HR Development and Utilization in the Public Sector

Mussie T. Tessema (Ph.D.)¹, Mengsteab Tesfayohannes-Beraki (Ph.D.)², Diane May (J.D.)³, Sebatleab Tewolde (Ph.D.)⁴, Kifleyesus Andemariam (Ph.D.)⁵

¹Department of Business Adm., College of Business, Winona State University, USA
²Department of Management, Susquehanna University, USA
³Department of Business Adm., College of Business, Winona State University, USA
⁴Department of Accounting, College of Business and Economics, University of Asmara, Eritrea
⁵Department of Marketing & Management, the Catholic University of Eastern Africa, Nairobi, Kenya

Abstract: This study discusses HRD and utilization practices and challenges in the public sector in general and that of the developing countries (DCs) in particular. This paper argues that HRD programs may be able to produce competent individuals but it may be difficult to produce committed, motivated, and productive individuals as the latter seems to be a challenge to organizations. These challenges, therefore, call for a strong linkage of HRD to other HR programs. This suggests that HR utilization is an important aspect of HR management (HRM). Implications of these findings and future research directions are discussed.

Keywords: HR, HRM, HRD, Training, utilization, public sector, developing countries.

I. INTRODUCTION

The quality of a nation’s workforce is a crucial determinant of its ability to compete and win in world market. Competent workforce is the most important asset of an organization or an institution or a nation (Den Hartog & Verburg, 2004; Mello, 2005; Pfeffer, 1994). Hence, the role of employees who have the knowledge base, skills, experience, and expertise, and who have the capabilities to use them for the betterment of their organizations and nations cannot be overemphasized (Acquaah & Tukamushaba, 2009: 359). Human Resource Management (HRM) underscores a belief that people really make the difference; only people among other resources have the capacity to generate value. Human resources can be sources of sustained competitive. According to Stone (1998: 4), “HRM is either part of the problem or part of the solution in gaining the productive contribution of people”. In the words of Pfeffer (1994: 33), “having good HRM is likely to generate much loyalty, commitment, or willingness to expend extra effort for the organization’s objectives”.

Because personnel costs represent the lion’s share of government budgets, effective HRM could make a real difference (Pynes, 2009). Ingraham and Kneedler (2000: 245) further highlight that “government activities are typically highly personnel intensive and thus, HRM practices are central to improving the quality of services offered by the governments.” HRM is of central significance to every nation as they strive to govern well and deliver services effectively. Organizations thus need to effectively manage their human resources if they are to maximize individual and organizational performance (Hays, Kearney, & Coggburn, 2009) and important aspects of managing human resource are HRD and utilization (Tessema & Astani, 2012).

Many studies reveal that effective HRD and utilization now more than ever before are a crucial ingredients in the provision of effective public service and the development process of a nation (Hilderbrand & Grindle, 1997; Lee, 2014). However, HRD and utilization have come under strong criticism in many DCs with their effectiveness thrown in doubt (e.g., Buddhar & Debrah, 2004; Grindle, 1997; Kiggundu, 1989; Tessema et al., 2014).

This study will focus on the public sector, which comprises different types of organizations each with their own distinctive management regimes. These range from the core central government ministries, local government and a variety of parastatal public enterprises enjoying varying degrees of organizational autonomy from central government control. While this study tries to consider HRD and utilization in the public sector as a whole, the focus will be mainly at the civil service organizations (central government departments and/or ministries). This is because it is usually among these organizations that the administrative crisis is most serious, where privatisation measures are least likely in the future, and where, to date, most attention both by national governments and donor agencies

¹Corresponding Author: MTessema@winona.edu

www.arjonline.org
has been devoted to improving service delivery (World Bank, 1997). This study therefore attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. How are employees developed (trained and developed) and utilized in the civil service organization of DCs?
2. What are the challenges facing civil service organizations of DCs in HRD and utilization?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The increasing complexity in the role of the state in the context of rising aspirations of people and scarcity of resources pose tremendous challenges to the management capacity of the state. In a rapidly changing environment where the needs are great, resources are scarce and pressure to achieve objectives is high, effectiveness of a civil service is crucial. This in turn signals that countries have to make efforts in order to maximise the benefit derived from resources invested in HRD. HRD has become a widely used term and its conceptions vary widely (Lee, 2014; Werner & DeSimone, 2011). In this study, however, it refers to an organizational effort to upgrade and improve the skills, knowledge, ability, and behavior of the organizational workforce (Pynes, 2009: 310). According to Werner & DeSimone (2011), training and development has been defined as a planned effort by an organization to facilitate the learning of job-related behavior on the part of its employees. According to Nalbandian and Nalbandian (2003), skills necessary for public servants include administrative skills, political and policy skills, skills related to public service values, and emotional and personal attributes. The aforementioned skills may lead to high performance of public servants and public sector organizations (Ferris et al., 2007; Hays, et al., 2009).

HRD/training programs are necessary but not sufficient conditions for an effective HRM and thus, HR utilization is an important aspect of HRM. Thus, no discussion of HRD would be complete without considering the role of HR utilization (Hilderbrand & Grindle, 1997; Mello, 2015; Tessema, Soeters, & Abraham, 2005). HR utilization is the extent to which available human resources are deployed effectively for the maximum achievement of individual, collective, organizational or national goals and objectives. Effective HR utilization may involve human resource allocation, maintenance, and further development (Kiggundu, 1989: 151). Human resources need, like all other resources in organizations, constant replenishment both qualitatively and quantitatively (Berman et al., 2012: 234; Thomas & Theresa, 1995: 7). Effective HRD programs play an important role in making the workforce well equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge and behaviour that they need to successfully accomplish their duties and responsibilities (Lee, 2014; Werner & DeSimone, 2011).

Fig1. A framework for assessing the effectiveness of HRD and utilization practices
After reviewing the relevant literature, we developed a conceptual framework presented in Figure 1. To facilitate our understanding, different parts of the framework (Figure 1) are presented in such a way that **environmental factors** (A1) affect HRM sub-systems/practices (B1), which in turn affect **HRM outcomes** (C1), which subsequently affect employee performance (D). The conceptual framework was based on the following assumptions:

- External or environmental factors (economic, political, and socio-cultural) affect both HRD and utilization practices, which in turn affect HR outcomes (e.g., HR competence, motivation, and retention), which subsequently affect employee and organizational performance.
- The HRM system has several functions. In this study, however, they are grouped under three categories or sub-systems, namely HR procurement/staffing, training/development and, utilization. This study, however, focuses on HRD and utilization of public/civil servants. HRM-sub systems (HR staffing, HRD, and utilization) are affected by some factors, which we coined ‘critical factors’.
- The effectiveness of HRM in civil service organizations is influenced at three levels: macro (environmental factors), organizational (organizational factors) and individual (employee characteristics). However, this study puts much emphasis on the organizational factors. Of course, organizational issues cannot be seen ignoring different HRD and utilization issues at individual and macro levels.

### III. CRITICAL FACTORS AFFECTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF HRD/TRAINING

#### 3.1. Presence of Clearly Written and Operational HRD/Training Policies

Training policy is a policy that outlines the scope of all training activities, approaches to training needs, assessment of the priority and financing arrangements, the roles and functions of different categories of training institutions and mechanisms for co-ordinating their work, linkage of training to career planning and development and guidelines for the monitoring and evaluation of training (Paul, 1983). One of the pre-conditions for the success of civil service training is, therefore, the presence of effective and operational training policies (Kerrigan & Luke, 1987; Paul, 1983; Stephen, 2004; Tessema et al., 2007). Kiggundu (1989) and Paul (1983) underscore that when training programs are developed in isolation from comprehensive development planning or from general administrative policies and practices, many of the factors that are crucial to successful training may be overlooked. Civil service training policy must become an integral part of the national development planning and civil service HRM system. Without policy, training becomes part of the administrative process of civil service organizations. Without a need assessment, it is possible to design and implement a training program as the solution to a problem that is not related to a training deficiency (Pynes, 2009: 311).

#### 3.2. Continuity of ‘Training Needs Assessment’ (TNA)

Training needs assessment is the first step in the training cycle. It is critical as it provides the information on which training is based and the latter can be no better than the quality of the analysis permits. If HRD is to be responsive to real needs of organizations through improving the relevance of the training programs, conducting proper and continuous training needs assessment is a vital issue. According to Berman et al. (2012), the effectiveness and relevance of training are increased when it addresses specific and relevant work problems. The identification of training needs should start with an assessment of the organization or national goals, objectives and priorities (e.g., Alam, 1990; Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Stephen, 2004). Following national planning and goal setting, and after organizational and individual training needs assessments, the appropriate training programs can be chosen to support national programs, organizational improvement, and individual development.

#### 3.3. Linkage Of HRD Programs to Organizational Objectives and Strategy

When there is a proper linkage of HRD programs to organizational objectives and strategy, HRD becomes relevant to the achievement of organizational objectives (Kerrigan & Luke, 1987; ILO, 1998). The quality of training in the public sector can be improved only if HRD efforts are integrated with manpower planning of the public sector, which, in turn, has to be integrated with the changing development objectives and strategies of a country (Kiggundu, 1989).

#### 3.4. Presence of Written and Acceptable Trainee-Selection Procedures

If HRD is to have an impact, organizations should select trainees who are suitably qualified and motivated/willing to undertake a particular training program (Guerrero & Sire, 2001; Tessema et al., 2005). There must be some criteria for the same or similar basis of which candidates should be selected such as age, educational level, position level, type of career and responsibilities, past experiences, performance records, etc. so that the entire group will consist of

---

**End of Document**
suitably qualified candidates to participate in the same training program (Paul, 1983; Tessema et al., 2005). Hence, careful selection of trainees contributes a lot to the success of training programs. It is also believed that the trainability of the individual participant may influence her/his learning, attitude as well as behavioural change and performance.

3.5. Linkages of HRD Programs to Other HR Programs and Policies

Linkage of HRD to other HR programs (placement, promotions, salary, other incentives, etc.) is one of the key ingredients for an effective HRD (e.g., Berman et al., 2012; ILO, 1998; Tessema, et al., 2014). This is because the above linkages significantly affect the motivation of trainees, which subsequently influences the impact of the HRD programs. Employees are more likely to pursue training opportunities when they believe that doing so is linked to future promotion opportunities or at least favourable consideration for merit increases and positive performance reviews (Naff et al. 2014). The ILO (1998: 9) also underscores that before any investment in HRD can be made, there must be an assumption that career structures have been designed on the basis of reliable, objective and established criteria. This is mainly because career development linked to the training encourages the trainees to search for more skills, and it also raises the productivity of the organization.

3.6. Capacity of a Government to Finance HRD Programs

The adequacy and reliability of financial resources is one of the key factors for the success of HRD (Pfeffer, 1994; Tessema et al., 2005). An important factor influencing HRD is its financing and funding. There are varying practices and the proportion of funds allocated by government for training purposes differs widely. Some DCs earmark a particular percentage of total budget for training while others create a special training fund. Most of the time, HRD funds in the case of DCs, come from two major sources: budgetary allocation by the government and funding by sponsoring organizations or countries (e.g., ILO, 1998; Paul, 1983). Allocating (specific) HRD budget reveals the commitment of a government to HRD.

3.7. Conduciveness of the Working Condition (Transfer of Training to Work Place)

A conducive working condition where trainees are able to apply what they have learned is the sine-qua non for an effective HRD (e.g. Berman et al., 2012; Grindle, 1997; Werner & DeSimone, 2011). Senior managers have to encourage trainees to practise what they have learned by creating a conducive working environment. This is because if senior managers do not provide opportunities to the trainees to apply their new skills and knowledge, the benefits from HRD will be quickly lost. Sharma (1994: 125) argues that one of the important shortcomings in the training program is the lack of incorporation of the training results in actual work operation. This is an important deficiency. Training motivation is also correlated with post-training and with transfer of knowledge acquired to the work situation (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006).

3.8. Commitment of Policy Makers and Senior Civil Servants to HRD

There is no doubt that, like all national development programs and projects, the success of HRD initiatives is contingent on the active support of both policy makers and senior civil servants (e.g., ILO, 1998; Stephen, 2004). A commitment on the part of both political and bureaucratic leadership is an important requirement of successful implementation of HRD programs. Policy makers and senior civil servants should themselves be convinced of the utility of HRD. Top management bodies should believe that the time and money spent in HRD by them is not a loss but a gain and a fruitful investment (Grindle, 1997).

3.9. Continuity of Monitoring and Evaluation of HRD Programs

It is believed that if there is no effort to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of a training program, the function may in reality mean wastage of time and money. HRD may, then, do greater harm to an organization. The supposed panacea may turn out to be a scapegoat (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006). It is, therefore, essential to see that HRD ensures its continuity by providing the returns that are greater than the costs incurred in its operation. Unless responsibility is allocated to monitoring and it is clear what is to be monitored, problems may go undetected and the effectiveness of the activities and programs will be diminished. If time and other resources are made available for implementation of HRD programs but not for follow-up and evaluation, this important stage of the HRD process will be neglected.

IV. CRITICAL FACTORS AFFECTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF HR UTILIZATION

4.1. Availability of Well-Developed HR Programs and Policies

A government has to formulate HR programs and policies and ensure that they are correctly interpreted and consistently applied throughout the civil service so that all employees are treated fairly and equitably. This suggests that a number of benefits could be obtained from the availability of well-developed HR programs and policies (e.g.,
Berman et al., 2012; Mello, 2015; Naff et al., 2014). HR programs that affect HR utilization include pay, employee benefits, placement, employee performance evaluation, promotion and transfer, and disciplinary program.

4.2. Ability of a Civil Service to Effectively Implement HR Programs

The capacity of civil service organizations to properly implement HR programs is a crucial factor for effectively utilizing the existing HRs (e.g., Grindle, 1997; Hays et al., 2009; Stephen, 2004). This suggests that developing attractive HR programs is necessary but not sufficient in effectively utilizing civil servants. Thus, the issue of ability to put the program into action comes into being. Berman et al. (2012) also underline that top officials must publicly commit to the HR programs by devoting sufficient resources to them. The ability of the government to implement HR programs should also be supplemented by government’s willingness and commitment to take seriously the issues of merit. This is because the civil service especially in many DCs have been politicized, which in turn adversely affected the objectivity of HR decisions to be taken (e.g., Das, 1998; Heady, 1996). Thus, given the complexity of HRM, developing and implementing successfully different HRM programs is a critical factor for effective HR utilization.

4.3. Continuity of Monitoring and Evaluation of HR Programs

Developing and implementing attractive HR programs alone may be necessary, but not sufficient. This is because unless HR programs and policies are monitored and evaluated, they may not always be able to attract, motivate and retain qualified and experienced staff as the perceptions and demands of employees change with fast changing world (Hays, et al. 2009; ). Effective HRM, therefore, demands that HRM systems be monitored and evaluated comprehensively to assess whether the elements are all pointing in the same direction and to see whether the organization is implementing HRM programs and policies as they should be. Once the problems have been identified, preventive or corrective actions can be initiated as required by the situation (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Naff et al. 2014). Thus, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms could help organizations to take all necessary measures, which benefit the organization.

V. EXTERNAL FACTORS AFFECTING HRD AND UTILIZATION

The effectiveness of HRD and utilization in a civil service is not only influenced by internal factors but also by external factors (e.g., political, economic, socio-cultural) (Pynes, 2009; Hays et al., 2009). The environment in which public organizations conduct their operations critically influences the development of internal relationships. Pynes (2009: 1) further remarks that public organizations are finding themselves having to confront a variety of economic, social, and cultural changes with which they must cope effectively if they are to remain viable.

5.1. Economic Factors

They have significant effect upon the ability of a government to commit resources, which in turn influence the effectiveness of HRD and utilization practices (Hays et al., 2009). Many public organizations especially in DCs find themselves in the position of being unable to compete with the NGOs and the private sector for personnel (Tessema & Astani, 2012). As a result, the ability to pay becomes an unarticulated policy limitation on compensation. HRD in the public sector is complicated by a declining budget combined with heightened citizen complaints and pressures for higher productivity (Naff et al. 2014).

5.2. Political Factors

Unlike in the private sector, political factors have great impact on HRD and utilization in the public sector (Naff et al., 2014; Colling, 1997). In addition, the political climate of DCs is different from that of the industrial countries in that organizations in DCs often face a highly volatile and unstable political environment (Tessema et al., 2014; Beugre & Offodile, 2001).

5.3. Socio-Cultural Factors

The organization’s culture refers to norms of conduct, work attitudes, and the values and assumptions about relationships that govern behaviour at the organization (Hays et al., 2009). According to Pynes (2009: 106), organizational culture is defined as “the values, beliefs, assumptions, expectations, attitudes, and norms shared by a majority of the organization’s members”. HRM in any country has not developed in a social and economic vacuum. As a managerial function, HRM is as much a product of complex cultural and historical forces. These cultural and historical contexts have helped shape HRM function within organizations (Pfeffer, 1994). An organization’s HRD strategy has to be tailored around these underlying values, behavioural, norms, and social groupings (Mello, 2015).
Civil service organizations, therefore, should make efforts to develop HRM policies and programs compatible with tradition and culture, if they are to get the required benefit from their employees.

VI. DISCUSSION

One of the main objectives of this study is to assess HRD and utilization in the public (civil) sector of DCs. To that objective, first we developed a conceptual framework taking into account the context of both public sector and DCs. Training/HRD effort emerged as an absolute necessity for all countries in general and those countries owing to the shortage of qualified public/civil servants in particular (Kerrigan & Luke, 1987; McCourt & Sola, 1999). HRD has become, therefore, increasingly important for ensuring that DCs have an adequate and continuous supply of competent civil servants. As argued by the ILO (1998), effective HRD programs (training and education) are increasingly important in the development process of countries in general and DCs in particular. Hilderbrand and Grindle (1997: 53) indicate that “while training and recruitment are important aspects of developing capacity, effective utilization of human resources within organizations is the most important factor in determining whether public officials are productive or not.” Ineffective HRD and utilization practices are a major limiting factor in the development process of many DCs (Hilderbrand & Grindle, 1997; Kiggundu, 1989; Tessema & Astani, 2012). Thus, it could be argued that one of the main reasons for the failure of development programs and projects as well as of government routine operations is either a lack of competent public servants or an inability to effectively utilize the existing expertise of the human resource (Tessema et al., 2005).

Over the past four decades, governments in DCs have been attempting to improve the skills and knowledge of their civil servants through HRD programs funded by themselves as well as donor countries and agencies. However, despite all the efforts made so far, HRD programs have had limited impact on the effectiveness of the civil service organizations in many DCs (Cohen & Wheeler, 1997; ILO, 1998; Hilderbrand & Grindle, 1997; Clemens & Pettersson, 2007). It is mainly due to ineffectiveness of the HRD program as well as their inability to effectively utilize the expertise of the well-trained civil servants.

HRD and utilization practices in the public sector of DCs are significantly affected by external factors such as political, economic, and socio-cultural. The civil service organizations are increasingly being influenced by external factors that impact their internal operations, particularly, HRD. Colling (1997: 655) notes that the environment in which public organizations conduct their operations critically influences the development of internal relationships. Due to the above reasons, Berman et al. (2012) remark that managing people in government requires knowledge of the above-mentioned external factors within which HR policies and activities take place. Perry and Mesch (1997: 220) note that powerful economic, demographic, and technological forces have arisen that are radically reshaping longstanding assumptions about organizations and management. Thus, this paper contends that knowing the environmental context plays an important role in improving our standing how HRD and utilization related decisions are made and implemented in civil organizations.

The economy of most DCs have not been doing well over the past four decades, which in turn has affected their ability to allocate adequate resources for HRD and utilization programs and practices. “Adequate pay is a key component in improving and sustaining the motivation, performance and integrity of public servants” (UN, 2005: x). However, there has been a decline in civil service salaries in DCs. The ILO (1998: 45) states that “real wages in Africa declined by 2 percent annually during the period 1990-1996”. The salaries of senior civil servants in sub-Saharan Africa are compressed relative to the minimum pay in the salaries (Das, 1998: 17). For instance in Ghana, the compression ratio was 2.2, which means that the salary of the top-most civil servant was only 2.2 times that of the lowest-paid employee in the government (Numberg, 1994). For example, in Eritrea, civil service salaries have not been adjusted since 1996/7 (Tessema et al., 2014). Severe wage compression and low-level of remuneration for senior as well as highly educated civil servants made it difficult for the civil service in many DCs to retain and utilize the best and brightest. Besides, experiences of most DCs indicate that in spite of the importance of allocating adequate budget for HRD purposes, many DCs, in recent years, have been seen to decrease HRD investment (e.g., ILO, 1998; Tessema et al., 2014). In the words of Berman et al. (2012: 233), “training is often the forgotten budget item”. Under short-term budget pressure, HRD is often the first thing to be cut.

The political conditions has also affected HRD and utilization practices in that there has been political instability in many DCs (Heady, 1996; Tessema et al., 2014) as well as political interference (Das, 1998). For example, Das (1998: 19) argues that “politicization has resulted in the total erosion of traditional civil service values such as political neutrality, probity, rectitude, and objectivity”. Furthermore, Heady (1996) notes that recruitment to the civil service in many countries is mostly based on considerations other than merit. As a consequence, some systems are ‘civil service’ in name only and function as ‘spoils systems.’ In other words, the government’s personnel system
may be nominally merit but practically political. Hence, civil servants who are well qualified, motivated and productive is a goal common to many countries; yet, this simply stated goal is usually not achieved. Despite the prominent doctrine of HRM or merit system in a public sector, a comparison between merit principles and the actual practice of public HRM in many DCs had been a disillusioning experience. This implies that public HRM would not be complete without mentioning the influences of political factors. As a result, it has been argued that managing a public organization is a more difficult task than managing a private sector (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000; Pynes, 2009). The objectives governing the management of public organizations and their workforces were subject to various forms of political control and scrutiny (Colling, 1997: 655).

The socio-cultural factors also influence both HRD and utilization. The indigenous social arrangements, which lead to the patronizing attitude as well as the nepotism and favouritism seen in the management of civil service in many DCs have an adverse effect on both HRD and utilization (Beugre & Offodile, 2001). For example, in a study of managers’ motivation in Africa, Beugre (1998, quoted in Beugre & Offodile, 2001: 537) states that African managers are required to satisfy the social needs of their relatives. Behind every African worker, there is a family requesting attention, time and, mostly, money. Obligation to relatives often leads to nepotism and/or favouritism. For example, helping one’s relative for a job, placement, promotion, and HRD opportunity could be considered normal.

The aforementioned external factors or the context within which civil servants are trained/developed and utilized adversely affected the effectiveness of HRD and utilization. Many civil servants trained at the expense of civil service organizations defect to private sector, NGOs, and abroad where salaries and other privileges are often higher (Marfouk, 2008; Tessema et al., 2014). For example, Marfouk’s study (2008: 6) shows that “10 out of the 53 African countries have lost more than 35 per cent of their tertiary educated labor force and countries such as Cape Verde (68 percent), Gambia (63 percent), Seychelles (56 percent), Mauritania (56 percent) and Sierra Leone (53 percent) suffered from a massive brain drain. In some DCs, the brain drain is acute. Haddow (quoted in Cohen & Wheeler, 1997: 125) indicated that “[t]he government must train four officers to retain one for a long period of time… [t]his serious retention problem… is reaching alarming proportions… [t]he must be addressed squarely”.

It must be noted that wide variations exist as to how countries manage HRD and utilization programs. That is, variations in contextual factors act as constraints on or enhancement in the HRD and utilization. Nevertheless, the presence (or absence) of the critical factors identified in the framework (Figure 1) greatly affects the effectiveness of HRD and utilization, which subsequently influences the performance of a civil service. Those critical factors for both HRD and utilization are greatly affected by external factors. Especially, factors such as economic and political are found to be instrumental in either facilitating or hindering the presence of the critical factors, which influence the effectiveness of HRD and utilization. Thus, an important question to ask is that ‘it is not how many employees are trained, but how they are trained/developed, utilized, and retained that matters’. The answer to the above question is multifaceted involving economic, political, and managerial factors. Put it differently, many DCs have been experiencing serious HRD and HR utilization problems. As a result, continuous warnings have recently been sounded that if development goals are to be achieved, the significance of effectively training/developing and utilizing existing civil servants throughout the total administrative system cannot be overemphasized.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND DIRECTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study argues that, the critical factors identified in the conceptual framework significantly influence the effectiveness of both HRD and utilization. However, it concludes that many of the critical factors for an effective HRD and utilization practices in the civil service of DCs have either been inadequate or missing. Likewise, an analysis of the environmental factors, (mainly economic and political) reveals that these factors are not very conducive. On this basis, this study concludes that the unfavourable environmental factors (economic, political, and socio-cultural) obtaining in many DCs are the ones that have hindered effective HRD and utilization. The cumulative effects of the prevailing HRD and utilization challenges have adversely affected civil servants’ competence (ability to do), motivation (willingness to work) and retention (willingness to stay). The existing situation in many DCs contributes to the under-utilization of the limited number of highly skilled workforce. These problems are compounded by the fact that DCs are increasingly unable to retain the trained personnel employed in the civil service. They also are unable to effectively utilize the expertise of those who do not leave the civil service. Thus, it is intuitively appealing to support the argument that civil service organizations in many DCs are not prestigious places which can attract, motivate, and retain qualified and experienced workers. Hence, this study argues that more than anything else, it is the personnel crisis in the civil service organizations in DCs that has to be addressed if meaningful improvements in service delivery are to be realized. This study further argues that, for better
understanding of HRD and utilization in civil service organizations, there is a need to take into account the wider contexts within which HRD and utilization operate.

This paper concludes that HRD programs may be able to produce competent individuals, but it may be difficult to produce committed and motivated. This study contends that instead of the HRD to have a positive impact on the morale and performance of the trained workforce, it could have a negative impact, if it is not supplemented with other motivational factors such as proper placement, supervision, pay and benefits, promotion, opportunities to practice skills and knowledge learned, etc. Finding new ways to motivate and retain competent and experienced employees is a major priority. Berman et al. (2012) state that keeping good people once a government finds them is equally important. Grindle also argues that “training and skill building investments tend to be more easily accomplished than utilizing professional and technical personnel appropriately” (1997:13). One way of effectively utilizing existing employees is, therefore, to have attractive and implementable HR programs. Therefore, the HR problem for organizations is often not so much the availability of well-trained/developed employees, but how they were utilized once they were recruited and trained into the organization. This study argues that HRD investments tend to be more easily accomplished than retaining and utilizing trained personnel appropriately. As suggested by Mello (2015), HR-practices either work together as a package or they fight each other. One may argue that training is necessary, but not sufficient in improving the performance of civil servants. This suggests that HR-utilization, which is greatly affected by motivation, is also very crucial.

The present study extends previous research in HRD and utilization practices and challenges in the public sector organizations in general and civil service organizations in particular. It is an important step forward in understanding the HRD and utilization practices and challenges facing DCs and thus, it has a good contribution to the existing literature.

REFERENCES

[1] Acquaah .M. & Tukamushaba K.E. (2009). Human Factor, Organizational Justice and Perceived Organizational Effectiveness: An Empirical Analysis from Ghana and Uganda. International Academy of African Business and Development (IAAABD) Peer-Reviewed Proceedings of the 10th Annual International Conference: Makerere University Business School 19th-23, May 2009

[2] Alam, M. (1990). Civil Service Training and Development: Assessing the Role and Significance of Higher Civil Service Training in Less Developed Countries. Helsinki: Administrative Development Agency.

[3] Bennell, P. (1994). Improving the Performance of the Public Sector in LDCs: New approaches to Human Resource Planning and Management. Occasional Paper no. 25. Geneva: ILO.

[4] Berman, E., Bowman, J., West, J., & Van Wart, M. (2012). Human Resource Management in Public Service: Paradoxes, Processes, and Problems (4th ed.). London: Sage Publications, Inc.

[5] Beugre, C. & Offodile, O. (2001). Managing for organizational effectiveness in sub-Saharan Africa: A cultural-fit model. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 10(4): 535-550.

[6] Budhwar P. S. and Debrah, Y. A. (2004). Introduction. In Pawan S. Budhwar and Yaw A. Debrah. Human Resource Management in Developing Countries (pp. 1-15). London: Routledge Research in Employment Relations.

[7] Clemens, M. A. & Pettersson, G. (2007). New data on African health professionals abroad. Center Global Development. Working Paper Number 95.

[8] Cohen, J. and Wheeler, J. (1997). Training and Retention in African Public Sectors: Capacity-Building Lessons from Kenya. In M. Grindle (ed.), Getting Good Government: Capacity Building in the Public Sector of Developing Countries (pp. 125-153). Boston: Harvard Institute for International Development.

[9] Colling, T. (1997). Managing Human Resources in the Public Service. In I. Beardwell and L. Holden (eds.), Human Resource Management: A Contemporary Perspective (pp. 654-680). London: Pitman Publishing.

[10] Den Hartog, D. & Verburg, R. (2004). High performance work systems, organizational culture and firm effectiveness. Human Resource Management Journal, 14(1): 55-78.

[11] Ferris et al. (2007). Political skill in organization. Journal of Management, 33(3): 290-320.

[12] Grindle, M. S. (1997). The good governance imperative: Human resources, organisations, and institutions. In M. S. Grindle (Ed.), Getting good government: Capacity building in the public sector of developing countries (pp.3-28). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

[13] Guerrero, S. & Sire, B. (2001). Motivation to train the workers’ perspective: Example of French Companies. International Journal of Human Resource Management, 12(6): 988-1004.

[14] Hays, S. W., Kearney, R. C. & Coggburn, J. D. (Eds.). (2009). Public Human Resource Management: Problems and Prospects (5th ed.). New York: Longman.
[15] Heady, F. (1996). Configurations of civil service systems. In H. Bekke, J. Perry, and T. Toonen (Eds.), Civil service systems in comparative perspective (pp. 207-226). Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

[16] Hilderbrand, M. & Grindle, M. (1997). Building sustainable capacity in the public sector: What Can Be Done? In M. Grindle (ed.), Getting Good Government: Capacity Building in the Public Sector of Developing Countries (pp.31-61). Boston: Harvard Institute for International Development.

[17] Ingraham, P. & Kneedler, A. (2000). Dissecting the Black Box: Toward a Model and Measures of Government Management Performance. In J. Brudney, L. O’toole, and H. Rainey (eds.), Advancing Public Management: New Developments in theory, methods, and practice. Washington, D.C: Georgetown University Press.

[18] International Labour Organisation (ILO). (1998). Human Resource Development in the Public service in the context of structural adjustment and transition. Geneva: ILO.

[19] Kerrigan J.E & Luke, J. S. (1987). Management Training Strategies for Developing Countries. New York: Lynne Rienner Publishers.

[20] Kiggundu, M. (1989). Managing Organisations in Developing Countries: An Operational and Strategic Approach. Colorado: Kumarian Press, Inc.

[21] Kirkpatrick, D.L. & J.D. Kirkpatrick (2006). Evaluating Training Programs: The Four Levels (3rd Ed.). San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

[22] Lee, M. (2014). HRD in a Complex World (Routledge Studies in Human Resource Development). London: Routledge.

[23] Manik, S. (2007). To greener pastures: Transnational teacher migration from South Africa. Perspectives in Education, 25: 55-65.

[24] McCourt, W and Sola, N. (1999). Using Training to promote civil service reform: A Tanzanian Local Government case study. Public Administration and Development, 19(1): 63-76.

[25] Mello, J. A. (2015). Strategic human resources management (4th ed.). Ohio: Thomson/South-Western Cengage Learning.

[26] Naff, K. C., Ricciucci, N. M., & Freyss, S. F. (2014). Personnel Management in Government: Politics and Process (7th Ed.). New York: Taylor & Francis.

[27] Nalbandian, J. & Nalbandian, C. (2003). Meeting to today's challenges: Competencies for the contemporary local government professional. Public Administration Review, 85(94): 11-15.

[28] Numberg, B. (1994). Experience with Civil Service Pay and Employment Reform: An Overview. In D.L. Lindauer and B. Numberg (eds.), Rehabilitating Government: Pay and Employment Reform in Africa (pp. 119-159). Washington D.C: World Bank.

[29] Paul, S. (1983). Training for Public Administration and Management in Developing Countries. World Bank staff Working Paper No. 584, Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

[30] Perry, J. & Mesch, D.J. (1997). Strategic Human Resource Management. In C. Ban and N.M. Ricciucci (eds.), Public Personnel Management: Current Concerns and Future Challenges (pp. 21-34). New York: Longman.

[31] Pfeffer, J. (1994). Competitive Advantage through People: Unleashing the Power of the Work Force. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

[32] Pollitt, C. & Bouckaert, G. (2000). Public Management Reform: A Comparative Analysis. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[33] Pynes, J. E. (2009). Human Resources Management for Public and Non-profit Organizations (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

[34] Sharma, V. (1994). Aspects of Personnel Management in Public Enterprises. New Delhi: Nirmal Publication.

[35] Stephen, K. (2004). Introduction: Civil service training. International Journal of Public Administration, 27(3): 147-150.

[36] Stone, R. (1998). Human Resource Management. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

[37] Tesser, et al. (2014). Effect of employee background on perceived organizational justice: managerial implications. International Review of Administrative Sciences, 80(2): 443-463.

[38] Tesser, M. & Astani, M. (2012). An Assessment of an HRD Project: Lessons Learned. Journal of Management Policy and Practice, 13 (2), 87-100.

[39] Tesser, M., Soeters, J. & Abraham, K. (2005). Practices and challenges of training and labour utilisation in Sub-Saharan Africa: The case of Eritrea. International Journal of Training and Development, 9(4): 214-231.

[40] Tesser, M., Soeters, J.L., De Groot, G. & Tesfasellassie, M. F. (2007). Managing civil service training institutions: What lessons can countries learn from Singapore? International Journal of Human Resource Development and Management, 7(3): 300-318.

[41] Thomas, K. & Theresa, M. (1995). Planning for Training and Development: A guide to analysing needs. London: Save the Children.
[42] UN (2005). Unlocking the Human Potential for Public Sector Performance. World Public Sector Report 2005. Retrieved on March 15, 2015 http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/UN/UNPAN021617.pdf.

[43] Werner, J. M., & DeSimone, R. L. (2009). Human Resource Development (6th ed.). Ohio: Thomson/South-Western Cengage Learning.

[44] World Bank (1997). The State in a Changing World. World Development Report, 1997. New York: Oxford University Press.