatic, the behavioural and the most recent, the mathematical.

a.1 In the pragmatic orientation of management, what matters most about management are results. Therefore, the key factor for managers would be decision making and sound judgement developed through experience which in turn influence the educational model whose emphasis would be on exposing programme participants to a wide variety of situations.

a.2 The behavioural orientation, which is more recent, conceives management to be concerned with getting things done with and through other people. The key role, hence in this model would emphasise the acquisition of human, interpersonal and motivational skills which can be acquired through both experience and a variety of intended pre-planned training interventions, including sensitivity and group dynamic trainings.

a.3 The mathematical orientation, in historical terms; it is the most recent and it identifies the key role in sound management to be that of making rational and logical decision assisted by mathetmatical and quantitative skills and computer assisted models. Such skills can hardly be acquired through experience hence heavy reliance on quantitative techniques and the

application of computer simulations and model building.

b. The 'survey of needs' approach, this is when the programme
    objectives are basically influenced if not fully determined by
    the needs assessment results arrived at through the analysis
    of performance standards, the individual as well as the
    organisation.

c. Analysis of Task approach, where the basic assumption is that,
    needs vary considerably in accordance to the nature of the
    responsibilties and tasks performed by the targeted managers
    and that is understood to be determined very much by the
    latters' location in the hierarchy. In the training circles,
    generalisations have been made in relation to varying
    composition of skills required as managers progress in the
    hierarchy. It has been assumed that there are at least three
    areas of skills necessary for carrying out the functions of
    management; they are technical, human and conceptual skills
    (Hersey and Blanchard 1972).

c.2 Conceptual skills refers to the ability to understand the
    given complexities of the entire organisation. Such knowledge
    would enable the performer to act in the light of the
    organisation's ultimate objectives rather than that of his
    immediate group of reference.

c.3 Human skills in relation to the capability and exercise of
    judgement in getting things done through and with people
    through effective and motivating leadership.

It is argued that a proper mix of the above different skills varies
considerably as a person moves up in the hierarchy. Less technical
skills would then, be required to perform effectively as one

progresses. The common area of skills required by different levels of supervision would be that of human skills which is seen to be equally needed regardless of the 'individuals' location in the hierarchy.

Hawrylyshyn further argues, that given the present state of knowledge of management and management education, what seems to be bearing more emphasis in determining the final design of a programme, is what can be taught as opposed to what ought to be taught. Hence, in the pursuit of planning training interventions for managers, development and training specialists will have to deal with a set of whole new challenges. Besides the techniques to be employed, they ought to reach out beyond the classical rating of performance exercise on basic management functions, and should become aware of what really constitutes effective management behaviour as well as how the structure and values of any given organisation would influence a manager's performance (Wessman: 1975).

4.5 What do managers do?

The dilemma that poses the most serious challenges to both academics and practitioners is that there is no universal all-encompassing theory that would specifically define what a manager really does and what really determines effective managerial behaviour. Trying to do just that has proved to be evermore elusive.

Peter Drucker (1954: 350) pondered on the question rather philosophically; he said:

> 'who is a manager can be defined only by a man's function and the contribution he is expected to make. And the function which distinguishes the manager above all others is his educational one.The one contribution his is uniquely expected to make is to give others vision and ability to perform. It is vision and moral responsibilities that, in the last analysis, define the manager.'

Drucker's definition 'insightful and rich may be, yet offers little help by which a manager's role or his potential and prospective effectiveness can be established in any degree of certainty. Campbell et al (1970: 6) points out that determinants and predictors of managerial effectiveness are not as yet, universally identified and whatever is available lacks empirically established evidence. Describing a managers job in any unified consistent manner is yet another difficulty. Such difficulties stem from the fact that managerial job changes so much from one working setting into another. Campbell et al (1970) traces those changes along three dimensions:

1) changes determined by time (preparing his organisation's annual budget, a manager will have a different set of obligations, than another situation or assignment).

2) person-determined changes, whereby managers, have a wider frame of responsibility have to resort to their personal discretion as to how best resources can be used.

3) situation-determined changes. It is, therefore, explicitly difficult to define even in close approximation, managerial behaviour, tabulate them, specify the methods employed to arrive at the objectives specified by the job.

In her remarkable contribution, Stewart (1967) has published an analysis of a month-long diaries kept by a sample of 160 middle and senior managers in a braod variety of jobs in different industries. In contrast to Mintzberg, she projected similarities and differences of managerial work patterns realising that, hitherto, much attention was being placed at the common aspects while little or no consideration was given to managerial differences. In subsequent work

published in 1976, Stewart emphatically pointed out, that managers in different jobs, have different demands. She then argued that, in relation to training, excessive emphasis have unduly been placed on areas of similarities. Contrary to what was widely believed in training circles of the need to analytic and strategic approaches in management training interventions, have had, in reality, little value within the context of managerial jobs since Stewarts findings revealed that managers' job was characterised by fragmentation and responsiveness to crisis where little time is actually left to undertake any analytical activity.

Basic characteristics of managerial job reflected in the literature can be projected as follows:

(a)   uniqueness, no two managers are alike, uniqueness stems from size, the pervalent management style, nature of job, the personality and individual approach of job holders, length of service, environmental constraints. The managers job in particular is strongly influenced by these variables. Hence the uniqueness of every individual manager in relation to his/her training and development requirements.

(b)   a manager's work is varied and can change in content as well as in emphasis over a relatively short period of time. The training implication of this is far too obvious and any training plan addressing managers needs should incorporate these dynamic elements and changing nature of managerial task. Work fragmentation; as identified in Stewart's findings calls for special consideration in designing a training intervention.

(c) Interpersonal skills, Stewart's studies showed that managers have spent on average two-thirds of their working day with other

people hence the particular emphasis on human relation and interpersonal skills in the training context.

(d) The experience factor, due to the fact that managerial jobs are unique and complex, therefore it is widely believed that managers growth and competence is enhanced through experience. In order for the manager to benefit from any learning experience it will have to be relevant to the job context, in line with his expectation and encompasses the constraints imposed by the working environment. Fiedler, (1967) emphasises the need to know more about the manager's job, he points to the 'need to learn more about the critical requirements of managerial job, develop methods for observing and systematically recording managers' job behaviour, discover the best individual and organisational predictors of effective managing, and learn which training and development methods are most likely to yield desired modifications in managers' behaviour'.

Hawrylyshyn (1983) has presented what he calls, an integrative model of management education where the limitation, of a model is made up for and complimented by the other. He postulates maturity in management related disciplines displayed in recent decades. The thought process conducive to the model follows this line: that management, in essence is to do with the effective and efficient manipulation of resources for the purpose of realising desirable ends which is only made possible by the appropriate acquisition of knowledge attitudes and skills. Knowledge has to do with facts, experience and inter-relationships and the capability to well orchestrate different elements and if is rooted in one's intellect. Attitude has to do with our predisposition to act in a predictable

fashion and they are emotionally rooted. Skills on the other hand, have to do with our ability of doing things, and using the knowledge at our disposal and mobilizing all God given personality resources for the purpose of accomplishing end results. Thus, the most instrumental blend of 'knowledge, attitudes and skills varies according to the nature of organisation and the level of responsibility or function'.

4.6 Management training in the public sector

Management training in the civil service and other public organisation has equally been subject to continuous debate on the grounds of what a manager does or does not in the public sector and whether or not those functions really differ from those of his counterpart in the private sector.

A guide for British Civil Service, published by the UK Civil Service Department for new managers identified four inter-related tasks to be that of planning, organising, motivating and controlling. Gunn (1977: 10) postulates that what determines the managerial stance in the Civil Service is the resources put at one's disposal. For him, "every one is a manager who takes responsibility for managing his own time and determining his own priorities' or more specifically 'is the extent to which he is responsible for managing resources other than his own energies'.

4.6.1 Public Administrations

With no intention to introduce another degree of complication, the term public administration needs to be clarified in relation to management training so as to establish a valid unified frame of

reference and to avoid semantic discrepancies. True, there could be no such small concise sentence that sums up the meaning of the two words, since there is no universally accepted one. Yet, administration for the purpose of our analysis could be used synonymously and interchangeably with management. Reilly (1977: 5) points out that the tendency in the British usage of the terms, to associate administration more with the government whereas management is often used in the profit-oriented organisation, in the private sector. Public administration is concerned then with administration in government as opposed to a private business, and in this sense, it does display a set of differentiating characteristics than that of a privately dominated one. (Reilly 1977) a) in the first place, it is concerned with all aspects of government in relation with its three branches, executive, legislative and judicial, b) it functions at all levels, for the humble modest routine ones to the highest levels in a government, c) the key function is that of its role in policy formulation and hence it is part of political process, d) the greater part of public administration would be that of involvement in the implementation of policy and in the initiation and later maintenance of the administrative apparatus and the system to perform the task of policy implementation, e) the administrative system in the public sector is part and parcel of a much larger system, political, social as well as economical. It is a system that shares common regulations governing pay, terms of public service, leave, pension fringe benefits, discipline, code of ethics and conventions guiding the behaviour and conduct of public employees.

The implication of such areas of distinction is all too clear in relation to training, along both dimensions, objectives as well as

contents. Is it not the case that the training function should to a great degree, reflect organisational goals allied to that is the fact that when organisation goals are tacit or rather uncertain, training intervention would logically follow suit? Urging to build up a sense of mission, Self (1977: 21) suggests the elements that would help create a sense of mission in the training programme.

1) a clear conception of the role and function of central government (i.e. a general view of what central government ought and ought not to be doing in line with politically accepted conventions.

2) a certain degree of coherent intellectual understanding of the general knowledge and skills mostly needed to discharge the public duty.

3) a system of incentives and disciplinery penalities that makes

training matter in terms of career development and promotion.

While fully meeting these conditions has been difficult to satisfy in self's view, he equally points out many drawbacks stemming from the absence of sense of mission in training. He notices, in comparison to the French Civil Service, that the latters', rank higher than their British counterparts on all the three elements mentioned above, whereas the American model, which has so much in common with the British, is known to:

a) share highly pragmatics and politically dependent view of government activity.

b) education and training for government is mainly an issue of the acquisition of professional skills that is relevant both inside and outside the government service.

c) career incentives depend extremely little on internal training

programmes.

In his assessment of British Civil Service Central training, Self further postulates that 'there has been much attention attached to the value of imbuing all administrators with a certain type of managerial background, and too little to assisting civil servants to cope with complex mixtures of problems - involving policy-making, implementation, organisation, social and political relations, and the evaluation of results'. Such an assessment though in a given context, has to a certain degree worldwide generalisations. In the next paragraphs, some issues associated with training in less developing countries will be briefly touched upon.

4.6.2 Training for public administration in less developing countries

Peter Drucker's (1969) perceptive conclusion about the nature of the problems pertaining to underdevelopment to be that of undermanagement seems an adequate start in this regard. A UN published report in 1983 concedes that, the most complex issues of development are not technical and financial choices, but institutional issues involving people (UN, 1983). Early on, and during the fiftees a working group of UN sponsored experts were assigned to assess administration-related concerns in the developing nations. In conclusion their report has outrightly confirmed that training of public administrators must take an immediate priority. One of the basic obstacles impeding development in the newly independent nations, then was understandably known to be an acute shortage of qualified manpower to meet the growing demands of the public as well as to run the ever-expanding public services.

The lack of those very management capabilities are still indeed, more than three decades later, a pressing priority.

Reilly ·(1987: 25-42) has contemplated little progress in actual performance despite the dramatic increase in public administration and management training in the past two decades. Ironically it is even claimed that, managerial capability may have actually declined (Gettinger, 1984, Makharita, 1985; Kubr and Wallace, 1983; Ozgediz, 1983; Reilly, 1987). In his assessment of training efforts, Reilly attributes those failures to the inhibitions and deliberate reluctance on the part of politicians and political elite. Among other reasons, the writer attributes paucity of managerial skills to a) unprecedented massive as well as rapid expansion of the public sector via the increases in development programmes, b) a general tendency to put emphasis on other forms of technical as well as professional education training rather than administration and management; c) the brain drain to the private sector, d) and the inability of the present practices in the areas of administration and management training to produce capable managers.

Selcuk Ozgediz, quoted in Reilly's article, (1987) claims that a far smaller proportion of public senior managers througbout the developing world receive training than those in the industrial countries (Ozgediz, 1983: 39). In most developing nations, training has been reported to suffer from the following ailments:

1) Training is, more often than not treated as a discreet incident.

2) Trainees are rarely selected on the basis of true needs.

3) Professional trainers are reported to be rare.

4) Training curriculum and content are based on either westernised or easternised rarely up-dated models.

5) Traditional classroom-based academic-style teaching practices still   dominate .

6) The lack of proper and systematic evaluation whereas present

practices suffice with the reaction level and assessment of

happiness data.

7) Many of the training institutes, are poorly financed and

poorly managed (Ozgediz, 1983: 31).

Sanwal (1988: 331) notices disagreement upon scrutiny into

relevant literature in relation to the most suitable training model

appropriate to the needs of developing countries. He identified

marked emphasis either on, the issue of management of training

institutes (Paul, 1983) instructional methodology (World Bank 1983)

or training technology (Nef and Dwivedi, 1985) as the known adequate

forms of training interventions. Sanwal, then reports three issues

emerging based on his own experience in training administrators in

India; the issues are;

a) that although the commitment of both politicians and bureaucrats

is a   requisite but they are by no means sufficient since effective

training is simply not a function of increased training programmes

(quality versus quantity).

b) emphasis needsbe placed on the need for development paradigm shift

and its direct bearing on training interventions;

c) there seem to be inconsistencies between the government training

needs and the actual training provided by institutions.

In relation to designs, the writer cautions against transplanting

imported prescriptions from management literature not without due

consideration to the local requisites, and calls for more clarity in

specifying the ultimate objectives of formal training if

effectiveness is sought, he says, 'For formal training to be effective, clarity in the requirements for performance on the job, a task orientation in the work and a linkage with personnel policies are essential. Training programmes need to be seen as part of an integrated approach to development' (Sanwal: 335).

Mutahaba (1986) concedes the active contribution training can play in the quest for effective organisations. Tyagi (1975: 160) in his theoretical postulate, confirms that the poor performance of public administration in the third world countries, continues to be in a great measure, a function of the neglect of training and development of personnel.

In recognition of the vital importance of enhancing administrative capabilities and increasing the number of individuals, training institutions were established and resources were allocated and external exprtise were summoned as part of internationally positioned agencies to launch massive campaign in training the civil servants; partly to meet the post colonial administrative challenges and partly to accelerate the process of indiginisation of the government apparatus as well as the drive for competent handling of the process of provision of services to the general public.

Mutahaba (1986) concedes that training and development of public service employees is accepted to be a major contribution to better organisational performance. Much of the training efforts in the third world has been directed at junior, supervisory and middle level personnel whereas top personnel were presumed to be above training. The major constraint in most countries is recognised to be the lack of facilities and trainers able to handle senior personnel. In more

than 20, six week training courses addressing top public executives in Tanzania, it appeared that training can be made popular and interest can be reactivated although there was no evidence to suggest that training did result in improved performance apart from few noticed innovations. (Mutahaba; 1986)

Wu (1971: 12) in his assessment of nearly two decades of training practices in developing countries calls for a proper reconsideration of the past experience and recommends few crucial lessons to be derived and assimilated if effective result-oriented training is to be realised. He calls for a proper future strategy for training to be fostered if better results are sought. Such strategy ought to consider the past experience, its pitfalls; the good, the bad and the ugly; paramount, is the lesson to be learned of basing training as much as accurate as possible on actual needs, not only on the micro (organisation or sectorial levels) but within the national educational manpower development and economical context and that programmes' objectives in turn, need to be properly and behaviourally defined and addressed in the need identification context. The next consideration is to enable public servants to operate within the legal and political given constraints in the country; the third element should accommodate the real need of a public servant for decision-making competence; the fourth is to orient the public servant to his change-agent role in a society of high expectations. The pace of changes occurring in these countries until the year 2000 would call for 'new approaches to the organisational procedural and other administrative problems, new attitudes and methods for public administration, and new organisation or machinery to facilitate and bring about necessary and desired changes'. The fifth consideration

is the need to avoid dispersed approaches to public administration problems and the need to place emphasis on the 'holistic view and inter-disciplinary approach' in handling these problems. While the need for specialist type of administrators escalates, there is, still growing demand for the generalist, though properly trained and continuously kept abreast with the up-to-date development in the field of management and administration. Wu calls for recognition of the need to incorporate also specialised knowledge when and where the need arises in the training context.

Summary

The earlier part of the chapter has tried to associate training on definitional grounds, to a basic training philosophy in the organisational context. Distinction, though far from being clear cut was made amongst the terms training, education and development. Based upon such an exploration management training (and other forms of supervisory training was the area to explore and relate to the earlier bit; issues pertaining to the differences, and areas of discrepancies in the context of what does a manager do and what, consequently determines his/her effectiveness and the repurcussions all those issues have had in relation to the training context were introduced. A further dimension was explored of management training and that is in the public sector context with emphasis on public administration training endeavours in less developing countries so as to base training in the proper* context in less developing countries.

CHAPTER FIVE

TRAINING EVALUATION: LITERATURE REVIEW

5.1 Introduction

In the theoretical pursuit, this chapter is intended to further link-up evaluation literature with that of training introduced earlier. Therefore, it is basically meant to be a review of evaluation literature being distinct and hence, forming a stream of its own although within the training context. Therefore, the proper start was conceived to be the introduction of the concept of evaluation in relation to training, and the functional differences ensuing the initial concept, and the criteria conceived to determine the suitability of the evaluation exercise. The concept of validity of training evaluation is examined in the next stage with emphasis on current trends apparent in the literature. The different available techniques employed to conduct evaluation were introduced in order that one familiarises oneself with the current state of art. Then, evaluation designs were assessed with the purpose of exposing disparities commensurate to different paradigms of thoughts exhibited in the literature; this has led into tracing evaluation research and finally the present trends apparent in the paradigm shift in evaluation literature.

5.2 Evaluation defined

It would befit our purpose to project the issues and dimensions projected by different given definitions of training evaluation that would probably enlighten the ensuing discussion and help us zooming in into the relevant literature.

In the Glossary of training terms issued by the United Kingdom Department of Employment (1971), evaluation was given to mean:

> 'the assessment of the total value of a training system, training course, or programme in social as well as financial terms'.

It is emphasised, therefore, that it is an intended preplanned assessment of both social as well as cost-effectiveness in relation to the programme objectives being realised as a core theme in the pursuit of evaluation, it goes on to say that:

> 'Evaluation research refers to the procedure to determine the degree to which a training achieves its specific results, both intended and unintended and to determine what elements in the situation or in the methods used hamper or foster the purpose of training.'

Such concept in totality was vigorously endorsed and supported further by Hamblin (1974) who, besides stressing the merit of value worthiness as a major decisive factor in the evaluation process; moreover he referred to a set of criterion by which value can be assessed. For Hamblin, the major thrust in the whole process would be not solely value worthiness, but more emphatically, the process of obtaining data as well as relevant information for later analysis whose findings would in turn form the basis for final assessment. The discovery nature of evaluation is hence stressed. Value worthiness and the data collection process as two determinant criterion for the evaluation process is further emphasised by Robinson (1981) who would conceive it additionally as an inbuilt system within the organisation whose findings, in relation to a given training intervention would ultimately specify how worthwhile

training is in respect to the total benefits accrued from it by the organisation. McGehee and Thayer (1961) consider evaluation to be twofold: determining whether the outcomes of the training procedures considered would end in achieving the desired modification of the trainees behaviour once he/she is back to work and whether training has had any manifest achievement in relation to the organisation's overall goal accomplishment. They, hence, carry the evaluation function a step further in clarifying Robinson's notion of value worthiness. The on-going process of data collecting and information gathering process is seen to be a major mission for the evaluation process. Such process, on its own, does not necessarily tell the quality or merits of a training intervention. It does however, upon scrutiny and via processing cycle assist in telling areas of success and/or failures provided resorting to multiple as well as reliable contamination-free criterion. In Goldstein's words (1974) evalauation, 'must be treated as one part of a long term systematic approach to the development of effective programmes'. Failure to do so would distort the feedback process and would lead to misleadingly emotional rather than rational decisions with respect to programme improvement. A more general concept of evaluation process is conceived to be functionally sufficient for Cowell (1972). In his assessment of management courses, the broader concept of evaluation as an information gathering and data collection exercise to assess the value of a given training was endorsed. He refers to evaluation to be concerned with both anticipated and unanticipated, desirable and undesirable outcomes. A similar concept is fostered by Meigniez et al.(1963) who would, not only stress the concept of value but also assess the nature of the resultant changes. Berger and Berger (1972)

spoke of an 'interim evaluation' that is associated with the way of course improvement and setting forth post training phase in the search of assessment of degrees of success and/or failure in the areas of learning transfer. Kane (1976) works on Scriven's (1967) concept of summative versus formative dichotomy of evaluation, in his words, 'summative evaluation have the objective of furnishing a basis for making a "go/no-go" decisions while formative evaluation endeavours to establish the contribution of any or all of a programme's components to its effectiveness'. Scriven (1967) in his 'Methodology of Evaluation' has enshouldered evaluators with the task of passing judgements. His position is that there is 'no evaluation until judgement has been passed'. Stake (1967) in retrospect forsees future difficulties in relation to possible cooperation or accessibility to data, if the evaluator is identified 'with passing judgements; with the discrimination among poorer and better programmes, and with the awarding of support and censure, their access to data would probably diminish'.

5.3 Criteria development

In the context of training evaluation a major problem would demonstrabely be the identification and measurement of relevant criteria for evaluating or assessing behaviour or performance. Useful research in relation to criterion development is provided by Goldstein (1974) and Landy and Trunbo (1976). Their review reported in Torrington and Chapman (1979) has identified trouble spots alternatives and areas of requirements to be satisfied by criteria. Goldstein (1974: 15) rightfully postulates that, 'The most carefully designed study, employing all the sophisticated methodology that can

be mustered, will stand or fall on the basis of the adequacy of the
criteria chosen, where as Kane (1976: 46) confirms that, 'it is an
inescapable fact that an evaluation can be no more sound than the
criteria it employs'. Criteria chosen should have the following
features:

a) Relevance; care should be taken that in essence the criteria
chosen for evaluation has to be a relevant measure of
efficiency. Goldstein says that relevance is, 'the relationship
between the operational measures (criteria) and the true values
that will hopefully be represented' he asserts that,
'the chosen criteria are judged relevant to the degree that
components required to succeed in training are the same as
those required to succeed in the ultimate task'
hence, 'relevance is the fundamental requirement that transcends
all other considerations related to criterion development
(Goldstein, 1974: 58)

b) Acceptability; there need to be some sort of consensus amongst
different groups employing the criterion.

c) Measurable; criteria selected for evaluation purpose has to
yield a sound effecient and capable measure.

d) Contamination-free; naturally the criteria to be selected will
have to provide information with all possible freedom of bias
by factors outside individual control. The concept of
contamination refers to the, '...extraneous elements present in
the actual criterion that are part of the ultimate criterion'
the concept refers to bias, irrelevancy as well as invalidity.

e) Reliability; all measures need to be, in entirety, closely
consistent in relation to situational needs and other temporal

and measure variation. (Goldstein, 1974: 55)

For Campbell et al (1970: 271), criteria selection is basically done for the purpose of answering two questions in relation to the information about training effects, the questions to be answered are: what kind of information on training effects we can get and how should we go about getting it.

To answer the first question, relevant literature would emphasise that criteria selected should provide sufficiently accurate information about training effects in the light of their relative merit. Odiorne (1964) is strictly on the side of establishing the economic value of training as a sole basis of judgement of fit. His arguments narrows down the objectives of any training intervention to manifest contribution of the organisations goal accomplishment, otherwise a decision not to launch the training is the only plausible option. He eloquently elaborates: 'Training in the modern corporation can't be economically conducted on a basis of casual, chaotic or sporadic activity. The basic purposes of training must meet these requirements:

1. It is based on a unified concept of economic contribution to the objectives of the company.
2. It is rooted in the management process, and isn't an additional or peripheral function, but a way of getting a job done.
3. It makes measurable contribution to the organisations' goals.'

On the other hand, Mahler (1953) has endorsed a somehow different view; he puts forward the argument that if training is to be launched solely on the basis of economic contribution then evaluation itself is being over-emphasised. Mahler believes that it is just not

possible to embark upon the cost benefit criteria in relation to training intervention more so in the case of management and other related training. Campbell et al (1970), confirm , and endorse Mahlers point that applying the worthiness of training in cost accounting terms is probably not always possible and call for search of 'fruitful middle grounds'. To serve that end, criteria selection should come along three dimensions:

1. What types of information are gathered.

2. From which individuals or organisational units is the criterion information obtained and,

3. At what point in time, relative to the actual training session are the data gathered.

5.3.1 Criterion information

Classical types of criterion measures in use would be the reactions of different interested parties, questionnaire measures aiming at detecting attitude change, objective assessment of whether or not a trainee has learned what the training programme was aiming to teach and other measures that strives to detect training related changes on the job. Odiorne (1965) embraces the notion that criteria should vary depending on the level of manager being trained. Martin (1957) upon considering several possible criteria for training evaluation suggested grouping them into two categories, internal and external. He describes internal criteria as those directly linked to the activities of the training programme to establish whether a trainee has learned what the given programme intended to teach while external criteria would refer to the measures designed to detect job

related behaviour within the organisational setting. To Campbell et al.(1970), both criteria are seen essential if meaningful conclusions are to be drawn in relation to training evaluation.

a. Who provides criterion information

Central to the information gathering process are the trainees themselves, however it is equally important to explore further relevant audiences, planners of the training intervention, the trainers and training organisors, trainees superiors, peers and immediate subordinates. The work of Buchanan (1957) and (Lindbom & Osterberg 1954) are explicit examples of how information gathered from individuals other than the employees themselves can be instrumental in assessing training related job-behavioural changes.

b. When is the information gathered

Information criteria gathered for the evaluation process has to be an ongoing process, specifically, before training starts, during the training, immediately upon the conclusion of the training and after the training has finished in a follow up fashion once the trainee is back to work to try to assess whether there has been any training transfer.

5.4 The concept of validity

Evaluation is taken to have a broader parameter in relation to its meaning and area of coverage than the term validation. In the training context, any thing which fulfills the required conditions for realizing the preplanned results is regarded valid. In Meigniez et al. (1961: 27) the assumption made is that 'to validate training is, therefore, at most, to recognise that it tends to achieve its

objectives, whereas evaluation attempts to bring to light even those changes which were not planned for through the training'.

Robinson (1981) confirms, in relation to the value worthiness of training intervention within the broader organisational concept, that, 'before such value be assessed, training has to be validated (i.e. to ascertain to what extent it has met the objectives and the needs of the trainees'. In his pursuit of validity within the context of programme evaluation, Goldstein (1974: 416) examines the concept of validity as described by Campbell and Stanley (1963: 7) as aiming at broadening the scope of evaluators investigation.

5.4.1 Internal versus external

Internal validity refers to the degree to which changes in performance can directly be attributed to the training programme itself. (Brown 1980) whereas external validity concerns itself with the possible generalisability of the results to similar training situation. Such functional distinction between the terms is brought forth by the Glossary of training terms issued by the Department of Employment. According to the Glossary, internal validation is concerned with the assessment of whether or not a training course was successful in teaching what it was set out to teach.

External validity concerns itself with the question whether or not programme objectives were realistically based upon training needs. Thus following the rationale of the two concepts, clearly it would appear to be impossible to establish external validity, if the internal validity of a training programme is not yet established. In

his insightful investigation, Goldstein (1979) tried to assess the variables whose affects would determine the establishment of internal and external validity for a training programme. Advocating broadening the scope of training designers as well as evaluators, Goldstein observes the need to introduce certain refinements to the concepts of internal and external validity. His refinements takes the following shape:

a. Training validity, in relation to the training programme validity is therefore 'determined by the performance of trainees on criteria established for the training programme'.

b. Performance validity examined through measures assessing the transfer of learning in job related setting, both training and performance validity are taken to be indicators of internal validity i.e. they indicate whether or not a training programme has made any difference.

c. Intra-organisational validity, the analysis at this stage is directed at the performance of a new group of trainees within the same organisation that developed the training. The analysis strives to predict the performance of new trainees based on the evaluation of a previous group.

d) Inter-organisational validity, refers to the analysis that is pursuing whether training validated in one organisation can well be utilized in another organisation.

Goldstein postulates that failure to comprehend the specific variables related to each of the above four categories would conclusively lead to programme inadequacy, hence the need to examine the relevant factors in each stage. Training validity is sought

through examining the performance in the instructional programme where no consideration would be made at this stage for transfer performance. Goldstein argues that the vast majority of instructional programmes accommodates only training performance as opposed to transfer performance. He notices that there are programmes that are basically designed to achieve training validity viz. management courses whose needs assessment is not job specific; and academically oriented courses, and some training programmes that provide research vehicle.

Together with a comprehensive needs assessment, the evaluation process has to be part of a 'long term systematic approach to the development of effective programmes'. Understanding is the third factor that warrants recognition in search for training validity, Goldstein has found that reseachers like himself, Campbell (1974); Cronbach (1973) have expressed concern at the inadequate state of understanding in relation to the training process that would influence or for that matter determine, the outcome. Goldstein observes that 'the use of process measures would furnish a myriad of unanticipated outcomes'.

In relation to performance validity, Goldstein notices the additional burden of 'determining if performance has been transferred in a positive fashion from the training programme into the work setting. Serious considerations need to be made in search of answers that certainly go beyond the task analysis. One factor to be considered is the extent the need analysis should cover not only to estbalish learning objectives but also in relation to transfer

performance. The point of emphasis in this respect, that 'need assessment procedure must, at a minimum consider the tasks from the point of view of their importance, frequency of occurrence and difficulty of learning'. Another dimension of the needs assessment process should address itself to organisational analysis which refers to the scrutiny process of different facets of an organisation in search for possible constraints that may enhance or inhibit learning transfer. It would involve an expedition into the organisations goals, resources, environmental constraints and other relevant issues.

In relation to the organisational context of the needs assessment process, Goldstein confirms that a number of training programmes were judged to be failures upon failing to recognise organisational constraints. A point strongly shared by Baynes (1975) who conceives five interdependent variables in management training process which are a) the new behaviour required, b) trainees work invironment,c) the trainee himself,d) the lesson that he experiences and finally, e) the trainer.

Goldstein emphasises the hierarchical nature of his four stages of validity. In relation to Intra-organisational validity, the assumption is that the analyst has already established training and performance validity in anticipation to a new group of trainees. Given the definition of training evaluation as 'an information gathering process which provides feedback about the multiple objectives of most training programmes' three considerations need to be made before venturing the generalisation of the results:

a) If need assessment processes in the broader perspectives were not carried out, updated if necessary, the generalisation process would therefore be dangerous.

b) The second consideration is the adequacy and competence of the evaluation process.

c) Whether or not the training programme is to remain unchanged. Goldstein refers to what he calls 'problems of reactivity' and ponders upon the question of how most training analysts fail to grasp how different established training programmes tend to be from the original. He cautions against the aura of excitement which would inevitably wither away.

In the context of establishing inter-organisational validity Goldstein argues against easy short cuts in generalising programme results from one organisation to another given the complexities associated with the specifics of the training intervention in the previous organisation. Nevertheless, Goldstein is supportive to the tendency to 'borrow need assessment methodologies evaluation strategies and training techniques' in order to try them out.

Rice (1980) summarised the problems associated with the choice of criteria to be grouped in the following:

1) Inappropriate situational analysis conducive ultimately to inappropriate training design.

2) Measures that would exhibit the success of an instructional training programme but fail to relate those successes to job related performance improvement.

3) Measures that would tell of job related improvements that are not necessarily related to the training intervention

itself.

4) Choice of criteria simply for ease, convenience or as adequate measurement device rather than being related to the training situation itself.

With respect to the fourth problem, Goldstein quotes Wherry (1957) sarcastically contemplating:

> 'We don't know what we are doing, but we are doing it very carefully, and hope that you are pleased with our unintelligent diligence'.

5.5 Techniques of Evaluation

Admittedly, conducting evaluation in the scope specified in the definition given by the Department of Employment Glossary of training terms would be a task almost next to impossible, since assessment of the total value of training interventions with any degree of precision would, in practice be very much beyond reach. The general rather more realistc definition of evaluation furnished by Hamblin (1970) incorporates:

> 'Any attempt to obtain information on the effects of a training programme and to assess the value of the training in the light of that information'.

such an assessment specified in the given definition emphasises the fact that evaluation is a continuous process that begins before the training interventions and continues while training is being conducted and carries on upon the conclusion of the programme then follows the trainee to his work setting so as to assess whether or not training objectives were realised and for the purpose of introducing any needed improvement dependent on the feedback process. Hamblin (1974: 11) considers the practical middle grounds and

postulates: 'that evaluation is the art of the possible. The right

evaluation approach in any given situation is the one which is most

practicaly feasible and most practically useful'.

The purpose of the following part, then would be to discuss the types

of training evaluation techniques currently available in the

management training domain. Several typologies would therefore be

introduced.

5.5.1 The 'CIRO' concept

Warr, Bird and Rakham (1970) have introduced evaluaton to be

revolving around four levels; context, input, reactions and output or

(CIRO) in short.

    a. Context evaluation is concerned with information gathering

       process in relation to current operational context so as to

       determine training needs and objectives.

    b. Input evaluation refers to the information gathering process

       pertaining to the existing training resources in the quest of

       choosing between alternative 'inputs' to training.

    c. Reaction evaluation would accommodate information about

       'trainees' expressed current or subsequent reactions in order

       to introduce improvements to training.

    d. Outcome evaluation would seek information concerning the

       training programme's outcomes for the purpose of introducing

       improvements to any subsequent relevant training. Additionaly,

       the authors identified three levels of outcome evaluation in

       relation to their time relevance, immediate, intermediate and

       ultimate outcomes.

Warr, Bird and Rakham, acknowledging the scarcity of evaluation methods for use in management training cast additional light on the problems associated with supervisory and management training. They stress the fact that the very nature of management jobs creates problems for the evaluator over and above those which are encountered by other forms of evaluation. The authors consider the tendency by training administrators to introduce training recommendations from operative training into the field of management training as rather inappropriate and many a times irrelevant.

5.5.2 The Civil Service's four levels of evaluation

In a survey published by the UK Department of Civil Service in March 1977, evaluation was defined to be the process of obtaining information in the most economical and effective way in the quest of identifying as well as defining training needs and objectives and to select the training methods most appropriate for the needs and ultimately evaluate the results. In evaluating these results four levels were suggested. They are:

a. Reaction level which would involve obtaining information concerning the trainees opinions of the training subject for evaluation.

b. Learning level would therefore aim at establishing whether or not changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes addressed by the training programme have been achieved.

c. Job related behaviour level that aims at assessing any training related positive behavioural changes in the job setting as a result from the application of learning.

d. And finally, the organisation level where evaluation aims

at assessing the overall effectiveness of the given organisation as a result from changes of newly aquired behaviour.

The given four levels are seen as links in a chain of causes and effects which can be broken at any point. The report suggests that evaluation, in theory should be conducted at all levels although in practice it is suggested to be scarcely feasible. The evaluation process becomes progressively more difficult beyond the learning level while it would be virtually impossible to assess the precise effects of training on the organisation level. Evaluation related problems are also noticed to vary with given training method and the subsequent demands of each approach.

5.5.3 Kirkpatrick's four steps

Consistent with the previous levels of evaluation is the seminal work of Kirkpatrick (1975) in the area of techniques for evaluating training programmes. He identifies the evaluation process to fall into four steps: Reaction, Learning, Behaviour and Results.

a. Reaction; which is identified as the first step in the evaluation process. The purpose at this stage would then be to assess how programme attendants would feel about the programme. To evaluate effectively training authorities should begin by measuring how trainees feel about the programme subject to evaluation.

b. Learning; learning is conceived to be confined to the principles, facts and techniques passed over and acquired by the trainees. Understandably, it is more difficult to measure

learning in any form from measuring immediate reaction and thus a good deal of planning is seen necessary in the pursuit of assessment of learning.

c. Behaviour refers to changes in the behaviour of the trainee that has to do with the possible transfer of learning acquired in the training programme. To guard against misleading assumptions, measurement of job related behaviour improvement is indispensible if a more comprehensive evaluation is sought.

Kirkpatrick comments on the complications of such a procedure which calls upon special expertise and skills not often available to training directors - thus he recommends resorting to specialised outside assistance in this respect.

d. Results. The objectives of most training programmes can be specified in the ultimate results desired. Nevertheless care needs to be taken in relation to the difficulties associated with determining in any degree of certainty what results are specifically training related. Kirkpatrick considers progress at this level of evaluation to be slow.

5.5.4 System Theory Model of Training Evaluation

Brethower & Rummler (1979) examining the potentials of applying a system theory approach as a framework for conducting evaluation, have introduced further degrees of sophistication to the general system model to incorporate additional contingency factors in the evaluation process. Assessment of different modifications of the system-theory has lead them to an 'adaptive model for evaluation'. The basic assumptions of their model are: a) The training system is to be

considered as a subsystem of the entire organisation, b) four

prospective levels of evaluation are considered, the four levels are:

a) Whether or not and to what degree the trainees like their given

training.

b) Whether or not and to what extent trainees have learnt from the

training.

c) The extent to which, if ever, trainees use what they have

learnt (skills, knowledge and attitudes).

d) Finaly, whether or not their parent organisations have in effect

benefitted from their trainees newly acquired learning, skills

and raining related attitudinal changes.

The authors consider that an evaluator has the option to embark

upon his/her evaluation exercise at any one of the four given levels.

Nevertheless, there are basic considerations to be made at each level;

those considerations were listed in the form of questions and

interrogation, asked in an evaluation matrix. The authors departure

point is that most difficulties and differences encountering

evaluations in general stems from the fact that each would be

discussing evaluation from dimension-specific standpoint. They

exclaim that, 'When people can't agree on what they are trying to

evaluate and why, they actually won't agree on how to evaluate'.

To arrive at a certain degree of consistency, a set of questions

asked at each level of evaluation would assist in bringing forth a

degree of understanding as to what it is an evaluation is intended to

achieve. For each level the following questions can be asked:

1) What would be the questions we are seeking answers for?

2) To answer those questions, what might we measure?

3) What would be the dimensions of learning or performance we intend to measure?

4) What would be the possible sources of data that would assist in the measuring process?

5) Whether or not there are other alternate means of data collection for measurement.

6) Crucial is the evaluation criteria employed in the quest for answers to each question (figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1: <u>Evalution Matrix</u>*

<u>Trainees</u>	Training Course	<u>Trained persons</u>	The Job/ The Organisation	<u>Results/job.</u> Performance
Degree	I	II	III	IV
What we want to know	Are the Trainees happy? If not why?	Does the training do what it is supposed to do? If not Why not?	Are the concepts used? If not why not?	Does application of concepts impact on organisation? If not why?
What might be measured				
Measurement Dimensions				
Sources of Data				
Date Gathering Methodology				
Evaluation Criteria				

* From K.S. Brethower & G.A. Rummler: Evaluating Training: Training and Development Journal, May 1979, p.17.

In conclusion the writers think that evaluation, although thought of to be extremely difficult in the real world, has in reality good chances of success if proper criteria are employed and a total perception of the whole process conceived, they forward three suggestions that would help the process of evaluation to be easier and more useful: 1) all crucial elements, not only the programme content should be carefully considered and described, 2) choice of evaluation design which best suits the situation, 3) and naturally not artificially trianing interventions need to be sought for evaluation purposes.

5.5.5 Hamblin's five levels model

Hamblin (1974) has produced a five level model for training evaluation. In his remarkable book, 'Evaluation and control of training' addressed to training specialists to stimulate discussion and generate useful thoughts. He suggests five levels of training effects which also correspond to the five levels of objective setting and of evaluation. These five levels were called, Reactions, Learning, Job behaviour, Organisation, and Ultimate Value. Assuming the presence of a cause-and-effect chain linking those five levels of training effects, training would lead to a set of reactions, those reactions should in turn lead to learning taking place that would be conducive to changes in job-related behaviour. Those behavioural changes are to prompt changes into the recipient organisation that would subsequently lead to changes in the achievement of ultimate goals.

Hamblin postulates that the projected chain can well be broken at

any given stage and the objective criterion sought and hence introduce timely remedial action if things proved to be going wrong.

The model is also advantageous in a sense that it links objectives and effects at each and every level, therefore it would provide an extremely efficient control device; however a brief summary of the requisites of each level will be introduced next:

Level 1: Reaction

Reactions can be very complex interrelated and fast moving; therefore, an evaluator must exercise selectivity as to what to choose, thus a criteria is required in the light of reaction objectives. Consequently, first reaction objectives are set, then training is conducted and hence evaluate training reaction stage. Hamblin guards against results dependant on isolated forms of reactions, since the reaction of the individual in the training programme can be influenced by outside events.

Level 2: Learning

In the quest for learning impacts, trainees are liable to pick up a host of unexpected, unforeseen unstructured and unimportant learning as well, therefore an evaluator will again have to be selective and this can be determined by the criteria which forms the learning objective. Hamblin states that as requisites for learning objectives to be met these conditions are to be fulfilled:
a) trainees ought to have the basic aptitude (intelligence, personality, dexterity etc.) to be able to acquire the desired knowledge, skills and attitudes.
b) the trainees present state of learning (knowledge, skill and

attitudes must match the assumption stated in the objectives.

c) trainees ought to react favourably to the training as a valid indicator that participants are receptive to the given training. Learning has been categoried by Hamblin to be falling into three areas; knowledge, skills and attitudes, distinct they may be but intertwined and overlapping.

Level 3:   Job Behaviour

The third level of the evaluation process centres around job-related behavioural impacts, or learning transfer; therefore job behaviour objectives need to be set to determine the type of information to be selected. Whether or not learning acquired has been applied to the job is a problem of transfer of learning Hamblin points out the fact that 'training is regarded as successful if the desired behaviour changes are achieved'. He notices that if the training is to be conducted on the job there are no differences between levels 2 and 3 evaluation, but the trouble stems from learning taking place outside the organisation. Several cases reported by Fleishman (1953) indicate trainee's shifting favourably towards training objectives in the training intervention itself while moving in the opposite direction on the job itself.

Level 4 Organisation, and Level 5 (ultimate value)

In these two levels the evaluator is conducting his evaluating process outside the actual training itself. In some circumstances, the organisation and the ultimate value levels can be the same but again organisation objectives can very well be substantially diverse and varied. In profit making organisations the ultimate criteria is

likely to be economic, on the other hand government departmnts and some welfare organisations may have a different concept of efficiency and would give priority to some other forms of measurement of social good as opposed to purely financial criteria.

Hamblin cautions against placing training into 'straightjackets' tnus depriving it from fresh air, freedom of action. After all, evaluation is not an end in itself, it is the value of training that the evaluator is striving to assess. Hence the need for a degree of flexibility in the evaluation devise finally chosen.

5.6 Evaluation Design

Evaluation designs are employed primarily to assess the value worthiness of the training programmes. Evaluation designs are not ends by themselves; basically any design in the area of training research as correctly explained by Campbell (1971) is whether or not a researcher can tell for certain that changes in critrion behaviour can be precisely attributed to training. Assuredly, since the fundamental objective of training is to bring forth systematic change in behaviour (knowledge, skill, attitudes) henceforth a simple post training measurement device cannot possibly stand on its own as a sufficient source to document those intended changes. Neither, on the other hand, pointing out change in before and after measures for a trained group would determine in any precise fashion that the changes measured are unequivically initiated by the training intervention. Understandably such changes reported over time frame can very well be triggered by factors other than the actual training itself.

Thompson Jr. (1978) postulates a 'systematic evaluation strategy' by merely answering the basic questions as to why an evaluation is basically conducted and what is it that an evaluator is intending to measure and against what criteria. Answers would determine the criteria chosen. He then proceeds to present a model for developing a strategy whose basic premise is that the purpose of evaluation would determine the design of the strategy; in the model, recognition of different audiences that can be recipients of the evaluation model is suggested.

Brethower and Rummler (1979) expressed discontent with current trends in relation to evaluation research. They postulate that: 'Most of training evaluation today is classified as action research. That is, the research occurs in a real situation with all the constraints imposed by the organisation going about getting its work done'. For that purpose, the authors present four refined designs that would fit in within the evaluation framework once their difficulties are made known and counteracted. The four 'real' world designs were: Control Group; Reversal; Multiple Baseline and Before and After designs.

5.6.1 Control Group design

That is when one group receives the training while a comparable group does not. The essence of the design would depend on measurement along several dimensions in both groups to determine to what extent training has proven effective.

The problem, in the real world, so the argument continues, is that there is no such thing as two naturally occurring groups who happen to be so identical and could be isolated from the outside world

against other occurring variables.

5.6.2 Reversal or ABA design

In essence, the ABA design is set out to guard against the wrong assumption that because two events to happen at a specific given time one of the occurrences have caused the other. The evaluation process commences by establishing a baseline to be determined by measurement, how things do look at present. Henceforth, start conducting the training and then measure the effects after training has taken place. The third phases would involve returning to the original condition by removing the training to measure how things would look without the training. Again the problem with the reversal design is whether any improvement can be precisely tied to the training intervention in any logical fashion.

5.6.3 Multiple Baseline design

Basically, if such design is to be employed, the same training programme is to be conducted for different groups along different timeframes so as to tell whether any resultant change in performance can well be attributed to the actual training. Problems in the real world can this time be initiated by the organisation in question and its willingness to allow the same programme for different groups.

5.6.4 Before and After design

Referred to as AB; the design, this technique is intended to assess whether any given performance improvement is caused by the training interventions. This is done by measuring actual performance before and after training in the job setting. This design differs

from pretest-posttest design since the assessment is taking place in job setting not in classroom setting.

Again the difficulties faced while applying this design is whether or not performance improvemnt can only be interpreted as to be caused by training itself or probably any other factor taking place concurrently. In the following, a brief assessment of types of experimental and quasi experimental designs.

a. Experimental Designs and sources of ambiguity

MacKinney (1957) has provided a very concise description of several types of experimental designs in the quest of reducing the ambiguity in evaluation results. Specifically, three levels of experimental designs were suggested: at the lowest, or what is called the most ambiguous would be the measure of changes using an after criterion only. The next rather less ambiguous would be to apply before and after criterion of measurement to complement the drawbacks of the former design. And since there still remains grey areas of ambiguity, it was suggested to use a second group or a (control) group, who will also be given a before and after assessment measures while receiving no training at all. MacKinney postulates that the third level which involves an experimental as well as a control group both assessed before and after is indeed the only design that is worth the effort.

Sources of ambiguity as Campbell et al. (1970) have established are probably substantially reduced but not eliminated, and to guard against any possible Hawthorne effect, and to present a strong case for training investment for management, another feature is added to

the experimental design. Thus, a second control group is incorporated by Solomon (1949) in search for more accuracy in establishing the effects of the training programme. In Solomon's model, the second control group, instead of training receives a placebo which is assumed to be just as capable of stimulating the Hawthorne effect as the actual training while it ought not to produce any learning entailed in the given training course. Solomon's design seems to account for a large part of the origins of bias which would then be within control in one experimental design.

While the four ¬group design is described to be somehow ideal; it is recognised however the impracticalities of applying it in a field setting in any degree of adequacy or precision is far from being certain. Campbell and Stanley (1963) in response suggest a number of quasi experimental designs which may still stand valid in the provision of data in the case of the impossibility of a true experimental design. They justify that by pointing out that, "the real purpose of an experiment is to eliminate rival hypotheses that compete with the hypothesis proposed by the experimenter as an explanation for the results that are obtained to the extent that a patched-up design might eliminate nontrivial alternative explanation. Both researcher and organisation should keep in mind that training "effectiveness" is neither a dichotomous nor a unidimensional variable and that one experiment, no matter how ideal, will not "prove" that the programme is either effective or ineffective. (Campbell et al, 1970: 279)

b. Quasi designs

1) Time series experiment (Campbell and Stanley 1963) which would involve gathering criterion information about one group at certain points of time including several asessments before as well as after the training intervention has been introduced. This design shares grounds with the before and after design with the differences explained above.

2) Institutional cycle design useful particularly for the recurring types of programmes. The design, in essence is a blend of two or more before and after studies which takes place at diverse points of time. The fruitfulness of the cycle design is strictly limited to internal criterion measure whereas in contrast the time series procedure can be most relevant for external criteria.

Campbell et al (1970) ponder on the question of choice of an evaluation design as still a nagging one. What form "ought to follow, what kinds of criteria should apply, what measures to use to assess what individuals, how and when and for what specific purpose", are seen to be but a few of the possible questions. Andrews (1957, 1968) takes the case emphatically that the best measures of a training programme's worth would be through the opinions of the trainees, trainers superiors, subordinates and peers in totality. Korb (1956) ponders upon the practical problems entailed in the evaluation process and accepts it as a minimal requirement, the opinions of trainees as well as the superiors since, in essence, evaluation would aim to establish whether or not trianing has lead to the realisation of the laid-down objectives at "reasonable speed and expense'. Central in his argument, is that there is no one best criterion

measure device and it is nearly impossible to design an optimal experimental design. Consequently, Andrews asserts that an organisation ought to define its training objectives in behavioural terms and then go for expert judgement as to the adequacy of the programme to lead to those goals and then systematically solicit opinions from participants as well as their associates and then gather data and information on as many criteria as possible. In conclusion a given organisation can come to a decision whether the training involved is useful. Odiorne (1965) has, as established before, claimed the futile effort if training cannot be judged in economic terms. If the four previous authors are considered, in relation to the training evaluation procedure, in Campbell's words, 'they seem to fall along a continuum from Odiorne at one end to Andrews at the other, with MacKinney, Korb and Stanley and Campbell somewhere in between. Randall (1960) has postulated a trichotomy in identifying feelings about training evaluation and suggests them clustering around positivists, negativists and frustrates (Campbell et al, 1970: 282). MacKinney hence would be identified as a positivist in his insistence on unambiguous form of evaluation. In Campbell's words, 'MacKinney's view probably represents the position of most academic types', while Andrew's thoughts are what is most often put into practice.

Apparently, the majority of evaluation studies into training evaluation suffer from obvious weaknesses if they are to be viewed solely through an experimental one-sided viewpoint. Joyce (1978) reported Guttentag (1971) contemplating insightfully that, 'the neatest job of fitting evaluation research into an experimental frame

of reference, often results in the least relevant evaluation'.

5.7 Evaluation research

Some two decades ago, Meigniez et al (1963), have recognised the recency and overall scarcity of literature pertaining to supvervisory and executive training within the European context. Two decades have elapsed since that watershed event in the history of management training evaluation, and the theme of scarcity and scantiness of evaluation literature is still prevalent (Hoyle 1984). In his review of the relevant literature, Hoyle still considers them to be scarce, slow in progress and pays little more than lip-service in an unconvincing manner in relation to the massive investments in the field. Although literature is substantially prolifirating, yet they are found to be very much unsatisfying, 'light-weight and ephemeral' (Hoyle 1984), paying only 'lip-service' (Joyce 1978), 'under-researched and neglected' (Bunker and Cohen 1977), hence their potential contribution in the areas of philosophy and methodology are minimal and by far disproportionately very limited. Campbell et al, (1970) find most of the literature reflecting heavy reliance on the 'notions of single criterion and statistical significance' while neglecting the improtance of a more 'systematic look at the process and content of the trianing itself'. On and on the point is being stressed, that the methodological application of training evaluation in the areas of management development programmes are 'largely inadequate' (Johnes and Huczynski 1975) Cowell (1972) assesses evaluation literature to fall broadly into one of four categories a) projecting methodological biases while providing a framework for effective evaluation b) what would introduce individual and/or group

of courses in relation to their effectiveness   c) what would concern itself in the conceptual exercise of merely revising and reproducing that is already available and   d) the fourth category would cover what is more general in nature and addresses management training and education in general.   Cowell expressed dissatisfaction with attempts to date in the area of management training evaluation and education programmes and postulated their lack of hard 'objective, systemaic and comprehensive evidence'.

Hoyle ponders on the question of susceptibility of adult, shorter courses held in non school situation to any substantial objective measurement.   Apart from difficulties stemming from the impossibility of quantifying training objectives in behavioural terms, Hoyle also suggests 'lack of interest' and 'reluctance' on the part of management to carry out real scientific evaluation.   This is why he thinks that evaluation is conducted with reluctance and using the simplest methods and that is why, as he conceives the issue, scientific as well as quantitative methods do not enjoy any degree of popularity among those invovled.   The views expressed by Hoyle do not bring forth anything new however, they   express his preference to experimental designs.

Interestingly, training evaluation, as a matter of tradition has always been regarded as part and parcel of personnel *function within* the organisation and hence expected to be incorporated in personnel literature.   Ironically, this was found not to be the case upon scrutiny.   Rice (1980), reviewing some ten major personnel textbooks published between 1971-1979 has come across either little or literally no provisions made for training evaluation.   The literature

reviewed, also makes a distinction between evaluation of training on the one hand, and educational evaluation on the other. Development in the two fields were regarded as moving in parallel lines (Hoyle 1984; Easterby-Smith 1981; Joyce 1978).

In the sixties, attempts to evaluate training centred on cost-benefit analysis in order to produce convincing equations for policy makers. Stevens (1973) pointed out that objectives ought to be interpreted in quantifiable terms whenever feasible to demonstrate the returns on management training. In the early seventies, the emphasis has shifted towards more details at the 'output' expected for training, therefore the notion of levels appeared more emphatically in the literature; the work of Hesseling (1966), Hamblin (1974), Kirkpatrick (1975), Burgoyne and Singh (1977) appeared to gain credit as well as increased popularity. This 'chain of consequences' notion although seemed to project a rather logical framework in theory, Hamblin's survey of evaluation literature has exposed substantial structural weaknesses. Central in the framework is the increasing difficulty to tell in any accurate and precise fashion how much learning has been obtained hence the conclusion that the ultimate outcome can never be established. Responding to those drawbacks have lead evaluation research to shift emphasis and focus instead on more specific parts of the evaluation exercise if any degree of precision is sought. The importance of the context started taking precedence as well as the application of evaluation data in the decision making process.

Nevertheless, in the quest to eliminate the effects of the

contextual factors, neither the experimental designs nor the subsequent refinement introduced could sort out this problem, hence failure to eliminate the effects of the context. In Easterby-Smith's words that 'it is only a 'commonsense', that the expectations established before a course and the support, or lack of it, received after the programme are critical to whether anything is learnt, or changed, as a result of training'. Hence context was included within a more meaningful evaluation process. Hence, Warr, Bird and Rakham's (1970) framework of evaluation, four different aspects were emphasised in the assessment of different aspects of the training process, namely context, input, reactions and outcomes (CIRO). The latter three refered to the training methods employed, the opinions reflected by course participants about their course and the ensuing learning and changes experienced.

Context, in this case is identified with organisational problematic areas that can be assessed as training needs, therefore the ultimate direction and programme objectives can be identified.

In Thurley, Graves and Hult's work (1981), Easterby-Smith spotted yet more specific definition to 'context' that would include, in the evaluation process, scrutinising the external constraints that may influence the process of selecting trainees, trainers decisions and the nature of the ensuing follow-up activities. Therefore the emphasis is on the potential impact of factors influencing the deployment of the training intervention after its objectives being determined. In subsequent research the context definition made room for better understanding of the value system and its possible impact during the training programme (Hodgson and Reynolds 1980) and

cultural differentials (Handy 1974).

In sum, Easterby-Smith traces development revolving around training context in the past decade to be moving from simply and desparately trying to negate any possible effect of context towards mere admission of 'context' presence though in terms of established 'givens' that would 'determine' the programme to eventually realising the broader concept of 'context' as operating value and belief system that could potentially have a great deal of learning on how a training programme operates in the quest for achieving the aims both intended as well as unintended.

The other basic focus in evaluation research is how best evaluation results can contribute in the decision making process pertaining to training. The thrust in the work of Warr, Bird and Rakham is seen to indicate that the major objective of the evaluation exercise should be to enable the trainer in charge to come to decisions pertaining to a particular programme as it is in session. In the context and input level of evaluation as well as the output evaluation, the consequences of which seem vital in the process of overal programme improvement, Rakham made the distinction between 'short cycle' and 'long cycle' evaluation as a means to provide rapid feedback mechanism to both trainers and learners to be used for programme immediate and future improvement.

Gowler and Legge (1978) in their analysis of planned organisational change have distinguished between formative and summative evaluation, the first would stand for 'short cycle' while the latter would account for 'long cycle' ultimate outcome assessment

process. Evaluation being an integral part of decision making process has been treated in additional depth and insight by Burgoyne and Singh (1977) Easterby-Smith reports two major contributions by the former authors, the first being the distinction between evaluation as 'feedback' and that adding to a 'body of knowledge'; while the first is seen to be temporary and perishable, the second is considered as permanent and enduring. The second contribution is seen to be the insightful distinction of five levels of decisions.

Easterby-Smith concludes rather gloomily by admitting the fact, that although there has been several interesting developments in the area of tr ning evaluation, yet "issues have become increasingly clouded, and there are no longer any clear guidelines about the features of "good" evaluation".

5.8 Trends in recent evaluation strategies

Joyce (1978) identifies sharp paradigm shift as researchers have changed hearts expressing their disenchantment with experimental designs for reasons of serious limitations and impracticalities upon application. She reports four such shifts in the field of evaluation in recognition of the deficiencies of the experimental designs. Such paradigm shift is reported by Joyce from a) the agricultural-botany to anthropoligical, b) from preordinate to responsive sort of evaluation, c) from goal attainment model to system theory model and d) from scientific experimental approach to that of discovery orientated process. Easterby Smith produces a thorough follow up of the recent trends to be scrutinised as follows.

5.8.1 Goal-free Evaluation (Scriven 1972; Deutscher 1976; Schulberg and Baker 1971; Straser et al, 1981).

In essence, goal-free evaluation, as argued by Scriven, avoids identifying what the formal goals and objectives of a programme are. He argues against the notion of contamination-free evaluator if any form of balanced judgement of value worthiness is sought. Deutscher (1976) argues that evaluation on the basis of programme formal goals can be seriously misleading, and calls upon the evaluators to guard against this unidimensional definition of formal goals by accepting the multi definition of it by involving all interested parties. He would advocate not only looking at the input-output approach but also examine the process involved before, during and after the programme.

5.8.2 Illuminative Evaluation

Originated by Parlett and Hamilton (1976) as an alternative to comparative evaluation. The purpose of illuminative evaluation would then be to contribute to decision making process although emphasis has been placed on the fact that an evaluator should conceive his role to be basically that of gathering information. Illuminative evaluation normally does not endeavour to demonstrate the value of a given programme. In Hamilton's design, the tendency is towards sacrifice of certain degree of precision in measurement in the quest of utility of findings. They reject the notion that only measurable outcomes are evidence of effectivness.

5.8.3 Responsive Evaluation (Robert Stake, 1976)

Robert Stake is basically an evaluation theorist in the field of education. His major theory contribution is seen to be presented in "The Countenance of Eductional evaluation" (Stake 1967) where he

perceived the wider scope of evaluation. In his paper, he offered a data matrix indicating that an evaluator needs to concern himself with three types of data a) antecedent data (having prior existence) b) transactional data (although relatively static like antecedent data but dynamic since this relates to encounters and interactions) c) and outcome data (to include impact, wear and tear as well as achievements). Stake, advocating against an evaluator passing judgements perceives his role as one of a processor. Expressing his disdain with 'preordinate objectives' model, Stake does not confine his attention to the goals specified prior to programme development. With so much common grounds with goal-free evaluation, he sees no obligation on the part of the evaluator to assist programme designers nor initiators with the task of structuring behavioural objectives though an interest may pop up in the statement of intents. Stake elaborated the concept of 'responsive evaluation'. It is seen 'responsive' to the questions of non-specialist audiences. Therefore, it is a democratic process, avoids jargon and expresses preference to 'natural' communication. It emphasises activities rather than intentions and offers interpretations as well as descriptions. It is, then issue centred; hence it was seen by some as though it shows preference to style over content.

Summary

Evaluation literature has explicitly shown diversities complementary at times and contradictory at others, both in the initial concept of the role and function the evaluation exercise is perceived to perform and the means and methods employed to serve those ends. As reflected in the literature there is little disagreement as to when and where evaluation should be placed in the

entire training function, but the major area of continuous argument is to the mission of the evaluation exercise and hence the techniques and designs subsequently used to arrive at those ends. In general, there is an explicit disenchantment with the experimental designs towards system based concept where more comprehensive anthropological approaches are advocated in order to come to terms with multifaceted complexities engulfing human behavioural changes. In Easterby-Smith's words, and to conclude, although certain positive developments have been identified in the practices especially in the field of management training, but the 'issues' do remain cloudy and increasingly debatable.

CHAPTER SIX

METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is set forth with the purpose of describing the research strategy employed, in relation to the parameters of the study, some methodological considerations, research design, the tools and techniques employed for data and information collection in the empirical part of the study as well as brief description of the questionnaires and interviews conducted. In short, the chapter would deal with the question of how and what was initially conceived in theory to be feasible would look in reality while being operationalised. Noteworthy is the fact that a fully-fledged description of the set of populations and the samples'general demographic characteristics, has been conducted separately in chapter seven.

6.2. Preliminary discussions

Meanwhile, it would seem relevant to share with the reader some of the early considerations with regard to the parameters of the study envisaged in the earlier stages to be feasible, which in fact, masked a degree of naivety on the part of the researcher. The fact that the area of research was eventually reframed and considerably narrowed down was basically in response to a brain-storming exercise and invaluable feedback from friends, colleagues and members of staff in the department of Management Studies in Glasgow University. In October 1986, the researcher strongly believed that it was both feasible and practical to go for an exercise of assessment of both the civil service and training policies as the two are interrelated facets in the quest for efficiency and effectiveness in the Government bureaucracy. Although the purpose is a very legitimate one, but the research area, given the complexities and the constraints both predicted and unforeseen, has proven to be too broad, and too vast for a

researcher to undertake singlehandedly, in an extremely tight schedule;
specifically time budget and geographical considerations (having to do
with proximity), since the empirical part of the study had to be conducted
back home in Oman. Therefore, and in retrospect, guided by the generous
feedback, an exercise of narrowing down the area of emphasis was
conducted. By April 1987, upon concluding a research methodology seminar
organised by Glasgow Business School, it was well-conceived that the
research would be targeting an assessment of administrative training in
the public sector for middle and junior levels of management with
particular emphasis on training in the Omani Civil Service. The reason for
shifting emphasis is a conceivably valid one, but nevertheless basing that
on a justifying rationale can be equally helpful.

Training, as an area of emphasis within the context of Omani Civil
Service is beyond doubt, of vital importance for an inexhaustive list of
reasons, some of these reasons are:

a) In Oman there has been a marked emphasis on every aspect of human
   resources development. Such emphasis is manifest in the volume of
   investments in the areas of education, healthcare, vocational
   training etc. The expectations from the government machinery in
   spearheading and conducting those strenuous national efforts is
   beyond doubt. Yet there are very little signs that management and
   administrative training in the public sector at large and in the
   civil service in particular is of any proven value commensurate to
   the degree of government concerns investments and expectations. Peter
   Drucker (1969) convincingly stresses the fact that, 'It can be said
   without too much over simplification that there are no underdeveloped
   countries. There are only undermanaged ones'.

b) Therefore, investigations and research in this area would most probably
   assist in the following:

   b.1 diagnose whether or not there is a proper assessment of
       training needs in the government sector: if yes, how, such
       an exercise is conducted and how, for that matter they are

later transformed into training interventions.

b.2 explore whether priorities are in the right order and in the proper perspective.

b.3 explore whether or not training objectives are met and to what extent.

b.4 try to assess how programme objectives match participant's perceptions as well as those of their respective organisations and how far training-related learning is transferred into the work setting, once programme graduates are back to work in their own organisations.

b.5 explore whether training is based upon a systematic long term policy or is it simply taken as an end in itself, hence, what forms of organisational follow-up is currently practiced by both, training providers as well as the recipient organisations.

c) In an era characterised by resource limitation and manifestly acute shortage of qualified manpower with marked reliance on imported contractual skills, training tends to play even a doubling vital role to bridge the gap of some of the shortages mentioned.

6.3 the quest for research design

Having specified the parameters of the investigation and once research objectives were clearly determined, the logical next move is to specify the research design most appropriate in providing answers sought by the study.

A research design is needed to maintain a discipline mechanism in relation to the data collection process and a plan structure as well as a strategy of investigation that would determine the logical sequence to be followed so as to arrive at the answers for research questions as well as to control variance (Labinouvitz et al 1970; Kerlinger, 1970). Designs are constructed to enable the researcher, not only to ensure a comparison that is not amenable to other alternate explanations, but also to further assist in getting research questions answered as 'validly, objectively, accurately and economically as possible' since the ultimate aim would be

to bring forth empirically based evidence to bear on the research problem (Kerlinger, 1970).

In the quest for a proper and appropriate design, crucial decisions have had to be made, and the researcher had to consider every possible option amid controversial polemic paradigms. This was seen necessary to ensure that once the choice has finally been made, it was to be made based on well-founded and sound as well as evidently practical grounds. Trow (1970) postulates that, 'The problem under invetigation properly dictates the methods of investigation'. Early on, the decision was decisively made not to go for experimental or quasi experimental designs. Without any in-depth discussion to the rationale of such a decision, experimental designs were seen to be not well-suited to furnish the answers for the research. Experimental designs, widely advocated by academics, are rarely popular as their proponents would like them to be. In the quest for empirical evidence of a given social phenomenon, experimental designs were aggressively criticised on both grounds, applicability and ethics. Festinger (1953: 136) convincingly postulates that, 'Good evidence is lacking concerning which types of experimental situations are superior for which purpose' Argyris(1963) reported by McDonald (1986:23-41) argues against the premise of vigorous research, to begin with . He stresses the need to review the concepts of vigorousness and preciseness that implies a degree of precision about the nature of the universe which does not exist. Nonethe-less, the choice of the design was concieved to be flexible enough to accomodate for the unforseeable eventualities. Glaser & Strauss (1967) have duly placed great emphasis on the evolutionary nature of research, more so during the fieldwork stage, as categories and properties emerge develop and become interrelated and gradually begin to form an integrated central theoretical framework. The main thrust emphasised at this stage is that '..sensitivity to theory can easily be lost if a researcher sticks to a prescribed research design irrespective of the paucity or the

irrelevance of the emerging data.'(McDonald,1986:23-41).

In sum, the major limitations of experimental designs are conceived to
be revolving around the latters inapplicability, unsuitability, validity,
feasibility as well as ethical stance. Without repeating one's arguments,
those limitations can be said to be the following:

a) basically it is known to be a device for basic and theory-
orientated research and thus it cannot stand as a goal for an
empirical science.

b) time and again the point is made that such designs are highly
manipulative and hence involve , at times, unethical handling
of the individuals involved.

c) such designs are well known to be extremely expensive, time
consuming and heavily labour intensive hence demands special
skills and qualifications on the part of the researcher, and

e) all said and done, precision of answers, truthfulness and
genuine responses still cast doubt in relation to the
validity of the findings insofar as laboratory-based findings
need to be continuously and constantly contrasted to real
life settings.

One major problem is seen to be initiated by the very nature of the
research topic itself. The ultimate objective is now known to be an
overall assessment of managerial training in the context of Omani Civil
Service. Training programmes made available for civil servants are widely
dissimilar. They substantially differ in duration, size, area of emphasis
content, the training methods employed and ultimately they differ in the
programmes' given objectives. Not only those programmes differ along the
characteristics mentioned above, but they also differ in relation to the
characteristics of programme participants and their status and locus in
the civil service hierarchy, their age and qualifications. The fact that,
an investigation into training programmes conducted in the region of one
entire calender year, given the broad range of programmes designated for
analysis purpose, readily posed a set of complexities that added yet
another dimension of complexity to the design to be employed for
investigation. Training contents, generally speaking have covered areas so

wide ranging from personnel to organisation and methods, to finance, to local government, to clerical training, to hospital administration, to auditing management and finally to social work administration. Therefore, programme-specific objectives were evidently extensively diverse and dissimilar.

Against this background, the choice was made not to target the actual content of training in its given specificity - although some indication can be deducted - but rather, placement of emphasis would be into the process by which management training is conducted in the Omani Civil Service.

It was for this reason too, the anthropological paradigm in training evaluation so strongly advocated by Stake Hamilton and others was seen mostly to benefit and eventually guide the choice of the design. Evident also is the fact that we are after an evaluation of broad-aim programmes. Broad-aim programmes is a term used to describe programmes whose objectives would be to achieve non-specific forms of change for the better and which also, given their ambition and magnitude, would demand unstandardized, large-scale interventions, and are evaluated in few given sites (Weiss & Rein, 1970).

Weis & Rein (1970: 97 - 109) also point out that the evaluation of broad-aim programmes should identify the forces which shaped the programme, the nature of opposition encountered, the unanticipated consequences. The issue in the evaluation of broad-aim programmes is not 'Does it Work?' but 'What happened?'. Sieber (1973) argued for the integration of both fieldwork and survey methods in the design to be deployed. Prompted by the question that every technique suffers from inherent weaknesses that can only be corrected by some form of cross-checking, he postulates that, 'a survey can improve the design of fieldwork by identifying both representative and unrepresentative cases,

the former servicing the goal of generalizability and the latter, the function of theory refinement'.

Against the given background and in the quest for an extensive as well as intensive data as possible, the final decision was made to employ a blend of fieldwork and survey techniques to ensure cross checking and comprehensiveness of data. Fieldwork is given to involve, participant observation, informant interviewing and the use of available records to suplement these techniques in a particular setting. Surveys on the other hand, are known to be widely applicable for their usefulness as a form of effective and systematic planned collection of data from populations or samples of population for analysis purposes. The survey instrument is not a specific method of any one social science and is, as mentioned earlier, broadly applicable to problems in many fields. It is the capacity of the survey technique for wider equally effective application and broad area of coverage that would give the method its very utility in the behavioural sciences (Galtung, 1967: Blalock, 1968: Oppenheim, 1966: Campbell and Katona, 1953 ;de Vaus,1986). Surveys also vary in their scope, their design and their content and thus its given features are dictated by the research objectives, the very questions asked and ultimately the given nature of investigation being carried out. Galtung (1967: 147) sums the general features of survey method as one that 'favours a society with a slow rate of change and little internal conflict, highly individualistic, inner-directed and mobile and with a high degree of correspondence between thought, word and deed'.

6.4 Plan of Action and Scope of Investigation

In search of adequate investigation strategy, the researcher has had to face, yet again, questions of practicality insofar as the demands of empirical work. Guba (1978) reported by Patten (1980:59) postulates that, 'strategies and trade-offs - actually - go together. There is no perfect

design. There are always trade-offs necessitated by limited resources, limited time and the limits of human ability to grasp the complete nature of social reality'.

Having said that, it would appear rather important at any rate that a researcher should remain cautious in relation to the limitations and shortcomings of any given approach he has finally resolved to employ. Every effort should be made to as certain the variable(s) he may fail to circumscribe and control, be it, the design is freely chosen or compelled to use by virtue of necessity.

To arrive at a coherent comprehensive assessment of training practices in the Omani Civil Service, the plan of investigation had to be phased along two stages, each stage addressing a separate set of variables in relation to the training domain. The first stage was aiming at the following:

a) an assessment of practices, in the training context, at the government departmental level. It was considered a requisite to familiarise one's-self of the departmental actual practices at the micro levels in relation to administrative/managerial training. The purpose here is to draft and project a meaningful clear picture of how training is approached, launched, conducted, validated, planned, designed, followed up and eventually assessed. The investigation, at this stage would also aim to scrutinise and ascertain the obstacles conceived to be obstructing training endeavours. The rationale for such detailed first-hand investigation into departmental training practices is far too obvious. Reference will be made to documents and recorded data whenever necessary, but conducting one's own investigation in a non-authoratative fashion would provide invaluable in-depth data rarely obtainable in any written documented fashion.

b) The second stage was scheduled to commence as soon as the

requirements of the first stage were satisfactorily fulfilled. To conduct an evaluation of training practices is the general purpose of this stage of investigation. The aim at this point is to ascertain whether or not training objectives for middle and junior levels of management in the government, conducted mainly but not exclusively, by the local Institute of Public Administration are conceived to have been met.

To arrive at such conclusive evidence is notoriously next to impossible. Without going into the underlying fulfledged reasons for such claimed impossibility, the researcher would suffice by mentioning the procedural difficulties encountered. For one, it involves flying home and spending sufficient time in tracking the courses conducted by both IPA and certain government units for the specified levels of management. The second practical problem is to trace programme graduates who have by then returned to their work settings or may have changed their title, unit or left the government service altogether. It was decided that such a risk is worth taking and therefore plans were drafted to move ahead. One other major problem is how to arrive at an evaluation for formal management training course. Hacon (1968: 51) points out that there are effectively three major viewpoints in the external training situation; the organisation; the course organisor and the course participant. He points out the fact that, 'This is a triangular relationship where any two parties at different stages between course inception and a follow-up discussion six months afterwards may be seen in certain obvious ways as being in league against the third'.

Therefore, evaluation of the formal training is conceived, not as an exercise of passing judgement but as an in-depth discriptive process, and this would involve the opinions of these parties of audiences simultaneously. The three groups of audiences are, trainees, trainers and/or training organisors and finaly, the trainees immediate supervisors (since their organisations were addressed separately in relation to

training in general). In the following, the three groups' approach and mode of investigation will be briefly discussed:

b.1 The Trainees

A choice was made, dictated by necessity, to go for a 'quota' sample of government trainees who have attended formal, off-the-job training programmes designed by the local Institute of Public Administration as well as training courses conducted at the unit level by certain government units who chose to conduct their own training, on account of their unit-specific needs, albeit managerial, for junior and middle level of Government managerial level.

Generally speaking, the investigation at this stage, aims to establish the following:

1) primarily ascertain the extent training programmes objectives were met.

2) how far changes in behaviour, skills and attitudes can effectively be related to the training in question.

3) how far performance improvement can be related to the training intervention.

4) conducting an evaluation of the programmes in relation to the content, objective setting, general appropriateness and adequacy as well as suitability for the specific needs of individual as well as their respective organisations.

5) establish whether any learning transfer has effectively taken place in the participants work setting.

b.2 The Trainers

The second group of audiences to be investigated in the quest for programme evaluation were the actual trainers and/or training organisors who effectively were designers and the initiators of their training programmes, albeit in line with their institution's training policy. It is the trainers who make the major decisions pertaining to their respective programmes, be they setting objectives or the training methods deployed and conducting their own immediate reaction-centred evaluation exercise as an

indicator of programmes', success or failure. The rationale for conducting this investigation at this dimension is fairly convincing. Any valid evaluation for a formal training intervention should accommodate for the trainers' own account of events against which comparisons and contrasts can be sufficiently drawn to complement the shortcomings and potential misgivings reflected by other parties.

b.3 The Trainees Immediate Supervisors

Trainees were requested to rate their supervisory competence along sixteen dimensions on a five point scale both before the training and after the training. The researcher must caution against drawing outright conclusions since the respondents were to resort to their memory in accommodating answers to this part although accuracy and objectivity was strongly urged. To validate their subordinates rating exercise, the trainees immediate supervisors were also to do the same to their subordinates without consulting them. Again, the supervisors were requested to exercise their own judgement in rating their subordinates both before and after the training programme. The purpose of this part of the investigation is to come at indicators whether or not any training related changes in the different areas of supervisory skills, behaviour and attitudes or information can effectively be linked to the training intervention. The supervisors although were strictly requested to conduct the exercise for its own merit, however they were encouraged to consult their subordinates to clarify areas of vagueness, especially in the case of longer intervals between programme attendance and the time when the questionnaire was conducted.

Nevertheless, several other questions were also included pertaining to the programmes timeliness, general adequacy, practicability of objectives and overall utility to the work-specific needs.

The same number of questinnaires were sent to the supervisors i.e. 429,

but the response rate was far lower than that of the subordinates. A total number of 178 supervisiors responded forming effectively some 41 per cent of the 'quota' sample, or 76 per cent of the trainees responses, 108 or 60 per cent of them were from the IPA sponsored programmes while 70 or nearly 40 per cent were from the non-IPA based (Table 6.1). The fact that the researcher was able to obtain over 76 per cent of the trainess immediate supervisors has proven to be quite an accomplishment given the time budget as well as communication constraints dictated by the anonymity of the respondents.

Table 6.1 Trainees' Immediate Supervisors Response Rate

Programme Groups	No. Quest.	No. of Responses
Personnel	80	24
Finance	24	8
Local Government	55	14
OEM	104	47
Clerical	23	15
Hospital Admin.	74	39
Auditing	38	12
Social Work	31	19
Total	429	178

6.5. Data Collection techniques

In launching social research, data is sought basically by three methods: asking questions, observing and making use of records and other forms of documents compiled for reasons other than ones own research. Trow (1970) stresses, as indeed did many others, that, 'No research method is without bias'. Interviews and questionnaires must be supplemented by methods testing the same social science variables but having different methodological weaknesses. Hence the choice of data collection devices is again determined by the nature of problem subject for investigation, research questions and the parameters of the study itself. In the quest for data, survey uses questionnaires and interviews, attitude scales, projective techniques and other forms of data collection tools particularly in the case of a widely dispersed group of people (Campbell

and Katona, 1953: Oppenheim, 1966).

The researcher, has endeavoured to employ the techniques most appropriate to providing valid reliable data, bearing in mind the width of the area of investigation and different levels and groups targeted for investigation. Details of the groups and the questions asked will be discussed in sufficient length in the course of this chapter but hurriedly one would draw attention to the following:

1.   In stage one, when an investigation targeted training policy on the departmental level, a semi-structured personally administered interview was conducted as the basic data collection device. The process would be referred to later on.

2.   In stage two, three groups of audiences were investigated in the context of civil service training; the trainees; the trainers and/or training organisors and the trainees' immediate supervisors. Besides direct observation by the researcher who attended three courses as a participant observor to gather first-hand data through active observation, a structured questionnaire was either handed in person, in the case of running courses during the time within which the fieldwork took place, or sent over and delivered by hand - in most cases - with sufficient instruction as how to go about in responding to questions.

In the case of trainers who were a group of thirty five, mostly positioned in one premise, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews each ranging from half an hour to two hours. In nearly ten cases, the interviews were rather hastily conducted due to trainer's preoccupation and other commitments. In one case, the questions were sent over to the trainer whose headquarters was located abroad and was collected by mail. In the case of trainees' immediate supervisors, a questionnaire was designed and mailed to the supervisors requesting no personal data to ensure anonymity and was followed up by the trainees

themselves to ensure active response.

Interviews were also conducted in an unstructured manner with 10 highranking government officials in relation to their stance perception and expectation of administrative training. The highranking government officials were 1) the Minister of Civil Service, 2) the Director General of the Institute of Public Administration (IPA), 3) the former Director of IPA, 4) the Director General of Audit, 4) the Director General of Administration and Finance in the Ministry of National Economy, 5) the Director General of Training Organisation and job stratification in the Ministry of Civil Service, 6) the Director General of Education and Training in the Ministry of Health, 7) the Acting Director General of Vocational Training in the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour, 8) the Director of Training in Oman Petroleum Development (PDO), 9) the Director of Administration and Finance in the Central Bank of Oman and 10) the Registrar, in the Institute of Public Administration.

6.5.1. The organisation of data

Robert Stake (1967: 527) proposed a data matrix for the purpose of organising the data to be gathered from quite different sources in many different ways. Regardless of the ultimate purpose of the evaluation process, Stake considers three bodies of information to be tapped, namely, antecedent, transaction and outcome data. Antecedent data refers to the trainee's 'entry behaviour' prior to attendence of a programme, his/her aptitude, previous experience, interest and motivation; transaction refers to what goes on in the course procession and by nature they are dynamic whereby antecedents are relatively static. The outcome data which was traditionally given to include abilities, achievements attitudes and expectation realised upon concluding an educational experience are broadened to include measurement of the impact of, not only the evident variables but also the applications, transfer and relearning effects that may not be readily available for measure.

Figure 6.1 Sources of Data collected

I. ANTECEDENTS

	Trainees	Trainers	Superviors	Training Officers	High-Ranking Exucutives	Records	Obser-vation
a.Training Policy	X				X	X	X
b.Training needs & assessment and nomination	X		X	X		X	
c.Expectations of Training outcomes	X	X	X	X	X		X
d.Charactistics of course participants	X	X				X	X
e.Trainees degree of motivation and per-ceptions of the value of training	X	X	X				X
f.Course objectives	X	X	X	X		X	X

II. TRANSACTIONS

	Trainees	Trainers	Superviors	Training Officers	High-Ranking Exucutives	Records	Obser-vation
g.Formal Course objectives	X	X	X	X		X	X
h.Teaching techniques and training methods	X	X		X		X	X
i.Programme operation	X	X					X
j.Programme content	X	X		X		X	

III. OUTCOMES

	Trainees	Trainers	Superviors	Training Officers	High-Ranking Exucutives	Records	Obser-vation
k.Satisfaction with the course	X	X	X	X			X
l.Client org. satis-faction	X		X	X			
m.Perceived Impact of course	X	X	X	X			
n.Intent & transfer	X		X				
o.Perceived Barriers to change	X	X	X	X			
p.Actual impact on performance	X		X	X			

Joyce (1978) has developed a training model incorporating the three levels (bodies) of information proposed by Stake, whereby she investigates the impacts antecedents would have, given the broader concept she develops, on both transaction as well as outcomes. What the present author is intending to do would be fostering Stakes' concept of data matrix as an organisation mechanism to assist in determining the sources as well tools employed for data and information collection in its general orientation as insightfully developed by Joyce(1978) in her evaluation research of the Civil Service in the Republic of Ireland. Figure 6.1.is a modified layout of the data matrix proposed by Stake and employed by Joyce and conditioned to suit the present purpose of investigation.

6.6.Brief Description of the Questionnaires

While the full texts of the questionnaires and interview employed to furnish data from different sources indicated in the data matrix shown earlier will be provided in the appendix for due reference, this section will generally touch upon, as briefly as one could possibly can, the basic features of the questions asked during the two stages indicated earlier. With the fear of oversimplification, a brief description herewith is introduced in relation to the different groups of populations addressed in each inquiry with as much relevant information as possible of the procedures followed.

a) Training Policy Interview

The purpose of conducting this expedition was basically to furnish the background pictures of current training practices and policies at the departmental level. To serve this end, thirty three Government Ministries, parastatals and public authorities have practically formed the entire Government civilian machinery were covered. The interviews were conducted with the man/woman in charge of training function in the given unit. The point of entry, however was not necessarily the man/woman in charge of

training. In three cases, the interviews were conducted at the director general levels; in two other cases, the point of entry into the organisation was the undersecretaries who then referred the researcher to the person in charge. In one single case, the language medium was English while the native Arabic language was the medium in the rest of the cases. In one case, answers had to be posted to Glasgow at a later stage for reasons of additional scrutiny while only one Government unit failed to respond due to time limitations imposed upon the researcher.

The basic pattern of the questions was adopted from one that was developed by the Diwan of Personnel Affairs (DPA) which was originally intended to address Government agencies in relation to the latters training practices. The choice of the questionnaire was deliberate since it furnished, in general terms, the bulk of information the researcher is seeking given the fact that DPA is the central planning apparatus for training in the Government sector. However, the questions were rephrased, modified or dropped altogether when necessary in response to a feedback exercise conducted earlier with the generous support by members of the staff in the Omani Institute of Public Administration. Questions asked were probed once the need arose. In the case of the Government units, located in the Southern region some 1000 miles away, explanation and probing were provided through telephone.communication.

Adequate care was taken in the interviewing approach, which was conducted in the interviewee's respective offices, not to antagonise them by initial build-up of informal setting and trust. Not to mention the fact that providing information in an unofficial manner for an unofficial reason to an outsider concerning organisational practices is a very remote possibility and rare incidence. By building a rapport of confidence with respect of the purpose of the whole exercise, together with the orchestrated support so generously made available by highranking officials made the task possible.

The full text of the questionnaire is to appear in appendix (I) but the general variables would briefly be introduced here. The questionnaire was divided into nine parts addressing extremely minimal personal data in part one of the respondent while the second part was investigating the organisational training system; the third part was after information of the present status and locus of training management unit; in part four, the inquiry was after an assessment of methods employed to diagnose training needs at the organisational level. Part five sought answers pertaining to the existence of training plans whereas the sixth part ascertained training resources made available within the given unit, their adequacy, suitability and utility to undertake training. In part seven, the inquiry was after establishing how training was documented to establish some sort of coherence in relation to systematic training while the eighth part sought answers to the issues of evaluation and training follow-up on the part of the governmental unit. In conclusion, part nine sought to specify what sort of obstacles envisaged by the units to hold back progress in the training arena.

Data collected in this stage were manually tabulated organised and later incorporated in the ensuing analysis.

b) Trainees' Questionnaire

The total of twenty training programmes accommodating 429 trainees, of which 286 participants attended 13 training programmes in the local IPA while another 143 attended another seven programmes non-IPA sponsored on the unit level. In entirety, the total of 429 questionnaires were either delivered by hand with acknowledgement of receipt or personally handed by the researcher together with an explanatory note, a covering letter as well as an address and telephone number to contact. During the second stage of fieldwork, and over the period from January the 30th until April the 20th, the researcher has managed to obtain 255 responses of which 233 proved to be valid whereas 22 of them were incomplete. Thus a response

rate of nearly 60 per cent was recorded.

There were 77 valid responses or 33 per cent from the non-IPA sponsored respondents whereas 156 or 69 per cent have successfully responded from IPA sponsored programmes. Every effort was made to contact the respondents by telephone, written reminders, personal messages and at times using facsimiles in the case of remote areas especially in the case of local government courses.

Table 6.2 shows the proportionate responses in relation to the number of participants grouped into eight programme groups. Detailed description of what constitutes those groups is provided in the description of the population in Chapter seven.

Table 6.2 Number of Questionnaires sent in programmes groups and number of responses

Programme Group	No. of Quest.	No.of Respondents
Personnel	80	40
Finance	24	18
Local Government	55	26
O & M	104	57
Clerical	23	15
Hospital Admin.	74	36
Auditing	38	20
Social Work	31	21
Total	429	233

Basically, the major parts of the questionnaire was fostered by the author from the one developed by Joyce (1978) which was in turn developed through assessment and scrutiny into training evaluation questionnaires. The choice was deliberate since the questionnaire has been tested for reliability and for reasons of overall comprehensiveness. However, the questionnaire was further modified, supplemented and conditioned to suit the needs of the present study. The modification took place in response to

brain-storming exercise with the local training staff of the Omani IPA. A separate part constituting some 16 questions were designed by the researcher and used as an addendum to measure learning transfer in job setting. While the full text of the questionnaire will appear in Appendix II a brief description will be introduced in the following paragraphs.

The questionnaire was divided into six parts, many of the questions were designed to encourage responses in the form of Likert 3 - 5 point scale, where respondents were expected to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement, satisfaction and dissatisfaction with given statements. The six parts constituting the questionnaire were briefly addressing the following in relation to the training programme themselves. The first part was after demographic data of the respondents while the second was after an assessment of the procedural background perceived by the respondents in relation to systematic training policy in their respective organisations as perceived by the respondents.

In the third part the quest was for an evaluation of teaching techniques employed in the course. While the fourth part was tapping the participants' perceived intention of inducing change triggered by newly acquired skills, knowledge and attitudes in their own organisations and the type of difficulties perceived to withhold such potential applications.

In the fourth part, an evaluation of the training course as perceived by course participants was sought. Four areas were conceived to form in aggregate an indication of the participants' course evaluation. The first area was the participants immediate reaction upon course conclusion, while the second area is to establish whether their training have had, as perceived any possible job related impacts, the third area would focus on a clear statement about objective realization. The fourth would address any indirect advantages gained by participants.

The last part of the questionnaire comprises of 16 questions addressing 16 supervisory competence faculties in the areas of skills, knowledge and attitude change perceived before the training course, and then after the course has finished. Respondents were requested to rate their performance on a scale of five points. The purpose of this part is to track any training related changes ascertained to be influenced by training on the job setting. The value of this part is further enhanced by a counter validation of the rating by the trainees immediate supervisors which will be introduced later in this chapter.

c. Trainers' Interviews

Trainers interviews were semi-structured and conducted after the training programme had been concluded. Interviews length varied and tended to be shorter as the trainer was re-interviewed in respect of another programme. Thirty-four interviews were personally conducted during the course of the second stage of the fieldwork between February the 1st until the third week of April 1988. The first part of the interview sought to establish a repertoir of the demographic data and professional standing of trainers as well as their work load and areas of responsibility in relation to course and curriculum design as well as scrutiny into other institional activities other than that of training. The second part handled certain numerical knowledge of the courses in question, and the actual state of the course itself be it newly introduced, or modified or for that matter simply repeateed without alterations. Then scrutiny into course sessions' allotment for various activities was sought again in numerical terms where as the next four questions 14 - 17 were after establishing whether other trainers were also taking part. Question number 18 sought a division, although percentage wise of sessions to different forms intended to impart through training namely, knowledge (information), skills, and attitudes, whereas the next inquiry addressed whether programme organisers required prior preparation by course attendants.

Five questions - 20 to 24 - sought to establish some form of evaluation for the course with regard to the trainers' degree of satisfaction in areas of knowledge of trainees, actual needs; question number 25, requested reactions a) to the notion of the trainees' homogeniety and b) tapped reactions of the general perceived importance of such elements as age, experience, education and so on and so forth, c) how the course was sold, d) and, general indicators of the time required for the design of the programme, and the fashion whereby external session-takers were hosted into the programme. The last two questions tapped responses in relation to the trainers degree of satisfaction with 1) external trainers, 2) and, the motivation factor of participants. Question number 26 pursued answers from the trainer's to seven basic assumptions of the role management and supervision training is intended to contribute to. Answers were to be on a five point scale determining the level of agreement with the given assumptions. In question number 27, trainers were asked to chose the duration they felt ideally necessary as the longest possible period designated for middle management training.

In the next question a number of complaints commonly aired to be associated with management training programmes conducted by training organisers. Six complaints were listed to trigger reactions of trainers to respond. Question number 29 tried along the areas of queries to establish the degree of co-ordination, if any, between training providers and the recipient organisation in respect to the follow-up and training evaluation. The last part of the question compiled eleven questions regarding general features of the programme under investigation where 'yes' and 'no' option responses were sought as a general cap to the interview process.

6.7 Analysis of Data

As mentioned earlier due to the exploratory nature of the enquiry, the intention hence was not after establishing causality nor hypothesis testing, therefore statistical tools employed were meant to serve primarily the exploratory theme of the thesis. The simplest form of statistical application was hence performed. Data gathered from stage I of the inquiry was tabulated and analysed manually, between October and December 1987. Data gathered for stage II of the investigation were basically codified punched into the computer in the region of four months beginning in June 1988 all the way to October. The SPSSX statistical package was used for the analysis and the organisation of the data. Percentages, means, informative tables. As for the diagrams bar charts and the like, Apple P.C's Cricketgraph package were mostly used to assist in clarifying the data. Basically the following techniques were found to be particularly useful:

1) Factor Analysis: The tool was employed in an exploratory manner inorder to establish the level of association between interelated variables. The major function of the technique here is to reduce a larger number of variables into clusters by ascertaining the weight of each of those variables on a factor. The tool is particularly useful when dealing with qualitative data.

2) Discriminant Function Analysis: The technique involves deducting the linear combination of two or more independent variables which would best discriminate between and among the a priori defined group. Thus the tool has two primary functions(Morrison 1969) a] to statistically distinguish between two or more groups of cases based upon one or more predictor variables, and b] to identify the variables that contribute significantly to the discrimination or differentiation process.

3) One Way Analysis of Variance.(ANOVA): Non parametric Kruscal-Wallis ANOVA technique was primarily utilised as a testing device to ascertain the variance in group responses. ANOVA test determines such variance through comparing the population's means whether those sums are so different that it is not likely they have come from populations with equal means.

4) Towards the very end, T-test was used to examine how significant the differences between the means demonstrated by groups for comparability and to determine whether or not changes did occur on the supervisory competence of programme participants that can be related to the training intervention. t-values were then contrasted and compared amongst the three parties involved in the evaluation process.

Summary

The chapter has endeavoured to introduce a full meaningful description of what went on between the commencing date of this project until its final conclusion in relation to the actual formulation of the research topic, specification of its boundaries, determining the strategy to be deployed, the sources sought for data collection, the research design and few other operational issues pertaining to the methodology. Also presented, though extremely briefly, the techniques used in the quest for data in the hope of familiarising the reader early on to the general texture of the areas of investigation.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE COMPOSITION OF THE SAMPLE

7.1 Introduction

This chapter is intended to explore the general featuresofsample members attending training programmes for supervisory and middle management level in the Omani Civil Service. Programmes selected are mainly organised by the local Institute of Public Administration (IPA) which is the government central organ for administrative training. However, since some forms of formal training is also conducted by other government units addressing unit-specific needs, therefore, a selective number of these training interventions that are non-IPA based are also explored.

The chapter, hence, is divided into three main sections. The first section attempts at describing the programmes in aggregate; the second. expedites trainees demographic data, while the third section tries to accommodate both groups; the trainers and/or training organisors who were interviewed in relation to their evaluation of their training interventions and the trainees' immediate supervisors who were consulted for the purpose of further solidifying findings.

Undoubtedly, such an expedition casts light at the specificities of sample components and would therefore, enrich the ensuing discussion in relation to the analyses of the programmes assessed in the light of research objectives.

7.2 Training Programmes.

Training programmes addressing middle and supervisory levels of

management in the Public Sector had to be a) conducted no earlier than 1987 and until April 1988 when the field work has come to an end, and,b) training provided ha. had to address administrative functions in the public sector.

All-in-all, twenty programmes have finally befitted the criterion for selection, analyses and assessment. Thirteen IPA sponsored programmes have formed five distinct groupings while another seven non-IPA based programmes have formed three more groups. The grouping rationale is discussed in the following order;

a) IPA programmes.

1. Personnel.

Under Personnel heading, four programmes conducted by the personnel training department were given to form the group; the programmes are: 'Public Relation''Developing Skill for Training Officers' 'The Comprehensive Training Functions' and 'Appraising Administrative Performance'.

2. Financial administration.

A single programme for Government purchase officers which was under way at the time of the field work was effectively the only financial programme on offer, hence it formed the group.

3. Local government.

Three programmes organised by the training department for local government have formed the group. The three programmes were for 'municipal officers''deputy walis'and 'administrative assistants of walis'.

4.Organisation & Methods (O&M).

Four O&M training programmes organised by the training department bearing the same name have composed this group. The programmes were,'O&M procedure simplification''skill development for managers and their deputies''administration skills for specialists'and finally'organisational skills for newly appointed graduates'.

5.Clerical training.

Within the given constraints, a single programme for clerical training designed for archive officers was eventually selected to form the group.

b) Non-IPA programmes.

1.Hospital Administration; a package of four programmes designed by an external consultant upon the request of the Omani Ministry of Health have formed this group. The programmes were,'The Medical Officers' 'Senior Hospital Administrators''Hospital Administrators and their Assistants and finally,' Hospital Nurses in Charge'.

2.AuditingManagement; Two programmes addressing auditing management organised by the Audit Department in conjunction with an external consultant house have formed this group.The courses were,'Auditing Management for Managers, and ,'Introduction to Auditing'.

3.Social Workers; a single programme conducted by the Ministry of Labour an Social Affairs with technical assistance of an external agency has represented the group.

Table (7.1) refers to the groups and the number of programmes involved in each group. Group formation is justified basically on two

bases, a) area of training provided, and, b) training organisers. Thus eight different training units were, in effect providing and organising the training interventions. Five of these units were within the local IPA, while in the case of the external non-IPA programmes three other agencies were in charge of their training interventions. Care was taken that administrative training programmes selection within IPA as well as without, were to address mainly administration-related functions offered for middle and supervisory level of management in as many administrative areas as possible.

Table (7.1) Number of programmes within Groups

Groups	Number of Programmes	Percentage
1) Personnel	4	20
2) Finance	1	5
3) Local Govt.	3	15
4) O & M	4	20
5) Clerical	1	5
6) Hospital Adm.	4	20
7) Auditing	2	10
8) Social Work	1	5
Total	20	100

Table (7.2) introduces the total number of participants attending training programmes. It appears that the total number of 286 participants have attended formal training provided by the local IPA while another 143 civil servants have effectively taken part in non-IPA based training; thus bringing the total figure to 429.

Table (7.2) Number of Trainees allocated in Programme Groups

Groups	Number of Participants	Percentage
Personnel	80	18.6
Finance	24	5.6
Local Government	55	12.8
Organization & Methods (O&M)	104	24.2
Clerical Training	23	5.4
Hospital Administration	74	17.2
Auditing	38	8.9
Social Workers	31	7.3
Total	429	100.0

Training provided by the Department of Organisation and Methods has·

manifestly the biggest share. i.e. 104 participant while Personnel

Training ranked second and Hospital Administration came in the third

place.

At this point, one needs to stress that programmes designed at unit

level are specially tailored and hence unit-specific. A clear example

is local government programmes, which were designed to accommodate the

needs of public employees working in the local government sector of

administration.

Table (7.3) presents the average number of weeks designed for the

programme groups. In real terms, programmes ranged from one to four

weeks.

Table (7.3) Programme Duration (means)

Programme Groups	Duration
1.Personnel	2.4
2.Finance	4.0
3.Local Govt.	3.2
4.O & M	2.5
5.Clerical Wrk.	4.0
6.Hospital Adm.	2.0
7.Auditing	3.3
8.Social Work	3.0
Average Mean	3.05

7.3. Trainees.

Trainees attending formal general courses on offer on the IPA prospectus normally come from all Government units at large while tailor made courses sponsored by IPA addresses unit-specific needs and hence attendance is restricted to unit members. On the other hand, non-IPA courses are exclusively unit specific and therefore attendance is restricted to members of the organisation providing the given training.

7.3.a.Trainees Organisations.

Trainees distribution on thirty-two government organisation are shown in Table (7.4). As indicated in the table; together, three Government units have accounted for little more than one half of the sample. The Diwan of Royal Court Affairs, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Regional Municipalities have had the total number of 117 of the total count. Further scrutiny into the distribution would reveal that between them, six Government units have had the total figure of 181 participants mounting to some 73.2% of the entire sample whereas the rest of the trainees were spread,though not equally over twenty eight agencies. Twelve units have had a single participant each, another four units had two each and another seven units have had their count ranging from three participantsto six. Only two respondentshave not specified their units.

The clustering tendency shown in Table (7.4) is attributed primarily to the tailor-made programmes regardless of the fact whether they are IPA or non-IPA sponsored so far they are unit-specific. The highest share of the entire sample was that of the Diwan of the Royal Court

Affairs which is basically due to the latter's massive training agenda set forth through the technical assisstance of the local IPA. Second came the share of the Ministry of Health totalling to 43 participantsor 18.5% of the sample which is again understood mainly in the light of the tailor-made programmes. The Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour ranked third with 28 trainees or 12.0% of the total share; the department of Audit had some 21 participant or 9.0% of the total count.

Table (7.4) Trainees Distribution In Government Units.

Government Unit	Number	Percentage
1.Unspecified	2	0.9
2.Royal Court	46	19.8
3.Foreign Affairs	1	0.4
4.Interior	17	7.3
5.Educucation & Youth.	6	2.8
6.Commerce & Industry.	4	1.7
7.Social Affairs & Labour.	28	12.0
8.Ministry.of Housing	4	1.8
9.Regional Municipalities.	16	6.9
10.Ministry.of State(Dhofar)	2	0.9
11.Defence	3	1.3
12.Justice	1	0.4
13.Min.of Environment	4	1.8
14.Civil service Council.	2	0.9
15.Ministry.of Health	43	18.6
16.Agric.& Fisheries	5	2.1
17.Communication	1	0.4
18.Water & Electricity	2	0.9
19.Post	4	1.8
20.Department.of Audit	21	9.0
21.Central Bank	1	0.4
22.Office of Legal Affairs.	1	0.4
23.Office of Comm.Advisor	2	0.9
24.Qaboos University	1	0.4
25.Royal Police	4	1.8
26.Police Court	1	0.4
27.Housing Bank	1	0.4
28.Environment Council.	1	0.4
29.Development Cnl.	1	0.4
30.Min.of Finance & Economy	4	1.8
31.Min.of Information	2	0.9
32.Consultative Council	1	0.4
33.Tender Board	1	0.4
Total	233	100

A point worthwhile stressing that all public agencies whether or not governed by the Civil Service Law benefit from IPA training facilities. Therefore, trainees from the Diwan of the Royal Court, Defense, the Royal Police, the Central Bank, the Housing Bank and few other parasatals have in effect formed a sizeable proportion of the total count reaching some 23.5%. The point of emphasis here is the wider role of the local IPA as a national training institution whose function extends beyond the Civil Service regulatory umbrella.

Table (7.5) introduces the respondents spread over programme groups and their percentage proportion. Grouping process has been discussed in the first section. Participants in Personnel Group of four programmes accounted for the total of 40 or some 17.2% of the count while attendants in Financial Group have had some 7.7% or 18 member of the sample. In the case of Local Government Group, 26 trainees, resembling three training interventions have successfully responded, thus forming some 11.2% of the sample. The biggest group formation was that of O & M Group of four programmes accounting for 24.5% of the sample or effectively the total of 57 respondents, while in the case of Clerical Training Group, 15 respondents forming 6.4% of the sample have successfully responded.

In non-IPA groups, the largest group formation was that of Hospital Administration Group whose four programmes respondents' share was as high as 15.5% or 36 trainees, whereas for the Auditing Group, two programmes have provided 20 respondents accounting for 8.6% of the sample. For the Social Workers Group, 21 respondents accounting for 9.0 percent of the sample were the outcome of the single programme group.

Table(7.5) Number of respondents in programme groups

Groups	No of Respondents	percentage
1.Personnel	40	17.2
2.Finance	18	7.7
3.Local Government	26	11.1
4.O & M	57	24.5
5.Clerical Training	15	6.4
6.Hospital Administration	36	15.5
7.Auditing Mgt.	20	8.6
8.Social Workers	21	9.0
Total	233	100

7.3.b. Age distribution of the sample.

At this point no age group is suggested to be of any particular importance in relation to training intervention so as to reach the stage of fruition; the investigation aims, rather, at ascertaining what influence, if any, age can have within the training context. Age is also relevant within the Omani Civil Service context; particularly given its recency and the composition of the civil servants and their distribution within the grading system and consequently their location in the administrative strata. Also the fact cannot be ignored, that entry age into government service, knowing that formal education attainment level is or was no bar, would substantially vary hence upward mobility follows suit thus the point of relevance in terms of age composition of the group in a training intervention aimed at a given level of administration.

Table (7.6) Age Distribution of the Sample

Age Group	Number	Percentage
Under 21	12	5.2
21-25	64	27.5
26-35	104	44.6
36-45	46	19.7
46-55	7	3.0
Total	233	100

As shown in Table 7.6, only 5.2% of the entire sample were 21 years of age while 27.5% of the respondents have fallen into the second category resembling 21-25 years of age whereas the majority of 105 or 45.1% were within the region of the middle category in the range of between 26 to 35. Some 46 or 19.7% of the sample were within 36 to 45 years of age while a minority of only 6 respondents have located themselves in the last category of 46 to 55 years of age. The earliest retirement age is sixty or at least twenty years of Government service.

In figure (7.1) a chart reflecting age group distribution on programme group level is given. Scrutiny of the chart would reveal that the older age category appears only in two programme groups, O & M 5.3% of the group and Hospital Administration 8.1% of the group. The youngest age group appeared to be relatively high in the Clerical Training Group reaching some 26.7% of the group.

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Figure (7.1) Age Group Distribution in Programme Groups
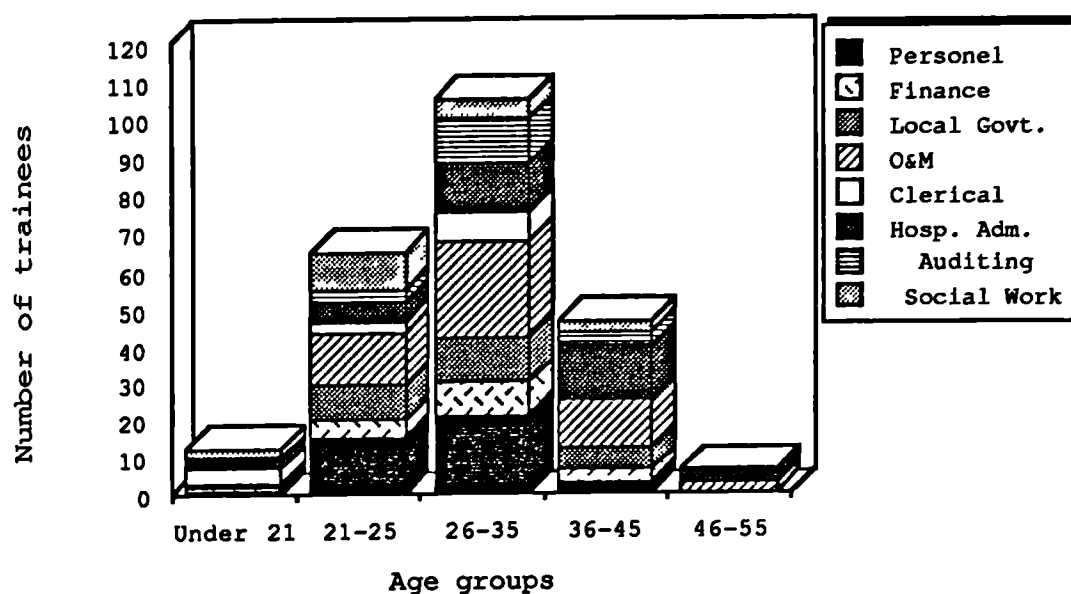
The largest proportional percentage was the share of middle age category of 26 to 35 years of age, as described earlier and the largest percentage share was that of Auditing Management Group immediately followed by Clerical Training Group reaching 53.3%, next was the Personnel 52.5%, then Finance 50.0% and O & M 45.6%. In terms of real figures the largest number of this age group,26 of them are the share of O & M group that reflects a relatively higher degree of homogeneity in the age group of attendants; next are the Personnel share in absolute figures reaching 21 trainee which is again an indicator of age harmony. In the fourth age group, the biggest share was that of Hospital Administration Group resembling 37.8% of the group and the total of 14 respondents, an incidence interpreted in the light of the profession and the relatively longer career service by group members which will be discussed later in this section. It is encouraging, at

any rate, to realise the age diversity of the trainees attending training interventions which will still add further richness to the data collection process.

7.3.c. Sex, Marital Status.

While Table (7.7) shows that the sample is predominantly male, 213 or 91.4% of the respondents whereby the minority of merely 20 or 8.6% of the sample were females which is in contrast to the overall proportion is an encouraging sign that tells of the forthcomingness of the female civil servants and their active participation in training activities. The figures as reported by training officials are ever increasing although they reflect to an extent the proportional representation of the female composition of the Civil Service

Table (7.7) Sex Composition of the sample

Male	Percent	Female	Percent	Total	Percent
213	91.4	20	8.6	233	100.0

Table(7.8) shows that the sample is predominated by married men/women; the majority of 82.8%. Nine percent of the sample were divorcees.

Table (7.8) Marital Status

Single	%	Married	%	Divorced	%	Total	%
38	16.3	193	82.8	2	0.9	233	100

7.3.d Tenure in Government Service.

Tenure in Government service and time spent in present job are of particular importance in relation to training impacts on actual performance sofar as training is systematically tied with job requirements and actual performance standards as well as individual needs against job demands. Table (7.9) clearly indicates that a little more than one quarter or 61 members of the sample have been in Government service for relatively short period; from less than a year to 3 years; whereas another 20.2% or 40 members of the sample have had 4 to 6 years of service though not necessarily holding the same job, another 43 were within the region of 7 to 9 years of Government service. The total of 71 respondents have shared from 10 at the minimum to 15 at the maximum years of service totalling little over 30% of the entire sample; the last 18 were those who enjoyed relatively longer service years ranging from 16 to more than 19 years of service though not necessarily within the Omani Civil Service context.

Table (7.9) Years in Government Service

Years	No.of Trainees	Percentage
1-3	61	26.2
4-6	40	17.2
7-9	43	18.5
10-12	33	14.0
13-15	38	16.3
16-18	9	3.9
19-over	9	3.9
Total	233	100

Figure (7.2) shows the means of length of service years in each programme group; the highest being that of participants in Hospital

Administration Group 11.9 and the lowest is that of the Social Workers

Group 4.8. The second highest is that of Auditing Management Group that

scored 9.8. In the IPA sponsored programmes the highest average of 8.1

was the share of the Clerical Training Group while the lowest mean was

that of Personnel Group which has shown an average mean of 6.7. The

overall mean of the entire sample in relation to length of service was

8.2. Particular importance is being attached to the length of service

insofar as upward mobility and promotional advancement is concerned.

Noteworthy at this point the claim made that promotion is determined

mostly on seniority merit.

Figure (7.2) Average Mean of Length of Service of Programme

Groups
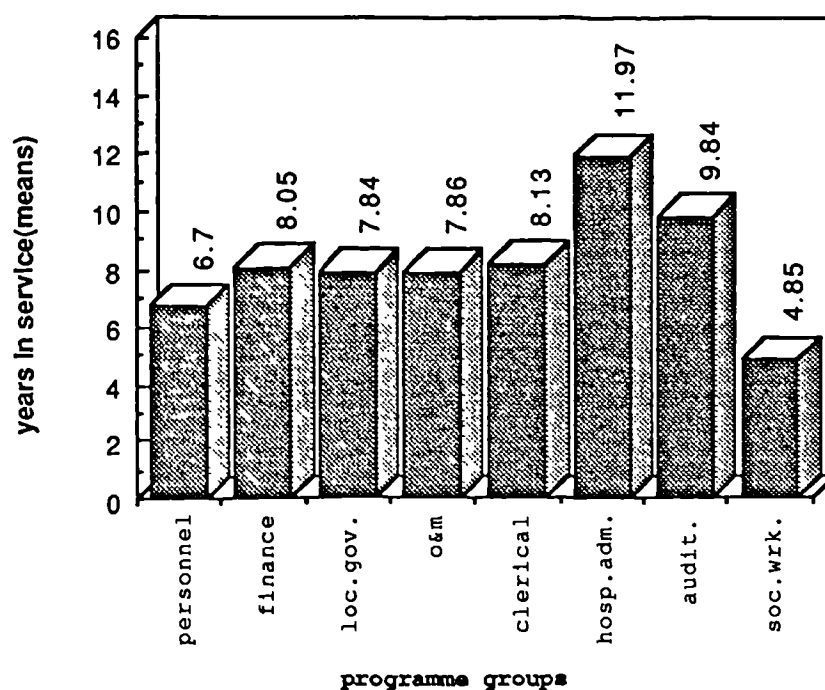
7.3.d.1.Years at present job.

Number of years spent in the same job is an indicator of experience

stability and an element of additional merit insofar as better chances

for training to prove relevance particularly when it is to be complemented and followed up due to accumulation factor. As shown in Table (7.10) the majority of the respondents have fallen within the relatively shorter length of service doing the same job. 104 have been in the region of less than one to three years of service whereas at the other extreme only six have been more-or-less in their present job for sixteen and more. The total of 85 have had either 4 or 9 years of experience at the minimum and maximum respectively. Another 39 respondents have either had 10 or 15 years respectively. The average mean of the entire group in relation to the length of service in the present job was 5.68; an indicator of relative stability and reasonably good experience across the sample in the public service that is plagued with transfers and turnovers from post to post and from one unit to another.

Table (7.10) Years spent at present job

Years at Present Job	Number	Percentage
less than 1-3	104	44.6
4-6	48	20.6
7-9	37	15.9
10-12	19	8.2
13-15	20	8.6
16 and over	5	2.1
Total	233	100

Mean:5.68

Figure (7.3) spreads the sample along the programmes groups for further insight into the length of service at group level.

Figure (7.3) Years of Service in Present Post.
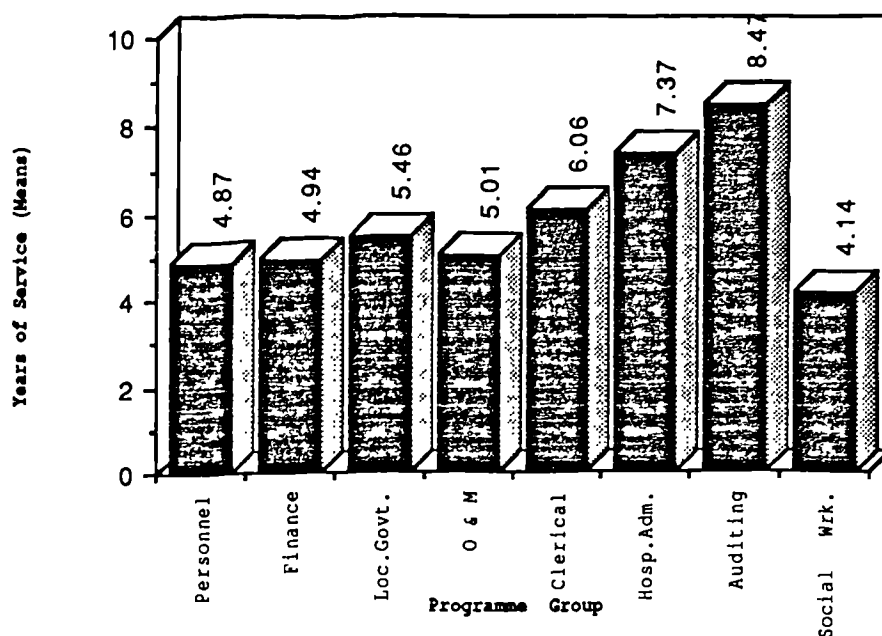
Judging by the means shown in the figure, Personnel and Finance Groups have enjoyed the relatively smaller average means of 4.87, and 4.94 respectively while Local Government and O & M Groups have had the average means of 5.46 and 5.01. The Clerical Group had the highest mean in the IPA based Groups with 6.06. The non-IPA groups of programmes have demonstrated slightly higher average particularly in the cases of Hospital Administration and Auditing Management Groups whose means were 7.37 and 8.47 respectively. The Social Workers Group was of the lower mean of 4.14 which is more or less within the vicinity of most of the IPA programme groups. In general terms, again, the indications are that on group level the variations are not substantially diverse and that the sample does share a certain resemblance in relation to their job-related length of service.

7.3.e. Distribution according to Grades.

Grades and grading system within the context of Omani Civil Service signify, by and large, the individual's location in the hirarchical structure in the given unit. Until 1980, and within the directives of the first Civil Service Law, grades have borne strongly the status connotation of the individual. University degree holders for example were granted upon entry into the public service grade 2/2 bearing the title of deputy directors, while highschools leavers would be granted with grade 4/2 bearing the title of assistant head of a section. A deputy director normally is entitled to promotion every two years and the next grade is that of a director; the same criteria applied for other grades since seniority basically was the determinant for promotion. This is no longer the practice within the framework of the present Civil Service Law where the grading system has been modified to provide more avenues for upward mobility and promotional chances. Grades were basically detached from their old functional connotations, even though the real world practice did not follow suit. It is for this reason the grade standing of the sample is explored and is of specific relevance in relation to the samples' supervisory and management stance within the service regulations.

Table(7.11) displays the sample distribution along the presently applicable grading system in the Civil Service.

Table(7.11) Sample Distribution By Grades

Grade	Number	Percent
Special Rank.	12	5.2
3/1	3	1.3
5/1	3	1.3
6/1	9	3.9
1/2	27	11.6
2/2	60	25.7
3/2	30	12.8
4/2	41	17.5
5/2	12	5.2
6/2	17	7.3
7/2	3	1.3
Others	16	6.9
Total	233	100

There are twelve items on display in relation to grading; the first, showing little more than 5% located in the higher special ranking category which is an index that stands on its own though within the civil service grading structure. In sum, it is the most senior level in the grading hierarchy. Following the same order, the next three grades are one half of the properties of Ring I discussed in the earlier chapters relevant to the Civil Service structure. These grades are the higher ranking category in the general grading system that does not include the special ranking grades. A little more than 6% of the sample resides in three different properties of Ring I.

Next comes six successive grades within the properties of Ring II, in the general grading system and in descending order; i.e. 1/2 being the highest and 7/2 the lowest. Entry into public service for university degree holders is granted through grade 2/2 referred to

earlier and the managerial connotation associated to its occupants still holds. By the same token occupants of grade 1/2 more often than not are of managerial post and functions. Occupants of grades 3/2 and 4/2 are normally perceived to be holding a supervisory post of head of a section and assistant head of section respectively in the old Civil Service system. In reality, little has changed, in relation to the new Civil Service Law. The last three grades of Ring II bear no supervisory connotation; a little more than 13% of the sample have located themselves in grades 5/2 through 7/2. The presence of the total number of 158 of the aggregate or nearly 60% in the upper four grades of Ring II is indicative of the middle level location of trainees in the grading structure. There were another 16 members of the sample being associated with different grading structure not within the Civil Service structure although still in the public service, i.e. Police, Civilians in Defense and other parastatals.

In conclusion, there is a very wide mix in the sample in respect to their grading stance that matches the wide interpretation of middle management and supervisory stance of government employees. A point which is often raised by trainers who cannot determine for sure what rule to follow as measurement criteria in the final selection of trainees in relation to their stance.

Figure (7.4) endeavours to show the grade mix within the context of programme groups.

Figure(7.4) Grade Distribution In Programme Groups
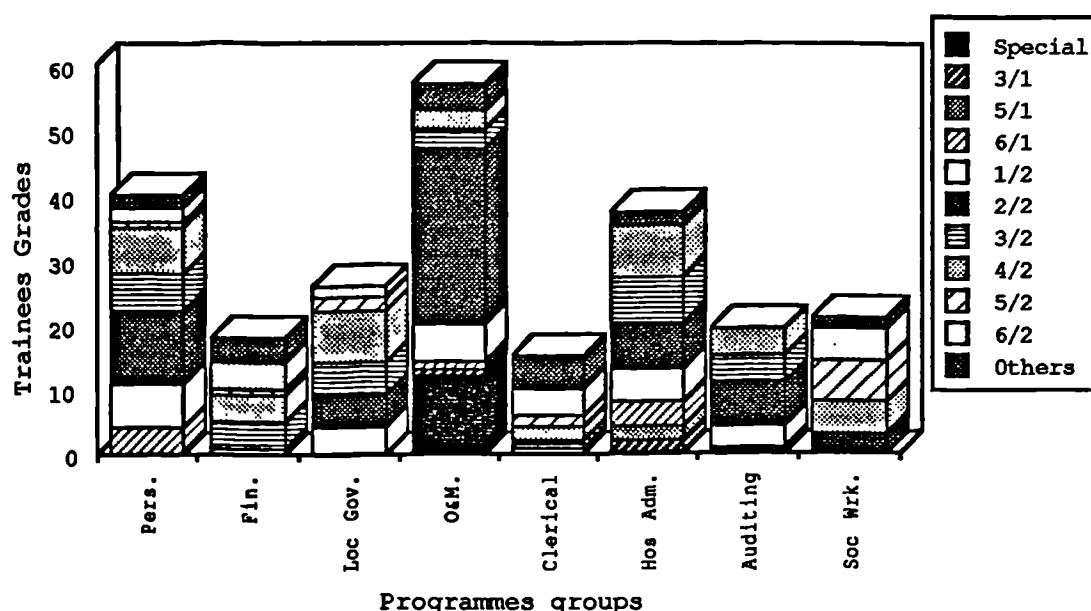
The heavy presence of special ranking grades in O & M programme groups is noticeable; they represent a little more than 20% of grade distribution in that group so is the groups share of 2/2 grade occupants which is the highest among the rest of the groups reaching some 27 traineesor effectively little more than 47% of the groups count which is in a sense, an indicator of grade homogeniety. On the other hand, the majority of occupants of different grades of Ring I were the properties of Hospital Administration Group who accounted for little more than 21% of the groups total count. Otherwise, the rest of the grades were spread over the entire group except for the fact that grades 5/2 through to 7/2 have had no presence in again O & M, Hospital

Administration and Auditing Management Groups whereas the highest share
of these grades were within the context of Clerical Training Group
reaching nearly 40% of the total count of the groups share.

7.3.f. Job Titles and Formal Qualification.

Job titles of members of the sample isavalid indicator of trainees
actual function in the their respective units. It also helps further
clarify the samples' functional stance within the middle and
supervisory level of management particularly when other indicators
stood short from comprehensively determining what does a trainee really
do in real world. Table (7.12) sums the actual job title borne by
participants as reported by them.

Table (7.12) Job Titles Held By Sample Members

Title	Number	Percentage
Director	20	8.6
D/Director	19	8.2
Section Head	32	13.7
Ass/Section Hd.	10	4.3
Senior Clerk	36	15.5
Hosp.Administ.	8	3.4
Medical Off.	5	2.1
Ass.Hosp.Admin.	13	5.6
Auditor	16	6.9
Doctor	3	1.3
Statistition	1	0.4
Economist	2	0.9
Accountant	4	1.7
Deputy Wali	8	3.4
Municipal Officer	12	5.2
Social Worker	22	9.4
Others	22	9.4
Total	233	100

Sample distribution reported in table (7.12) in relation to job

titles have at times, indicated the sample members' location in the organisational hierarchy (viz.Director, Assistant Director, Head of Section and the like) while in other cases further specification was reported (i.e.Hospital Administrator and their Assistants, Auditors, Deputy Walis and Municipal Officers) whereas the rest of the sample have indicated the title that speaks for itself and further indicates the profession. Some 91 members of the sample have held an explicitly pronounced management and supervisory positions as defined by their job titles irrespective of their job specifics. However, some 22 or little more than 9% have borne job titles not incorporated within the Civil Service context thus were not categorised within the table; another indication of their special status stance outside the Civil Service Regulation.

Some 15.5 percent of the sample have borne the title of senior clerks that is taken to incorporate supervisory functions as well. 26 members of the sample have shared the titles related to hospital administration ranging from medical officers to nurses in charge as well as senior and hospital administrators and their assistants. The sample also included 16 members working in the auditing profession though not necessarily enjoying the same professional stance. There were also three doctors among participants attending general administration courses, in addition to the medical officers. There were also eight Deputy Walis, twelve Municipal Officers and twenty-two in the social work profession. One statistition, four accountants and two economists were also among sample members.

Such diversity would, beyond doubt add more richness into the ensuing discussion and analyses insofar as their area of expertise and

the different facets of administration in the public office.

7.3.g. Formal Qualification.

In pursuit for additional insight into the specifics of sample members, an exploration into their formal qualification stance is a requisite to cast light on course attendants degree of homogeneity not only in their other common features like age, experience, seniority, and profession but also in their formal educational stand particularly within the context of public employment policy, past and present. Table (7.13) displays the sample's formal education position.

Table (7.13) Formal Education

Education Level	Number	Percentage
Primary	17	7.3
Intermediate	52	22.3
Secondary	33	14.2
High-School	37	15.9
Univ.Part-Timer	19	8.2
Univ.Degree	52	22.3
Post Graduate	3	1.3
Vocational Instit.	7	3.0
Intermediate College	5	2.1
Self Educated	4	1.7
Others	4	1.7
Total	233	100

Qualifications basically scholastic held by sample members are naturally expected to vary given the diversities associated with grade disparities, job titles and the wide spread of professions and varied levels of seniority, expertise and degree of complexity and sophistication of jobs held. Hence the vast spread of middle and supervisory level of management in terms of their formal qualification. While there were slightly over 7% of the sample in possession of their

primary level of education at one extreme there were nearly 2% in

possession of post-graduate certificates. There were also a

coincidental equal proportion of university degree holders on the one

hand with more 52 members of the sample holding them and another 52 on

the other hand who were in possession of their intermediate level of

education. Another 70 or effectively 30% of the sample have possessed

either high-school certificate or were still in the region of secondary

level of education. Distinction was also made between university degree

holders and university part-timers who pursue their higher education

through correspondence and sit for examination on that bases with some

non-local educational institutions; such practice on the part of civil

servants is very popular and ever increasing while the formal policy is

very much supportive through a chain of incentives commensurate to

successful completion. There were little more than 8% that have fallen

in this category. Four members of the group have had a non-formal

self-styled form of education once so popular before 1970 when there

were not so many formal education facilities available in the country.

Another four members of the sample have not reported their formal

educational stance.

Qualifications' share amongst programme groups is also presented in

figure (7.5). The highest share of university degree holders was that

of O & M Group with 22 members of the sample and 38.6% of the group

overall share; next comes the Personnel Group with 13 or 32.5% of its

total share. The least qualified cluster was that of Clerical Group

whose majority was of intermediate level of education forming some

66.7% of the group with nearly another 20% within the secondary level

of education. The second least qualified was the Financial Group who,

apart from including one university degree holder and another

university part-timer, the rest have fallen within the lower

qualifications. The three post-graduates were the share of O & M Group

and Hospital Administration Group. The university part-timers were

spread over five programme groups with Social Workers, Hospital

Administration and Personnel Groups share of four trainees each, and

Local Government and O & M groups sharing three applicants each, with

last trainee being the share of Financial Group as mentioned earlier.

Generally speaking there has been a wide mix in terms of formal

scholastic qualification which is yet one more dimension of

complexities felt and expressed strongly by trainers and training

organisers in relation to training interventions be they IPA based or

externally organised.

Figure (7.5) Formal Education Among Groups
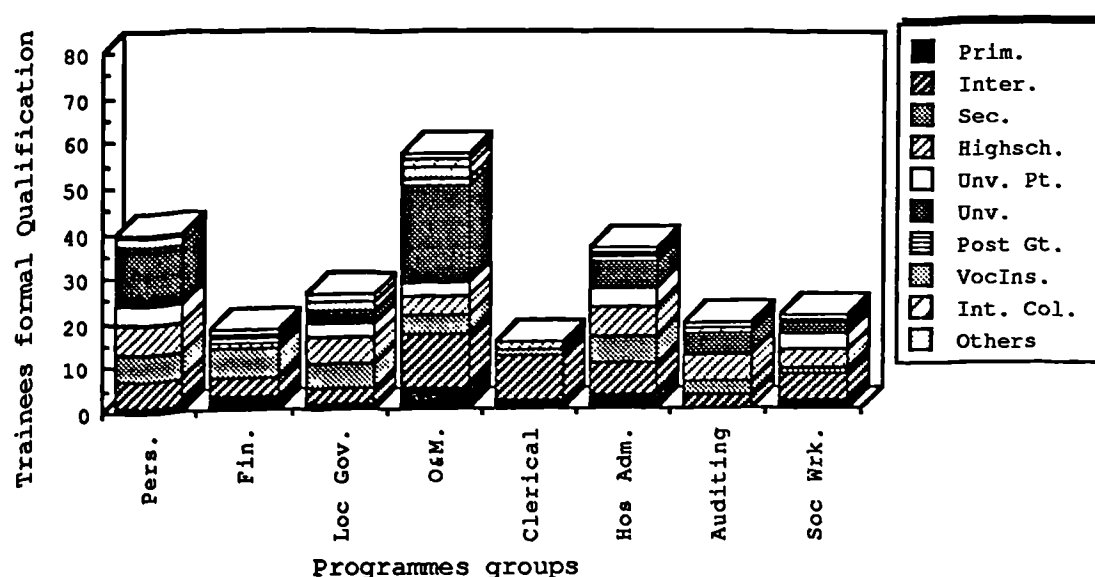
7.3.h.1. Previous Training.

The question of former training undertaken by sample members is of

no little relevance in relation to trainees being formerly exposed to training medium. The question posed in the questionaire has sought answers as to whether the respondents have had any formal administrative training during the past two years of service. In response, the majority of 142 or little more than 60% reported no training undertaken in the specified duration. Upon further elaboration, another 11 respondent failed to specify the type of training the have had. Table (7.14) indicates the responses.

Table (7.14) Former Training in the Past Two Years

Field of Training	Number	Percentage
No Training	142	60.9
Unaccounted For	11	4.7
Personnel	16	6.9
Finance	8	3.4
Local Govt.	7	3.0
O & M	10	4.3
Clerical	12	5.2
Language	7	3.0
Hospital Adm.	4	1.7
Audit	12	5.2
Social Wrk.	4	1.7
Total	233	100

Apart from a handsome majority of the sample who did not report any such form of training and the others who failed to specify the sort of training they have had, the rest were grouped in areas of training ranging from personnel that ranked first with nearly 10 percent; clerical training and auditing management training coming second with a little more than 5 percent each while O & M training ranking third with little more than 4 percent of the total count. There were also language

courses reported as part of the training undertaken by sample members; 3 percent was the count. Other areas of training included social work with nearly 2 percent and local government training reporting some 3 percent.

Duration of training involved was reported ranging from one week to six weeks. Some sixty members of the sample had their former training over the period of one week at the minimum to three weeks at the maximum. Another thirty have pointed training duration to be ranging from four to six weeks. In relation to the organisers of previous training, thirty-six members of the sample have reported that their former training was organised by the local IPA whereas forty members have indicated non IPA organisers; another fifteen members of the sample have had their previous training abroad.

7.4.A. Trainers and/or training organisers.

The term 'trainer' and 'training organiser' would be used interchangeably since no distinction is being made between the two. The trainers who conducted the training for the twenty programmes were interviewed inorder to capture yet another dimension to consolidate findings in relation to programme assessment process. This section is set therefore, to explore, though in very broad terms, the general features of this group with little details insofar as their personal characteristics are concerned. Trainers and/or training organisers role, needless to say, is by all means vital to the success of training intervention, specifically in relation to a) the immediate form of programme evaluation, and b) eventually in the follow-up process ensuing the programme completion, to ascertain success and to ensure the existence and maintanance of the feed-back process necessary for

any professional trainer.

The total number of 35 trainers and/or training organisers were hence consulted not only within the context of their programme-specific comments and knowledge, but also in relation to their overall reaction to training endeavours conducted for middle and supervisory level of management. Table (7.15) spreads the total figure over programme group's share.

Table (7.15) Programme Groups' Share Of Trainers

Group	Trainers	Percentage
Personnel	11	3 1 . 4
Financial	2	5.7
Local Govt.	7	20.0
O & M	7	20.0
Clerical	2	5.7
Hosp.Adm.	1	2.9
Auditing	2	5.7
Social Workers.	3	8 . 6
Total	35	100

In group allocation of trainers, the total share of programmes sponsored by the Institute of Public Administration was as high as 29 well over 80% of trainers total, while only 6 or nearly 17% of the trainers were the share of the non-IPA sponsored programmes.

Trainers and/or training organisers group allocation was determined primarily by availability, number of programmes involved and time constraint. However, the fact that IPA-sponsored programmes' share was substantially higher is due to the fact that trainers could be contacted in IPA premises were they operate on continuous bases. Only one trainer had to be approached by mail while the rest were individually interviewed. There is also a substantial difference in

the number of trainers allocated to groups. While there were 11 trainers in the case of personnel training groups, there was only one trainer in the hospital administration group. In the case of IPA programmes, there were four trainers to be consulted for the single programme groups, with two each whereas there were 14 trainers consulted in relation to O & M and Local Government Groups, with 7 trainers each. The highest share of the non-IPA sponsored groups was that of Social Workers' that rose to 3 trainers.

1) <u>Trainers Qualification</u>.

Twelve of the trainers were in possession of their first degree be it a B.A or a B.Sc. whereas another twelve have obtained their second higher   degree (MBA or MPA) while another five were PH.d holders. The remaining two have had post graduate Diplomas.

2) <u>Job Titles</u>.

Trainers interviewed have reported a host of job titles under which they formally operate. Ironically, none of the titles cited was of a 'trainer'. In the case of IPA related trainers, there is considerable vagueness in this respect and hence the question would be pursued little further; in the case of non IPA trainers, again, none has reported 'trainer' to be the exclusive job title, though their respective job description does indicate, among other things, training responsibilities. For IPA members of training staff the dilemma of dual identity prevails; and thus the institution relates itself more with academic agencies and aspires to develop into one once such an opportunity presents itself. Therefore, titles reported were of lecturers, researchers or some other organisational functions like head of departments or professional title of advisors or consultants. Table

(7.16) shows the spread of job titles.

Table (7.16) Trainers' Job Titles.

Title	Number	Percentage
1. Lecturer	15	42.8
2. Researcher	3	8.6
3. Head of Dept.	14	40.0
4. Advisor	2	5.7
5. Consultant	1	2.9
Total	35	100

Fifteen respondent have reported to be lecturers, whereas three members of the group have pointed out their title to be of a researcher. While fourteen members have conducted training in their capacity as Heads of training department. Another two were training in their capacity as advisors whose responsibilities include training undertaking. The thirty-fifth respondent reported to be a consultant. In sum, eighteen members of the group were primarily trainers judging by their actual functions, fourteen were training organisers who, in addition to their supervisory functions in the training unit as training organisers, conduct training.

3) **Years of Service.**

The question of experience was addressed in the interview to cast light at trainers past involvement in the training profession. Inarguably, trainers with longer experience in the profession are better suited in conducting training in a more competent manner. Table (7.17) displays the differential between trainers length of service.

Table (7.17) Trainers Length of Service.

Number of Years	Trainers	Percentage
1-3	6	17.1
4-6	16	45.7
8-10	4	11.5
12-over	9	25.7
Total	35	100

The trainers interviewed have substantially varied in relation to their length of service. Nine of the trainers, or nearly 26% have enjoyed the relatively lengthy 12 years of experience. Note-worthy is the fact that these trainers were non nationals who operate on annual contractual bases. Sixteen of the trainers or effectively 45.7% have had their experience length varying between 4 and 6 years while the last four have had from 8 to 10 years of experience with the entire groups' mean been 7.3. Judging by the overall mean, trainers involved have had a relatively adequate length of service mostly in the same profession, i.e training.

4) Training Load.

Non IPA based trainers are not solely in the training business; they are mostly consultancy agencies that accommodate training only as part of professional consultation, but they do other forms of business. That is only natural if they are to remain in business, since they are purely commercial. This was mostly the case with Hospital Administration and Auditing management Groups of programmes. But for IPA-based full-time trainers, the nature of work assigned to trainers besides training itself is worthwhile exploring. Therefore, issues

related to trainers' other functions were further explored. To serve the purpose, the questions asked in this respect were addressing the division of time amongst different functions assigned to trainers. Responding to the question whether trainers have other things to do beside training, the entire group responded positively. When further elaboration was sought, 29 trainers have reported conducting research while 25 have confirmed pursuing consultations whereas the overwhelming majority of 34 reported other administrative activities. Then, the question went a little further, in pursuit of the proportional percentages of the different activities. The average means of responses are displayed in Table (7.17). The average time allocation for training was 46.14% whereas there has been 12.85% trainers' time being allocated for consultation. In the case of research, time allocations' average mean was 14.62 and as far as other administrative activities are concerned, time allocation has averaged some 18.37.

It is demonstrably explicit, that training function has substantially the upper hand insofar as other activities were concerned. And although the four activities are interrelated, and can be considered complementary to each other rather than separate functions; trainers see them as separate activities that take part at the expense of training function itself that involves research, planning and programme design in addition to curriculum development.

Figure (7.6) Trainers Proportionate Activities
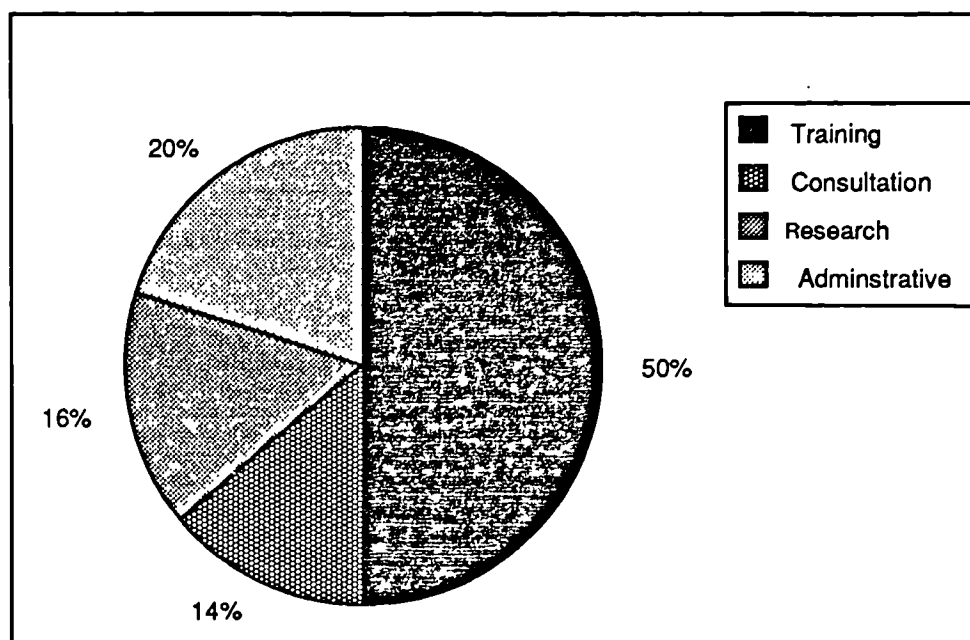
5. <u>Programme Design</u>.

Generally speaking, many of the training programmes were found to be tailor-made and were meant to address specific needs. When faced with the question whether their programmes were run for the first time. 23 trainers confirmed that the programmes they run, though they are need-specific, yet they have been re-introduced upon realisation of real need and demand as well as successful past record. Some trainers have raised the point of time constraints and work load that would ultimately oblige trainers to resort to readily available designs made by themselves and have already stood the test of time.

Asked whether re-running the programme was subjected to any form of modification, the majority of 24 reported varied degrees of modification being introduced to the said programmes. On the other hand some 11 trainers have pointed out no modification what-so-ever. The majority of 16 trainers did confirm that their programmes were

subjected to very substantial modification. Only 2 trainers reported

substantial while the remaining 6 reported some forms of modification.

Responding to the question relating to course design conceived to be

the trainers sole responsibility, only 3 trainers confirmed that versus

the majority of 32 respondent who confirmed co-designing their courses

with other members of staff. The course design question was left there

with no further elaboration. Although course design and curriculum

development are inter-related, none-the-less, special provision was

made for the curriculum development issue. Responding to the query

whether trainers develop their own curricula as opposed to ready-made

kits so popular in the training industry; 25 respondent reported

affirmatively though as a concerted effort within the training

organisation. The entire positive respondents were IPA based.

5.3.B.Trainees Immediate Supervisors.

In relation to their respective trainees, the immediate supervisors

were questioned in search for further evidence whether or not

programmes, in their view, have achieved the pronounced objectives.

Some forty questions were asked after the training intervention, noneof

which had anything to do with the respondents' personal

characteristics. The same number of trainees' immediate supervisors

were approached directly through the trainees themselves who were

requested to hand in the questionnaire with a telephone contact with

the researcher. Only the total figure of 174 responses were eventually

received providing little more than 74% of their respective trainees

responses. Table (7.18) clarifies the bosses responses in relation to

programme groups.

Table (7.18) Superiors' Responses in Relation to Trainees Responses

Programme Grp.	Trainees	Percentage	Superiors	Percentage
Personnel	40	17.2	24	13.8
Finance	18	7.7	10	5.8
Local Govt.	26	11.2	15	8.6
O & M	57	24.5	50	28.7
Clerical	15	6.4	15	8.6
Hosp.Adm.	36	15.4	29	16.7
Auditing	20	8.6	12	6.9
Social Work.	21	9.0	19	10.9
Total	233	100	174	100

The table displays trainees' responses in group allocation with the corresponding responses of their superiors. At group level, the highest matching rate is that of Clerical training with fifteen trainees and their respective superiors responding; next highest proportion was that of Social Workers Group with slightly more than 90% of the respondents' trainees superiors answering the questionnaire. Encouragingly, none of the groups' superiors responses was bellow 60% of the corresponding trainees group.

In absolute figures, the highest share was that of O & M group of programmes with 50 superiors or 28.7% of the total share; next comes the Hospital Administration group of programmes, with some 29 superiors or 16.6% of the total count. The Personnel group of programmes with some 24 superiors representing some 13.3% of the total comes in the third place. In sum, the total superiors responses for the IPA based programmes was in the range of 75% of the total count or effectively some 114 bosses responding.

Summary.

The chapter presented the general features of a) the sample of trainees attending twenty training programmes for middle and supervisory level of management in the public sector grouped in eight formation. Five groups in the Omani Institute of Public Administration while three other groups were attending non-IPA sponsored training conducted on the unit level. b) Trainers and/or training organisers in charge of the given programmes were also presented, and c) trainees immediate supervisors were also introduced. Emphasis was clearly put on the sample of trainees in the presentation process.

Group formation was dictated by area of training and the organising unit. IPA based Groups were, 1) Personnel,2) Finance,3) Local Government, 4) O & M, and,5) clerical; while non IPA programmes were 6) Hospital Administration, 7) Auditing Management, and finally 8) Social Workers.

Trainees attending these programmes have come from 33 Government units, resembling nearly the entire Government apparatus. It was found that three government agencies have had little more than 50% of the total count due to the programmes tailor made to meet unit-specific training needs. At group level, the biggest share was that of O & M group of programmes forming nearly one quarter of the total count.

In terms of age, it was found that a sizeable proportion of 45% of the trainees were within the age group ranging from 26 to 35, only 52 members of the sample were over 35 while 76 respondent were under 26. The sample was predominantly male (91.4%) and married (82.8%).

In relation to sample members' length of service; the average was found to be slightly more than 8 years, although the actual figures pertaining to groups have substantially varied. The total number of 101 members of the sample have had relatively shorter service period

ranging from under one to six years; the rest were spread over periods of service that varied from 7 at the minimum to 40 at the maximum.

Grading structure was also explored; the majority of 173 were located themselves in the upper echelon of the grading structure applicable in the Civil Service. These grades imply strongly managerial and supervisory functions. For further details, job title of sample members were also explored. Findings, in this regard have reflected diversity insofar as actual job titles is concerned. Job titles effectively covered a very extensive mix with representation of directors and their deputies; section heads and their assistants; municipal officers; deputy walis and their assistants; medical officers; hospital administrators; nurses in charge; social worker; senior clerks; auditors; economists; doctors; statistitian and accountants.

In relation to formal education stand of the sample. Responses have effectively spread the sample on a continuum ranging from primary level to post graduate levels of education. Never-the-less, high-school leavers and secondary level of education have formed the majority of 52 percent of the sample. While 32 percent of the sample were either university degree holders or in pursuit of their higher education.

Previous training undertaken by sample members was also explored. It was found that the majority of 60 percent have reported no previous formal training in the past two years. The rest of the sample, who confirmed undergoing previous training have further specified what sort of training they have been through. With a minority of respondents who failed to elaborate, the rest were spread in areas ranging from personnel to social workers including languages. Technical training was discounted.

Trainers and/or training organisers, in charge of training interventions were also briefly introduced. The total number of 35 trainers were interviewed; 29 of them, were the share of the IPA based programmes. The highest share was that of personnel group of programmes that reached some 11 trainers while the lowest was that of hospital administration that stood with only one trainer. Trainers specifics were introduced in general terms; their qualifications; their length of service; their job titles etc.

For the trainees immediate supervisors, proportional figures corresponding to trainees were introduced. No data pertaining to the trainees superiors was introduced. It appears that supervisors were also spread over thirty-three government units. In general, the supervisors totalled some 174 or effectively more than 74% of their corresponding trainees.

CHAPTER EIGHT

TRAINING POLICY AND PRACTICES

AT THE GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTAL LEVEL

8.1 Introduction

The major focus of this chapter is to project training practices at

the departmental level in the Government sector. Data gathered and

analysed are collected in stage I of the investigation process when

thirty-four training and/or personnel officers were interviewed for the

purpose of highlighting the current state of affairs at the unit level

in relation to policy formulation and subsequent implementation in the

training domain. Government organisations as recipients of training

are expedited and encouraged to comment on the quality of training

interventions be they were offered centrally by the local Institute of

Public Administration or furnished at the unit level, tailormade to

accommodate their unit's specific needs. Such a macro projection is

indeed a must if training is to be addressed in proper context. The

major thrust in this chapter of analysis, is to touch upon the current

state of units' readiness, preparedness, intention and resources

allocation made available to undertake the training function.

To ascertain departmental practices, a thorough investigation was

conducted into different stages of training function beginning with

policy formulation to diagnosis of training needs to the question of

follow up and evaluation. The management of training function was also

scrutinised; its locus and status in the organisational chart was

explored. The investigation did not limit itself to a particular

training programme, rather the intention was to draw a general picture of the overall training practices. Obstacles present as well as potential were also probed to training. The chapter concludes with a summary.

8.2 Training Needs

The first and foremost step in any systematic form of training is the proper identification of training requirements. (Kenny & Donnelly; 1972: 31) It is well established through experience that before embarking on any form of effective manpower training and development, needs assessment is a basic prerequisite not only in relation to establishing a data base but also in identifying when and where and what form training intervention is mostly needed.

Not all needs at the organisational level are effectively considered training needs. Price (1979:17) pin points the fact that at times individuals have concerns. Those concerns though legitimate, are not always supported by facts thus they are not training needs. The assessment side thus concerns itself with data collection process so as to transform those expressed concerns on the part of individual members into a validated need. Those validated needs, hence, are rated and ranked according to the predetermined criteria. Therefore, the needs assessment process is basically a systematic procedure through which perceived and expressed needs are identified and ultimately ranked in a priority order. Worthy to mention at this point that needs assessment alone cannot determine every course of action or the subsequent desired change on the part of management

As vital and important as it is, there seems to be an alarming - probably unintentional - disregard on the part of training activists to

the process of needs analysis in the Government bureaucracy.

When asked what methods organisations applied in their assessment of their respective organisational training needs, more than 82 per cent reported that they do that simply through getting in touch with different departments without going into further details as with regard to how those needs were identified as training needs in the first place. Little more than 32 per cent emphasised that they would associate need identification with organisational changes and the general mobility trends - turnover, new recruits, attrition and promotions - as assessment indicators. Table 8.1, lists respondents' current forms of practices.

Table 8.1 Assessment of Training Needs

Methods Used	Number	Percentage*
a. Departmental Contacts	28	82.5
b. Organisation Mobility	11	32.5
c. Contacts with Personnel Dept.Consult Performance Appraisal Annual Reports	12	35.0
d. Assess Problematic areas, (bottle-necks,complaints, low morale etc.)	3	9.0
e. Simply consulting Employees what sort of training they may need.	3	9.0
f. Other means	13	38.0

* Figures are not mutually exclusive.
  N = 34

Only 35 per cent of the respondents pointed out that they would further consult personnel records and scrutinise job descriptions, performance appraisals and annual reports in search for disparities and performance ailments that may or may not prove valid for training

remedial solutions. Nearly 9 per cent stated that they would further examine problematic areas in the organisational life (i.e. customer/employee complaints, state of morale, bottle-necks etc.) as indicators for needs assessment process. Another 9 per cent of the respondents claimed that they carried out their need assessment exercise simply by interrogating individuals to ascertain their current state of performance for analyses purposes. Looking at similar practices in the context of the United Kingdom, a major British study (HMSO,1972) targeting some 290 organisations and covering some 1192 managers has explored the question of needs analysis with sufficient depth. The results are rather interesting. Of the firms studied, 38 per cent used performance appraisal, whereas only 27 per cent referred to individual discussions with the managers concerned conducted by their immediate superiors.

It emerged, that although nearly 87 per cent of the companies surveyed were seemingly trying to assess their managers' training needs one way or another. 63 per cent have effectively resorted to a method apparently more systematic than informal observation alone. Actual practices, never-the-less, have proven to be widely dissimilar. The study has also indicated a continuing gap in practice between the needs perceived by the organisation on the one hand and the needs of the individual on the other.

At the central level, although the Diwan of the Personnel Affairs (DPA), now Ministry of Civil Service, in coordination with the local IPA, issues a need assessment guideline heralding the commencement of the annual preparations for training needs assessment so as to form the bases for training plan purposes, there has been very little actual

response demonstrated by either low returns or incomplete information or considerable procrastination to the effect that the national assessment lay out does not express the current existing needs.

In reality, practices at the organisational level displayed considerable failure to follow the useful instructions included in DPA's guidelines. To conduct a systematic needs analyses there are two ways of doing it (Kenney & Donnelly, 1972: 33) a] at the organisational (macro)level where the needs assessment is directed towards broad based objectives where the entire human resource development at the organisational level is incorporated; and b]the second form of analysis is at the job level (micro) when the purpose of the diagnosis is to identify skills, knowledge and attitudes required by a specific job . The two processes go hand in hand and complement each other. This investigation revealed not only inconsistencies amongst different government agencies in terms of practices, but also indicated a certain

lack of 'an established systematic form of needs analysis which is an essential requirement for the effective development of organisational human resources' as Nadler (1971) rightly points out. None the less, responses show elements of reserved optimism in terms of few but growing number of government healthy practices in this respect. Yet, there is still more work that needs to be done to establish coherence. Training departments were found to be either insufficiently equipped or inadequately staffed to conduct any meaningful needs assessment necessary to ensure and meet systematic long-term training objectives. Such an approach definitely calls for diagnostic skills that require a high order of ability in analysis, evaluation and communication. Talbot and Ellis (1969) pointed out that "provision of more routine training answers to traditional problems will not be

sufficient". The need is pressing for a much more extensive diagnostic skill which extends beyond the learning processes of individuals and groups and assess the impact of proper needs analysis for individuals' growth and adjustment.

8.3 Training management

Organisations, be they public or private, service oriented or otherwise, operate and survive basically because they provide their respective communities with the products (goods and services alike) that society sees worthwhile. To do this efficiently, management must ensure continuously high levels of productivity and continuous development of the potentials and skills of their respective personnel, not only to maintain high standards of performance, but also to cope with change and meet the challenges of the future. The performance of the individual within his/her organisational context has long been considered to be the responsibility of his immediate supervisor. Such a performance as Johnson (1976) points out "reflects in part, the supervisor interest in training and ability as a trainer."

The Civil Service regulations in Oman places the responsibility for detecting problematic symptoms in the hands of line managers and immediate supervisors. Yet, gone are the days when training was conducted simply against the managers subjective assessment in response to his or her subordinates felt and expressed need. Government organisations today are relatively large bureaucracies, and have inherited chronic problems that were partly due to their initial formation stage. Therefore, the training function will have to be taken extremely seriously. Management in government entities ought not treat this issue lightly. Training units assigned with the management

of training functions inside organisations are explicitly assigned to sort out needed answers for such questions as 'what kinds of operating problems which necessitates training actions ? what kind of training is already going on ? when training, in any form, is needed? how to lobby for management support ?" (Chaddock, 1976)

When questioned whether there exists a training unit in their respective organisations, more than 82 per cent of our interviewees responded positively, yet there seemed to be a wide range of inconsistencies as with regard to the unit location as well as status, organisationally speaking. Dissimilarities are basically due to units interpretation of where best to place a training unit and how high it should be in the hierarchy. There seems to be no common regulating practice, nor any central pattern to follow.

Some 50 per cent reported that, the training unit in their respective organisations does form a section and thus attached to the department of personnel with the head of the section reporting to his manager. 20 per cent reported that the training section is organisationally attached to the department of administrative affairs - in two cases the departments of administration were also in charge of finance - however, nearly 9 per cent pointed out that training functions were carried out on a departmental level. 18 per cent reported the absence of any identifiable organisational status to their training function and that it is incorporated within the department of personnel. In one single case, the training unit was operating at a 'directorate general' level. To add to the confusion, in one case the training unit was placed within the department of organisation and job stratification while in another it operated within the department of

technical services. In one distinct case, the training unit, though appeared within the personnel unit, yet in practice, was operating within the department of public relations. One respondent pointed out that although, they have had a high ranking training policy making body, yet there was no training unit as such. Only 9 per cent of our respondents claim their training unit reported to the top man in the organisation, while the rest would follow the hierarchical chain of command.

Scrutiny of the given figures - although they are not mutually exclusive - indicates substantial disparities, with regard to training management. The status and locus of training unit does not necessarily reflect a positively correlated trend (i.e. the bigger the organisation, the larger and higher the status), however, this proved to be the case in only two instances. Figures show that an organisation employing nearly 2000 employees did not have a training unit at all (although there were assurances that they are planning to establish one) while at the other extreme, an organisation employing nearly one hundred individual had a better organised training unit.

It is extremely important to have a full review to the organisational stance and status of its training unit as well as the reporting level. The government units deserved better than that, and the demand is pressing for the central regulating body in the public sector, namely the Ministry of Civil Service as well as the IPA to do some extensive preaching exercise in a concerted well-orchestrated fashion. Organisations do complain of insufficient funding, under-staffing and that individuals recruited for training management positions simply drift out and seek transfers elsewhere against the knowledge that, such a job has no future nor it has any prospects of

growth along the lines of the aspirations and career patterns they have
initially envisaged.

8.4 Staffing

As a distinct field, training is known to be relatively
recent, yet it is growing rapidly to accommodate for organisational
needs for continuous growth against the quickening paces of change.
Growth and change in the lives of organisations are eminent and the
development of training function as an emphatic form of investment is
considered to be not only crucial but also inevitable. This form of
investment is seen to be more distinct and noticeable in the industrial
business communities where the climate is one of competition. But not
so is the case in the Public Sector where the arguments of efficiency
and effectiveness have taken different political avenues and where the
pace of change is conceived to be not so wide and ultimately the call
for an action contingent upon sudden unforeseen occurrences involve a
long line of red tape and several hierarchical levels of decision
making quarters. Yet, when it comes to training, the reference is
heavily made to the bulk of research findings carried out mostly in
private enterprise setting. In developing countries, still the growth
and development of training as a major component of human resources
development and as a formidable investment was and still is a new
frontier and in its ambriotic stage and shape. The point that seems to
be vital is that while the field of training is gradually growing,
borrowing patterns and practices alien to the local environments and
its specificities could be detrimental and does more damage than good
and would definitely add up to the already piling mountains of
disappointments and frustrations as to the big question ; why is it not

working ?

Little attention was given to [a] the context,(i.e.looking at training in the local social, cultural, socio-political and economic context) which is an issue of vital importance, [b] the different interrelated complex components of the training organisation as such important issues are taken in a two simplistic fashion. Staffing of the training unit in various Government entities is one such area of misfortune.

Nadler (1966) stresses the point that," the haphazard development of professional trainers is a luxury we can no longer afford". On the management staffing side, Lippit and Nadler (1967) identified three roles of training director, if separated can be assigned to different members of training staff. The three roles are:

a. The learning specialist who is defined as 'skilled in the ability to use learning theory and methods to meet training needs' hence the distinction between a trainer and of a straight-forward instructor. For staffing purposes, such a role can again be well divided into that of a designer and a presenter; the designer would stand in charge of diagnosing training needs, analyse them against requirements and objective-criteria and develop validation and evaluation techniques and establish the procedure of field follow up. The presenter role, on the other hand, would encompass that of assurance of proper delivery of the merchandise and must 'possess' the professional training expertise. The two roles, for Lippit and Nadler, are seen to be closely interrelated in a way, that they are performed by the same person.

b. the administrators' role is seen to be clarified by the need to

'recruit, select and develop his staff team, plan programmes, set the process of coordination and communication, carry out financial planning of the training effort and ultimately every other personnel functions pertaining to other line leading members of the organisation. (Lippit and Nadler, 1967)

c. The consultant role which is envisaged to be that of problem solving; the man in charge of change and organisational development (Warren, 1969). Such a role is seen to be the most difficult to define and circumscribe or 'compartmentalise' because of the very nature of the activities performed and the skills they necessitate and the kind of calibre assumed in the person who is designated to play this role. The interrelatedness of the three roles, is far too obvious, and tackling the problems of individual deficiencies, would take the trainer from one role to another dependent on the central pressing issue.

As a matter of course, the training unit, has to fit in the macro agenda of the organisation's objectives and priorities. At all times, the need is evident to justify its existence so as to compete with other departments for resources, management backing and thus establish its own identity. The training unit has to prove its worth by means of its professional services. Taking the initiative, setting the stage for a proper all encompassing manpower development process, alert to the changes in the ranking of organisational priorities, 'hands on' organisational problematic areas of mal-performance and finally ensuring that the remedy is prompt, comprehensive and far-reaching when ever it is possible.

8.4.1 Staffing in the Organisational Context

Another dimension of training management in various government entities is the fact that it is poorly staffed hence stood short of the needed qualified skills. Investigations in this respect exposed yet another aspect of shortages in the training arena. The findings showed that the training unit was staffed along two sides of extremes; one member to seven, regardless of the size of the organisation. The total figure of the working staff in the training units in the entire units surveyed was seventy-six with the average number being less than three. In terms of qualifications and expertise held by members of staff in the training units, it appeared that only 10 per cent out of the aggregate number, held a relatively recent university degree.

Some 30 per cent of the degree holders were found to be non-nationals. 21 per cent in aggregate were Omanis and were holders of either a high-school or were still pursuing their secondary education. No effort was made to trace any systematic trend in order to establish any relationship between qualifications held and a particular career patterns applicable amongst job holders in training units.

At any rate, the complexities of the functions assigned to members of training units would necessarily demand a class of individuals of high calibre, high qualifications and expertise which apparently does not exist.

Having said that, it would appear from the outset, that training management state of affairs, is notoriously poorly staffed, in a manner that is inadequate to perform the multi-faceted role it ought to play in any effective fashion. While it is true, there are no 'rights' and 'wrongs' with respect to how best a training unit is ideally manned or

where best located in the organisational structure, none the less, the need is evident for some form of consistency uniformity and coherence albeit in line with the departments actual needs. The role of the Ministry of Civil Service in this respect is crucial. Particularly so in the provision of expert consultation and advice where the general requisites can be drawn while the specificities are left to the respective organisations to dwell upon. For ,'Whatever the criterion to be satisfied' as Kenney and Donnelly (1972: 24) have pointed out, 'the training department is organised that its manager reports to a senior executive with wider responsibilities, than training alone. And in any event, it is essential that training should function as a major component of the manpower unit, and if detached from relevant personnel activities (i.e. selection, recruitment, promotion, manpower forecast etc.) it is destined to lose touch as well as grounds and ultimately fail.

Finally, Warren (1969) sheds light on two major considerations if the issue of organising and staffing the training function is to be handled properly. The first would be that of "designing and installing a formal organisational unit as a training system and secondly the acquisition and maintenance of effective staff".Regardless of the way the two issues are resolved within the organisational context, he confirms that," the integration of an effective training system as an organizational unit will depend to a great extent on finding a formalised shape which can realistically be expected to work in the larger organization." Warren also argues that the organisation structural considerations," would determine issues such as status and locus of training unit and would ultimately impose reporting level, degree of autonomy, staffing level and requirements, competence

capability and expectations."

8.5   Training Records

Record keeping, probably like other aspects of training management investigated thus far, was found to be preliminary in shape, lacking proper organisation and least functional. The entire group answered affirmatively when asked whether or not any training records were maintained. When requested to further point out what sort of records are kept, 35 per cent said that they keep manpower records, while the total of 65 per cent confirmed that they keep a follow-up and training evaluation records. Some 32.5 per cent have chosen to maintain training programmes records, while 35 per cent of the respondents pointed out that they have kept a trainee card advocated by the Diwan of Personnel Affairs (DPA) in their endeavour to unify personnel practices. In one single case, our interviewees stated that they also maintain a 'training needs' records (Table 8.2),(figures are not mutually exclusive).

Table 8.2. Training Records Maintained at Unit Level.

Forms of Records	No.*	Percentage
Manpower Planning Records	12	35.0
Evaluation Records	11	32.5
Trainee Follow-up Record	11	32.5
Programme Specific Record	10	29.5
Individual Trainee Cards	12	35.0
Training Needs Records	1	3.0

N=34

* Figures are not mutually exclusive

Again, it is strongly noticeable that practices in the area of

record keeping are widely diversified and dissimilar. Yet again, the need for some sort of consistency, with regard to what form of records are seen to be most functional, is very apparent.

Apart from two isolated cases, one could not further examine the different forms of records kept in order to ascertain their adequacy, degree of sophistication and functionality. But taking it at face value, and except for the two singled out cases, more work needs to be done to establish some sort of congruence in this area of training organisation. An information system for human resources development is not an issue that is to be set aside simply because they are generally perceived not to be desperately important. A very strong case can be argued that maintaining a proper, comprehensive retrievable training records is indispensable. Failure to do so will result into a host of unnecessary problems, chaos and difficulties in tracking and following up training results for whatever reason in any efficient manner. The consequences can be detrimental to the training process as a whole.

8.6 Training Plan

In search for a systematic form of training activities in the Government agencies assessed, a set of questions were put forth aimed at ascertaining the presence of a 'Training Plan' and/or a 'Training System'. To serve that end, the following question was asked, 'Do you plan for your training ?' The overwhelming majority of 75 per cent responded positively.

'Planning' as defined in social sciences terms is 'determining and coordinating the sub goals, policies procedures and methods for achieving them.' (Reading, 1977) The planning process our interviewees have indicated or said they are applying, has fallen short in

fulfilling the requirements of a full-fledged plan. Producing a neat document with figures, dates and names of nominees scheduled to attend training courses is simply not a 'plan'; not in the real sense of the word. What was taken to be a 'plan' was simply a 'budgetary' exercise, produced in a rather persuasive manner, to lobby for more public money on the part of the organisations. Therefore, and upon scrutiny the neat list presented for whatever time frame is perceived to be merely an aggregate figure that has little relevance to the respective organisational goals and training objectives.

Asked later, whether there is a 'Training Plan'- note the difference from the previous question - the same majority of 75 per cent again responded positively. However, the author did not pursue the issue any further so as to examine the documents that were assumed to be training plans, not in each and every single case; yet, the general dominant practice was seen to be the 'table' sort of arrangements as mentioned earlier.

In two other cases, the plan document exhibited some form of sophistication but one remains yet to be convinced that one form of sophistication or another would not necessarily turn 'tables' into some form of meaningful 'Plans'. Plans ought to be systematic, goal-oriented and criteria-measured, and must form as part-and-parcel of the entire objective setting process of the given organisation. Planning for training needs is to be integrated as a dynamic sub-system in the organisational context.

However, still some 25 per cent of the respondents did negate having a 'Plan'. Those who pointed out having such plans were further requested to comment whether their respective plans were seen to be

effective enough in achieving organisational training objectives: 59.5 per cent replied positively while nearly 40 per cent denied such adequacy. However, in order to detect the causes of discontent with the adequacy of those plans, several questions were designed to tease out responses. To the question of 'Plan Flexibility' 72 per cent of the respondents answered in the affirmative (the term flexibility was used to indicate that the 'Plan' could be modified or changed as being implemented).

To assess the adequacy of the training plan in terms of meeting 'organisational needs' whether technical or administrative, not surprisingly, only 31 per cent answered positively while the majority of 68.5 per cent have chosen to respond in the negative. The conclusion drawn here is that if two-thirds of the respondents confirmed that their training plans failed to meet organisational objectives that would inarguably mean that something had drastically gone wrong. Table 8.3 shows frequency of responses with regard to provisions made for organisational training plans.

Table 8.3 Provisions Made for Training Plan

Questions*	Yes	%	No	%
1.Whether Organisation Plan for their Training	23	68.0	11	32.0
2.Whether there is a Training Plan Document	24	70.5	10	29.5
3.Whether Training Plan Meets Org.Needs	12	35.0	22	65.0
4.If Management.Considers Administrative Training Organisationally fruitful.	29	85.0	5	15.0
5.Whether External Assistance Sought in Plan Preparations	14	41.0	20	59.0
6.Whether Training Plan Perceived Effective Towards Goal Achievement	19	56.0	15	44.0
7.Whether Training Plan Perceived Flexible Functional,Adaptable as being Implemented	5	15.0	29	85.0

* Figures are not mutually exclusive

8.6.1 'Plan' time-span

In one single case, there has been a seven-yearly training master plan accommodating for the unit's training requirements but the majority of 60 per cent have pointed out that they base their plan along a calendar year most appropriate for budgetary purposes since the training allocations and the fiscal year ought to match. Hence, the exercise had a financial rationale. In two other cases, representing some 6 per cent, the plan had a two year duration which corresponds with the training circular issued by the Diwan of Personnel Affairs (DPA) that demands training needs to be assessed along a two-years time-frame in line with national training plan sponsored by the Civil Service Council and implemented by the Institute of Public Administration (IPA). One respondent indicated that the plan employed was based upon a three-years lay out.

8.6.2 Assistance Sought in Plan Preparation

Realising the non-availability of training specialists and/or a Human Resources expert, the question whether or not external assistance is sought in plan preparation would be very well-founded. To that 59 per cent of the respondents denied calling for such help while 41 per cent have reluctantly confirmed that, at times, they do resort to external help in their quest for an assessment of their administrative training needs. Such an assistance is rendered by two public agencies, namely the (DPA) and the (IPA). Nearly 10 per cent of the population confirmed the assistance of other external agencies on paid bases.

8.6.3 Sorting Out Training Requirements:

When asked whether there exists any form of grouping process in the 'Plan' amongst trainees, the majority of 62 per cent of our respondents confirmed such grouping under the following headings:

[1] Managerial and O &M .
[2] Clerical and Office Skills.
[3] And, Technical.

The query was then pursued a little further to clarify whether there has been any distinction made amongst different organisational levels in the following context: upper management, middle and lower management. In this respect, respondents were divided into nearly two halves in reacting to the question. 52 per cent confirmed such practice against 48 per cent who denied it. Then, the expedition was carried on a little further when our interviewees were asked whether they place any emphasis on certain administrative strata at present in setting their training priorities. Interestingly enough, the majority of 75 per cent denied categorically placing such emphasis for reasons the

researcher is unaware of, while 35 per cent of them confirmed such emphasis without being able to substantiate that.

Based on the author's own experience in the field, emphasis placement is exercised amongst different organisations only when requested to do so. But, a point to be made in this regard, that setting training priorities seemed not to be a pressing issue to be considered by the majority of the organisations surveyed. Therefore, the general conclusion to be drawn at this stage is that training 'Plans' on the departmental level were emphasis-free, and contrary to expectations, there were no common established practice nor any systematic procedure in ordering training needs along a first-things-first criteria particularly, given the scarcity of resources made available for Government entities for training purposes. Thus, the link seemed to be missing with the organisation's Human Resources development process. Furthermore, the distinction made between different managerial levels indicated by the 35 per cent 'yes' respondents were seen to be, in conclusion, simply a 'table' arrangement and did not necessarily reflect a practice integrated in the organisational Human Resources agenda. Hence, the 50/50 split responses need to be examined within this context, and the subsequent 75 per cent denials of any form of emphasis placement could be regarded as an additional support to the conclusion that has been just drawn.

8.7 Training Budget

Article "42" of the Civil Service Executive regulations, stated that every Government autonomous entity is to have a training budget that would accommodate for the unit's training requirements. However, the budgetary item allocated, did not account solely for training in its

definitional term, but included also are the provisions made for educational purposes in the form of scholarships made available to assigned individuals in the organisation to continue their studies.

In a line-and-item oriented government annual budget document, Government units are expected to strictly abide to financial regulations. In this respect, the normal course of action would be that each unit drafts its own budgetary proposals in response to a central financial circular, no later than the end of September each year. Proposals are then negotiated, scrutinised later in October before they are to be approved by a Royal Decree and published in the Official Gazette and only then, they are considered final.

Without any reference to figures and since the Fiscal Year 1985, provisions made for Government spending had to be revised against the unexpected developments inflicted upon the Country's economy due to the world crises that engulfed the international oil market and ultimately the Nation's major source of income. Austerity measures of some sort had to be imposed to safeguard the economy and the country's financial credibility. Among the measures applied, was the devaluation of 15 per cent of the country's national currency - the Omani Rial - against the U.S Dollar. On the heel of that followed a scrutiny exercise in revising the provisions made for the country's third 'Five Year National Development Plan'. In the Public Sector, a reduction of 20 per cent was demanded by financial authorities . The austerity process was conducted voluntarily by the units themselves least centrally applied cuts would probably affect areas where the units envisage otherwise. All-in-all, the 'tight-belt' exercise was the most valuable opportunity rarely made available to politicians as well as bureaucrats to launch a

nationwide efficiency and effectiveness measures of Government spending
to arrive at a competent cost-efficient Civil Service.

It is not the writers intention to pursue this point any further,
since the budget and its implication on the training function is the
sole concern at this stage. The implication of any sizeable reduction
of the organisational allocations for its training and education is far
too obvious. In retrospect, few Government units have come to the
conclusion that it was far too convenient to commence their scrutiny
exercise on training provisions that was seen to be one of the easy
soft targets.

All respondents confirmed having one, when requested to comment as
whether or not they have a separate training budget. When faced with
the question if they ever had to supplement any shortages in funds by
applying for additional money to be transferred from other items in the
organisation's budget; to this question, 12 per cent responded
positively.

Throughout the course of investigation into the units training
expenditure, it appeared that only eight units did actually exceed
their limits for the fiscal year 1985. As for the fiscal year 1986,
investigations revealed that only four agencies have actually exceeded
their training budgetary limits and indeed that confirmed the findings.

When asked whether or not their training allocations suffice the
needs, the majority of 70 per cent of the respondents answered
negatively. To assess the actual standing in real term expenditure in
the entire Government Apparatus, only nine have spent more than 80 per
cent and less than 100 per cent of their training allocations in the

fiscal year 1985 against ten units for the year 1986.

The rest of the agencies assessed, stood well below 2/3 in their actual spending of training provisions. Thus, the conclusions drawn here that the 70 per cent of the dissatisfied respondents who reported insufficient funding were either inaccurate in their assessment, or that the part of the training budget allocated for educational purposes devoured the larger part. In both cases there were no means to verify either assumptions. Surprisingly enough, four of the units hardly spent a penny (a Baiza) from their training provisions for the year 1986, and the entire sum had to be returned untouched to the treasury. However, a further 25 per cent of our interviewees did report the sufficiency of their training provisions in meeting their training needs.

Generally speaking, it seems that the financial assessment was a fairly reasonable one. No efforts were made to conduct a costing exercise to Government training, nor the researcher looked into the implications of training provisions' ratio in proportion to the units' total budget. The point that needs to be emphasised is that administrative training sponsored by Government, provided by the local Institute of Public Administration, is free of charge and cost-free, in the direct sense, on the Government units' part. The allocations made for administrative training incorporated in the Central National Administrative Plan, although catered for centrally, but accommodated for, in the training budget of the local (IPA).

8.8 Training Locations:

It is widely believed that Government agencies prefer handling their training requirements themselves through intensive on-the-job training ventures. Convenience and maintaining control are seen to be among the

reasons and the practicality aspect is another. Organisations prefer tailoring their own training courses' contents most suited to their specific needs and thus enabling management to conduct a closer supervision and in-house control.

Figures, however, fail to support this belief. 56 per cent of the units surveyed reported conducting their own training programmes. While the majority of 73.5 per cent confirmed that they resort to external training institutions to accommodate for their training needs and that is indeed indicative of preference. Training abroad has undeniably several advantages (both intrinsic and extrinsic) over the courses conducted locally. And indeed had it not been for budgetary constraints, only the sky would be the limit in respect to training locations sought.

A majority of 71 per cent of our interviewees reported resorting to local commercial institutions for partial fulfillment of their training requirements. It is not yet clear why is it that the services of commercial agencies are sought? Is it for quality superiority of commercially based training compared to that rendered by government sponsored cost-free agencies or is it due to the fact that certain areas of training needed by Government units are not always offered in the (IPA)'s annual prospectus?

The general indication detected here, is that Government units find it an extra merit to keep their options wide open as where to go and whom to choose to meet their training requirements. And since Government sponsored locally provided training is Gratis any way and are readily available upon request why not they have the best value possible for their money. Hence, the heavy dependence of the majority

of 70 per cent on the training services rendered by the local (IPA) in partially meeting their training requirements. Table 8.4 indicates respondents' actual practice in relation to training locations sought.

Table 8.4 Training Locations

Training Location	Number**	*Percentage
Self Conducted Training By Organisations	19	56.0
External Training Conducted Abroad	25	73.5
External Commercial Training Conducted Locally	24	71.0
Administrative Training (No direct charges) In The Institute of Public Administration	30	88.0

* Percentages reported are not mutually exclusive

**N=34

8.9 Training Incentives

Government employees will ultimately have to observe the rules and regulations applicable in the Civil Service since training is regarded as an occupational obligation and in general terms, training in itself is considered to be a motivator. And since most training is conducted within the working hours of the individuals and are on paid bases why on earth the Government has to offer additional incentives! But the fact remains that, generally speaking, attendance and successful completion of a training programme is widely expected to be rewarded. Our concern at this stage would focus on present practices on the departmental level with regard to incentive-provision.

Research conducted in some neighbouring countries with similar characteristics of the public service revealed some uneasy conclusions. One study claimed that the country's bureaucrats, for example, were

found to be routine-oriented, could hardly be motivated, not in monetary terms to begin with, since money is plentiful in the country, non risk-takers, passive and do not fancy change and prefer convenience, social and family conformity to promotional potentials risk-taking and organisational upward mobility. (Al Nimir & Palmer, 1982). Hence, nothing is seen to motivate them or for that matter initiate drive and interest in what they were doing. The authors made a further claim, that those new comers who have displayed vigour, energy and enthusiasm are soon attracted to the private sector were those personal traits are welcomed and rewarded. The conclusion drawn here is pretty obvious, in that nothing can really be done to motivate the Civil Servant.

Across the Gulf countries, the air of discontent with the performance of the Civil Servant is obvious and gloomily wide spreading. The general tendency is to draw a pessimistic image of the bureaucrat; that of a mediocre, non-dynamic, over conformer, trouble-free, passive and lacks enthusiasm and vigour necessary to bring about change and creativity. In short, good for nothing. One would aggressively argue against that. Research conducted fails to produce evidence of any scientific value as to why people act in the way they do. Failure to contexualise transitory organisational behaviour would end up, naturally, into misleading subjective statements that fail to understand [a] the state of economic growth triggered by the oil boom and the set of totally estranged newly acquired norms and values brought forth along with it, [b] the relatively short history of Governments in the modern sense, and in its present size, role and function, and indeed that of the State as a modern political entity of some of the countries in the region. Hence, the process of institution

building has not yet taken its final shape. The pace of change is still extremely rapid and much more is expected given the transitory nature of the societies at large, and the roles public agencies are expected to play in the development process. In short more research is needed in order to assess the present situation of the public sector within the broader context so as to tell the magnitude of the problem, if there is one, and its future implications.

The findings confirm the absence of consensus as with regard to the standard practice ensuing the successful completion of a training course. Regretfully, the Civil Service regulations fail to address, not explicitly at least, the role of training as an element of merit in promotional practices - which is dependent basically on seniority elements - and consequently, performance appraisals and annual reports fall short - in the manner it has weigh ed different components - from identifying the training factor. Competitive examinations whether for job placement or for promotional purposes are extremely rare. Annual incremental pay rise is next to automatic. Promotions are conducted basically on seniority bases although the rules may state otherwise.

When asked whether there has been any form of incentives provided for their trainees upon successful completion of a training programme, 68 per cent of the population responded positively, the rest have negated that. When requested to elaborate, 50 per cent pointed out that their incentives were in the form of allowances exceptionally provided for various areas of distinction already accommodated for in the Civil Service regulations. But then, everyone else had access to this specific form of reward, and it is known to be so common a practice that employees feel that they are entitled to it any way and need not

be related to any form of distinction. 12 per cent pointed out that the incentives provided were in the form of monetary awards of which the researcher could not verify whether there was an established pattern of practice. Six per cent stated that the general practice in their organisations would take the form of commending excellence in public notice so that everyone else would know as one way of displaying management support. In one single case, it was reported that a letter of praise would be addressed to the training graduate.

Based again on the Author's own experience, one concludes, that motivating trainees need to be addressed in a more comprehensive fashion. Some of the provisions already accommodated for in the regulations need to be restructured so as to have the training distinction link. The general practice, as displayed earlier, is widely diversified. There are cases were the management has established some form of incentive devices designed to promote training which is indicative of growing awareness in a number of Government agencies. But then, there is no legislative support in the regulations, and diversified practices can be counter productive if the entire Civil Service body is to be considered. A sense of equity can only be established through an established practice supported by pieces of legislation in the central regulations. Many of our interviewees have expressed frustrations, and postulated that their hands were too tight as far as regulations were concerned and that there were a considerable amount of 'push' and 'pull' in this respect. On the other hand, some have expressed disappointment that individuals need to be rewarded when performing a function that was part and parcel of the contract they have signed with the Government and above all get paid for it anyway.

8.10 Evaluation and Follow up

The purpose of this part is to assess the present practices currently applied in different Government agencies and verify their suitability in accomplishing training objectives. To ascertain departmental policies with regard to training evaluation and follow up is extremely essential if the training full cycle is to bear fruit. By definition, evaluation in any valid sense would aim at establishing whether or not training have produced any job related impacts. Without assessing organisational practices in this respect, there is no way training can be externally validated.

To serve this end, respondents were requested to state the method/methods applied in their respective organisations in evaluating training programmes. 85 per cent made it clear that the exercise is being conducted through simply consulting the final report summing up the conclusions made by programme organisers. A minority of 32 per cent of the respondents pointed out the usage of questionnaires addressed to programme graduates to assess programme effectiveness.

38 per cent reiterated the point that training programmes and their subsequent follow-up process would be an on going process and that programme graduates would be periodically monitored to assess any training related improvements reflected on their work-behavioural-patterns. Little more than one quarter of the interviewees reported applying a test given to programme completers as a means of establishing an evaluation account. In only one single case, it has been reported that an interview process is conducted as an assessment technique. Table 8.5 shows methods applied for training programme evaluation.

Table 8.5 Training Programme Evaluation

Form of Evaluation	Number	Percentage
a. Programmes Evaluated Via Questionnaires	11	32.5
b. Through Testing Programme Graduates	9	26.5
c. Consult Organisers Final Report	29	85.0
d. Personal Interviews with Programme Graduates	1	3.0
e. Periodical Follow-up to Assess Programme Related Changes.	13	38 0

* Figures and percentages reported above are not mutually exclusive.

To ascertain the efficiency of the methods applied in the evaluation process, respondents were requested to further clarify whether the method/methods applied is/are perceived to be sufficient and functional in meeting their organisational needs. Not surprisingly, the majority of 65 per cent answered negatively while the rest have chosen to answer positively.

In the case of negative answers, respondents were requested to elaborate as to why they were so perceived. The answers received were along options provided; 41 per cent considered the methods applied insufficient due to difficulties posed by the very nature of administrative training where any improvement would be difficult to assess and quantify. Another 32 per cent attributed problems to difficulties in applying a yard stick to assess training related improvements particularly behavioural changes over a relatively short period of time.

Only two respondents postulated that the problem lied in the

vagueness of organisational goals, while another 32 per cent pointed out problems in setting specific quantifiable training objectives due to the fact that they lack a clear job description and thus impeding any valid assessment of training related improvements. Since the figures reported above were not mutually exclusive, 41 per cent of the organisations surveyed have chosen to select all the options given.

8.10.1. Follow-up of Trainees

The notion of training evaluation was pursued further more in order to assess current practices in the following-up area realising that the whole exercise can never be a one-shot short term process.

When faced with the question whether or not there were any follow-up processes conducted to validate training upon programme completion, the majority of 73 per cent have chosen to answer affirmatively. Among the affirmative respondents, 52 per cent reported commencing their follow-up by interviewing the trainees as soon as they resume their work, while 80 per cent have pointed out that the exercise began by consulting the trainees' immediate supervisors who were seen to be the immediate source of reliable information with regard to the assessment of any training-related performance improvements. Table 8.6 indicates methods chosen to follow up training graduates once they are back to their respective organisations.

There seemed to be, yet again, broad dissimilarities in terms of organisational practices with regard to training follow-up and evaluation. The areas of emphasis vary substantially from one organisation to another so do the methods applied be they for training validation or programme evaluation.

Table 8.6 How Programme Graduates Are Followed-up

Methods	No*	Percentage**
a.Interviews	13	52.0
b.Superior Assessment	20	80.0
c.Peers Assessment	2	8.0
d.Continuous Monitoring	13	52.0
e.Other Means	1	4.0

*N=25
**Figures are not mutually exclusive

It is also understandably clear, why evaluation, in its full-fledged term is seen to be extremely difficult since it demands high skills and expertise that are non-existent in most of the training unints surveyed. It is also seen to be difficult, at this stage, to arrive at a conclusive outright evidence of the factors considered directly responsible in influencing or not influencing the trainees in the manner targeted in programme objectives. To conclude,organisations have no choice but to deploy the techniques most suitable for their evaluation requirements and it is seen to be rather encouraging to find out that training evaluation is considered vital among the organisations surveyed. But, only being conscious to the importance of the process is not sufficient particularly when daily actual practices negates any form of systematic evaluation and that the matter is, at many incidents, treated rather lightly.

Among the difficulties pointed out, surprisingly enough, were the absence of clear job description which was seen to be a barrier to

proper assessment of training effectiveness. This is extremely serious

and an issue that needsto be addressed as promptly as one could. For

handling the problem of assessment of administrative training in

general, and managerial and human relation training in particular, are

challenges big enough by their very nature, posed to training

management, and hence, the situation needs not be worsened any further

by the absence of job description or the presence of unclear ones.

Table 8.7 indicates reasons given for insufficiency of evaluation

methods applied in relation to realising organisational objectives

pertaining to training.

Table 8.7 Administrative Training Evaluation and Follow-up
  *(Perceived Reasons for Difficulties)

Reasons	No.**	Percentages*
1.Difficulties in Measuring Performance Improvement in Service oriented Jobs	9	25.0
2.Difficulties in assessing Behavioral Changes Over Short Intervals	7	21.5
3.Vagueness of Organisational Goals	2	5.0
4.Vagueness or Absence of Job-description	7	21.5
5.Due to The non-existence of a Training Unit	1	3.0
6.All the Above	9	41.0

*N=22
** Figures are not mutually exclusive.

To minimise obstacles, another area that needs consolidation would

appear to be establishing closer links and cooperation between

programme organisers and management in different Government entities to

establish better means and methods for training evaluation so that it

would bear fruits. No doubt, it would be too late, in the absence of such close links, to tell of any points of weakness early enough to be rectified, hence, avoiding resources being wasted. It is to be emphasised, at this stage, that without realising the interrelatedness of the different components of the training function, the entire exercise would be like building sand castle that would soon wither away.

8.11 Obstacles

The purpose of this part of analysis is to verify the obstacles as perceived, at the organisational level, to be posing problems to effective training. It is far too obvious that success for the recently established training units is indispensable if they are to thrive. Success would boost the units' image, promote training and thus generate support on the part of decision makers in organisations. Hence, the training unit can lobby for more resources and management backing.

To sum up , respondents were requested to pin point the obstacles perceived as barriers to effective training. The majority of 73.5 per cent believed that most obstacles fell within the boundaries of training resources. They are insufficient. In elaborating, the resources were itemised bearing the following weights:

[1] 72 per cent of the respondents thought of the obstacles to be budgetary,

[2] the non-availability of training quarters was seen by 24 per cent,

[3] 44 per cent have seen the problem evidenced by the non-availability of trainers,

[4] the absence of training aids and other audio-visual facilities were

seen to be the resources missing for 28 per cent of the respondents,

[5] and, finally 20 per cent considered the problem in the form of

lacking appropriate training curriculum.

Tables 8.8 and its addendum underneath sum up the whole picture in

relation to the obstacles perceived to be hampering training

efforts.

Table 8.8. Obstacles Perceived Obstructing Training Activities On
The Organisational Level

Obstacles	No	Percentage
1.Superiors not being convinced of the worthiness of fraining	3	9.0
2.Subordinates Unconvinced	3	9.0
3.Non-availability of Qualified Training Experts	15	44.0
4.Insufficiency of Training Resources **	25	73.5
5.Full-time Training Seen As Impediment	15	44.0
6. Locally Available Training Courses Insufficient in Meeting full Demands	16	47.0
7.Lack of Training-related Incentives	13	38.0

* Figures are not mutually exclusive
N=34

** The resources were further itemised as Follows:
N=25

Resource Limitations	No	Percentage
a.Budgetary	18	72.0
b.Training Halls	6	24.0
c.Trainers	11	44.0
d.Training Supplies	10	40.0
e.Audio-visual and Training Aids	7	28.0
e.Curriculum	5	20.0

On the other hand, 44 per cent of the units surveyed perceived the

absence of qualified training specialist as the obstacle impeding effective training, while 18 per cent of the respondents were equally divided between those who envisaged the problem as one of superiors/subordinates not being convinced of the worthiness of training in the first place.

Interestingly enough, 44 per cent of our respondents have contemplated that full time training courses were considered to be another obstacle since the release of their employees for training courses on full time bases would upset the normal daily functioning of their respective organisations.

Nearly one-half of the respondents (i.e.47 percent) believed that training opportunities locally available fell short from meeting the full range of the organisational requirements, and that budgetary restraints and Civil Service regulations imposed by the (DPA) adds new dimensions to the problems already seen to be posing real threats to fully benefitting from training.

The lack of incentives, on the other hand was seen to be another major problem by 38 per cent of the organisations surveyed. Hence the massive call for a structure of incentives linked to successful completion of training, and organisational support to further ensure the transfer of the newly acquired skills and techniques. Without the management support, indicated by incentives – both intrinsic and extrinsic – the entire exercise would merely be a waste of resources and is certainly not worth the hustle.

The general tendency on the part of many Government entities is to conduct their own training where ever they see best. Many have

expressed their willingness to establish their own training quarters if sufficient resources could be allocated. But, since the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration in early 1978, the basic rationale were seen to be, avoiding duplicacy and imposing cost effective measures through centralising resources channel them into one major Government training institution for better accommodation for Government administrative training requirements. There — after, to establish a separate training centre on the departmental level was strongly opposed on both legal and functional grounds. Never-the-less, a lot of push and pull and politicking are involved, thus the agencies that managed to establish their own training agencies have done so on the grounds that the training they mostly need has technical orientation and basically meets their own organisational technical requirements; and eventually, provisions were naturally made, as a matter of course, to conduct their own administrative training as well.

Summary

This chapter has endeavoured to weave the different threads of the full picture of current organisational practices in the Government sector pertaining to training. In the area of needs analysis and how it is conducted to establish training priorities the findings showed inconsistencies and varied organisational practices far from being comprehensive or functional. In the area of training management, similar dissimilarities were assessed with no standard practice as how and where training management unit is to be placed; in additional scrutiny, it was found that such units, once they existed, were notoriously poorly staffed and inadequately equipped to conduct its functions. In the areas of record keeping for training purposes, the expedition revealed either insufficiency of currently kept records or

inadequacy in the provision of the information required for decision makers as well as training officers for proper manpower record keeping purposes. The absence of proper training plans in the functional sense was noticed, where plans drafted were simply a budgetary exercise. Although organisations lack expertise, little professional advice is sought in training plan preparation.

In general terms, training budgets were found to be confusing job-specific training with other long term educational scholarships with the latter devouring the share of the former in actual practices. In exercising self-imposed budgetary cuts, it is apparent that training budget would suffer most. The majority of training was found to be conducted locally either IPA sponsored or unit specific tailormade. Budgetary limits constrain externally conducted training. The lack of training-tied incentives is seen to be a dissincentive for governing personnel to enthusiastically dwell upon their training experience. In the area of evaluation current practices reveal areas of shortcomings and inconsistencies as well as lack of coordination with training providers to complement the training cycle. Little attention is being paid to means and methods of ascertaining progress in management administrative or human relation training so is the follow up process.

Finally obstacles were probed as perceived by government units so as to ascertain where exactly problems hampering effective training are located. A host of problems were detected to be highly influential - though to different degrees. In conclusion, there are major areas of inconsistencies that emphatically need to be addressed at the departmental level in the Government sector if effective training is sought.

CHAPTER NINE

COURSE EVALUATION: TRAINEES RESPONSES

9.1 Introduction

With the demographic variables described in chapter seven, this part

of the analysis is set forth to tap trainees responses inorder to

establish how training courses have rated in the eyes of the

participants.

Given the many dimensions of such an assessment, the analysis process

is to spell out -in sufficient detail- the different facets and diverse

interrelated issues in the context of training evaluation. Such an

assessment is meant to pinpoint the many factors that determine the

course of events in the evaluation process. The purpose is, as a

starting point, to ascertain respondents' perception of their unit-

specific training policy through scrutinising several procedural

measures prior to training assignment by their parent organisations.

From there on, other factors determining the extent and intensity of

course members motivational standpoint are explored in the light of

intrepretation of the causes for training assignment. Course evaluation

process then procedes into some form of formative assessment inorder to

expedite the influence of the training milliu in the   context of

objective realisation. One major element addressed is the training

techniques employed to convey the training message. An insight into

trainees' reaction to the tools and techniques utilised by trainers is

probed to establish the adequacy and appropriateness and hence the

influence they have had on the overall realisation of programme

objectives. The evaluation process, then proceeds to investigate course

members' immediate reactions to the training through the assessment of

their perceptual stance to the different facets of the given course as a step necessary to determine their evaluation of the immediate gains perceived to be resultant of the course.

Participants anticipation of potential obstacles to introducing course-prompted changes was the object of the next stage of the inquiry in order to determine how far respondents' perception of the difficulties imposed by parent organisations in the context of job setting would influence course members' attitudes and intentions to carry out the changes advocated by training

The chapter ends with a summary.

9.2 Procedural background to course attendance

In the preceding chapter, departmental practices in general terms were expedited in relation to policy formulation and other facets of training practices, at the organisational level. Reference to that as a highlighting background is helpful in the present exploration of actual practices as reported by the trainees themselves.

An indication of the state of preparedness and degree of organisation in assigning individuals to a training course, is the time allowed for the nominee in order to go through the particulars of the training offered. How much time notice given does reflect a certain degree of systematised training policy in parent organisations. As indicated in Table 9.1, out of 233, the majority of 169 of sample members have indicated that they had received their training notice in the region of one to more than two weeks which sounds reasonably sufficient to enable nominees to consult programme itineries, approach the training institution concerned or programme organisers. However, a sizeable

figure of more than 27 per cent have indicated that they have had only 1 to 5 days notice which was reported by all parties to be considerably short and reflects, to a certain degree, a state of hastiness and haphazard mode of arrangement on the part of parent organisations. One day notice provides little time for the prospective trainees to effectively conduct any valid inquiry or seek necessary clarifications, thus trainees may ultimately end up caught not only unprepared but also may possibly turn up in the wrong course. The consequences are obvious and far reaching.

Table 9.1 Programme Notice

Time	Number of respondents	Percentage
One Day	22	9.4
2-5Days	42	18.0
6-14Days	71	30.5
Over2Wks	94	42.1
Total	233	100

Mean:3.05

9.2.a The need for Training.

Another dimension explored is the trainees' perceptions for the need to the course along three lines, a) their perception of the need through the source of course suggestion, and b) by exploring pre-course discussion with superiors and finally c) along the need to report upon course conclusion.

While nearly 15 per cent of the respondents have indicated that they themselves have taken the initiative and brought forward their need to attend the course to their superiors to consider, the majority

of 55 per cent have reported that the course was recommended by their immediate superiors. Another 14 per cent have mentioned their personnel officers to be the source of course suggestion. Another 16 per cent have reported their colleagues, friends or even some forms of organisational affirmative action. (Table 9.2).

Table 9.2 Course Attendence Suggestion

Source of Suggestion	Number	Percentage
Self	34	14.6
Superior	128	54.9
Personeel Officer	33	14.2
Others	38	16.3
Total	233	100

Trainees perception of their need for the course was next traced in the light of prior discussion of course particulars with their superiors. The introductory question sought answers as to whether or not attendance was discussed at all. In response, the majority of 178 confirmed discussing the matter with their superiors while more than 23 per cent have reported no such discussion. Then the query sought to establish the points covered in the discussion. Table 9.3 presents the layout of areas of coverage.

Table 9.3 Prior Discussion with superiors :

Discussion coverage	N.	%
Possible gains	159 *	68.2
Being a replacement to another	72	30.9
Date and location of course	79	33.9
The reason why nominated	25	10.7

* figures are not mutually exclusive.

High on the list in discussion coverage were the possible gains envisaged as resultant from a course thus scoring some 68.2 per cent while nearly 31 per cent pointed out to their discussion to be simply a form of official notification for being a replacement to another already withdrawn candidate. Nearly 34 per cent of the respondents have found their discussion to cover course date and location while nearly 11 per cent only have touched upon the essential issue i.e."why nominated".

Nearly one quarter of the population did not talk over their training assignment at all. They were simply instructed to enroll. Only 10 per cent have been discussing the reason for their selection. And although a sizeable majority of nearly 70 per cent of the respondents were attracted to the course by the possible ensuing gains rather than by the coercive act of management; still, the general feeling is that thorough discussion of training intervention with superiors is not a normal practice though much welcomed by prospective trainees and is being considerd as a sign of a caring responsible management.

9.2.b The need to report back.

Finally perception of the need to attend the course was traced through the need to file a report upon course conclusion. The need to report was introduced by the general question whether or not a report is a requisite in the first place. Though it may seem obvious that an employee assigned for training would naturally be required to report back, the majority of 53.6 per cent of the sample have explained that no report was necessary whereas nearly 46 per cent did aknowledge filing a report. Furthermore, nearly one half of the would be reporters, would have done so in a written fashion while the rest have

concluded that an oral report was regarded to be sufficient.

Reporting back upon training conclusion, be it voluntary on the part of trainees or required by superiors, whether written or oral, indicates the amount of interest and follow-up exercised by client organisations so as to ensure the worthiness of their investment though merely through its preliminary face value.

9.2 c Motivation:

Put simply, motivation involves behaviour that is active, purposive and goal directed. (Bourne & Ekstrand,1973). Goldstein (1974) points out that individual's motivational level-in the training context- is determined by a combination of his/her belief that he/she can achieve certain outcomes from his/her acts and the values of those outcomes. Goldstein asserts that training programmes have a valence value for the indivdual if he/she believes they will permit him/her to achieve other outcomes.

Beyond doubt, attending a training programme with course members' personal recognition of their individual specific needs has immediate bearing on course members' personal drive inorder to relate course objectives to their own felt needs and would eventually influence the courses' general outcome. To elucidate this point further the query has sought to establish how far course attendance was against participants' felt needs. In response, an overwhelming majority of nearly 90 per cent of the entire sample have chosen to confirm against nearly the total of 11 per cent who were either still uncertain or denials. The preliminary indication deducted at this point, is that sample members, in a pretty convincing majority, were attending training against knowledge and recognition of their felt training needs.

9.2.d Perceptions of reasons to attend a course:

Awareness and recognition of course members' felt need can be very helpful as a personal motivator, but inconclusive if not contextualised within the organisational training climate and practices. Earlier on, and in the course of analysis of departmental practices, the official account of training policies and practices were spelled out by training officers. Training policies and practices are now tapped through the perceptions, of course members who were requested to express their level of agreement and/or disagreement on a five point scale. Seven statements were given to establish the many dimensions of client organisations training climate in order to determine whether there exists any form of organised training system in their respective organisations.

The purpose at this stage is to sum up the possible interpretations as to why an employee is selected and assigned to training. First on the list of interpretations is the recognition of an established organisational training policy whereby training is seen to be institutionalised as part and parcel of the manpower planning process. Hence, participation is triggered by management's strong belief in the worthiness of training in enhancing employees' performance. On the other hand, training is also legitimately sought solely on promotional grounds. Or training is assigned on simply coincidental bases which lends itself to no interpretation at all. Moreover, training can also be viewed by prospective trainees in the light of anticipated individual gains and at times sought as a remedial answer to possible performance deficiencies from management standpoint.

Table 9.4 projects the layout of respondents' standpoint on the scale. Nearly 83 per cent of the sample have viewed their placement on a training course as part of their organisation's systematic training policy. The general trend portrayed in the pattern of responses is a very positive one thus expressive of respondents' belief that training in their parent organisations is well established and institutionalised. This point is further supported by respondents' confirmation that management in their departments does believe that training really pays off. Nearly 90 per cent were in favour of such an interpretation while a minority of only 10 per cent were either undecided, or have chosen to disagree.

Seeking training on promotional grounds is entirely legitimate from either standpoints; the trianees as well as management in parent organisations not only because training is basically designed to enhance performance by inculcating skills and building up favourable attitudinal changes, but also to continuously prepare individuals for the ever changing world of the organisation today and the challenges imposed by change.

Many a times promotion is partially tied, and in fact ought to be tied to one's performance in a training course as an effective element of merit. In response, nearly 40 per cent have envisaged training to be conducted on promotional premise whereas another nearly 40 per cent were not sure. Alarmingly, more than 60 per cent were sceptics. Ultimately negative attitudes may well develop among training recipients upon realisation that the training they have been through is not tied to any form of incentives and hence can cause a damaging loss of interest which would gradually turn to be dysfunctional as well as

counter productive.

Another form of self-generated incentive in seeking training is individuals' recognition of the amount of personal gains anticipated upon training conclusion. An overwhelming majority of more than 94 per cent have acknowledged that to be the case.

Looking at training from the remedial premise is of particular importance. If trainees see their presence for training to be prompted by under-performance or as a response to job related performance deficiencies this may accelerate their urge to excell and benefit most. A little more than 55 per cent have acknowledged that to be the case while one quarter of the sample were not so sure against another 19 per cent denials. Nonetheless, training in the supervisory spheres can very well be developmental without necessarily addressing particular immediate need.(Table 9.4)

Table 9.4 Respondents perceptions of reasons to attend a course (%)

Perceived reasons for being on a course	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
1. Systematic organisational development policy.	45.9	36.9	10.7	4.7	1.7	1.79
2. Management believes that training pays off.	60.9	28.8	6.4	2.6	1.3	1.50
3. Training sought for promotional reasons.	22.3	17.6	39.9	13.7	8.4	2.62
4. Simply coincidence.	6.5	5.6	15.9	25.8	46.4	3.99
5. Training sought for perceived personal gains.	63.5	30.9	3.4	.9	1.3	1.45
6. Training seen as remedial to poor performance.	23.6	32.2	24.9	13.7	5.6	2.45
7. Generally, this course is a must for any one who holds the post.	47.2	33.5	10.3	7.7	1.3	1.82

1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Not Sure
4 = Disagree, 5 = Strongly Disagree.

Recognising the value and worthiness of the given course in the context of the job itself and its requirements adds up to the favourable attitude of trainees. When coincidence was pointed out as a possible interpretation as to why one is assigned for training, respondents have strongly denied such an implication hence expressed resentment. The majority of more than 72 per cent have rejected such claims. Nevertheless, some 27 per cent did consider that to be a possibility

The implications are that more than one quarter did contemplate the coincidence explanation in assessing the reason to be on a course, a fact that needs not be taken lightly nor ignored if training is to ensure the best possible results.

Once the general responses of the entire sample were presented, scrutiny into the pattern of responses along the eight programme groups is expedited in order to further highlight whether or not there are differences in the way groups have reacted to the statements mentioned earlier. Tracing group behaviour in relation to different dimensions would cast additional light on the course each and every group have followed in order to enrich the discussion and further complement the findings.

Table 9.5 Mean scores to perceived reasons to attend training course across programme groups.

	Per	Fin	L.GT	O &M	CL	HA	Aud	SW	Mean	X^2 critical	Sig
1.Systematic organisational development policy	2.12	1.38	1.88	2.03	1.33	1.62	1.47	1.66	1.79	17.94	0.012
2.Management believes that training pays off	1.55	1.61	1.50	1.66	1.40	1.45	1.31	1.19	1.50	7.16	0.411
3.For professional reasons	3.07	2.00	2.19	2.89	2.60	2.62	2.42	2.28	2.62	20.48	0.004
4.Simply a coincidence	3.95	4.22	3.76	4.15	4.20	4.65	3.42	3.95	3.99	9.17	0.240
5.For perceived personal gains	1.40	1.50	1.53	1.42	1.20	1.56	1.42	1.47	1.45	6.30	0.505
6. Course is seen as remedial	2.92	2.05	2.23	2.70	1.60	2.62	2.00	2.23	2.45	24.21	0.001
7.Course is a must for any holder of my job	1.77	1.61	1.96	2.01	1.60	1.91	1.47	1.66	1.82	6.34	0.500

Per = Personal, Fin = Finance, L.Gt. = Loc. Govt., O & M = Org & Development Cl. = Clerical, HA = Hospital Adm., Aud. = Audit, S.W. = Social Workers.

Table 9.5 projects the mean scores for the eight programme groups mentioned earlier. On item 1 the general indications derived from the group means is that of a positive trend. With slight variations in intensity, all programme groups except for the Personnel and O & M groups who have shown a general approval of interpreting their presence in the training course as being an expression of a systematic training and development policy in their respective organisations. In the case of personnel and O & M groups, the means of 2.12 and 2.03 respectively indicate a slight lean towards the undecided side of the scale among group members. A X^2 critical of 17.94 in a Kruscal-Wallace none parametric ANOVA test have indicated a highly significant variation in the pattern the responses have taken amongst programme groups. Not so much inconsistencies were insight pertaining to group reaction to the

second statement with the groups' means favourably confirming that their presence in the training programme is viewed in the light of positive management attitude towards the value of training.

The course group responses' has followed was also found to vary in relation to the third claim whereby training assignment was understood as a promotional vehicle. Groups have shown varied reactions, with the personnel and O & M groups highly leaning towards the undecided side of the scale with the high means of 3.07 and 2.89 respectively clearly expressive of the degree of uneasiness of group members reflected by the pattern of their responses. Except for the Finance group with the mean of 2.0 indicating the groups' full consent, the rest of the groups mean indicating a general movement towards the centre point of the scale. The test of significance has shown to be valid at .004 with X^2 critical of 20.78. The indications are that across the eight groups, there seems to be a general mode of uncertainty as to whether their training could be interpreted to be tied to promotional policies in their parent organisations.

As for the coincidence interpretation of the training assignment, a high degree of similarity of responses is reflected by the general rejection and resentment portrayed by the extremely higher means. The lowest being 3.42 while the highest reached the level high of 4.22 in Finance group. The massive rejection of such a claim should be interpreted with caution and could be construed as defensive, although claiming that at this point could be premature.

The Auditors' group mean of 3.42 has pin pointed a slight variation in the pattern the group responses have followed, although the general trend is that of rejection. In reacting to the element of perceived

individual gains as one way to interpret why course members have been there seemed to enjoy a general air of affirmative satisfaction, with closer means beeing depicted across programme groups. The lowest mean of 1.20 shown by the Clerical group reflects a strongly positive confirmation for such an interpretation. The rest of the results slightly varied, albeit in the affirmative direction. In general, there is a great deal of resemblance at this point.

Tracing the shape of responses on the sixth point has again shown a great deal of variation among group members. With the Clerical group asserting their understanding that their training assignment can also be seen as a remedial response prompted by performance problems reflected by the low mean of 1.20. The Auditors' group have followed suit with their mean of 2.00 indicating consent, whereas the rest of the groups tended to vary and in general leaned towards the undecided point of the scale. Respondents were not very sure and thus do not recognise that their training assignment can be understood in the light of performance ailments; all groups were, in another word, reluctant to admit performance failures on the one hand, and were opposed to the notion that parent organisations are that much aware of performance loopholes. Kurscal-Wallace ANOVA test has shown X^2 critical of 24.21 producing a highly significant score of 0.001 indicating the magnitude of variation in group responses on this point. When responding to item seven, groups' means have indicated a general homegeneity.

Looking vertically at Table.9.5 would show the general pattern of each group responses. In the case of personnel group, the means indicate more positive tendencies on items 2,5 and 7 whereas higher means on item 3, 4 and 6 are indications of the groups movement away

from the notion that their training is to be interpreted neither for promotional aspects nor simply as a coincidence nor for that matter a remedial solution. The Finance group were consistent yet resentful of the notion of coincidence. The same being the case with Local Government. The O & M group have again expressed uncertainty towards the promotional implication as well as the remedial hint whereas they rejected the concidence explanation. The Clerical group have proven consistent whereas the Hospital Administration group have also shown higher means on items 3, 4 and 6. The same is the pattern of responces of the Auditors and Social Workers groups. The implications are that although the general trend reflected by group behaviour show a general tendency to shift towards the middle point on the scale for items 4 and 6, the general negative response is evident strongly on item 4. Therefore items 2, 3, 4 and 6 have shown higher means, though much higher in the case of Personnel and O & M groups.

Furthermore, reasons given were factor analysed in an exploratory manner to determine the degree of association indicated by factor loading of each of the seven items for further clarity and to sum the general condensing tendency of the items. A factor loading is a measure of the association between a variable and a factor of which it is a component. Factor loading range from - 1.0 to 1.0 with zero indicating no association. The sign of the loading indicates negative or positive association. In exploratory application of factor analysis, unique factors are assumed to be orthogonal to each other, while the main purpose of the extractor stage in exploratory factor analysis is to determine the minimum number of common factors that would satisfactorily produce the correlation among the observed variables

(Rummel,1970:8).The results extracting three factors are shown in Table 9.6.

Table 9.6 Factor loading on given reason to course enrolment

Given reasons	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	N
1. As part of org'l systematic development.	0.61			
2. Parent organisation believes in the value of training.		0.57		
3. For promotional reasons.	0.75			
4. It is simply a coincidence.			-0.87	
5. Because of perceived personal gains.			0.77	
6. To develop me in areas where I'm weak.	0.67			
7. Course is a must for any holder of my job.		0.82		
Variance explained (%)	33.4	19.7	15.0	233
TOTAL (%)		64.1		

Reflected in the three factors extracted is the strength of association of the items expressed in the loading. In factor 1, the three items that loaded highly were the perceptions of members' organisational training policy in client organisations; training being regarded as a reward and for promotional purposes as well as a remedial measure to performance problems as well as being a package of an organisation-sponsored personal development. In factor 2, perceptions of individuals of potential gains as well as sound belief on the part of respondents of the need for any holder of the job expresses a certain degree of personal motivation that adds up to the earlier mentioned felt need. In factor 3, two items loaded highly; one

positively loading which indicates perception of some sort of rational

training policy thus expressing confidence on the part of course

members of their respective organisation's belief in the value of

training and the fact that training pays off. On the other hand, the

other item highly loaded in the negative to negate any claim of

haphazard, criterion-free training policy in their respective

organisations.

The common factors would then be grouped under the closest headings

to the general interpretation as follows:

Factor 1:   Perceived organisational training policy

                                            Factor loading

a) Training is seen as a reward and promotional.   0.75
b) Training is perceived as a remedial element.
    for job-related performance weakness.   0.67
c) Training is perceived to be as part and parcel
    of systematic organisational development.   0.61

Factor 2: Immediate gains.

a) Course is perceived a must for any holder of job.   0.82
b) Coming to the course was against perceived
    potential gains.   0.77

Factor 3: Organisational belief in training

a) Management's belief in the value of training.   0.57
b) Participation is sheer coincidence and has no
   precise objectives.   0.87

Goldstein (1974) offers the following implications to be cosidered by

training activists as a general framework with regard to the role of

motivational factors:

   a) While learning does occur without explicitly designated rewards, but it

   would be unfortunate for instructional programs to proceed without a plan

of action for the institution of motivational variables.

b) There are a number of motivational needs that my work in any given setting, but the same incentives are necessarily rewards for everyone.

c) Empirical evidence support that motivational variables are most effective if they are viewed 1] instrumental for future activities,2] intrinsic,3] positive rather than aversive stimuli, and 4] set in terms of clear and concise goals.

9.3 Training techniques

Having established background variables leading to actual course attendance, participants were then approached to comment on teaching techniques employed during the course. The purpose is to shed additional light through training technicalities, as well as methods perceived to be effective by course participants in the course of transmitting the contents. Appropriateness of training tools and techniques as perceived by course members promotes learning and increases the degree of receptiveness and active participation on the part of course members and ultimately have a bearing on the ensuing programme results. Course appropriateness to the needs of trainees is by no means mechanically static nor can it be taken for granted. So dynamic are the different components of the training course as a temporary system that every facet is so interrelated hence any gap or malfunctioning can be detrimental to the ultimate end.

To scrutinise course members general stance with regard to the training strategy deployed, the query has set out to establish the effectiveness of the techniques employed from the trainees standpoint. In an answer to the question of the methods conceived to be effective, seven options were offered with an eighth open ended choice. Table 9.7 displays members' choices.

Table 9.7:   Training techniques perceived effective *

Techniques Perceived effective	N	Percentage
a. Lectures	180	77.3
b. Group discussion	189	81.1
c. Informal discussion with participants	101	43.3
d. Practical work done individually	75	32.2
e. Practical work done in groups	171	73.4
f. Informal discussions with trainers	69	29.6
g. Field visits	110	47.2

* Figures are not mutually exclusive.

Both lectures and group discussions have rated highly in the eyes of course members whose majority of more than 77 per cent in the case of lectures and 81 per cent in the case of group discussion have rated them to be efficiently used. The less favourable methods cited by respondents were practical work assignments performed individually scoring some 32 per cent of the entire sample and informal discussion with trainers. Clearly, practical work done in groups rated favourably viz a viz individual practical work, with more than 73 per cent advocates. Responses in this regard were highlighted across group levels, Table 9.8 sums up the picture by presenting percentage rating of perceived effective training technique used.

Table 9.8 Techniques perceived to be effectively used in training (%)

	Per	Fin.	L.Gt	O&M	Cler.	Hosp.Adm.	Aud.	Soc.Wk.	Significance	x^2 crit
1.Lectures	75	94.4	65.4	71.9	93.3	81.1	78.9	76.2	0.20	9.73
2.Group discussions	90	77.8	76.9	78.9	93.3	89.2	63.2	71.5	0.97	5.68
3.Informal discussion with peers	37.5	66.7	46.2	36.8	80	35.1	36.8	42.9	0.09	12.21
4.Practical work done individually	30	61.1	30.8	31.6	53.3	21.6	21.1	28.6	0.04	14.32
5.Practical workdone in groups	90	88.9	65.4	77	.2.80	75.7	42.1	47.6	0.00	13.59
6.Informal discussion with trainers	22.5	22.2	38.5	24.6	40	24.3	31.6	52.4	0.08	12.51
7.Field visits	37.5	5.6	65.4	40.4	93.3	81.1	15.8	33.3	0.00	53.70

* Significance is calculated at $\leq$ 0.05

Group and informal discussion is known to be conference style of training. The conference is defined as a group training method in which procedures, practices, problems and techniques are discussed in an effort to learn through the contributions of participants (Chappell 1943:1). For Phillips and Berliner (1960:180) the conference 'involves the free and cooperative oral exchange of informations and opinions in a group of people'. Nonethe-less, it has to be stated that conference effectiveness in modifying or changing attitudes is limited if not complemented with other techniques such as role playing. The point to be emphasised at this stage is that the effectiveness of conference method in training is manifestly evident particularly in the context of developing analytical and planning competence.

For Personnel group the highest scores were in favour of group work and discussion.

The next high score of 75 per cent was put on lectures whereas the last two items on the list have scored considerably modestly ranging from 22.5 per cent to 37.5 per cent. The Finance group members have markedly distinguished lectures and thus 94 per cent have chosen it to be effective with practical projects done in groups ranking second with only 89 per cent which is only natural due to the nature of financial courses. As with Local Governments, there has been a considerable split of opinions among the methods with group discussions scoring as high as 76.9 per cent whereas field visits and lectures were given an even 65.4 per cent each. With O & M groups, again there has been quite a split indicated by responses with relatively high scores on lectures, group discussion and practical work. The Clerical group has chosen to rate highly all styles but strangely enough except for practical work and informal discussions. For Hospital Administration group, items 1, 2 and 7 were rated favourably while the Auditors Group ha low-rated all styles but lectures. Finally the Social Workers have chosen to follow suit though also favoured group discussions.

Wikstorm concedes that,'The lecture is probably the most misused off-the-job training method' (1964:72). Whereas most training specialists consider the lecture to be the most verstile training method (Proctor & Thornton 1961:93). Manske (1966:21) singles out the lecture method to be the least effective method for developing supervisory skills. He points out that its ineffectiveness stems from its very nature. The empirical educational research ha found that individuals remember little of what they hear and that people learn more by doing.

In contrast, there has been an overall tendency to highly rate lectures and group discussions with practical work done in groups ranking second and third. There also seems to be a general disenchantment with field visits except in the case of Hospital Administration whose courses were primarily and heavily field centred; also field visits were rated high for Local Government groups. When respondents were requested to mark the one most effective technique, their choice has somewhat followed nearly the same pattern. Nearly 39 per cent of the entire sample have gone for practical group work whereas lectures, this time, scored second with nearly 31 per cent in favour; next came the group discussion with 23 per cent favourers.

Pursuing the line of emphasis to further underline the degree of adequacy of the techniques used in training, respondents were then requested in the next stage to react as to whether 'more' or 'less' or 'no more' is recommended given their experience with trainers' performance, their individual need as well as the validity of tools and techniques used in the training programmes. Responses are shown in Table (9.9).

Table 9.9 Respondents perception of how much more/less/no more of the training tools required (%)

Techniques	More %	Less %	Cancel% altogether	N.R %	X^2 crit.	Signif icance
1. Lectures	60.1	36.1	–	3.9	26.11	0.40
2. Group work	74.3	17.6	–	7.7	5.33	0.61
3. Informal discussion with peers	77	15	1.3	6.4	9.20	0.23
4. Case studies	77.3	14.2	1.7	6.9	11.59	0.11
5. Handouts	34.3	56.2	0.4	9.0	19.32	0.00
6. Audio Visual Aids	67.8	18.5	1.3	12.4	10.66	0.15
7. Management Games	59.2	21.9	7.7	11.2	11.41	0.12

* Significance is calculated at $\leq$ 0.05
N.R=Non Response.

Manske(1966:20-28) aknowledges that ,'...the development of supervisory talent is indeed a complex task and there is no"sure-fine" type or method of training. The possibility of achieving training objectives is often enhanced by utilising a combination of training methods'.

Looking at the layout of respondents recommendations, it is evident that the majority are recommending an overall increase in lectures, group work, informal discussion sessions, case studies, the use of audio visual aids and more management games seemed to be also on demand. On the other hand, a handsome majority of 56.2 per cent has recommended to reduce course handouts, furthermore, 36.1 per cent has also recommended less lectures. A minority of 7.7 per cent

recommended to cancel management games altogether. There has been, on average, nearly 7 per cent non respndents on all items. The general trend is that, more is demanded on all means on offer in the training course across sample members and across programme groups. Recommending the reduction of handouts is also explicit and can only be understood in the light of time allocations for course members to do assignments outside their working hours given their other preoccupations both socially and professionally, since participation, even on full time basis requires trainees coming to the course from work and leaving to continue his/her daily working hours.

9.3.a.Training Techniques and Objective Realisation.

In order to establish the weight of the techniques employed in transmitting training contents in relation to respondents' perception of objective realisation, an effective alternate to regression is used as an analytical tool whose major function is seen to ascertain the degree of association between the techniques used in the programmes as independent variables on the given course objective realisation as a dependent variable. This technique is widely used to determine into which category of a variable a case is likely to fall. Moreover, and since the discriminants analysis, on its own does not produce an estimate of the statistical significance of each pridictor variable, a step wise method was employed through the SPSSX statistical package. This has provided for further degree of approximation of the contribution of a particular variable by dropping the variable in question, hence minimising its effect. The analysis is then repeated through comparing the statistical significance with and without the variable in question.

The purpose of the utilisation of the discriminant function analysis at this stage is primarily to explore, statistically, how different training techniques weigh in relation to group formation in the context of objective realisation. The analyses used involved a number of discriminant steps to establish which of the variables are significantly associated together in determining the grouping process. As a result the following two variables have proven valid:

Training Technique	Wilks'Lambda	Significance
Lecture	0.95	0.047
Practical Grp.Work	0.93	0.063

Hence, the analyses involved two discriminant steps indicating higher significance and lower Lambda figuers as a result of the inclusion of another training technique. Consequently, the canonical discriminant analyses have effectively produced two functions with the following results:

Function	Eigenvalue	PCT. Variance	Canonical Corr.	Lambda	Sign
1	0.04	73.47	0.21	0.93	0.063
2	0.01	26.53	0.13	0.98	0.265

Scrutiny into the significance, Wilks' Lambda figures and the Eigenvalue would leave us with one function to consider, i.e function one. Therefore, the standardised canonical discriminant function coefficience for function one are as follows:

Function One	Coefficience
a) Lecture	0.83
b) Practical Group Work	0.42

It appears therefore that both lectures as well as practical work done in groups were effectively the most dominant techniques in so far

as discriminating amongst group members in the context of respondents' perception of effective realisation of course objectives. The results are well substantiated against the conclusions arrived at through the earlier analysis of groups' method preferences.

9.4 Course evaluation:

From training tools and techniques employed by trainers, the inquiry proceeded to course-specific general evaluation perceived by course members. The purpose at this point is to establish -though in general terms- areas of strengths and weaknesses, if any, pertaining to the course. It is again the general trend of perceptions that the research is after rather than course specificities. Hence the different aspects of the training course were tapped through a set of twelve statements where respondents were requested to indicate their level of agreement or otherwise in order to portray a general immediate reaction side of the trainees. Answers are shown in Table 9.10.

The sequence of the statements included indicates a gradual move from establishing first and foremost the issue of programme objectives in relation to both areas of clarity and practicality in order to relate eventually to objective realisation perceived by course members and included in a summing up statement towards the end. Particular attention is being placed on programmes adequacy and suitability in relation to addressing the participants given needs and hence appropriateness of the training to their job-related demands. It then follows to establish how course members perceived the overall set up and organisation of both course-related contents, their logical sequence, the language used to convey the training message. Then, course members were requested to comment on the degree of suitability

of member's past experience and background as indicators of homogeneity of course member's professional stance. The question of theory versus actual practice is a pressing one indeed. Therefore, course members reactions to the possible balance between the two aspects in the course proceedings were sought next. To determine how enjoyable course members have found their training is a general, yet powerful indication of the immediate reaction of course members which would influence the future possible impacts members' course of action. The pattern of responses is demonstrated in table (9.10)

Looking at Table 9.10 would reveal that, respondents were overwhelmingly in favour of course objectives' both clarity and practicality with the majority of 220 or the total percentage of 95.3 per cent choosing to respond affirmatively whereas only 2.1 per cent have chosen to disagree. On the issue of programme suitability pertaining to both individual needs as well as organisational job-related needs, the total positive answers for the first was in the vicinity of 74 per cent whereas the second point have pointed towards a handsome majority of nearly 83 per cent.

There also seems to be a strong level of satisfaction on the part of course members with regard to the organisation and set up of the conents as well as language clarity with the huge majority of 90.17 per cent and 91 per cent respectively responding extremely positively.

Table 9.10 Course evaluation: Trainees' Immediate reaction (%)
N=233

	Strongly Agree%	Agree %	Not Sure %	Disagree %	Strongly Disagree %
1. Programme objectives were clear and practical in a convincing way	46.4	48.1	3.4	2.1	–
2. Programme was suitable to my needs	23.6	50.2	18.0	6.0	0.9
3. Programme befitted my job requirements	39.9	42.5	12.4	5.1	–
4. Contents were well organised and logically related	35.6	57.5	5.6	3.4	0.9
5. Language used was clear and adequate	46.8	44.2	4.3	3.9	0.9
6. Participants background were appropriate	21.9	52.4	16.3	7.7	1.8
7. Participants experience were suitable	23.2	51.5	19.7	4.3	1.3
8. There was a theory-practice balance	23.6	55.8	9.4	8.6	2.6
9. Length of programme was both sufficient and efficient	10.7	21.5	6.9	43.8	17.1
10. I have found the programme to be enjoyable	38.2	48.1	5.6	6.0	2.2
11. Trainers succeeded in transferring contents in an effective way	34.3	53.6	8.6	3.4	–
12. The way I see it, the programme has realised its stated objectives	27.9	54.9	15.5	1.3	0.4

It also appears that there has been a general favourable attitude
reflected by respondents in relation to items 6, 7 and 8 pertaining to
member's background professional stance as well as satisfaction to the

balance perceived among course members between theory and practice. Programme duration has always been a highly debatable topic among course members and seemed to be a common negative denominator whenever feedback is requested by training organisors. For this reason, entertaining reaction on this point seemed to be necessary to further complement other areas of knowledge of course specifics. Only one third of the respondents have chosen to agree on the point of suitability of course length whereas the majority of 61 per cent have chosen to disagree, a point that would be pursued later on, but suffice it to say at this point, that courses' length does not always accommodate the actual time budget demanded by the course contents or units of training topics. Many a time, imposed constriants determine the allocations and hence curtail the actual needed time.

The courses investigated have shown a general enjoyable reaction on the part of course members with the majority of 201 or 71.9 per cent responding favourably. Upon rating the effectiveness of their respective trainers, the majority of 205 or 87.9 have reacted positively with nearly 20 or more than 8 per cent who couldn't agree.

To recap , respondents were again requested to comment on the point of course objective realisation. Not many, in response, felt strongly in favour. In fact, less than one third. None-the-less, another 55 per cent were still in favour, thus bringing the total favourable responses to more than 80 per cent whereas nearly 16 per cent were not quite sure about their feelings which is rather interesting given their first reaction to course clarity and practicality of objectives where 95.3 per cent have positively indicated their satisfaction. Nonetheless, the general trend is one of satisfaction though with varied degree of conviction.

Scores were then scrutinised in line with programme groups and mean scores are displayed in table 9.11 together with Kruscall-Wallace one way analysis of variance test to explore variations in group responses on the 12 items among the eight programme groups.

Group responses indicated by the means projected in Table 9.11 show, at a closer look, differences of responses pertaining to different programme groups. In Personnel group of programmes, means cited indicate favourable responses on all items except for that of discontent with programme length. More positive attitude in general is detected from Financial group whose mean responses centred between the first two positive responses with even stronger resentment to the notion of programme length adequacy. The Local Government group has strongly indicated dissatisfaction with programme length with their mean being the highest among programme groups. Less adamant about their discontent with programme length were Clerical group and Social Workers.

A general favourable response is also indicated by O & M group whose pattern of answers have indicated more or less a higher consistency than that of other groups. The Clerical group was generally more satisfied than the rest. Moreover, they also have had no problem with the length of their programme, since, by nature, clerical and office management courses are traditionally longer than others, dealing with more practical orientation of topics. Both Hospital Administration group as well as the Auditors have shown closer tendency towards dissatisfaction given participants' background and professional stance as manifested by higher means.

Table 9.11. Course Evaluation: Immediate Reaction in Programme Groups

	Per.	Fin.	L.G.	O&M	Cler.	HA.	Aud.	SW	OM	X^2 crit	Sign.
1.Objective clarity and practicality	1.72	1.44	1.69	1.57	1.13	1.54	1.63	1.81	1.59	15.13	0.034
2.Suitability to individual needs	2.05	1.94	2.23	2.22	1.80	2.10	1.89	1.81	2.06	6.868	0.442
3.Suitability to job requirements	1.65	1.66	1.92	2.07	1.46	1.75	1.78	1.76	1.81	9.948	0.191
4.Contents were organised and logically related	1.77	1.44	1.80	1.87	1.33	1.86	1.84	2.04	1.79	14.258	0.046
5.Language use both adequate and clear	1.65	1.39	1.96	1.45	1.40	1.73	2.21	1.85	1.67	16.858	0.018
6.Participants background is appropriate	2.05	1.94	2.15	1.91	2.00	2.16	2.78	2.19	2.10	13.437	0.062
7.Participants experience was suitable	2.15	1.77	2.15	1.96	1.86	2.05	2.42	1.95	2.07	7.258	0.402
8.Course had theory and practice balance	2.12	1.66	2.46	2.03	1.73	2.05	1.89	2.28	2.06	13.854	0.053
9.Length of programme both efficient and sufficient	3.05	3.22	4.0	3.64	2.13	3.67	3.05	2.76	3.33	30.771	0.000
10.I have found the programme to be enjoyable	1.82	1.66	1.76	1.56	1.33	2.05	2.26	1.95	1.79	20.724	0.004
11.Trainers were successful and effective	1.67	1.94	1.92	1.52	1.46	2.00	2.42	1.95	1.81	29.981	0.001
12.I see that programme has met stated objectives	1.97	1.61	1.84	1.89	1.40	2.02	2.31	2.00	1.91	21.131	0.003

* Significance is calculated at $\leq$ 0.05
Per = Personnel, Fin = Finance, LG = Local Govt.O & M = Organisation Methods, Cler.
= Clerical, H.A. = Hospital Admin., Aud. = Auditing, SW = Social Workers, OM =
Overall Mean.

The Social Workers have effectively conveyed the same message with

also an air of discontent in relation to the balance perceived between

the theoretical and the practical aspects of the course. X^2 critical

and significance of variance of responses among groups were introduced

in the same table to further consolidate findings. Judging by the

amount of significance shown, there seems to be no substantial significance indicated by the test among programme groups on items 2, 3, 7 and 8, whereas high level of significance is being attached to all other items in relation to programme group responses.

9.4.a. Personal Charecteristics and enjoyability of training:

'You can force a horse to the river bank' the old piece of wisdom claims,'but you can never force it to drink'. Before stepping any further one aspect of training has been purposefully singled out; and that is the enjoyability of the training programme. Training will have to generate, to say the least, a pleasant climate where trainees irrespective of other facets of programme utility can enjoy. If trainees were enjoying the programme, they are more likely to be turned on and the chances are that it would entail better results upon course conclusion. As mentioned earlier, the programmes assesssed as expressed by quite a convincing majority of 86 per cent of the respondents that they succeeded in producing a climate of enjoyability. However, nearly 15 per cent were still sceptics. Therefore, getting to know how respondents' personal characteristics have influenced their perception of a programmes being enjoyable thus determining the pattern of group formation.

To test that statistically, discriminant analysis was utilised to ascertain which of the respondents' personal charecteristics have had what level of influence or weight in forming the groups. Those characteristics screened for tolerence were age, sex, qualification, status, tenure and finally years of service spent in the present job. The results produced by applying discriminant function analyses are self explanotary in the table shown below:

Personal Characteristics	Wilks'Lambda	Significance
a) Tenure	0.94	0.015
b) Status	0.90	0.004
c) Qualification	0.88	0.007
d) Sex	0.86	0.009

Thus, the process of testing the variables for tolerence has produced four canonical discriminant functions of which function one has proven to have effective statistical significance as indicated by the following layout:

Function	Eigenvalue	PCT.ofVariance	Canonical Corr.	Lambda	Significance
1	0.06	46.05	0.25	0.86	0.009

Hence, the line-up showing the standardised canonical discriminant function coeffecience in function 1 would appear as follows:

Characteristics	Coeffecience
a) Sex	-0.34
b) Tenure	1.00
c) Status	0.01
d) Qualification	0.38

Scrutiny into the above coeffecience values would undoubtedly reveal the marked weight of tenure, qualification as well as gender of the respondents in differentiating amongst the groups in relation to their perception of training enjoyability. The highest influence was that of tenure. Seniority or recency in the public post is of no little relevace in shaping individual's perception, so is gender and qualification. The former brings forth along with the trainee a sense of vision, insight and self confidence. As to the influence of gender, it was realised through personal observation, that whenever training

sessions were coeducational, they were more lively envigorated with an added element of competition . This point is well substantiated in the local context where education is based on the principle of segregation amongst males and females untill the tertiary level.

9.4.b. Evaluation: Perceived Benefits

Once programme-centred evaluation points were contextualised and tapped, the process of evaluation though still in its immediate reaction stage proceeds further to cast light on respondents perceptual attitudes to the advantages perceived to have been gained from the course.

Course members' perception, though at times impressionistic and can be misconstrued, but stand crucial as to whether or not objectives as perceived by course organisers were truly realised. To tap individuals reaction to the areas where they perceived they have benefited most, they were again requested to indicate their level of agreement or otherwise with prearranged statements on a five point scale. Table 9.12 presents a general lay out of results.

Table 9.12 Realisation of course objective by perceived gains (%)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.I benefited by comparing and contrasting experience with others	28.3	42.5	7.3	15.5	6.4
2.I have ended up with some useful new ideas	48.9	44.6	3.4	2.9	-
3.Now I have a better understanding of what is required from me in my work	43.3	41.6	10.3	4.7	-
4.Now I feel more confident to do my work	42.5	40.3	10.7	5.2	1.3
5.I benefited by establishing some useful contacts which is very useful	32.6	39.5	15.9	9.4	2.6
6.I benefited by staying off the job due to boredom and the need for change	6.0	9.0	10.7	36.1	38.2
7.Primarily the course was a refresher for what I already know	27.0	49.4	14.1	6.9	2.6

N = 233

Scrutiny into the table would show marked differences indicated by individuals perception of the gains they have made in the course. The general mode, however, is a positive one. Respondents were extremely resentful of the notion that they have perceived the course as an outlet to boredom and refuge to break monotony and as a means of introducing change in one's' professional daily monotonous routine working life. Naturally such aim is entirely legitimate, yet the general prevalent perception is that of negative connotation. A resounding majority of some 93.5 per cent were positively for the point of gaining some useful new ideas. Gaining some insight and better understanding of what is required from course members have come second. Some 84.9 per cent of the entire group reacted in the affirmative. On the other hand, feeling confident about one's own work has ranked third. Comparing and contrasting experience in the course of attending a training programme was perceived by 165 members to be a benefit

whereas establishing some useful contacts was perceived by 168.

The strongest resentment was, as mentioned earlier, towards the 'break monotony' connotation of course with 173 reporting negative, while next on the resentment list is comparing and contrasting experience where 51 per cent of the respondents choosing to deny it. The course being perceived as a refresher element across group members has also shown significant variations where the Auditing group was highly on the affirmative side followed by the Social Workers, then the Local Government trailed by the Clerical group. Such line-up is interesting since, the higher heterogeniety in relation to qualifications held by group members as well as locus in the organisational hierarchy is somehow manifest. Whereas, other groups means were on the higher side indicating closeness to the disapproving side of the statement. Individuals come into training courses with their own implicit agenda which may or may not match those of their respective organisation nor that of training organisers. Exploring trainees expectations prior to the design of the programme is just as important as establishing their training needs. It can be an extremely supportive impetus if such driving force can not only be nourished, accommodated and nortured in the course of training but also in adding an element of positive support that enthuses participants hence, activates the learning process.

Table 9.13 Perceived Benefits: Means of Group responses

Perceived Benefits	Per.	Fin.	L.G.	O&M	Cler	H.A.	Audit	S.W	Mean	X^2-critical	sign.
1.Compare and contrast experience	2.60	1.77	2.65	2.42	1.80	1.78	2.26	1.66	2.20	22.49.	0.002
2.Have some useful new ideas	1.60	1.83	1.46	1.70	1.33	1.94	1.52	1.47	1.57	12.55	0.008
3.Better unerstanding for work	2.02	1.61	1.76	1.93	1.40	1.81	1.36	1.28	1.74	23.08	0.001
4.Developed confidence in handling work	1.97	1.33	1.73	1.78	1.66	2.13	1.73	1.33	1.78	19.52	0.006
5.Made some useful contacts	2.35	1.83	1.88	2.12	1.80	2.29	1.52	1.95	2.05	13.67	0.057
6.Staying off the to break nonotony and for a change	4.12	3.77	3.42	4.08	3.46	3.83	3.42	3.95	3.85	9.960	0.190
7.Course as a refresher to what I know	2.15	2.11	1.92	2.03	1.93	2.29	1.52	1.61	2.03	14.60	0.041

* P ≤ 0.05
Per = Personnel, Fin = Finance, LG = Local Govt.,O&M=Organisation Methods, Cler. = Clerical, H.A. = Hospital Admin., Auo. = Auditing, S W = Social Workers, O M = Overall Mean.

Means indicated in Table 9.13 are self expressive as to how programme groups varied in their responses on every particular item. Kurscal Wallace, one way ANOVA test shows significant variations in responses pertaining to item 1, when Personnel, Local Government and Auditirs group have scored slightly closer to the undecided point of the scale. High significance is indicated in the area of better understanding of one's work requirements, where means indicated varied responses, in Personnel group stance but the rest of the groups have fallen in the positive responses side of the scale.   In the area of developing more confidence, significant variation was also indicated by the test, showing Hospital Administration group expressing tendencies towards the middle point of the scale.

Respondents' evaluatory reactions to their respective training programmes are shown as they were factor analysed into interrelated groups loading on a common factor. Each group is then brought together into clusters given a new title that matches the general loading trend in the group.

Significance was also detected as an indication of variations in group responses on item 5 where scrutiny showed Personnel, O & M, Hospital Administration programme groups producing higher means in general, where the conference aspects of the course have proven to be falling closer towards the undecided centre point of the scale. In contrast, these programme groups were of highly interactive nature where group work and team building and syndicate discussions are very popular and hence, establishing useful contacts is only natural, but again the statements were taken as a negative implication and respondents were eager to deny it. The rest of the items highlighted by the test of significance, have shown no significant variation and hence provided consistency across programme groups.

The next stage of analysis in respondents programme evaluation is to have the many dimensions factor analysed in entirety. The purpose is very valid, since a major function of the technique, especially when working with a large number of variables is to have then reduced into clusters of interrelated variables loading on a factor. A more reasonably simplified pattern is intended for the phenomenon under investigations. Therefore, course-specific evaluation items together with evaluation through perceived gains were both subjected to factor analysis using it again in an exploratory manner. The results have produced six factors extracted from the total of 19 items shown in

Tables 9.11 through 9.13.

Table 9.14 Factor loading on course evaluation: Immediate reaction

Course Evaluation: Immediate reaction	Fac 1	Fac 2	Fac 3	Fac 4	Fac 5	Fac 6
1.Benefited by comparing ana contrasting experience with others					0.70	
2.Benefited by developing some new useful ideas			0.47			
3.By developing a better understanding of my work			0.70			
4.I feel I'm more confident			0.79			
5.I benefited by establishing some useful contacts					0.67	
6.I benefited mainly by staying off the job and need to change					0.60	
7.Primarily the course was a refresher for what I already have						0.75
8.Course objectives are clear and reasonably practical		0.45				
9.Course suits my training neeas		0.73				
10.Course befits my organisational job requirements		0.78				
11.Course contents are well-organisea and logically sequenced		0.65				
12.There has been adequate language clarity	0.57					
13.I have found the participants background to be appropriate					0.75	
14.Participants professional experience was adequate					0.75	
15.There has been a reasonable balance between theory and practice	0.63					
16.I have found course duration botn efficient and effective						0.46
17.I have come to find the course enjoyable		0.47				
18.I found trianers to be effective			0.65			
19.The course has realised its statea objectives		0.70				
VARIATION (%)	19.7	10.5	7.7	6.4	6.2	5.4
VARIATION TOTAL (%)			56.0			

Fac = Factor

The factors extracted hence have taken the following pattern:

Factor 1 Immediate reaction: Course specific	Factor loading
a. The course has realised stated objectives	0.70
b. Trainers have been effective	0.65

c. Tere is a reasonable balance between theory
   and practice   0.63

d. There was a sufficient language clarity   U.57

e. I found the programme to be enjoyaole   0.47

Factor 2 _Perceived programme suitabi.ity to individual needs_.

Items	loading
a. Programme befits job requirements	0.78
b. Programme meets personal training needs	0.73
c. Programme contents are well-organised and logically related	0.65
d. Course objectives are reasonabley clear and practical	0.45

Factor 3 _Perception of immediate gains, likely job impact_

Items	loading
a. I benefited by developing confidence to handle my work better	0.79
b. I have come out with better unoerstanding of myjob	0.70
c. I have come out with some new useful ideas	0.47

Factor 4 _Adequacy of course members background_

Item	loading
a. Participants background were appropriate	0.75
b. Participants' professional experience standing is adequate.	0.75

Factor 5 _Conference aspect of the course_

Items	loading
a. I have benefited by comparing and contrasting personal experience with others	0.70
b. I have benefited by establishing some useful contacts	0..67
c. Benefited by staying off the job, introducing some change and breaking monotony	0.60

Factor 6 _Training as a refresher element_

Items	loading
a. The course was a refresher for wnat I already possess and know	0.75

b. Programme duration was efficient and effective   0.46

Looking into the factors extracted would illustrate some reasonable

grouping of interrelated items discussed earlier. Factor 1 would, in

general, group together items relating to the immediate reaction side

of training evaluation endorsed by training theorists like,

Kirkpatrick, Hamblin, Hesseling and others. Trainees reactionshave been

significant via composite loading scores of six items with the

perceived realisation of programmes stated objectives showing the

highest load of 0.70 and the general satisfaction reflected by the

enjoyability of the programme loading least with 0.47.

In factor 2, areas of programmes suitability for both work-specific

and individual training needs as well as the general suitability and

well organisation and sequence of programme contents were grouped

together, with the job-related adequacy loading highest i.e. 0.78 and

content related satisfaction loading 0.65. Hence, the factor was

appropriately coined along the two highest loading items.

Factor 3 grouped the items that measured to some extent the general

feeling after the course that would naturally indicate whether or not a

latent likelihood of passing over programme deductions on to work

related environment. Developing confidence in course member has loaded

highly, next comes, better understanding as a result of the course,

whereas coming out with some useful ideas has loaded third. The three

dimensions are indications, though preliminary, of the samples

potential readiness to transfer programme related gains on to job

setting.

Factor 4 sums up sample members' perception of the adequacy and

appropriateness of the general professional background of programme participants as a crucial element without which congruence is beyond reach in the context of the course. Experience shows, that many a time, negative attitudes would develop among course members if such criteria of closer proximity of educational as well as professional background of course members are not met, same is the case with trainers, who, though advocates of hetrogeniety of course members, but only in the context of bringing together different sorts of experties, school of thoughts, educational diversities and different professional groups to enrich active participation.

Factor 5 groups together the items that would reflect the conference aspect of the course as perceived benefits. Generally speaking, comparing and contrasting experience and establishing certain useful contacts are two socially influenced aspects that got extended into training courses as a matter of fact benefits. People love to socialise in the Omani culture. Yet coming on to a training course out of boredom and to break monotony and as a means of introducing some form of change into one's life seemed to be the least popular. People hate to admit it, but the fact of the matter is that it is there, even it is not overtly evidenced through training responses.

Finally, factor 6 has brought together the notion that course attendance was perceived primarily as a refresher exercise for members to what they already have known and possessed, loading as highly as 0.75 whereas the second point that came along in the factorial analysis was the point of course length and its adequacy in relation to the subject matter intended to cover in the course.

9.5 Perceived Obstacles to the Transferribility of Learning.

One important, or perhaps the most important goal of a training course is the introduction of change in the way things are done back in parent organisations. Inculcating and developing positive and more appropriate attitudes and behavioural patterns are not ends by themselves nor are they aloof without any meanginful context, so to speak. Newly acquired attitudes, knowledge, skills and behavioural changes are meant to be the vehicle through which, the quality of work is enhanced and improved, hence, conducive to more efficient and effective realisation of organisational objectives.

On the 'social influences' on the successful transfer of learning, House (1968) has identified three major social sources of influence that can either inhibit or facilitate the learning transfer process; they are:

a) the formal authority system. By this he meant the rules and regulations, the policies and procedures, the incentive system and the like.

b) the second influence was seen to be the way the trainees' immediate supervisor exerted his/her authority which would ultimately influence theextent to which a trainee is willing to try out the newly acquired skills and ideas.

c) and the third influence viewed by House is the work group of the trainees' peers, colleagues and immediates subordinates. Their system of norms and values can have an inhibiting (French 1960) or facilitating (Coch and French 1948) effect on the successful transfer of training.

To establish whether or not respondents are well positioned to introduce change once they are back on their jobs, their perception of

the potential difficulties that may be encountered in the urge of introducing course-related changes were tapped. Knowledge of the possible difficulties lying ahead for course members would add an element of reality and would help difuse tension from within and enable trainees to prioritise on realistic bases. It so happens, at times that trainees expectations are hightened by means of a training programme while the working climate is not particularly keen on dwelling upon the alien concepts brought forth by a new programme leaver.

Exploring the possible barriers in the face of change was addressed by requesting sample members to rate, on a five point scale the degree of certainty, with which they will do things differently upon course completion in relation to their work. More than 35 per cent were very definite while another 53.2 per cent, though more cautious, but still positive bringing the total to a majority of 206 or 85.4 per cent of the whole sample whereas a small minority of only 3 per cent were on the negative side of the scale with more than 8 percent choosing to be uncertain. The query was carried on further this time to tell how difficult doing things differently in the job context really is in the perception of respondents. In response, the majority of 61.8 percent or 124 thought it to be quite easy whereas 27 per cent or 65 members of the sample have figured it out to be difficult to add to that slightly more than 10 per cent undecided. However, a handsome majority were anticipating no difficulties, which is to be dealt with caution since it is perceptual on the one hand, and doing things differently means introducing change, and there could be quite a number of push and pull factors that dynamically operate in the organisational context that were not readily identified by respondents. On the other hand, in response to the first question in relation to intentions, a huge

majority of 85.4 per cent though with varied degree of certainty were well positioned and well intentioned to do things differently upon programme completion.

The point was further stressed by asking respondents to indicate whether they stand a chance to apply what they have learnt back to their job. Interestingly, the big majority of 183 or more than 78 per cent have confirmed standing a big chance to apply course related learning, while 40 or 17 per cent were uncertain. Only 10 or 4.3 per cent were on the negative side. Thus, in looking into the previous three inquiries in relation to their intentions to introduce change, the general convincing trend is that of positive intention with higher number of sceptics of degree of ease by which doing things differently can be applied.

Although a convincing majority has concluded that chances are extremely good to introduce change, there were, however, other more cautious though affirmative respondents, therefore, digging deep into potential impediments to change is worthwhile the effort and to further drag into the day light the bases of optimism conveyed by the above responses. The degree with which respondents have percieved introducing change would be was then correlated with their initial intention to apply change. Spearman's correlation test has produced a negative -0.21 with an extremely high statistical significance of 0.001. Justifiably, then, respondents' intent to transfer learning in the form of change and novel ideas is influenced by their perception of the degree of easiness they would encounter within the organisational climate.

The expedition into potential difficulties as well as sources of difficulties was the object of our next stage of inquiry. Respondents

were requested to indicate the degree of likelihood of ten sources of difficulties that would possibly obstruct change. Responses are shown in Table. 9.15.

Table 9.15 Perceived Obstacles to Change (%)

Obscales	Very likely %	Likely %	Not sure %	Unlikely %	Very unlikely %
1.Lack of superior support	16.3	48.1	13.3	17.2	5.2
2.Lack of colleague support	10.3	35.6	24.4	23.2	6.4
3.Lack of subordinate support	10.3	36.5	17.1	24.0	12.0
4.Insufficient knowledge on my part	5.6	36.5	15.9	27.0	15.0
5.Insufficient practice and skills	12.0	25.8	11.1	36.5	14.6
6.Time constraints	8.2	35.6	15.4	27.9	12.8
7.Lack of interest and motivation	11.6	22.3	10.3	34.8	21.0
8.Hesitant for fear of consequences	9.0	32.6	15.1	28.8	14.6
9.Inflexibility and rigidity of rules	17.2	29.6	20.1	20.1	12.9
10.Change is unwanted	9.4	21.9	15.1	24.0	2.96

N =233

The levels of possible support or otherwise were indicated as sources of supportive climate conducive to change. Superiors colleagues and subordinates as a triangle that can be an extremely helpful source of inspiration in dwelling upon change. The audiences role can be to the detriment of new ideas or can inversly be receptive encouraging and hence supportive. Colleagues may have mixed feelings about what to do and may ridicule advocates of change. One trainee says: 'It is frustrating and very discouraging. I do wonder, why on earth we are sent to a training programme if we are to remain the same and be deprived from the opportunity to apply what we have learnt'. Another young female graduate contemplates, 'One hand can do very little, I

sincerely want to improve the way things are done, but colleagues are least supportive and remarkably discouraging'.

In response, more than 64.4 per cent or the majority of 140 have indicated that the absence of support rendered by their superiors can be considered the obstacle in the face of change. Slightly less than 30 per cent considered that to be highly unlikely. In relation to their colleagues, Some 45.9 did consider it to be a possibility while nearly one quarter of the sample were not so sure against nearly 30 per cent who thought it to be very unlikely.

Interestingly, nearly 47 per cent did consider their subordinates to be the source of difficulties. When difficulties posed to the introduction of change were hinted to be due to either insufficient knowledge, practice and skills on the part of the respondent; there has been a general tendency to deny that as a factor. However, in the case of insufficiency of knowledge 98 members or more than 42 per cent thought of it to be a possibility, against 99 denials with 37 uncertain replies. Difficulties posed by insufficient skill and practice have shown slight improvement towards denials with 119 or 51 per cent disapproving against 88 or 37.8 per cent who still considered it a possibility.

Time constraint being an obstructing element was also probed. Respondents have revealed mixed feelings with this regard, with 101 or 43.8 per cent considering it to be a possibility against 95 with 35 undecided. Whereas motivation and individual desire and interest in introducing change was opposed by a majority of 130 or 55.8 per cent against 79 contenders which is still a high proportion of disinterested

demotivated trainees in respect to their intention to introduce change.
When, potentially negative consequences was mentioned as a probable
discouraging element obstructing change, 97 conceded against 101 who
disaproved with 35 uncertain.

Next on potential sources of difficulties was the point of rigidity
of rules and regulations. Interestingly, the majority of 109 or 46.8
per cent thought of it as a possibility with 47 hesitants and 77 or 33
per cent disapproving. The final point sought responses by requesting
respondents whether the general climate that change is unwanted and
unwelcomed and people would rather leave things unchanged would
possibly be of any source of difficulties; in response, the majority of
125 or 53.6 per cent were against such implication with 35 who couldn't
make up their mind.

In general, the sample was dispersed considerably in their pattern
of responses as to the perceived sources of difficulties that would
have obstructed intended change. The highest majority was pointing at
their superiors being sources of difficulties with decreasing majority
pointing at colleagues and subordinates, then into some sort of mixed
reactions, or even an outright split in recognition of self-related
constraints, be they time, or insufficiency of knowledge, skills and
practice. A good majority disapproved the lack of interest and
motivation to introduce change while a convincing majority have
identified the rigidity of rules and regulations to be the source of
difficulty. Finally, a handsome majority were opposed to the concept
that change afterall was unwanted and not welcomed.

In the next stage of investigation, means of programme group
responses were traced in order to detect group tendencies in relation

to perceived difficulties to change; means are then further scrutinised by additional using of Kruscall-Wallace one way analysis of variance, to establish if any, significant variation in group responses. Table 9.16 projects the group means as well as X^2 critical and the degree of statistical significance. It appears that the projected means show a general tendency for responses to fall closer to the centre whereas there seems to be quite a split of opinions falling on the two sides of the scale.

Variation in group responses detected through the test of significance show lower levels of significance across groups concerning most of the perceived barriers except for three cases where the level of significance reported indicate tangible variations across programme group responses as insufficient knowledge on the part of respondent was perceived as a potential difficulty there has been a relatively good deal of variation amongst group responses. Time constraint also reflected such variations as well as the lack of interest and motivation recorded a considerably high level of significance.

Table 9.16 Group responses means of perceptions to possible barriers to change

	Per.	Fin.	L.G.	O&M	Cler.	HA.	Aud.	SW	OM	X^2 crit.	Significance
1.Lack of superior support	2.35	2.66	2.19	2.47	2.60	2.51	2.26	2.71	2.45	5.06	0.652
2.Lack of colleague support	2.67	2.88	2.6:	2.70	3.00	3.05	2.94	2.52	2.78	5.75	0.568
3.Lack of subordinate support	2.95	2.88	2.88	2.91	2.86	2.97	2.73	2.81	2.89	0.27	0.999
4.Insufficient knowledge on my part	3.07	3.38	3.15	3.31	3.26	3.10	2.57	2.38	3.08	13.97	0,051
5.Insufficient practice & skills	2.87	3.05	3.03	3.17	3.13	3.62	2.68	3.14	3.13	8.93	0.257
6.Time constraints	3.32	3.00	3.00	3.10	2.53	3.02	2.10	3.00	2.99	13.39	0.063
7.Lack of interest and motivation	3.02	3.22	3.38	3.36	3.66	3.43	2.26	3.90	3.28	16.47	0.021
8.Hesitant for fear of consequences	2.90	3.27	3.03	2.84	3.13	3.29	3.10	3.14	3.07	4.18	0.758
9.Inflexibility and rigidity of rules	2.57	3.11	2.8C	2.87	3.26	2.67	2.78	2.71	2.80	5.05	0.653
10.Change is unwanted		3.52	3.33	3.34	3.22	3.40	3.40	3.00	3.52	3.39	7.31	0.397

N=233

Significance is calculated at $\leq$ 0.05

Sources of difficulties were then subjected to factor analysis again in an explorary manner using the principal component method with variance rotation for a clear dimensionality and to examine how variables grouped together on factors and the degree of association indicated by loading scores. The results were as follows:

Table 9.17 Factor Loading of sources of difficulties posed to change

Sources of difficulties	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	N
1 Lack of superior support		0.77		
2. Lack of colleague support		0.74		
3. Lack of subordinate support		0.73		
4. Insufficient knowledge on my part	0.65			
5. Insufficient practice and skill	0.71			
6. Time constraints	0.67			
7. Lack of interest and motivation	0.75			
8. Hesitatent for fear of consequences	0.60			
9. Inflexibility and rigidity of rules and regulations			0.67	
10. Change is generally unwanted			0.84	
VARIANCE EXPLAINED (%	38.5	11.1	10.3	233
TOTAL OF VARIANCE (%)		59.9		

Sources of potential difficulties for the introduction of change were grouped convincingly around these extracted factors. In factor 1, personal-related difficulties have shown considerable interrelatedness indicated by composite loading scores. The personal items have shown a higher loading on individuals lack of interest desire and motivation, while the insufficiency of practice and skill loading with the limitation imposed by time constraints loading next. Insufficiency of knowledge and hesitation to introduce change for fear of consequences came consecutively afterwards.

In factor 2, support rendered by members of parent organisation, was grouped together where the lack of superior's support loading highest, and the lack of colleague as well as subordinates support ranking second and third in their weight loading.

In factor 3 Regulations and general attitudes prevalent within the

organisation have grouped together with resistence to change due to the general status quo atmosphere loading as high as 0.84 and the rigidity of rules and regulation ranking next.

9.5.a.Intention to apply Change and Potential Barriers.

To determine whether or not recognition of potential environmental obstructions perceived to withhold any effective transfer of learning would influence respondents' intention towards introducing change, discriminant function analyses with step wise option was utilised again to establish how-if any- of the perceived obstacles can effectively discriminate amongst group members' intention to introduce change. The purpose at this stage is again to identify the variables which contribute significantly in the differentiation process.

Twelve potential obstacles were introduced to be tested for tolerence; the following table presents a summary of the results:

Obstacles	Wilks' Lambda	Significance
a) Change unwanted	0.95	0.02
b) Lack of Subourdinate support	0.93	0.04
c) Insuff.Practical Skills	0.90	0.03
d) Insufficient Know-How	0.87	0.01
e) Lack of Time	0.85	0.01
f) Lack of Colleague Support	0.83	0.02

Hence the above six obstacles have stood the test of tolerence and the results have indicated significant weight in group membership. Four functions were produced in due process of which function one has projected the following standardaised canonical discriminant function coeffecients:

Obstacles	Coeffience
a) Lack of Colleague Support	0.24
b) Lack of Subourdinate Support	0.37
c) Insufficient Know-How	0.77
d) Insufficient Practical Skills	0.89
e) Lack of Time	-0.48
f) Change unwanted	0.22

Thus, with Wilks' Lambda of 0.83 and a high statistical significance of 0.02 it so appears that the above obstacles have effectively discriminated amongst respondents in shaping the groups. The result basically supports earlier conclusions arrived at in the analysis of responses at both sample and group levels.

9.5.b.Easiness of applying Change and Potential Barriers.

Similarly, discriminant analysis was employed to tell how perceptions of potential obstacles to change influenced respondents' understanding of the degree of easiness by which change can be introduced. Five obstacles, when tested for tolerence have produced the following significant results:

Obstacles	Wilks' Lambda	Significance
a) Lack of Superior Support	0.90	0.000
b) For Fear of Consequences	0.87	0.000
c) Change unwanted	0.85	0.000
d) Insufficient Practical Skills	0.84	0.001
f) Insufficient Know-How	0.81	0.001

Hence the canonical discriminant functions have produced four functions of which function one have proven significance as per the results that follow:

Eigen Value	PCT.Of Variance	Wilks'Lambda	x^2	D.F	Significance
0.14	74.51	0.83	40.37	16	0.000

The standardised canonical discriminant function coeffecience of the obstacles included in function one are as follows:

Obstacles	Coeffecience
a) Lack of Superior Support	0.69
b) Insufficient Know-How	0.15
c) Insufficient Practical Skills	0.19
d) Change unwanted	0.41

Looking at the weight of each of the obstacles tested would evidently show the decisive role played by the first and the last variables in influencing the process of group formation in so far as the perception of easiness of introducing change. Logically, the lack of one's superiors' support as well as the recognition of the fact that change is generally unwanted for reasons beyond the scope of our discussion, have had the dominance in the differentiation process.

In conclusion, and in relation to the potential introduction of course related changes there need to exist a high degree of congruence between parent organisations' practices and the goals as well as the contents espoused by the training course so as to minimise wastage and unnecessary frustrations.

Summary

The chapter traced in details and in chronological sequence the issues and questions pertaining to trainees eventful training cycle

commencing from the point when an individual is assigned for a training placement. The object was to establish at a rather wider base as to whether or not training objectives were realised. Procedural issues were further ascertained in order to determine if a systematic training policy does exist in parent organisations. Highlighted by the course responses have taken, a good majority has indicated that there has been one form or another of a systematic training policy, through a) sufficient notice allowing the trainees to get prepared and consult training organisers, b) a sizeable majority has indicated that it was either their superiors or personnel officer who had suggested to them the need to attend a course, c) nearly three quarters confirmed that they have discussed their placement with their superiors though the topics discussed have widely varied. Less than one half of the sample have indicated that they need to report back, with slightly half that figure reporting in a written manner. An indication that management though keen to show that they mean business when it comes to training, yet they were not so keen to get their programme completers report back. Another indication that helps provide a personel drive is the overwhelming majority who have emphatically suggested that they were in the course in the light of their recognition and their area-specific training needs.

In an effort to ascertain whether there is and the intensity of individuals motivational standing in relation to training, participants understanding was screened across the sample and across programme groups. Presenting yet another indication of their perception of their organisation's systematic training policy a majority of more than 80 per cent of the respondents have interpreted the cause of their presence in a course, as well as their understanding that management

does believe that training really pays off. Respondents on the other hand were extremely resentful of the implications that their training was simply a coincidence. Interpretations of reasons to attend were then factor analysed to assess the weight of each reason and to bring together as many interrelated variables under common factors.

In the next section the evaluation process has sought to assess respondents perception of the appropriateness and the efficacy of training techniques employed by trainers in transmitting the training message. It appeared that, although all techniques on offer were rated effective, though in varied degrees, there has been a special admiration and demand for lectures as well as group discussion, with practical work done in groups rating third. The same pattern has followed suit across the eight programme groups, when sample members were requested to indicate the one most effective technique, the majority have chosen to cite practical work done. in groups, lectures came second whereas group discussion came third.

In tapping respondents' immediate reaction in the context of course evaluation, areas of strengths and weaknesses as perceived by course members were ascertained. Courses assessed have rated extremely highly in the participants eyes to the following dimensions: a) course clarity and practicality, b) its organisation and sequence of course contents, c) its suitability to course members, both individual as well as organisational needs, d) a conceivable balance between theory and practice, e) the programme was enjoyable, f) trainers were also rated highly. To cap up, respondents have indicated that they consider the courses have realised their stated objectives. The eight programme groups were also traced to establish how each programme group has

reacted in expressing their immediate reactions. Similar patterns emerged.

Establishing objective accomplishment to a given course was sought through ascertaining respondents' reactions to the perceived individual benefits which is perceived to be related to training. Favourable responses have indicated the positive mood as reflected by respondents. The highest conceived gain was in the areas of knowledge and new ideas, and better awareness and understanding as well as developing self confidence.

CHAPTER TEN

COURSE EVALUATION: TRAINER'S PERSPECTIVE

10.1.Introduction

Trainers personal variables were briefly described in Chapter Seven. This part of the analysis is intended primarily to further highlight the issues pertaining to training evaluation. The role of trainers and training organisers is by all means crucial. Hence seeking trainers perception of the training intervention and pinpoint their very reactions to the different interrelated dimensions can only complement and provide additional depth to the picture we have expedited thus far. As a prelude to the more course-specific aspects of evaluation, training courses' salient design features are explored along three major areas; strategy characteristics, physical characteristics and participants characteristics.

Trainers perception of their environmental constraints was also probed so as to draw attention to the very circumstances that detiermines the ultimate design where training takes place and under which trainers operate. To cap up, trainer's reaction to the specific areas of evaluation along the given course particulars was also expedited so as to relate how different parties perceived training and how that all matched in the evaluation context. Data for this purpose was collected through a semi-structured interview with trainers, consulting records and documents relevant to the courses assessed and personal observation through attending few courses on full time basis.

The chapter ends with a summary.

10.2 Characteristics of training strategy

The strategy referred to at this stage is the operationalisation of the training intervention. Three dimensions in the context of strategy formulation are considered, 1) Training courses primary objectives, 2) the training technique employed and 3) the trainer.

Trainers were requested to group all training sessions (each compiles of two hours) in their courses in terms of training technique employed, the primary objective of the sessions and who takes what number of sessions. For this purpose trainers were requested to categorise the sessions given in their courses in terms of the techniques employed, and subsequently session allocation, in the context of addressing knowledge, skills and behavioural as the main objectives of the given training.

10.2.a. Training Techniques

The division of sessions in relation to the training technique employed appears in table 10.1.

Table 10.1 Session allocation to different training techniques (%)

Programme Groups	Lecture	Group disc	Syndicate disc	Individual practical work	Group work	Panel Discu
Personnel	27 *	16	22.5	10	24.5	–
Finance	40	15	15	15	15	–
Local Govt.	23.5	21	10.5	14	14	17.5
O & M	24	21	30	14	19	–
Clerical	21	24	24	15.5	15.5	–
Hosp. Adm.	30.5	19	23	11.5	11.5	8
Aud.Mgt.	38	18	–	21.5	–	8
Soc.Workers	–	92	4	–	4	–

* The figures reported are average percentage for programmes within the group.

Looking at the figures shown in the table reveals, in general, a logical pattern whereby lecture method gains the upper hand as the most

widely used technique across all groups, more so in those courses where course members are known to be more junior and have held lower supervisory posts in the government hierarchy.

The highest percentage share of lecture is evident in Social Workers group where 92 percent of the sessions were reported to be lecture oriented. The Auditors' group ranked second in utilising the lecture method with some 38 percent of the sessions' share. The rest of the groups, as indicated by the trainers themselves have had the lecture method as the dominant technique employed.

In the case of O & M group, and due to the high degree of homogeniety amongst group members, the group has shown preference to syndicate discussion where a better control can be exercised in the learning process, given the relatively short time budget. More often than not, training programmes were found to be often built round the technique with which the trainer is mostly familiar without the trainer questioning as why is it that some methods are more effective than others in achieving training objectives. (Landy & Trumbo, 1980)

Few trainers have expressed strong feelings against the more modern learner centred teaching device where trainers assume the role of session convenors and facilitators. They emphatically advocate against heavy reliance on non conventional techniques on the grounds that the majority of their intake are extremely diverse insofar as their scholastic background and experiential background. Therefore, inorder to ensure that every trainee has had his/her share of the overall trainers' attention, the lecture method with the ensuing discussions is - for trainers - the most effective training style. By contrast, only through employing a

variety of techniques, each serves the very purpose of the learning objective sought, that individual differences can best be handled to the advantage of the trainee. There seems to emerge two distinct approaches espoused by trainers. One that endorses the traditional line probably influenced by an inbuilt bias and has to do with one's own school of thought, while the other, fostering more participative style that reflects the general belief that learning is an active process, accomplished most effectively when the individual participates in and takes responsibility for his/her learning. (Blackler & Shimmin, 1984:35)

Throughout the interviews conducted with different parties, trainers have clearly indicated their overall control in selecting training strategy.

10.2.b.Training Objectives

As a general statement, sound objectives must communicate to the learner what he/she is expected to be able to do when he finishes the programme (Goldstein,1974:45). However, the objectives considered at this stage are not the ultimate training objectives but rather the courses' sessions designated primary objectives.

The results of the assessment have shown that courses, thusfar, have had the transmission of knowledge and imparting information as their primary objectives. Table 10.2 however, does indicate interesting trends. While more than two-thirds of the sessions in the case of O & M group were dedicated to the transmission of knowledge and general information. Only Hospital Administration group has had more emphasis in the areas of skill acquisition where courses were characterised by intensive workshops and extended field visits aimed at increasing participants'awareness of and exposing them into real life, first hand situations in Health Administration.

Table 10.2 Training sessions allocated to address areas of knowledge, skill
acquisition and attitudes (%)

Programme Groups	Inform. & Knowledge	Skill	Attitude
Personnel	52,0 *	34.0	14.0
Finance	60.0	20.0	20.0
Local Govt.	46.0	28.0	26.0
O & M	60.0	25,0	15.0
Clerical	42.0	31.0	27.0
Hospital Adm.	29.0	48.0	23.0
Auditing Mgt.	47.0	19.0	34.0
Social Workers	27.0	11.0	62.0

* The figures reported are the average percentage of session allocations for the
courses forming each group.

Much emphasis was placed on attitude formation and behavioural
change in the case of Auditors group although the courses were extremely
short and hence, much weight, insofar as course objectives are concerned
was placed towards knowledge gains as well as acquisition of auditing
skills yet the sessions proportionate distribution have projected much
emphasis on the knowledge as well as the attitude changes.

The Social Workers group has shown , insofar as trainers'
assessment was concerned, an apparent emphasis on attitude formation where
organisors have chosen to place as much as 62 percent of session
allocations addressing this specific area. Yet the programme's content, in
retrospect, was intensly packed with diverse subject contents that
involved, much of the time, information and knowledge giving.

The dominance of the lecture method in all but one group clearly
denotes that the courses assessed in their overwhelming majority have had

the transmission of knowledge and information as their predominant primary goal, hence implicity based on a model that views training as a rational empirical strategy of inducing change. Joyce (1978) has come to similar results in the context of the Irish Civil Servants training style. The most participative training styles were clearly more popular in the case of O & M group, Hospital Administration and to a lesser extent in Personnel group. The latter group has significantly made use of group work that signifies a marked shift towards an extremely project oriented group centred participative training style.

10.3 Session Takers

Among areas where course organisers exercise control is the decision on who takes what sessions within the given course although session allocations and the number of external speakers and trainers depend not exclusively on the organisers judgement yet, still, this areas is one where trainers have more control and hence feel confident that the course is following the desired course dictated by objectives.

Looking into session allocations at group level as projected by trainers in table 10.3 would assert nearly full control by training organisers on courses insofar as the proportionate external expertise share would show. The term 'organisers' is meant to include the training units full time trainers.

In the case of non IPA based externally sponsored programmes, the courses are almost entirely run by the units' own staff with little or no room for guest speakers or seconded expertise. The share of the non resident trainer's increase substantially in the case of non IPA government training for Social Workers where heavy reliance is evident on

external expertise particularly that of IPA's which would evidently loosen organisers control on the courses eventual proceedings.

Table 10.3 Session takers on programme group level (%)

Programme Groups	Organisers	Trainers within	External trainers	Practitioners
1) Personnel	94.3	-	3.9	-
2) Finance	62.5	26.3	21.1	-
3) Local Govt.	35.2	45.6	29.9	4.5
4) O & M	12.7	86.8	9.5	
5) Clerical	25	75	-	-
6) Hospital Adm.	96.2	-	-	3.8
7) Auditors	100	-	-	-
8) Social Workers	27.3	18.2	15.2	39.4

For courses organised by IPA, trainers do encourage interdepartmental cooperation and discourage externally invited expertise. As one trainer puts it:

> 'They (external trainers) would come at their own convenience, more often than not late, ill prepared, usually less desciplined; they either lack flexibility or too flexible to be managed, and they get all administrative work done for them. They may well be highly qualified in their given field of expertise but rarely qualified to train properly insofar as pedagogical competence concerned. Added to that, certain financial implications in the form of allowences to be earmarked while drafting the annual budget.

Such interdepartmental cooperation, though encouraged, yet far from being ideal. Certain trainers maintain a given degree of reservedness. They feel that for their participation to prove effective they should be consulted in the designing process, briefed on the alternate course of

actions the training organisers have had to consider. Interestingly, whereas training organisers discourage external participation on the grounds of ill preparation and less convincing performances the units' trainers extremely encourage it because as one puts it:

> 'It would further the process of objective realisation and ensures a healthier discussion climate where real debate can be made possible. New blood always brings in new ideas and enables resident trainers to sit back. contemplate, reconsider issues and hence dwell upon other forms of activities besides training. In many cases trainers dry out of ideas and reach the stage of burnt out state where they feel they can offer no more'

The two arguments seem to be valid, irresconsilable where both parties cling to different premises in establishing their rationale.

10.4 Physical Characteristics of the course

The main course features considered in this respect are course size and duration. It appears that course duration is duly determined by several factors other than those suggested by the organisers. Client organisations normally influence, though indirectly, the course's length. Trainers also consider how long trainees are likely to be released from their own work. Participants' hierarchial location also has a say on the given courses length; the higher the participant's post the shorter the courses will be. Another factor is the resource allocations available on the training grounds; i.e. transport, space, other resources as well as trainers' other obligations.

On the other hand, none of the courses assessed were run for the first time; all courses were offered for the second and at times for the third time with little necessary modification. Hence, the courses were being tested and organisers have had their own assurances for the success their first show has produced. Courses also were independently designed units and were not part of a module.

Without underestimating the weight of any of the above factors one would confidently claim that trainers do have certain amount of control on the length of the course, and that the final time budget is a form of compromise arrived at upon the consideration of all other factors though not always with the trainers full consent. Course duration is an indication also of the extent to which training impinges upon participants life space (Joyce 1978). Leften (1970) reported by Joyce to have stressed that the length of the relationship between a client and a practitioner can affect the nature of the relationship.

The duration of programmes were briefly described in Chapter Seven. To summerise, the programmes assessed were found to be reasonably short. They varied from one week to four weeks in length. Shorter courses were the share of the higher hierarchical level of participants since their organisations cannot afford releasing them for longer intervals. The majority of courses have lasted between one to three weeks. Trainers and training organisers have expressed discomfort insofar as course length is concerned. They feel that the primary determinant of course duration is to be the set of objectives dictated by training needs assessment in client organisation. If client organisation cannot afford releasing their nominees for the stipulated period then the compromise should be made not by curtailing the time budget designed to address the given need, but by probably splitting the programme into several successive modules. Such provisions can only be negotiated with client organisation, and not through some sort of liason officer or other forms of intermediaries and/or through a network of inefficient bureaucratic procedures which is the current prevalent practice. Asked how long ideally a middle management course could last; trainers have shown little consensus. One quarter have

figured it out to be between 2 - 4 weeks and claimed that to be adequate. Less than 23 percent would stretch the duration so as to cover as much as two months. Less enthusiast for lengthy duration were the majority of more than 50 percent who postulated the adequate duration to range from five days to two weeks.

The size of the group in any training course has always been an issue of wide concern for all parties particularly for training organisers and training clients. Trainers stress that there should be certain size limits whereby too large a group can impede any viable learning experience, or, on the other hand too small a group would turn the training event into an economic miscalculation. Trainers have expressed dismay so did their clients. 'If things go according to plan,' one training organisor would report, 'we would receive the same number of candidates appearing in the departmental annual needs assessment list, but in practice things can go so awkwardly wrong once the training organiser announces the initiation of the course , in response, the number of nominees received exceeds immeasurably what the organiser. had in mind. Trainers, for this reason, exercise discretion in admitting the number they feel fit, hence denying entry to the rest of the applicants on the grounds of vacancies availability and by screening candidates' qualifications and other requirements against course prerequisits.

The client organisations would have wanted more of their nominees admitted into the programme and feel that training organisers are not doing the best they should and failed to meet the wider expectations to meet those demands. 'If they are doing their best,' one senior Government official would say without hiding an air of sarcasm ,'then, their best isn't good enough'. Training organisers complain that they have no such

readily available resources so as to meet the ever growing governmental needs straight away, and therefore training needs, so the claim goes, should be prioritised so as the most pressing need are met first.

The size of the group of participants in the twenty courses assessed tend to vary although marginally. The average figure for Personnel programme is that of 20 whereas it is 23 for Finance. The smallest size is that of Local Government course for deputy governors that reached 13 yet the average figure for the entire group stood close to 18.

In the case of O & M group, the average course size was that of 27. Trainers in th O & M training unit have made several critical comments while discussing their admission policy to their programmes. They feel that resource limitation is primarily the major barrier to enrol as many trainees as they would have wanted. 'We can understand the amount of subsequent frustration when a nominee's candidacy is turned down on purely logistic grounds', one trainer comments, 'a frustrated, rejected candidate will refrain from applying again, and that is extremely negative and can have a multiplier effect on other potential candidates; a sort of negative band wagon effect'. 'We do try our level best,' another trainer comments, 'In one incident, we had to arrange a makeshift training space in the main hall's corridor so as to accommodate for as many candidates as we can. But this is not the most ideal solution.'. To that problem a senior administrator in the local IPA reacted, 'there is no immediate answer, as IPA is stretching its resources to its very limits'.

The Clerical group had a group size of 25 while the average course size for Hospital Administration was 16, the Auditing Management had an average course size of 21. The striking exception was that of Social Workers's group whose participants size stood at 31.

Trainers feel, in relation to enrollement size, that they are caught between the administration's proclaimed policy of expanding admission rates per course on the one hand, and the possible negative influence, an extremely large group of trainees can have in the learning situation. The amount of effective interaction would then be extremely limited. Trainers can have so little time to accommodate individual differences. Group as well as individual projects can hardly be followed up in any effective manner. Mistakes go undetected.

'In short', one trainer would argue, 'quality is jeopardised and foresaken by quantity and the end product, in conclusion, would turn out to be not exactly what was inatially planned for'.

10.5 Participants characteristics

Gagne (1970) believes that differences in developmental readiness-of the learner - are primarily due to the number and kind of previously learned intellectual skills. Goldstein (1974:112) refers to the state of trainees' readiness as a manifestation of both maturational and experiential factors in the background of the learner. 'Particular emphasis' Goldstein confirms,'should be placed on the determination of the incoming trainees' characteristics'.

Each and every training course would stress in the course particulars the requisite demands by organisers in order to qualify for entry. Educational qualification, expertise, length of service and grading locus are the major criterion requisites pronounced. That is possible only in theory. Particularly so in the case of the Omani Civil Service where the issue of academic qualification during the early seventies and within the context of Civil Service administrative structure was not the major

focus upon considering candidates for job entry and in the subsequent promotional advancement all the way through the hierarchy. Therefore, the overriding factor in management and supervisory courses' admission policies would understandably be that of grade level, job title or nature of occupation. Here again the rationale would be that for course contents and objectives to be more relevant and meaningful for course participants, considering those elements of merit can only be helpful. Some of the courses do stress academic qualification to ensure group members homogeniety, i.e Medical Officers or O & M courses, while few other courses require no academic credentials whatsoever, viz, Office Management, Public Relation and some Personnel courses.

Participants characteristics were examined with sufficient scrutiny in Chapter Seven. The conclusions derived were that, insofar as job titles are concerned, as course level participants have projected slightly higher degree of similarity, yet, based on academic background the courses assessed were overwhelmingly, dissimilar. Two courses in specific have shown a greater degree of homogeniety in terms of academic qualification, the O & M management skills for new graduates, and Hospital Administrations, Medical Officers.

In relation to age, a relatively more homogenious group was evident in O & M groups and to a lesser extent in Personnel group. The general safe conclusion is that there has been also an age hetrogeniety across groups which is a phenomenon although widely criticised by trainers yet feel helpless about it. A veteran trainer in IPA stresses the fact that every Omani in the Civil Service is entitled to proper training irrespective of age or even qualification standpoint. 'Age has never been proven, in any scientific fashion, to be a handicap in any learning

situation. Yes, Omani Civil Servants are either too young or too old for certain jobs, yet this has nothing to do with individuals eagerness to learn and to train. They have suffered ages of deprivation, and its time we, trainers did them some justice'.

Trainers' perception of the participants position in relation to areas of similarities or otherwise in the context of personal characteristics was sought next.

Table 10.4 Trainers Rating for group homogeniety

Characteristics		Mean	Standard Deviation
1)	Ability level	2.22	0.94
2)	Seniority level	2.71	1.10
3)	Educational level	2.74	1.24
4)	Areas of specialisation	2.48	1.26
5)	Ages	2.71	0.89

On a scale of five points ranging from 1 standing for very dissimilar to 5 as very similar and 3 the middle average point. The means of trainers responses appear in Table 10.4. In all items investigated, the general pattern of responses is that of reserved judgement, hence closer to the middle average point. The largest dispersion reflected by the standard deviation shown are those concerning seniority, education level as well as area of specialisation. Trainers were then requested to react to a set of questions in the context of group homogeniety indicating their percepetion of the requisits of trainees. Answers to different questions have again taken the shape of a five point scale with 1 being strongly agree and 5 the other extreme with 3 being the middle point. The means of the answers to the questions as well as the standard deviation appear in table 10.5.

Table 10.5 Requisite Entry Qualifications for training participants (Means)

Participants should have:-	Mean	Standard Deviation
1) Similar level of ability	1.28	0.82
2) Engaged in similar work	1.40	0.81
3) Somewhat similar education	1.68	0.85
4) Homeginous age group	2.17	1.04

Trainers felt strongly about the necessity for a higher degree of coherence and consistency in relation to the four areas investigated although feeling less strongly about the requirement for age homegeniety.

10.6 Course Design

Havelock and Havelock (1973:51) speaking on the principles of good training designs have pointed out that, 'A training program is a system with goals, a division of labor (trainer-trainee), a temporal sequence and a definable set of training activities or experiences etc. The extent to which these systematic elements can be structured in an orderly and rational manner will have much to do with the eventual success.' The Authors, postulate the following aspects to be incorporated while structuring the design: planning; defining objectives; specifying learning that should meet objectives, and; specifying the sequence of training activities that should lead to the desired learnings.

For the purpose of our study, course design is meant to refer to the process of prior organisation of the course, of definition of objectives, specifying training curriculae and contents, the allocation of resources and making such decisions as to who would cover what part before producing the final design document.

Poor designs will only produce poor results, while well thought preplanned designs offer crucial vehicle conducive to the effective operationalisation of the training strategy itself. Trainers interviewed did express an air of discontent in this respect. The claim that is made is that too little time is devoted for the actual design of the training programme and that given the over crow.ded agenda of trainers as well as the inbuilt administrative burdens, the chances are that less efficient designs are produced or as a matter of course heavy reliance is to be made on the more handy already available designs, thus little consideration is duly made to the specifications of the intended programme. Little room, if any, is available to embark upon curriculum development within the context of programme design, hence less ingenuity is also expected and reference is then frequently made to whatever subject matter is readily available.

As one way out, trainers advocate initiating a research group within the jurisdiction of the local IPA, whose mebership could be widened to include specialists from the Civil Service at large, as well as curriculum development specialists, that would take the burden off the training units and thus could assist as a coordinating body that receives feedback and develops both adequate designs as well as necessary curriculae.

Crucial in the preliminary design stage, is the trainers' full knowledge of the actual needs of his/her given course. The present practice in needs assessment is widely criticised though still applied. Needs assessment is conducted rather mechanically under tight time budget pressurised by added administrative hurdles. Trainers receive, in conclusion figures of prospective trainees for suggested set of courses. Some trainers would have had certain role in needs assessment process,

others don't. Only 17 percent of the entire group of trainers were very satisfied of the amount of knowledge they have had about the participants needs. Another 62 percent were satisfied.

When asked whether trainers assumed an active role in the needs assessment process, a resounding majority emphatically confirmed such need yet more than 62 percent of the trainers felt that in practice they had no such role, and hence were kept in the dark insofar as needs assessment is concerned. One trainer indicated that much of the hustle and bustle in the training situation could have been resolved if they were there when it all started.

When asked whether they felt that there was a real need for the course they had on offer,the majority of 88.5 percent of trainers have expressed a high degree of certainty while more than 11.5 percent weren't quite sure. Yet only 11.4 percent thought that the present needs assessment really served the purpose against more than 31 percent who thought otherwise with still 57 percent maintaining mixed feelings about how the whole need assessment prcess was conducted on the departmental level.

The time needed for the design of the course was then investigated. The majority of more than 60 percent trainers have suggested that the period of 2 - 4 weeks as the time necessary to embark upon the design project was reasonably enough. More than 11 percent have considered more than a month. In reality, it appears that trainers received less time than would have wanted to have their programmes designed. 'It is not an assembly line' exclaims one trainer, 'nor we have training kits indexed somewhere somehow and pulled out for the one called for'.

Most of the programmes assessed are specially tailored and designed to meet the needs of a specific group of audience, therefore, research into the different elements of the group, their actual needs, what objectives are best served by what means what kind of curriculum best suits the purpose. All the queries need to be made with sufficient details prior to considering the design. On the other hand, when the design finally took shape and it would have accommodated external trainers, the resident trainers felt little enthusiasm to share the design effort with others. Trainers felt strongly about the issue of course design and expressed their unequivocal position as where the authority of programmes design lies. The rationale for their forceful argument is that if external trainers who would only take part in a small part of the programme are not in a position to pass a resourceful experienced judgement in relation to the different segments of the design process. When trainers requested to pass a judgement on the performance of external speakers, the majority of 66 percent have decided to refrain from giving straight answers to the effect that a conclusion could be made of veiled dissatisfaction as was clearly expressed in the interviews. Less than 20 percent have expressed their satisfaction with the performance of non resident trainers.

Dissatisfaction with the performance of non resident trainers is not all justified and can hardly be substantiated at certain instances. In practical terms no training institution no matter how resourceful it may turn to be can rule out external expertise nor it can afford to do so. Training designs should always consider integrating practitioners contribution if better blend of theory and practice is sought. The risk of theory bias can otherwise be highly possible.

10.7 Constraints on Trainers

Once the areas over which trainers have had certain level of control in the training context have been identified it would appear befitting to expedite the areas least susceptable to trainers control and hence pose certain limitations and constraints in organisers pursuit of training in the manner they would have wanted.

The constraints identified by trainers are manifold but can well be classified into external sources superimposed by the prevalent administrative environments hurdles and those internal sources of barriers.

10.7 a. External Constraints

External constraints are in turn twofold; first and foremost is the bureacratic complexities in the context of assessment of training needs in the government apparatus. Two much attention is placed on less important technicalities; who is supposed to do what, and thus the most important part of the task is forsaken and given less attention. Government units are less enthusiastic, hence less committed to training. It has been established that government units would rather conduct their own training for a myriad of reasons. To exercise control and maintain authority domain would naturally come first. It is only when department's training resources dry out that reliance on local institutions is made. All parties, trainers and trainees are included seem to share a consensus that for training to bear fruits and prove effective a more realistic and systematic approach needs to be deployed to assess training needs within the wider context of national human resources development. IPA officials as well as senior DPA personnel complain that little cooperation and commitment from government units at large is evident when it comes to

central training. They suggest associating a package of incentives with the training act so as to ensure better motivation and attitudional change towards training.

The second set of external constraints stem from the first. Training is seen to be primarily disruptive when more important things can be done; here again trainers contemplate that due to the absence of any substantial demonstrable impacts training has had on trainees job-related performance, has a lot to do with such an attitude. Trainers also blame legislations as well as departmental practices where present performance appraisal process is taken merely as a matter of formalities hence provides no bases for detecting performance trouble spots. At times, few departments either have no precise job description nor, if otherwise, it is used as effective as it should to tell what precisely a trainee is expected to achieve through training. 'We are not supposed to produce miracles', one trainer would say, '..therefore, we find trainees least motivated, as we commence the programme, and then we have to work it out and develop interest enthuse our audience and thus generate motivation'. Trainees would rather compete for training opportunities made available abroad where other forms of incentives seem extremely attractive.

10.7 b. Internal Constraints

Sources of internal constraints are primarily logistic and ha to do with resources. Training organisers complain that a) they don't have sufficient qualified trainers therefore others who have to do the job, do so under immense pressure which would bear extremely undesirable circumstances, b) too many administrative burdens are also attached to training units which they could do without. Needless to mention, trainers also find themselves pursuing other activities, consultation research as

well as publications. Given the scarcity of resources, particularly resident trainers, trainers found themselves heavily relying either on inter department coordination within the training establishment or resorting to external practitioners. In the first case, there is less coordination than trainers would have wanted. Training units assume territories and maintains boundaries therefore, over emphasised compartmentalisation is not only unhealthy but also almost always dysfunctional.

Trainers also assume a wider role in the needs assessment process, more role in drafting training policy, and a more precise role in the post training evaluation in coordination with the client organisation, a view which is not extremely popular neither with parent organisations nor with Ministry of Civil Service who maintains that to be some form of impingement over the organisations privacy and an infringement upon the Ministry's own areas of authority.

Another source of internal constraints are the duplicacy at times detected in the form of different units drafting their own curriculum in an area which is served most effectively by other units. They call for a central curriculum development unit where policies and particulars of curriculum can be rightly discussed.

One line of emphasis in the internal constraints is that of incentives and employment conditions imposed on trainers by the Central Civil Service Law. Pay, leave, fringe benefits, working hours and many other provisions for trainers should be addressed differently and more appropriately although within the civil service context. Provision should be made to the requirements of training profession. Trainers, especially

indigenous, find it less attractive to seek employment in the training

profession because of that. There has been so many cases where such a claim

can well be substantiated; a high degree of turn over for example over the

years in the local IPA.

10.6 Evaluation of the course

Features mostly shared	Mean	Standard Deviation
1) Participants' lack of adequate academic qualification	3.02	0.92
2) Participants's lack of adequate experience	3.54	1.03
3) Lack of basic theoretical background	2.71	1.07
4) Lack of interest and enthusiasm	4.62	0.54
5) Participant are under stress inhibitive situations	4.17	0.51
6) What we teach is either theory orientated or alien to the local culture	4.60	0.65

Looking into the means projected in table 10.6 would show that the

mostly shared feature was that of lack of basic theoretical background

which enables trainers to assume knowledge of the given aspect before

he/she can pursue the point any further. In fact, the first three aspects

are the more frequently noticed which indicate the wide heterogeneity of

course members who do not share common education or experience and

professional background.

Trainers have emphatically denied trainees' lack of interest or

enthusiasm or being under some form of organisational stress or the

quality of courses offered.

Evaluation of the different aspects of the course was next directed

towards more specific course aspects. First, trainers were requested to

comment on whether or not course duration was perceived to be insufficient

to cover course contents. Nearly 66 percent of them confirmed that duration was adequate against nearly 32 percent who thought otherwise. It is worthwhile referring to trainees perception of the duration, which they thought to be too short.

An overwhelming majority of 91 percent of trainers have strongly asserted that there has been a theory-practice balance in the course, another point confirmed by the trainees. On the point of course relevance and logical sequence, yet again the same resounding majority have stressed that to be the case against nearly 6 percent who thought otherwise.

When the point of language clarity and adequacy was raised, a higher majority of nearly 95 percent maintained that to be the case. The question of theory and practice balance was rephrased when trainers were requested to react as to whether theory had the upper hand in the course in response less trainers were fully resolved to reply in the positive. Nearly 26 percent did confirm that theory did have the upper hand while little more than 71 percent decided to stick to their earlier response.

Trainers have also confirmed in a convincing majority of 77 percent that audio visual aids were being used effectively. In an answer to the question whether trainers considered applying change once a trainee is back to his job nearly 70 percent of them have dismissed such likelihood against only 20 percent positive answers while nearly 12 percent have chosen to refrain from answering.

In conclusion when finally the issue of course objective was addressed, trainers have confirmed in an overwhelming majority of 97 percent that course objectives were realistic and clear and to the

question of objective realisation 94 percent of the trainers have declared
that a positive success.

Summary

The salient strategy characteristics of the courses were expedited
along several measures so as to establish the areas over which trainers
exercise control. Trainers were found to have sufficient control on most
areas assessed though with varied degrees.

The majority of courses assessed were found to have an overwhelming
emphasis on areas of knowledge and information transmission as their most
prominant objective, and hence correspondingly it was found that for the
purpose, the lecture method was the most widely used training style. Hence
most of the countries were primarily based on the training model that
visaged the learning situation as a rational-empirical strategy to induce
change. The majority of courses assessed were reasonably short with a
rather fully packed agenda expressed in the contents. It appears that over
course duration and course size, trainers exercise less control where a
formulae of compromise is reached between policy making bodies in the
training institution as well as the wishes of client organisation.

In relation to participants characteristics, the indications are that
trainers remain helpless in determining the state of personal
qualification requisite due to the special circumstances of the country's
civil service   Course members were broadly characterised with
heterogeniety on all grounds, educational expertise as well as age groups.

In the circumstances, trainers have had considerable control over
the many facets of design features. Trainers constraints seem to be not
only inhibitive but may develop to add further burdens on trainers whose

state of exhaustion seem to be eminent in the light of wide responsibilities undertaken by the latters. Thus, the likelihood is that training would have to suffer. The absence of legally instituted incentives, adds to the gloominess of the scene.

External constraints have had their toll on the trainers too. Here, trainers have no control at all and feel that much of their training efforts would end in vain if clear policies are not rapidly endorsed where training needs can better be assessed through novel means that currently seem unpopular.

To sum, trainers though operating in an extremely difficult conditions insofar as training policy and strategy formulation are concerned, yet they are showing considerable satisfaction with regard to the design, the operationalisation of the training strategy and finally the ultimate realisation of training objectives, of which trainers seem extremely confident insofar as the immediate reaction to the training assessed at the conclusion of the course.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

EVALUATION OF TRAINING RESULTS:

ANALYSIS OF TRAINING GAINS IN JOB SETTING

11.1. Introduction

Assessment of behavioural, job related changes perceived by the respondents to be resultant of training is the object of this part of analysis. Assessment of changes once trainees are back on their job can provide some extremely useful information as an external criteria of training evaluation necessary to measure areas with some degree of certainty, the improvements at which training was primarily designed to address. Hence, training shortcomings can be detected, sorted out and reflected on the programme if it is to be offered again, or alternately, to be made redundant. While on the other hand, assessment of results provides management with some tangible evidence of the worthiness of their investments into training. Evaluation of training-related changes in actual job setting remains the most presssing challenge facing training activists. Result evaluation for the purpose of this research, is conducted by means of pre-training post-training self rating questionnaire addressing possible changes along three major areas training is meant to address; behavioural, skill acquisition and knowledge and information gains. The chapter concludes with a summary.

11.2. Evaluation of results: some basic issues.

To measure areas of performance improvements, a set of sixteen statements were designed on a 'before' and 'after' basis for the respondents to react to only after the training has come to conclusion.

Therefore, caution is necessary in interpreting results. Another area that calls for caution, is the subjective nature of the entire exercise since respondents are indicating their perceptual judgments of training related changes, let alone whether or not such improvements can solely be attributed to training and not other organisational variables.

To guard against potentially misleading conclusions and thus minimise possible contamination on the latter premise, trainees were approached in a relatively short period of time after programme conclusion, between two-weeks to little more than six months, whereby a certain level of stability in the organisational life was assumed, hence responses tracing performance standards prior to the training interventions could still be envisaged within a reasonable degree of certainty.

Mark Twain's sarcastic classical comment about the weather has inspired McGehee and Thayer (1961) who extended the analogy into the realm of training evaluation. Everyone talks about it but no one does anything. Lerda and Cross (1962:210) have pointed out that results measurement attributed to training would be relatively simple if based on the following premise :

a) employees awareness and understanding of their job and what it requires.

b) what levels of performance the trainee is expected to reach.

c) frequent performance appraisal is then to be based against those performance standards.

Lerda and Cross (1962) have extended the concept of result measurment beyond the search for a device or technique to evaluate training into the concept itself to be built in the training programme itself so as to know beforehand what training is intended to achieve and what

specific problems it is designed to solve; how can performance problems be sorted out, and what levels of performance are targetted. Needless to say, training ought to be evaluated realistically in terms of performance improvement. Results measurement is reported by Lerda and Cross to be concerned with two broad areas; whether training programmes have in effect managed to improve the knowledge skill or attitude they so desired, and whether such improvements are actually applied to the job and whether or not training has had any positive performance implications.

It is for this purpose this part of analyses is designed so as to follow up performance and other behavioural changes that are related to the training programme as perceived by the trainees themselves now that they are back to work. Respondents were requested to rate their performance in the areas of knowledge/information skills as well as attitudes as perceived then before the training intervention.

Fast (1974:47) postulates that most evaluation procedures suffer from what she calls 'evaluation paradox' where trainers are trying to measure the success of a programme while at the same time claiming that much of what the programme plans to accomplish cannot be measured. Quantifying both the intangible attitude and the tangible skill is at the heart of the evaluation problem.

The classification system described by Martin (1957) and reported by Schein (1971:109) suggests a sequence for training evaluation. To fully understand the programmes processes and its effects, it would seem necessary to evaluate first the programmes effect on internal criteria by essentially asking the question what specific changes in the

participant does the programme produce? In the second later step, one would use internal criteria to answer the question, "are the changes or programme resultant related to improved job behaviour"? Only by first discovering the effect of the programme on the participant can one fully understand how the programme affects organisational behaviour.

Martin (1957:88-93) distinguishes between internal and external measures of training effects. Internal criteria are measures linked directly to the content and process of the training programme, but have no direct connection to actual job behaviour, while external criteria are those linked directly to job behaviour. Similarly Kirkpatrick, (1959) as was mentioned earlier on, makes a distinction amongst four types of training outcomes; reaction, learning, behaviour and results.

Using Martin's terminology, 'reaction' and 'learning' can be viewed as internal criteria whereas 'behaviour' and 'results' would provide external criteria inorder to determine what specific changes to the participant were produced by the programme. According to Schein (1967:601-628) "..learning is a process of acquiring 1) certain body of knowledge, 2) skills in implementing this knowledge and 3) the attitudes and values that define how and when and for what ends the knowledge are to be used.'(p. 602).

Management needs more sophisticated tools to measure trainees output and quality of work once they are back to work. It is fairly straightforward to measure performance improvement in the case of clerical and other manual psychomotor and technical skills, but as training for management and supervisors tend to be more on the conceptual side where managerial ability, group dynamics and many more subtle skills are involved, hence evaluation is not so straightforward

and can only be a continuous long range systematic process whose results will still remain inconclusive.

Experience shows that participants' immediate reaction upon training conclusion is one of joy, enthusiasm, and appreciation; an indication that training has met its immediate objective, but this offers no proof that learning is being translated in the form of improved performance. To be meaningful, measurement has to be devised against realistic objectives for the training activity expressed in terms of specific performance improvements expected on the job. An important consideration to be made while measuring results is to get to information that will be useful to both management and training organisers so as to determine how effective training has been in its both specific and overall contribution on the job and what modifications are needed for future recurrence if the programme is to be offered again.

Results measurement is by no means mechanistic nor can it be conducted singlehandedly, nor for that matter there exists a one right way to do it, yet it is far more helpful for the following factors to be considered while conducting the process: a) what is the condition that exists that made training imperative, and b) what hopes management hinge upon training to accomplish, and c) what yardsticks necessary to indicate whether or not results are achieved and finally d) what part the trainees immediate superior will play in the process of measuring results. One limitation pronounced by Lerda and Cross, is the subjectivity of the whole exercise and the influence of the programme euphoria that is so prevalent on course participants.

As opposed to skills and information training, success in attitude training is often more difficult to demonstrate Blumenfeld (1975:240) asserts that attitude changes are not end goals themselves, yet they are strong indicators whereby the longitudinal goals of the programme can be enhanced and facilitated. The importance of attitude modification is further emphasised as one progresses along the organisational hierarchy. Attitudes begin to take more precedence and tend to be more subtle and thus difficult to differentiate from skills and information in the newly reached management levels. Hence such forms of behavioural changes are not only too subtle to assess in any degree of certainty, but also extremely difficult to measure over a short period of time past the actual training intervention. Katz (1956:10) ponders on the question of whether an individual is intending to change his/her job behaviour and asserts the need to consider the following requisites; a recognition of ones areas of performance weaknesses, provided there is a supportive permissive climate rendering a helping hand and hence given the opportunity for the individual to try out the newly acquired ideas.

As mentioned earlier, as trainees location in the organisational hierarchy progresses the borderline between attitude formation and skill acquisition as well as other behavioural changes tend to blur and merge; but for the sake of practicality those areas were grouped together with obvious overlap of what is skill or purely attitudinal. The general consensus is that they are all behavioural, be they conceptual, technical, attitudinal or simply a general improvement in trainees' general standing in knowledge and information.

I. Behaviour and attitudinal changes

   To ascertain training related changes in the areas of attitudes, six

general statements were given in order for the trainees to react to.

The attitudinal statements have encompassed the following areas:

a. Forthcomingness, objectivity and ability to work in a team.

b. Problem solving competence.

c. Adaptibility to changes , particularly technical.

d.Ability to create a working environment through motivating

   subordinates.

e.Creativity and initiativeness and general willingness to introduce

   change.

f.Ability to organsise one's work by proper delegation of authority and

   job assignment to others.

g.Flexibility in dealing with rules and regulation in the

   lightofoverallorganisational objectives.

II. Skill acquisition.

   In the areas of skill acquisition, respondents were requested to

react to the following statements:

1.Competence in setting one's own priorities in relation to work.

2.Diagnostic skills.

3.General competence in meeting deadlines and fulfilment of commitments

4.Coordination ability both horizontally and vertically.

5.Ability and competence in presenting a convincing case to management

   be it requesting budgetary increase or demanding a new recruit.

6.Ability to assess training needs of one's own subordinates and

   design plans to meet them.

III. Knowledge and Information.

   While imparting knowledge and information are at the centre of any

learning situation, yet it is, in practice difficult to fully separate

as an identifiable area of learning clearly distinguished from the

process of skill acquisition and that of attitude formation. In

practice also measurement of achievements in the areas of knowledge and information gains are best employed through written different forms of end of course tests where a relatively reliable judgement can be employed based on the results. But since respondents were, in entirety successful completers of a training course, therefore, the assumption that they have done well in their post training written assessment exams, and hence only three extremely general questions were designed to tap respondents perception of their level of satisfaction with information and knowledge gains attributed to their training. The three questions were as follows:

1. Assimilation of one's organisatinal objective.
2. Level of knowledge, skills and information in general.
3. Level of assimilation of O & M techniques necessary to improve performance.

Reactions to the sixteen statements were grouped to form general indicators of respondents gains in areas of skill acquisition, attitude formation and general improvements in their knowledge and information that is to be tied to the training programme were tapped as mentioned earlier on a five point scale with 'below average' and 'excellent' forming the two extremes with 'average', 'good' and 'very good' in between. The rating device employed for the purpose seemed to provide respondents with an opportunity to ponder upon the issues raised by the questions and contemplate a personal check list using one's own discretion in a non-formal, as objectively as possible,non-threatening manner. The value-judgement and the subjectivity of the answers does not pose a threat to the validity of the answers nor to the value of the technique used. Respondents were assured of anonymity and hence were urged to exercise utmost objectivity and accuracy while considering answers.

To establish statistical significance, t-test was employed to determine whether or not the different groups of participants have evaluated the given three dimensions comparibly. Such comparibility was ascertained statistically by examining the differences of means of the respondents before and after training responses.

11.3. Percieved behavioural and Atttitudinal Changes.

The mean responses of 'before' and 'after' reactions for the entire sample are shown in Table (11.1) expressing behavioural and attitudal changes. Scrutiny into the means displayed in the table shows a general air of satisfaction illustrated by respondents rating of their stance along the seven areas of competence prior to their admission into the training course. In fact, respondents perception of their performance is way past the middle 'good' point where the mean scores recorded were higher than 3 except for the groups' score on the point of adaptability to technological changes which was slightly less than 3. Across the sample, a very small minority has fallen in the 'below average' point of the scale ranging from 0.4 per cent at the lowest in the level of flexibility in dealing with rules and regulations while the highest, 0.88 or 3.0 per cent have shown in areas of creativity and initiativeness. The highest proportion has naturally fallen between 'good' and 'very good' points on the scale across the sample.

Looking at the post training score, the table depicts a general shift towards the more favourable position on the scale when 'below average' side has nearly withered away into yet a smaller friction of 4 per cent on items 4, 5 and 6. Correspondingly there has been a massive positive sweep from the 'average' side of the scale into the more favourable points.

Table 11.1 Attitudinal and behavioural gains perceived in pre-training and post-training rating (%)

Behavioural gains	Before							After								
	1	2	3	4	5	N R	Mean	1	2	3	4	5	N.R	Mean	t-val.	Significance
1) Forthcomingness, objectivity and ability to work as team member	1.3	12.4	39.5	29.6	17.2	-	3.48	-	0.9	15.5	46.4	34.8	2.6	4.07	9.14	0.00
2) Problem solving competence and ability to work autonomously	0.9	12.9	35.2	32.6	18.0	0.4	3.52	-	2.1	18.0	46.4	30.5	3.0	3.96	6.72	0.00
3) Adaptibility to technological changes	2.1	27.0	41.6	20.6	5.2	0.4	2.98	-	5.2	39.1	41.2	11.2	3.4	3.48	8.14	0.00
4) Ability to motivate fellow employees and sub.	1.7	16.7	38.2	30.5	9.9	3.0	3.21	0.4	3.0	26.2	44.2	21.0	5.2	3.67	7.20	0.00
5) Ability to organise, assign work and delegate authority	1.3	11.2	42.5	31.8	10.7	2.6	3.31	0.4	2.1	20.6	48.5	23.2	5.2	3.65	6.47	0.00
6) Creativity and ability to take initiatives	3.0	29.3	37.3	26.6	7.7	-	3.10	0.4	4.3	28.3	46.4	17.2	3.4	3.76	8.40	0.00
7) Flexibility in dealing with organisational rules and regulations	0.4	11.6	37.3	36.1	13.7	0.9	3.48	-	1.3	20.6	43.8	30.5	3.9	3.91	6.31	0.00

Significant at $\leq$ 0.05
1 = Below Average, 2 = Average, 3 = Good, 4 = Very Good, 5 = Excellent, N.R = Non Response, M = Mean.

The means reported have manifestly shown an overall favourable shift, where 'objectivity, forthcomingness and ability to work as a team member' sweeping towards extremely favourable rating, so is the case with the rest of the measured dimensions. The standard deviations have shown higher dispersion of responses reported after the training programme, as opposed to a slightly lower level of dispersion in respondents rating of their performance prior to the training programme.

The general trend depicted by frequency distribution shown in table 11.1 is extremely favourable with a massive sweep from 'below average' and 'average' points of the scale before the training towards the more favourable points after the training.

To examine the magnitude of differences between respondents' mean responses before and after training, t-test was utilised basically as a device for comparing the sample paired means on each item. The rationale is to test the significance of differences between the means. Differences between the two means on each item were calculated and the t-values are shown with the two-tailed probability for the comparison of two areas showing statistical significance on all items' means tested.

To trace how programme groups have reacted in response to the same dimensions tested, group means were presented next. A closer look at the means shown in Table 11.2 would depict a marked shift illustrated by the means on all items across programme groups.

Table 11.2 Trainees' Percieved Attitudinal and Behavioural Gains in Pre-Course and Post-Course Rating. (Group Means)

Programmes groups / Behavioural gains	Personnel (n = 40)		Finance (n=18)		Local Govt. (n=26)		O&M (n=57)		Clerical (n=15)		Hospital Adm. (n=36)		Auditors (n=20)		Social Workers. (n=21)	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1. Forthcomingness, objectivity and ability to work as a team member	3.47	4.12	3.61	3.88	3.69	4.38	3.59	4.26	3.33	3.93	3.19	3.80	3.50	3.75	3.47	4.09
	t=-5.34		t= -2.05		t= -4.48		t= -5.64		t= -1.96 n.s		t=-0.79 n.s		t=-1.94 n.s		t= 0.15 n.s	
2. Problem solving competence and ability to work autonomously	3.57	4.07	3.61	4.11	3.96	4.90	3.50	4.05	3.73	4.20	3.19	3.75	3.35	3.40	3.47	3.42
	t= -4.65		t=-2.03		t= -3.89		t= -4.18		t= -2.43		t= -3.95		t= -0.16 n.s		t= 0.15 n.s	
3. Adaptibility to technological changes	2.92	3.47	3.33	3.88	3.07	3.36	3.10	3.54	2.86	3.33	2.75	3.33	3.15	3.40	2.66	3.04
	t= -6.30		t= -3.01		t= -6.43		t= -3.05		t= - 3.50		t= - 3.42		t= - 0.82 n.s		t= -1.32 n.s	
4. Ability to motivate fellow employees and sub.	3.25	3.77	3.55	3.77	3.30	3.88	3.31	3.89	3.40	4.06	3.13	3.72	3.10	3.25	2.52	2.52
	t= -5.19		t= -2.20		t= -5.09		t= -5.46		t= -3.57		t= -3.73		t= -0.39 n.s		t= 0.00 n.s	
5. Ability to organise, assign-work to others and dele-gate authority	3.32	3.80	3.72	3.94	3.65	4.15	3.43	3.89	3.13	4.06	3.19	3.83	3.25	3.25	2.85	3.61
	t= -4.43		t= - 1.29 n.s		t= -4.37		t= -3.08		t= - 2.61		t= 4.12		t= 0.00 n.s		t= 0.75 n.s	
6. Creativity and ability to take initiatives	3.07	3.70	3.00	3.50	3.46	4.11	3.05	3.61	3.20	3.86	2.94	3.50	3.20	3.40	3.09	3.57
	t= -5.34		t= -3.43		t= -5.94		t= -4.24		t= -3.16		t=-3.16 n.s		t= -0.66 n.s		t=-1.39 n.s	
7. Flexibility in dealing with rules and regulations	3.55	4.02	4.00	4.22	3.80	4.30	3.52	4.01	3.73	4.76	3.11	3.61	3.35	3.50	2.80	3.23
	t=-4.00		t= -1.46 n.s		t= -3.93		t= -2.89		t= -4.78		t= -3.86		t= -0.16 n.s		t=-1.25 n.s	

Significant at ≤ 0.05 level
n.s: Not Significant

In each of the eight groups, two columns are put up to show - in closer proximity - the means of the given group responses on both 'before' and 'after' levels, so as to enable the reader to draw a direct comparison. Although respondents rating of their performance standing prior to their training involvement has shown a clear favourable rating across the eight groups, nevertheless, the ratings have even leaned further towards higher perceived levels.

For item No. 1, Personnel, Local Government, O & M, and the Social Workers have shown higher scores as the means indicated the most favourable perceived improvement in respondents' perception of their gains. The shift is clearly vivid and striking. Ability to work as a team member as well as other more subtle behavioural aptitudes of forthcomingness and objectivity seemed to be a key area of attitude changes addressed in those programmes.

In the area of 'problem solving competence and ability to work autonomously', respondents have indicated substantial gains expressed by favourable evaluation across programme groups with yet higher ratings for Personnel, Finance, Local Government, O & M and Clerical group.

It seems to be a fair interpretation that participants in all the above higher-rated groups were in need for problem solving skills in the course of their work as well as ability to work on their own, without the frequent interferences of their superiors. Strangely enough, the most junior in terms of their organisational status - i.e the Clerical group - has also indicated marked improvements in the areas addressed, although their immediate needs determined by their locus in the hierarchy does, in effect, call for a closer control and

shorter supervision time span. None-the-less, the other three groups, not only stand in need to the areas addressed but also have clearly made marked gains.

In relation to item 3, again the general trend is that of an overall improvement across the groups, although pre-course rating seemed to be slightly lower than the rest for Personnel, Clerical, Hospital Administration and Social Workers, albeit still in favourable terms.

While rating performance on item 4 was generally in line with the general trend, i.e. that of progress; the ability to motivate fellow employees and subordinates seemed to remain static in both pre and post training stages of the Social Workers who have expressed at certain points of direct discussion a sense of frustration as to the actual value of training once they are back at work. Strangely enough, the same group has shown a general retreat in the areas of organisation and assigning work to others as well as authority delegation where their mean score retreated from 3.61 to 2.85 which is rather curious and indicates that training may, at times, transmit the wrong message and can backfire if issues and needs are not addressed appropriately. In the case of the Social Workers, the programme, which was co-ordinated co-trained by several external trainers appeared to be fully packed with wide range of subject contents. Time seemed to be a crucial factor in limiting the prospects of training topics to have sufficient time budget to be appropriately addressed.

It is rather interesting to notice a massive substantial progress reported by all programme groups in the domain of creativity and initiative taking which is a good sign in government bureaucracy

normally accused with mediocrity and general ineffectiveness. Finally, in the area of flexibility, with regard to rules and regulations, the means indicate a swift progress in all groups, notably in Finance group whose dealing with rules and regulations is extremely vital, so is the Personnel group. The highest of the mean score was that of the Clerical most junior group, while Local Government group who were mainly municipal officers, and deputy walis (i.e.assistant district governors) have also shown an extremely high post-training mean score of 4.30, which is an extremely encouraging indication showing that the training message has had listening ears as well as supportive organisational climate.

In the final stage, the means of pre-training and post-training group responses' were t-tested to establish the magnitude of mean differences. The t-values were found to be significantly high in Personnel, Local Government, O & M and Hospital Adminstration groups, and to a lesser extent in the case of Clerical group. The Auditors' group as well as the Social Workers have shown less significant variation in their assessment of the pre-training post-training performance appraisal thus relatively little progress was detected in the areas of behavioural changes.

11.4. Skill Acquisition

Admittedly, it is practically difficult to draw clear-cut border lines between skill acquisition and behavioural changes in any degree of certainty, particularly in the case of middle ranking managers, since those areas tend to blur and merge hence hard to differentiate. With this understanding, efforts were made to bring together as many clear dimensions of skill acquisition together to form a general

parameter rather than an exclusive exhaustive list. Respondents were tapped along six dimensions in the domain of skill acquisition. Such skills in entirety are meant to be addressed in the managerial context rather than purely technical.

The areas explored have covered trainees' own competence in setting operational priorities and diagnostic ability, together with general competence and ability in fulfilling commitments and meeting deadlines; the ability to effectively coordinate both horizontally and vertically; and competence in presenting a convincing case for management and finally the diagnostic competence is addressed specifically in the context of ability to assess organisational training needs and design plans to meet those needs.

None of the skills addressed above were particularly programme-specific and the intensity of each or any of these skills does understandably vary in terms of focus or session appropriation in the programmes assessed. Responses on the sample level are shown in Table 11.3 projected through the means on 'before' and 'after' levels. Again respondents were rating their performance standards as perceived before and after the given programme, on a five point scale ranging from 'below average' to 'excellent', with 'good' being the middle point.

Looking at the pattern of responses shown in the table, clearly depicts a general consensus of overall improvement across sample members on all the six dimensions of skill acquisition tapped.

Table 11.3 Sample Responses on areas of skill acquisition (%)

Skills gained	Before %								After %									
	1	2	3	4	5	N.R	Total	Mean	1	2	3	4	5	N.R	Total	Mean	t-val.	Significance
1. Setting operational priorities	3.9	25.9	48.1	20.2	2.6	-	100	2.92	0.4	3.4	33.5	47.2	12.4	3.0	100	3.58	-11.22	0.00
2. Diagnostic skills	2.1	27.9	42.9	21.9	5.2	-	100	3.00	-	3.4	33.5	45.5	15.0	2.6	100	3.64	-11.05	0.00
3. Meeting deadlines and fulfilment of work commitments	-	11.2	29.2	33.5	26.2	-	100	3.74	-	1.7	15.9	43.3	36.9	2.1	100	4.09	-6.19	0.00
4. Effective coordination	1.7	16.3	39.9	29.6	12.0	0.4	100	3.32	-	1.7	27.0	43.8	24.5	3.0	100	3.82	-8.45	0.00
5. Ability and persuaviveness in presenting a case to management	3.9	25.8	43.8	19.7	5.2	1.7	100	2.41	1.7	6.0	33.0	41.2	14.6	3.8	100	3.50	-9.78	0.00
6. Ability to assess sub-ordinates training need and design a plan to meet them	0.9	21.5	47.2	23.6	5.2	1.7	100	3.05	-	3.4	30.5	49.4	13.7	3.0	100	3.64	-10.07	0.00

Significant at ≤ 0.05

1 = Average, 2 = Average, 3 = Good, 4 = Very Good, 5 = Excellent, N.R = Non response.

The table demonstrates some interesting trends. In the case of setting operational priorities, respondents, upon rating their pre-training standards of performance, were widely dispersed. Nearly 30 per cent of the sample thought of their standards to be falling in the region of 'below average' status whereas little less than 50 per cent considered it to be 'good'. Little more than 22 per cent of the sample have contemplated a 'very good' as well as 'excellent' status. The sample has shown a massive sweep in the post-training ratings while only a small minority of less than 4 per cent has clung to the 'average' rating. The massive sweep was towards the 'very good' side of the scale thus homing more than 47 per cent with little more than one third on the 'good' side. The average means of 2.92 and 3.58 in 'before' and 'after' scores indicates a substantial positive shift attributed to the training intervention.

Similar massive sweep is explicit in the areas of diagnostic competence with the mean of 3.00 climbing into 3.64 from pre-training to post-training rating, signifying substantial perceived gains attributed to the given training.

Upon rating standards of performance in meeting deadlines, respondents have distanced themselves from the 'average' point with little more than 11 per cent that withered away into less than 2 per cent in the post-training rating. A sizeable figure of more than 25 per cent have rated their performance to be 'excellent' before the training, reflecting a general resentment of any implication of not being able to meet deadlines or failing to honour work commitments. The highest means reported 'before' the training as well as 'after' was on this item shifting from 3.74 before the programme into 4.09.

In rating coordination skills, responses have nearly followed the same pattern as in the previous item with nearly 18 per cent of the respondents indicating an 'average' and 'below average' standards prior to training progressed into more favourable points in post-training rating; with the means 3.32 and 3.82 in before and after stage consecutively reflecting the significant shift.

Judging trainees' persuasive potentials in forwarding a request for a budget increase or a new recruit to the management and how one's performance in this area can be enhanced by means of training, though extremely difficult to assess but worthwhile trying. With nearly 4 per cent of the sample rating 'below average', another one quarter has indicated an 'average' standard and a 63.5 per cent choosing the 'good' and 'very good' levels of performance prior to the training. In the post training era, 'below average' and 'average' rates were within the region of 8 per cent, whereas the rest have massively leaned towards the 'good', 38 per cent, 'very good', 41.2 per cent and nearly 15 per cent citing 'excellent' performance. The lowest mean reported in the six dimensions given was the share of this particular one, scoring some 2.91 shifting to 3.50, still lower yet favourable.

In assessing their ability to diagnose their organisational training needs and their ability to devise necessary plans to meet those needs, respondents reactions were spread widely on the scale. Before attending the training programme, nearly 1 per cent has thought of their competence to fall below average while more than 21 per cent still considered it to be at an 'average' level, while nearly 71 per cent have chosen the 'good' and 'very good' levels, with little more than 5 per cent excellently rating their performance. Respondents rating have

again swept emphatically favourably, with only 3.4 per cent still residing in the average side, the rest have centred around 'good', 30.5 per cent 'very good', 49.4 per cent 'excellent', 13.7 per cent. The means reported from 3.05 'before' to 3.64 'after' is an effective summary of the figures.

Examining the t-values between the means on both sides of the table on pre-training and post-training basis have shown substantially high figures, with the two-tail probability test reported to be highly significant; a call for further examination of sample responses on programme group level in an effort to trace where the groups meet and/or vary in their responses to questions related to skill acquisition.

Assessing the pattern of group responses in areas of skill acquisition is demonstrated in table 11.4. Scrutiny of the table horizontally and across programme groups would evidently illustrate a massive positive stride in respondents perception of their standards of performance in post-training era, as opposed to the pre-training stage. On item one, there has been a rather lower departure point for Personnel, Hospital Administration as well as Social Workers group of programmes if compared to others, the highest mean in post training rating rested with Local Government groups trailed by O & M, Finance and the Social Workers, followed by Personnel group. The highest proportionate gain seemed to be that of Personnel group moving from 2.75 to 3.60.

In the diagnostic domain, the lower departure point was cited in four programme groups. The lowest reported mean was that of the

Clerical group followed by the Social Workers, then Personnel, trailed by Hospital Administration. The highest post-training mean score was again the Local Government group. The highest proportionate gain was that of Social Workers expressed by the mean score 2.61 shifting to 3.52, some 0.91 points ahead.

In the area of meeting deadlines, a general favourite assessment of respondents standard of performance prior to the training is reflected by the higher means reported in the pre-training stage. The highest departure point was that of the Clerical group, so was the group's post-training score, 4.00 - 4.46.

The Auditing group has indicated the first case of stalemate with no movement at all in their pre-training and post training stage with their means remaining constant, i.e 3.70. The Auditing courses in entirety were not addressing individual commitment and punctuality in meeting deadlines, which are considered a matter of course in the auditor's work, therefore cannot be established as training-related area of improvement.

With regard to effective co-ordination, the trend across programme groups is strongly positive. The Clerical group has scored the highest post-training score, with the Local Government group scoring second highest, whereas the Auditors group clung again to the same score in both pre and post-training assessment. The highest relative gain was that of Local Governments, scoring 3.26 and 4.07 with an 0.80 differential in post training assessment, an indication of how much co-ordination skills are addressed and needed in the local authorities set up, having to deal not only with their own interdepartmental contacts as well as trans-departmental together with their having daily contacts with the general public.

Table 11.4 Trainees' Percieved Skill Gains in Pre-Course and Post-Course Rating (Group Means)

Programmes groups / Acquired Skills	Personnel (n = 40)		Finance (n=18)		Local Govt. (n=26)		O&M (n=57)		Clerical (n=15)		Hospital Adm. (n=36)		Auditors (n=20)		Social Workers. (n=21)	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1. Setting operational priorities	2.75 $t=-7.68$	3.60	3.00 $t=-4.76$	3.66	3.19 $t=-6.17$	3.92	3.00 $t=-6.22$	3.66	3.06 $t=-1.43$ n.s	3.40	2.58 $t=-3.51$	3.30	3.15 $t=-1.10$ n.s	3.45	2.90 $t=-3.25$	3.61
2. Diagnostic skills	2.87 $t=-7.43$	3.65	3.11 $t=-3.05$	3.72	3.38 $t=-3.61$	3.92	3.14 $t=-5.08$	3.77	2.93 $t=-3.21$	3.26	2.88 $t=-4.57$	3.50	3.20 $t=-1.03$ n.s	3.50	2.61 $t=-4.17$	3.52
3. Meeting deadlines and fulfilment of commitments	3.80 $t=-2.96$	4.12	3.83 $t=-0.70$ n.s	3.94	3.92 $t=-4.05$	4.38	3.82 $t=-2.83$	4.17	4.00 $t=-2.82$	4.46	3.25 $t=-2.92$	3.72	3.70 $t=-0.00$ n.s	3.70	3.85 $t=-3.29$	4.28
4. Effective coordination	3.37 $t=-6.62$	3.95	3.55 $t=-2.38$	3.88	3.26 $t=-5.14$	4.07	3.33 $t=-5.49$	3.92	3.53 $t=-4.04$	4.26	3.11 $t=-3.55$	3.61	3.35 $t=-0.00$ n.s	3.35	3.28 $t=-0.33$ n.s	3.38
5. Ability and persuasiveness in presenting a case to management	3.10 $t=-4.20$	3.57	2.88 $t=-4.12$	3.72	3.23 $t=-4.80$	3.92	3.01 $t=-3.90$	3.56	2.33 $t=-3.57$	3.00	2.55 $t=-5.02$	3.44	3.25 $t=0.00$ n.s	3.25	261 $t=-4.81$	3.23
6. Ability in assessing one's organisational tranining needs, devise plans to meet them	3.10 $t=-5.99$	3.62	3.16 $t=-3.43$	3.50	3.42 $t=-5.94$	4.00	3.03 $t=-5.73$	3.73	2.86 $t=-5.14$	3.80	2.88 $t=-4.35$	3.66	3.20 $t=-0.33$ n.s	3.30	2.76 $t=-4.69$	3.28

Significant at ≤ 0.05 level
n.s: Not Significant

Table 11.4 also shows that in the areas of persuasiveness competence demonstrated by presenting a convincing case to management, respondents reacted most positively in rating their performance except for the Auditing group. The lowest departure point was that of the Clerical group, whose need for persuasive competence is not so pressing given the nature of their work even at a supervisory level, the Social Workers along with the Finance group have also indicated a lower pre-training score. The highest post training score was that of Local Government group. The highest proportionate rise was that of Hospital Administrators, trailed by Finance group with 0.81 and 0.80 rise consecutively.

Finally, in the area of competence in assessment of training needs and ability to devise plans of actions to meet them, the highest post training mean was again the share of Local Government group. The highest proportionate rise was that of Clerical group who moved from 2.86 mean in pre-training stage into 3.80, with 0.94 points ahead, whereas the Hospital Administration proportionate differential came second, at 0.78 points difference.

Examining the table vertically would show again an overwhelming improvement in pre-training and post-training score in several of the groups. The Auditing group seemed to report no training related improvement in three areas and extremely little improvement in the rest. The highest mean in post-training score is attributed to Local Government group, showing a highly convincing sweep on all items. The O & M group, which is the largest in number, has also shown a general impressive higher post-training score.

The indications are, as reflected by differentials of the means

given, that Local Government group was ahead of the rest in their reported gains as perceived by group members. The Clerical group, O & M, Finance, Hospital Administration, Personnel, and finally, the Social Workers trailing one another in the intensity of the improvements reported, whilethe Auditing group reporting markedly less course related influence, due to a general air of dissatisfaction reported by course members to the quality, content and the general set-up of their respective courses.

Respondents' means were t-tested inorder to ascertain the differences. Again, higher t-values were detected in the case of Personnel, Local Government, O & M as well as Hospital Administration group of programmes, hence indicative of substantial gains attached to the training. The Social Workers as well as the Clerical group have also indicated progress though not as much as the others whereas the Auditors' nagative perceptionshave persisted.

11.5. Knowledge and Information

Every learning process involves imparting knowledge as well as one form of information or another. Therefore, other areas of training related gains in the behavioural changes as well as skill acquisition inherently incorporate knowledge and information gains. Without offsetting this fact, three dimensions were tapped as somewhat relevant to the trainees standing towards these area of the learning process.

Table 11.5 projects responses on the three dimensions given on before and after basis. Scrutiny into the table would show yet again, an overall general movement towards the more positive positions on the scale.

Table 11.5 Respondents responses to areas of knowledge gains (%)

Knowledge and Information Gains	Before								After								T-value	Significance
	1	2	3	4	5	N.R	Total	Mean	1	2	3	4	5	N.R	Total	Mean		
1.Assimilation of one's org'l. goals and objectives	1.7	16.0	39.5	30.5	10.7	2.6	100	3.25	0.9	3.0	22.7	44.6	24.9	3.9	100	3.78	-8.56	0.00
2.Skills, knowledge and information in general	–	12.0	45.5	33.5	8.6	0.4	100	3.37	–	0.4	20.6	52.8	24.0	2.1	100	3.94	-10.19	0.00
3.Awareness of organisational methods and application technique	0.4	13.7	39.9	34.8	10.7	0.4	100	3.40	–	1.3	19.3	48.5	28.8	2.1	100	3.98	-9.70	0.00

Significant at ≤ 0.05

1 = Average, 2 = Average, 3 = Good, 4 = Very Good, 5 = Excellent, N.R = Non response.

In the area of assimilation of respondent's organisational goals and objectives, in the post training are with the massive sway away from the 'average' point of the scale towards the 'very good' and 'excellent' levels of performance. The means before have shifted from 3.25 to 3.78 in the post-training score.

When a more general question was asked tapping reaction towards respondents standing in the areas of skills, knowledge and information, still, a sizeable figure of 12 per cent have chosen the 'average' score as their pre-training stance but withering away into a barely 0.4 per cent in post training score, whereas a substantial shift has characterised the cluster of the frequencies again towards the most positive side of the scale. More than 52 per cent have cited 'very good' and nearly one quarter even describing their performance to be 'excellent', while only 20.6 per cent have chosen to reside in the 'good' performance category. The means shift is considerably high from 3.37 to 3.94 in pre-training-post-training scores.

Nearly the same pattern of answers is reported on item No.3 pertaining to respondents' respective awareness of organisational means and methods as effective tools conducive to effectiveness and efficiency. The means indicate yet again a general positive shift from 3.40 in the pre-training score towards 3.98 in the post training score.

Examining the differences between the means by using a t-test shows a relatively high t-value and an absolute two tail probability significance of 0.00 on these items, which hence be scrutinized by tracing the eight programme groups.

Table 11.6 Trainees' Knowledge and Information Gains (Group Means)

Knowledge & Information Gains	Personnel (n=40)		Finance (n=18)		Local Govt. (n=26)		O&M (n=57)		Clerical (n=15)		Hospital Adm. (n=36)		Auditors (n=20)		Social Worker (n=21)	
Programme Groups	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1. Assimilation of one's organisational goals & objectives	3.60 t=-4.64	4.12	3.50 t=-3.83	4.05	3.50 t=-3.33	3.96	3.47 t=-3.64	3.92	2.86 t=-3.56	3.60	2.72 t=-4.64	3.41	3.35 t=-0.00 n.s	3.35	2.61 t=-3.30	3.92
2. Levels of skills and knowledge&information in general	3.32 t=-5.10	3.92	3.66 t=-2.05	3.94	3.57 t=-5.94	4.23	3.42 t=-4.46	4.00	3.66 t=-3.23	4.20	3.00 t=-5.58	3.75	3.45 t=-0.33 n.s	3.55	3.19 t=-6.48	3.95
3. Awareness of organisation methods and application techniques	3.60 t=-537	4.02	3.55 t=-3.33	4.16	3.65 t=-4.92	4.26	3.49 t=-4.49	4.12	3.73 t=-5.29	4.40	3.05 t=-3.94	3.72	3.30 t=-0.33 n.s	3.40	2.80 t=-4.66	3.71

n.s. = Not Significant
Significant at ≤ 0.05

The gains traced across eight programme groups as reported by respondents and reflected in the mean shift are impressive (Table.11.6). Tracing changes vertically at group level shows a substantial sweep on all three items for Personnel, Finance, Local Government, O & M, Clerical as well as Social Workers groups. Singled out are the Auditing group whose rating has either stuck at the same level, albeit still favourable on item one, or slightly and modestly shifted forward on items two and three. The Social Workers have a relatively lower departure point on all the items in question, the same is the case with Hospital Administration group. On the other hand, all IPA based programme groups have indicated a higher proportionate gain, depicted by the high post-training means. The highest proportionate pre-training post-training score was that of the Social Workers who have recorded the highest gains attributed to their training intervention. On item three an impressive differential of 0.91 was cited while another 0.81 added points were reflected in their post-training score. The t-values projected in the table are indicative of the progress pattern for the eight programme groups along this dimention. All groups have shown manifestly significant progress except for the Auditors who have chosen to stick to their pre-training stance.

The overall trend then, is generally positive except for the Auditors group whose responses have reflected possible disenchantment with their training.

Summary

To sum; any meaningful evaluation into the real worthiness of training will have to look into the broader context of the training process and

what it originally meant to achieve. An assessment into job related changes that training could or could have not stimulated and developed into the respective trainee in the form of positive work practices and improved work attitudes is practically the only possible way to establish the degree of success or otherwise of the training. It also appears that this stage of evaluation is plagued with impracticalities, ambiguities and   to make the matters worse, few uncertainties as well. Particularly so in the case of assessment of the more subtle characteristics of managerial and supervisory behavioural and attitudinal qualities associated with training. But, niether the anticipated difficulties nor the subtleness or the ambiguities of the matter should discourage or desuade trainers from embarking upon such task. After all, for trainers to remain in business, they ought to produce their clients with much more tangible and convincing evidence of their success than assessment of training immediate reactions alone. The results, as shown in the analysis of trainees' responses of training related changes perceived to be resultant of the training and the magnitude of the t-values are extremely impressive. In the three areas of attitude formation, skill acquisition and knowledge gains, findings have revealed some remarkable massive mostly positive shift in relation to the percieved changes across the entire sample as well as across the eight programme groups. Some groups, albeit with few exceptions, have made more gains than others. The Auditors' group ha s explicitly manifested the least amount of progress in all three areas assessed as displayed by group responses and the magnitude of the t-values. Similarly, the Social Workers have shown a marked tendency towards maintaining the status quo insofar as determining the gains envisaged to be resultant of the training programmes. On the other

hand, five programme groups have indicated highly percieved gains attributed to training. The Personnel, the Local Government, the O & M as well as Hospital Administration groups have experienced subtantial levels of progress expressed by the magnitude of the t -values. In the case of Finance group, the perceptual progress seemed to be more modest compared with the earlier groups hence, less impressive.

CHAPTER TWELVE

ASSESSMENT OF TRAINING RELATED GAINS:

SUPERVISORS' PERSPECTIVE

12.1 Introduction

Assessment of individual training related gains in job setting was further scrutinised by counter validating trainee's responses against that of their immediate superiors. The aim again is to minimise potential errors due to the subjective nature of the assessment process. It is worthwhile to mention at this stage, that superiors have conducted their assessment of their fellow subordinates only after the training whence trainees, are back into work. Sufficient time was allowed in order to determine what influence training has had on the individuals' ensuing performance. Another point that needs to be stressed is that superiors were requested to consult their subordinates upon conducting their assessment so as to relate the particular areas of assessment to the actual contents as well as the objectives of the given training course. To ensure confidentiality, supervisors were requested not to expose the results of the rating exercise to their fellow subordinates thus enable them to embark upon their assessment almost entirely freely.

While the preceding chapter was dedicated to examine trainees' perception of training related changes in job setting, this chapter is intended to validate trainees' assessment of their respective performance through contrasting and comparing responses of the two groups inorder to ascertain areas of inconsistencies or otherwise.

The chapter concludes with a summary.

12.2 Behavioural and Attitudinal Gains

Superiors rating of their respective subordinates was ascertained again along the two phases; that of before as well as in the post training stage s. Behavioural and attitudinal gains were measured along the seven dimensions discussed earlier ranging from qualities of forthcomingness, objectivity and general ability to work as a team member all the way down to flexibility in handling organisational rules and regulations.

Reactions again were detected on a five point with one and five representing the two extremes. Table 12.1 projects sample responses means of both trainees and superiors compared against each other both before and after training for easy and straightforward reference.

The pattern of responses depicted by the means projected in the table is that of general accord amongst the two sides. Looking at the means given to rate standards of performance prior to training show high level of resemblence of both parties assessment. Except for item 3where adaptibility to technological changes was rated slightly below the middle 'good' point on the scale by both parties. The rest of the dimension assessed has shown an overall tendency to transcend the 'good' middle point. Evident variations are noted in items 2,4 and 5, where both sides' responses have shown larger margains (i.e.0.21) albeit still on the favourable side of the scale.

Table 12.1. Trainees and Supervisors Compared Sample Means and t-values on Before and After Levels.

Behavioural gains	Before		After		B & A	B & A
	T'nees	Supers.	T'nees	Supers.	T'nees t-value	Supers t-value
1. Forthcomingness, objectivity and ability to work as a team member	3.48	3.51	4.07	3.97	9.14	6.89
2. Problems solving competence and ability to work autonomously	3.52	3.29	3.96	3.78	6.72	7.45
3. Adaptibility to technological changes	2.98	2.94	3.48	3.39	8.14	7.45
4. Ability to motivate fellow employees and subordinates to work	3.21	3.00	3.67	3.44	7.20	7.87
5. Ability to organise, assign work and delegate authority	3.31	3.10	3.65	3.55	6.47	7.82
6. Creativity and ability to take initiative	3.10	3.06	3.76	3.56	2.40	3.39
7. Flexibility in dealing with org'l rules and regulations	3.48	3.39	3.91	3.88	6.31	7.75

T'nees = trainees; Supers.= supervisors; B & A = Before and After.
Supervisors N=179
Trainees   N=233

Comparing post training assessment means again shows an overall general accord where the two sides have conceded marked progress. The largest difference in the assessment of progress was in the vicinity of 0.23 on item no.0 4 where the ability of the trainees to motivate his/her peers and fellow employees was in question. Creativity and initiative taking competence have produced the next high marginal

difference of 0.20. The variations as indicated by the means and the t-values have shown, in entirety, statistical significance in the two-tailed probability test.

12.2.a Behavioural assessment at group level: Before training.

Following the same pattern of analysis, responses of trainees and their respective superiors were scrutinised across eight programme groups. The purpose again is to investigate how the two assessors behaved in the context of the behavioural dimensions given as well as to furnish sufficient details.

The results presented in table (12.2.a.) have shown means responses of both parties in all eight programme groups as they stood before the training programme.

Tracing the pattern, the means projected at group level have provided some interesting points to dig in and further investigate. Trainees and their immediate superiors have, in general, widely differed at group level in their subsequent assessment of the individuals' level of performance prior to the training. There were cases of striking differences in both parties' standpoint which is only normal, given the complexity and the subtleness of the attitudes assessed. For Personnel groups the margin of differences was as high as 0.37 and 0.32 in the areas of organisation competence and the ability to delegate authority as well as in the areas of objectivity, forthcomingness and team membership competence. Trainees have seemingly overrated their standard of performance along those lines.

12.2.a. Paired behavioural gains as perceived by the trainees and their respective supervisors prior to the training given (Means)

Behaviour & Attitudinal Gains	Before															
	Personnel T	Personnel S	Finance T	Finance S	Loc.Govt. T	Loc.Govt. S	O & M T	O & M S	Clerical T	Clerical S	Hosp.Adm. T	Hosp.Adm. S	Auditors T	Auditors S	Soc.Work T	Soc.Work S
1.Forthcomingness, objectivity & ability to work as team member	3.47	3.75	3.61	3.75	3.69	3.78	3.59	3.70	3.33	3.37	3.19	3.24	3.90	3.31	3.47	2.89
2.Problem solving competence & ability to work autonomously	3.57	3.37	3.61	3.75	3.96	3.50	3.50	3.33	3.73	3.12	3.55	3.19	3.35	3.47	2.63	2.47
3.Adaptibility to technological change	2.92	2.87	3.33	3.62	3.07	3.21	3.10	3.06	2.86	2.62	2.75	3.06	3.19	2.67	2.66	2.57
4.Ability to motivate fellow employees and subordinates to work	3.25	3.08	3.95	3.62	3.30	3.64	3.31	3.37	3.40	2.06	3.13	2.96	3.10	2.93	2.52	2.15
5.Ability to organise and assign work and delegate authority	3.32	2.95	3.72	3.62	3.65	3.71	3.43	3.41	3.13	2.25	3.19	3.17	3.25	3.06	2.52	2.47
6.Creativity and ability to take initiative	3.07	3.12	3.00	3.75	3.46	3.50	3.05	3.33	3.20	2.31	2.94	2.96	3.20	2.93	3.61	3.09
7.Flexibility in dealing with organisational rules & regulations	3.55	3.45	4.00	4.12	3.80	3.57	3.52	3.30	3.73	3.06	3.11	3.27	3.35	3.50	2.80	2.47

T= Trainees; S= Supervisors.

For Finance group, the sharpest inconsistency was demonstrated in the rating of creativity and initiative-taking. However, the margin rose to some 0.75 when trainees have overrated their standard of performance. The other area of mismatch was that of adaptibility to technological changes where the margin was nearly 0.30. In general, there has been a greater degree of homogeneity in Finance group rating for both parties on other items.

For Local Government group , the highest reported margin depicted by the means was that of problem-solving competence and the ability to work autonomously where it reached 0.46 and in the ability to motivate fellow peers and subordinates showing a high differential of 0.34. A high differential was also detected in the area of flexibility with rules and regulations.

Interestingly, these three dimensions are in general key areas in the work of local government officials where a high degree of autonomy is assumed as well as ability to use ones' discretion in applying the spirit of rules and regulations in their daily implementation and performance of duties. For the O & M group, three dimensions have shown certain inconsistencies amongst the two parties' rating on items 1, 2 and 6 with lower marginal difference.

The highest proportion of dissimilarities was that of the Clerical group whose means have shown greater striking difference. Except for the first item where a sort of resemblence is detected, the rest of the items have depicted large disparity in the pattern the means has followed.

Differentials have ranged, in the remaining six items assessed, between 0.24 at the lowest, and 1.34 at the highest whereas others have effectively fallen between 0.61, 0.67, 0.88, 0.89.

Such disparity could only be understood in the light of the two parties' different perception of the actual job requirement of their clerical staff who stood as mentioned earlier at the lower level of the supervisory scale of the entire sample. Therefore, the supervisors, apparently did not pin high hopes on the level of performance of their clerical trainees along those areas of attitudinal and behavioural levels of competence. They, for example, see no point where problem-solving competence is to be considered a requisite nor their ability to delegate authority. By the same token, their flexibility with rules and organisational regulations is not only immaterial but also discouraged. The same applies with the issues of creativity and initiative taking. Nevertheless the point will be further explored while assessing the post-training assessment later on.

An interesting pattern has emerged in the Hospital Administration group, where trainees have underrated their performance standards on the first three items as well as the sixth compared with that of their fellow superiors. Given the composition of the group, where doctors, senior nurses as well as hospital administrators are involved. Caution and reluctance shown by group members in the assessment of their behavioural and attitudinal standpoint is understood in the light of the seriousness of the issues assessed. Reluctance on the trainee's part is a sign of modesty while their superiors in return have chosen to do them justice which is shown in the differentials revealed in the table.

The Auditors group has fallen out with their superiors in rating their pre-training standards in their adaptibility to technological change. The margin in the means here was as high as 0.48. Another marginal difference of 0.27 was reported in the group's assessment of the level of creativity potentials and initiatives taking. The rest of the items were reasonably balanced.

Finally, the Social Workers' paired rating seemed to reflect wider gaps and disparities on both sides assessment. The margin of 0.58 was reported on item 1, and 0.88, on item 2 and 0.33 on item 4, 0.25 on item 5 and 0.2 on item 6 and finally 0.33 on item 7.

Except for items 1 and 2 where superiors have indicated better assessment of their respective subordinates, the rest of the points have shown an extremely wider gap in the assessment of the two sides. There again appears the different perception as well as the interpretation of the role of social workers by both parties. Social workers taking part in the training programme were extremely diverse insofar as course entry qualifications and expertise as well as their hirarchical levels. This could have influenced both sides definition as well as interpretation of job requirements and the roles assumed by different parties to that of the social worker.

12.2.b. Behavioural Gains: Post training assessment

Pursuing resemblence and/or divergence in both sides rating of attitudinal training related gains in actual job setting after the training would no doubt provide an extremely useful comparison and contrast standpoint of each sides assessment of the gains. The results are introduced through the means reported by both sides in table (12.2.b.). The means, however, stand only as indicators and can only

be interpreted within context through looking at both sides before and after simultaneously to tell the amount of progress achieved in the eyes of both parties.

For Personnel group, a higher degree of resemblence is evident in the manner the means of the two sides behaved. The gains reported are immense and massive on all items. There are nearly identical rating reported on items 3, 3, 6 and 7, whereas Superiors have chosen to better rate the progress of their employees on items 1 and 2. The biggest differentials are reported on items 4 and 5. All in all,there has been a massive sweep where both sides have met in assessing the progress gained.

For the Finance group, a narrow margin is reported on all items between the two compared means. In the area of creativity and initiative taking, the superiors assessment has chosen to better ascertain the progress related to training. But again the trend is one of positive and mutual accord of progress made on all items assessed.

For Local Government group, the superiors have chosen to differ in favour of their respective trainees on items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7. The progress reported as compared even to the standard of performance prior to training is remarkable and encouraging.

In the case of O & M group, the post training assessment has shown a greater degree of homogeneity with regard to the means shown. Higher resemblence in assessing the progress related to training further highlights the composition of O & M group in terms of the degree of homegeneity of programme participants, their qualifications and their organisational hierarchical locations.

The Clerical group understandably could only show similar inconsistencies in their post training assessment when compared against that of their supervisors. Although the general trend is that of progress, yet there is a widening gap in assessing the amount of progress gained.

Monitoring the pattern of responses on items 4, 5 and 6, demonstrates that the gulf between the two groups perceptions is extremely wide. While trainees have assessed their performance to fall somewhere between 'very good' and 'excellent' points onthe scale, their immediate superiors have chosen to rate them somewhere between 'average' and 'good'. In general, the two sides are irreconcibely apart in their perception of the progress made in the behavioural and attitudinal gains which was discussed briefly earlier.

As for Hospital Administration group, the pattern reported in the before stage has persisted. Superiors continued to better rate their subordinates on items 2, 3, 6 and 7, albeit with narrower margins. Evidently, the general trend is one of positive reciprocal consistency.

12.2.b. Paired behavioural gains as perceived by the trainees and their respective supervisors prior to the training given (Means)

Behavioural and Attitudinal Gains	After															
	Personnel		Finance		Loc.Govt.		O & M		Clerical		Hosp.Adm.		Auditors		Soc.Work	
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
1. Forthcomingness, objectivity and ability to work as team member	4.02	4.25	3.88	3.87	4.38	4.64	4.26	3.93	3.62	3.80	3.68	3.75	4.00	4.09		3.57
2. Problem solving competence and ability to work autonomously	4.67	4.08	4.11	3.87	4.90	4.28	4.05	3.68	3.25	4.10	3.40	3.81	3.42	3.15		
3. Adaptibility to technological change	3.47	3.41	3.88	3.75	3.36	3.92	3.54	3.35	3.33	3.00	3.33	3.58	3.40	3.25		3.04
4. Ability to motivate fellow employees and subordinates to work	3.77	3.50	3.77	3.87	3.88	4.28	3.89	3.72	2.43	4.06	3.51	3.72	3.25	3.37	2.52	2.63
5. Ability to organise and assign work and delegate authority	3.80	3.95	3.44	3.75	4.15	4.23	3.89	3.77	2.75	4.06	3.62	3.83	3.25	3.56	2.85	3.05
6. Creativity and ability to take initiative	3.70	3.70	3.50	4.00	4.11	4.28	3.61	3.62	2.81	3.86	3.50	3.62	3.40	3.37	3.57	3.26
7. Flexibility in dealing with org'l rules and regulations	4.02	4.04	4.22	4.00	4.30	4.39	4.01	4.14	3.18	4.76	3.61	3.82	3.50	4.00	3.23	3.21

T = Trainees; S = Supervisors

Interestingly, in the case of the Auditors group, superiors have expressed higher appreciation than that of their subordinates to the perceived gains. They have overrated them on items 1, 2, 4, 5 and 7. Hence, the general trend depicted here is again one of general progress with lesser amount of inconsistencies on the part of the superiors.

For the Social Workers, the trend which seemed to be extremely inconsistent in the pre-training assessment, has now developed into a more balanced shape where the ratings of the two sides have shown wider resemblance. In general, this group has expressed a slightly narrower progress compared with other groups. Only on item 1 the group has recorded more than very good level of performance whereas the rest of the item has fallen in the vicinity of 'good' and in some cases closer to the 'average' side of the scale.

12.3.The Acquisition of Skills

To establish a further degree of accuracy in the assessment of training related gains in the areas of skill acquisition, the same process was adopted. Trainees' self assessment of their standard of performance prior to training and after training was compared against similar assessment to their stance conducted by their immediate superiors. Skill acquisition was hence measured along six dimensions.

No claim is made at this point, that any of the six dimensions related to skill acquisition is exclusively and purely skill nor the list is exhaustive. The purpose, as mentioned earlier is to portray a general framework that would incorporate basically the supervisory skills addressed in the training course. The skills addressed vary to cover as wide a range of skills as possible. They include first and

foremost, setting operational priorities; diagnostic skills; competence in meeting work deadlines; that of effective coordination as well as the more subtle persuasive abilities to one's own management and, finally the ability to scan and screen one's own units' training needs and how to meet them.

Superiors responses compared to that of their subordinates for the entire sample are presented in Table (12.3).

The resemblence shown in the pre-training assessment is remarkable. Especially for the first four skills addressed. The shift occurred in the means of the two groups on the last two items where 0.60 was the difference to the benefit of the trainees who underrated their persuasive aptitutde and a lesser marginal difference on item six. In general, both parties' assessment was largely cohesive.

Table 12.3 Skill acquisition associated to training as perceived by trainees and their respective supervisors (Means)

Skills acquired	Before		After		B&A	B&A
	T/nees	Supers.	T/nees	Supers.	T/nees t-value	Supers. t-value
1. Competence in setting operational priorities	2.92	2.98	3.58	3.60	-11.22	-11.29
2. Diagnostic skills	3.00	2.95	3.64	3.54	11.05	-9.96
3. Meeting dealines	3.74	3.60	4.09	4.02	-6.19	-6.49
4. Effective coordination	3.32	3.11	3.82	3.67	-8.45	-8.48
5. Ability and persuaviveness in presenting a convincing case to management	2.41	3.02	3.50	3.51	-9.78	-9.28
6. Ability to assess org'l training needs and devise plans to meet them	3.05	2.88	3.64	3.36	-10.07	-7.60

Supervisors N=174
Trainees   N=233
T'nees = trainees; Supers.= supervisors; B & A = Before and After.

Such remarkable coherence persisted all the way through, as we consider the means in post-training era. The largest recorded margin was detected on item six where a difference of 0.28 is apparent. Both respondents have conceded remarkable progress of the training related skills required. In one item the means score have shown a movement towards the very good point on the scale while the rest have fallen somewhere between 'good' and 'very good', yet more closer to the more advanced side on the scale.

12.3.a.Skill Acquisition: Group Comparison.

Progress and advancement in the domain of skills to be attributed to training are then compared and contrasted across programme groups in order to highlight the pattern each group has followed compared to that of the superiors. The means of both sides are projected in table (12.4.a.) as they appeared on 'before' level so as to establish whether or not the two assessors have shared each others standpoint and if not, to what extent they really differed.

In the case of Personnel group, the assessment process conducted by both respondents has shown certain interesting results. On four of the items, the superiors have assessed their subordinates more favourably than the latters. So wide was the margin that in the area of setting operational priorities it reached 0.41, superiors also looked highly at their subordinates diagnostic skills where the difference of means has reached 0.33.

The contrast on the other hand was conversely evident upon rating the sixth item where trainees have overrated their pre-training performance by 0.31 points.

For Finance group, the same pattern persisted as superiors were more appreciative of their subordinates' level of competence on five items. Ironically, the shift was in the area of meeting organisational deadlines. In general and on average, Finance group members have rated their performance positively but more modestly as compared to their superiors.

Table 12.4.a Compared mean responses of trainees and their immediate supervisors of their assessment before training of the skills required

Acquired Skills	Before															
	Personnel		Finance		Loc.Govt.		O & M		Clerical		Hosp.Adm.		Auditors		Soc.Work	
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
1. Competence in setting operational priorities	2.75	3.16	3.00	3.37	3.19	3.35	3.00	3.29	2.62	2.58	2.79	3.15	2.75	2.90	2.31	
2. Diagnostic skills	2.87	3.20	3.11	3.50	3.38	3.50	3.14	3.06	2.53	2.50	2.88	2.89	3.20	2.87	2.61	2.26
3. Meeting deadlines	3.80	3.83	3.83	3.50	3.92	3.92	3.82	3.81	4.00	3.43	3.25	3.49	3.70	3.31	3.85	3.21
4. Effective co-ordination	3.37	3.08	3.55	3.87	3.26	3.28	3.33	3.31	3.53	2.81	3.11	3.24	3.35	2.87	3.28	2.47
5. Ability and persuasiveness in presenting a convincing case to management	3.10	3.12	2.88	3.12	3.23	3.35	3.01	3.29	2.33	2.00	2.55	3.00	3.25	3.12	2.61	2.78
6. Ability to assess org'l training needs and devise plans to meet them	3.10	2.79	3.16	3.25	3.42	3.14	3.03	3.25	2.86	2.43	2.88	2.96	3.20	2.68	2.76	2.15

T = Trainees; S = Supervisors.

The Local Government's paired rating has also projected similar tendencies where superiors have chosen to rate the trainees more favourably on four items, share the same stance on one item but change sides on the last item.

The scale of differences in the case of O & M group rating was not that much striking. By contrast they were more congruent on all the six dimensions measured.

The Clerical group, by contrast has shown sharp dissimilarities amongst the two sides' means. Nonetheless, the diversion as well as the gap between means were not drastically contradictory. Only on items 1 and 2 the differences in the rating were so wide insofar as what it meant in terms of their location on the scale. While trainees have rated their performance to exceed the 'good' point their respective superiors have placed them closer to the average point.

Superiors, in the case of Hospital Administration group, have again shown more favourable assessment of their subordinates, on all six items, hence providing consistencewith the earlier pattern denoted in the assessment of behavioural gains.

The Social Workers, on the other hand, have presented the converse pattern where superiors have chosen to rate their trainees performance less favourably than the latters.

In general, the two parties rating pattern was, more or less consistent. Sharp contrasts were detected in the case of Clercial group, and less so in the case of social workers.

12.3.b.Paired responses in the post training rating

Having established the departure line depicted by the pre-training rating, looking into the means shown on post-training assessment would appear meaningful. As explained in the first part of this chapter, the general prevalent trend of post-training assessment is one of massive advancement, therefore, such pattern has gained more credence in the light of the superiors assessment. (Table 12.4.b.)

Superiors and their fellow subordinates have shown a higher degree of consistency and were mostly in accord while rating performance gains on all six items and for five programme groups; namely, Personnel, Finance, Local Government and O & M and Hospital Administration. In the case of the first three, superiors have shown more favourable assessment as expressed by the positive margins shown. In the case of O & M group, there were further degrees of similarity between the rating of the two sides. Similarly, Superiors in Hospital Administration Group have again chosen to relish the qualities shown by their subordinates more favourably in the post training stage.

The Clerical group was again singled out; their apparent sharp contrast is evident in the post training rating conducted by the two sides. Although this does not negate the general prevalent trend of progress, yet the degree of such progress as envisaged by the two sides seems to be widely dissimilar for reasons discussed earlier and still applies in this area of skill acquisition.

The Social Workers have also shown certain degrees of divergence, but the two sides are not too wide apart in their assessment results.

12.4.b. Paired behavioural gains as perceived by the trainees and their respective supervisors prior to the training given (Means)

Behavioural and Attitudinal Gains	After															
	Personnel		Finance		Loc.Govt.		O & M		Clerical		Hosp.Adm.		Auditors		Soc.Work	
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
1. Forthcomingness, objectivity and ability to work as team member	4.02	4.25	3.88	3.87	4.38	4.64	4.26	4.08	3.93	3.62	3.80	3.68	3.75	4.00	4.09	3.57
2. Problem solving competence and ability to work autonomously	4.67	4.08	4.11	3.87	4.90	4.28	4.05	3.68	3.25	3.75	4.10	3.40	3.40	3.81	3.42	3.15
3. Adaptibility to technological change	3.47	3.41	3.88	3.75	3.36	3.92	3.54	3.35	3.33	3.00	3.33	3.58	3.40	3.25	3.04	3.05
4. Ability to motivate fellow employees and subordinates to work	3.77	3.50	3.77	3.87	3.88	4.28	3.89	3.72	4.06	2.43	3.72	3.51	3.25	3.37	2.52	2.63
5. Ability to organise and assign work and delegate authority	3.80	3.95	3.44	3.75	4.15	4.23	3.89	3.77	2.75	3.25	3.83	3.62	3.25	3.56	2.85	3.05
6. Creativity and ability to take initiative	3.70	3.70	3.50	4.00	4.11	4.28	3.61	3.62	2.81	3.86	3.50	3.62	3.40	3.37	3.57	3.26
7. Flexibility in dealing with org'l rules & regulations	4.02	4.04	4.22	4.00	4.30	4.39	4.01	4.14	4.76	3.18	3.61	3.82	3.50	4.00	3.23	3.21

T = Trainees; S = Supervisors

The general prevalent pattern is one of massive progress. Such progress, as reported earlier through the self-rating device by the trainees themselves in work setting has gained more credence and shown at times higher degrees of accuracy or otherwise as compared and contrasted with the subsequent assessment of the trainees' immediate supervisors. The Clerical and the Social Workers group have shown more inconsistencies in the assessment of the two parties contrary to the more favourable assessment reported by the trainees themselves.

12.4 knowledge and information gains

Among the three areas addressed by training and assessment in work setting, gains in the field of knowledge and information seem to have shown more coherence and consistencies insofar as the two assessing groups are concerned. Less marginal differences are detected in the means projected in table (12.5) for the entire sample.

Table 12.5 Knowledge and Information Gains in job setting as perceived by trainees and their immediate supervisors (Means)

Knowledge gains	Before		After	B & A	B & A
	T'nees Supers.		T'nees	Supers. T'nees t-value	Supers. t-value
1. Assimilation of org'l goals and objectives	3.25	3.12	3.78	3.60 −8.56	−8.50
2. Levels of skills and knowledge and information in general	3.37	3.36	3.94	3.85 −10.19	−7.96
3. Awareness of organisational methods and application techniques	3.40	3.20	3.98	3.74 −9.40	−8.87

Supervisors N=174
Trainees   N=233

Both sides have come very close as they asssessed trainees' pretraining to performance standards. The highest margin of 0.20 was in the context of individuals familiarity and awareness of O & M techniques and their know-how competence in putting them into actual practice. Higher resemblence is evident on the first two items, especially so when a general statement was made pertaining to trainees indvidual level of competence in the areas of skills, knowledge and information. Much more interestingisthe general accord between the two groups on the degree of individual's assimilation of organisational goals and objectives. In the post-training measurement, the same proportionate gains were detected albeit with slight variations. Both sides assessments have shown respondents performance to fall closer to the 'very good' side of the scale. The margin of difference has increased on items 2 and 3. The t-values shown have indicated high statistical significance test; a call for further investigation of the patterns of programme groups' means.

12.4.a.Knowledge and Information Gains at Group leveL

Paired means of the two sides' assessment of trainees' pre-training knowledge status are projected in table (12.6.a.). The only sharp contrast seen is the huge margin exhibited by the means of Clerical and Social Workers group not to the advantage of the trainees who seemed to better rate yet again their status whereas their superiors failed to see the point eye to eye. The four programme groups, i.e. Finance, Superiors have shown a better assessment of their subordinates' stance. To a certain extent this was also the case with Personnel group while the Auditor's paired means have shown an abrupt turn as the superiors substantially differed and thus rated less favourably trainees assimilation of organisational goals and objectives.

Table 12.6.a. Paired mean responses of trainees and their immediate superiors of skill acquisition associated with training in job setting.

Knowledge Gains	Before															
	Personnel		Finance		Loc.Govt.		O & M		Clerical		Hosp.Adm		Auditors		Soc.Work	
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
1. Assimilation of org'l goals and objectives	3.60	3.37	3.50	3.62	3.50	3.64	3.47	3.56	2.86	2.93	2.72	2.89	3.35	2.75	2.61	2.31
2. Level of skills and knowledge and information in general	3.32	3.54	3.66	3.87	3.57	3.78	3.42	3.62	3.66	2.81	3.00	3.27	3.45	3.12	3.19	2.73
3. Awareness of org'l methods and application techniques	3.60	3.37	3.53	3.62	3.65	3.50	3.48	3.56	3.73	2.37	3.05	3.03	3.30	3.18	2.80	2.68

T = Trainees; S = Supervisors.

The margin of difference was as wide as 0.60 between the two sides. A substantial margin was also detected while assessing the same item in Personnel group ; i.e. 0.23.

On the other hand, table (12.6.b). projects paired means of the two parties across programme groups in post-training assessment. There seems to be a general consensus amongst the two parties as to the progress made in the domain of knowledge and information. The two cases of sharp disharmony were again, primarily, the Clerical group with social workers trailing behind. Another case to be singled out in post-training rating is that of Local Government whose superiors seemed to have substantially higher appreciation of their subordinates gains on all three items measured. The greatest degree of coherence was detected in the case of O & M groups whose paired means have come closer together.

In general, the results are explicitly a testimony to the general air of progress projected by the two sides in job setting. Hence another confirmation that, across the sample, trainees have shown enough evidence of substantial gains that could be attributed to the training. Such evidence has been counter validated with the assessment of the trainees immediate superiors.

Groups have shown a general coherence with their superior insofar as both sides assessment of current standards of performance stood. The sharp deviation in each sides judgement in the case of Clerical and Social Workers group has helped to project the specificity of these two cases but did not refute the general consensus trend of progress.

Table 12.6.b. Paired mean responses of trainees and their immediate superiors of skill acquisition associated with training in job setting.

Knowledge Gains	After															
	Personnel		Finance		Loc.Govt.		O & M		Clerical		Hosp.Adm.		Auditors		Soc.Work	
	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S	T	S
1. Assimilation of org'l goals and objectives	4.12	3.87	4.05	3.87	3.96	4.35	3.92	3.85	3.60	2.75	3.41	3.55	3.35	3.25	3.92	3.10
2. Level of skills and knowledge and information in general	3.92	4.16	3.94	4.12	4.23	4.42	4.00	4.00	4.20	3.31	3.75	3.68	3.55	3.75	3.95	3.31
3. Awareness of org'l methods and application techniques	4.02	3.87	4.16	4.00	4.26	4.35	4.12	3.91	4.40	3.06	3.72	3.58	3.40	3.75	3.71	3.36

T = Trainees; S = Supervisors.

In general, the results are explicitly a testimony to the general air of progress projected by the two sides in job setting. Hence another confirmation that.across the sample,trainees have shown enough evidence of substantial gains that could be attributed to the training. Such evidence has been counter validated with the assessment of the trainees immediate superiors.

Summary of the Results:

Subsequently, a more concise functional summary of results was produced by bringing together the many dimensions assessed in each area addressed by training, by averaging the means on before and after level as they stood against similar assessment of the supervisors in the three areas of a) Behavioural and Attitudinal gains, b) Skill Acquisition and, c) Knowledge and Information gains. Differences, if any, of both sides were extracted, accumulated on the different dimensions given and then t-tested to present, for further degree of accuracy, the significance of results. Table (12.7) introduces the average mean of the seven dimensions measured in the areas of behavioural and attitudinal pre-training and post-training standards of performance. The table is self explanatory.

The Behavioural and Attitudinal gains, with a larger t-value in the case of O & M group enable the researcher to establish that the statistical significance of the t-value may demonstrate more confidently the differences of assessment of pre-training, post-training performance as perceived by both trainees, and their immediate supervisors.

Table 12.7 Behavioural Gains at Programme Group level(Average Mean)

Programme Groups	Before T'nees	Supers.	After T'nees	Supers.	t-value of difference
Personnel	3.39	3.22	3.85	3.77	0.78
Finance	3.54	3.74	3.90	3.87	1.86
Local Government	3.56	3.55	4.15	4.29	1.72
Organisation and Methods	3.35	3.41	3.89	3.76	4.38
Clerical and Office Training	3.34	2.68	4.02	3.00	1.70
Hospital Administration	3.07	3.17	3.64	3.70	1.12
Auditing Manager	3.27	3.07	3.42	3.62	-0.09
Social Workers	3.08	2.52	3.24	3.13	1.90

T'nees = trainees, Supers.= supervisors.
Supervisors N =174
Trainees N = 233

In the case of skill acquisition; (Table 12.8) the statistical significance detected through calculating the t-values is evident in the case of Local Government, O & M as well as the Clerical group. The particulars of those areas of differences were explained in the details earlier on.

Table 12.8 Skill Acquisition at group level (Average Means)

Programme Groups	Before T'nees	Supers.	After T'nees	Supers	t-value of difference
Personnel	3.16	3.19	3.75	3.79	-0.28
Finance	3.25	3.43	3.73	3.70	1.83
Local Government	3.40	3.42	3.86	4.25	2.25 *
Organisation and Methods	3.22	3.33	3.80	3.69	3.78 *
Clerical and Office Training	3.05	2.63	3.69	2.95	2.30 *
Hospital Administration	2.87	3.05	3.53	3.69	0.32
Auditing Manager	3.30	2.93	3.42	3.56	1.81
Social Workers	3.00	2.53	3.55	3.18	0.36

T'nees = trainees; Supers.= supervisors.

And finally and in the areas of knowledge and information gains, the summing up table below shows a higher degree of consistency as explained earlier.

Table 12.9 Knowledge and Information Gains Across Groups (Average Means)

Programme Groups	Before T'nees	Supers.	After T'nees	Supers.	t-value of difference
Personnel	3.50	3.42	4.02	3.96	-0.29
Finance	3.57	3.70	4.05	3.99	-1.53
Local Government	3.57	3.64	4.15	4.37	-1.24
Organisation and Methods	3.46	3.58	4.06	3.92	3.16*
Clerical and Office Training	3.41	2.3	4.06	3.04	0.18
Hospital Administration	2.92	3.06	3.62	3.60	1.49
Auditing Manager	3.36	3.01	3.43	3.58	-1.03
Social Workers	2.86	2.57	3.86	3.25	1.73

T'nees = trainees, Supers.= supervisors

As for knowledge and information gains(Table 12.9), again, only the

O & M group has shown statistical significant differences in the

responses of the trainees and their immediate supervisors demonstrated

by the variations in mean differences and shown by the t-values.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

13.1 Introduction.

The purpose of this concluding chapter is to summarise and bring together the research findings. To summarise, is to take the risk of not only oversimplification, which is inevitable but may also involve the risk of giving away the wealth of data and the richness of discussions incorporated in the authors' quest to capture the process of training evaluation in the wider context against not only the departmental policies but also as highlighted by the country's current demographic and economic features.

Summary of the results is introduced as briefly as possible while the conclusions are meant to be inbuilt. In the first section, the general conclusions based on the findings of government departmental training policies are presented. The aim is to pull together the major findings as well as their implications on the training function in the government bureaucracy. In the next section, the general trainings contecxtual as well as background variables are touched upon inorder to determine how trainees have reacted to the programme. The purpose is to capture trainees immediate reaction in the evaluation context.

The evaluation of training related performance implications in job setting follows a general assessment of trainers perspective. Certain limitations as well as other issues related to the validity as well as the reliablility of the findings are briefly discussed next.

13.2. What of Departmental Training Policies.

The expedition hitherto has proven to be extremely relevant as well as useful and touched upon issues and organisational territories that had not hitherto been explored. It revealed disparities and substantial inconsistencies with regard to practices and the given frame of reference by different government units in their training pursuit. Those areas of inconsistencies can be summed up to be the following:

a] In the needs-assessment area, the findings substantiate the urgency for actions to be taken at the central level, insofar as and the manner training needs are diagnosed, analysed and related to organisational goals and objectives. Preaching only is not enough. Multi-desciplinary methods and approaches need to be presented by means of workshops and intensive training interventions for training peresonnel assigned to perform such task. Models advocated need not necessarily be a confining rigid structure, but avenues along which choices can be made in line with the conditions prevalent in the given organisation.

b] In the training management domain, the findings project an image of bizare confusion. Management of training's status and locus in the organisational structure varied widely. Actual practices have effectively shown that training in some organisations is considered to be no man's land. At instances, the training function was assigned to the department of administration, or the department of administration and finance, at others, the function was part of the jurisdiction of the department of. public relations; in one single incident training was conducted through the department of technical services. In the majority of cases, the training function was found to be integrated into the personnel function with no organisational status. It is

evident, in general terms, that ' training management' is non-existent in the majority of the units surveyed. The revelations have exhibited the absence of insight with regard to the functions the training units were assigned to. To worsen the situation, the absence of an organisational identifiable status for the training function helped subordinating the activity even further. The prevalent image of the training unit was that of poorly-equipped, notoriously under-staffed and of minor importance, hence the man/woman in charge operates basically as a care taker and a correspondence centre where loose end of training 'mail' meet.

e] Training records, in the functional intrepretation of the term, were incomplete, poorly organised and did not suffice the actual training requirements on the organisational level nor they were significantly related to the unit's human resources development theme. The need to have some sort of standardised coherent patterns of practices is evident so that a training data bank can readily accommodate for the demand of any piece of information to be refered to in a timely fashion. Thus it would be easier to monitor progress and work out a follow-up process for the entire training cycle beginning with needs analyses all the way through to the assessment of training results upon training conclusion.

d] It was evident that there were no training plans, nor there were training systems in the true sense of the two terms. What was perceived to be a'plan' was found to be simply a tabulation exercise conducted for budgetary purposes, or at best, a list of names, dates, cost involved of the nominees for training courses for whatever given time frame designed for record purposes and easy reference. It would appear

that both (IPA) and (DPA) on the one hand, and the recipient organisations of training on the other do not speak the same language nor do they see eye to eye pertaining to Central Administrative Training Plan. The general assumption that was being made with regard to training plan that the Central Plan was an aggregate of organisational sub-plans and hence, the training agenda on the central level was drafted. The majority of the organisations surveyed regretfully negated the existence of such plans. The need to bridge this serious gap is far too vivid and it pays no devidents ignoring factual differences. There need to exist a certain degree of consensus, reciprocal understanding without which training efforts would appear to be like 'blowing into a torn bag'. No where else open, two-way communication between central civil service training units and recipient organisations at large is so badly needed.

c] The budgetary arrangements, as one could tell by the findings, are far from being functional and lack the proper costing factor of training. There were times where resources were used in not-so-careful manner. And since the Government is presently conducting an intensive scrutiny exercise into all forms of public spending - the government administrative machinary included- the likelihood would then be that allocations would ultimately need to be revised tightened and made more cost effective at the organisational levels. Without the proper systematic costing for organisational training it would be very likely that the training budget, no matter how small it turns out to be, could very well be considered as a soft spot and an easy starting point where the austerity process may commence.

f] It is seen to be a self-fulfilling prophecy. Failure to follow-up and properly evaluate and validate training are the inevitable conclusions of the haphazard, ill-prepared, badly managed ,poorly staffed, ill-equipped and inconsistent training activities. More than two-third of the organisations surveyed, expressed discontent with the methods applied in the area of training evaluation and follow-up and considered them insufficient in realising established organisational training objectives.

Efforts need to address this issue with the urgency it deserves as a key component in the training cycle. The importance of evaluation and follow-up at the unit level can never be over-emphasised, and without a systematic, result-oriented evaluation, the entire training task is doomed to fail. Personnel assigned to conduct the evaluation process need to be in high command of the behavioural skills and expertise so badly needed in this respect and should always be kept up-dated with the latest developments in the field through seminars and intensive courses with other people in the profession to ensure commitment, professionalism, interest and consistency.

g] The insufficiency of training resources was seen to be a major impediment obstructing training activities and impeding optimal effectiveness. However, scrutiny into the detailed figures reflected an air of optimism indicated by the growing awareness on the part of the training executives interviewed to the nature and scope of the problem. Earnest willingness was expressed to offer help and support to the efforts addressing the issues discussed on the part of management if someone was willing to do so and that was seen to be a healthy sign that would assist any remedial action. Proper diagnosis - it is rightly said - is half way to remedy illnesses. One significant contribution

for this study predicted by the author would be to sensitise the agencies surveyed and the training executives interviewed to the importance of the issues discussed and that would hopefully help prioritise them further more and thus push them further up in the decision-makers' agenda.

h] On the positive side, the up-grading of the Diwan of Personnel Affairs (DPA) into a full-fledged Ministry and bringing in the local Institute of Public Administration (IPA) more closer to the newly established Ministry, effectively brings in good news for training organisation and structure in the public sector. Hence, better coordination and more effecient communication are eminent in the foreseeable future insofar as needs assessment, objective formulation, proper programme design and closer follow-up for the given training.

There are already several indications that a general more thorough assessment is underway to examine the role of government administrative training in the light of the more pressing issues posed by the urge to accelerate the indiginisation process and to enforce the effeciency criteria in the public office.

13.3. Training Evaluation in the Civil Service.

Twenty courses were purposfully selected for the evaluation of management and supervisory training in the Omani civil service. Thirteen courses were organised by the Omani Institute of Public Administration (IPA) while the other seven were taken to represent management training conducted by other government units. Of the seven courses, three were in health administration, another three for auditing management while the last course was organised for the Omani

social workers.

The twenty courses in entirety, were conducted throughout the callender year 1987; all were off-the-job, and meant to address management and supervisory skills for government public employees. The total of two hundred and thirty three participants have eventually responded successfully by filling in the lengthy questionnaires designed for the purpose. Part of the questionnaire addressed training related changes in organisational setting and has employed before and after design inorder to ascertain the changes attributed to the given programme by comparing pre-training and post-training results in areas of attitudinal changes, skill acquisition as well as knowledge and information gains.

Trainees' immediate supervisors assessmentsof their fellow employees were also expedited on before and after design so as to consolidate findings by comparing and contrasting responses of the two parties.

Training organisors' assessments were also explored so as to capture the evaluation process from as many angles and dimensions possible to further enrich and complement findings. For the purpose, the researcher has also attended-on full-time bases-two programmes as a participant observer inorder to establish first hand assessment of training proceedings as well as the manner course design was effectively operationalised.

In the course of data collection and analysis, a blend of quantitative as well as qualitative techniques were employed. Insofar as objectives were concerned, the major purpose of the research was to conduct an assessment of the current training and evaluation practices

for civil servants and to explore whether or not management and supervisory training in the public sector have realised their stated objectives.

For organisation purpose, the twenty prgrammes assessed were organised into eight programme groups. The grouping process was intended to highlight the particular differnces demonstrated by groups in the evaluation process. Group formation was dictated, in genaral by area-specific on the one hand and by units organising the given training. The eight programme groups were as follows; 1) Personnel 2) Finance 3)Local Government 4) Organisation & Methods (O & M) 5) Clerical 6) Hospital Administration 7) Auditing Management and finally, 8) Social Workers. The purpose, hence, was to incorporate almost all walks of administrative training whose subsequent results can only assisst policy makers and training activists in either improving the quality of training thus enhancing the ultimate value worthiness of training and by introducing, through proper evaluation practices a self-correcting training in a country characterised by acute shortage of qualified manpower resources where policy makers hinge so much hope upon training and development efforts to bridge the gap.

To evaluate training, a rather lengthy process was pursued. To capture the influence demographic factors may or may not have on the actual outcome of training programmes, an extensive investigation was conducted into the background variables of training participants so as to project the many interrelated dimensions of those concerned. Of the background variables assessed were the general state of organisational preparededness perceived by the respondents to be supportive and systematised in the training context.

A handsome majority of the respondents has manifestly indicated that along the dimensions put forth to test, perceptions deducted were in favour of the interpretation that parent organisations were in fact in pretty organised state of affairs insofar as their members' training was concerned.

For training to realise objectives, individuals' recognition of their needs is seen eminant. Therefore, and to relate the given training to participants' percieved need was explored next. Such need was measured along four dimensions; a) source of course suggestion, b) whether any form of prior discussion has taken place before training assignment, c) whether or not there exists a reporting mechanism upon training conclusion, and finally and more importantly, d) whether trainees were initially motivated.

In response, the majority has effectively confirmed that it was their superiors who set the training agenda for them whereas a convincing majority of more than two-thirds has sought training in the light of perceived gains as a result of the brief discussion they have had with either their superiors or personnel officers.

None-the-less, lengthy discussions with superiors prior the training assignment was not seen to be an established practice and when it happens its more of a formality and hence less fruitful. More than one half of sample members have indicated that they need not report back upon training completion. An indication of a state of indifference to say the least, on the part of management clearly observed by training recipients. A general end-of-course report filed by training organisors is far too general to capture the individual differences, is known to

be the norm.

To establish the motivational standpoint of training recipient is of no little relevance since it makes little sense to attempt to train those who are unconvinced of its relevance and are not sure about its contents and hence sceptical about its personal value. A resounding majority of nearly 90 per cent has conceded that they have attended the course against their recognition of their individual needs. To further explore the bases for such claim, individual's perception of their understanding for the underlying reasons for them to be assigned for a training course was assessed next. In response, different interpretations surfaced. A handsome majority has indicated that they have been assigned for training as an expression of a systematic training and development policy on the part of their parent organisations therefore, management was seen to believe in the value of training. Respondents were adamant in rejecting the implication that their presence in a course was simply a coincidence. An overwhelming majority has reaffirmed their stance that they are attending training plainly on the grounds of perceived subsequent gains, be they promotional to ones' own performance or as a vehicle for advancement in ones' organisational status.

Respondents were not so emphatic in relation to the value of the course as a remedial tool for poor performance, hence the notion that management and supervisory training in the public sector was seen to be developmental in nature and not designed to remedy performance ailments as their immediate outcome.

A convincing majority of more than two-thirds ha acknowledged the fact that the training they underwent was in fact job-specific

therefore, it was viewed by respondents to be a must for any holder of the job. An exploratory factor analysis for the seven perceived reasons has produced three factors with factor loading results confirming the earlier findings.

13.3.a.Course Evaluation.

Once the general background variables were assessed, evaluation proceeded into course specifics. Course specifics were not meant to touch upon the very course particulars; i.e.curriculum, contents and the like, but rather the more general pedagogical aspects were expedited. Respondents' perception of the adequacy and effectiveness of training techniques employed by trainers in getting the training across their audience was explored. Respondents have shown no sign of discontent with the methods employed, hence, they rated rather highly all the methods in use. However, such air of consent was not expressed as strongly and equally in each and every case. Special emphasis was placed on the lecture method as well as group discussions. The general consensus shared by pedagogical experts in the training scene, as mentioned earlier, is that the lecture method is the least effective training style particularly in the areas of attitude formation as well as skill acquisition. Persistence and wide use of the lecture method may well be interpreted in the light that the majority of courses assessed have involved basically knowledge and informations giving on the one hand while the relatively low scholastic background of the bulk of the participants have had an influence on method's choice. The expectations of trainees with low educational background is to make up for it and bridge the felt gap via training hence favouring the more traditional approaches and in effect discouraging the more learner centred styles.

Practical work done in groups was rated as *the one* best most effective method used by trainers flanked by the good old lecture method while group discussion ranked third.

To establish the weight of training techniques employed in the courses on respondents' perception of objective realisation, discriminant function analysis with stepwise option was utilised. As a result, the lecture method has demonstrated a high coeffecience value in the process of group formation trailed by practical work though with considerably lower value. Admiration for the lecture method was also evident in the subsequent trainers' assessment but as it happens, trainers in many cases employ the technique with which they are mostly familiar.

13.3.b. Immediate Reaction.

Evaluation then moves to capture respondents' immediate reaction as a form of an assessment of the course. Research findings indicate that trainees' immediate course reaction is one of euphoria and joy. Joyce (1978) names data gathered at this stage of assessment as 'happiness data'. Hence caution is recommended against any misconstrued conclusions. Admittedly so, yet perceptual data in the evaluation context is inevitable and is in effect the inaugural link in the whole chain. If trainees did not enjoy the programme they have attended in the first place, then the chances are no subsequent benefits could be accrued from it.

Twelve evaluatory statements were projected as indicators of the many dimensions of respondents' immediate reaction. The statements pinpointed the following aspects: 1] course objectives' clarity, 2]

programme suitability for individual needs, 3] suitability for work specific needs, 4] adequacy and relevance of programme contents, 5] language clarity, 6] participants' homogeneity and appropriateness of their expertise and educational background, 7] courses' theory and practice balance, 8] efficiency of programme duration, 9] programme enjoyability, 10] trainers' effectiveness, and finally, 11] whether or not the programme was perceived to have realised its stated objectives.

Responses were positive in general. On objective clarity, a resounding majority of more than 95 per cent were in accord while on programmes' suitability for individuals' needs the majority have fallen to 74 per cent raising to 83 per cent on the suitability for job-specific needs. Both issues of contents' adequacy and relevance as well language clarity were viewed highly with the majority well above 90 per cent. The points of participants' background and experience were rated again favourably yet respondents have declined to show the same amount of enthusiasm to rate them as highly as they did on the previous dimensions.

On the point of theory and practice balance, respondents were less forceful in demonstrating their satisfaction. But the general mode was again in favour that the courses have stroke the right amount of balance between theory and practice. The only manifestly negative assessment was given in commenting on programmes' duration. The majority have changed sides on the scale.

When the issue of programmes' being an enjoyable experience, a convincing majority of more than 86 per cent have expressed their satisfaction, so was respondents' judgment on their trainers'

performance. The final point probed had to do with objective realisation. In response, trainees have indicated a slight reluctance where nearly 16 per cent were sceptics besides the 2 per cent dissatisfiers. But all in all, sample members in their pretty convincing majority have demonstrated satisfaction.

13.3.c.Programme Enjoyability and Demographic Variables.

Several of the personal characteristics of the respondents were used as independent variables to assess their influence in the subsequent group formation in the context of programme enjoyablility. The purpose was to try to ascertain whether or not certain personal characteristics can be used as predictor variables in a given courses' subsequent results. For the purpose, six of the personal variables were involved in the discriminant analysis. They are; respondents' gender, age, organisational status, tenure, educational qualifications and finally financial grade.

In conclusion, four of the personal variables have demonstrated significant influence in discriminating amongst sample groups in relation to programme enjoyability. The highest influence detected was that of tenure with a perfect 1.0 coeffecience trailed by scholastic background, organisational status and finally respondents' gender. Understandably, participants' length of service is of no little relevance in shaping training recipients' perception. People learn to enjoy and cope better with their anxiety and stressful situations, so they may not come to a course with much high expectations. on the other hand, educational qualifications brings in a sense of vision, broadmindedness, depth as well as feeling secure. Ahanotu (1982) has found managerial effectiveness to correlate positively with managers'

education so did Fortune magazine (May 1978) in a survey of some 3615
to assess managers' promotability.

13.3.d.End-of-course Evaluation:Perceived Benefits.

Respondents' immediate as well as foreseeable course related gains
were explored next. The purpose is to ascertain why trainees have rated
their respective courses the way they did and the underlying reason for
its success. It appears useful, at this stage, to compare respondents'
earlier perception of perceived reasons to be on a course with their
perceived benefits.

Noteworthy is the fact that trainees come to a course with their own
either overt or covert agenda which may prove to be a total mismatch
with that of trainers as well as management in parent organisation,
hence, the justification of this part of investigation.

Perceptions of accrued benefits were assessed through seven
statements on a five point scale. The mode of responses, in sum, was
explicitly positive except in one area where respondents were resentful
of the notion that the benefit they sought by attending a course was by
staying off the job thus breaking monotonous routine daily work. Such
resentment can only be understood as defensive. One legitimate purpose
of management training is the provision of an outlet to ensure that
managers do not reach a state dysfunctional stress by constructively
reducing tension through training.

None-the-less, potential training candidates' expectations and
motives are extremely relevant and helpful in the course of assessment
of training needs prior to course design if expectations are to be met
or handled with care to avoid subsequent disappointments.

The many dimensions assessed in the process of course-specific evaluation as well as perceived benefits were next factor analysed in an exploratory fashion. Six factors were extracted and subsequently given a general mostly related name indicating the prevalent trend. The first factor incorporated five variables interrelated to represent respondents' course related immediate reaction. Factor two grouped the variables related to programme suitability to trainees' needs whilst Factor three has clustered respondents' perception of the immediate gains anticipated in the context of likely job impacts. Participants' background appropriateness were brought together by the interconnectedness of the variables clustered in factor four whereas factor five incorporated the conference aspect needs of the responding trainees. Finally factor six tackled the refresher element of the course.

13.3.e. On the Problem of Transferribility

Humble (1973:83) asserts the fact that," In training we are attempting to enable individuals or groups to modify their behaviour. The aim is to ensure that they are able and willing to contribute substantially to the achievement of the goals of the organisation of which they are members". Therefore, to identify potential barriers to change upon course conclusion once trainees are back to work is to come across an invaluable piece of information that could assist in cushioning trainees' worries, anxieties and potential troubles lying ahead.

To serve this end, the total of ten potential obstacles that may withstand respondents' intention to introduce training prompted change were posed in the form of statements on a five point scale. The

statements were meant to incorporate House's theory of 'social influences' on the successful transfer of learning. These influences are: a) the formal authority system, b) trainees' immediate superiors, c) trainees' peers, colleagues and immediate subordinates.

The influence of these three circles is of no little relevance either in posing the initial inhibitions that carries on even during the course or conversely enabling trainees to introduce change thus reducing unnecessary tension by matching intentions with real life situation hence the smooth realisation of training objectives.

Respondents were initially found to be well intentioned towards introducing change with a majority of two-thirds postulating the matter of introducing change to be facile which is rather confusing. Anticipating no difficulties in one's quest for change is everything but realistic thus disguises a degree of naivety and a further testimony of the sample's earlier good intentions. The degree with which respondents have perceived the introduction of change was found to correlate positively with respondents initial intention to introduce change. The results have proven a high statistical significance of 0.001.

None-the-less, scrutiny into perceived potential sources of difficulties ahead demystifies the vagueness envisaged above. It was found that more than two-thirds of the sample have considered the lack of superiors' support as one possible barrier to change. Nearly one half of the respondents thought of their colleagues as non-supportive while another 46 per cent have contemplated their subordinates as withholding support. Other personal factors have had their share too.

More than 43 per cent have considered their insufficient know how and time constraints to be a possible foreseeable constraint. While little more than one-third questioned their own personal drive and interest, more than 41 per cent were hesitant to introduce change for fear of undesirable consequences. Interestingly, the rigidity of organisational rules and inflexible regulations were recognised to be the source of difficulties, only one-third has concluded that change, in essence, is conceived to be unwanted.

Finally, respondents' initial intention to apply change as a dependent variable was assessed against their recognition of potential barriers. Discriminant function analysis was employed to determine which of the barriers did influence respondents' intention thus influencing group formation. From the entire twelve obstacle, six appeared to demonstrate statistical significance, thus discriminating amongst group members. Those barriers were in order of importance, lack of colleagues' support, the lack of subordinates' support, insufficient know-how, insufficient time and finally the general recognition that change is unwanted.

To tell of respondents' perception of the ease of applying change was also tested against the given obstacles. Four of the obstacles, this time, have demonstrated significant influence. These obstacles were, lack of superiors' support, insufficient know-how as well as the general perception that change is unwanted.

In conclusion, the need for a high level of congruence between parent organisations' code of practice, established norm as well as supportive rules and regulations for the incoming programme graduate to

demonstrate the skills he ·acquired and the attitudinal patterns he developed and to try out the new ideas in job setting is of crucial importance. On the other hand, trainers and training organisors need to attach higher emphasis than they currently do and prove more sensitive to the problems lying ahead therefore avoid raising hopes and high expectations.

13.4.Trainers' Perspective.

In order to determine the influence both external and internal constraints may have on trainers' handling of course proceedings, several areas were expedited. One major area diagnosed is the general features of strategy formulation of the training intervention. The purpose is to tell whether or not trainers have control over thus the potential impact such loss of control has on course design and the stated objectives.

Trainers were found, generally speaking, to have reasonable control over course design, the size of the group, course duration, curriculum development and the ultimate choice of the training method but with varied degrees of certainty.

Few of the aspects mentioned above, were finally brought within trainers' control only as a result involving some form of compromise many a times at the expense of the training intervention itself.

Courses assessed, as reported by trainers were characterised, in their majority, to have emphasis on areas of knowledge and information giving and correspondingly the choice of lecture method as widely as was reported can now be understood.

Trainers remained helpless in determining rather specifically the entry characteristics of their trainees, and hence they feel they have

no say in their initial needs assessment process of which they feel they should have. In the evaluation context, trainers also consider their involvement in the actual evaluation and follow-up as indispensable but highly improbable on both grounds, legal, where they feel they might infringe upon organisational territories on the one hand, and acute staff shortage in the training institutions involved, on the other.

Trainers' morale was found to be low,particularly indigenous ones, where present pay scales, fringe benefits and service regulations offer very little attraction to thrive on. Institutional hurdles and other administrative complexities, unnecessary dysfunctional competition play a great deal in demoralising trainers.

Trainers also seem to have reached at a stage where they feel they dried out, overburdened with a host of other responsibilities, mostly administrative which they say they can positively do without. They call for an immediate remedial action if things are to remain in the proper perspective. They call for prompt consolidation of staffs' sense of belonging by furnishing the necessary service regulation, a more efficient job description, more thoughtful consideration to the needs analysis process, and more functional course design , more research into the worthiness of training interventions and of course recruitment of more qualified staff.

13.5. Evaluation of Results in Actual Job Setting.

Performance improvement once trainees are back on their job is at the heart of the evaluation process. There, the measurement of performance improvements is primarily concerned with three broad areas

training is meant to address; whether training programmes have in essence succeeded in improving the knowledge, skills and the attitudes they so desired. To serve this end, the research has sought to assess training related changes in actual job setting by employing a before and after questionnaire design for the trainees to react to only after the programmes have come to conclusion. Similar questionnaire was also addressed to the trainees' immediate supervisors in order to establish consistency by comparing and contrasting the two parties assessment of the former hence giving some form of credence and validity to trainees' judgments of their performance standards.

The questionnaires for both parties have both consisted of the same areas of interrogations. There were sixteen before and after statements addressing the three areas mentioned earlier. Questions were then grouped in the light of the dimensions they are meant to measure. Seven questions were intended to measure performance improvements in areas of behavioural and attitudinal changes. The behavioural dimensions assessed are:

a) Forthcomingness, objectivity and ability to work as team member.
b) Problem solving competence and the ability to work autonomously.
c) Motivator to fellow peers and subordinates.
d) Ability to organise, assign and delegate authority.
e) Creativity and the ability to take initiatives.
g) Flexibility in dealing with rules and regulations.

In the areas of skill acquisition, six dimensions were addressed; they were:
a) Setting operational priorities.
b) Diagnostic skills.
c) Fulfillment of work commitments and meeting deadlines.
d) Coordination skills.
e) Persuasiveness and convincing ability especially to management.
f) Ability to assess training needs and design plans to meet those

needs.

While in the areas of knowledge and information gains, three general statements were provided as follows:

a) Assimilation of organisational goals and objectives.
b) Level of knowledge, information and other skills in general.
c) Knowledge of O & M techniques and their possible applications.

Respondents were requested to rate their performance standards on the dimensions suggested as perceived prior to the training intervention and then to rate them in the post training era now that they are back on the job. Responses were urged on a five point scale. Responses were then analysed at sample level and then at programme group level.

13.5.a.Behavioural Gains.

Responses of both trainees and their immediate superiors as demonstrated by group means on 'before' and 'after' levels, have depicted a high level of consistency. Both parties seemed to see eye-to-eye of trainees' assessment of their performance standards prior to the training intervention. A general accord, at sample level, was also evident in the post training assessment of training related performance improvements. With slight reported variation amongst the two parties judgements on two of the seven dimension assessed, the general pattern is one of evident progress. The t-values deducted have shown an overall statistical significance in the two tail probability test thus allowing the researcher to claim that marked progress on the attitudinal dimensions tested attributed to the training programmes.

13.5.b.Skill Acquisition.

The resemblance detected in the areas assessed in the pre-training

stage between the two parties is remarkable particularly in the first four dimensions of skill acquisition. The inconsistencies detected on the fifth dimension were basically due to trainees' underestimation of their persuasive competence as opposed to that of their superiors.

Comparing the two means in the post training assessment has disclosed, yet again, a general consistent pattern. The two parties have acknowledged remarkable progress associated with the training programmes along the six dimensions. When each party's responses were t-tested on before and after level, the t-values deducted have proven remarkably significant hence enabling the researcher to strongly pronounce training related progress in the areas measured.

13.5.c.Knowledge Gains.

Among the three areas scrutinised, knowledge gains have demonstrated the highest harmony insofar as the two parties' assessments were concerned, particularly so in the pre-training rating process. Most interesting is the two parties' coherence in their assessment of trainees' assimilation of organisational goals and objectives. The same proportionate gains were apparent in the post training ratings. The t-values projected have once again shown statistical significance hence the evidence of significant progress attributed to training.

13.6. Evaluation; the day after.

Warr et al. (1970:10) assert that ' Evaluation is not something which gets tagged on to the end of a training programme more or less as an afterthought. To be effective, it needs to be carefully built into the programme, systematic plans have to be worked out well before the training takes place.' Cronbach (1977:1) laments the fact that,'

evaluation is not rendering the service it should' he puts the blame on,'those who commission, conduct, and use evaluation who do not have a coherent, comprehensive concept of evaluation,' but that is not all; he continues,'Legislatures, statisticians, managers, psychologists, and all the rest of us, who play evaluation roles have our several conceptions.'.

What then of reliability , Kirkpatrick (1959) puts it eloquently but rather depressingly, that in the evaluation quest, evaluation results cannot be borrowed so as to befit another situation. There is no other identical situation in the training process. What can be borrowed, however, is the methodology, evaluation techniques, albeit with constant modifications so as to respond to the demands of the given situation, there and then, and accommodate those demands. Stake (1967:539) reiterates that the main aim of evaluation is non other than purposeful data gathering, he says,' The countenance of evaluation should be one of data gathering that leads to decision making, not trouble making'. Training, hence, is situation bound; a unique experience that can never have an identical replay, more so in management and supervisory training.

Stirred by the question whether management training really pays off; in response, Koontz and O'Donnell (1964) admitted then that given the current state of knowledge, '..it must be confessed that no one knows.' They emphasisethe need for constant research to resolve the dilemma. Goldestein (1974:67) stresses the fact that ,'..training analysts who expect results to lead to a value or no-value judgement are unrealistically imposing a simplistic structure and are raising false expectations among the recipients and sponsors of training research.'.

Stufflebeam et al.(1971) emphasised the fact that ,'The purpose of evaluation is not to prove but to improve.'

Rakham & Morgan (1977:10) pondered on the question raised in the context of evaluation research and reiterated that in realistic terms,'..evaluation should be used to create self-correcting system: that is , to provide data for the continuous *improvement* of training.' The authors disapprove with the current practice which is so prevalent that envisages evaluation as conducive to a proof of the success or otherwise of training.

On the issue of measurement of training results Hesseling (1973) points out that,' The assumption that the training programmes must have completely measurable results and that the measurement must be perfectly accurate and comprehensive is as erroneous as the assumption that the results of training programmes cannot be measured.' Humble (1973:325) stresses the point that there is little evidence, for example, about the lasting nature of behaviour change, and that sometimes encouraging improvements fade away quite undramatically over a period of time. Hence, the author advocates considering measurement of improvements and the whole evaluation process as a continuous process.

Following similar line of argument, Moscow (1969), speaking of the influence of interpersonal variables on the subsequent transfer of learning, reports Schein and Bennis arguing that long run stability of change can take place only as the newly acquired attitudes and behavioural patterns are 'relationally refrozen' by their confirmation from people important to the trainee in the organisation. He concludes

that '..the degree to which fade-out results occurs, if the new attitudes and behaviour are disconfirmed,will depend on the degree to which the change are 'personal refrozen'; i.e. integrated into the rest of the persons' attitude and personality traits.' Something that this particular research in its time budget as well as other constraints is definitely unable to claim to have achieved.

13.7. The Reliability of Data.

Extensive efforts were made to cross validate data by incorporating as many devices as the researcher could afford to use given the many pressing constraints. Interviews, both structured as well as unstructured were conducted with policy makers, policy implementors, high ranking training and personnel officers trainers and training organisors and the like in the quest for authentic first hand data with no air of authority, no provocations and no intimidation. Observation was employed through the researcher's presence in a selected number of training programmes as a participant observer on full-time bases so as to capture, again first hand, the very nature of the interactions taking place inside the training sessions and to assess how training designs were operationalised.

Questionnaires were handed in the majority of the cases in person with all the necessary clarification. Many of the questionnaires were handed in immediately after programme conclusion on the training premises. Others were received by hand in their organisation and were followed up with telephone calls. Only the supervisors were approached through their fellow subordinates who were requested to brief them in the event queries were raised. Never-the-less, a copy of the specific programme itinaries and objectives were attached for easy reference.

Documents, government records were duly and frequently consulted.

In the case of assessment of performance standards in the before and after design, care was taken to further validate trainees' perceptual judgments of their performance standards by contrasting and comparing responses of trainees along side their immediate superiors to ensure reliability of responses.

Yet, in the before and after design, it would have been ideal to get in touch with prospective training candidates prior to the training assignment so as to rate their performance standards then. Similarly, unified as well as sufficient time ideally must have been provided in the post-training rating. That regretfully was far from being plausible since the twenty programmes assessed were in fact stretched over the entire callander year with practically no way of telling who is assigned to what programme before hand. Yet, such practice in the before and after design is far from being unique in the literature surveyed.

On the other hand, respondents were demonstrating their perceptual reactions; which some would claim that it may or may not tell the real thing. To that, the answer is strongly based on the phenomenological premise where the subjective experience of a given individual is a valid source of knowledge about the phenomenom under investigation (Madut 1986). Hence, ones' subjective interpretation as well as the behaviour are conceived to be inseparable. The subjective nature of the individual's experience for the phenomenologist is conceived as a social interpersonal understanding. Thus, given the fact that each individual experience is unique there exists a basic experimental structure amongst all individuals. In Madut's words, 'It is from this

universal reality that multiple reality exists'.

Perception is the only benchmark the researcher has had at hand in the pursuit of research objectives. Relevant at this point is the following citation from Max Weber's" The Methodology of Social Sciences." about the objective validity of social research (1949):

'Objective validity of all empirical knowledge rests exclusively upon the ordering of a given reality according to categories which are subjective in a specific sense, namely in that they present the presuppositions of our knowledge and are based on the presuppositions of the value of those truths which empirical knowledge alone is able to give us.'

But, all said and done, the researcher has every reason to believe that respondents were, at certain points, hesitant to criticise or pronounce sharp comments to the extent that they may be understood to be highly critical. That is only understood in the cultural setting. To criticise, is to violate some sort of a social contract and by so doing one demonstrates one form or another of ingratitude. People are too timid to do just that. This attitude may have influenced, one way or another, respondents' evaluatory comments. Although there is no way to tell for certain that this has been the case, never-the-less, whenever caution was understood to be necessary in interpreting results, the researcher has endeavored to make it clear by drawing the readers' attention.

13.8.Comments on Sample Selection.

The choice of the sample was dictated by the very nature of the study. The researcher has put as much pressure as possible to squeeze in as many middle management and supervisory training programmes for

Omani civil servants organised by either the local Institute of Public

Administration (IPA) or from other government units at large. The

purpose was to have the widest possible exposure to different arms and

segments of public service. No area was spared. Hospital

administration, auditing management, finance officers, personnel

officers, training specialists, public relation officers, local

government staff, municipal officers, social workers, senior clerks and

many many more were included in the sample.

The aim was primarily to ensure the widest possible representation

of the civil service executive training so that generalisation could

become a possibility. Yet there is no way that one could generalise.

Every training programme is a unique occurrence so is its evaluation

results. What is generalisable is the methodology and the

methodological considerations, in short the evaluation techniques;

whereas the resultant evaluation data can best be used to correct

training designs, modify objectives reconsider areas of emphasis and

other interrelated contextual matters. On the other hand, the sample was

found to be extremely diverse and widely dissimilar. For the sample to

be dissimilar is both a merit and a demerit. Areas of demerit stem from

the fact that many variables are to be treated with caution and care.

Entry characteristics into a given training programme are far from

being the same. Age groups, education and work experience were among

the widest heterogenious areas particularly at programme level. This

has been discussed in sufficient details in the context of the

research.

On the positive side, such diversity has produced an added wealth of

data to that already at hand. The researcher had the opportunity to

incorporate as many angles as those individual differences have brought forth.

None-the-less, a given level of homogeneity pertaining to participants' entry characteristics has had positive impacts in the course proceedings. Trainers have found it to be a rewarding experience while trainees demonstrated a higher level of congruence between expectations and actual results.

Among the courses that have shown higher levels of incongruence were the ones that were characterised with excessive heterogeneity insofar as the scholastic background and the courses whose participants' locus and status in the organisational hierarchy were relatively low. More homogeneity in terms of participants' entry characteristics appears to have been favoured by all parties if better results are sought.

The huge and extensive range of government employees who qualify for a supervisory and managerial definition poses certain difficulties. For future considerations, research into the effectiveness of managerial and supervisory training in the public sector ought to consider the problem of such wide heterogeniety by prior imposi tion of certain added limitations; be they scholastic background or other qualifications so as to ensure that all factors are considered as realistically as well as objectively as possible.

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APPENDIX (A)

TRAINING POLICY AND PRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE

A.1.Covering letters
A.2 Arabic Version
A.3.English Version

Sultanate of Oman

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND YOUTH AFFAIRS

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

سلطنة عمان
وزارة التربية والتعليم وشؤون الشباب

الرقم: ١٦/ ٨٧
التاريخ: ١٤.. / ٤/ ٨٧ج.. و الموان

Ref. : ....\.. ....

Date . ...

الي من يهمه الامر
=================

تـشهد دائرا الدراسات العليـا ومتـابعـا التـدريب بالمديريا العامـا
للبـعثـات والعلاقـات الخارجيـا / وزارا التـربيـا والتعليم والشـاب بــان
الفاظل / مهدى بـن احمـد بن جفر يحضر لنيل درجا الدكتوراه في مجال الادارا
العامـا بجامعا غلاسجو بالمملكا المتحدا .
ولاغراض تـوفيـر مستلزمات مادا السحث في مجال التخصص الرجاء تقديم
كل مـاعدا ممكنا لتسهيل مهمته .

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم ،،،،،

وتفظلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام،،

٨٧/ ٤
١٤

سعود بن محمد

مدير دائرا الدراسات العليا ومتابعا التدريب

" بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم "

_____

الاخ الزميل / الاخـت   المحـترم

تحية طيبة ... وبعـد ،

أصبح من الامور المسلم بها الدور الحيوي الذي يلعبه التدريب في تنميـة الموارد البشرية اجمالا وتطوير قدرات الافراد على وجه الخصوص وصولا الــــــى مستويـات افضل وارقى للاداء وبالتالي تحقيق الاهداف على مستوى الاجهـــــــزة والمؤسسات بشكل افضل كما ونوعا ، ولاجل ذلك فـان الاستثمار الجيد للـتدريب يتمثل في حسن الاعداد والتخطيط له بحيث يـاتي ملبيا لمتطلبات العمل الحاليـــة والمستقبلية في اية مؤسسة وتاسيسا على ذلك ، فـان المسؤولين عن الانشطـــــة التدريبية يمثلون حجر الزاوية في تنظيم مثل هذا النشاط والعمل على يأتي التدريب ملبيا لكل متطلبات العمل ويخدم اهداف الجهاز الذي به يعملون .

ولاجل ذلك ، وبهدف التعرف على واقع التدريب في الاجهزة والمؤسســـــات الحكومية ، نتوجه بهذا الاستقصاء راجين تعاونكم في توفير البيانات الـلازمة والتكرم باعادته الينا .

شاكرين حسن اهتمامكم ...

وتفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحـــترام ،،،

مهدي بن احمد بن جعفــر

ملاحظــــــــــات :

_____

ـ الرجاء عدم ذكر الاسم .

ـ الرجاء الاجابة على جميع الاسئلــة .

ـ الرجاء اضافة اي معلومات او بيانات اضافية لايتسع المجال لاضافتها علـــى ظهر اوراق الاستقصـــاء .

١) بيانات شخصـــية :

أ – المسمى الوظيفـــي ....

ب – الدرجة المالية / الفئة ....

٢) نظام التدريب بالجهـــة :

أ – هل تقوم الجهة باعداد خطة لتدريب العاملين بمختلف التخصصات ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم فما هي هذه التخصصات ...؟

☐ مجموعة وظائف التنظيم والادارة .

☐ مجموعة الوظائف الكتابيـــة .

☐ مجموعة الوظائف الفنيـــة .

ب – هل يتم تصنيف المتدربين على اساس المستويات الادارية العليا والوسطـــى
والمباشــــرة نعم ☐ لا ☐

جـ – هل يتم التركيز في هذه الفترة على مستويات ادارية دون غيرها ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

اذا كان الجواب (نعم) فما هي هذه المستويات ... ؟

....

....

٣) ادارة التدريـــب :

أ – هل توجد وحدة تنظيمية للتدريب ؟.. نعم ☐ لا ☐

ب – ماهو المستوى التنظيمي لها ادارة عامة ☐ ادارة ☐ قسم ☐ لايوجـد ☐
وتتبع شئون الموظفـــين .

جـ – ماهو الموقع التنظيمي لها ان وجدت ؟..

☐ تتبع رئيس الجهـــة .

☐ تتبع ادارة الشئون الادارية .

☐ تتبع ادارة التنظيم والترتيب .

☐ تتبع ادارة شئون الموظفـــين .

☐ تتبع الشئون الادارية والمالية .

☐ تتبع جهة اخرى ، الرجاء ذكرها ....

د ـ عدد العاملين بالوحدة يبلغ ....شخصـــا .

م	مسمـــى الوظيفـــة	المؤهل العلمي الفعلي لشـــاغلهــــا	الدرجة الماليـة

٤) الاحتياجات التدريبيـــــة :

أ ـ ماهو الاسلوب الذي تتبعه الجهة عند حصر احتياجاتها التدريبية ٠٠؟

ضع علامة (✓) امام الاسلوب او الاساليب التي تتبعها الجهة عند اعــداد

هذا الحصـــر ٠٠٠٠

☐ الاتصال بالادارات مباشرة لتحديد احتياجاتها التدريبية دون الدخول فـــي
تفصيلات كيفية اعداد تلك الاحتياجات ٠

☐ دراسة التغيرات الوظيفية مثل : التعيين ـ النقل ـ الترقيــــة ٠

☐ الاتصال بادارة شئون الافراد للاطلاع على التقارير وبطاقات وصف الوظيفـــة
والتقارير السنوية للاداء لتحديد اوجه الحاجة الى التدريب لتحسين الاداء ٠

☐ دراسة الشكاوي ، الغياب المستمر ، الحالة المعنوية ، اختناقات العمـــل ،
شكاوي المواطنين المتعاملين مع الاجهزة المختلفة ٠٠٠٠٠٠ الخ ٠

☐ وضع خطة الاحتياجات دون العودة الى تقارير الاداء انما الاكتفاء بســـؤال
الموظفين عن احتياجاتهم للتدريب ٠

☐ اساليب اخرى ، الرجاء ذكرهـــا ٠

٥) التخطيـــــط للتدريـــــب :

١ ـ هل توجد خطة للتدريب ٠٠؟   نعم ☐   ☐ لا

٢ ـ اذا كانت الاجابة (بنعم)

خطة التدريب المتبعـــة :

☐ سنويـــــة ٠

☐ كل سنتين .

☐ كل ثلاثة سنوات .

☐ غيرها الرجاء ذكرهــــــا

....

....

٣ ــ هل تفي الخطة بكافة متطلبات التدريب الاداري منها والفني ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٤ ــ هل توجد خطة منفصلة للتدريب الاداري ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٥ ــ هل تجدون ان التدريب في الجوانب الادارية المختلفة مجديا ويعود بالفائـــدة

على . العمـــــل ...؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٦ ــ ماهي الجهات التي يستعان بها في اعداد الخطـــة .

☐ معهد الادارة العامـــــة .

☐ ديوان شؤون الموظفـــــين .

☐ المعهد والديــوان معـــا .

☐ لايستعــان بأحــــد .

☐ جهات اخري الرجاء تحديدهـا ...

....

....

٧ ــ هل تجدون ان اسلوب وضع الخطة يحقق اهداف التدريب ويتسم بالفاعليـــــة

المطلوبـــــة ....؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

اذا كان الجواب (لا) فهل تذكرون الاســـباب ...

....

....

٨ ــ هل تتسم الخطة بالمرونة الكافية بما يسمح بتعديلها اثنـــــــــاء

تنفيذهــــــا .... ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٩ ــ اذا لم تكن هناك خطة محددة للتدريب فكيف يتم تدريب العاملـين :

☐ عن طريق عرض برامج التدريب المتاحة للراغبـين .

☐ من خلال الاستجابة لطلبات الموظفين الفرديـــــة .

☐ من خلال التعرف على الموقف الذي يستلزم التدريب في حينه وعقد برامج خاصــة

كلما استلزم الامر ذلــــك .

☐ اية وسائل اخرى الرجاء ذكرهــا ...

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٦) الامكانيات التدريبية المتاحة بالجهـــة :

أ ــ تمويل التدريـــب :

- هل يوجد بند خاص في موازنة الجهة لتمويل التدريب ؟٠٠ نعم ☐ لا ☐

- اذا لم يكن هناك بند مخصص بالموازنة لتمويل التدريب نعم ☐ لا ☐
  هل يتم التمويل نقلاً من بنود اخرى بموازنة ميست الوحدة ؟

- هل تكفي هذه المبالغ لتمويل التدريــــــــب ؟ نعم ☐ لا ☐

٧) تتولى الجهة تدريب موظفيها في المجالات الادارية المختلفـــة :

☐ بنفسها عن طريق ورش عمل او دورات مكثفة تعقدها بمعرفتها كلما كان ذلك ممكنا ٠

☐ ايفادهم لتلقى دورات تدريبية في الخارج طالما تسمح الموازنة بذلك ٠

☐ تدريبهم محليا عن طريق مؤسسات تدريب محلية خاصة تتقاضى اجرا ٠

☐ تدريبهم في معهد الادارة العامــة بمسقط ٠

☐ غير ذلك من السبل ، الرجاء التكرم بذكرها :

٠٠٠

٠٠٠

٨) هل يوجد بالجهة حوافز للمتدربــــــين ؟٠٠ نعم ☐ لا ☐

اذا كانت الاجابة (نعم) فأي من الطرق التالية تتبعها الجهة ٠٠٠ ؟

☐ مكافآت مالية للمتفوقـــــــين ٠

☐ علاوات استثنائيــــــــة ٠

☐ بنشر اسمائهم بلوحة الاعلانات ٠

☐ اساليب اخرى ، الرجاء ذكرهــا ٠٠٠ :

٠٠٠

٠٠٠

٩) السجـــلات التدريبيــــة :

أ - هل توجد بالجهة سجلات للتدريب ٠٠٠ نعم ☐ لا ☐

ب - اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم فع (✓) امام السجل المتوافر بالجهــة ٠٠

☐ سجل قــوى عاملــــة ٠

☐ سجل متابعة وتقييم متدربين ٠

☐ سجل تقييم برامــــــج ٠

☐ سجلات اخرى الرجاء ذكرها ٠٠٠

٠٠٠

٠٠٠

١٠) التقييم والمتابعــــــة :

أ - ماهو الاسلوب الذى تتبعه الجهة في تقييم البرامج التدريبية ؟..

ضع علامة (✓) امام الاسلوب المتبــع ...

☐ استقصاء يوزع على المتدربــــين .

☐ امتحــــان المتدربــــــــــين .

☐ تقرير الجهة المنظمة للبرنامج التدريبي .

☐ المتابعة المستمرة للمتدرب للتعرف على درجة انعكاس التدريب على شكل اداءه
دوريا .

☐ اساليب اخرى ، الرجاء ذكرهــــا ...

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....

ب - هل يفي اسلوب تقييم عائد التدريب في المجالات الادارية المختلفة والمتبع عندكم
حاليا بالاغراض المطلوبة ...   نعم ☐   لا ☐

اذا كانت الاجابة (لا) فما هي في تقديرك اسباب ذلك ؟..

☐ تعذر قياس تحسن الاداء في الوظائف الخدمــــية .

☐ تعذر قياس التغيير الحاصل في الاتجاهات والسلوك الاداري في فترة زمنية بسيطة .

☐ عدم وضوح الاهداف التنظيمية .

☐ لعدم وجود بطاقة توصيف لبعض الوظائف وصعوبة قياس مشكلات الاداء الفعلية .

☐ كل ماذكر اعلاه صحــــيح .

☐ غيرها من الاسباب ، الرجاء ذكرهــــا .

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....

جـ - هل تمت متابعة المتدربين بعد عودتهم الى عملهم ؟   نعم ☐   لا ☐

اذا كان الجواب (نعم) ضع علامة (✓) امام الاسلوب الذي اتبع لذلك .

☐ استطلاع رأي المتدرب بعد عودته لممارسة عملــه .

☐ استطلاع رأي الرئيس المباشر للتعرف على جانب التحسن الطارئ في الاداء .

☐ استطلاع رأى زمــلاء المتــدرب .

☐ المتابعة الدورية لملاحظة شكل التحسن وتأثير ذلك على مجمل نشاط الفرد فـــي
المنظمــــة .

☐ اساليب اخرى ، الرجــاء ذكرهــــا ...

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....

١١) المشاكل التي تعوق النشاط التدريبي بالجهـــة :

ضع علامة (✓) امامالمشاكل التي تؤثر على التدريب بالجهة ..

☐ عدم الاقتناع بجدوى التدريب في مجالات الادارة المختلفة على مستوى الرؤساء.

☐ عدم وجود الكادر المتخصص بوحدة التدريـب .

☐ عدم اقتناع المرؤوسين بجدوى التدريـب .

☐ عدم كفاية الامكانيات التدريبيـــــة .

— موازنـــــة .

— قاعــــات .

— مدربـــــين .

— تجهيـــزات .

— وسائل ايضاح.

— مطبوعـــات .

☐ نظام التفرغ الكامل للتدريب يحول دون الترشيح للبرامج .

☐ عدم تلبية البرامج التدريبية المتاحة محليا للاحتياجات التدريبية الفعلية للجهه .

☐ فقدان الرغبة لدى العاملين للالتحاق بالبرامج التدريبية نظرا لعدم وجود نظـــام للحوافز او قلة الحافز المقرر فعـــلا .

١٢) أية اضافات اخرى تجدون من المفيد ادراجها ، الرجاء التكرم بذكرها ..

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مـع جزيـل الشكــــــر ،،،

In the Name of Allah
the Benevolent the Merciful.

Sultanate of Oman
Ministry of Education & YouthAffairs.

To whom it may concern:

The Directorate of Post Graduate Studies and Training Follow-up, in the Directorate

General of Scholarships and External Relations in the Ministry of Education and Youth

Affairs hereby certifies that Mr. Mehdi Ahmed Jaaffar, is pursuing his Post-graduate

studies for the Degree of PH.D in the University of Glasgow in the United Kingdom.

In his quest for data for research purposes, you are kindly requested to extend all

possible assisstence he may stand in need.

Thanking you for your kind cooperation, please accept our utmost respect.

Saud Mohammad al Tamami.

Director.

In the Name of Allah

The Benevolent the Merciful

Dear Colleague,

Compliments,

It is by now almost taken for granted, the vital role training can play in the development of human potentials in general, and individuals in particular, within the organisationl context, in the latters quest for superior performance conducive to the attainment of organisational goals both in quantitative and qualitative terms. Therefore, planning for organisational training is indispensible to ensure that investment intraining will reach the stage of fruition, not only for current needs but also for future requirements. Based upon that, the traininmmg officer, and all those who are in charge of training function on the Government departmental level are placed at the centre of the stage in organising training so as to come into terms with their respective organisational needs and ultimately in realising the overall objectives. For the purpose of arriving at a comprehensive assessment of the current picture of policies and practices, and solely on research grounds, this questionnaire was designed. Your cooperation is much appreciated, With all due respect for your consideration,

Yours,

Mehdi Ahmed Jaaffar

N.B. Please note that no names are required.

Answer all questions and please, feel free to add up

and complement wherever and whenever you feel necessary at the back of the sheets.

TRAINING POLICY AND PRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE

1.Personal Data.

a.Job Title_____.

b.Grade and /or Rank_____.

2.Training System.

a. Do you plan for your training in all areas of organisational needs?

Yes __ No __

If the answer is Yes, what are those areas?

__ Managerial and O & M

__ Clerical

__ Technical

B. Do you stratify your trainees according to their location in the organisational echelon, upper, middle and lower management levels?

Yes __ No __

c. At present, is there any emphasis placed on any of these levels with regard to training priorities?

Yes __ No __

If the answer is yes, what are these levels?

3.Training Management.

a. Is there a training unit presently operating in your organisation?

Yes __ No __

b. What is the organisational status of the training unit?

__ Directorate General.

__ Directorate.(Department)

__ Division. (Section)

__ Non-existent and training function is integrated within the personnel division.

c. To whom Does the training unit report?

__ To person no. 1 in the Organisation.

__ Director of Administration.

__ Director of O & M.

__ Director of Personnel.

__ Director of Administration and Finance.

__ Others, please specify.

d. There are ------- persons staffing the training unit, listed as the following:

Job Title   Qualifications   Rank

1._____

2._____

3._____

4._____

4. Training Needs.

a.What is / are the method/methods your organisation applies / apply in the assessment of training needs?

Tick one or more of the following

__ Departmental contacts to assess training needs in aggregate figures without questioning the criterion applied in the assessment.

__ Organisational mobility and job changement (recruitment, promotion, transfers, etc.)

__ Performance appraisals.

__ System failures, mal-functions, problematic symptoms (i.e. low-morale, bottle-necks, customer complaints and the likes).

__ Simply by asking employees of their felt training needs.

__ Others, please specify.

5. Training Plan.

a. Have you or have you not a training plan?

__ Yes __ No

If the answer is yes may we know what time range the training plan covers?

__ Annual.

__ Two-yearly.

__ Three-yearly.

__Others, please specify.

b. Does the training plan you deploy accommodates all your training requirements, technical they be or administrative?

__ Yes __ No

c. Do you happen to have a separate administrative training plan?

__ Yes __ No

d. Would you consider administrative training fruitful and advantageous for your organisation?

__ Yes __ No

e. Whose assistance, if ever, do you seek in your training plan preparations?

__ Institute of Public Administration.

__ Diwan of Personnel Affairs.

__ Both the IPA & DPA.

__ None.

__ Others, please specify.

f. Would you consider the way training plan is prepared, functional, effective and help achieve organisational objectives?

__ Yes __ No

If the answer is no Could you state why?

g. Would you consider your training plan flexible and adaptable while being implemented?

__ Yes __ No

h. If you don't have a specific training plan, how would you then, conduct training?

__ Through advertising training opportunities to all members of staff and those who take interest would respond.

__ By discussing each case of individual applicants.

__ By identifying situational training needs and thus design training interventions against those situational needs, should the need arises.

__ Any other means, please specify._____

6. Training Resources.

a. Finance.

a.1. In your current organisation expenditure budget, is there a specified training budget?

__ Yes __ No

a.2. In the case of the non-availability of a training budget, would you finance your training activities with money transferred from other items in your budget with the

managements' approval?

__ Yes __ No

a.3. Would your training budget suffice your training requirements?

__ Yes __ No

a.4. How does your organisation meet its administrative training needs? Through:

__ Organising and conducting its own training activities through workshops, on-the-job, or intensive training courses whenever is possible.

__ Sending training nominees to attend external courses abroad insofar as the budget allocations permit.

__ Sending nominees to attend courses to local institutions on commercial bases.

__ Sending trainees to the local Institute of Public Administration.

__ Other methods, please specify.

c. Do you provide any incentives related to training?

__ Yes __ No

If the answer is yes, what of the following applies in your case?

__ Monetary incentives for those who distinguish themselves.

__ Exceptional pay rise accommodated for in the Civil Service Regulations.

__ Publicly announcing the names of the over-achiever.

__ Other means, please specify.

7.Training Records.

a.Do you or do you not maintain any records for your training related activities?

__ Yes __ No

If the answer is yes, what of the following records does your organisation maintain?

__ Manpower records.

__ Follow-up and trainees evaluation records.

__ Programme evaluation records.

__ Others, please specify.

8. Evaluation and follow-up.

a. What of the following method/s applies/apply to your organisation in conducting programme evaluation?

__ Through filling a questionnaire by programme attendants.

__ Testing programme completers.

__ Consulting programme organisers' final report.

__ Continuous follow-up to programme graduates to assess progress in their

performance attributed to training.

__ Other means, please specify.

b. Would you consider the methods applied by your organisation in appraising and evaluating administrative training sufficient in the assessment of training results?

__ Yes __ No

If the answer is no which of the following would you consider to be the reason?

__ Difficulties in measuring performance improvements in the service-oriented jobs.

__ Difficulties in detecting changes in the behavior within the organisational context over a short period of time.

__ Vagueness or non-clarity of organisational goals.

__Vagueness or absence of job description in certain jobs and consequently, difficulties in establishing performance standards.

__ All the above.

__ Other reasons please specify.

c. Were there any follow-up for the trainees who concluded training programmes once they are back to work?

__ Yes __ No

If the answer is yes ,which of the following method/s is/are used:

__ Interviewing the trainee as soon as he or she resumes his/her duties.

__Consulting his/her immediate superior to ascertain training influenced improvements.

__ Consulting colleagues to assess perceived improvements.

__ Periodical follow-up and systematic observations to assess training related improvements within the organisational context.

__ Any other means, please specify:

9. Obstacles Obstructing Training.

Please indicate whether any of the following, forms an obstacle or an obstuction, perceived to be currently impeding training within your organisation:

__ Superiors not being convinced of the value of administrative training.

__ The non-availability of qualified training staff in the training unit.

__ Subordinates not being convinced of the worthiness of training.

__The insufficiency of training facilities exemplified by the following:{1} Finance,{2} classroom facilities,{3} trainers,{4} training supplies,{5} audio-visual and other training aids, and {6} curriculum.

__ Full-time training poses an obstacle in releasing trainees to attend training programmes.

___Training provisions available locally are seen not sufficient in meeting the full range of organisational training requirements.

___ Trainees lack of incentives and thus are not motivated.

___ Others please specify.

Thank you for your patience and interest.

APPENDIX (B)

TRAINING EVALUATION:
TRAINEES QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX (B)

TRAINING EVALUATION:
TRAINEES QUESTIONNAIRE

B.1.Covering Letters
B.2. Arabic Version
B.3. English Version

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

سلطنة عمان
وزارة التربية والتعليم والشباب
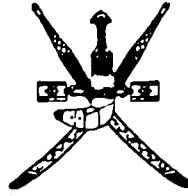
المديرية العامة للبعثات والعلاقات الخارجية
دائرة الدراسات العليا ومتابعة التدريب

شهادة لمن يهمه الامر
==========

تشهد دائرة الدراسات العليا ومتابعة التدريب بالمديرية العامة
للبعثات والعلاقات الخارجية / وزارة التربية والتعليم والشباب بأن
الفاضل / مهدى بن أحمد بن جعفر يحضر لنيل درجة الدكتوراه فى مجال الأدارة
العامة بجامعة جلاسجو بالمملكة المتحدة .

والذى نرجوه تقديم كل مساعدة ممكنة له للحصول على مايلزمه من
معلومات فى مجال التدريب الأدارى فى القطاع الحكومى .

نشكر حسن تعاونكم معنا .

وتفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام

سعود بن جمعة التوبي

مدير الدراسات العليا ومتابعة التدريب

اختى الموظفة/ اخى الموظف

تحية طيبة ٠٠٠ وبعد ،

هذا الاستبيان هو جزء من مستلزمات البحث العلمى لصاحب العلاقة بهدف الحصول علــــى درجة الدكتوراه فى الادارة العامة فى جامعة جلاسجو بالمملكة المتحدة .

موضوع الاطروحة يتناول جوانب التدريب الادارى المختلفة فى القطاع الحكومى للتعــــرف على فعالية التدريب ودوره فى الارتفاع بجوانب الاداء المختلفة لفئات الموظفين كافة وصولا الى مستويات متقدمة وعالية الجودة للاداء .

ومن البديهى ، أن نتائج هذا البحث ، وان كان لاغراض الحصول على درجة علميــــة ، ستخدم بالضرورة الاجهزة المختصة القائمة على التدريب وسياسات التطوير والتنمية الاداريــة قصد الاستفادة من جوانب السلب ان وجدت وتطوير جوانب الايجاب خدمة لمسيرة البناء التــى يشهدها وطننا الحبيب .

مع خالص شكرى وتقديرى لتعاونكم البناء .

المخلص

مهدى بن احمد جعفر

<u>الرجاء ملاحظة ما يلى :ــ</u>

١) ان جميع البيانات الواردة فى هذا الاستبيان وجميع اجاباتك ستعامل بمنتهى الحرص
ولن تستخدم لغير اغراض البحث .

٢) لا حاجة لك بذكر الاسم .

٣) ليس هناك اجابة صحيحة واخرى خطأ ، الرجاء اختيار ما تراه مناسبا .

٤) كل الاجابات ستتحول الى رموز وارقام لاغراض المعالجة بالحاسب الآلى .

<u>بيانات شـــخصية</u>

١ – جهة العمـــل : • ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

٢ – العمـــــــر : ☐ تحت ٢١ سنه ☐ ٢١ – ٢٥ ☐ ٢٦ – ٣٥ ☐ ٣٦ – ٤٥ سنه

☐ ٤٦ – ٥٥ ☐ فوق ٥٥ سنه •

٣ – الحالة الاجتماعية : • ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

٤ – عدد الاطفـــــال : • ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

٥ – الجنـــــــس : ☐ ذكـــر ☐ انثـــى

٦ – تاريخ الالتحاق بالخدمة : • ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

٧ – تاريخ انتسابك لجهة العمل الحالية : • ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

٨ – الدرجة الماليــــة : • ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

٩ – المسمى الوظيفى : • ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

١٠ – اعلى مؤهل علمى تحمله :

☐ الابتدائيــــة •	☐ الشهادة الجامعية /تخصص ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ •
☐ المرحلة الاعدادية •	☐ دراسات عليا/تخصص ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ •
☐ الشهادة الاعدادية •	☐ شهادة معهد تدريب ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ •
☐ الدراسة الثانوية •	☐ كليات متوسطة /الرجاء تحديدها ─ ─ ─ •
☐ الثانوية العامة •	☐ ثقافة ذاتية ودراسات المساجد •
☐ الدراسة الجامعية بالانتساب •	☐ غيرها/الرجاء تحديدها ─ ─ ─ •

١١ – عدد البرامج التدريبية التى حضرتها فى آخر سنتين :

م	نوع البرنامج	مكان وتاريخ انعقاده	مدة البرنامج	الجهة المنظمة

١٢ – آخر برنامج حضرته :

– نوع البرنامج ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

– مدتـــــــه ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

– الجهة المنظمة ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─ ─

خلفية عامة عن الدورة   الرجاء وضع (x) فى المربع المناسب

١) متى اخطرت بموعد الدورة :

☐ قبل يوم واحد من انعقادها .   ☐ قبل ٢ – ٥ ايام .

☐ قبل ٦ – ١٤ يوما .   ☐ اخطرت قبل اكثر من اسبوعين .

٢) من الذى اقترح حضورك الدورة :

☐ انت شخصيا   ☐ رئيسك المباشر   ☐ المسئول عن شئون الموظفين

☐ آخرين / الرجاء تحديدهم – – – – – – – – – – – – – –

٣) هل ناقشت مع رئيسك المباشر امر حضورك للدورة :

☐ نعم   ☐ لا

٤) اذا كانت الاجابة نعم ، ترى ما الذى تضمنته مناقشة موضوع الدورة مع رئيسك :

☐ فوائد الدورة العلمية والعملية المتوقعة .

☐ من سيحل محلك اثناء غيابك .

☐ الجوانب التنظيمية للدورة ، موعدها ، مكانها ٠٠٠٠الخ .

☐ اسباب ترشيحك انت بالذات .

☐ اشياء اخرى ، الرجاء ذكرها – – – – – – – – – –

٥) هل سيترتب عليك وضع تقرير عن الدورة لرئيسك المباشر بعد اختتامها :

☐ نعم   ☐ لا

فى حال الاجابة بنعم ، هل التقرير المذكور :

☐ شفوى   ☐ تحريرى

٦) الآن ، وقد انتهى البرنامج ، هل تشعر باهمية حضورك للبرنامج :

☐ نعم   ☐ لست متأكدا   ☐ لا

٧) حضرت البرنامج التدريبى المذكور بسبب :

☐ اقتراح من رئيس المباشر .

☐ رشحت للبرنامج كشكل من اشكال المكافأة .

☐ رشحت لدواعى الضرورة حيث تعذر ملء شواغر البرنامج .

☐ رشحت كبديل لمرشح آخر اعتذر فى آخر لحظة .

☐ اسباب اخرى / الرجاء ذكرها – – – – – – – – – – – – .

الآن ارجو ان تتكرم بوضع علامة (x) فى المربع المناسب للتعبير عن درجة اتفاقك او اختلافك مع العبارات الآتية :

٨) يمثل البرنامج التدريبى الذى حضرته ، جزءا من خطة التطوير الادارى المعدة لى من قبل جهة عملى :

☐ اتفق تماما   ☐ اتفق   ☐ غير متأكد   ☐ لا اتفق   ☐ لا اتفق اطلاقا

٩) تؤمن الادارة فى جهة عملى باهمية التدريب وعوائده على العمل :

☐ اتفق تماما   ☐ اتفق   ☐ غير متأكد   ☐ لا اتفق   ☐ لا اتفق اطلاقا

١٠) رشحت للبرنامج فى اطار جهد الادارة لتطوير امكانياتى توطئة لشغل وظيفة اعلى :

☐ اتفق تماما ☐ اتفق ☐ غير متأكد ☐ لا اتفق ☐ لا اتفق اطلاقا

١١) الحق يقال ،ترشيحى للبرنامج جاء بمحض الصدفة ، ولا هدف محدد له :

☐ اتفق تماما ☐ اتفق ☐ غير متأكد ☐ لا اتفق ☐ لا اتفق اطلاقا

١٢) شخصيا اشعر بأهمية البرنامج والفوائد العلمية المتوخاة :

☐ اتفق تماما ☐ اتفق ☐ غير متأكد ☐ لا اتفق ☐ لا اتفق اطلاقا

١٣) تم ترشيحى لسد الثغرات فى بعض جوانب الاداء ولتطوير مهاراتى :

☐ اتفق تماما ☐ اتفق ☐ غير متأكد ☐ لا اتفق ☐ لا اتفق اطلاقا

١٤) يعد البرنامج المذكور مهما لمن يشغل وظيفتى كائنا من كان :

☐ اتفق تماما ☐ اتفق ☐ غير متأكد ☐ لا اتفق ☐ لا اتفق اطلاقا

تقييم الجوانب المختلفة للبرنامج

١) الرجاء وضع علامة (x) فى المربع قبالة اسلوب التدريب الذى اعتقدت انه كان مجديا فـ
البرنامج التدريبى الذى حضرته :

☐ المحاضرات . ☐ المناقشات الجماعية (كل المجموعة) .

☐ الحوار الجانبى والمناقشات الهامشية مع الزملاء .

☐ مشروعات العمل التطبيقية التى نفذت فرديا .

☐ مشروعات العمل التطبيقية التى نفذت فى هيئة مجموعه .

☐ المناقشات غير الرسمية التى جرت مع المدربين .

☐ الزيارات الميدانية . ☐ اساليب اخرى /الرجاء ذكرها ــ ــ ــ ــ ــ ــ ــ ــ

٢) الآن ، ارجو اعادة قراءة القائمة المذكورة اعلاه ، ووضع دائرة حول الاسلوب الـذى
تعتقد انه كان الافضل .

٣) المواد المطبوعة التى وزعت عليكم فى البرنامج هل وجدتها مفيدة بدرجة معينة :

☐ مفيدة جدا ☐ مفيده ☐ غير متأكد ☐ غير مفيده ☐ غير مفيده اطلاقا

٤) المعينات السمعية والبصرية هل وجدتها مفيدة بدرجة معينة :

☐ مفيدة جدا ☐ مفيدة ☐ غير متأكد ☐ غير مفيدة ☐ غير مفيدة اطلاقا

٥) فى رأيك ، هل ترى زيادة او تقليل او الغاء اى من التالى ذكره :

الغاء	تقليل	زيادة	
☐	☐	☐	- المحاضرات
☐	☐	☐	- اسلوب مجموعات العمل
☐	☐	☐	- المناقشات الجماعية
☐	☐	☐	- دراسة الحالات والتطبيقات العملية
☐	☐	☐	- المواد المكتوبة
☐	☐	☐	- استخدام معينات التدريب
☐	☐	☐	- المباريات الادارية

التغيير المنتظم

١) هل ستقوم باحداث تغييرات ما فى عملك بسبب ما تعلمته فى البرنامج التدريسى :

بالطبع نعم ☐   ربما ☐   لست متأكدا ☐   لا ☐   بالطبع لا ☐

٢) هل تعتقد انه من السهولة بمكان تغيير اسلوب العمل او طرائق ادائه بسبب ما اكتسبته من مهارات فى البرنامج :

صعب جدا ☐   صعب ☐   لست متأكدا ☐   ممكن ☐   ممكن جدا ☐

حين يفكر الموظف بتغير اسلوب ادائه يتطلع لاحداث تغيير فى عمله من المحتمل انه , سيواجه بعض الصعوبات , اى من الاسباب التالية يحتمل بدرجة او باخرى ان تكون من ضمن الصعوبات :

٣) غياب الدعم اللازم من رئيس المباشر :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

٤) غياب الدعم اللازم من قبل الزملاء :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

٥) عدم تجاوب المرؤسين :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

٦) عدم احاطتى الكافية بالموضوع :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

٧) غياب الخبرة او المهارة اللازمة لدى لاحداث التغيير :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

٨) عدم توافر الوقت الكافى :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

٩) غياب الرغبة والحافز :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

١٠) الاحجام عن احداث اى تغيير تحسبا للعواقب :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

١١) بسبب جمود اللوائح وقوانين العمل وقواعده وعدم ملائمتها للتغيير :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

١٢) التغيير غير مطلوب اجمالا ويفضل الجميع ابقاء كل شىء على حاله :

يحتمل جدا ☐   يحتمل ☐   غير متأكد ☐   لا يحتمل ☐   لا يحتمل اطلاقا ☐

تقييم البرنامج

فى تقديرك ، ما الذى استفدته من البرنامج ، الرجاء وضع علامة (x) فى المربــــــــع المناسب امام العبارات التالية حسبما تراه مناسبا :

لا أتفق اطلاقا	لا أتفق	لست متأكدا	أتفق	أتفق تماما	
					١) استفادتى من البرنامج جاءت من خلال مقارنة خبراتى ومعارفى مع زملائى المتدربين الاخرين .
					٢) استفادتى جاءت من خلال تعرفى والمامى ببعض الافكار والمفاهيم الجديدة .
					٣) استفادتى جاءت من خلال احساسى العام بأننى ادرك بشكل افضل متطلبات العمل .
					٤) استفادتى هو ثقة افضل فـــى قدراتى واد ائى للعمل .
					٥) استفادتى جاءت من خلال اقامة الكثير من الاتصالات والعلاقـــــات المفيدة فى محيط عملى .
					٦) استفادتى كانت فى ابتعادى عن محيط العمل لفترة معينة حيـــث شعرت بالملل وضرورة التغييـــر بأى شكل .
					٧) استفادتى كانت فى انعـــــــاش معارفى ومهارتى والتى أمتلكها فعلا .
					٨) اهداف البرنامج كانت عمليـــــة وواضحة وبشكل مقنـع .
					٩) البرنامج كان ملائما لاحتياجاتى تحديدا .
					١٠) البرنامج كان ملائما لظـــروف ومستلزمات العمل الذى أقوم به .
					١١) مواد البرنامج التدريبية كانت مرتبه بشكل مترابط .

لا أتفق اطلاقا	لا أتفق	لست متأكدا	أتفق	أتفق تماما	
					١٢) لغة المحاضرات كانت مناسبة وملائمة لمستويات المشاركين.
					١٣) خلفيات المشاركين العلمية كانت مناسبة.
					١٤) خلفيات المشاركين العملية كانت مناسبة.
					١٥) كان هناك توازن معقول بين الجوانب النظرية والعملية.
					١٦) المدة المخصصة للبرنامج كانت كافية.
					١٧) كان البرنامج ممتعا.
					١٨) استطاع المدربين نقل المادة التدريبية بشكل واضح ومؤثر.
					١٩) حقق البرنامج اهدافه.
					٢٠) هنالك فرصة كبيرة لتطبيق ما تعلمته بالبرنامج في محيط العمل.
					٢١) سأعود لحضور برامج تدريب اخرى في المعهد.

يهدف التدريب في المستويات الاشرافية الى اكساب المتدربين المهارات والمعلومات والمعارف بالاضافة الى الاتجاهات الايجابية التي تخدم الوظيفة وترتقى بمهارات شاغلها لينعكس ذلك كله على المؤسسة العامة . وللتعرف على جوانب التحسن لشاغلى الوظائف الاشرافية , الرجاء الوقوف عندها بتمعن وتحديد شكل ادائكم فيها قبل البرنامج التدريبى وبعده بموضوعية شديدة . ضع علامة (x) في الخانة المناسبة قبل وبعد النشاط التدريبى :

بعد التدريب						قبـــل التدريب					
ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط		ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط	
											١) قدرتك على تحديد الاولويات وترتيبك لها.
											٢) قدرتك على التحليل وتعرفك على معوقات العمل وتعاملك معها.
											٣) ايجابيتك وقدرتك على العمل مع الجماعة بروح الفريق.

بعد التدريب					قبــــل التدريـب				
ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط	ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط

٤)وفائك بالتزامات العمــــل والمواعيد التى تحددهــا لانجازها •

٥)قدرتك على التنسـيق بيـن الادارات المختلفة افقيــا وعموديا دون اخـــلال بالاختصاصات وتجـــاوز الصلاحيـات •

٦)قدرتك على حل المشــكلات بالاعتمـاد على الذات والعـودة الى الرئيس فى حالات الضرورة فقط •

٧)الابتكـار والتجديد المستمر لتحسين الاداء •

٨)القدرة على تحفيز مرؤسيك فى العمل والعطاء •

٩)فهمك لاهداف المنظمة •

١٠)تعاملك مع القواعد واللوائح بشكل مرن وبمـا يخــــدم تحقيق اهداف المنظمة •

١١)قدرتك على توزيع العمـــل بين مرؤسيك واقنـاعــــك اياهم بمهاراتك واهليتك للقيـادة •

١٢)تعاملك مع المتغيرات الطارئة والتطورات التكنولوجيــة وقدرتك على التكيف والتعـامل معها •

١٣)قدرتك على عرض مـا يتصل بالعمل والمقترحات (كطلـب موظف، أو زيادة بالموازنة)

بعد التدريب					قبـــــل التدريب				
ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط	ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط

امـام الادارة بشكل علمى ومقنـع .

١٤) تعرفك على ثغرات الاداء الخاصة بك وبمرؤوسـيك ، ووضع خطط معالجتهـــا وتطويـرها .

١٥) مهـاراتك فــى الاداء ومعـارفك ومعلـومـاتك .

١٦) حسن استخدامك لطرق العمل لـضمان انسيابه وتجنـب الاختنـاقـات .

In the name of Allah
the compassionate the merciful

Dear participant,

    After compliments,

This questionnaire is designed to form a data collection technique
for the fulfilment of the requirement for the Degree of Ph. D. in
management in the University of Glasgow.

The thesis would address itself to administrative training in the
public sector through an assessment of the training endeavours at the
supervisory and management levels in pursuit of upgrading performance
conducive to advancement and efficiency.

The results, as a matter of course, although would be used for
academic purposes, but would ultimately assist trainees and other
administrative development policy-makers in their endeavours to
evaluate their training policies on the positive and negative
sides as well for the purpose of serving the National Development
efforts taking place in our country.

Sincerely,

Mehdi bin Ahmad bin Jaaffar

N.B.

1. All answers would be handled carefully for scientific research
   purposes.
2. Names are not required.
3. There is no 'right' and 'wrong'; so choose what you feel best
   suits you.
4. Answers will be transformed into codes and figures for computer
   processing.

A) Personal Data

1. Organisation :...

2. Age : ☐ Under 21   ☐ 21-25   ☐ 26-35   ☐ 36-45

   ☐ 46-55   ☐ Over 55 Years.

3. Marital Status :..............

4. No. of Children :............

5. Sex : ☐ Male   ☐ Female

6. Date of joining government service :............

7. Date of joining your present job   :............

8. Financial grade :............................

9. Job title :................................

10. Your highest scholastic qualification (tick the appropriate one please)

    ☐ Primary   ☐ University degree (major).....

    ☐ Intermediate (Preparatory)   ☐ Post-graduate/major ....

    ☐ Secondary   ☐ Vocational Institute ....

    ☐ High School   ☐ Intermediate Colleages/
    ☐ University part-timer   Specify what ....

                                       ☐ Self-educated (mosque
                                          educated) ....

                                       ☐ Others - please specify ......

                                       ....

11. Training programmes attended in the past two years :

Sl No	Programme title	Date & Place	Duration	Organisers

12. Last training programme you attended :

    - Programme title :..

    - Duration :..

    - Organisers :..

B) <u>Background to Course Attendance</u>

    (Please place an 'X' in the appropriate box)

  1. When did you get notice that you would be attending the course?

    ☐ One day's notice

    ☐ 2-5 days' notice

    ☐ 6-14 days' notice

    ☐ Over two weeks notice

  2. Who first suggested that you come on this course?

    ☐ You, yourself

    ☐ Your superior officer

    ☐ Personnel Officer

    ☐ Other (please specify) ....

  3. Have you discussed your coming on this course with your superior officer?

    ☐ Yes

    ☐ No

  4. If you answered <u>Yes</u> to question 3, what did your discussion primarily cover?

    ☐ What you might get out of the course

    ☐ Who would stand in for you during your absence

    ☐ The location and date of the course

    ☐ Why you had been nominated

    ☐ Other (please specify) ....

    ....

  5. Will you be required to make a report on the course when you return?

    ☐ Yes

    ☐ No

    If <u>Yes</u>, will it be -

    ☐ Verbal report

    ☐ Written report

6. Did you feel you needed to attend a course like this?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Below are various statements as to why you might be attending this course. Please place an 'X' in one of the boxes underneath.

7. I am attending this course because :

☐ A superior decided that I should attend

☐ I was nominated as a reward

☐ Places on the course were difficult to fill

☐ I am a replacement for someone who could not attend

☐ Other reasons (please specify) ....
....

Please place an 'X' in the appropriate box to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements :

8. The course forms a systematic part of the organisation's development plan for me

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Strongly   Agree   Not   Disagree   Strongly
Agree   Sure   Disagree

9. The management in my organisation generally believe that training pays off

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Strongly   Agree   Not   Disagree   Strongly
Agree   Sure   Disagree

10. I was sent on this course to develop myself for a senior position

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Strongly   Agree   Not   Disagree   Strongly
Agree   sure   Disagree

11. The fact that I was nominated for this course was somewhat accidental and thus has no precise objective

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Strongly   Agree   Not   Disagree   Strongly
Agree   sure   Disagree

12. I myself believed I would gain a great deal from this course.

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Strongly   Agree   Not   Disagree   Strongly
agree   sure   disagree

13. I was nominated for this course to develop me in an area
in which I was weak

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Strongly   Agree   Not   Disagree   Strongly
agree   sure   disagree

14. The course was considered valuable for any holder of my job.

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Strongly   Agree   Not   Disagree   Strongly
agree   sure   disagree

C. Evaluation of aspects of the course

1. Please place an 'X' against those aspects of the course
from which you feel you learned most :

☐ Lectures
☐ Group Discussions
☐ Informal discussions with the participants
☐ Practical work, done individually
☐ Practical work, done in groups
☐ Informal conversations with lecturers
☐ Field visits
☐ Others (Please specify) ....
....

2. Now read through the list again and place a circle against the
one aspect of the course you feel you learned most.

3. How useful did you find any course hand-outs or other
documentation which were provided?

☐ Very useful   ☐ Useful   ☐ Not sure

☐ Not useful   ☐ Not at all useful

4. How useful did you find the visual aids used in the course?

☐ Very useful   ☐ Useful   ☐ Not sure

☐ Not useful   ☐ Not at all useful

5. In your opinion, do you think there should be more or less
   of or cancel the following in the conduct of the course. Please
   place an 'X' in the appropriate box.

	More	Less	Cancel altogether
- lectures	☐	☐	☐
- group works	☐	☐	☐
- discussion sessions	☐	☐	☐
- case studies and practical applications	☐	☐	☐
- course hand-outs	☐	☐	☐
- audio visual aids	☐	☐	☐
- management simulations & games	☐	☐	☐

D) Planned Change

1. Will you do anything differently when you return to work
   because of what you have learned on the course?

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
Definitely   Probably   Not   Probably   Definitely
Yes   Yes   Sure Not   Not

2. How easy do you think it would be to do anything differently
   when you get back to work again?

☐ Very difficult

☐ Quite difficult

☐ Not sure

☐ Quite easy

☐ Very easy

When people think about doing anything differently in their
work, they are likely to face some obstacles. How likely
do you think it is that the following factors would be an
obstacle to you introducing any change?

3. Lack of support from any superior :

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
Very   Likely   Not   Unlikely   Very
Likely   Sure   Unlikely

4. Lack of support from my colleagues :

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Very   Likely   Not   Unlikely   Very
Likely   Sure   Unlikely

5. Lack of support from my subordinates :

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Very   Likely   Not   Unlikely   Very
Likely   Sure   Unlikely

6. Insufficient knowledge on my part :

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Very   Likely   Not   Unlikely   Very
Likely   Sure   Unlikely

7. Insufficient practice or skill on my part :

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Very   Likely   Not   Unlikely   Very
Likely   sure   Unlikely

8. Lack of time to carry out change :

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Very   Likely   Not   Unlikely   Very
Likely   Sure   Unlikely

9. Lack of desire and motivation :

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Very   Likely   Not   Unlikely   Very
Likely   Sure   Unlikely

10. Hesitation for fear of unforeseen consequences

☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

Very   Likely   Not   Unlikely   Very
Likely   Sure   Unlikely

11. Inflexibility and rigidity of rules and regulations and their inappropriatedness for change :

□	□	□	□	□
Very Likely	Unlikely	Not sure	Unlikely	Very Unlikely

12. Change is unwanted and people would rather leave things as they are :

□	□	□	□	□
Very Likely	Unlikely	Not Sure	Unlikely	Very Unlikely

E) Evaluation of the Course

What do you feel you got out of this course? Please place an 'X' in the appropriate box :

	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I benefited from comparing experience and views with those of others					
2. I got some useful new ideas					
3. I got a better understanding of what is required in my work					
4. I am more confident about how to do my work					
5. I made some contact which will be useful in my work					
6. I benefited by staying off the job for a while due to boredom and need to change					

	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
7. I benefited by refreshing my memory & the skills & knowledge that I already have					
8. Programme objectives were practical and clear in a convincing fashion					
9. The programme was suitable to my personal training needs					
10. The programme befitted my job requirements					
11. Programme components were organised and logically related					
12. The language used was appropriate clear to the level of participants applications					
13. Participants background was appropriate					
14. Participants experience was suitable					
15. There was a balance in the theoretical & practical aspects of the course					
16. Programme duration was efficient					
17. The programme was enjoyable					
18. Trainers succeeded in transferring the training components in an effective way					
19. The programme realised its objectives					
20. There is a big chance for me to apply what I have learned to my job					
21. I shall come back to more training courses					

Supervisory and management training and development, generally speaking, aims at imparting skills, knowledge, attitudes and organisational behaviour to enhance and upgrade performance, hence efficient and effective realisation of organisational goals and objectives.

In order to assess training-related-progress on the organisational level, several managerial functions are mentioned in the next part to form indications of a sort as to whether or not changes attributed to training could be detected. Please go over the list carefully and then try to rate your stand before and after the training intervention :

	Before Training					After training				
	Below average	Average	Good	Very Good	Excellent	Below average	Average	Good	Very Good	Excellent
1. Setting priorities										
2. Diagnostic skill and ability to assess job problems and handling it										
3. Objectivity and forthcomingness team work spirit										
4. Meeting deadlines and fulfilling commitments										
5. Coordination between departments horizontally and vertically without authority bypass and responsibility overpass										
6. Problem solving and handling and resorting to your superior only when it is absolutely necessary										
7. Taking initiatives and willingness to introduce change to improve performance										
8. Motivation to subordinates to do better										

	Before Training					After Training				
	Below average	Average	Good	Very good	Excel-lent	Below average	Average	Good	Very good	Excel-lent
9. Your assimilation of organisation goals										
10. Dealing with regulations & rules in a flexible way to serve the organisation objective										
11. Delegating and assigning duties to your subordinates and persuading them with yourleading competence										
12. Handling sudden changes and technological developments and ability to adapt and deal with										
13. Preparing a case for internal mgt approval (e.g.asking for a budgetary increase, or asking for a new employee) in a scientific & convincing way										
14. Assessing training needs of yourself and your subordinates and prepare plans for remedy and development										
15. Skills, knowledge and information										
16. Application of Organisation Methods to ensure easy flow and bottle-neck-free organisational life										

APPENDIX (C)

TRAINING EVALUATION:
TRAINERS QUESTIONNAIRE

C.1.Covering Letters
C.2.Arabic Version
C.3.English Version

اختى المدربه / اخى المدرب

تحية طيبة .. وبعد ،

اعلم يقينـا ان مشـاغلكم جمه ، وأن مسئولياتكم متصلة وكبيرة ، لكنى اعول علـــى حرصكم الشديد جميعـا فى أن تصل جملة فعليـات التنمية الادارية التى ينهض بها معهـــدكـم الموقر الى الهدف المرسوم لـها وأن تـأتى اكلهـا فى هيئة اداء متطور وممـارسة واعيـــــا لمسئوليـات الوظيفة العامة ، خدمة لاهداف التنمية فى المقام الاول ، ووفـاء ا بواجبـــــات المواطنة ، ولمواجهة تحديـات البنـاء ، ليس فقط استجابة لتطلعـات المسئولـين والمواطنيــن على حد سواء فى المرحلة الراهنة ، انمـا ترسمـا لصورة المستقبل المشرقة الواعـــدة بـاذن الله .

هذا الاستبيـان ، يهدف ، فيمـا يهدف الى جمع البيانـات اللازمة ميدانيا وفــى الطـار سلسلة اخرى متصلة من الاستبيانـات بقصد التعرف على الموقف على الطبيعة فيمـــا يتعلــق بالانشطة التدريبية التى دأب معهدكم الموقر على النهوض بها بفعالية ومسئولية للارتفـــاع والارتقاء بمستوى الاداء فى الوظيفة الحكومية .

كل البيانـات ستخدم اغراض البحث العلمى ، ولن يجرى استخدامها او عرضها لاى هـــدف آخر ، وشخصيا اشعر بالتزام ادبى حيـال الاعزاء من المدربين والمدربـات فى أن يقفوا علــى نتائج البحث اولا فاول ، مع شكرى الجزيل لتعـاونكم ، وتقديرى الكامل لجهودكم الخيـــــرا المعطاءه ، وفقكم الله .

مخلصكم

مهدى بن احمد جعفر

<u>وصف البرنامـــج</u>

١) اسم البرنامج : ــ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ •

٢) مستوى المشاركين : ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ •

٣) تاريخ انعقاده : ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ ـ •

٤) مدة البرنامج بالايام :

٥) اذا كان البرنامج جزءا من عدد متدرج من البرامج (   ) ارجو ذكرها :

٦) هل انعقد البرنامج على سبيل التفرغ الكامل : نعم مزيج لا

٧) عدد المتدربين المشاركين :

٨) عدد الذين انسحبوا من البرنامج بعد ابتدائه :

٩) عدد الناجحين :

١٠) توزيع الناجحين فى مراتب : مقبول جيد جيد جدا ممتاز

١١) هل ينعقد البرنامج للمرة الاولى : نعم لا

١٢) اذا كانت الاجابة على السؤال السابق <u>بالنفى</u> ، ترى هل يعاد البرنامج فى ضوء المواصفات التالية :

يعاد مع ادخال تعديلات كبيره •

يعاد مع تعديلات معقولة •

يعاد مع تعديلات بسيطه •

يعاد كما هو دون اية تعديلات •

١٣) توزيع الحصص التدريبية :

ا ــ محاضرات ومناقشات •

ب ــ مناقشات جماعية (كل المجموعة) •

ج ــ مناقشات جماعية (فى مجموعات صغيره) •

د ــ تطبيقات عملية تؤدى انفرادا •

هـ ــ تطبيقات عملية تؤدى فى مجموعات •

و ــ ندوات يقودها متحدث •

١٤) المدربيــــن :

عدد الجلسات التدريبية المخصصة لكل من التالى :

ا ــ منظم البرنامج •

ب ــ مدربين من داخل القسم •

ج ــ مدربين من خارج القسم (داخل المعهد) •

د ــ متحدثين من خارج المعهد بخبرات عملية •

هـ ــ متحدثين من خارج المعهد بخبرات نظرية فقط •

و ــ آخرين غيرهم / رجاء تحديدهم •

المجمــــــــوع

١٥)كم من الجلسات التدريبية حضرتها دون ن تكون مدربا فيها .

١٦)كم عدد المحاضرات (الحصص) التى تم الغاوها بعد بداية البرنامج .

١٧) كم عدد المحاضرات التى تم تقديمها او تأخيرها بعد بداية البرنامج .

١٨) ارجو تقسيم الحصص التدريبية المخصصة لتغطية الجوانب المختلفة الآتية فى اطار اهــداف البرنامج :

أ/ ١ ــ المعارف (العرض النظرى للمفاهيم والمبادئ) .

٢/ ــ المعلومات (الاحاطة بجوانب معينة للحقائق والاحداث) .

ب ــ المهارات (مزيج من الخبرات العلمية والقدرات) .

جـ ــ الاتجاهات (تطوير ، تغيير ، احلال ، اساليب ومناهج سلوكية) .

المجمـــــــــوع

١٩)هل تطلب البرنامج أن يتولى المشاركون الآتى :

أ ــ القيام بالقراءة والتحضير قبل واثناء وبعد انعقاد البرنامج: نعم ☐ لا ☐

ب ــ اعداد مشروعات عمل تتعلق بالبرنامج قبل او اثناء او بعد انعقاده ؛ نعم ☐ لا ☐

جـ ــ القيام بفعاليات اخرى كجزء من متطلبات البرنامج : نعم ☐ لا ☐

فى حال الاجابة بنعم على (جـ) الرجاء ذكر الفعاليات :

٢٠)كم كنت راضيا عما تعرفه عن احتياجات المشاركين التدريبية قبل حضورهم للبرنامج :

راض تماما ☐ راض ☐ وسط ☐ غير راض ☐ غير راض اطلاقا

٢١)هل ترى أن يكون لمصمم البرنامج دورا ما فى حصر الاحتياجات التدريبية التى صمــــــم البرنامج فى ضوئها : نعم ☐ لا ☐

٢٢)هل كان لك دور ما فى حصر احتياجات المشاركين التدريبية : نعم ☐ لا ☐

فى حال الاجابة بنعم / الرجاء توضيح طبيعة الدور التى قمتم به :

٢٣)كم كنت متأكدا من وجود احتياج تدريبى فعلى لهذا البرنامج :

متأكد تماما ☐ متأكد ☐ وسط ☐ غير متأكد ☐ غير متأكد على الاطلاق

٢٤)هل ترى ان عملية حصر الاحتياجات بشكلها الراهن تفى بالغرض المطلوب :

نعم ☐ وسط ☐ لا

تقييم البرنامج

١) المشاركين : الرجاء اختيار ما يتناسب واوضاع المشاركين .

غير منسجمة تماما	غير منسجمة	وسط	منسجمة	منسجمة تماما

أ) مستويات المشاركين .
ب) وظائفهم الفعلية .
ج) سنوات الخبرة لديهم .
د) مؤهلاتهم العلمية .
هـ) تخصصاتهم .
و) اعمارهم .

٢) الرجاء وضع علامة (x) فى المربع المناسب :

لا اتفق اطلاقا	لا اتفق	وسط	اتفق	اتفق تماما

أ) نموذجيا ، ولبرنامج كهذا ، مهم جدا أن يكون المشاركين على قدر متماثل من القدرات .
ب) نموذجيا ، مهم جدا تماثل وظائف المشاركين .
ج) نموذجيا ، مؤهلاتهم العلمية لابد لها أن تكون متقاربة .
د) ونموذجيا ، اعمارهم مهم جدا أن تكون متقاربة ايضا .

٣) فى تقديرك هل كان البرنامج المذكور :
أ) من العسير تسويقه : نعم ☐ لا ☐
ب) كان سهلا جدا تسويقه وملا شواغره : نعم ☐ لا ☐

٤) نموذجيا ، كم يستغرق اعداد وتصميم مثل هذا البرنامج من قبل الجهة المنظمة (الاعداد والتصميم يقصد بها الفترة اللازمة لتحديد الاهداف واختيار المكونات واعداد المنهـــج واختيار المدربين) :

☐ من يوم الى اقل من ثلاثة ايام .
☐ من ثلاثة ايام الى اقل من سبعة .
☐ من سبعة الى اقل من اسبوعين .
☐ من اسبوعين الى اقل من شهر .
☐ اكثر من شهر .

٥) عمليا ، كم استغرقت عملية اعداد وتصميم البرنامج فعليا :
☐ من يوم الى اقل من ثلاثة .
☐ من ثلاثة الى اقل من سبعة .
☐ من سبعة الى اقل من اسبوعين .
☐ من اسبوعين الى اقل من شهر .
☐ اكثر من شهر .

٦) لو كان هنالك مدربون من خارج المعهد ، هل ترى أن الفترة اللازمة لدعوتهم للمشـــارك
كانت مناسبة :

☐ مناسبة   ☐ غير مناسبة

٧) فى حال وجود مدربين آخرين (من الخارج والداخل) هل تم اشراكهم فى عملية التصميم :

☐ نعم   ☐ لا

٨) هل تم اشراكهم فى الجلسات المخصصة للتحضير للبرنامج :

☐ نعم   ☐ لا

٩) هل تم تعريفهم بأهداف البرنامج وما هو مطلوب منهم قبل انعقاد البرنامج :

☐ نعم   ☐ لا

١٠) فى حال وجود مدربين من الخارج ، كم كانت درجة اقتناعك بأدائهم :

☐ مقتنع جدا   ☐ مقتنع   ☐ ٥٠/٥٠   ☐ غير مقتنع   ☐ غير مقتنع اطلاقا

١١) هل كنت مقتنعا بدرجة اندماج المتدربين المشاركين بالبرنامج :

☐ مقتنع جدا   ☐ مقتنع   ☐ ٥٠/٥٠   ☐ غير مقتنع   ☐ غير مقنع اطلاقا

١٢) بشكل عام ،وبالنسبة لبرامج التدريب للفئات الاشرافية فى المجالات الادارية ،هنالك جملـــة
افتراضات حول مبررات التدريب والدور المحتمل لنتائجه على صعيد المنظمة التى ينتمــى
اليها المتدرب ، أود التعرف على موقفك حيال هذه الافتراضات ان امكن سواء بالاتفـــاق
او عدمه :

لا أتفق اطلاقا	لا أتفق	٥٠/٥٠	أتفق	أتفق تماما	
					أ)برامج الادارة لابد لها أن توجه لمساعدة المتدربين لحل مشكلات العمل مباشرة .
					ب)برامج التدريب فى الادارة لابد لها أن تساعد المتدرب كى يصبح مديرا اكثر فعالية .
					ج)من ابرز فوائد برامج الادارة هو اثارة الاسئلة العلمية .
					د)دراسة الادارة ومعارفها المختلفة ينبغى أن تكون عنصرا مهما من ثقافة المديـــر ايا كان تخصصه وطبيعة نشاطه .
					هـ)برامج التدريب لابد ان تسهم فى تحســـن اداء المديرين على المدى الطويل .
					و)الهدف الاساسى لبرامج الادارة هو زيـــادة معارف المشاركين بشكل عام .
					ز)ينبغى أن تنصب اهداف برامج الادارة على تزويد المشاركين بالقواعد والاطر النظرية دون الخوض فى اشكال تطبيقاتها العملية .

١٣)ما هو تقديرك اطول فترة ممكنه لبرامج فئات الادارة العليا والمتوسطة/ الرجاء وضــع
علامة (x) فى المربع المناسب :

من ٤ لغاية ٨ أسابيع • ☐   خمسة ايام • ☐

اكثر من اسبوعين ولغاية ٤ اسابيع • ☐   اقل من خمسة ايام • ☐

من ستة ايام ولغاية اسبوعين • ☐   اختيارات اخرى الرجاء ذكرها • ☐

١٤)هذه بعض الشكاوى التى تتردد حول مواصفات المتدربين فى الدورات الاشرافية , هل لـــك
ونحن نستعرضها ههنا أن تحدد فيما اذا كانت تصدق على عموم البرامج الاشرافية التى
شاركت فيها :

لا تصدق اطلاقا	بعضها	٥٠/٥٠	معظمها	كلها	
					أ)المتدربين المشاركين لا يمتلكون القدر الكافى التحصيل العلمى •
					ب)المتدربين لا يملكون القدر الكافى من الخبـــرات بما يسمح بالمناقشة الوافية للمشكلات الادارية التى اعتزم طرحها •
					ج)لا يمتلك المشاركون الارضية النظرية اللازمـــة للمواد المقررة فى مفردات البرنامج •
					د)مشكلتى مع المشاركين انهم غيرمتحمسين للدورة وموضوعاتها •
					ه)بعض المشاركين يتعرضون لضغوط تتعلق بطبيعـة اعمالهم واوضاعهم عموما بما يفقدهم القـــدرة على التركيز والاستفادة القصوى •
					و)المشكلة الفعلية , ان ما نبشر به ونتولــــى تدريبيه , اما نظرى بحت او لا يصلح لبيئـــة العمل العمانية وبالتالى نسهم نحن فى مراكمــة الاحباطات التى يعانيها المتدربين بعدئذ •

١٥)هل ترى ان عملية تقييم المتدربين بعد انتهاء البرنامج تسير بشكل مرض :

نعم ☐   لست متأكدا ☐   لا ☐

١٦)هل ترى ان تتولى الجهة المنظمة للبرنامج التدريبى التنسيق مع جهة عمل المتدرب فيمـــا
يتعلق بمتابعة المتدرب للتعرف على نتائج التدريب واستخدام التغذية الراجعة لاغـــراض
تطوير البرامج اللاحقة :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

١٧)هل يتم التنسيق حاليا بين الجهة المنظمة للتدريب والمتدرب وجهة عمله :

نعم ☐   ٥٠/٥٠ ☐   لا ☐

١٨)هل تعتقد ان مدة البرنامج كانت كافية لتغطية كافة المفردات التدريبية :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

١٩)هل ترى انه كان هنالك توازن معقول بين الجوانب النظرية والعلمية :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢٠)هل كان هنالك تسلسل منطقى للمفردات المختلفة :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢١)هل ترى ان لغة المادة التدريبية كانت مناسبة لمستويات المشاركين :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢٢)هل ترى ان الكفة الراجحة كانت للجوانب النظرية :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢٣)هل تعتقد ان الساعات المخصصة لليوم التدريبى الواحد غير كافية :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢٤)هل ترى ان بعض المدربين لا يمتلك الخبرة العملية والعلمية الكافية :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢٥)هل ترى انه تمت الاستعانة بمعينات التدريب بشكل فعال :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢٦)على ان فرص تطبيق المتدربين لما تعلموه غير متاحة :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢٧)هل ترى ان اهداف البرنامج كانت مرتبة وواضحة :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

٢٨)هل تعتقد انه قد تحققت اهداف البرنامج بشكل مرض :

نعم ☐   لا ☐

IN THE NAME OF ALLAH
THE COMPASSIONATE THE MERCIFUL

Dear Trainer, .

      After compliments,

Indeed I realise that your responsibilities are enormous and great
and that your time is so valuable, yet I count on your utmost
concern that the training you conduct should arrive at the stage
of fruition and that objectives are realised in the form of higher
standards of performance and increased awareness of the responsi-
bilities the public office demands.

This Questionnaire, among a chain of others, is designed as one
form of data collection device for the purpose of assessment
whether or not, and to what degree, the training objectives are
realised.

All responses would only serve the scientific research purposes
and would not be used for any other direction. My personal
commitment is that you should be briefed, whenever it is possible,
on the final product, once the thesis is concluded.

My sincere thanks and appreciation for your help and support.
May Gold bless you.

Sincerely yours

Mehdi bin Ahmad bin Jaaffar

A. Description of the Course

1) Course title :..

2) Organisational level of participants :..............................

3) Date of commencement :..

4) Total number of course days　　　　　　　　　▢▢

5) If the course was modular, please specify the number of modules

6) Was the course on full time basis　　　　　　　▢ Yes

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　▢ Mixed

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　▢ No

7) Number of participants　　　　　　　　　　　　▢▢

8) Number of participants who did not complete the course (if any)　▢▢

9) Number of participants who conluded the course successfully　▢▢

10) Distribution of course graduates :

▢ Pass　　　▢ Good　　　▢ Very Good　　　▢ Excellent

11) Was the course being put on for the first time

▢ Yes　　　▢ No

12) If the answer to No. 11) is No, is it being repeated

　　　▢ with very substantial modification

　　　▢ with substantial modification

　　　▢ with some modification

　　　▢ without any modification

13) Breakdown of sessions

　　Type of sessions

　　a. Lectures　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　▢▢

　　b. Group discussions (entire group)　　　　▢▢

　　c. Syndicate discussions　　　　　　　　　　▢▢

　　d. Practical work, done individually　　　　▢▢

　　e. Practial work, done in groups　　　　　　▢▢

　　f. Panel discussions　　　　　　　　　　　　▢▢

　　g. Others, please specify :.........................　▢▢

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　Total :　▢▢

14) <u>Session Takers</u>

	Number of
<u>Type of Session-Takers</u>	<u>sessions taken</u>

a) Course organiser   ☐☐

b) Member of training unit (within)   ☐☐

c) Member of training organisation   ☐☐

   (outside the specific unit)

d) External practioners   ☐☐

e) External academic lectures   ☐☐

   (theoreticians)

f) Others, please specify :.....................   ☐☐

Total :   ☐☐

15) At how many sessions, other than those you yourself took, did you also sit in?

16) How many sessions were cancelled after the course had began?

17) How many sessions were improvised (i.e. substituted moved back and forth)after the course had began?

18) Please categorise the total number of sessions according to the <u>predominant</u> type of learning which you think it was designed to achieve

                                       Number of

a) <u>Knowledge</u> (i.e. the theoretical   sessions

   understanding of concepts, laws and principles   ☐☐

   AnD/ OR

   <u>Information</u> (i.e. the awareness of some particular

   fact or event)   ☐☐

b) <u>Skill</u> (i.e. the combination of practical knowledge

   and ability in the use of techniques)   ☐☐

c) <u>Attitudes</u> (i.e. the alteration of disposition

   to behave in certain ways)   ☐☐

                            Total :   ☐☐

19) Did the course design require that the participants :-

a) Undertake supplementary reading before, during

   or after the course   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

b) Undertake to carry out a project before,

   during or after the course   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

c) Undertake some other additional

   supplementary activity before, during

   or after the course   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

Evaluation of the course

20) How satisfied were you of your knowledge of the participants'
    training needs **?**

Very satisfied	Satisfied	50/50	Dis-satisfied	Verydis-satisfied
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21) Do you feel that programme designer should have some role in
    the assessment of the needs of the course in addressing? ☐Yes ☐No

22) Have you had a role of some sort in the needs assessment? ☐Yes ☐No
    If <u>yes</u> could you please clarify the role :................
    ....

23) How certain were you of the real need for such a course :

Extremely sure	Quite sure	50/50	Not sure	Extremely unsure
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

24) Would you say that training needs assessment in its present shape
    suffice the training need :

Yes	Mixed	No
☐	☐	☐

25) <u>Mixture of participants</u>

   I. Please circle the appropriate numbers in the scale :

   a) The level of ability of the participants was

      Dissimilar   1   2   3   4   5   Similar

   b) The work engaged in by the participants was

      Dissimilar   1   2   3   4   5   Similar

   c) The level of seniority of participants was

      Dissimilar   1   2   3   4   5   Similar

   d) Their educational qualification was

      Dissimilar   1   2   3   4   5   Similar

   e) Their areas of specilisation was

      Dissimilar   1   2   3   4   5   Similar

   f) Their ages were

      Dissimilar   1   2   3   4   5   Similar

II. Please place an 'X' in the appropriate box :

    a. Ideally, for a course like this, it is important that
       the participants have a similar level of ability

Strongly agree	Agree	50/50	Disagree	Strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

    b. Ideally, for a course like this, it is important that
       the participants are all engaged in a similar kind of work

Strongly agree	Agree	50/50	Disagree	Strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

    c. Ideally, for a course like this, it is important that
       the participants are holding more or less similar education

Strongly agree	Agree	50/50	Disagree	Strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

    d. Ideally, there should be some sort of homogeneity in their
       age groups

Strongly agree	Agree	50/50	Disagree	Strongly disagree
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

III. Would you say this course was :

                                          ☐Yes ☐No

    a) Very difficult to 'sell' or 'fill'   ☐   ☐
    b) Very esay to 'sell' or 'fill'

IV. Ideally, how much time would the design of the course require
    from the course organiser? (Design refers to the prior
    organisation of the course in terms of defining objectives,
    deciding on content and contributors and drawing up the
    course programme)

       ☐ from a day to less than 3

       ☐ from 3 days to less than 7

       ☐ from 7 days to less than two weeks

       ☐ from two weeks to less than a month

       ☐ more than a month

V. <u>Actually</u>, how much time did you have for the design of this course?

    ☐ from a day to less than 3

    ☐ from 3 days to less than 7

    ☐ from 7 days to less than two weeks

    ☐ from two weeks to less than a month

    ☐ more than a month.

VI. In the case of external instructors, would you consider the time allowed for them to take part was appropriate.

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

VII. In the case of trainers (external to the specific training unit) have they taken part in course design?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

VIII. Were they invited to attend design meetings?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

IX. Were they orientated to the course objectives and what is it that is required from them before the course begins?

    ☐ Yes   ☐ No

X. If there were external lectures, how satisfied were you with their performances?

Very satisfied	Satisfied	50/50	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

XI. How satisfied were you with the degree of motivation of course participants?

Very satisfied	Satisfied	50/50	Dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

XII. Generally speaking there are several assumptions for the
supervisory and management training as with regard to why and
what for such training is launched and its potential impact on
the organisational level. We would like to know your stance
in this respect. Please put an 'X' in the choise you see most
fit.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	50/50	Disagree	Strongly disagree
a. Management & supervisory courses should be geared to assist participants in solving their immediate job related problems					
b. Management & supervisory courses must assist participant to be a more effective manager					
c. The major contribution of the courses at this level is raising scientific questions					
d. Management science & education should become a requisite and a must to the manager coming from any walk of educational life					
e. Management & supervisory courses should ultimatly promote managers performance in the long run.					
f. The main purpose of management & supervisory courses is to enhance the knowledge of the participants					
g. Management courses should concentrate on the provision of rules and theoretical bases rather than discussing their applications					

XIII. In your view and for middle management courses, what would be the <u>longest</u> possible duration (Please place an 'X').

☐ from 4 to 8 weeks

☐ from more than 2 weeks up to 4 weeks

☐ from six days upto two weeks

☐ Five days

☐ less than five days

☐ Others, please specify :.................................

XIV. Here are some of the complaints that are commonly repeated regarding the specifications of course participants in management and supervisory courses. As we list them below would you please indicate whether they apply to any of the courses you have taken part in, in the options given below:

	All courses	Most of them	50/50	Some of them	None of them
a) Participants lack the educational qualification					
b) Participants lack the needed experience that would enable the trainer to discuss management cases to tease out discussion in a scientific fashion					
c) Participants do not share the basic theoretical background to discuss programme components in an effective manner.					
d) My problem with the participants was that they lack interest and enthusiasm					
e) Some of the participants are under stressful situations that inhibits their possible fruitful contribution					
f) The real problem is that what we preach is either theory oriented or impractical for the local culture and hence contribute to the participants' frustration					

XV. Would you say that participants evaluation and follow up after course completion is satisfactory?

☐ Yes ☐ Not sure ☐ No

XVI. Would you say that training organisers should coordinate with the participants organisation to complement a feedback loop?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XVII. Presently is there any coordination between training agency and client organisation?

☐ Yes ☐ 50/50 ☐ No

XVIII. Does the course duration suffice the training components?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XIX. Was there a logical balance between the theoretical and practical aspects of the course?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XX. Was there a logical sequence amongst different course components?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XXI. Would you say that course language was adequate to the level of participants?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XXII. Would you consider that theory had the upper hand in the course?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XXIII. Would you consider the time allocation in the training day insufficient?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XXIV. Would you say that some of the trainers lack the required practical and educational expertise?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XXV. Would you say that audio-visual aids were used effectively?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XXVI. Would you consider that participants' chances to apply what they have acquired are non-existent?

☐ Yes ☐ No

XXVII. Would you say that programme objectives were sorted out in a clear
fashion?

☐|Yes   ☐No

XXVIII. Would you say that programme objectives were achieved in a satis-
factory way?

☐Yes   ☐No

Personal Information

1) Job title : ....

2) Qualification (Educational):...

   ....

3) Last occupation (before the present one) :...

   ....

4) Years of experience in the present job :...

5) How many training sessions you conduct per week (on an average):......

6) How many training sessions you conduct annually (approximately):......

7) Do you design the training programme yourself?

   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

8) Do you contribute to the design with others?

   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

9) Would you develop your own training curricula?

   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

10) Do you take part in developing training curricula?

   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

11) Do you undertake other relevant activities besides training?

   ☐ Yes   ☐ No

   If yes, would these activities include

   ☐ Research   ☐ consultation   ☐ other general
                                              administrative
                                              activities

12) Generally how would you divide your time (percentage) amongst

   these activities (Please put the closest approximation)

   ☐ % training   ☐ % research   ☐ % general
                                      administrative
                                      activities

13) Any other comments - please feel free to add :........................

   ....

   ....

APPENDIX (D)
TRAINING EVALUATION:

TRAINEES IMMEDIATE SUPERVISORS
QUESTIONNAIRE

D.1.Covering Letters
D.2.Arabic Version
D.3.English Version

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الأخ الفاضل

المسئول المباشر للفاضل الموظف

المشارك في الدورة التدريبية

المنعقدة فيما بين   و

تحية طيبة ٠٠ وبعد ،

لأغراض البحث العلمي واستكمالا لمستلزمات الحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في الإدارة العامة من جامعة جلاسجو بالمملكة المتحدة ، نتوجه اليكم بهذا الاستبيان بهدف الوصول الى المؤشرات اللازمة ، ميدانيا ، بقصد التعرف على جوانب التطور المختلفة التي طرأت على اداء موظفكم عقب حضوره البرنامج التدريبي بمعهد الإدارة العامة ٠

ولعلكم تعرفون تماما ، انه من غير اليسير التعرف على وجه الدقة على اشكال التطور التي طرأت على السلوك الاداري تحديدا بعد الانتهاء من البرنامج التدريبي ، غير ان الهدف يظل هو الوصول الى مؤشرات عامة نحرص ان نكون موضوعيين في عرضها ، بهدف التحقق من ايجابيات البرامج التدريبية لتطويرها ، وسلبياتها بهدف تلافيها والتخلص منها ٠

واذ اشكر مساعدتكم اياي في مهمتي ، اتمنى لكم التوفيق والسداد في مهامكم ، وفقكم الله لخدمة الوطن الغالي ٠

وتفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام ،،،

مخلصكم

مهدي بن احمد بن جعفر

يهدف التدريب فى المستويات الاشرافية الى اكساب المتدربين المهارات والمعلومات
والمعارف بالاضافة الى الاتجاهات الايجابية التى تخدم الوظيفة وترتقى بمهارات شاغلها
لينعكس ذلك كله على المؤسسة العامة . وللتعرف على جوانب التحسن لشاغلى الوظائف
الاشرافية ، الرجاء الوقوف عند مؤشرات المهارات الاشرافية المذكورة ادناه بتمعن وتحديد
شكل اداء موظفكم قدر ما كان ذلك ممكنا قبل البرنامج التدريبى وبعده .
ضع علامة (x) فى الخانة المناسبة قبل وبعد النشاط التدريبى :

بعد التدريب					قبــــل التدريب					
ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط	ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط	
										١) قدرته على تحديد الاولويات وترتيبه لها .
										٢) قدرته على التحليل وتعرفه على معوقات العمل وتعامله معها .
										٣) ايجابيته وقدرته على العمل مع الجماعة بروح الفريق .
										٤) وفائه بالتزامات العمــــل والمواعيد التى تحددهـــا لانجازها .
										٥) قدرته على التنسيق بين الادارات المختلفة افقيا وعموديا دون اخـــلال بالاختصاصات وتجـــاوز الصلاحيات .
										٦) قدرته على حل المشـــكلات بالاعتماد على الذات والعودة الى الرئيس فى حالات الضرورة فقط .
										٧) الابتكار والتجديد المستمر لتحسين الاداء .
										٨) القدرة على تحفيز مرؤسيه فى العمل والعطاء .
										٩) فهمه لاهداف المنظمة .
										١٠) تعامله مع القواعد واللوائح بشكل مرن وبما يخـــدم تحقيق اهداف المنظمة .

بعد التدريب					قبـــــل التدريب					
ممتـاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط	ممتاز	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	دون متوسط	
										١١)قدرته على توزيع العمـل بـين مرؤسـيه ودرجــة اقتناعهم بمهـــارات واهليته للقيادة .
										١٢)تعامله مع المتغير ات الطارئة والتطورات التكنولوجيــة وقدرته على التكيف والتعـامل معها .
										١٣)قدرته على عرض ما يتصـل بالعمل والمقترحات (كطلـب موظف، أو زيادة بالموازنة) امـام الادارة بشكل علمى ومقنع .
										١٤)تعرفه على ثغرات الاداء الخاصة به وبمرؤسـيه ، ووضع خطط معالجتهـا وتطويرها .
										١٥)مهاراته فـــى الاداء ومعارفه ومعلوماته .
										١٦)حسن استخدامه لطرق العمل لضمان انسيابه وتجنـب الاختناقات .

للتعرف على انطباعكم عموما في البرنامج التدريبي المذكور نورد اليكم بالأسئلة التالية راجين التكرم بالإجابة :

(١) توقيت البرنامج

☐ مناسب

☐ غير مناسب

(ب) مدة البرنامج

☐ قصيرة وغير كافية

☐ طويلة

☐ مناسبة

(ج) اهداف البرنامج

☐ عملية وواقعية

☐ نظرية وغير واقعية

☐ طموحة

(د) هل ترى ان البرنامج قد حقق اهدافه

☐ نعم

☐ لا

☐ لست متأكدا

(د) هل تجد ان التدريب في المجالات الإدارية محدد ويعود بالفائدة على اداء المتدرب وعمله ؟

☐ نعم

☐ لا

(و) هل تعتقد انك سترشح الموظف المذكور لحضور برامج تكميلية في نفس الاختصاص؟

☐ نعم

☐ لا

☐ لست متأكدا

(ز) هل عمل الموظف بعد اجتيازه للدورة التدريبية في نفس حقل العمل الذي تدرب من اجله ؟

☐ نعم

☐ لا

(ح) هل لديكم اية ملاحظات تودون ذكرها ؟، ، ، ،

....

IN THE NAME OF ALLAH

THE COMPASSIONATE THE MERCIFUL

Dear colleague

the immediate supervisor to training course participant.

Compliments.

For research purposes and as one part of data collection process
in the pursuit for the Degree of Ph. D in Management in the
University of Glasgow, you are kindly requested to respond to
this Questionnaire whose aim is to assess whether training
objectives were met through a rating device used to rate your
subordinate in various managerial and supervisory skills and
attitudes before and after the said training programme.

Thanking you in advance for your contribution and support.

Sincerely yours

Mehdi bin Ahmad bin Jaaffar

Supervisory and management training and development, generally speaking, aims at imparting skills, knowledge, attitudes and organisational behaviour to enhance and upgrade performance, hence efficient and effective realisation of organisational goals and objectives.

In order to assess training-related-progress on the organisational level, several managerial functions are mentioned in the next part to form indications of a sort as to whether or not changes attributed to training could be detected. Please go over the list carefully and then try to rate h is stand before and after the training intervention :

	Before Training					After training				
	Below average	Average	Good	Very Good	Excel-lent	Below average	Average	Good	Very Good	Excel-lent
1. Setting priorities										
2. Diagnostic skill and ability to assess job problems and handling it										
3. Objectivity and forthcomingness team work spirit										
4. Meeting deadlines and fulfilling commitments										
5. Coordination between departments horizontally and vertically without authority bypass and responsibility overpass										
6. Problem solving and handling and resorting to his superior only when it is absolutely necessary										
7. Taking initiatives and willingness to introduce change to improve performance										
8. Motivation to subordinates to do better										

	Before Training					After Training				
	Below average	Average	Good	Very good	Excellent	Below average	Average	Good	Very good	Excellent
9. His assimilation of organisation goals										
10. Dealing with regulations & rules in a flexible way to serve the organisation objective										
11. Delegating and assigning duties to his subordinates and persuading them with his leading competence										
12. Handling sudden changes and technological developments and ability to adapt and deal with										
13. Preparing a case for internal mgt approval (e.g. asking for a budgetary increase, or asking for a new employee) in a scientific & convincing way										
14. Assessing training needs of himself and his subordinates and prepare plans for remedy and development										
15. Skills, knowledge and information										
16. Application of Organisation Methods to ensure easy flow and bottle-neck-free organisational life										

Would you respond to the following aspects of the training programme addressed in our assessment?

a) Timing :

☐ adequate   ☐ inadequate

b) Duration :

☐ short and not enough

☐ too long

☐ adequate

c) Programme objectives :

☐ practical and applicable

☐ theoretical and impractical

☐ ambitious

d) Would you say that the programme has achieved its objectives?

☐ yes

☐ no

☐ not sure

e) Would you consider administrative training is advantageous and would benefit the participant and his job?

☐ yes   ☐ no

f) Will you consider sending your subordinate to further courses in the same field to complement his needs?

☐ yes   ☐ no   ☐ not sure

g) Did the subordinate do the job he was trained for after programme completion?

☐ yes   ☐ no

h) Any other comments - please feel free to add :......................

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