Madut, Andrew Malek (1986) *The effects of culture on management practices in the public service organisations in the Southern Sudan.*

PhD thesis

THE EFFECTS OF CULTURE ON MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN THE PUBLIC

SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS IN THE SOUTHERN SUDAN

DOCTORAL THESIS SUBMITTED

TO

THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW

BY

ANDREW MALEK MADUT
B.Sc., UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN (STOUT)
MPA   UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA

JANUARY, 1986

D E D I C A T I O N

TO THE MEMORY OF MY LATE SISTER AWIEN MADUT

AND

TO ALL THE MEN AND WOMEN FIGHTING THE INJUSTICES AND

INEQUALITIES IN THE SUDAN

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

This research is an investigation into the effects of culture on management practices. The investigation centres primarily in the theory of culture patterns. it illustrates how the behaviour patterns are formed through socialization in the institutions of the society, and how they are transmitted into an organizational environment through the individual member's attitudes, perceptions, interpretations and interaction with one another. The objective of the investigation is to understand the mechanics of the effects of culture in management practices, so that complementary theories, techniques and practices can be developed to avoid conflict of culture and management practices. The absence of conflict between culture and management practices can create a desirable atmosphere for organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

The research uses a phenomenologically-based method in investigating the conflict of culture and management practices. The essential feature in the phenomenologically-based research method is in the understanding of the individual subjective experience as a source of knowledge about the subject or the phenomena of investigation. In this research the subjective experiences of eight senior local government administrators from the Southern Sudan are used to illustrate the conflict of culture and management practices in public service organizaions in that environment.

The research concludes that the conflict of culture and management practices can be resolved by doing the following two things: First, by identifying the forces of divergence and convergence in the cultural and organizational environment. Second, by reducing the process of cultural and organizational divergence in order to achieve a considerable convergence through a mutually-inclusive model that accommodates both the local culture and the local organizational interest.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

This chapter introduces the research problem, its subproblems, objectives, the scope and limitations of investigation, the significance of the research, the model on which the research investigation is based and summaries of the chapters.

1.1 The Problem: This research proposes to examine the extent to which socio-cultural environment of Southern Sudan affects management practice in Public Service organizations and the ramifications of this effect on managerial and organizational performances and on the overall regional social and economic progress. Here it is held that a society's social and economic progress equals the sum of its organizations' output.

1.2 The Subproblems: Due to the vastness of the problem, and the limited time factor of the research, only a few selected management practices will be investigated. The first question addressed is how Southern Sudanese managers perceive and use organizational objectives, in their management or administration of Public Service organizations. This query seeks an understanding of the aims and purposes of Public Service organizations, within the norms, values and traditional sociological context of Southern Sudan. The second question concerns the way in which Southern Sudanese managers approach management or administration of Public Service organizations. This query is seeking an understanding as to how the task of management is perceived within the Southern Sudanese cultural context. Third, is the issue of how Southern Sudanese managers use management theories and techniques in the management or administration of their organizations. This query too seeks to understand the use of theories and techniques by the Southern

Sudanese managers in the management or administration of their organizations within their cultural context. A fourth question is an attempt to understand whether, there are any cultural factors from the Southern Sudanese socio-cultural environment that affect management of Public Service organizations. This too, is seeking to identify factors within the socio-cultural environment of Southern Sudan that influence management or administration of Public Service organizations.

1.3 The Objectives: The objective of the research is to establish an understanding of effects of cultural factors on management practice. How these effect both managerial and organizational performance, and the overall rate of economic and social progress of the society. Once this understanding is achieved, recommendations can be made that will reconcile management practice and the cultural environment. The purpose of this investigation is to create a positive atmosphere that is conducive to high managerial and organizational performance, which in turn can lead to an overall high rate of economic and social development of the society.

1.4 The Scope and Limitations of the Investigation: The research intends to realize this objective by interviewing selected senior local government administrators of the Public Service organizations of the Southern Sudan, who are in the position to formulate and implement organizational policies, to solicit their experience on the selected themes of management practice defined above. Those experiences can be used to (a) derive meaning from these interviews to establish an understanding of the effects of cultural factors on management practice; (b) understand the ramifications of these effects on the managerial and organizational performance; (c) understand the consequences of these

effects on the overall social progress of the society; (d) enable the research to make recommendations of managerial practices that are culturally acceptable, i.e. those that maximized positive effects and minimized negative effects; and (e) enable the realization of higher managerial and organizational performance and a higher rate of social and economic progress for the society.

Therefore the scope of the research is limited to the investigation of Southern Sudanese cultural effects on management practice in Public Service organizations.

1.5 The Significance of the Research: On January 1st, 1985, the Democratic Republic of the Sudan celebrated its thirtieth anniversary of political independence from Britain, thus making her one of the pioneer nations of political independence in Africa. Yet, after thirty years of political independence it is today among the United Nations' thirty poorest nations of the world. (Smouts, 1981) Sudan's current escalating debts of $9 billion makes her the highest debted nation in Africa. (Gurdon, 1984) United Nations and other developmental agencies admit that Sudan has great economic potential, if only this could be exploited. She has particular potentialities in agriculture where of her 200 million acres of arable land less that 20 million acres are at present under cultivation. (Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Natural Resources, 1974). In the mid 1970's, Sudan prided herself on potentially being the breadbasket of the Arab and African Worlds. However, her ambitious development programmes were never realized due to poor management. (Oesterbeckhoff and Wohlmath (ed) 1983).

Southern Sudan (on which this research study's attention is focussed) is one of the oldest regions of the newly regionalized Sudan. It was the first to be established as an autonomous region in 1972. (The Southern Provinces Regional Self-Government Act 1972.) The other regions in the Sudan were created as a result of a successful experiment of regionalism in the Southern Sudan. (The Peoples' Local Government Act 1980). Thus, in a way, Southern Sudan is a leader in political regionalism in the country. Yet, economically, Southern Sudan is the least developed part of Sudan's regions being heavily dependent on the central government for its economic existence since independence. It is also a source of political instability. The problems of the region have been responsible for the downfall of the first independent government of El Azari in 1956, the second government of Khalil in 1958, the third government of General Aboud in 1964, the government of Maguob in 1969, and the recent overthrow of General Nimeri's government in April 1985. It still represents a thorny problem to the current transitional government of General Swar El Dhab.

Because of its economic backwardness and the central Government's failure to invest in the southern economy, Southern Sudan will remain a cause of social, economic and political instability for the whole country. This was pointed out by ILO/UNDP Report 1976 and by the CBI 1977 Report to British Companies with interests in the Sudan. The ILO/UNDP wrote that:

> "In terms of regional equity and distribution the South is particularly disadvantaged because income there is only half or even less of the national average for the whole country. In fact by far the major distributional challenge for the Sudan as a whole is posed by the economic circumstance in the South. Although income in the West are also substantially below the national average they tend to be much better off than in the South." p.199.

This citation is a clear indication that lower incomes in the South lower the overall national average income of the Sudan.

The same report, in summing up what it called a strategy for the South concluded that:

> "Development of the South is a challenge to the whole country that must be faced. The difficulties are very great but policy changes can make it possible to step up the rate of development immediately. The South is a special case and must be recognised as such. Physical constraints are severe, but the overriding problem is that of administration, in the central government and regional government activities. It is necessary to set out clearly what is to be accomplished in the South and to see that the resources needed to achieve these objectives are in fact made available, and to ensure by strict supervision that they are well used. At present too little is being accomplished." p.214

This quotation represents another clear indication of lack of strategic planning, low commitment to the objectives and poor supervision.

Because of its poor economic situation and its social backwardness, Southern Sudan has become socially and politically vulnerable to social and political explosiveness. This explains why its problems have been the cause of government's downfall. It has also created another obstacle to foreign investment in the Sudan, as cited in the CBI report to the British companies with interests in the Sudan. This report identified the Southern problem as the most serious threat to the Sudan Government's political stability. Indeed, the armed struggle in the Southern Sudan that is costing the Sudan Government over a million Sudanese pounds per day, has contributed to the government's bankruptcy. This led to the IMF advising the government to abandon subsidizing the basic food items, an act which in turn led to the popular uprising which brought down the government of General Nimeri in April 1985.

The research reinstates the view that problems of organizational management in the Southern Sudan and indeed most of the Third World are complex. It recognizes the fact that there are no easy solutions. The research contention therefore is that, while it recognizes that there are several ways in which this inquiry could be conducted, its opts to examine the extent to which the socio-cultural environment of a society affects management practice. It then goes on to consider the effects of this on the performance and the consequences on the overall economic progress of the society. This decision was affected by several factors. The first being the writer's beliefs in the vital importance of management as a link between economic progress organizational and managerial performance. This view is strongly supported by numerous authors including Farmer and Richman (1965) who wrote that :

"We view management as the single most critical social activity in connection with economic progress. Physical, financial and manpower resources are by themselves but passive agents; they must be effectively combined and coordinated through sound active management, if a country is to experience growth and development. A country can have sizeable natural and manpower resources including plentiful skill labour and substantial capital, but still be relatively poor, because very few competent managers are available to put these resources effectively together in the production and distribution of useful goods and services." p.1.

The second reason for focusing upon socio-cultural variables being the realization of the problem of tribalism in the short life of the united Southern Regional government 1972/1983. This view is put forward by Lagu (1981) when he argued that:

"Political leadership, with a strong tribal orientation having satisfied themselves that the only way to remain in power is to fan up tribal loyalties from their tribe which they believe must dominate because of sheer numbers are now turning around to point a finger at those who want to correct the situation as 'Power hungry' politicians. Indeed they are so infatuated with the desire to make their tribesmen politically predominant that emergence of any group to suggest corrective measures never appeared to them to be a possibility." p.1.

This allegation was aimed at the Dinka tribe, the largest ethnic group in the Sudan as having dominated both political and civil service jobs because of their population size. This allegation meant that academic and other professional qualifications were being discarded and tribal membership was allowed to take precedence in the appointment to civil service and political posts. Without getting into the right or wrong of the argument, the fact remains that ethnic rivalry plays an important role in the management of Public Service organizations in the Southern Sudan.

The third reason for the research choice of cultural factors, was the fact that other aspects of the Southern Sudan social environment like political, historical, educational and legal ones have been dealt with before. However nothing was available that linked culture and managerial practices and their effects on performance and overall social and economic progress. The literature published and unpublished includes, Loriria (1969), Political Awakening in the Southern Sudan 1946-1955, Decolonization and Problem of national Integration, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of California, Los Angeles; Beshir (1974), Confrontation Across the Sudd; Southern Sudan struggle for Freedom 1839-1955, unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Howard University, Washington, D.C. and Wai (1982), The African-Arab Conflict in the Sudan, all these dealt with the North-South politics and problems of national integration in the Sudan. Howell (1978), Political Leadership and Organisation in the Southern Sudan, Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Univerity of Reading and Badal (1977), British Administration in the Southern Sudan, Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London; these also dealt with the history and politics of Southern Sudan. Akolawin (1964), Islamic and Customary

Law in the Sudan   Problems of Today and Tomorrow, in Fadl (1964), Sudan in Africa, dealt with the legal aspects. Others in related areas included Johnson (1980). History and Prophesy Among the Nuer of the Southern Sudan, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of California, Los Angeles Majak (1979), Education for National Integration, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Ball State University, Sanderson (1966), Education in the Southern Sudan 1899-1948. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of London, Biowei (1978), Educational Development in the Southern Sudan during the British Administration, a Master's dissertation, University of Khartoum, Majak (1976). British Rule in Bahr El Ghazal 1907-1927, a Master's dissertation, University of Khartoum and Mawut (1978), The Dinka Resistance to the Condomunium Rule 1902-1932, a Master's dissertation, University of Khartoum. This list goes to demonstrate the availability of work on Southern Sudan in regard to historical, political and legal aspects, but nothing has been done in regard to the effect of culture on managerial and organisational performance, and hence its overall effect on the rate of social and economic progress.

Admittedly, quite a few scholarly anthropological work on the Southern Sudan by distinguished scholars like Evans-Pritchard, Liernhart, Mack and Robertshaw and Deng have demonstrated the anthropological and cultural diversity of the Southern Sudan, but yet a work that links culture with organisational behaviour, in particular managerial behaviour has to be produced.

The research takes the view that it is a wishful thinking on the part of the Sudan government to take pride in her natural potentialities. In the absence of capital formation and entrepreneurship capable of coordinating these resources into production of useful goods and service, peoples' needs will remained unsatisfied.

That is why an understanding of the socio-cultural effects on management practice and their potential adverse effects on performance and rate of social and economic development is needed. Once that understanding is ascertained, management practices that are complementary to the local culture can be adopted. These can then create an atmosphere conducive to higher managerial and organizational performance which in turn achieves a higher rate of social and economic development in the society.

1.6 The Model of Investigation: The investigation will use Farmer and Richman's (1965) model for analysing comparative management and economic progress. This model was adopted after review of their former work. The model distinguishes between management environment, elements of management process and management, managerial effectiveness, and the firm efficiency. Farmer and Richman identified organisational external constraints as: educational, sociological, legal-political and economic. The elements of management process they considered to be planning, organizing, staffing, directing, controlling and policy making. Farmer and Richman first used their model in comparative management studies dealing with the problems of managerial performance in various countries. They emphasise the management of local enterprises in different cultures. The environmental factors which they investigated were chosen for analysis from:

    (a) numerous available studies which pointed to certain factors as being important in different countries and situation.

    (b) their own first hand research and expeiences in a number of countries.

    (c) research conducted and insights provided by their research assistants several of whom were doctoral students from foreign countries.

(d) Interviews, discussions and correspondence with numerous

educators in different fields who were experts on different

countries and with foreign and local executives, government

and United Nations officials and graduate students.   p.28.

The   model demonstrates how external constraints (in the research

socio-cultural factors) affect elements of the management process (in

the research management practice) and how elements of management process

and managerial effectiveness (in the research managerial performance)

affects each other.   In addition they illustrate how management and

managerial effectiveness determines the firm efficiency (in the research

organizational performance) and how the firm efficiency determines the

"system" efficiency (in the research the rate of social and economic

progress of the society) Fig. 1.1. illustrates the model.

FIG. 1.1   FARMER AND RICHMAN'S MODEL;

CONSTRAINT-MANAGEMENT PROCESS-MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS-

EFFICIENCY RELATIONS

affect

| EXTERNAL CONSTRAINTS | affect → | ELEMENTS OF THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS | affect → | MANAGEMENT AND MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS |

$C_{n,m}$ $B_{n,m}$ X   determine

C_{n_m} (B_{n_m}) (X) (E_f) (E_T) E_f

FIRM EFFICIENCY

determine

SYSTEM EFFICIENCY

E_f
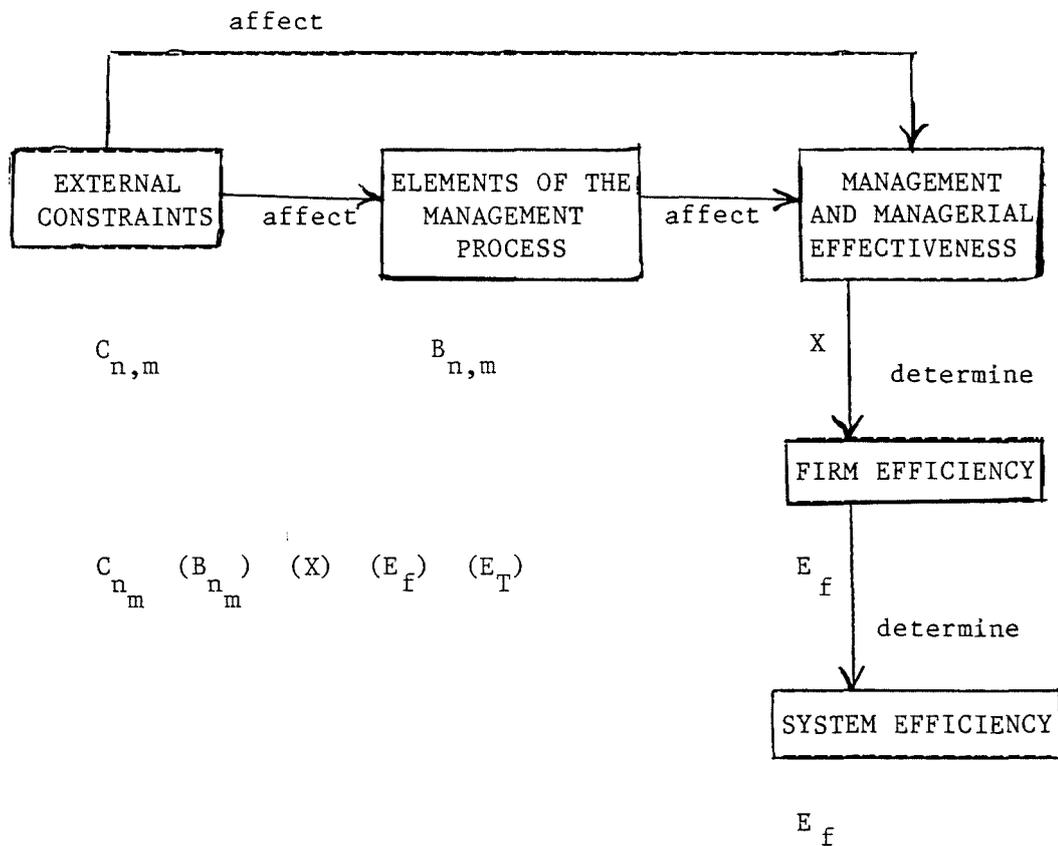
Sources: Farmer, R.N. and Richman B.M., 1965, Model for Analysing Comparative Management and Economic Progress, Richard D. Irwin, Homewood, Illinois, pp.35.

Therefore the research model can be illustrated below. The model shows the socio/cultural environment of Southern Sudan and elements of management practices as the independent variables while organizational and managerial performance, and the overall effects on the Southern Sudan economy as the dependent variables.

Fig. 1.2 Proposed Research Model.

Effects   Effects   Effects

| Southern Sudan socio/cultural environment (ethnocentrism tribalism) | Organizational objectives. Approach or style of mgt. Use of theories and techniques. Organizational environment. | Organizational and managerial performance | Economic and social prog- ress for the society |
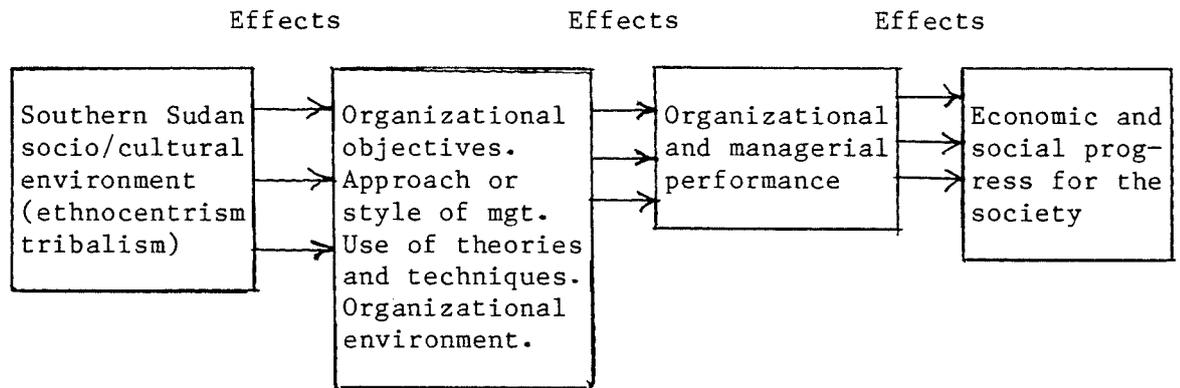
1.7 Summaries of the Chapters

Chapter two deals with the historical background of the Sudan as a nation, giving the reader encountering the history of the Sudan for the first time some basis to understand some of the issues to which this research addresses itself.

Chapter three deals with the literature review in two parts. Part one covers the ecological evolution and concept of 'culture', while part two covers the general literature on the potential conflict of culture and management practice.

Chapter four covers specific aspects of management practice. Its centres on how different cultures perceive organizational objectives, how they approach management, how they use theories and techniques in the management of organizations.

Chapter five deals with the influence of culture in management practice.

Chapter six considers the relevance of the phenomenologically-based research method to this research. It addresses itself to the principles and conduct of research by the phenomenologist, and makes comparison with the popular postivistic research approaches.

Chapter seven deals with the protocols and their invariants, using the principles of a phenomenologically-based research of phenomenological seeing and interpretations.

Chapter eight deals with the analysis of the protocols by further using phenomenological seeing and interpretations in order to identify noetic/noematic correlates and the essence or universal meaning from the invariants.

Chapter nine deals with the analysis of the literature review findings and the protocols findings, reconcilation of conflict of culture and management practice, the research conclusions.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

This chapter analyses the historical background of the Sudan as a a nation. It covers the physical and social constraints imposed by the vastness of the country, the effects of the colonial administration's policies towards the South (1899-1956) and the effect of the Sudanese independent administrations policies towards the South (1956-1985).

The purpose of giving this general historial background is to enable a reader encountering the history of the Sudan for the first time, to understand the factors that have contributed to the failure of national integration. A failure that has created an atmosphere unconducive to the formation of a national enterprising administration capable of marshalling the national resources to the benefit of the nation as a whole.

2.1 The Physical and Social Constraints

The vastness of the country imposes both physical and social constraints that makes national integration and any national harmony almost an impossibility. As Legum (1965) puts it:

> "The Sudan is a classic example of a divided nation. It is divided by religion, by ethnic kinship, by region, by history. Like most African countries, the modern Sudan was created artificially by a colonial power. Though ruled for a century as a single country, its two main societies were deliberately encouraged to grow apart - the north developing its largely Islamic traditions and Arab culture, the South emerging as a Christian-based, English-speaking region. The result of this policy was to consolidate and intensify factors making for divisiveness. The great gulf of language, religion and separate administrative units are easily maintained because of the great distances separating the important centres of the North from the peasant societies of the South, and by poorly developed communications - transport, press and radio." p7.

The Democratic Republic of the Sudan is the nineth largest country in the world, and Africa's largest country. It is 1.7% of the total land area of the world, and 8.3% of the total African continental land area (Gurdon 1984 and Wai 1981). Sudan has an area of 2,505,813 square kilometers or 967,500 square miles. It lies between the equator and the Tropic of Cancer and between the Twentieth and Fortieth Longitude East of Greenwich. It borders eight countries – Egypt and Libya to the north, Chad and the Central African Republic to the west, Zaire, Uganda and Kenya to the south and Ethiopia and the Red Sea to the east. (Allan, 1969).

Sudan has earned the name of the crossroads to Africa and the bridge of the Afro-Arabian cultures because of its strategic geographical position. It links the continent of Africa to the Arabian Peninsula via the Red Sea, Northern Africa, that is Egypt and Libya with the Arab culture and religion and African countries like Chad, Central African Republic, Zaire, Uganda, Kenya and Ethiopia with African cultures and religion. (Said 1965). This too explains her dual membership in both the Organization of African Unity (OAU) and the Arab League of Nations (ALN). (See the map in Fig. 2.1).

FIG. 2.1 Map of the Sudan showing the geographic position of the Sudan, her
Land area and the neighbouring countries.
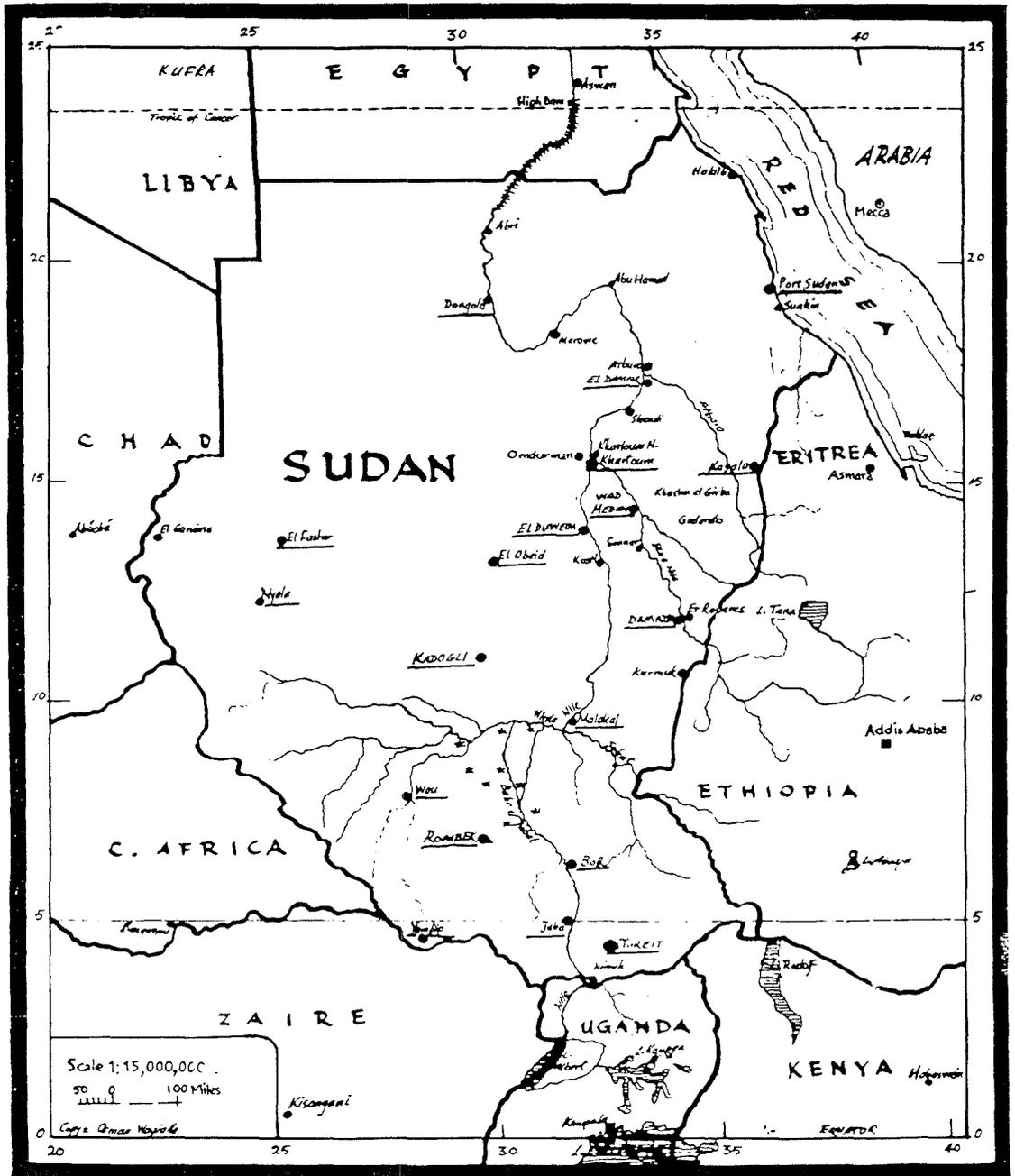
Rapid population growth and the maladministration of the economy are regarded as having led to Sudan's persistent economic decline and continuous indebtedness. This indebtedness has risen from $11 million in fiscal year 1972/73 to $2.2 billion in the fiscal year 1982/83 and to current $9 billion 1985. It has reached a point where Sudan is now among the 30 poorest nations in the United Nations and the most indebted nation in Africa. (Smout, 1982 and Gurdon, 1984).

The population census of 1983 put Sudan's population at 22 million, of which 77% live in the Northern regions (Central, Durfur, Eastern, Kordufan, Northern and Khartoum) and 23% inhabit the Southern regions (Bahr El Ghazal, Equatoria and Upper Nile). The country is an agrarian economy with 65% of the total population living in rural areas and earning a living from substance agriculture. Only 35% of the total population lives in urban centres. This urban population includes those earning wages, the self-employed and those depending on relatives who are earning wages. The current population trends represent an annual growth rate of 2.8% and an increasing population density from 4 persons per square kilometer at Independence in 1956 to a new record of about 9 persons per square kilometer in 1983 census.

The racial and ethnic complexity of the Sudan has also contributed directly to the failure to achieve effective national integration and a harmonious system. The country has a record number of 597 different ethnic groups. These first divide into African ethnic groups, and Arab ethnic groups and in turn break down into several African subgroups and several Arab subgroups.

The problems created by such geographic and ethnic diversity in the Sudan are enormous because of its large territorial area. The widely spread population live in a poorly infrastured economy. The government has not been able to assert its control over the entire territory. Remote areas tend to be neglected, due to their inaccessibility and because of that, those communities grow differently from the rest of the country. This lack of contact acts to exacerbate their difference. This has led to existence of cultural pluralism, which is the existence within a single society of groups or subgroups with their own distinct culture. Because of the existence of such cultural pluralism tensions are created within a society characterized by: (a) value incompatibilities, i.e. different and conflicting values, (b) mutual distrust, i.e. each group viewing the other with suspicion, (c) social, economic and psychological incompatibilities, i.e. having different levels of social, economic and psychological thinking, (d) power conflicts, i.e. a conflict as a result of a dominant group trying to assert its influence on the less dominant group and the latter determined to resist it.

In the case of the Sudan, these ethnocentric divisions have led to a 17 year civil war between the North and South. Those with an Arab and Islamic culture have fought those having an African and Christian culture. In consequence, Southerners have called for a secession on the ground of cultural difference and the social and economic imbalance between the two regions. The problem has also tended to polarise into an international issue with Sudanese Arabs obtaining the support of the Arab world and the African gaining the support of the African nations. As a result Afro-Arab relations have deteriorated and the role of the Sudan as bridging the Arab and the African worlds has been reduced. The conflict also represents the biggest socio-economic and political

blockage in the development of the modern Sudan.

2.2 The Colonial Administration Policy Towards the South (1899-1956)

There are conflicting views in Sudanese circles as to whether the colonial administration had any specific policy for the Southern Sudan during the period it administered it (1899-1956). One view argues that the colonial administration had a specific policy, and that was to let the two communities grow apart. The North was to develop on Arab and Middle Eastern lines and the South was to progress along African and Christian lines. This view further argues that, this policy has been, and is still, responsible for the current problems of modern Sudan. This view emphasizes that the colonial administration policies on the Southern Sudan helped to create the ethnocentrism on which the North and South clash today. The North felt that Sudan should be developed on Arab and Islamic values, a theme which was stressed by Saddiq El Mahdi in his acceptance speech as Prime Minister to the Constituent Assembly in October 1966 when he said then that :

> "The dominant feature of our nation is an Islamic one and its overpowering expression is Arab, and this nation will not have its entity identified and its prestige and pride preserved except under the Islamic revival". Alier, (1973), p.24.

The same theme was also promoted by the Islamic Charter Front leader, Hassan Turabi, who argued that Southern Sudan did not have a culture, so this vacuum would necessarily be filled by Arab culture under an Islamic revival, a pledge that has now led to the imposition of an Islamic Sharia Law as the basis for the country's legal system. This is the case despite the fact that over 40% of the total population of the country are non-muslims, and neither adhere to the Islamic religion nor consider themselves to be part of an Arab culture.

Ethnocentrism has led to a secessionist call by the Southern Sudanese. They argue that since they are racially and religiously different from the Northern Sudanese and do not have an equal share with the North in social and economic development, they are not part and parcel of the Sudanese community. They wish to establish their own society where their own values can exist. This is well summed up by Aggrey Jaden in a speech to the Round Table Conference on the Southern problem 1965.

> "Sudan falls sharply into two distinct areas, both in geographical area, ethnic group and cultural systems. The Northern Sudan is occupied by a hybrid Arab race who are united by their common language, common culture, and common religion; and they look to the Arab world for their cultural and political inspiration. The people of the Southern Sudan, on the other hand, belong to the African ethnic group of East Africa. They do not only differ from the hybrid Arab race in origin, arrangement and basic systems, but in all conceivable purposes....There is nothing in common between the various sections of the community, no shared beliefs, no identification of interests, no local sign of unity, and above all, the Sudan has failed to compose a single community." (Wai 1981, p.16).

Therefore, the North-South conflict in the Sudan has tended to operate between the two extremes, that of Jaden's argument that there is nothing between the two communities that can keep them together so, therefore, they should separate, and that of Turabi's argument that there is no culture in the South and hence the North and South should remain united so that the cultural vacuum created by absence of culture in the South can be filled by Arab and Islamic culture.

A second historical interpretation is based on the observation of the different positions taken by the colonial administration in regard to Southern Sudan. It hypothesises that the administration did not have any specific policy for the South, but that rather, decisions were taken in response to the events as they developed. Evidence for this ad-hoc

policy can be found in the fact that the purpose of the joint British and Egyptian reconquest of the Sudan in 1898 was to secure control of the sources of the Nile that passed through the Sudan into the heart of the continent and to guarantee Britain access to her possessions in East Africa which consisted of Uganda and Kenya. This interest was stated by Lord Cromer, the then British representative in Cairo:

> "Although I somewhat regret to say so, we cannot on purely humanitarian grounds afford to lose sight of the main British and Egyptian interest....That interest as I have frequently stated, appears to me to be that both banks of the Nile from Lake Albert Nyanza to the sea, should be in British or Anglo-Egyptian hands. The good governments of the wild tribes in the interior, even possession of districts which may be commercially productive are relatively of minor importance." Alier, (1973), p.13.

The same point is made by Collins, (1971, p.324):

> "The British conquered and occupied the Southern Sudan in order to secure the Nile waters. Unlike the other regions of Africa, which were partitioned among the European powers at the end of the nineteenth century, neither Christianity nor commerce nor civilization played any part in the decision by British officials to seize the Upper Nile."

The colonial administration's interest in the communications route for strategic purposes led it to neglect the administrative issues. In consequence the administration did not have to have specific policies with respect to Southern Sudan, but dealt with the issues on an ad hoc basis. The colonial administration supposed policy or reaction to the events (depending on what view one took) was administered in small doses that were not meant to arrest the social and economic development of the region but aimed to secure its control over the routes. These doses of policies are summarised in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2   TABLE OF THE COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION POLICIES TOWARDS THE SOUTH

	PERIOD	ADMINISTRATION	PROBLEM OF THE DAY	POLICY PURSUED	OBJECTIVES
PHASE 1	1899-1919	CONDOMINIUM (JOINT ANGLO-EGYPTIAN ADMIN-ISTRATION)	KEEPING PEACE AMONG THE TRIBAL GROUPS AND TO PROTECT THEM FROM EXTERNAL RAIDS BY THE SLAVE RAIDERS	MARSHALL LAW	USING BRITISH TROOPS TO MAINTAIN LAW AND ORDER AND GIVING SOME SUBVENTION TO THE CHRISTIAN MISSIONARY SOCIETIES TO SPREAD SOME CIVILIZING INFLUENCE
PHASE 2	1920-1920	CONDOMINIUM	SUDAN/EGYPT RELATIONS AND THE ADMINISTRATIVE DE-CENTRALISATION	FEASIBILITY STUDY USING EXPERTS TO IDENTIFY POSSIBLE OPTIONS	FINDING AN APPROPRIATE POLICY FOR THE ADMIN-ISTRATION OF THE SUDAN
PHASE 3	1930-1946	CONDOMINIUM	NORTH/SOUTH RELATIONS, EGYPT & NORTHERN INTELL-ECTUAL PRESSURIZING FOR ABOLITION OF THE SOUTHERN POLICY	SOUTHERN POLICY, SEPARATE ADMINIS-STRATION FOR THE SOUTH UNDER A UNITED SUDAN	TO PROTECT SOUTH AFRICANESS FROM THE NORTHERN INFLUENCE WHICH WAS ARAB AND ISLAMIC
PHASE 4	1946-1953	CONDOMINIUM	EGYPT AND NORTHERN SUDAN-ESE INTELLECTUALS PRESSUR-IZING THE ADMINISTRATION TO GRANT SELF-DETERMIN-ATION AND EVENTUAL INDEPENDENCE	TO BRING THE TWO REGIONS TOGETHER AND TO SET UP A PATH FOR AN INDEPENDENT UNITED SUDAN	TO SECURE BRITISH SHARE IN THE SUEZ CANAL AND FOR THE COLONIAL ADMIN-ISTRATION TO PREPARE GROUND FOR THE TOTAL INDEPENDENCE IN 1956

Phase 1 of the colonial administration was from 1899-1919 and consisted mainly of a marshall law. The British troops maintained law and order among the tribes and delegated education to the Christian missionary societies who were paid a subvention to provide what the then Governor General called "provision of some civilizing influence on the savage tribes" (Abdal Rahim, 1969). During this phase the colonial administration only maintained a military presence in the Southern Sudan, but had no proper social or economic development policy. At the same time, social and economic development took place in the North. The explanation for this state of affairs, as advanced by the British administrators themselves, was that the Southern tribes had continued to defy the colonial authority. This argument was summed up by Duncan, (1952) a former British Colonial Administrator, who said that Southern Sudan lagged behind the Northern Sudan, not because the British did not work for the South, but because of what he called the obstinacy of their forebears.

Phase 2 of the colonial administration in Southern Sudan lasted between 1920 and 1930. In this period efforts were made to establish specific policies by which the administration in the Sudan generally, and in the South specifically, could be carried out. These efforts were a result of the Milner Report and the Indirect Rule. The Indirect Rule ethos originated from Brooke, 1871 who argued that –

> "the best way for a government to act is to start from things
> as it finds them, putting its veto on what is dangerous or
> unjust and supporting what is fair and equitable in the usage
> of the natives".

The Milner Report of 1920 terms of reference was to render a report on relations between Sudan and Egypt, but was also able to make recommendations in other aspects of the administration including North-

South relations. Here it recommended a separation of what it called the Negroid territories from Arab territories. It went further then to suggest that:

"Governors of the three Southern Provinces should not, unless required, attend the annual meeting of the Governors from Khartoum, but should have their own gathering in the South or keep in touch with their opposite number in Kenya and Uganda". Abdal Rahim, (1969), p.74.

The Milner Report was regarded as being responsible for the colonial administration adaptation of the Closed District Ordinance or the Southern Policy 1930-1946. The aim of the Southern Policy 1930-1946 was to keep the Southern Sudanese cultural identity separate and to protect it from the Arab cultural influence. This was made very explicit in the policy document itself.

"The policy of the government in the Southern Sudan is to build up a series of self contained racial or tribal units with structure and organisation based to whatever extent the requirement permits, upon indigenous customs, traditional usage and beliefs." CS/1.C.1. Part 1.

The policy classified the Southern part of the Sudan as a closed district and placed restrictions of the movement of people between the North and South. To implement this policy the government had to take the following measures:

(1) All Arab speaking administration staff, clerks and technical personnel were to be replaced from local sources and language of the Government in the South was henceforth to be English.

(2) Syrian and Greek traders were to be urged to replace Arab merchants in the South.

(3) British staff were to familiarise themselves with the beliefs,

customs and language of the tribes they administered. (Collin 1966).

It is worth mentioning here that the concept of the Closed District Ordinance did not apply to the Southern Sudan alone. Similar ordinances were made for the areas of Darfur and the Blue Nile Province. Therefore. it became a general colonial administrative policy to close up certain areas from any outside contact. However, the Egyptian and the Northern intellectuals interpreted this implementation of this policy in the Southern Sudan to mean that the British intended to annex the south of the country to the then British East African possessions of Uganda and Kenya.

In fact the fears of those Northern intellectuals turned out to be unfounded. Although the British did conduct a survey among the Southern Sudanese intellectuals prior to the Juba Administrative Conference of 1947. to ask them whether they would be prepared for the South to be joined to Uganda, or whether it should be left in the union with Sudan. It was common knowledge that Ugandan authorities were not interested in the merger. To the Ugandian, the merger meant adding another burden to them in the form of an unproductive Southern Sudan to their existing problems (Collin, 1966). It was therefore evident from the facts that the reasons which led to the colonial administration to abandon its Southern policy was Uganda's rejection of the merger and the British government's intention to appease Egypt in order to grant her a share in the Suez Canal. This latter point is lesser known, but equally vital. As Wai puts it:

> "Suez Canal was becoming a bone of contention between Britain, France and Egypt, and that Britain did not want to antagonize Egypt in Sudanese affairs. The Southern Sudan was to be sacrificed to appease Egypt." (Wai 1981, pp.51-52.)

The same view was made explicit by the British Foreign Office through Selwyn Lloyd to the British Governor General in the Sudan:

"that any hint of separation (or of temporarily retaining British administration in the South) would be intensely resented by the North, would throw the North into the arms of Egypt and thereby queer the pitch for the deal over Suez which Great Britain hope to make". (Howel, 1978).

These citations support the second contention that a specific colonial administration policy was non-existent but that the administration reacted to the events as they developed, and this can explain the various positions taken by the colonial administration with regard to Southern Sudan.

Phase 3 of the colonial administration in the Southern Sudan extended from 1930-1946. This period was characterized by the struggle to abolish the Closed Districts Ordinance 1922, which was the backbone of the Southern Policy. This struggle cumulated in its final abolition in 1946. The abolition itself was the result of several factors as outlined earlier. Leading the Northern intellectuals in their demand for the abolition of the Closed District Ordinance for the Southern Province was the Graduate Congress which was a Union of North Sudanese graduates from colleges and secondary schools. By 1938, Congress had already submitted their Memorandum to the Government, demanding the abolition of the Closed Districts Ordinance in the Southern Provinces, the stoppage of the Government Subvention to the Christian missionary societies (as mentioned earlier) and demanded the equalization of school syllabuses in the North and the South. The period was also characterised by the creation of consultative machinery in the North while nothing was happening in the South. In the North, and Advisory Council Ordinance 1943 created an Advisory Council to advise the

Government on administrative matters with the Governor General and the Civil Secretary as its President and Vice-President respectively. When the Government was confronted by critics as to why Southern representatives were absent in these consultations, its response was that the reason for excluding the Southern Province from the Council, was practical and not political. It was simply that the Southern Sudanese had not yet, for historic and natural reasons, reached a degree of enlightenment and cohesion which enabled them to send competent representatives to a Council of this kind. (Add Al Rahim, 1969).

Following the abolition of the Southern Policy in 1946, the Colonial Administration neither had the chance nor the time, to make up for the built-in imbalance of social and economic ineqaulities. By the time self-determination was granted in 1953 for the Sudan, Northern Sudan held a clear lead over the Southern Sudan both in social and in economic development. Even some of the British administrators who were in the South reacted negatively to the Civil Secretary's announcement of the abolition of the Southern Policy. Wai, quotes the Governor of Bahr El Ghazal in disapproval of the decision:

"The South's future is being advised upon and is even likely to be decided by wrong men in the wrong places, i.e. by a body of people capable and conscientious but without any direct understanding of the South; preoccupied with political ferment of the North and seeing everything through Omdurman's spectacles....No Southerner was present. No serious effort has been made to extract a consensus of opinion from the educated or leading Southerners...The composition and the proceedings of the Conference gave us the uneasy feeling that South's fate is not to be decided principally on grounds of morality or expediency for the Southerners, but as a pawn in the power politics game." Wai, (1981), p.39.

The Northern intellectuals' success in their effort to have the colonial administration abandoned its Southern Policy led to more demands being made on the administration to initiate local participation. This participation in turn led to more Sudanese political involvement and eventually led to the proclamation of self-determination in 1953 and full Independence in 1956 as the discussions of the last phase of the colonial administration will show.

Phase 4 of the Colonial Administration in the Southern Sudan extended from 1946 until 1953. This period was characterized by the struggle to attain self-determination and eventual independence. Again the leading actors were the Northern intellectuals supported by the Egyptians who had anticipated a union with the Sudan once the British had gone. The Northern Sudanese Administrative Conference of April 1946, born out of the consultative machinery set up in the North without the South, met and resolved to seek self-determination with an eventual view to full independence. Wai summed up the conference report and their stand on the Southern question as follows:

"We are fully aware of the relative backwardness of the people of the Southern Provinces and the advances which they must make therefore before they can reach the height of civilization attained by many peoples in the North. But at the same time a decision must be made and made now, that the Sudan be administered as one country (emphasis mine) though parts may lag behind, yet the aim of the whole is the same and there is no reason why the peoples of the Southern Provinces in the relatively near future should not reach a degree of civilization which will enable them to play their full part in the progressive development of the Sudan." Wai, (1981), p.39.

This was a persuasive argument that certainly influenced the colonial administration to abandon its closed District Ordinance, and promoted the effort to bring the two regions together. This was an

effort for which the administration had neither the time nor the means to achieve during its short term. In 1953 the Legislative Assembly, a child born out of the consultative machinery was able to declare self-determination for the Sudan and on the first day of January 1956, full independence was achieved.

The relevance of the historical review of the Sudan colonial administration legacy to this reseach is in its demonstration of the invalidity of the view that, failure of the national integration in the Sudan and the continuous ethnic and social differences between the Northern and Southern Sudan was a consequence of policies pursued in that period. Rather, as it will be demonstrated in the review of the Sudanese independent governments, that in fact this failure was the result of successive independent governments inability to recognize the ethnic complexity of the Sudan, and their failure to adopt policies that accommodated to the cultural diversity of the country.

The proponents of the first view, however have failed to see the following points:

1. That the North and the South were not united before the colonial administration came to power. It was in fact the Anglo-French Convention of 1899 which settled the spheres of influence in Africa that gave Southern Sudan to the British. The Fashoda incident between General Kitchener of Britain and Captain Marchand of France was the climax of the dispute. (Abd-al-Rahim 1969; Collins 1971; Fabunni 1960 and Brown 1970).

2. That the concept of the Closed District Ordinance was also applied in some of the areas of Northern Sudan, namely Blue Nile and Durfur Provinces. If the argument were to be true, then we should be

witnessing the same South/North conflict in the West and East.
Since no similar conflict is in existence in those areas where
Closed District Ordinance was applied in the North. It then follows
that there must be more to the problem of the North and South than
the past colonial administration policy.

3. That Sudan has been independent for thirty years from 1956 to 1985,
   it can be argued that since the policy was abandoned by the British
   in 1946, why has the successive governments not been able to resolve
   this division?

Certainly, these points and the record of the successive independent
administrations are evidence which points to the invalidity of the first
view. The second view in fact charge the colonial administration with
much more serious neglect than the first view. The second view charges
the colonial administration with lack of objectives, failure to define
policies and allowing the administration to be overcome by the events.
The strength of this argument is the fact that, since that policy was
discontinued, there was no point in holding it responsible. If anything
is responsible it should be the failure of the policy that replaced it.

2.3 The Independent Governments and Their Policies Towards the South 1956-1985

Thirty years after independence the Southern Sudan issue is still
the most distabilizing social and political factor in the country. It
has been credited with the fall of the pre-independent government of El
Azari, 1953/56, the first independent government of Khalil 1956/58, the
first military government of General Aboud, 1958/64 and most recently,
with the fall of the government of General Nimeri, 1969/85. Having
existed for the thirty years after independence, this problem is still

regarded by the author to be the most distabilizing factor in the Sudanese governmental politics. This explains why each government has always maintained a Southern strategy or policy by which it addressed itself to the problem. Figure 2.3 gives a list of independent administrations and their Southern Policies.

FIGURE 2.3 TABLE OF SUDANESE INDEPENDENT ADMINISTRATIONS AND THEIR SOUTHERN POLICIES

PERIOD	ADMINISTRATION	PROBLEM OF THE DAY	POLICY PURSUED	DESIRED OBJECTIVES
1953-56	PREINDEPENDENT ADMINIS-TRATION HEADED BY EL AZARI OF THE NATIONAL UNIONIST PARTY (NUP)	PERSUADING THE UN AND THE COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION THAT SUDAN WAS READY FOR INDEPENDENCE AND THE SUDAN-IZATION OF THE CIVIL SERVICE	INDEPENDENCE AND UNITY WITH EGYPT	TO SEE THE BRITISH OFF AND ESTABLISHMENT OF A UNION WITH EGYPT ON PAN-ARAB NATIONALISM
1956-58	A COALITION OF UMMA PARTY AND PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC PARTY (PDP) HEADED BY KHALIL OF UMMA PARTY	IDEOLOGICAL AND RELIGIOUS SECTORIAL DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE COALITION PAR-TIES. SPLIT WITHIN UMMA PARTY, THE PRESIDENT WANTED A CHANGE OF COALI-TION PARTNER FROM (PDP) TO (NUP). SOUTHERN DELEGATES WANTED A FEDERATION BETWEEN THE NORTH AND SOUTH. NORTH NOT WILLING TO GRANT BECAUSE TO THE NORTH THAT WAS A STEPPING STONE TO SECESSION	TO DRAFT A CONSTI-TUTION THAT WILL DEFINE THE TYPE OF ADMINISTRATION TO BE ADOPTED	ACHIEVEMENT OF AN INDE-PENDENT CONSTITUTION THAT MET THE ASPIRATION OF THE SUDANESE PEOPLES
1958-64	ABOUND MILITARY GOVERN-MENT	SOUTH CALL FOR A FEDERAT-TION, INTERPRETED BY THE NORTH AS A STEPPING STONE TO SECESSION	ARABIZATION AND ISLAMIZATION OF THE SOUTH	ARABIC CULTURE AND ISLAM BEING UNIFYING FACTORS IN THE NORTH SHOULD BE FORCED ON THE SOUTH TO ELIMINATE THE CULTURAL DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE NORTH AND SOUTH
1965-65	CARETAKER GOVERNMENT REPRESENTING ALL PARTIES HEADED BY EL KHALIFA	BRING ABOUT A CEASE FIRE BETWEEN THE ARMY AND SOUTHERN REBLES IN THE SOUTH. TO BRING THE WAR-RING PARTIES TO A NEGOT-IATING TABLE	RECONCILIATION THROUGH DIALOGUE BETWEEN THE NORTH AND SOUTH	TO REDUCE THE TENSION AND TO CREATE AN ATMOS-PHERE FOR NEGOTIATION

1965-66	COALITION OF UMMA AND NUP PARTIES UNDER MAHGOUB OF UMMA	HOW TO CONTAIN THE REBELS IN THE SOUTH TO ENABLE THE NORMAL BUSINESS OF GOVERNMENT	TO DESTORY THE REBELS, THE SOUTHERN PARTIES AND THE SOUTHERN CIVIL SERVANTS WHO WERE SYMPATHETIC WITH THE REBELS	TO TERRORISE SOUTHERNERS INTO SUBMISSION TO ENABLE A DICTATED SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEM
1966-67	COALITION OF UMMA AND NUP PARTIES UNDER MAHDI	PROBLEM OF THE SOUTH SPLIT IN THE UMMA PARTY	TO DESTROY THE REBELS AND THEIR SUPPORTERS, A SHOW OF FORCE TO ENABLE THE GOVERNMENT TO TALK FROM A POSITION OF STRENGTH	TO TERRORISE THE SOUTH INTO SUBMISSION SO THE GOVERNMENT CAN DICTATE THE TERMS
1967-69	COALITION OF UMMA AND NUP UNDER MAHGOUB	PROBLEM OF THE SOUTH, DRAFTING THE CONSTITUTION, COALITION PARTNERS, DIFFERENCE OVER THE TYPE OF ADMINISTRATION TO BE ADOPTED AND OVER WHO WILL BE PRESIDENT	A SHOW OF STRENGTH AND AT THE SAME TIME BRING SOUTHERNERS INTO THE GOVERNMENT	A REBEL SURRENDER OF THEIR ARMS TO THE GOVERNMENT TROOPS SO THAT A NEGOTIATED SETTLEMENT CAN BE DISCUSSED
1969/71	MAY REVOLUTION HEADED BY COL. NIMERI	PROBLEM OF THE SOUTH, IDEOLOGICAL DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEMBERS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY COMMAND COUNCIL RANGING FROM COMMUNIST PAN-ARABIST AND MODERATE	CONTINUE ON THE USE OF FORCE AND OFFERING PROPOSAL FOR A NEGOTIATED SETTLEMENT	A REGIONAL AUTONOMY FOR THE SOUTH UNDER A UNITED SUDAN

1972-80	MAY REVOLUTION UNDER GEN. NIMERI	NORTH REJECTION OF THE OFFER OF THE REGIONAL AUTONOMY TO THE SOUTH AS A SELL-OUT, DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE REMAINING MEMBERS OF THE REVOLUTION COMMAND COUNCIL	CONSOLIDATION OF THE REGIONAL AUTON-OMY IN THE SOUTH AND USAGE OF THE SOUTH TO DEFEND THE REVOLUTION AGAINST MAINLY NORTHERN UPRISING	AN ACHIEVEMENT OF UNITY IN DIVERSITY AND BRING THE SOUTH INTO THE STREAM OF THE SUDANESE POLITICS
1980-83	MAY REVOLUTION UNDER GEN. NIMERI	FEAR OF THE SOUTH BEING TOO STRONG, REGIONALISM BEING EXTENDED TO THE NORTH	DIMINISHING THE POWER OF THE SOUTH BY PLAYING THE SOUTHERNERS AGAINST ONE ANOTHER TO ENABLE AN INTRO-DUCTION OF AN ISLAMIC CONSTITUTION WHICH IS A UNIFYING FACTOR IN THE NORTH	TO ACHIEVE A BREAKDOWN OF THE SOUTH INTO SMALLER REGIONS AND CONSOLIDATE THE NORTHERN REGION UNDER ISLAMIC REPUBLIC
1983-85	MAY REVOLUTION UNDER GEN. NIMERI	PROBLEM OF THE SOUTH, OPPOSITION TO ISLAMIC LAWS AND THE WAY BY WHICH THEY ARE EMPLOYED	CONSOLIDATION OF ISLAMIC LAWS IN NORTH AND SEEKING A WAY BY WHICH SOUTH SHOULD ACCEPT THE LAWS	ACHIEVEMENT OF AN ISLAMIC REPUBLIC WITH ISLAMIC AND ARABIC CULTURE AS THE DOMINANT FEATURE
1985-PRESENT	CARETAKER GOVERNMENT SWAR EL DHAB	PROBLEM OF THE SOUTH OPPOSITION TO ISLAMIC LAWS	PREPARATION FOR THE POLITICAL PARTIES TAKE OVER	UNITY OF THE SUDAN

34

The election manifesto of the preindependence administration of the
National Unionist Party (NUP) listed among its aims the achievement of
full independence for the Sudan, and a union with Egypt after that
independence. The only problem in their achievement of these objectives
was that the South was reluctant to unite with the North and needed
assurances in regard to how the affairs of a united Sudan would be
managed. It was even more unwilling to unite with Egypt. Therefore, to
persuade the South, the NUP promised to give the South a regional
autonomy. To quote a NUP official:

> "Our approach to the question of Sudanization shall always be
> just and democratic, not only shall priority be always given
> to Southerners in the South, but also shall the employment of
> the Southerners be greatly fostered in the North, especially
> in the highest ranks of the central government service. Not
> only government jobs but also memberhip of the different local
> government institutions, development committees, etc. shall be
> as far as possible in the hands of competent southerners in
> the Southern Provinces." Wai, (1981), p.56.

Once Southern co-operation was achieved the House was able to call
for full independence.

> "We, the members of the House of Representatives in Parliament
> assembled, declare in the name of the Sudanese people that
> Sudan is to become a fully independent state and request Your
> Excellency to ask the two condominium powers to recognise the
> declaration forthwith." Wai, (1981), p.69.

When the Southern delegates wanted assurances the House inserted
the following clause:

> "That the House is of the opinion that the claims of the
> Southern Members of Parliament for federal government in the
> three Southern Provinces be given full consideration by the
> Constituent Assembly." Wai, (1981), p.69.

This clause was only meant to achieve the Southern delegates co-
operation in the call for independence as the opposition leader later
points out:

> "We canvassed all the parties to secure unanimity. We
> encountered some difficulty in convincing the Southerners so
> we inserted a special resolution to please them (emphasis
> mine) pledging that the Constituent Assembly would give full
> consideration to the claims of Southern Sudanese Members of
> Parliament for a federal Government for the three Southern
> Provinces." (Wai 1981, p.70.)

Before independence could be achieved, the South became
disappointed over the Sudanization of the Civil Service. Of the 800
posts to be filled only six junior posts went to the South and this was
followed by two damaging incidents, the Nzara riots and the Southern
Corps Mutiny. The Nzara riots started as an industrial dispute in which
the workers of Nzara cotton mill petitioned the management of the scheme
about their grievances with an ultimatum of an industrial action. This
was interpreted by the management (which was Northernized) to be a
politically motivated action and they ordered the police in. This in
turn led to a clash with rioters and the loss of eight lives. This act
was followed later by the Southern Corps mutiny in Torit where troops
refused to transfer to the North. They mutinied and killed their
officers. Thus the North-South conflict of the Sudan started before the
independence was attained a year later.

The first independent administration of the Sudan was not prepared
to discuss the federation between the North and South which was called
for by the Southern delegates of the Constituent Assembly. This was
because the government had labelled it a stepping stone to secession,
while the Southern delegates wanted to discuss it as the basis for the
beginning of the Sudanese Administration, and the condition by which

independence was achieved.   This view was well summed up by Alier   when

he said:

> "Independence came as a result of agreement between North and
> South based on a firm pledge on the part of the North to work
> out a federal relationship as a safeguard against cultural
> assimilation, the monopoly of policy-making of jobs, social
> services and economic development plans, and also to eliminate
> the Southerners' fear and suspicioin of the North, as
> expressed at the 1947 Juba Conference." (Alier 1973, p.19.)

The other factor that led to the failure of the first independence

Goverment to achieve any of its objectives was the fact that, the

coalition partners themselves were so divided over so many issues that a

chance of agreement was only a remote possibility.   That was why it did

not come as a surprise when two years later, the administration was

overthrown by a military coup, without achieving any of its objectives.

The downfall of the government came as a result of a dead-lock in

the Constituent Assembly when Southern delegates walked out because the

Northern delegates were not prepared to discuss their call for a

federation between Northern Sudan and Southern Sudan. In addition there

was a failure by the coalition partners to agree on the model of

government to be adopted for the Sudan.   The Umma Party wanted an

Executive Presidency for the Sudan, based on the USA model, while the

PDP wanted a Westminster type administration, where powers would be

invested in the Prime Minister.

The Abound Military Government's short term solution to the North-

South problem was a military one.   It involved the destruction of the

Southern resistance, and its long term aim was Islamization and

Arabization of the South.   This objective was given top priority by the

Government and a massive army was sent to the South with orders to kill

the rebels and their supporters. The aim was well summarized by Governor Baldo of Equatoria when he said:

"We thank God that by the marvellous efforts of the Revolutionary Government, the country will remain forever united. You should turn a deaf ear to any talk which comes from politicians, as you well know what has become of them in the past few years and you certainly don't want bloodshed again in the South. You are aware that anybody who interferes with public peace and tranquility will be dealt with severely and at once. During the days of Parliament, the Southern Parliamentary members advocated a federal government for the South. Such ideas are gone with politicians." (Russel and McCall 1973, p.100.)

The same Governor, in seeking to achieve the Government's objectives, was forcing civil servants from the Southern Sudan to change their names from Christian ones to what he called "Government names" (Islamic names such as Mohamed etc.) This was to be a condition of them keeping their jobs. As Alier puts it:

"In 1959-1964, a wholesale propaganda in South and especially in Equatoria Province was spread against Christian names and in favour of Arabic names. In Maridi and Lui, lists were drawn up every morning and posted on the official notice boards by Local Government Inspectors and Medical Officers of Government officials, who had rejected the foreign names of John or Barnabas, and foreign religion in favour of the national names of Ibrahim or Abbas and the national religion. The Missionary Societies Act of 1962 was passed to limit and discourage the expansion of Christianity and Department of religious affairs was created in the Ministry of Education for the encouragement and spread of Islam." (Alier 1973, p.16.)

The differences between the North and the South were greatly widened during the Aboud's Government. The ways to which those differences can be used in the persecution of the weaker ones were well demonstrated. It is also thought that even the Southern consciousness of these differences and how to respond to their persecution were developed from that period.

Following the demise of the Aboud's Government came the Caretaker Government of El Khalifa from 1964 to 1965 which had neither the mandate nor the time to achieve any long term solution. Its immediate objective was to reduce the tension between the warring parties (North and South) which were at the time in armed conflict with one another and sought to bring about talks. The Government was able to achieve this by bringing about the Round Table Conference in which all parties from South and North participated. Although the Round Table Conference itself became deadlocked, in terms of parties not agreeing on any substance, it was able to appoint a twelve-man committee to explore the problem of the South and to report back to the Government. This committee recommended a regional system for the Sudan, but disagreed on the details on how that regional set-up be constituted. The Northern Parties called for nine regions based on the Marhall Report Dr. Marshall, Borough Treasurer of Coventry was asked by the Colonial Administration in 1948 to report on the Local Government System in the Sudan and was able to present a report by which Sudan was divided into nine provinces. The Southern members called for the Sudan to be divided into four regions with the three Southern Provinces forming one region. Their recommendations and their reasoning are presented here, extracted from their report, (Section 26 of the same).

TABLE 2.4 THE TWELVE-MAN COMMITTEE RECOMMENDATIONS: THE NORTH/SOUTH POSITIONS.

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF THE SUDAN

THE NORTHERN SUDANESE POSITION

A. THE SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT SHALL BE BASED ON PRINCIPLES
    THAT GUARANTEE THE CONTINUED EXISTENCE OF THE SUDAN AS
    ONE SOVEREIGN ENTITY.

    1. NO SOVEREIGN STATE WOULD ACCEPT THE SETTLEMENT OF ANY
       INTERNAL PROBLEM IN A WAY THAT WOULD PREJUDICE ITS
       NATIONAL UNITY. THIS IS A GENERALLY ACCEPTED
       PRINCIPLE EVEN IN FEDERAL STATES SUCH AS THE UNITED
       STATES, AUSTRALIA, CANADA, ETC.

    2. THE TREND TOWARD UNITY IS AN INTERNATIONAL, AND
       ESPECIALLY, AFRICAN PHENOMENON. THERE IS NO PLACE IN
       AFRICA (WHICH ASPIRES FOR UNITY) FOR THE
       MULTIPLICATION OF REGIONAL DIVISONS AND THE
       BALKANIZATION OF THE CONTINENT IN A MANNER THAT WOULD

       COMPLICATE ITS POLITICAL SET-UP AND UNDERMINE ITS PACE
       AND PROGRESS.

    3. THE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF ANY COUNTRY (AND
       ESPECIALLY OF UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES) CALLS FOR A

       WIDE GEOGRAPHICAL BASIS WHICH WOULD PROVIDE SUFFICIENT
       HUMAN AND NATURAL RESOURCES, AND FACILITATE THE
       EFFICIENT EXPLOITATION OF A WIDE MARKET. SEPARATION
       BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH WOULD SERIOUSLY COMPROMISE
       DEVELOPMENT OF BOTH REGIONS.

    4. CONSIDERING THE HUMAN, ECONOMIC, AND GEOGRAPHICAL TIES
       THAT BIND NORTH AND SOUTH, SEPARATION WOULD
       PRECIPITATE NUMEROUS HUMAN AND POLITICAL PROBLEMS
       WHICH WOULD ENFEEBLE BOTH REGIONS AND INVITE
       IMPERIALIST INTERVENTION WHICH WOULD AGGRAVATE THE
       DISSENSION.

THE SOUTHERN SUDANESE POSITION

A. THE TRENT TOWARD UNITY IS VOLUNTARY IN NATURE. AS TO THE QUESTION
    OF SELF-DETERMINATION WE SHALL NOT QUESTION WHETHER IT IS A RIGHT
    ABSOLUTE OR CONDITIONAL. WE HAVE IN OUR OPENING SPEECHES SHOWN
    THAT PEACE AND INTERNATIONAL SECURITY HAVE BEEN THREATENED IN
    THE SOUTHERN SUDAN DURING THE LAST HUNDRED YEARS AND PARTICULARLY
    DURING THE LAST DECADE (SINCE INDEPENDENCE). SO WE WISH TO
    AVOID ITS CONTINUING. WE SHALL FURTHER REMIND THE CONFERENCE THAT
    THE UNITY OF AFRICA AND THE WORLD IS BASED ON:

        (I)   JUSTICE
        (II) EQUALITY
        (III) DIGNITY OF INDIVIDUAL ALONE OR IN A COMMUNITY. THIS
              IS THE BASIS OF THE CHARTERS OF THE ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN
              UNITY, THE UNITED NATIONS AND THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF
              HUMAN RIGHTS 1948.

    THESE PILLARS OF AFRICAN UNITY AND IN FACT OF ALL NATIONS IN THE
    INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY ARE ABUSED IN THE SOUTHERN SUDAN BECAUSE OF
    THE PRESENT UNITY WE ARE MAINTAINING. TO REFUSE THE LEGITIMATE
    CLAIMS OF THE SOUTH BECAUSE OF AFRICAN UNITY OR THE INTERNATIONAL
    COMMUNITIES, IS TO TURN THE IDEA OF UNITY INTO AN INSTRUMENT OF
    OPPRESSION.

    1. THE IMPLICATIONS OF SELF-DETERMINATION AS WE SEE THEM ARE AS
       FOLLOWS:

        (I)   THE SOUTHERN SUDANESE IN CHOOSING WHAT THEY CONSIDER TO BE
              BEST FOR THEM WILL CERTAINLY NOT BE WORSE THAN THEY HAVE
              BEEN DURING THE LAST DECADE; PERHAPS THEY WILL CONTRIBUTE
              MORE EFFECTIVELY TO THE UNITY OF AFRICA.

        (II) THE PROBABILITY IS THAT THE SOUTHERN SUDANESE WILL HAVE THE
              OPPORTUNITY TO DEVELOP ECONOMICALLY, SOCIALLY, AND
              POLITICALLY.

        (III) PEACE AND FRIENDSHIP ARE LIKELY TO BE ESTABLISHED BETWEEN
              THE NORTH AND THE SOUTH ON THE BASIS OF EQUALITY (ASSUMING
              THAT THE SOUTH OPTED FOR INDEPENDENCE).

5. THE RIGHT TO SELF-DETERMINATION IS NOT AN ABSOLUTE RIGHT WHICH MAY BE USED, OR ABUSED, BY AN FACTION WITHOUT DUE REGARD TO THE INTEREST OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY NOR IN A MANNER DETRIMENTAL TO PEACE AND SECURITY. NOR IS IT A COURSE WHICH MAY BE LIGHTLY FOLLOWED WITHOUT THE PROPER UNDERSTANDING OF ITS IMPLICATIONS AND CONSEQUENCES, AND/OR DUE REGARD TO THE REQUISITES OF NATIONAL INDEPENDENCE.

6. RELATIONS BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH ARE NOT BASED ON ANY EXPLOITATION OR COLONIZATION WHICH WOULD JUSTIFY THE CLAIM FOR SEPARATION. NOR DOES THE SUDANESE WAY OF LIFE TOLERATE RACIAL DISCRIMINATION. THERE IS NO EVIDENCE IN THE HISTORY OF THE SUDAN SINCE

INDEPENDENCE THAT SHOWS THE NORTH HAS EXPLOITED THE RESOURCES OF THE SOUTH OR DISCRIMINATED AGAINST IT IN SOCIAL SERVICES AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEMES.

B. THE ADMINISTRATIVE SYSTEM OF THE SUDAN SHALL BE

ESTABLISHED ON A GEOGRAPHICAL BASIS THAT WILL GUARANTEE FOR THE SOUTH A REGIONAL GOVERNMENT SUITED TO ITS SPECIAL CIRCUMSTNACES AND LIKEWISE GUARNATEE TO OTHER REGIONS OF THE SUDAN DEGREES OF REGIONAL GOVERNMENT THAT SUIT EACH.

2. THE ARGUMENT FOR ECONOMIC INTEGRATION AS CLAIMED TO CALL FOR A WIDE GEOGRAPHICAL BASIS WHICH WOULD PROVIDE SUFFICIENT HUMAN AND NATURAL RESOURCES DOES NOT IN THE LEAST PRECLUDE THE DEMAND FOR SELF-DETER-MINATION. IN FACT, ECONOMIC INTEGRATION CAN AND HAS BEEN ACHIEVED WITHOUT POLITICAL INTEGRATION. THE EAST AFRICAN COMMUNITY AND THE EUROPEAN COMMON MARKET ARE TWO OF THE MANY EXAMPLES THAT CAN BE CITED.

3. WE RE-EMPHASIZE THE FOLLOWING POINTS:

(I) SUDANIZATION WAS IN FACT NOTHERNIZATION AS FAR AS THE SOUTH IS CONCERNED. THE NORTHERN ADMINISTRATORS CONTINUED TO ACT THE SAME AS THE BRITISH COLONIZERS.

(II) IN THE FIELD OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT, THE SOUTH HAS BEEN DELIBERATELY SUBJECTED TO STAGNATION. OF THE NINE INDUSTRIAL AND PRODUCTIVE SCHEMES OPENED SINCE INDEPENDENCE ONLY ONE HAS BEEN ALLOCATED IN THE SOUTH. FURTHERMORE, PRE-INDEPENDENCE INDUSTRIAL SCHEMES SUCH AS THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A SUGARCANE PLANTATION AND REFINERY IN MONGALLA, AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF PAPER AND FISH CANNING FACTORIES IN MALAKAL HAVE BEEN DIVERTED TO THE NORTH.

(III) EQUALLY, THE SOUTH HAS BEEN SUBJECTED TO RETROGRESSION IN SOCIAL ADVANCEMENT. THERE IS ONLY ONE ACADEMIC SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL IN THE SOUTH OPENED SINCE 1948 AS COMPARED TO 20 GOVERNMENT SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE NORTH. WHILE THERE ARE 9 SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS IN THE NORTH, THERE ARE NONE IN THE SOUTH. OUT OF MORE THAN 70 HOSPITALS OPENED, THERE ARE ONLY 17 IN THE SOUTH.

(IV) FINALLY, THE MEANS OF COMMUNICATIONS IN THE SOUTH HAVE REMAINED MORE THAN INADEQUATE.

B. THE NORTHERN POLITICAL PARTIES DO NOT MAKE A CONVINCING CASE FOR UNITY IN THEIR ARGUMENTS. BUT THEIR OFFER OF A "REGIONAL GOVERNMENT" SHALL BE INCLUDED IN THE LIST OF POSSIBLE CHOICES TO BE PRESENTED IN A PLEBISCITE TO THE PEOPLE OF THE SOUTH. THE LIST WILL THEREFORE READ:

1. UNITY WITH THE NORTH

2. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

3. FEDERATION.

4. SEPARATION

SOURCES: WAI, DUNSTAN M., 1981, THE AFRICAN-ARAB CONFLICT IN THE SUDAN, AFRICANA PUBLISHING COMPANY, NEW YORK AND LONDON, PP.102-104.

The Umma and NUP coalition 1965/66 under Magoub of Umma came about as a result of the elections conducted in the North only. Elections could not be conducted in the South due to insecurity in the region. Magoub picked up the pieces where General Aboud left them. He turned the clock back to the pre-1964 situation. He advocated a military solution to the Southern problem. He refused talks with the rebels, an option that was started by his predecessor Mr. El Khalifa of the Caretaker Government 1964/65. Because of Magoub's militant stand in regard to the rebels in the Southern Sudan, his administration was marked by violence. Many civil servants from the Southern Sudan were killed, who were sympathetic to the rebels. It was in this period that 1,400 civilians were killed in Juba, and 76 senior government officials were killed in Wau on July 8th and 11th respectively. (Wai 1973, p.109.)

The nine month old Umma and NUP coalition headed by El Mahdi of Umma from October 1966 to July 1967 came as a result of the split within the Umma Party.* One wing of the Umma Party was led by Saddiq S.A. El Mahdi and the other was led by Imam El Hadi A. El Mahdi. The change was therefore of personalities, it was a change of Magoub of El Hadi Umma Wing with Saddiq of Saddiq Wing. Therefore it was apparent that Saddiq had to operate within the party line, which was that the rebels should lay down their arms as a condition for talks.

---

* Umma Party is a family and religious based party. It was created by Abdel Rhaman El Mahdi son of Mohamed Ahmed who claimed he was a Mahdi (an Islamic Prophet). Mahdi was the first to establish an Islamic Republic in the Sudan in 1885, after overthrowing the first colonial administration of the Sudan led by the Ottoman Turks. Mahdi Islamic Republic was eventually defeated by a joint British and Egyptian Army headed by General Gordon in 1898. Mahdi followers belong to an Islamic sect called the "Ansars". In 1965 Saddiq Saddik Abdel Rhaman El Mahdi great grandson of Mahdi was elected President of the Umma Party and his uncle Imam El Hadi Abdel Rhaman El Mahdi was made Patron of the party. In 1966 Saddiq disagreed with his uncle the party Patron. That disagreement led to the split in the Party. One wing of the party was headed by Saddiq and the other by Imam El Hadi.

However, Saddiq because of his personal Islamic conviction had a wider vision that his government and Christian organizations should eliminate paganism (African religious beliefs) and convert all Africans to either Islam or Christianity so that only Christianity and Islam co-exist in Africa. A view he made explicit in his fourteen-point protocol between Christianity and Islam sent to the Pope (Christian Science Monitor, April 26, 1966).

"We should agree that paganism should be eliminated for humanitarian and humanistic purposes. Islam and Christianity have there a common interest. We could agree to co-existence with a view to converting all pagans into believers".

Saddiq did not last long enough to see his dream come true, as he came up through the split in his party, and through a direct confrontation between him and his uncle, the spiritual leader of the Ansars he had to go the same way. His coalition was brought down by a vote of no confidence and Magoub of the El Hadi Umma wing had to be reinstated as Prime Minister.

Magoub's second administration 1967/69 sought to establish his authority in the Umma Party. Because of the internal threat most of Magoub's second administration powers were concentrated in an internal fight. This was responsible for Saddiq's defeat in a mid term election and the elimination of Saddiq's friends, Deng of the Sudan African National Union (SANU) from the South who had formed an alliance with Saddiq wing, was assassinated during the same elections, and Saddiq's strong men all failed to regain their seats in these elections.

Magoub was about to pick up the pieces to consolidate his government with a new coalition with the Democratic Unionist Party (DUP)

which was a merger of the Nationalist Unionist Party (NUP) with the People's Democratic Party (PDP) when his government was overthrown by a military coup headed by Colonel El Nimeri in May 1969.

The revolution effort to use force and offering a proposal to negotiate with the rebels in the South were being retarded by the internal struggle within the Revolution Command Council. The Council consisted of various extreme elements, to the extreme left were members of the Sudan Communist Party, to the centre left were Pan-Arabists (offspring of Nassar Pan-Arabism in Egypt), and the Islamic Fundamentalist to the extreme right. Thus, this period was marked by internal struggle which cumulated in the July 1971 Communist Coup which lasted for three days. The defeat of that coup led to the killing of most of the Communist Party members.

The revolution intention to negotiate with the rebels was made known by the government through its June 9th Declaration, which was essentially the revolution solution to the chronic Southern Problem. This policy objective was summed up by the Regional Autonomy Clause of the Declaration as follows:

> "You will realise that the building of a broad socialist-oriented democratic movement in the South, forming part of the Revolutionary Structure in the North and capable of assuming the reign of power in that region and rebuffing imperialist penetration and infiltration from the rear is an essential prerequisite for the practical and healthy application of regional autonomy." Ministry of Foreign Affairs, (1972), p.117.

It was with this framework in mind and prepartion for the day when this policy would be exercised that the revolutionary government of Colonel Nimeri drew up the following programme:

1. The continuation and further extension of the Amnesty Law.

2. Economic, social and cultural development of the South.

3. The appointment of a minister for Southern Affairs.

4. The training of personnel.

"The Government will create a special economic planning board for the South and will prepare a special budget for the South, which aims at the development of the Southern provinces in the shortest possible time." Ibid, p.117.

This effort was being hindered by the internal struggle to control the direction and ideological orientation of the revolution. The Communists at the extreme left wanted a programme on Marxist-Lennist based, and the Pan-Arabists wanted programmes that followed the Nassar Pan-Arabist line. This struggle was ended when the Communists planned their coup to overthrow the Government, so they could control and direct the revolution towards their aims. This effort ended in their defeat and the eventual death of the Communist Party leadership in the Sudan. The party was regarded as the strongest, and best organised Communist Party in Africa and the Middle East. Those executed after the defeat included the Secretary General of the Sudan Communist Party, the Trade Union leader, members of the Central Bureau and their Military Officers who led the Coup. This was one of the bloodiest coups in the Sudan.

The May Revolution period 1972-1980 was marked by relative social and political stability in as far as the North, South relations were concerned. This was the period of negotiation. An agreement was signed between the North and the South in Addis Abba (Ethiopia) under the good offices of the late Emperor of Ethiopia. It was known as the Addis Abba Agreement. It ended the hostilities between the Government forces and the Southern Sudan Liberation Movement (SSLM) the armed wing of Anya-

Nya. The agreement paved the way for the establishment of regional autonomy in the Southern Sudan within a United Sudan.

Although this period was also marked by several attempts to overthrow the Government, these attempts were regarded as coming from the Northern hardliners who regarded the Agreement as a sell out and as such wanted to get rid of the Government. But it appeared these hardliners had little support.

The offer of a Regional Autonomy to the South was seen as a historic achievement both within the Sudan and outside in the international community. This chronic problem had stagnated the country's development and has cost about a million lives. The importance attached to the achievement by the Government was explicit in the preamble of the Act itself.

> "An organic law to organise self-government in the Southern Provinces of the Sudan. In accordance with the provision of the Constitution of the Democratic Republic of the Sudan herinafter defined in this Act,

and,

> In realization of the memorable May Revolution Declaration of the 9th of June 1969, for realization in the Southern Sudan, Sudan of regional self-government within a united socialist wing

and,

> In accordance with the principle of the May Revolution that the Sudanese people shall participate actively in and support the decentralised system of the Government of their country,

and,

> In accordance with the provisions of Article 40 of the Republican Decree No. 1, the President of the Democratic Republic of the Sudan hereby makes the following Act: (The Southern Provinces Self-Government Act 1972).

The period 1980-1983 was marked by the extension of regionalism to Northern Sudan, following a successful experiment in the Southern Sudan. It was also marked by government determination to dismantle the Southern Region and to create three smaller regions to alleviate the North's fear that a United Southern Sudan was a potential threat to the North. Because in the Northern Sudanese opinion, Southern Sudanese had the tendency to want to break away from the united Sudan. That was why, despite the majority of Southern Sudanese people being against such a division, the government had to insist on dividing the Southern Region by a Presidential decree. That decree by-passed all the legal and constitutional channels to ensure that the Southern Region was divided.

The 1980 Local Government Act, which created the Regions in the Northern Sudan was based on the success of the regional experiment in the Southern Sudan 1972-1980. The Act itself was passed under the directional leadership of the then Vice President, and former President of the High Executive Council in the South from 1972-1977 Mr. Abel Alier. Thus it was thought to have benefitted from the hindsight of the Southern regional experience.

The arguments for dividing the Southern Region into three smaller regions were not new. The North had feared the possibility of the South being adjoined to the British East Africa during the colonial administration and the same view was well articulated by the Northern Parties in the Report of the Twelve-man Committee in 1965 as cited in Clause (d) No. 4 Article 26 Regional geography:

> "If the South is made into one region this will perpetuate the sense of confrontation between North and South which we are trying to end through these efforts. As there may be some sentimental feeling that urges this demand, and as sentimental feelings can be legitimate and beneficial it may be met in

this case by allowing any number of regions to pool any of their services."

The argument against the division of the Southern Region into more than one region were advanced by the Solidarity Committee of the Southern members of National Assembly Omdurman, 1981 Booklet, "The Redivision of the Southern Region: Why It Must Be Rejected". An open letter written by the Council for Unity to the President, entitled Constitutional and political effect of the division of the Southern Region into more than one, made the same points.

The arguments all centred around the Self-Government Act 1972, which defined the region and how the Act can be amended, particularly Article 34 which stated:

"This Act shall only be amended by a majority of three-quarters of the Peoples' National Assembly and the approval of a majority of two-thirds of the Southern Region in a referendum to be carried out in that Region".

At the time of the debate it was rightly feared that since the President did not have the majority required to amend this law, he would try to go around it and undo it by a Presidential decree. This was what happened on 5th June 1983, when Southern Region was divided by a Presidential decree Order No. 1, 1983, on the Organisation of Regional Goverment in the Southern Provinces. Chapter one stated:

"No. 2.1 There shall be established three regions in the Southern Sudan as follows:

(a) The Bahr EL ghazal Region, the Capital of which shall be Wau City.

(b) Equatoria Region, the Capital of which shall be Juba City

(c) Upper Nile Region, the Capital of which shall be Malakal
     City". Presidential Order No. 1, 1983.

The two years from 1983 to 1985 have been marked by a renewed

growing tension between the North and the South.   This is attributed to

the two major decisions which the President took against the wishes of

the majority of the Southern messes.   The division of the Southern

Region into three smaller regions, bypassing all the Constitutional and

legal aspects, and the decreeing of the Islamic Sharia Laws to be the

sources of the legal system in the Sudan.

The consequences of the division of the Southern Region into three

smaller regions can be at best described as disastrous.   The postmortem

analysis has shown that the reaction of the opponents of that division

had ranged from an outright rebellion to downright apathy.   Many

opponents amongst the politicians, military, police and prison warders

rebelled and joined the rebel organizations that were waging an armed-

struggle against the government.   Most Equatorians however welcomed the

division, as division for them meant having got rid of Dinka domination.

(Dinka being the largest ethnic group in the Sudan).

Because of lack of foresight and feasibility studies, it was

deicded in advance that the budget and assets of the soon to be

abolished Southern Region, were to be divided equally between the

smaller regions.   Also because of the ethnic bias of the division

manpower, employees were to be posted to their places of birth. It was

not long before it was realized that 65% of the defunct Southern Region

had been recruited from Equatoria Region and only 35% were recruited

from the other regions of Bahr El Ghazal and Upper Nile.   (Juba

Administrative Conference, 1984).   This meant that Equatoria Region

excess manpower could not be paid from the Region's small budget. Because of these consequences, General Nimeri had to rethink his decision and had contemplated reunification of the South before he was overthrown in April 1985.

The first order of business of General Swar El Dhab, when he took over power from General Nimeri was to reverse his decree. He ordered a formation of a High Executive Council based on the Southern Provinces Self-government Act 1972. It remained to be seen how the unification will work as most Equatorians are still opposed to it. As it stands now the newly appointed President of the High Executive Council and his ministers are operating from Khartoum but not in Juba the Southern Sudan's Capital.

Finally in the justification of the research contention that, the failure of national integration and the continuous North-South conflict in the Sudan is a failure of the successive independent administration, that cannot be blamed on the colonial administration past policies. As narrated in the review of the independent administration, it has been explicitly clear that no administration other than May Revolution made any honest attempt to address itself to the problem of the North-South division. The following are the summaries of these narratives:

1. The preindependent administration of NUP from 1953-1956 failed to discuss, the Southern delegates called for a federation between the North and the South. This led to the Southern delegates feeling that their co-operation in the struggle for independence was falsely acquired and led to their members withdrawing from the government. Federation would have decentralized the powers and spread the social and economic benefits to all ethnic groups, to enable each group to

develop evenly and participate in the government decision making machinery. This was not possible despite the call by the Southern delegates in the Assembly, because the Northern group that was dominant wanted to monopolize the government benefits. This led to a highly centralized system that worked only for the benefit of Khartoum and its immediate vicinity and distance areas like the South were neglected as was pointed out earlier by the ILO/UNDP report.

2. The coalition of Umma party and the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) from 1956-58. Rejection of the same Southern delegate called for discussion of the same federation, which led to the Southern members walking out of the Assembly. This was the clearest evidence of the Southern representatives' anger about the Northerners' insensitivity to the ethnic conflict in the Sudan.

3. Aboud's military government from 1958-1964 arrest of the Southern representatives and putting the whole Southern Sudan under a marshall law, introduction of the programmes of Arabization and Islamization which led to Christians being forced to change their names as a condition for public service employment. The killing of several Southern civil servants and other civilians in the Southern towns was other serious evidence of the open confrontation based on radical, religious and regional divisions. (Alier 1973 and Wai 1981).

4. The Caretaker government of El Khalifa from 1964-1965 called for a Round Table Conference between the North and the South was an attempt by a government which did not have the mandate and the time to resolve such a chronic problem. As he had only twelve months to prepare the ground for an elected government which was to restore democracy after six years of military dictatorship.

5. Coalition of Umma Party and NUP under Magoub of Umma from 1965-1966 militant stand which refused to negotiate with South unless the rebels in the South surrender their arms to him. Was another one sided view of the cultural conflict, which again led to serious bloodshed.

6. The May Revolution under General Nimeri from 1969-1985 offered a regional autonomy was the only honest attempt to recognize the ethnic complexity of the Sudan. But he was quick in watering it down because of pressure from the Arab world and the Muslim fundamentalists. His turn about in 1983 with an introduction of the Sharia Law which reduced the Christian in the Sudan to a secondary citizen, was the new aparthied that glorified Arabs and Islam and condemned African and Christianity and paganism.

Therefore, the macro problem of the Sudan at the national level is the failure of national integration and ethnocentric divisions where the North and South clash over religious and racial identity, while the micro level problem in the Southern Sudan is a clash on the subgroup basis.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 Literature Review Cultural Environment and Management.

This chapter contains a literature review, which traces the

historical evolution of the concept of culture.   It summarises the

literature on the concepts of culture and organizational analysis and

discusses some of the basic social and cultural facts about Southern

Sudan.   The aim of the chapter is to link the historical perspective of

the concept of culture to organizational analysis, and use the basic

social and cultural facts about the Southern Sudan Community to point

out the possible areas where culture conflicts with management

practices.

3.1 Ecological Evolution of the Concept of Culture.

Historically, the definition of culture is traced to an

anthropologist Tylor. (1832-1917) who defined it as:

> "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art,
> moral. law custom and any other capabilities and habits
> acquired by man as a member of a society." (Tylor, 1958 p.1.)

Tylor's holism which failed to distinguish the roles of social

organizations and institutions became the universal basis to which most

ethnologists including Boas and Malinowski, subscribed until the early

1950s.   After that time social anthropology developed under the

leadership of Radcliff-Brown. (Singer 1961).

Social anthropology then became a separate inquiry, whose emphasis

came to be the study of social structure.   This 'school of thought' was

represented by Radcliff-Brown and derived its work from Morgan and the

French Sociological School.   While ethnology or cultural anthropology

area of study remained the study of cultural patterns.   This 'school'

was represented by Kroeber and derived its work from Tylor, Boas, Malinowski and the German diffusionist. (Singer 1961).

The development of social anthropology as a discipline separate from that of cultural anthropology in the 1950s was an evolutionary process. It offered a study which provided new knowledge in form of the roles played by social organizations and institutions in the consolidation of culture in a society. This ecological process is demonstrated in Figure 3.1.

FIG. 3.1 A Diagram showing the Ecological Process of the Concept of Culture.

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                    │ TYLOR'S OMNIBUS DEFINITION   │
                    │                              │
                    │ CULTURE - ANTHROPOLOGY       │
                    └─────────────────────────────┘
                                  │
1 9 5 0 s      ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────┐
       ┌──────────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────────────┐
       │ CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY │      │ SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY      │
       │ REPRESENTED BY        │      │ REPRESENTED BY           │
       │ KROEBER, BOAS,        │      │ RADCLIFF-BROWN, MORGAN   │
       │ MALINOWSKI AND        │      │ AND FRENCH SOLIOLOGICAL  │
       │ GERMAN DIFFUSIONISTS. │      │ SCHOOL.                  │
       └──────────────────────┘      └──────────────────────────┘
                  │                              │
          ┌───────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────────┐
          │     BIAS       │          │         BIAS            │
          │ STUDY OF CULTURE│         │ STUDY OF SOCIAL STRUCTURE│
          └───────────────┘          └─────────────────────────┘
```
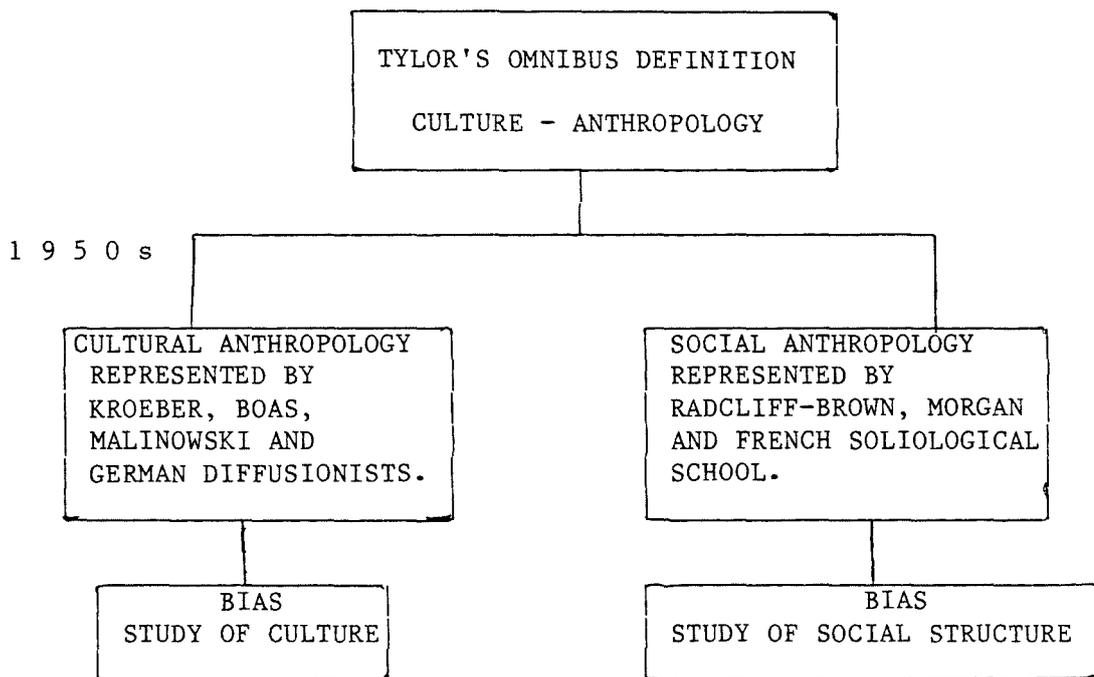
Sources: Developed from the Literature of Ecological Evolution of the Concept of Culture.

3.2 The Theory of Culture.

The contemporary theory of culture as advanced by Kroeber and Kluckhohn takes an interactionalist perspective. Culture is understood to be the product of the individual, group and environment acting

together.   Kroeber and Kluckhohn   (1952) in summarizing several

definitions of culture, concluded that:

> "Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit,
> of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols,
> constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups,
> including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core
> of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historical derived
> and selected) ideas and especially their attached values;
> culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as
> products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of
> further action." p.181.

In this respect culture was seen as that precipitatant in a person that,

shaped the person's view of events in his environment, in ways not

wholly determined by biology and physical environmental process.   Thus

culture can be seen as an intervening variable between human organism

and the environment.   In this context culture is defined as the'thing'

in a person that helps him to perceive his environment in accordance

with the norms, values and the traditions of his society.

3.3 Cultural Relativism.

    Embodied within the theory of culture is a multipurpose concept

known as cultural relativism.   Bidney (1953) argued that cultural

relativism was to be understood in the following contexts:

(a)   A method in ethnology and social anthropology.

(b)   A theory of cultural determinism and philosophy of cultural
      reality.

(c)   An attitude toward practical problems of socio-cultural reform and
      change.

(a)   As a method of ethnology and social anthropology, it requires the

researcher to resign his culture value and to behave and think in the

subjective culture of the respondent, i.e. see the respondent,

in the way he wants to be seen.   In this context, social and cultural

phenomena are prescribed and described in terms of scientific

detachment, but from the perspective of the respondent cultural context.

For example, if an enquiry is about the social and cultural values and norms of American Indians and the investigator is Spanish, the perception and description has to be made within the American Indian cultural context. The Spaniard thus has to resign his Spanish cultural values and norms, and think in terms of the American Indian cultural context.

This method enables the researcher to achieve an understanding of the social and cultural phenomena in its own context, without having to impose foreign values and norms to interpret it. This approach is consistent with the phenomenologist's concept of bracketing away of personal bias in inquiry to enable him to understand the meaning of experience as expressed by the conscious mind of the respondent. (Husserl 1931). This is also close to the ethnographic tradition, which rejects the positivists argument that emotional reflections are based on the individual emotions and thus have no objective meaning in reality. (Westermarch 1932). This argument will be developed further in Chapter Six where a discussion of the methodology which will cover the positivistic and phenomenologistic based methods of inquiry.

(b)   The theory of cultural determinism and the philosophy of cultural reality, was advanced by Herskovits (1955) who stated that:

> "All reality as known is cultural reality and all human experience is culturally mediated. And if all human experience is structured by enculturation it follows that all cultural judgements, perceptions and evaluation, are functions of culture and are relative to a given cultural system. Moral values are but one element in cultural experience, and moral relativism is only one aspect of a general theory of cultural relativism." (Herskovits 1955 p.35.)

The theory of cultural determinism views the cultural environment as a total system in which all the cultural phenomena are explained only

through their own phenomena and are not reduced to any other lower order
of reality (Kroeber and Spencer 1917). For example, in our earlier
example of the Spaniard studying values of the American Indian, it was
seen appropriate for the Spaniard to resign his culture values and to
study the American Indian in the context of their own cultural values.
If the Spaniard was to insist on evaluating the American Indian based on
the Spanish cultural values. This evaluation would be equivalent to
reducing the American Indian culture to the level of the Spaniard. This
comparison would be seen as a reduction from one level of reality to
another level of reality, i.e. one reality as perceived by the American
Indian cultural context, and the other one as perceived by the Spanish
cultural context. The theory of cultural determination accepts both as
equal without necessarily reducing one to the level of the other. This
is known as the equality of desparate value systems, i.e. each one is a
total system in itself which does not need to be reduced to any other
system.

The philosophy of cultural reality takes the view that reality is a
product of cultural values and functions and reflects the interest of
culture of the society. Therefore, all social and cultural phenomena
express the interest of their Societies, e.g. British cultural values
reflect the interest of the British society and vice versa for the
Sudan.

(c)   An approach to the practical problems of socio-cultural reform and
change. An understanding of the concept of culture has sensitized us to
the danger of the uncritical evaluation of cultural conditioning, by
providing explanations of how attitudes are formed and how they can be
changed. In the process of cultural change and reform, the two
following principles are regarded as very essential:

(1)   Tolerance and equality treatment of cultures i.e. all value judgement being treated equally, because they are a total system in themselves.

(2)   The rejection of the ethnocentrism fallacy of 'my culture' is superior to others.

Students of comparative cultural studies have argued that ethnocentrism is a result of the uncritical evaluation of cultural conditioning that seduces a person from one culture to think his culture is superior to that of all others.   A tendency that has to be avoided, because there is no basis to support this judgement.

3.3. Culture-and-Personality

An investigation of the concept of culture has led to an emergence of a new discipline, that of culture-and-personality.   This new discipline seeks to understand the relationship between human psychological and cultural constructs, it is the basis of human psychology and social environment.   The new discipline can be compared to biochemistry, because it bridges anthropology and psychoanalysis, in a way similar to which biochemistry bridges biology and chemistry.

Culture-and-personality is regarded by Spiro (1956) to be a new discipline which uses data from clinical psychology and anthropology in order to understand human social order and the way it affects the personality of the individual.   Edward Sapir is credited as the founder of this new discipline.   He was influenced by H. S. Sullivan, Margaret Mead, E. H. Erikson, Ralph Linton, Cora DuBois and Abram Kardiner. Spiro (1956). This discipline rests on the assumption that culturally constituted social groups are as necessary for human existence, as are

man's organs in the biological make-up of the body. The concept also warns that social groups can be both the sources of problems as well as beneficial and that an understanding of its mechanism can help avoid problems.

Spiro (1956) argued that human social order consists of social systems which are characterized by a configuration of reciprocal roles. These roles are shared by members of the social group and are acquired from their previous generations. These roles he argued, serve to satisfy the three functional requirement of any society which are:

(a) Adaptation

(b) Adjustment

(c) Integration

In order to maintain his membership both as a member of a group and the wider society, each member of the social group has to adapt to norms, rules and traditions of the society. This process of adaptation and conforming to the group and societal norms, rules, values and traditions in the human social order is known as the normative order. It involves accepting and subjecting oneself to the pro-scriptive norms of society.

The behaviour of each member of the social group is thus guided and regulated by customs, rules and norms of the society. There are those which require him to adjust his behaviour in accordance with the society's norms. This adjustment of personal behaviour to the society's prescribed regulations is known as the cognitive order.

Members of a social group have to live up to the standard acceptable by the society, these standards include the deeds or behaviour acceptable or unacceptable, what deeds or behaviour which are

regarded as good or bad in accordance with the group or wider society's prescribed code or standards. This order by which an individual member integrates himself into the society's code or standard is known as the moral order.

Culture-and-personality argues that culture shapes the individual personality, and it prescribes, regulates and controls the behaviour of the individual through the social order. The behaviour of the individual member of a society is subjected to the three functional requirements of the society, the normative order, cognitive order and moral order. Spiro (1956). Failure to accept the society's functional requirements, means that individual does not qualify for the membership of that society and so stands a chance of being labelled a rebel or a deviant which most people seek to avoid. Therefore they would rather be within the society's norms and values.

The above theories are part and parcel of a host of sociological theories derived from the sociological school of thoughts from which the discipline of sociology is based. This will be demonstrated by a diagram illustrating the three sociological schools of thought, the emphasis of their studies, their major theories and their common methods of inquiry. This diagram is featured in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2   A Diagram showing the Three Schools of Sociology, their
             Emphasis, their Theories and Common Methods of Inquiry.

```
                          S O C I O L O G Y



SCHOOLS: SOCIAL FACTS            SOCIAL              SOCIAL
                                 DEFINITION          BEHAVIOUR



THEORIES:  CONFLICT  S/FUNCTION-  S/INTERACT-  PHEN-  BEHAV-  EXCHANGE
                     ALISM        IONISM       OMEN-  IOURAL
                                               LOGY   SOCIOLOGY


METHODS:  QUESTION-  INTERVIEW       OBSERVATION      EXPERIMENTAL
          AIRE
```
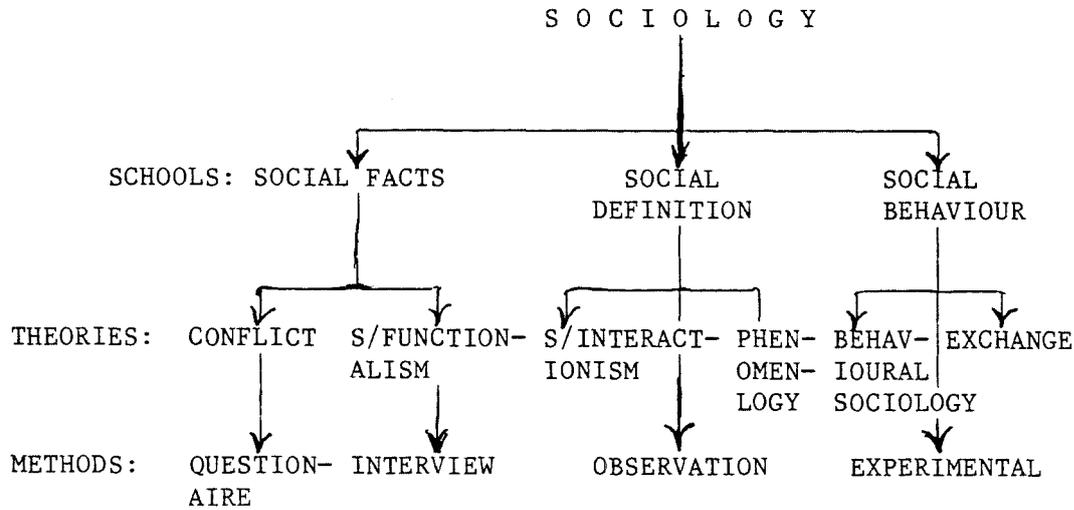
Source: Developed from Ritzer (1975) Sociology: A Multiple Paradigm
          Science, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston.

Culture-and-personality doctrine discussed earlier derives its
theoretical basis from the social facts school of sociology.   The major
theories of this school of thought are Structural-Functionalism which
sees the social facts as neatly interrelated.   The Conflict theory which
emphasized disorder in the social facts or the view that order is
maintained by coercive social forces within the society.   Both
functionalism and conflict theory share a common base, which is the
maintenance of harmony in the society.   Functionalism advanced that
harmony in the society is maintained by each part of the society
contributing to the well-being of each other for the good of the whole
system.   The conflict theory advances that harmony in the society is
maintained by use of coercive forces within the society that seeks to
resolve conflict and contradictions in the society and as a result of
the resolution of these conflicts and contradictions the society is able
to maintain harmony.   Thus, both functionalism and conflict theory

subscribes to the principle of harmony in the society as a desirable condition in the coexistence and advancement of the patterns of the society and the society as a whole. These theories of the Factists school of sociology are in contrast to the definitionists school of sociology theories of Symbolic Interactionism which argues for the application of introspective techniques to understand things from the point of view of the actor. The theoretical view point of this theory is well summarised by Blumer (1962) in Ritzer's quotation (1975 p.98) which stated'

> "The term 'symbolic interaction' refers, of course, to the peculiar and distinctive character of interaction as it takes place between human beings. The peculiarity consists in the fact that human beings interpret or 'define' each other's actions instead of merely reacting to each other's actions. Their response is not made directly to the actions of one another but instead is based on the meaning which they attach to such actions. Thus, human interaction is mediated by the use of symbols, by interpretation, or by ascertaining the meaning of one another's actions. This mediation is equivalent to inserting a process of interpretation between stimulus and response in the case of human behavior."

The phenomenological theory which argues for a microscopic orientation that puts the observer in as close touch as possible with the subjective experience of the actors he is observing. This theoretical argument is well summarised by Dreitzel (1970) in Ritzer (1975) p.123.

> "Thus the focus of interest is not the members' everyday activity but rather the process by which members manage to produce and sustain a sense of social structure. In this view, the norms and rules that govern social behavior and provide for orderly structure and sequence of events are an accomplishment of the interpretation which actors give to such events."

The factists school theories and the definitionists school theories are contrasted with the Behaviourists school of sociology theories of the behavioural sociolgy/psychology which argues for the interest in

relationship between the history of the environmental consequences for behaviour and nature of the present behaviour. This theoretical view is the brain child of B.F. Skinner's work based on his operant conditioning model which reduces behaviour to a mechanistic response dictated by the process of rewards and punishment, this model is illustrated in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 B.F. Skinner's Basic Operant Conditioning Model,
          showing the Mechanistic Response to Stimulus.
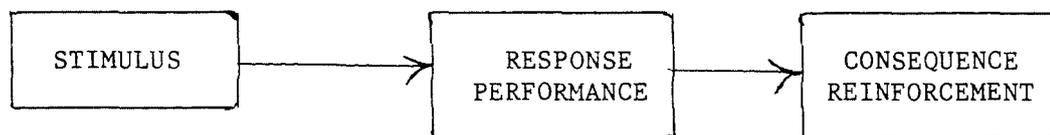
Sources: B.F. Skinner's Basic Operant Conditioning Model in Bedeian
          and Glueck (1983) Management Third Edition, Holt-Saunders
          International (ed.) Dryden Press, New York and London,
          p.155.

The social behaviourists exhange theory seeks for the sociology to envisage social behaviour as an exchange of activity between two persons, i.e. individualistic behaviour of men, as men so that the bnehaviour of one is seen as the cause and the behaviour of an other as an effect. Again this theoretical argument is summed up by Blau (1964) quote in Ritzer (1975) p.171.

"Commonly agreed upon values and norms serve as media of
social life and as mediating links for social transactions.
They make indirect social exchange possible, and they govern
the processes of social integration and differentiation in
complex social structures as well as the development of social
organization and reorganization in them."

In summing up the sociological theories arguments and their impacts in social inquiry. It is recognised that their essential contribution

has been in the rationalization of the methods of social inquiry. This rationalization has been opened to a lot of interpretations which in turn have emerged into several schools of thought that advanced the general cause of sociology as a discipline and at the same time have the urge to compete among themselves for dominance within sociology.

Summarly, the social factists school sees sociology as the study of social facts, that sees the social world as consisting of interrelated parts that must maintain their equilibrium (balancing themselves) in order to exist in harmony. Harmonious existence is viewed as the ideal situation and any inequilibrium is viewed as abnormal. Their counterparts the social definitionists school see the subject matter of sociology as the way in which people (actors) define the social facts, i.e. seeking the intrasubjectivity and intersubjectivity and the action that results from what their (actors) subjective meanings asigned to the object of the observation. Because of the emphasis in the intrasubjectivity and intersubjectivity of the actors subjective experience, they advanced theories that are microscopic in nature, to enable them to go beyond the surface meaning which is reflected in the act. The sociological school the social behaviourists sees sociology as the study of human behaviour which is seen in a metaphysical form, they seek to understand, predict and even determine the behaviour of man. Because of their metaphysical orientation they advanced theories that are experimental that should yield mechanistic results.

This research has very little sympathy with the factists and behaviourists schools views, as both seem to take a very narrow view of sociology in general and employed shallow theories and methods in their inquiries. The factists school view of sociology as a study of social

facts and their heavy emphasis in the society harmony underrates the role of the actors and the environment in creating the situation and in determining the outcome. The behaviourists school reduction of human behaviour into a deterministic mechanism and their emphasis in the environment reinforcement they employed to induce behaviour place little regard in human will and determination to disregard the rewards and punishment for his desired goal. The research as it will be demonstrated by the choice of the phenomenlogical methodology in chapter six. has very high regard for the definitionists school. First, for their perception of sociology as the study of the ways the actors experience the social world. Second, by their theoretical advancement which seeks to understand the reality from the actors or the observed point of view. Third, by their acceptance of the microscopic methods of inquiry which bridges the gap between the object and subject.

This review dealt with the historical evolution of concept of culture and how attitudes are formed and a brief review of some of the sociological theories. The next section will attempt to analyse how culture affects management practices.

3.4 Culture and Organizational Environment..

This section draws upon the work of Bhagat and Mcquoid (1982); Smiricich (1983); Hofstede, (1980, 1983, and 1984); Roberts (1970): Barnet and Muller (1974); Berry (1979, and 1980); Deal and Kennedy (1982); Fayerweather (1959); Fishbein (1967); Koch and Deetz (1981); Locke (1975); Louis (1980); Martin and Powers (1983); Morgan (1984): Pondy and Mitroff (1979); Siehl and Martin (1981); Slocum (1971);

Tichy, (1982) and Triadis (1971). These authors have demonstrated the effect of culture in an organizational situation through Cross-cultural studies. The works of Bhagat and Mcquoid, (1982); Smiricich, (1983) and Hofstede, (1980. 1983 and 1984) are explored in depth to illustrate the point that culture is a major factor in organizational management environment.

SUMMARY OF BHAGAT AND MCQUOID (1982); SMIRICICH (1983) AND HOFSTEDE (1980, 1983 AND 1984) LITERATURE REVIEW.

AUTHOR'S YEAR	RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	METHOD	FINDINGS	RECOMMENDATIONS	VALIDITY
BHAGAT AND MC QUOID (1982)	(1) REVIEW OF CROSS-CULTURAL RESEARCH PUBLISHED SINCE 1970, UNDER FOUR FRAME OF REFER-ENCES: (a) COGNITIVE STYLE (b) ATTITUDE AND VALUES (c) WORK MOTIVAIONn (d) JOB SATISFACTION. (2) TO INTEGRATE AND EVALUATE THE WORK. (3) TO HIGHLIGHT PROBLEMS OF EXISTING RESEARCH AND TO SUGGEST DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY.	REVIEW	MAJOR WEAKNESS OF THE RESEARCHERS WAS FAILURE TO SPECIFY CULTURE AND RELATING THEM TO ORGANIZATION'S THEORIES, I.E. CULTURE SPECIFIC TO A SPECIFIC ORGANIZAION'S BEHAVIOUR. DUE TO HIS FAILURE OF BEING CULTURAL SPECIFIC FINDINGS TENDED TO BE VAGUE.	THAT FUTURE RESEARCHERS DEFINE SPECIFIC USAGE OF CULTURE, ADOPT A THEORY AND IDENTITY ALSO A SPECIFIC ORGANIZATION'S BEHAVIOUR TO WHICH CULTURE EFFECT CAN BE MATCHED.	THE CASE MADE BY THE ARGUMENT WAS THAT FAILURE TO BE SPECIFIC OF THE CONCEPT OF CULTURE AND MATCHING IT WITH THE SPECIFIC ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR INVALIDATED THE FINDINGS.
SMIRCICH (1983)	LINKAGE OF INTERACTIONAL CULTURAL THEORY AND ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY	REVIEW	TRACING OF LINKAGE OF FIVE DIFFERENT CONCEPTS ROOTED IN CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY TO FIVE CONCEPTS OF ORGANIZAIONALLY THEORY.	THAT THE TASK OF EVALUATING A CULTURALLY CONCEIVED PHENOMENA EFFECTS ON ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR HAD TO BE CONDUCTED WITHIN THE ASSUMPTIVE CONTEXT OF THE TWO CONTEXTS CULTURE AND ORGANIZATION'S BEHAVIOUR	REASONING ON THE CON-DIGN OF THE CLOSE SYSTEM CONTEXT, A POINT WAS MADE THAT ANY EVALUATION HAD TO BE ON THE BASIS OF THE ASSUMPTION MADE AS ANY OTHER INTERPRETATION WOULD MEAN USING A DIFFERENT CRITERION OF EVALUATION.
HOFSTEDE (1980, 1983, 1984)	QUESTIONED WHETHER THEORIES AND TECHNIQUES CONCEIVED IN THE CONTEXT OF ONE CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT CAN APPLY ABROAD WITH REFERENCE TO USA.	SURVEY	THAT CULTURAL DIFFERENCE HAS A CONSIDERABLE CONSEQUENCE IN ORGANIZATIONAL MANAGEMENT, (CULTURAL MAPS), SOME COUNTRIES RATE VERY HIGH IN THE INDIVI-DUALISM AND COLLECTIVISM AND THEIR THEORIES ARE INFLUENCED BY THE PREDOMINANT CULTURE IN THEIR COUNTRY A CASE IN POINT WAS THAT USA WHICH IS HIGHLY INDIVIDUALISTIC, MOST OF THEIR THEORIES ARE INFLUENCED BY THE INDIVIDUALISTIC TENDENCIES, WHICH WOULD NOT BE APPRECIATED BY THE COLLECTIVISTS COUNTRIES TO WHICH MOST THIRD WORLD FALL IN.	THAT CARE BE TAKEN IN APPLICAION OF ALIEN THEORIES IN A NEW SITUATION AND THAT A THEORY CAN BE ADOPTED TO THE NEW SITUATION. THE RESEARCH ENCOURAGED ADOPTION OF TEHNICAL INNOVATION BUT CAUTION THAT CULTURALLY CONCEIVED METHODS HAVE TO BE INTEGRATED INTO THE NEW CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT.	IDENTIFICATION OF NATIONAL CLUSTERING INTO NORMS AND VALUES TENDNCIES IDENTIFICA-TION OF NATIONAL CULTURE, FORMS, WHICH GROUPS, SUBGROUPS AND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE ARE POSSIBLE, ENABLE BREAKING THE CULTURE INTO CATEGORIES WHICH CAN BE USEFUL IN UNDERSTANDING BEHAVIOUR.

Bhagat and McQuoid's (1982) study made a signicicant contribution to our understanding of the role of culture in organizational management. Their valid critism that there was a lack of clarification in most cross-cultural studies they reviewed had shown that the cases of cross-cultural studies are weakened by poor communication, a view which was shared by Roberts (1970) and Child (1981). Their identification of the four categories under which a cross-cultural studies can be conducted was a further breakthrough into the communication paradox and that opened up new avenues through which the role of culture in organizational management can be understood. The 41 studies they reviewed felt into their four categories under which an investigation into cross-cultural studies can be conducted as illustrated in the table below:

FIG. 3.4   The Four Categories Under which an Investigation into Cross-cultural Studies can be Investigated.

NO. :	CATEGORIES	:	NO. OF STUDIES
1 :	COGNITIVE STYLE	:	5
2 :	ATTITUDE AND VALUES		19
3 :	WORK MOTIVATION		9
4 :	JOB SATISFACTION	:	8

Sources: Bhagat and Mcquoid (1982) Role of Subjective Culture in Organizations: A Review and Direction for Future Research, Journal of Applied Psychology Monograph Vol. 67, No.5 pp 653-683.

Their study's conclusions were found to be consistent with the theory of culture reviewed earlier in this chapter. Their conclusions subscribed to the fact that effects of culture on behaviour started early in life from the family, peers groups and environment and are later reinforced by social institutions like schools. That, these institutions further shaped the attitudes and values of the individual towards the societal norms and even enabled an individual to grow into a distinctive individual. Thus, the authors subscribed to the view that distinguished between an objective culture and subjective culture for the groups and individuals within a national context. For example, they accepted the fact that a country like India with so many different ethnic groups, may have one objective culture, but can also have several subjective cultures, representing various different ethnic groups.

They demonstrated graphically the four categories by which an investigation into the coss-cultural issues can be conducted. The graphic presentation shows that cognitive style occupies the most basic position on the scale of human social development. This was because it was a basic tendency that was first developed in response to socialization patterns. They further felt that attitudes and values developed later as the person gained experience with the world. Other value systems like work motivation and job satisfaction are job related values that are organizationally specific developed in the work environment. The diagram placed the socialization dimensions on the vertical axis and the temporal dimension response pattern on the horizontal axis.

FIG. 3.5 <u>A Graphic Representation of a Conceptual Framework for</u>
<u>Analyizing Studies of Cross-Cultural and Organizational</u>
<u>Behaviour.</u>

Organizationally
Specific

Job
Satisfaction

Work
Motivation

Attitudes
and values

Cognitive
Style

Socialization Dimension

Culturally
Specific

Temporal Dimension

Primary
Response
Patterns

Secondary
Response
Patterns
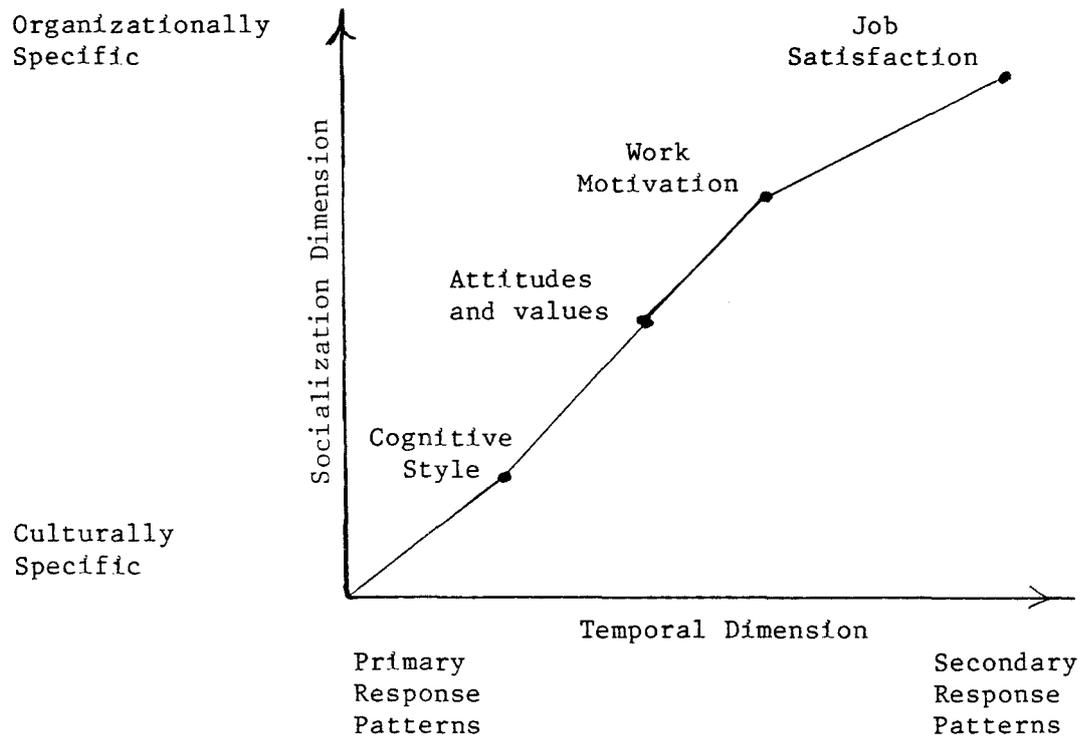
Bhagat and McQuoid (1982): Conceptual framework for analysing studies of
cross-cultural organisational behaviour. Role of Subjective culture in
organizations. A Review and Directions for Future Research, Journal of
Applied Psychology Monograph Vol. 67 No. 5 Oct. 1982, p.657.

Smiricich's (1983) study made three major points. First, the
contribution towards understanding the linkage of culturally conceived
concepts to organizationally conceived concepts and the meaning and
interest derived from this linkage. Second, the way culture is imported
into an organizational environment by the individual members of the
organization. Third, is the view that organizations themselves are
culture producing agents in terms of the system, structures, rules and
procedures they adopt in order to realize their objectives.

In the linkage paradox Smiricich (1983) made the point of
organizations being social instrument and institutions that are capable
of achieving social tasks. She further argued that it was through

linkage of culturally conceived concepts to organizationally conceived concepts that organizations are compared to living organism capable of symbolizing social values and responding to demands from their environments. This linkage is demonstrated below:

FIG. 3.6 <u>The</u> <u>Intersection</u> <u>of</u> <u>Culture</u> <u>Theory</u> <u>and</u> <u>Organization</u> <u>Theory</u>.

CONCEPTS OF CULTURE FROM ANTHROPOLOGY	THEMES IN ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT RESEARCH	CONCEPTS OF ORGANIZATION FROM ORGANIZATION THEORY
Culture is an instrument serving human biological and psychological needs e.g. Malinowski's functionalism.	Cross Cultural or Comparative management	Organizations are social instruments for task accomplishment. e.g. Classical management theory.
Culture functions as an adaptive regulatory mechanism. It unites individuals into social structures e.g. Radcliff-Brown's structural functionalism.	Corporate Culture	Organizations are adaptive organism existing by process of exchange with the environment. e.g. Contingency theory.
Culture is a system of shared cognitions. The human mind generates culture by means of a finite number of rules. e.g. Goodenough's ethno science	Organizational Cognition	Organizations are systems of knowledge "organization" rests in network of subjective meanings that organization members share to varying degrees, and appear to function in a rule like manner. e.g. Cognitive organization theory.
Culture is system of shared symbols and meanings. Symbolic action need to be interpreted read or deciphered in order to be understood. e.g. Geertz's symbolic anthropology.	Organizational Symbolism	Organizations are patterns of symbolic discourse "organization" is maintained through symbolic modes such as language that facilitate shared meanings and shared realities, e.g. symbolic organisations theory.
Culture is a projection of mind's universal unconscious infrastructure, e.g. Levi-Strauss structuralism.	Unconscious Processes and Organization	Organizational forms and practices are the manifestations of unconscious processes. e.g. Transformational organization theory.

Sources: Smitcich (1983) intersections of culture theory and organization theory in concepts of culture and organization analysis. Administrative Science Quarterly No. 28, September 1983, p.342.

In the importation concept, she demonstrated how culture was imported into an organizational environment through individual members of the organization and once there, how it played its roles in influencing the organization's values. The role played by the imported culture into the organization is compared to that played by an other living organism when it has acquired entrance into another living organism. This illustration is shown in the figure below.

Figure 3.7 How Culture is Imported Into an Organizational
            Environment through Indivudual Members of the
            Organization.

Culture content

Organization

Sources: Smircich (1983) Culture and Comparative Management. Concepts
           of Culture and Organisational Analysis: In Administrative
           Science Quarterly No. 28, September 1983, p.343.

In the culture production concept, she also illustrated by diagram how an organization as a system produces culture's agents. This again compared the organization to a living organism who in the process of its life expectancy produces its offspring. The figure below demonstrates this.

Figure 3.8   The Production of Cultural Agents by the Organization.

CULTURAL CONTEXT
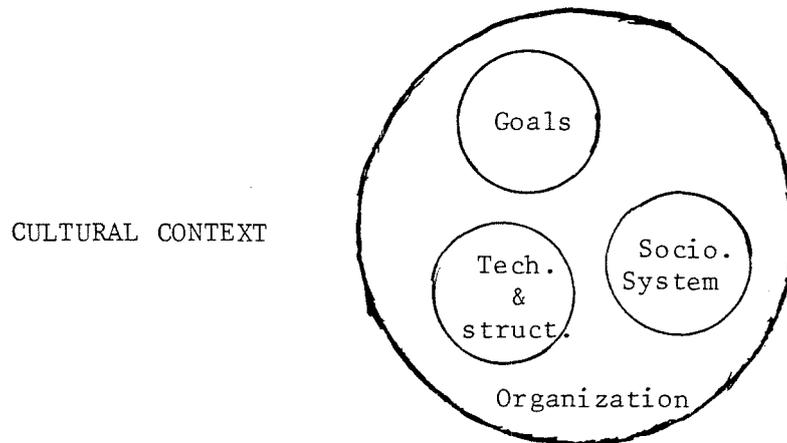
Sources: Smircich (1983) Culture and the systems theory framework.
Concepts of Culture and Organizational Analysis, in
Administrative Science Quarterly, No. 28, September 1983,
p.345.

Thus, Smircich (1983) theoretically demonstrated the link betwen
culture and organization. First, by explaining the linkage paradox
between culture and organization. Second, by illustrating how culture
is imported into the organization's environment through the individual
members of the organization. Third, by demonstrating how the imported
culture reproduces in the organization in form of organization's
procedures, structures and systems.

Hofstede's (1980, 1983 and 1984) empirical studies which were
conducted world-wide identified four cultural maps into which the
nations of the world were clustered. He classified these as:

1. Individualism versus Collectivism.

2. Power Distance, which divides into Small versus
   Large Power Distance

3. Uncertainty Avoidance which divides into Weak
   versus Strong Uncertainty Avoidance

4. Masculinity versus Femininity.

He argued that countries cluster into these categories in accordance to their national cultures. He explains his classification as follows:

1. Individualism stands for a preference for a loosely knit social framework in society in which individuals are supposed to take care for themselves and their immediate families only. (Conceptualized as a 'I' society) while Collectivism stands for a preference for a tightly knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of their relatives in exchange for a unquestionable loyalty of kidship and togetherness. (This type of relationship is conceptualized as the 'We' society).

2. The Power Distance is a measure of extent to which members of a society accept the uneven distribution of power in institutions and organizations of the society. This breaks down into Large and Small Power Distance. The Large Power Distance stands for an acceptance of hierarchial order in which everybody has his/her place. The Small Power Distance stands for a situation where members strive for power equalization and demand justification for inequalities. These are conceptualized as tolerance and intolerance to inequalities.

3. Uncertainty Avoidance is the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. This breaks down into Strong and Weak Uncertainty Avoidance. Strong Uncertainty Avoidance is a situation where members maintain rigid codes of beliefs and behaviour and are intolerant towards ideas and behaviour that do not confirm to their accepted norms. Weak Uncertainty Avoidance is a situation where uncertainty and ambiguity are accepted as normal and practice rather than principles counts.

4. Masculinity stands for a preference in a society for achievement, heroism assertiveness and material success. While Femininity stands for a preference for relationships, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life.

The purpose of Hofstede's studies and their relevance to this research has been to illustrate the effects of cultural diversity in organizational management. His logical explanation of why different cultures perceive, react and interpret concepts and phenomena differently, point out to the lack of harmony in multicultural societies like the Sudan with different cultures and several subcultures. By his explanaton of diversity of cultures in form of cultural maps he was able to reduce the categories to four and the differences between the categories could thus be more easily identified. Therefore a difference in perception between the USA which had the highest rating in the individualistic tendencies and Nigeria which rate higher in the collectivistic tendencies could be attributed to their different cultural maps. This can help us to explain the failures of USA-developed management theories and techniques to gain acceptance in most of the Third World societies. That failure was attributed to the rejection of the individualistic cultural assumptions which do not gain acceptance in the collectivistic norms.

The literature reviewed in the above sections has attempted to define culture, explain how it was formed and transmitted into an organizational environment, and how it then was able to influence organizational values. The historical reivew of the concept of culture defined culture and explained how attitudes, values, norms and traditions were formed. Bhagat and McQouid's (1982) study helped explain how culture was imported into an organizational environment and

once there how it was able to influence organizational values. Smiricich's (1983) study further explained how specific cultural values and specific organizational values were matched to provide meaning as to how cultural values were likely to consolidate or conflict with organizational interest. Hofstede's studies were also further explanations of diversity of cultures and how these diversities led to different perceptions. The reviews are all attempts to clarify the vagueness that has existed over the years in the relationship between culture and management. The coming section will discuss the basic social and cultural facts about Southern Sudan.

3.5 Basic Social and Cultural Facts About Southern Sudan

Southern Sudan consists of several African ethnic groups, who are equally diversed in their subcultural differences as they are with the Northern Sudan. Because of these different levels of diversity this research has labelled the North/South differences as the macro-level and the subcultural differences in the South as the micro-level of diversity.

At the macro-level Sudan suffers from an identity crisis, which is a result of failure to achieve a national integration. Because of that failure, there is a lack of a national culture from which the subjective culture of sub-groups can meet and take pride on a mutual basis. It has enabled the two major communities to drift apart so that peoples of the North Sudan aspired and looked forward to Islamic and Arab culture as the basis of their national culture, while the peoples of the Southern Sudan aspired and looked forward to Christianity and African culture as their basis for their national culture. Thus the failure of national integration has created the existence of two sources from which sub-groups subjective cultures are derived.

Culturally the people of Southern Sudan are all of African negroid origins and are classified into three major ethnic divisions namely: Nilotics, Nilo-Hamitic and Sudanic. These ethnic classifications tended to be an overgeneralization based on linguistic roots and general body appearance. Tribal classification tended to be a more realistic basis, because of the oneness of language, customs, traditions and economic mode of life. Even though there tended to be a widespread diversity in major tribes, like the Dinka and Nuer, whose sections are oversized and have developed dialects and customary differences due to their widespreading into large areas, they can still be treated as one tribe. The Nilotics are believed to have migrated from the Great Lakes of East Africa, the Sudanics from Central Africa and the Nil-Hamitic are considered to be a crossbreed of Nilotic and Sudanic (Beshir, 1965).

Wai (1981) classified the ethnic groupings of the Southern Sudanese people into three major groups, as demonstrated in the table in Figure 3.9.

Figure 3.9 Ethnic Groups of the African Negroid Peoples of the
          Southern Sudan.

A. The Nilotic Group	B. The Nilo Hamitic Group	C. The Sudanic Group
Dinka	Bari	Azande
Nuer	Pojulu	Ngodo
Shilluk	Kakwa	Sere
Anuak	Kuku	Mundo
Acholi	Nyepo	Biri
Bor Belanda	Mundari	Moru
Jur (Jo Luo)	Nyangwara	Madi
Shilluk Luo (Dembo, Shatt)	Lokoya	Bongo
Pari	Latuko	Fertit (Mandala)
	Lofit	Feroge
	Lango	
	Toposa (Topotha)	
	Domjiro	
	Jiye	
	Murle Group –	
	Boma Murle Beir, Didinga	

Sources: Wai (1981), The African-Arab Conflict in the Sudan, Africana Publishing Company, New York and London, p.17.

To demonstrate the geographic spread of the peoples of the Southern Sudan, a table has been drawn showing the population spread by province and the density of the population per square mile.

79

Fig. 3.10 The Population Spread, by Regions, Provinces and Density
         per Square Mile.

Region	Province	Area in Sq. miles	Population	Population Density per Sq. Mile
Bahr El Ghazal	E/Bahr El.Gh) W/Bahr El.Gh)	52,000	1,492,597	28.7
	Lakes	25,625	772,913	30.2
	Total	77,625	2,265,510	29.45
Equatoria	E/Equatoria	46,073	1,047,125	22.7
	W/Equatoria	30,422	359,056	11.8
	Total	76,495	1,406,190	17.25
Upper Nile	Sobat) Unity)	45,266	802,353	17.7
	Jongli	47,003	797,251	17.0
	Total	92,265	1,599,605	17.35

Source: Department of Statistics (1983) Ministry of Finance and Economic
        Planning, Khartoum, Sudan.

One area of cultural conflict as indicated by the basic facts about Southern Sudan is lanuage. Linguistically Bahr El Ghazal and Upper Nile Regions tended to be better off comparatively to Equatoria. Because in Bahr El Ghazal and Upper Nile more than 50 per cent of their population spoke the same language. Equatoria was worse off in that less than a quarter of its population spoke the same language.

The following is a table showing the percentage of population who speak the same language, classified by Regions:

Fig. 3. 11   Table Showing Linguistics Divisions in Southern Sudan.

BAHR EL GHAZAL REGION		UPPER NILE REGION		EQUATORIA REGION	
Language	%	Language	%	Language	%
Dinka	87	Nuer	52.2	Zande	23.8
Jur (Lou)	4.6	Dinka	25	Tabosa	19.4
Fratit (Tribes)	2.8	Shilluk	13.7	Bari	18.4
Others	5.6	Murle	4.8	Lotuko	13
		Annak	2.8	Moru	10
		Others	1.5	Others	15.4
	100		100		100

Sources: Thelwall (1980), Language, Culture and Identity in the Sudan; in the Post-Independence Sudan;   Proceedings of a Seminar held in the Centre of African Studies, University of Edinburgh, 21-22 November 1980, p.84.

Although tribal languages are regarded as ineffective, because the official working language in the Southern Sudan is English, and Arabic is the national language, the thinking and the shaping of attitudes and norms is greatly influenced by the tribal customs and traditions, as each official goes home after work speaks his native language, in his family.

The other source of cultural conflict in the Southern Sudan is religion.   Figures available indicate that 90% of the Southern population believe in paganism, that is in traditional tribal beliefs, mainly in High God and Ancestral Spirit.   Ten per cent consist of the educated elite urban dweller, who are either Christians or Muslims.

Professor Beshir basing his data on the 1956 Census estimated that there were in the Southern Sudan some :

Figure 3.12   Tables Showing Religious Breakdown in the
              Southern Sudan.

Table I:

        180,000 - 200,000 Catholic

         25,000 - 30,000 Protestants

         22,500 - 23,000 Muslim

out of the then 2.5 million.   This comes to:

Table II·

        91.2% Pagan

         7.0% Catholic

         1.0% Protestant

         0.8% Muslim

A note of warning here is that 90% of pagans lived in rural   areas leading traditional lives while only 10% educated elite,   urban dwellers makes the decision.   These figures are assumed to have   increased proportionately to increase in population.

Education is another vital source of attitude influence.   In the Southern Sudan education begins at the age of seven and there are twelve years of schooling.   Six years of primary schooling and two three year terms of junior and senior secondary schools.   Higher education also breaks down into technical colleges which range from two to three years after senior secondary school.   University education also breaks down into several categories, but falls broadly into four years for social sciences and liberal arts and five to six years of sciences, engineering and medicine.

The following tables show the two different school systems that have existed in the Southern Sudan educational system since independence.

Fig. 3.13   Table Showing the School Systems Followed in Southern
            Sudan since Independence.

From 1956-1972			From 1972 - Present		
Age of Entrance	Type of School	No. Year	Age of Entrance	Type of School	No. Year
7	Elementary	4	7	Primary	6
11	Intermediate	4	13	Junior	3
15	Secondary	4	16	Senior	3
No. of years schooling		12			12

Sources: Drawn   from   the   two   school   systems   from   which   most
           administrators   or   managers of the current   Southern   Sudan
           Public Service Organisations graduated.

Therefore a school leaver or college and university graduate formal education in number of years can be charted as follows:

1.   A school leaver completes 12 years of formal education.

2.   A college graduate 14-18 years of formal education.

3.   A post   graduate would be 15-19 years, i.e. an additional year after college or university.

To sum up from the basic facts about Southern Sudan, the cultural specific levels of conflict, when it comes to organisational management are at the ethnic level, the tribal level and the individual level. Because these levels help shape manager's attitudes, values and norms so as to see things from a specific cultural perspective.

This argument is presented in the chart below, showing the cultural level of conflict, the conflicting parties, causes of conflict and the ramifications.

Fig. 3.14 Table Showing the Level of Cultural Conflict in Southern Sudan.

Cultural Level of Conflict	Conflicting Parties	Causes of Conflict	Ramification to Organization
Ethnicity	Ethnic groups, e.g. Nitotic vs Nilo-Hamatic	Clash of ethnic identities	Failure of organization, due to clash of identities. Ethnic favouritism where fellow Niclotic recruits, promote only fellow Niclotic. regardless of merits
Tribalism	Tribal Group e.g. Nuer vs Bari	Clash of tribal beliefs attitudes, norms and traditions	Tribal favouritism where fellow tribes-men, recruits and promote fellow tribesmen regard-less of merits
Individualism	Personalities A not liking B	Personality clashes	Individual preference of personalities that share the same values

the objective then was to illustrate the background of the society. The Northern Sudanese are descendants of the Arab immigrants from the Arabian Peninsula who settled Northern Africa and Northern African ethnic groups that have accepted the Arab culture. The Southern Sudanese in contrast are African descendants of African ethnic groups that have not accpted Arab culture. These two heterogeneous people have been merged together by accident of geography and colonial history into the same lot (the Sudan) and are to coexist as members of one nation. To see the cultural conflict arising out of this mix as a responsibility of the past colonial administration after thirty years of independence is to aruge for the apportioning of blames rather than taking serious accountability of the government policies.

This chapter has advanced the history of the concept of culture, by relating it to organization management. Using a review of literature on culture and organisation's behaviour to illustrate the existence of the link and how important culture is in understanding behaviour in organisation's management. These two links are followed by a discussion of social and cultural facts about Southern Sudan pointing to the possible areas of conflict between culture and management practice.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 Literature Review   Management Practice

This chapter contains a literature review which deals with aspects of management practice which were defined in the statement of the problem in chapter one. This includes organizational objectives, style or approach to organizatonal management and use of theories and techniques. The purpose of this review is to enable a comparison to be made later between Western managers' perceptions and Southern Sudanese managers' perceptions of the above aspects of management practice.

4.1 Organizational Objectives

Concern for organizational performance has been the focus of management attention since mankind started organizations as a means of achieving his desired aims. Both the work of the ancient Egyptians, the Greek city states, and the Roman Empire, as well as the work of eminent scientists like Taylor, Fayol and many more, was geared towards improving organizational performance. However, the concept of strategic management is a recent one. It has only developed since World War II. Scholars, like Peter Drucker, are credited for having developed the concept. Drucker wrote the following inspiring words:

> "What the business needs is a principle of management that
> will give full scope to individual strength and
> responsibility, and at the same time give common direction of
> vision and effort, establish teamwork and harmonise the goals
> of the individual with the common weal. The only principle
> that can do this is management by objectives and self
> control". Quoted in Humble, (1972 p.31.)

The work of Urwick and Follet has also contributed to our understanding of the organization's purposes and how these can be translated through to successful performance by human co-operation.

Urwick's (1947) work "The Elements of Administration", is based on his principal conviction that a logical structure is better for efficiency and morale than the structure that is developed around the personality of the manager. He believed in stated principles and not in personalities; in clearly defined lines of authority; and in responsibilities which are recognised and communicated to all concerned. He believed in the principle of correspondence, that is, that authority should be commensurate with responsibility, and in a limited span of control, i.e. five-six subordinates reporting to a position or a person. All Urwick's efforts are geared towards the achievement of a high performance for the organization.

Pugh, Hickson and Hinings (1982) suggested that Follett's contribution was in her assertion that in a democratic society, the primary task of management was to arrange the situation in the organization so that people co-operated readily, of their own accord, and not on the personal whim of a particular manager. She believed in the existence of principles common to all spheres of administration, and urged the use of psychology to make management understand how groups are formed and why and how people are welded together into a community. Her objective in this exercise was to convey the view that organizational purposes were also the general purposes of the group, which are shared by all the members of that group. This understanding enabled the conflict over individual difference to be avoided. This view also generated co-operation amongst members in their effort to achieve common objectives. Her thesis was summed up in a question form, that is, what do organizations want people to do, and how do they scientifically control and guide their employees conduct in work and social relations? To this question she applied four fundamental principles, namely:

1. <u>Co-ordination</u> <u>by</u> <u>direct</u> <u>contact</u>, a principle which meant that the responsible people in the organization should be in contact with their subordinates at all levels through what she called horizontal communication which, in her view, was as important as the chain of command.

2. <u>Co-ordination</u> <u>in</u> <u>early</u> <u>stages</u>, a principle which meant that the people concern had to be involved in the policy and decisions of their organizaton at an early stage, that is when they were being formulated. This, she argued, increased people motivation and morale, because they acquired a feeling of being valued and belonging.

3. <u>Co-ordination</u> <u>as</u> <u>the</u> <u>reciprocal</u> <u>relating</u> <u>of</u> <u>all</u> <u>factors</u> <u>in</u> <u>a</u> <u>situation</u>. This is the view that all aspects of an organisation have to be related to one another and that these interrelationships have to be taken into account in the policies or decisions about the organisation.

4. <u>Co-ordination</u> <u>as</u> <u>a</u> <u>continuing</u> <u>process</u>, is the view that an executive decision is a moment in a process. To her, so many people contributed to the making of a decision that the concept of final or ultimate responsibility was an illusion. Instead combined knowledge or joint responsibility should take its place.

Follett can, however, be summed up as having contributed to the development of a management philosophy based on an individual motivation and group problem solving, which are the essence of the contemporary participative management. (Starling 1982). Therefore, Follett's contribution to the objective setting process has been in her insistance to involve the subordinates in what she called horizontal communication that goes through the chain of command.

We can think about the concept of organisational objectives defined organisational objectives as the basic organizational identity, mission and the first act of strategic planning. All other functions of management are all designed to help implement and achieve that very definite purpose. Byars (1984) defined an organization's mission as a statement that establishes the values, beliefs and guidelines, and the manner in which the organization is going to conduct its business. Its purpose is to let it be know in clear categorical terms what the organization intends to perform and the kind of organization it is or intends to be. Thomas J. Watson Jr., a former Chairman of the Board of IBM had this to say:

> "I firmly believed that any organization, in order to survive and achieve success, must have a sound set of beliefs on which its premises all its policies and actions rest. Next, I belive that the most important single factor in corporate success is faithful adherence to those beliefs. And finally, I believe that if an organization is to meet the challenges of a changing world, it must be prepared to change everything about itself except those beliefs as it moves through corporate life". Bryars, (1984), p.9.

This same view was held by Hampton, Summer and Webber (1982) who argued that the starting point in the task of managing an organization was defining the organizaion's basic purpose. Such a definition is the critical first act of strategic planning. To them, a statement of an organizaton's purpose provides an outsider with the character or personality, the direction and the basic essential existence of that organization. They further considered that the failure of an organization to define its basic purpose leads to what they called "meandering" with undistinguished organizational performance at best, and pointless exhaustion of resources at worst. Therefore, an organization without defined purpose leaves management without guidance and no basis for testing decisions.

The statement of the organization's purpose, while useful in identifying organizational character, direction and purpose of existence, does not help to guide the manager of an organization until it is translated into operational terms or is expressed in specific measurable activities and desired results which then become objectives which the manager strives to achieve.

Hampton, Summer and Webber (1982), stated that objectives can be distinguished from the statement of purpose by the following characteristics:

1. They are specific.

2. They are reality-oriented.

3. Their achievement can be verified.

4. They are time bounded.

March and Simon (1958) stated that the process of translating basic organizational objectives, into contributing subsidiary objectives for departments within an organization is accomplished by a process described as means-ends analysis or building a hierarchy of objectives. It is so described because an objective for a department or individual might be an end as far as that department or individual is concerned, but it may be a means of achieving an over-all organizational objective. For example, the sales department sale of a hundred units a week might be an end objective for the sales department, but it is a means for achieving the overall organizational objective of increasing sales by say 25%.

The following are examples of organizational objectives that meet the above stated four criteria of specificity, reality-orientation achievement verification and time boundedness.

FIGURE 4.1 ORGANIZATIONAL OBJECTIVES THAT MEETS THE CRITERION OF SPECIFICITY, REALITY-
ORIENTATION, ACHIEVEMENT VERIFICATION AND TIME BOUNDEDNESS.

THE STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES	SPECIFIC DESIRED OUTCOME	PRODUCT OR OBJECT FOR DESIRED OUTCOME	ACHIEVEMENT + OR − DESIRED	TIME BOND
INCREASE OUR SHARE OF THE MARKET FOR AMERICAN MADE AUTOMOBILES 5% BY 1985	INCREASE MARKET SHARE	AMERICAN MADE AUTO-MOBILES	INCREASE 5%	DECEMBER 1985
REDUCE SHORT-TERM CONSTRUCTION LOANS TO 20% OF TOTAL LOAN BY 1985	REDUCE SHORT-TERM CONSTRUCTION LOAN	SHORT TERM CONSTRUCTION LOAN	REDUCTION 20%	DECEMBER 1985
EARN 20% ON INVESTMENT AFTER TAXES IN THE NEXT FISCAL YEAR	INCREASE ON INVESTMENT	INVESTMENT	EARNING 20%	DECEMBER 1986
PUBLISH 120 NEW REVISED TEXTBOOKS IN 1985	120 NEW REVISED TEXTBOOKS	NEW REVISED TEXTBOOKS	120	DECEMBER 1985
REDUCE 1984 OVERTIME USED BY CITY'S WASTE COLLECTORS BY 25% BELOW 1983 OVERTIME USED	REDUCE OVERTIME USED	1983 OVERTIME USED	25%	DECEMBER 1985
REDUCE BY 50% IN 1985 THE NUMBER OF COMPLAINTS REFUSED BY DISTRICT ATTORNEY FOR REASONS OF FAILURE BY THIS POLICE DEPARTMENT TO COMPLETE REPORT PROPERLY, SHOW PROBABLE CAUSE OR CONDUCT PROPER SEARH AND SEIZURE	REDUCE NUMBER OF COMPLAINTS REFUSED BY DISTRICT ATTORNEY FROM POLICE DEPARTMENT	REDUCTION OF COMPLAINTS REFUSED BY DISTRICT ATTORNEY	50%	DECEMBER 1985
ACHIEVE FULL ACCREDITATION OF THIS LAW SCHOOL BY CALIFORNIA COMMITTEE OF BAR EXAMINERS BY 1986	ACHIEVEMENT OF ACCREDITATION	LAW SCHOOL	ONE YEAR	DECEMBER 1986

SOURCES: DEVELOPED FROM EXAMPLES IN HAMPTON, SUMMER AND WEBBER (1982) ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR
AND PRACTICE OF MANAGEMENT, SCOTT, FOREMAN COMPANY, GLENVIEW, ILLINOIS AND LONDON, P.374.

The argument for having organizational objectives is based upon three broad principles that:

1. having objectives improves organizational pereformances

2. clearly stated objectives tend to be more challenging than less clearly stated objectives, and,

3. the participation of all concerned in the setting of organizational objectives jointly, as opposed to them being imposed by one side, is regarded as motivating and leads to a commitment by the parties concerned. This is the view advanced by Vroom (1964) who stated that the strength or force of motivation to perform is the combined result of a person's belief that the achievement of the objective will lead to a reward and the value that that person places on that reward.

Thus the literature reviewed so far indicates that many writers feel that definition of basic organizational purpose is an act of strategic planning and that this act gives the organization its character, personality, direction and purpose of existence. (Hampton, Summer and Webber 1982). It is also considered that the more specific and challenging the objectives are the more motivating they are, and the more likely that they will improve individual and hence organizational performance. Lawrence and Smith (1955); Blumenfeld and Leidy (1969), and Roman, Latham and Nemeroff (1975). The final point made is the view that participative objective setting tends to bring about mutual commitment and hence motivation and tends to yield better results, McGregor (1951) and Likert (1961). What the literature fails to make explicit is whether these findings are universally true, or whether some societies have different views about organizational objectives from those presented here.

This section dealt with organizational objectives as a theme of management practice in a Western context. The next section will discuss style and approach to organizational management.

4.2 Approach to Organizational Management

Management, like most academic disciplines, has a long history of developments that have evolved through time. At present there are several recognised "schools of management thought" that view management from different points of view. A rational explanation as to why there are so many diverse approaches to management is based on the various meanings people assign to organizations and management and on the failure by experts and practitioners alike to agree on a single approach.

Koontz, O'Donnel and Weihrich (1980), identified eleven schools of management thoughts, as follows:

1. The Empirical or Case Approach: which works on the premise that management can be approached through the experience of the managers. That is the study of their successes and failures, with the view that generalities can be drawn from these experiences, and used as guides for the students and practising managers.

2. The Interpersonal Behaviour Approach: This approach operates on the thesis that managing involves getting things done through people. Because of that, the approach to management should centre on interpersonal relations. The focus of this approach is on the individual, as a socio-psychological being. The approach uses psychology to interpret human interaction, with the view to understanding how individuals interact and how this understanding can be translated into practice to improve individual performance.

3. The Group Behaviour Approach   which approaches management as a
    study in group behaviour patterns, which range from the study of a
    small group with its cultural patterns to the behaviour of a large
    group in an enterprise. Where the organization represents a system
    or pattern of any set of group relationships, in a company,
    government agency, hospital, etc. The approach equates the
    organization to a social organism. Thus, to understand how it
    functions, one must understand the behaviour of the atoms that make
    up the whole organism.

4. The Cooperative Social System Approach: is regarded as the brain
    child of Chester Barnard (1886-1961). This approach treats
    management as a cooperative system based on human limitations and
    theory of cooperation. The basis of Barnard's thesis is that the
    human being has both biological and social limitations so in order
    to realise his potentials, he has to co-operate in a group to form a
    group action which is directed towards a group purpose.

5. The Socio-Technical System Approach: is regarded as the product of
    E.L. Trist of the British Tavistock Institute. The approach views
    an organisation as consisting of two systems, a social system and
    technical system, which necessarily interact. The approach
    therefore argues that organizational effectiveness and managerial
    effectiveness depend on integrating both people and their
    interaction with the technical environment in which they operate.

6. The Decision Theory Approach, also known as Rational Decision, is
    regarded as a product of the theory of the consumer choice. Its
    main thesis is the selection of a rational alternative among
    possible alternatives, that is, the economic rationale of the
    decision. Economic rationale here does not necessarily have to be
    material, it can be psychological, sociological etc. The main

objective being that all decisions are based on a sound rationale.

7. The System Approach, this approach sees management as a complex of interrelated connected parts that influence each other. Therefore management of an organization should be seen as management of systems, so that each decision does put into consideration the effect of the other systems, the whole organization is seen as a total system.

8. The Mathematical or Management Science Approach. This approach sees management as an exercise in mathematical models, consisting of concepts and symbols. This school of thought is represented by the operational researchers, who argued that most of the management problems can be expressed in a mathematical equation; that is in basic relationships, where a given goal is being sought and a model built to express that relationship, where the objective will be the optimization of the goal.

9. The Contingency or Situational Approach, which emphasised the fact that what managers do in practice depends upon a given set of circumstances or the situation. The essence of the approach is to weight the variables in the situation in relation to the decision being sought, so that managerial decisions are in accordance with the variables of that organization's situation.

10. The Managerial Roles Approach - is the brain-child of Professor Mintzberg of McGill University. The approach emphasises what managers actually do and from such observations conclusions are drawn as to what managerial activities or roles are required. Mintzberg found that managers in fact play ten roles which can be listed under three major headings:

(a) Interpersonal Roles

   (i)   The figurehead role (performing ceremonial and

           social duties as organizations representative)

   (ii)   The leader role

   (iii)   The Liaison role (particularly with outsiders)

(b) Information Role

   (i)   Receiving information about the operation of

           an enterprise

   (ii)   The disseminator role (passing information

           to subordinates)

   (iii)   The spokesperson role (transmitting information

           outside the organization)

(c) Decision Roles

   (i)   The entrepreneurial role

   (ii)   The disturbance handler role

   (iii)   The resource allocator role

   (iv)   The negotiator (dealing with various persons

           and groups of persons)

11. The Operational Approach, attempts to draw together the pertinent

knowledge of management by relating it to the function of a manager.

Its objectives is to develop management concepts, principles, thesis

and techniques which correspond to the actual practices of managing.

Luthans (1981), advocated that there are three major dimensions to

modern management,   namely technical,   conceptual and human.   The

technical dimension is currently being addressed to inform of managerial

expertise in computers, accounting, engineering and marketing, but that

the other aspects of conceptual and human are being neglected.   He

argued that traditionally, most managers either ignored the conceptual

and human aspects of management or they made some overly simplistic assumptions. He argued that the new organizational behaviour approach should assume that employees are extremely complex and that there is a need for a theoretical understanding backed by vigorous empirical research before an application can be made for managing people effectively. He recognised process, quantitative, systems and contingency approaches, but urged that attempts be made to give the manager the necessary background and skills to enable him to be as effective with the conceptual and human aspects of management as he is with its technical dimension.

Massie (1971), also appreciated the different approaches and ways of thinking in management practice. He identified the problem of modern practising managers as the conscious need to integrate and to achieve his own balance in these different ways of approaches and ways of thinking. He identified ten different disciplines and their various emphasis in management practice.

Figure 4.2 Table Showing Disciplines and Their Emphasis in
          Management Practice

DISCIPLINE	SPECIAL EMPHASIS IN MANAGEMENT PRACTICE
Industrial Engineering	Measurement and analysis of physical factors in achieving efficiency
Economics	Allocation of scarce resources with orientation to future
Financial Accounting	Recording, reporting, analysing and auditing of past transaction
Public Administration	Formulation of a rational hierarchy for the accomplishment of activities
Legal Profession	Development of a consistent course of action based on precedents to achieve stability, order and justice
Statistical Methods	Employment of probability theory to infer facts from samples and to handle uncertainty
Mathematics	Construction of models which states explicitly one's assumption, objectives and constraints
Psychology	Scientific investigations concerning human needs, perceptions and emotional factors
Sociology	Study of interrelationships within and between human groups in society
Anthropology	Cultural variations and discoverable patterns of behaviour from history and environment

Sources: Massie, Joseph L., 1971, Essentials of Management, Prentice;
         Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliff, New Jersey, p.23.

Whilst the literature on the approaches to management is plentiful
and identifies several ways of seeing or approaching management. The
consensus is for an integration of these diverse approaches so that, at
the end of the day, they all contribute to creation and maintenance of

the harmonious environment in which the organization's desired objectives are accomplished, Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1980), put it, that the task of all managers is to design and maintain an environment conducive to the performance of individuals, who are working together in groups towards the accomplishment of some pre-selected objectives.

Luthans (1981), advocates provision of the necessary background and skills to make the modern manager equally effective in conceptual and human aspects of management like in technical aspects, which he admitted is currently being provided for adequately.

Massie (1971), urges integration and balancing of the various approaches by the manager to suit his ways of thinking, bearing in mind that the overall objective is the accomplishment of the group action. The duty of the manager in the accomplishment process is the creation of an atmosphere where the group action is readily accomplished.

It could be very well summed up that, while Western approach to management tended to be pragmatic and situational, managers make an effort not to loose sight of the organizational purpose. Therefore, rationality and realistic appraisal of the resources is the guiding key as Massie (1971) pointed out. Thus the central theme of any approach is not an end in itself but a means to achieving an end, which is the organizational goal.

Therefore, all approaches or styles of management share three basic things in common. First, is the fact that they are instrumental in affecting the thinking of the manager, i.e. they make the manager to

view the process of management and practice from a particular point of view. For example. the mathematical school or approach suggests to the managers to view management in mathematical terms, where it is seen as a process of offering a solution to the problem that involves a formula or a model through which that problem could be solved. This school of thought is represented by the operational researchers whose objective is the optimization of the organizational goal. Second, is the fact that they guide managers in their practices in their managerial process, i.e. they help explain steps and procedures that should be taken in the application or in the practical translation of abstract concepts into managerial practice. A good example of this approach is the socio-technical system or approach which suggests to the managers to view management as consisting of two subsystems namely, social and technical and advises managers to integrate these two subsystems. A practical application of this approach was the Trist and Bamforth (1951) Durham coal mine small groups consisting of interrated pairs of individual miners who had a complete autonomy in their coal cutting tasks. Third, is the fact that they are based on empirical observations, i.e. most of them are a product of a major research finding. For example the Managerial Role Approach is a result of Professor Mintberg's (1975) work on Managers' Jobs which views management in terms of what managers do in real practice.

4.3 Use of Theories and Techniques in Management

The use of theories and techniques in management is as old as management itself. The early advocates of theories and techniques in management are the acknowledged forefathers of management, namely, Fayol, Taylor, Follet and Barnard. Their argument was that an important social force like management that affects social change in the society

has to have a sound theoretical basis and principles by which it operates.

Fayol (1841-1925) was the first modern manager to advance the theoretical basis of management in form of the analysis of management, what managers did and the methods they used. He advocated the principle of authority, chain of command, i.e. clear defined lines of authority that corresponded with responsibility. Delegation of authority down the line where possible, accountability of higher authority for the act of their subordinates, Unity of command, i.e. knowing who to report to and limiting a subordinate to report to one person or level at a time, thus to avoid conflicting orders. Specialization, i.e. a person doing only one function which he/she is trained. Separating the "line" and "staff" function. These principles are consistent to his view that if management practice adhered to these principles, managerial performance could be improved.

Taylor's (1856-1917) theory was scientific management, its aim was the increase of efficiency through specialization and the tight control of tasks, both at the managerial and worker levels. His technique the "time and motion study" was directed at the preservation of the worker's energy, so that it was not wasted in an unnecessary movement that was not associated with the job functions. He advanced that this preservation could be achieved through training, and the specialization of workmen in one function only.

Follett (1868-1933) advocated the concepts of depersonalizing of decision making and adherence to the law of situation. She addressed

herself to the avoidance of the two extremes in decision making, too much bossism where orders are seen to come from the boss and the boss being the centre of attraction and the other extreme where no orders are given, that is the situation where the boss is not able to give orders. Her middle road position was that both the manager and worker should take their orders from the situation and the duty of the manager was in creating an atmosphere where orders are seen to come from that situation. Her argument was that the two extremes cited above are not healthy for the organization, because too much bossism is resented by the workers, because decisions are personalized in the boss. The laissez-faire liberal view of no orders tended to be destructive to the organization; because nothing gets done. Therefore her theory of the creation of an environment where orders are taken from the situation tended to be neutral and depersonalizing. She was the first to use psychology as a tool in organizational analysis to bring about an understanding of how groups are formed and how they function and form a community, so that the general purpose of the group is the common purpose of all its members. Her thesis subscribes to the overall theorist view of existence of theories and principle of management, all of which aided in the achievement of higher performance.

Barnard (1886-1961) advocated cooperative social action, that is individual members forming groups and cooperative purposes and coordination of their effort to the accomplishment of those cooperative purposes. The objective of the cooperative purpose or social action is to maintain and satisfy the group cooperative purpose and the individual motives. Barnard argued that this is so because the human being has limited power, limited both by the situation and by his biological makeup. Therefore the formation of groups and the adaption of non-

personal purposes is a way out of the limitation. Thus, groups cooperating and coordinating their efforts can accomplish greater goals than an individual could within his/her limited situation.

Thus subscribing to the theorist view that management performance is enhanced by theories, principles and techniques of management i.e. theories. principles and techniques are meant to improve management performance.

The forefathers of management cited earlier formed the basis of the contemporary management theorists' thesis. That there was value in understanding management as a conceptual scheme of concepts, principles and techniques. Because in their view that avoids the risk of having management without principles and techniques by which to go by, and having to rely on trial and error. They argued that, if a manager can recognise causal relationships in different circumstances, the same skills can be applied in solving new problems of the organization. This linked very well with the basis of this research, which is the "manager's perception of his organization is associated with the kind of theories and techniques he adapts in discharging his functions".

Theory is defined as a set of interconnected propositions, which seek an understanding and explanation of a phenomena Reading (1977). Webster, (1981) offers an even wider variety of meanings:

1. Theory is seen as the analysis of a set of facts in their relation to one another.

2. As a belief, policy, or procedure proposed or followed as the basis of action.

3.   As the general or abstract principles of a body of facts of a
science or an art.

Technique, in contrast, is defined as the manner in which technical
details are treated or the body of technical method or methods for
accomplishing a desired aim Webster (1981).

Miles (1975) argued that theories of management are important and
have great implications for organizational behavour and development.
That these theories have their sources in basic life values, e.g.
habits, attitudes and traditions which are sources of huan personality.
He further argued that the current management theories of organization
are evolving, and can be traced to three models, which he labelled
Traditional, Human Relations and Human Resources.   These models
themselves are also influenced by history, events and their
interpretations.   For example he argued that the Traditional model was
greatly influenced by the nineteenth century philosophers and their
interpreters like Charles Darwin and Herbert Spencer.   The Darwinian
concept of the survival of the fittest, condemned preservation as
expensive and potentially damaging to the nature of evolutionary
progress of mankind.   The preservation idea tends to retain everything
regardless of its quality, while the survival of the fittest concept
retains only those fittest that can stand the test can survive.   Views
like those of the Protestant Ethic and American Business Heroism define
briefly the strive for hard work and promote the achievement orientation
that glorifies the individual achiever, sometimes at the expense of
other non-achievers.   The classical economist's view was that leisure
was man's desired state, while work was man's required state.   Their
thesis was that man is drawn out of leisure by money, which he requires
for his needs.   That leisure continues up to some point of marginal

satisfaction. Classical economists, like Adam Smith, accepted the concept of task specialization as a prime building block of productive efficiency. Taylor's scientific management movement had a great impact on the traditional model of management, because it was built on a rational organization, based on order-line stability and authority based on capacity.

The Human Relations model was built on the traditional model by taking most of the traditional model assumptions and improving on its weakness. For example, one of the concepts of the traditional model that the human relations model took issue was Taylor's time and motion study and its specialization in small tasks performance. It was argued that this concept had reduced human beings to the level of machines by requiring them to perform boring tasks that demeaned their human worthiness.

Miles argued that human resources model like the Human Relations model, was also built on Human Relations model. Ideas like an opportunity to develop the self and wish to participate in setting and achieving worthwhile objectives and self-fulfilment were added. Miles summarised these theories and stated their assumptions, policies and expectations in the table below.

FIGURE 4.3 TABLE SHOWING SUMMARIZED MANAGER'S THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT

TRADITIONAL MODEL	HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL	HUMAN RESOURCES MODEL
ASSUMPTIONS	ASSUMPTIONS	ASSUMPTIONS
1. WORK IS INHERENTLY DISTASTEFUL TO MOST	1. PEOPLE WANT TO FEEL USEFUL AND IMPORTANT	1. WORK IS NOT INHERENTLY DISTASTEFUL. PEOPLE WANT TO CONTRIBUTE TO MEANINGFUL GOALS WHICH THEY HAVE HELPED ESTABLISH
2. WHAT WORKERS DO IS LESS IMPORTANT THAN WHAT THEY EARN FOR DOING IT	2. PEOPLE DESIRE TO BELONG AND TO BE RECOGNISED AS INDIVIDUALS	2. MOST PEOPLE CAN EXERCISE FAR MORE CREATIVE, RESPONSIBLE SELF-DIRECTION AND SELF-CONTROL THAN THEIR PRESENT JOBS DEMAND
3. FEW WANT OR CAN HANDLE WORK WHICH REQUIRES CREATIVITY SELF-DIRECTION OR SELF-CONTROL	3. THESE NEEDS ARE MORE IMPORTANT THAN MONEY IN MOTIVATING PEOPLE TO WORK	
POLICIES	POLICIES	POLICIES
1. THE MANAGER'S BASIC TASK IS TO CLOSELY SUPERVISE AND CONTROL HIS SUBORDINATES	1. THE MANAGER'S BASIC TASK IS TO MAKE EACH WORKER FEEL USEFUL AND IMPORTANT	1. THE MANAGER'S BASIC TASK IS TO MAKE USE OF "UNTAPPED" HUMAN RESOURCES
2. HE MUST BREAK TASKS DOWN INTO SIMPLE, REPETITIVE, EASILY LEARNED OPERATIONS	2. HE SHOULD KEEP HIS SUBORDINATES INFORMED AND LISTEN TO THEIR OBJECTIONS TO HIS PLANS	2. HE MUST CREATE AN ENVIRONMENT IN WHICH ALL MEMBERS MAY CONTRIBUTE TO THE LIMITS OF THEIR ABILITY
3. HE MUST ESTABLISH DETAILED WORK ROUTINES AND PROCEDURES AND ENFORCE THESE FIRMLY BUT FAIRLY	3. THE MANAGER SHOULD ALLOW HIS SUBORDINATES TO EXERCISE SOME SELF-DIRECTION AND SELF-CONTROL ON ROUTINE MATTERS	3. HE MUST ENCOURAGE FULL PARTICIPATION IN IMPORTANT MATTERS, CONTINUALLY BROADENING SUBORDINATE SELF-DIRECTION AND CONTROL

106

CONTINUED......

EXPECTATIONS	EXPECTATIONS	EXPECTATIONS
1. PEOPLE CAN TOLERATE WORK IF THE PAY IS DECENT AND THE BOSS IS FAIR	1. SHARING INFORMATION WITH SUBORDINATES AND INVOLVING THEM IN ROUTINE DECISIONS WILL SATISFY THEIR BASIC NEEDS TO BELONG AND TO FEEL IMPORTANT	1. EXPANDING SUB-ORDINATE INFLUENCE, SELF-DIRECTION, AND SELF-CONTROL WILL LEAD TO DIRECT IMPROVEMENTS IN OPERATING EFFICIENCY
2. IF TASKS ARE SIMPLE ENOUGH AND PEOPLE ARE CLOSELY CONTROLLED, THEY WILL PRODUCE UP TO STANDARD	2. SATISFYING THESE NEEDS WILL IMPROVE MORALE AND REDUCE RESISTANCE TO FORMAL AUTHORITY SUBORDINATES WILL "WILLINGLY COOPERATE"	2. WORK SATISFACTION MAY IMPROVE AS A "BY-PRODUCT" OF SUB-ORDINATES MAKING FULL USE OF THEIR RESOURCES

SOURCES: MILES, (1975), ALTERNATIVE THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT, THEORIES OF MANAGEMENT
          IN IMPLICATION FOR ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR AND DEVELOPMENT, MCGRAW-HILL
          BOOK COMPANY, NEW YORK AND LONDON, P.35

Other literature reviewed with regard to the use of theories and techniques in organisational management tended to point to the importance of theories and techniques in aiding organizational performance. Koontz, O'Donnell and Weinrich (1980), take the view that the knowledge of basic principles and techniques of management tended to have a tremendous impact upon management practice, because they argued theories clarify the aims of organization and techniques demonstrated the manner by which those aims are approached, and eventually accomplished. The work of practical management scholars like Fayol, Taylor, Barnard and Follett mentioned earlier, was all meant to establish this very point of management having to have theories and special techniques for doing the job. Brown (1947) held the view that understanding and devleping of the art of "management" must be a study grounded in principles. Barnard blamed the lack of literature and instructon for the executives on the lack of an accepted conceptual scheme with which to exchange their thoughts. Both Brown and Barnard's arguement centred on the fact that, given certain accepted principles, the practice and development of management tend to have more meaning for which it can be studied, and performance evaluated. Thus, sharing with Koontz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1980) the view that theories and techniques have great impact upon management practice, understanding, evaluation and development.

Fayol and Miles agreed in the importance of theory as the basis from which organizational development and behaviour are derived. Fayol argued that methods or techniques are developed from the theory, while Miles said that theories themselves are derived from the basis life values of the society. Taylor, Follett and Barnard all agreed on the importance of methods or techniques in organizational management.

Taylor's time and motion study was invented to control and direct the energy of the workmen towards the job task. Follett used psychology to depersonalize giving of orders, so that employees take their orders from the situation and not from the boss. She wanted to avoid the two extreme situations of too much bosism and no orders at all. Barnard's co-operative system addressed itself to group co-operative efforts in the achievement of the group social purposes by means of their social action. Fayol, Taylor, Follett, Barnard and Miles central themes have been in various ways addressed to the importance of theories and methods in the process of organizational management.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 Literature Review. Cultural Influence

This chapter contains a literature review which deals with the influence of culture on members' perception of organizational objectives, on the approaches to organizaional management and on the use of management theories and techniques. It also considers how the cultural environment affects the general management of organizations. The objective of this review is to illustrate the different ways in which management practices are perceived in different cultural environments.

5.1 Culture and Organizational Objectives

The literature reviewed on the effect of culture on management practices points to some conflict with traditional assumptions about management practice. This is particularly the case in connection with the application of work related values that are conceived in one cultural sphere and are employed in another. The literature contradicts the Classical School's universalist assumptions regarding the universality of the application of management principles across different cultures. As Newman (1972) observed:

> "Attitudes and values do effect managerial practice ....Consequently, when we wish to transfer an effective device from one culture to another, careful attention should be given to underlying premises on which the managerial practice is based". p.351

This view is also supported by Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) who wrote that:

"Far too many administrators raised in one organisational setting and infused with the theory appropriate to it, have wrought havoc by trying to apply it later in quite different settings. A small army of managers, trained and conditioned by classical theory, has tried at great cost to apply it in inappropriate settings". p.11.

This view is consistent with the theory of culture pattern discussed in chapter three. There, Kroeber and Kluckhohn defined culture as the 'thing' in a person that helps him to perceive his environment in accordance to the norms, values and traditions of his society. The point can be summed up by the saying that culture dictates what people learn and how they behave, which is the essence of culture-and-personality theory discussed also in Chapter Three. The argument in that theory is that each individual member of a society labours to adopt, adjust and integrate into the societal norms, traditions and customs.

Hofstede (1980) whose research was also discussed in chapter three, took the view that cultural differences did have a great consequence in management practice. He particularly took issue with objective setting programmes such as MBO (Management by Objectives) which he accepted as fitting into the US culture, whose culture he identified in his studies as being highly individualistic. According to Hofstede, the concepts of objective setting in general and MBO in particular, tended to suit societies that fall into the cultural map of US. It would not suit cultural pattern exhibited by collectivists, like Nigeria which he classified as having the characteristics of strong uncertainty avoidance, large power distance and feminist dimension. He illustrated his point by taking issue with the cultural built-in assumption of MBO, because in his view, it was conceived in a society which exhibited a highly individualistic tendency. Such tendencies included the following

characteristics.

(1) That subordinates are sufficiently independent to negotiate meaningfully with their bosses is true of US society in particular This is because of their small power distance, that makes the boss and the subordinates equal. In this view, the hierarchical position in an organization is not a barrier in communication. A boss and subordinates can sit down on equal terms to discuss objectives without the problem of rank interfering.

Because of individualistic societies' acceptance of equality of people, regardless of what ever rank a person might hold in an organization, the subordinates in these societies are capable of discussing their objectives with their bosses on equal terms. The same is not true of collectivist societies where instead inequality is accepted. Because of these societies' culture that accepts inequalities of people because of their rank, the subordinates in these societies find it difficult to sit down with their bosses to discuss their objectives. In consequence the subordinates tend to give in to the view of the boss, therefore, only the view of the boss prevails. This defeats the noble intention of the MBO and as such makes it unworkable in societies which have a collectivist orientation.

(2) A second basic assumption of the MBO is that both the boss and subordinate are willing to take risks. This tends to be true in individualistic societies, because their cultural orientation has weak uncertainty avoidance that accepts uncertainty inherent in life more easily. This therefore encourages the taking of risks since failure would not be considered disaster, but rather an accepted phenomena of life. This would not be true of collectivistic society with its strong

uncertainty avoidance which tends to take uncertainty as a continuous threat that must be fought. Because of that view, risk-taking is avoided and there is always the tendency to follow safe routes.

(3) A third assumption of MBO is that achievement of performance is seen by both the boss and subordinates as important. This again is true only of the individualistic society like the US. This is because of its high masculinity characteristics, which makes it achievement-oriented (corporate heroism) and accepts aggressiveness, assertiveness and male domination. The same might not be true of the collectivist with a feminine tendency, which tends to take the soft view of nuturant roles, quality of life and work in order to live.

Here Hofstede points out that culture does constraints the application of programmes conceived in one culture which are then applied to another. He does not condemn them, but urges careful planning and reconciliation of the two cultures the one in which the concept was conceived and the one in which the application was being made.

Kiggundu, Jorgensen and Hafsi, (1983) found that those authors who investigated the application of administrative theories in developing countries, particularly those concerned with the relationship between the organization and its environment, were likely to find serious difficulties in what they termed 'weak fit' (a situation where two views do not connect very easily). This they argued was because of the use of Western ideas in the new environment, which had not necessarily gone through the necessary adjustment that would enable Western ideas to fit in to different environment of the developing countries. Kiggundu,

Jorgensen and Hafsi's findings were the result of reviewing 94 articles on organizations in developing countries. They drew the following conclusions:

(1) That there was a great deal of interest taken by managers in the utilization of administrative theories and techniques in developing countries.

(2) That those researchers who focused on the technical core, i.e. organizational and technology were more likely to find no significant problem in the use of conventional theory in developing countries, a concept which they called 'strong fit' (a situation where two views connect very easily).

(3) Those authors who focused on the organizations relationships with its environment were more likely to find serious difficulties in connecting the culture and environment, a situation which they called a 'weak fit'.

Their thesis was that the application and utilization of technical aspects of management in the developing countries was welcomed and presented no problem, (e.g. machine design or production system). They called it 'strong fit' because it fitted in well with the application and utilization of the theories in the Western world from where most of them came. The other point the authors made was that those concepts and theories that reflected cultural orientation presented problems, because of their built-in cultural assumptions and beliefs which are inconsistent with those of the host country culture. This they argued was due to difference in beliefs, values and attitudes, which led to different interpretations, and different meanings and values attached to them. For example, in an individualistic society, using Hofstede's terminology, personal achievement was highly desired and individuals exerted themselves to achieve esteem, for their own personal gain. In

contrast, to the opposite collectivists society, it was group achievement which was held in high esteem. This was because the individual in that society not striving to distinguish himself from the rest of the community, since that act was not held in high esteem in his/her society. Therefore, concepts that tend to apply to the individualistic aspiration will often tend to conflict with the collectivists aspiration. From the literature reviewed one can see that most of the Third World and the less developed countries fall into this collectivists category while most of the Western developed countries fall into the individualistic category. Therefore, it is the difference in these cultural dimensions that are the causes of cultural conflict.

Ashton (1984), using the Hofstede, (1980) and Laurent (1980) studies, advised managers and management developers of multinational to be aware of how management ideas travel. And to be sensitive to the problems of the transferability of ideas from one culture to another, and the implications for organization's performance. Using Laurent's, (1980) concepts of instrumental and social views of business, he demonstrated the different perceptions held by the two views about various aspects of management. Laurent's Instrumental and Social Views represents two different perceptions of organizational dimensions. The instrumental view sees organizational dimensions in terms of impersonal functions that are to be achieved, while the social view sees it in terms of social interrelated relationships that had to be respected. The central point of Laurent's argument is that a manager is influenced by the kind of views he/she holds about organizational dimensions. Figure 5.1 illustrates this point.

Figure 5.1 Chart showing difference in perception between the
            instrumental and social views of organization.

INSTRUMENTAL VIEW	DIMENSION	SOCIAL VIEW
A set of tasks to be achieved	The Organisation	A collectivity of of people to be managed
Defined by tasks and functions	Manager's role	Defined by social status and authority
Impersonal, functional specific	Boss-subordinate relationship	Personal; loyalty deference to superior
Comes from role or function	Authority	Personal and functional authority are combined

Sources: Ashton, (1984), Instrumental vs Social View of Business Cultural
          Differences: Implications for Management Development in
          Management Education and Development, Vol. 15, p.7.

The essence of Ashton's thesis is that cultural values and
interpretations do not allow some theories to travel well, due to the
fact that the culture attaches specific meanings and interpretaions
according to its own bias. Because of the fact that most of the
management theories and concepts were developed in the West,
particularly in the US and in Britain, which have their own distinct
cultures, those theories and concepts are rejected by the Third World
cultures because of their cultural bias.

Ashton arrived at the same conclusion as Hofstede's that great
care should be taken in the transfer of cultural oriented concepts
across cultural boundaries.

5.2 Culture and the Approach to Organizational Management

The way managers approach the task of management is greatly affected by their societies' value systems and the cultural conditioning which they have received during their upbringing. Psychology tells us that every one of us is a product of our society's culture, indoctrinated by it through the process of upbringing from childhood to adulthood. We have seen how culture was acquired through the process of adaptation, adjustment and integration, (Spiro 1956). It is through all of this cultural conditioning that our view of the world is established so that we also have our own window through which we view the world.

Seddon (1985) along with Ashton (1984); Luarent (1980) and Hofstede, (1980, 1983 and 1984) identified the constraints that culture imposed on the transfer of concepts and their effect on the managerial practice and performance. Citing his experience with the Third World managers in general, and with African managers in particular, he pointed out that:

> "most African managers would not give me feedback that criticized the training as it would have implied a criticism of me; and I, after all was an expert. In general, the African manager will not behave towards a perceived superior in such a way to cause him to lose face". p.8.

Therefore, he concluded, African managers often respond to a new and challenging task by saving face. By this he meant that the African manager was operating in a climate that was much more concerned with status and role relationships, than with just economic success. He also observed that the African boss was disinclined to have an open discussion about performance, because the performance results were not regarded as neutral from the performer. Therefore, to point out poor results meant an offence to the performer, therefore open discussion of

those matters are often avoided.

Seddon's experience with African managers was gained in Nigeria. Thus it could be argued, it represents a limited experience which cannot be generalized to the whole of Africa. At the same time it can not be dismissed as invalid. He could be reporting an attitude which is regarded as a dominant cultural attitude of that part of the world. Hence, it should be treated as useful information.

Seddon agrees with Damchi (1978) an African writer who drew similar conclusions that there is an emerging African 'management style' which is unlike the one common in Western industrialized countries. This author's central thesis is, therefore, that African managers or indeed managers with a different culture to that of the industrialized West, are likely to perceive management concepts and techniques differently due to their particular cultural circumstances. The task of the researchers therefore now becomes a matter of recognizing what these different perceptions are and to develop appropriate methods and approaches that will be relevant to those cultures. This research tries to identify these types of perceptions, so that existing Western concepts can be fitted into an African cultural environment. This adjustment is necessary in order to achieve improved management performance which in turn affects organizational performance.

Damachi (1978) concluded from two case studies of African firms, that there was an emerging African management style. He defined it as, 'authoritarian paternalistic'. This type of management style was social and cultural in nature and was based upon the African extended family system. This emerging African management style is in his view

characterized by:

(1) Giving little or no room to the subordinate to have individual initiative.

(2) Subordinates having total commitment to organization and therefore carrying orders diligently and without question.

Damachi found that this style was deeply rooted in the African traditional authority system, which associated authority with wisdom. This unquestioned acceptance of authority certainly would greatly conflict with the Western view that seeks to know the why of every act, and the western societies desire to bridge the social distance between the superior and the subordinates in the work environment. There are admittedly some reservations about this new emerging African style of management. It has some aspects which are radically different from those contained in the Western concepts, as illustrated here:

(1) It tends to centralise authority at the top of the organization.

(2) Delegation of authority is usually to relatives or close friends.

(3) There is a tendency to mistrust employees not related to the manager by kinship or ethnicity.

(4) Top management's concern for the welfare of the workers tends to be on paternalistic basis (based on the kinship relations with management).

(5) Decisions are never 'scientific' but rooted in the tradition.

(6) Recruitment is based on the descriptive practice with first preference to relatives and close friends.

Damachi argued that the African paternalistic concern in the recruitment of relatives might be a good thing for industrial relations. He argued that the recruitment of unrelated person might be a potential industrial problem, because he the person might fail to adjust to the paternalistic norms of the organization. This failure might result in frustration and hence a potential industrial relations problem. If the relatives are known to the manager then, in case of a grievance or a dispute, it can be settled mutually rather than through the intervention of a union. The relative recruits are made welcome to the paternity of the organizaion and are also warned of the danger of any adverse effect to the well-being of the organization. Therefore, any effect to the well-being of the organization does not only mean the loss of a job to the relative recruits but also a loss of the paternity inform of the organization. The negative aspect of this recruitment is loss of performance due to failure of having the right person with the right talent for the job.

Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966) in their studies of cultural patterns, found that countries clustered together in their definitions of the roles of managers, more on the ethnic lines rather than on the level of industrialization. By this they meant that countries of similar ethnic background tended to define concepts and functions of management in a similar way. For example, they found that Scandinavian countries were similar in their description of the roles of a manager, as were the Latin American ones. USA and Britain clustered together, thus pointing to the fact their definitions were more influenced by their culture rather than by their level of economic development.

Stewart (1979) in her book on the reality of management argued that most management textbooks write about management in abstract, with very little concern for real-life situations of what managers actually do, let alone why they do it. In her study of managers' roles, she found that the manager's thinking and behaviour are partly determined by his environment. This includes his society, the stage of industrialization, locality and type of industry, and his social background (educational and experience). She illustrated how a French and a Japanese manager would take different decisions from those of their British counterparts in a similar position, all because of their environmental differences. She also showed that a 1980 British manager takes different decisions from his predecessor of a century ago, due to time lag. She thus makes a point about the influence of cultural differences and the cultural changes over the time.

In the same studies, she found that professional orientation (i.e. the manager's area of specialization) was a factor in the way management was approached. She illustrated this view with an example from Germany and UK. She found that in the case of Germany where engineers dominate in top management posts in most German's companies, management places emphasis on production and placed less emphasis on pay and marketing. In contrast, in the UK where accountants are dominant in top management posts in most of the companies, the companies placed more emphasis on the financial standing of the company and on its need to raise capital. These examples illustrate a professional bias, i.e. because the professional interest of accountants is in finance, it is allowed to take precedent over other managerial matters, likewise because production is a professional interest of the engineers, it takes precedence over other managerial interests.

Stewart also illustrated the effect of the managers' social background, which is also a product of the environment. It was found that in societies where class existed, not only was the approach to management influenced by the dominant class, but even access to managerial position was a privilege of the elite dominant class. She demonstrated this with the British example, although she admitted the social background of the British manager was changing in favour of professionalism. However, before then, a man who attended public school had ten times more chance of becoming a manager than his fellow citizen who had not gone to public school. In fact, in a survey of 3,000 British managers studied by the Acton Society (1956), only 15% of those studied came from the bottom class.

Another point made in the study was that a social gap existed between the manager and the worker, which she found was getting narrower with industrialisation. This she explained, was due to the rising standards of living as a result of the industrialisation taking place in society. However this gap was still wider in the less-developed countries, again due to their lower standards of living.

5.3 Culture and the Use of Theories and Techniques

The emerging view is that theories and techniques used in management practice are not culture-free. This is because each theory or technique in use today in management practice was conceived and developed in a particular cultural environment. The thesis advanced is that the original cultural environment in which the theory or techique was first developed always contained built-in assumptions which are unlikely to be universally valid. Therefore when the theory or technique is transferred from its home cultural environment to another

cultural environment the host cultural environment is likely to reject it because the built in assumption is alien to its culture. Thus, the effective application of that theory or technique is precluded. This thesis has been put forward by Hofstede and several others cited in the review in chapter four, who have come to the conclusion that culture has a great influence on management practice, and on a range of work-related values.

Oberg's (1963) study of cross-cultural perspectives on management principles revealed that the applicability of management principles may be limited to a particular culture or situation. Moreover he argued it might be fruitless to search for a common set of principles or absolutes or to seek to determine solutions which are applicable in all cultures or situations because there is no incentive for doing so. He even argued that since management principles appear not to be applicable between cultures, the same principles may not even be applicable between sub-cultures. Oberg used the example of a small firm rural business owner and that of a manager of a large corporation within U.S.A. In his view those two managers will perceive their managerial principles differently because of their two different backgrounds. (rural and urban and the different sizes of their organization). Oberg agrees with Gonzalez and McMillan's (1961) argument that since the game of management in U.S.A. and in Brazil are different, the kinds of principles that would work in each situation would be different. Therefore Oberg concluded that different principles, theories and techniques would be required for different situations and cultures. Oberg was investigating the cross-cultural perspectives on management principles, while Gonzalez and McMillan were examining the universality of American management philosophy.

Authors like Gonzalez and McMillan (1961) and Oberg (1963) all subscribed in various ways to the concept of the non-applicability of Western conceived theories and techniques in the Third World social and cultural environment.

In the next section we are going to illustrate, with examples from Hofstede's cultural maps, how some of the American theories are affected by the cultural environment.

Hofstede (1980) gave examples of American theories of leadership and techniques like the MBO. He illustrated this by taking to task McGregor's Theory X and Y, Likert's System Four Participative Management Style and Management by Objective (MBO). All of these concepts support the participation of the subordinates in the decision-making of their organizations. All of these concepts have been practised in the U.S.A. cultural environment. (Humble 1971). Because of their popularity in U.S.A. management practitioners and theorists have claimed a universal validity for those ideas. They believe that the application of these theories and techniques anywhere in the world will yield similar results to those obtained in the U.S.A. Hofstede (1981), however, illustrates the constraints that these applications are likely to encounter in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2   TABLE SHOWING DIFFERENCE IN PERCEPTION OF U.S.A. CONCEIVED THEORIES
            AND TECHNIQUES BY OTHER CULTURES.

THEORIES AND TECHNIQUES	BUILT-IN CULTURAL ASSUMPTIONS FROM THE CULTURE OF ORIGIN	HOFSTEDE SMALL POWER DISTANCE	HOFSTEDE LARGE POWER DISTANCE
McGREGOR THEORY X	PEOPLE PREFER TO BE DIRECTED, DON'T WANT ANY RESPONSIBILITIES, ONLY CONCERN FOR THEIR OWN SECURITY	INDEPENDENCE AND EQUALITY OF PEOPLE IS ACCEPTED. SUPERIOR AND SUBORDINATES ARE SEEN AS UNEQUAL, THEREFORE SUPERIOR CONTROL, DIRECTING AND COERCING THE SUBORDINATES IS UNACCEPTABLE. THEREFORE THE THEORY FAILS IN THIS TYPE OF SOCIETY	DEPENDENCY AND INEQUALITY OF PEOPLE IS ACCEPTED. THEREFORE THE SUPERIOR AND SUBORDINATES ARE SEEN AS EQUAL. THUS SUPERIOR DIRECTING, CONTROLLING AND COERCING SUBORDINATES IS NORMAL. THEREFORE THE THEORY WORKS IN THIS TYPE OF SOCIETY
McGREGOR THEORY Y	PEOPLE ARE NATURALLY RESPONSIBLE, THEY EXERCISE SELF-DIRECTION AND SELF-CONTROL, EXERCISE RELATIVE DEGREE OF IMAGINATION	INDIVIDUAL INDEPENDENCE AND EQUALITY IS ACCEPTED. SUPERIOR SUBORDINATE RELATIONS ARE SEEN AS THAT OF EQUALS; SUBORDINATES CAN BE GIVEN A CERTAIN AMOUNT OF RESPONSIBILITY WHICH IS ACCEPTED BY THE SOCIETY NORMS. THEREFORE THE THEORY TENDS TO WORK IN THIS TYPE OF SOCIETY	INDIVIDUAL DEPENDENCY AND AND INEQUALITY IS ACCEPTABLE. SUPERIOR AND SUBORDINATES SHARING RESPONSIBILITY IS UNACCEPTABLE SINCE IT MAKES THEM EQUAL AND THAT ACT IS REGARDED AS CONTRARY TO SOCIETY NORMS. THEREFORE, THE THEORY DOES NOT WORK IN THIS TYPE OF SOCIETY
LIKERT SYSTEM FOUR PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT	THAT THERE IS TRUST AND CONFIDENCE BETWEEN SUPERIOR AND SUBORDINATES AND CAN SET GOALS TOGETHER COMMUNICATE AS EQUALS	SOCIETY ACCEPTANCE OF INDIVIDUAL INDEPENDENCE AND EQUALITY, THE SUPERIOR AND SUBORDINATES SEE THEMSELVES AS EQUALS AND CAN CONSULT, DISCUSS, COMMUNICATE AS EQUALS. THEORY WORKS BECAUSE THE BASIC ASSUMPTION SUBSCRIBES TO THE NORM OF THE SOCIETY	INDIVIDUAL DEPENDENCE AND AND INEQUALITY IS ACCEPTED. THEREFORE SUPERIOR AND SUBORDINATES ARE DIFFERENT PEOPLE, OF DIFFERENT LEVELS, DIFFERENT COMMUNICATION, WAVELENGTH. THEREFORE, THEM SETTING GOALS TOGETHER, EXISTING AS EQUAL IS AGAINST THE NORM OF THE SOCIETY. THEREFORE THE THEORY FAILS BECAUSE THE BASIC CULTURAL ASSUMPTION BY WHICH IT IS BASED IS ALIEN AND UNACCEPTABLE TO THE SOCIETY

125

| MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES (MBO) | SUPERIOR AND SUBORDINATES ARE EQUAL, EQUALLY KNOWLEDGE-ABLE, AND CAN EQUALLY DISCUSS ORGANISATIONS AND THEIR OBJECTIVES EQUALLY | EQUALITY OF SUPERIOR AND SUBORDINATES IS ACCEPTED. THEY SEE, COMMUNICATE, CONSULT AS EQUAL. THEIR KNOWLEDGE OF ORGANISATION FAIRLY EQUAL. THEREFORE THE TECHNIQUE WORKS BECAUSE THE BASIC ASSUMPT-ION IS CULTURALLY ACCEPT-ABLE | NON-EQUALITY OF SUPERIORS AND SUBORDINATES IS ACCEPTED. EQUAL SEEING OF OF THEMSELVES IS UNACCEPT-ABLE, THEIR COMMUNICATIONS WAVELENGTH, KNOWLEDGE OF ORGANISATION, ARE DIFFERENT. THEREFORE THE TECHNIQUE FAILS, BECAUSE THE BASIC CULTURAL ASSUMPTION IS ALIEN AND UNACCEPTABLE |

SOURCES: CONSTRUCTED FROM HOFSTEDE (1980), MOTIVATION, LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATION: DO AMERICAN THEORIES APPLY ABROAD, ORGANISATIONAL DYNAMICS, SUMMER 1980. AMACOM. A. DIVISION OF AMERICAN MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION.

5.4 Management Practice and Environmental Factors

The relationship between management practice and environment has been seriously neglected. The reasons for this neglect can be traced to the development of management concepts, and the pioneers' over concern for the principles and theories that constituted the discipline. Management pioneers, like Fayol Taylor, Follett, and many others mentioned earlier. were mainly concerned with principles and practices that enabled the betterment of managerial performance. Their endeavour cumulated in the universalist approach which took the view that management consisted of sets of principles which, when applied, yielded better managerial results. Moreover. they argued these principles could be transferred across cultural boundaries. It was not until the advent of multinationals and development of management education that environmental constraints began to be felt. The U.S.A. has led the way in the development of theories and principles of management and in management education through its business schools and its multinationals with home bases in the U.S.A. Because of this lead, the management gospel that has been spread has been in accordance to U.S.A. ethnocentric conceptions. As Webber (1969) puts it:

"On no subject are Americans (even that term is wrong in referring to citizen of U.S.A., for, after all, Brazilians or Peruvians are American too) more selfcentered and ethnocentric than on the management of economic enterprise. Thus, with some justification we observe that the U.S.A. is the most advanced and productive society in the world, and we conclude that our business management must be the best. In addition, since we have probably written more books and held more classes on management than all other countries put together, many foreign administrators and educators turn to the U.S.A. when they begin to think about the practice and teaching of management....whatever advantage the U.S.A. may have in scientific and rational management, however, history has repeatedly shown us that we neglect foreign practices to our own peril....Is there nothing we can learn from foreign managers?" p.2.

Indeed, this is the main objective of the subject field of comparative and international management. That is, it seeks to develop approaches that integrate the theories, techniques and cultural assumptions with the cultural environment of the host society intending to use them. It is only after an understanding of the two has been gained that the appropriate adjustment, adoption and integration can be made to enable their connections.

Massie and Luytjes (1972) used Prasad's dichotomy to explain the environmental influence on managerial approaches, and illustrated the concepts of convergence and diversity. These are shown in the diagram below. They used three different societies, A, B and C who had different customs, beliefs, laws, practices and attitudes by merging them through a dynamic social process so that the three societies are interconnected together. The three circles in the diagram represented the three societies and the interaction between the three societieis was illustrated by the circles interacting together, with the dark area representing the convergence of the three societies; and the light dark areas representing the convergence of AB, BC and AC respectively. The white areas represent the uniqueness of each of the three societies. The increase convergence and diversity are illustrated over the time from t_1 to t_2. The increase in convergence and diversity is shown by an increase in the respective areas of dark, light and white in t_2 as illustrated in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5-3   A Diagram Showing the Interpretations of
              Crosscultural Factors.
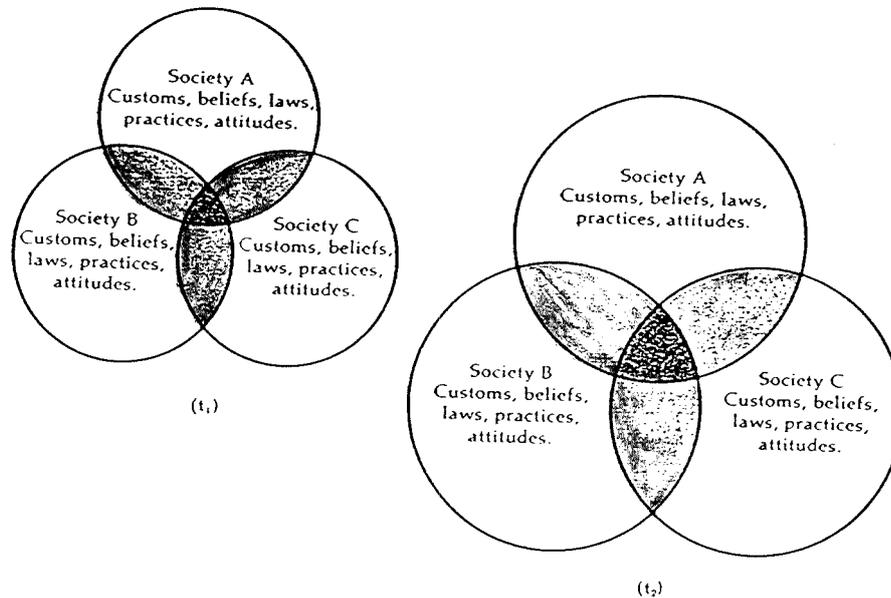
Sources: Massie and Luytjes   (1972), Dynamics of Social Relations
            Showing Increase Convergence and Increase Diversity.   In
            Massie and Luytjes, (1972) Management in an International
            Context,   Harper and Row,   Publishers,   New York and London,
            p.364.

        In   the   next   section we will examine   management   environment   in

specific   countries.   The   purpose is to illustrate how the culture   in

those   societies enables the management environment to be perceived   the

way   it   is and to consider the background that has helped   shape   their

ethnocentric view.   Because there are so many countries,   and the   vast

amount   of literature involved.   The research will illustrate the   point

with   two   countries only,   one representing the Western   industrialised

countries   where   most   of the management theories   and   techniques   are

developed   and one representing the Third World,   developing   countries,

who   tend   to use these theories and techniques in   the   development   of

their economies.   The research will use U.S.A. as representative of the

Western industrial world, because of its lead in the development of theories and techniques of management, and Nigeria to represent the Third World, developing countries because of the current Nigerian leading potential in the Third World, particularly in the African Continent. A note of warning is appropriate here, in that U.S.A. and Nigeria should not be taken literally as representing the Western industrialized countries and Third World developing countries. But it has to be recognized that even U.S.A. and Nigeria differed in some ways from the group of countries they represented in this analysis. For example the U.S.A. management environment differs from that of the U.K. and Germany even though all are Western and industrialized countries and that Nigeria management environment differs from that of Egypt and Sudan even though they are all Third World developing countries.

5.5 Management Environment in U.S.A.

The view that cultural attitudes affects management practice will be illustrated by examining beliefs and values underlying American management concepts.

Newman (1972) identified six broad concepts that have had an impact in the way most American managers practised management. These were:

(1) The 'master of destiny' viewpoint.

(2) Beliefs in independent enterprise as an instrument for
    social action.

(3) Personnel selection based on merits.

(4) The beliefs in decisions being based on objectives
    and analysis.

(5) The beliefs in shared decision making.

(6) The belief in the never-ending quest for improvement.

Newman expounded these points as follows:

(1) That the master of destiny viewpoint was American belief that people can substantially influence the future. It was based on the philosophical saying that 'where there's a will, there's a way', and that since everyday we do difficult things, the impossible will just take a little longer. This optimistic view of life which the American manager inherits from his society tends to motivate him and gives him a sense of self-confidence and self-determination that enables him to adventure and to take risks in life. The American manager therefore plans the future the way he wants it to be, rather than allowing himself to be led by the events. This optimistic view of life is in contrast with the pessimistic view of life held in most of the Third World countries where it is held that the future is predetermined by the supernatural being, (Richman 1972). Because of this pessimistic view, long term planning is neglected because it is believed to be predetermined by the Almighty.

In the optimistic master of destiny's viewpoint, the future is determined through reliance on the realistic cost-benefit analysis. This involves the avoidance of the flights of fantasy, by weighing the cost and benefits of each decision outcome. This also means having to have faith in the rewards for persistent hard work (Puritan ethic) that hard work is a virtue, and that it is a prerequisite for success. This means the believing in persistent purposeful effort that will achieve the desired aim. This Puritan ethic, which is the result of cultural optimistic view of life, is in contrast to the pessimistic view of life in Third World societies which tend to reject persistent hard work because in

their view it is not what you do, but what the supernatural gods have in store for you.

The master of destiny viewpoint is closely associated with the obligation to fulfilling commitments, which is consistent with the American belief that a commitment is not a mere statement of intention but a moral obligation. This means that a man is expected to keep his word, by doing what he says he is going to do. He does not allow himself to be deterred by other events on the way. It also means believing in time as a critical factor, i.e. effective use of one's own time, planning it, and scheduling activities. These beliefs together represent the U.S.A. cultural acceptance of the concept of the 'master of destiny viewpoint'. Summarised, it means that people can influence their destiny, by subjecting their aspirations to feasibility studies, cost-benefit analysis, hard work, respect of commitments and time as a vital factor in shaping the future.

(2) That beliefs in Independent Enterprise as an instrument for social action was the American acceptance of the enterprise as a separate social institution. With its own life, separate from that of the executive and employees working in it (corporate citizen) which can achieve objectives which people acting as individuals cannot achieve. To enable an enterprise to realise its objectives, is the American belief that employees should accept the loyalty and obligation to place enterprise interest above personal interest. That is the success of an enterprise has priority over personal preference at work. Also associated with this concept is the right to dissolve employee-employer relationships by either party. This is the concept of no stigma being attached to the termination of

employment by either side. This view is well summed up by famous American saying 'If you don't like it, you can always quit', or by the bumper 'America the beautiful, love it or leave it'. Although it is accepted that employment is a mutually accepted contract, the tradition has made it acquire a flexibility that permits the honourable withdrawal by either party.

America is known as a corporate state. This is because of their respect for the total corporate system. Most of their enterprises have developed their own code of behaviour, specifically designed to help achieve the mission of the organisation. In the form of objectives, policies, procedures, budgets, charts, flow of reports, appraisal criteria and variety of other management tools which are usually explicitly stated and communicated to all concerned. People's participation in policy formulation is encouraged and they are expected to observe those policies once established. The avoidance of a conflict of interest is also associated with this respect of an independent enterprise as an instrument of social action. The saying, 'A man cannot serve two masters', i.e. no divided loyalty, which is the requirement that an executive should never allow himself into a situation where in any transaction his decision could be interpreted as serving any interest other than the interest of his organization.

These cultural assumptions can be summed up as the 'American enterprise concept' that influences management practice. This strong American respect for the independence of an enterprise is indeed in contradiction with the narrow views held about independence of an enterprise for example in the Sudan. In the Sudan most of the economic active industries in production and

service industries like banks and agricultural schemes, are nationalised and are run by politicians who do not have the technical know how, and whose views about the independence of the enterprise are politically biased. They tend to be more loyal to their fellow politicians who appointed them to the posts and who have the right to discharge them, than to the interest of the organization.

(3) Personnel selection based on merit, is the American belief that persons are recruited for an organization and for the maximum good of the enterprise. Thus, the basis of the best man for the job starts with the premise that the organizational mission can be translated into jobs and therefore. The person selected is the one who will execute the organization's endeavours with the maximum application. This is why there is a belief that second raters should be removed. The aim is that if a man cannot perform his job well, he will be replaced by a person who can do it better. This also means a lot to the economics of the organization. The cost of poor performance to the company is usually greater than the employee's salary. A weak member of a team can reduce organizational effectiveness. Also associated with this American belief in merit recruitment, is its association with the opportunity for upward mobility, i.e. the view that a man born in a log cabin can become President in that country, and that an office boy can become President of a company. This is relating upward mobility to ability and not to class or birthright or even education. This too is associated with the acceptance of horizontal mobility, that is, the concept of having to move every three or five years to a position of similar or higher status, where one can contribute to the organisational interest.

The American belief in the reconciliation of authority to egalitarian principles, requires the authority of the organization to be attached to the position rather than to the personal prerogative of the individual who holds the position. This means that the needs of the enterprise is exercised by the individual holding the position, that is why he is able to tell others what to do. This ideal conflicts with most of the Third World set up, where in most cases the personal prerogative of the leader tends to be projected more than the organizational interest.

(4) The belief in decisions being based on objectives and analysis is an American tradition. It refers to the decision being supported by factual and rational data, which means that every decision made has to have the appropriate facts or data collected, analysed and decisions be taken in light of the evidence obtained. This makes it the task of the manager to gather the relevant facts, analyse them using the appropriate qualified techniques with final decision being supported by rational data. This means the data itself has to be dependable, and made available to all the people concerned in the decision. These people in turn are held to express their opinion honestly, including any opinion differences. This ethos sums up the American culture beliefs which reinforce objective analysis of decision, so that in the end, every decision can be supported by data that is itself convincing.

This American tradition is directly in conflict with the African traditions observed by Seddon (1985) and Damachi (1978) where decisions were not based on a raional scientific criterion but on the traditional wisdom, and where opposing views were not discussed in the open.

(5) A belief in shared decision making is an American tradition which warrants a wide participation of all the employees in their organizations' decisons. This represents the American belief in employee potential. The assumption here is that with training, and given the opportunity in the decisions of the organizaton, the employee is expected to contribute to his full potential. With this, is the belief that each employee has a desire to get ahead by improving his lot and has a positive attitude towards work, where he must be ready to dirty his hands. That is, he does not entertain the view that certain jobs are below his dignity and therefore he is not prepared to perform them. Participation of all employees in their organization's decisions conflict with the African traditions as top managers are not prepared to delegate decision matters to the subordinates. The younger subordinates not being prepared because those are matters for older generation with wisdom, (Damschi 1978).

(6) The beliefs in the never-ending quest for improvement is an American ethos. This is a contention that there is no such a thing as 'the best'. Because the best can be improved on. This attitude is associated with the acceptance of change as normal and stagnation as abnormal. Change is seen as hard work, involving investment, man hours, and purposeful adjustment. Also associated with the quest for improvement is the results orientation which stresses the importance of results. This means the translation of organizational objectives into practical results that can be seen and evaluated. It also means auditing and checking the progress of the organization along the way, so that you know when you have achieved the goal. This quest for excellence is derived from the individualist characteristic to which U.S.A. ranked very high in

Hofstede (1983) study. It is closely associated with the individual search for self fulfilment which is absent in the collectivist societies to which most of the Third World countries belonged. Instead, collectivists tend to avoid any tendencies that exposed the individual heroism, because the societies tradition does not value such tendencies. Therefore one can see a conflict of ethos, and a sociological explanation why managers from these cultural map don't seek such excellence.

5.6 Management Environment in Nigeria

In an investigation of management environment in Nigeria Malins and Omoloyole (1972) found it difficult to assess the environment due to the complex ethnic groupings that it contained. There were many diverse views and beliefs. Despite all of these, the authors identified a number of educational and sociological factors.

(1) Educational factors: they found out that Christian education was introduced into Nigeria in 1850 by the Christian missionaries mainly on the coast in the southern part of the country. The objective of the missionaries was to produce christian gentlemen able to read the bible and to assist in the spread of the gospel as teachers and catechists. It was this type of education that was later improved upon by the British colonial administration which introduced an educational system modelled on the British grammar school. After independence, several independent administrations further advanced this trend, finding that the Nigerian people valued education. With independence came the concept of free universal primary education, which made the first six years of education free, with the first two years of instruction being in the child's mother tongue and the rest in English. Education at

the higher institutions of learning was unbalanced in favour of the liberal arts and social sciences and little emphasis was placed upon sciences to the point where there was an over supply of arts, economics and law graduates, while there was a considerable shortage of scientists, engineers and technologists. Although attempts are being made by higher institutions to improve sciences and engineering there is shortage of high technology manpower, like managers and people with technical expereience. Thus, Malins and Omoloyole argue due to this imbalance education which places little emphasis in technical and commercial aspects of education, talented managers are not being produced and hence, managerial positions are being filled with people who had no training in management.

(2) Sociological and cultural factors: The complex ethnicity and different religious background made national integration difficult. The South which had had an earlier contact with the Christian missionary education had advanced faster than the North which had their contacts later. The latter's religious beliefs and basic education were based on the Koranic teaching. Therefore there was not only a conflict of ethnicity, but also of the religious beliefs. (Christianity versus Islam). Because of these differences, the sociological and cultural aspects have tended to develop on those lines. The South has adapted to change in a more progressive rate than the Northern region. Despite these differences the following sociological and cultural factors tend to be common to both sides of the communities:

(a) The extended family system: This system created cohesiveness between kinship to one's ethnic group, village, family and blood relatives. Because of this paternatistic relationship to which the Nigerian managers are tied by their tradition,

they feel obliged to give their blood relatives preference in recruitment and promotion in the organizations to which they are responsible. This Nigerian tradition conflicts directly with the Western tradition that bases recruitment and promotion in an organization on the person's merits or ability to perform the task required of him by the organization. These problems are created by the extended family system and feature most in the public organizations. For this reason, the Federal Government of Nigeria has introduced quotas in its department and has created a number of tribunals to inquire into cases of bribery, corruption and nepotism. The private sector response has been to recruit younger men who are urbanized and thus have less obligation to the demands of their extended family system.

(b) The status of a manager: Before independence in 1960, the term (manager) was associated with the white man, but after independence, and since native Nigerians have begun to acquire managerial positions, some understanding of what a manager is, what he does has been acquired. But a large portion of the public do not really understand the manager's role.

The general public's attitude to a manager is that he is a man who drives a big car, lives in a big house and has an immense power to do virtually anything. Therefore, the popular perception of the status of a manager has been blown out of proportion to the point of absurdity. This popular Nigerian perception of a manager's status and achievement, which is totally unrealistic almost tantamount to that of a magician might account for the public high expectation out of the manager and managerial environment. This contradicts the Western limited perception of the manager's status which recognizes the constrained environment in which he operates and therefore expects realistic outcomes.

(c) The social structure: Generally the Nigerian is better educated than his counterpart in other African countries. There exists a large number of newspapers, magazines, and radio and television stadiums that keep the society enlightened. However, despite these mass media enlightenments, the traditional values are still very strong. The traditional rulers like the Chiefs and the Emirs, still have a considerable influence over their people. In urbanized centres, low paid workers take a keen interest in public affairs such as trade union activities. What all this means is that although Nigerians are by African standards, well educated, their society contains still strong traditional values. They have not discarded their traditional rulers, so their social structure tends to be more oriented to tradition. Even this has to be qualified in terms of the north/south dichotomy, where the rate of change has tended to be faster in the south than in the north. For example, Muslim values have

concentrated women in domestic work, while their sisters in the south are participating in increasing numbers, in all the professional fields.

(d) <u>Governmental influence</u>: The politics of Nigeria are in transition. Since independence in 1960 there have been several changes, including changes in the structure of government. The government has changed from the four regions to twelve and now has nineteen states. There now exist three levels of government, the federal, the state and the local authorities level, all these three levels carry with them a certain amount of influence.

The most effective government influence comes in the form of the legal system, most of which is modelled on the English legal system with a certain amount of Nigerian influence. In the North, source of law is Islamic, and justice is dispensed in accordance with the Koranic interpretations, while in the south, sources are customary and justice is dispensed in accordance with local traditions. Other matters, such as the ownership of land, are dealt with traditionally. The rights to land for example are usually held by a family, a village, or an ethnic group. In other states, these are government controlled. Therefore the society is influenced by the three levels of government. The federal level, with federal laws and controls, the state levels with state laws and control, and the local authorities, in terms of local rates and control.

(e) <u>Economic factors</u>: Several Nigerian governments since independence, whether military or civilian, have all reaffirmed the country's belief in the free market economy with the need for overseas capital and managerial technical

skills working in a partnership with the local indigenous people. These beliefs put the Nigerian economy on par with the free Western economies which believe to various degrees, in Adam Smith's invisible hand of the market forces operating without political control.

The Nigerian Institute of Management, though still in an early stage of development, is working hard assembling and dissemanating data on Nigerian conditions through publications, meetings, seminars and conferences which is hoped will enable a proper understanding of the Nigerian management environment.

5.7 Relationship Between Management Practice and Culture

From the literature reviewed so far, a relationship can be established between the culture of a manager (acquired through his membership of a certain society) and the way he perceives the management environment, and hence the way in which he practises management. This research has established this link by tracing the concept of culture from the omnibus definition of culture by Taylor (1832-1917) via the pattern theory of culture as advanced by Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952), through to the concept of cultural relativism Bidney (1953) and culture-and-personality by Spiro (1956). A contemporary review which dealt with the conflict of culture and management practice by Hofstede et al also helped to confirm the relationship between management practice and culture.

It has been established that a managers' culture shapes his attitude, values and norms, thereby establishing a specific frame of mind, through which he perceives things in accordance to the influence

of his culture. This has been illustrated by the existence of different management environments in every society, as demonstrated by our example of U.S.A. and Nigeria management environments. Given these leads, the research can now begin to hypothesize the relationship between culture and management practice, by using management practice themes to enable operationalization for an empirical investigation.

Hypothesis One: That there is a relationship between the manager's culture and the way he perceives organizational objectives, in the management or administration of his organization.

Hypothesis Two: That there is a relationship between the way a manager approaches management or administration of his organization and his cultural upbringing.

Hypothesis Three: That there is a relationship between the manager's culture and the kind of theories or techniques that he uses in the management or administration of his organization.

Hypothesis Four: That there is a relationship between management practice and several cultural factors in the achievement of organizational performance.

The next chapter will deal with the appropriateness of the methodology, that is used in the research. The discussion will be an attempt to state its principles and to make a comparison with the appropriateness of the popular positivistic methods of research.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 Methodology: Its Relevance

This chapter focuses on the methodology used in this research. It explains the choice of the methodology, and its relevance to this research. It defines the methodological concepts used as well as underlying principles. It also gives an epistemological justification. It discusses objections and criticisms from the traditional positivistic point of view. It illustrates, with an example, how the phenomenologist uses the logic and the rationale of his principles to conduct his research and contrasts it with the way the traditionally accepted positivist conducts his research.

6.1 The Choice of Methodology and Its Relevance

This research as defined in Chapter One, in the Statement of the Problem, proposes to examine the effects of culture on management practices in the public service organizations of Southern Sudan. The objective of the study is to establish an understanding of the effects of the region's cultural environment on management practice. It also seeks to consider the ramifications of this, on the managerial/ organizational performance and the overall rate of economic and social development in the region. Such an understanding can help to reconcile the relationships between management practice and societal attitudes towards organizational management. The aim of this is to increase both managerial and organizational performance and hence, the overall rate of social and economic development of the Southern Sudanese society.

Given this definition of the problem and the behavioural nature of the investigation, the researcher examined several possible methods of conducting his investigation. The research approach finally chosen was

the phenomenologically-based research approach. Because of its philosophical background, and its ability to generate protocols and analysis that are geared towards understanding a behavioural meaning-based data, that is generated from the respondent's point of view. The research is investigating the effects of cultural influences on the Southern Sudanese senior administrators cultural point of view. The data needed to be obtained in a way which did not bias respondents answers. The appropriateness of the phenomenologically-based research method was recongized and hence influenced the decision to use this methodology. A full discussion of the positivistic and phenomenological paradigms, including a comparison of their methodological and epistemological justification, is contained in the latter part of this chapter.

It is also worth mentioning here too that the first pilot test of this research was based on the traditional positivistic method. It had to be abandoned due to a number of reasons. The first pilot study was administered to ten civil servants from the Southern Sudan in U.K. Five of them whom were attending short courses in institutions of higher learning in the U.K., and five others were civil servants who were on their way back to Sudan from a tour of the U.S.A. The results of this pilot survey were very poor in many respects.

(1) There was a very low response rate - four out of ten responded by filling part of the questionnaire for which none was able to answer every question.

(2) Some returned the questionnaire unanswered citing the state of emergency in the country and sensitivity of the questions as their reasons for declining to respond. This was despite the assurance of confidentiality of their responses.

(3) Prompts and leading questions regarding their jobs were greatly resented. As one respondent put it:

> "we do not make our organizational objectives, they are set for us, and we have to do it, because these are directives".

This was in response to a leading question as to whether they participated in the setting of their organization's objectives. One person who returned the questionnaire unanswered attached a note saying, "these questions are too technical for me, they are outside my line".

(4) Another objection to the positivistic questionnaire was their opinionated nature as one respondent who declined to respond to a yes or no answer stated:

> "It is easier for you for statistical purposes to categorise things into a data, but for us there are a lot of things that had to be considered which makes it very difficult to say a straight yes or no".

The frustration with the positivistically-based approach and the prevalance of the political crisis in the Sudan which made the field-work impossible in the Southern Sudan both contributed to a choice of the phenomenological approach. Because of the inaccessibility of Southern Sudan due to the crisis which eventually led to the overthrow of the Government of General Nimeri on April 6, 1985. The research had therefore to opt for a different methodology the research used a non-positivist approach. In the end Southern Sudanese civil servants that were taking courses at the Institute of Local Government Studies at the University of Birmingham and another senior administrator who were working towards a Ph.D. in Public Administration at the University of Liverpool were the respondents.

6.2 Phenomenologically-based Protocols Analysis Method

Protocol Content Analysis is a research method that has its roots in the phenomenlogical movement, whose development can be attributed to Edmund Husserl (1859-1938). Phenomenologists take the view that an individual's subjective experience of an object or a phenomena is a valid source of knowledge about that phenomena (Drever 1972). Phenomenology seeks to make explicit the implicit structure and meanings of human experience, that is, it searches for the "essence" (the truth or reality) that is not revealed by ordinary observation (Sanders 1982). The point of phenomenology is to get straight to pure and unencumbered vision of what an experience essentially is (Edie 1962). The task of the phenomenological researher is to investigate the descriptive contents of conscious phenomena, or of consciousness itself (Atkinson 1972).

A phenomenologically-based protocol analysis method is a methodology in which the articulations of the respondents are phenomenologically analyzed to derive meanings that are "transcended" (attributed) back to the problem of investigation without necessarily generalizing the findings to the entire population.

A phenomenologically-based methodology uses protocols as sources of data. Protocols themselves are verbatim transcriptions of the respondents' articulations on the phenomena of investigation. The phenomenologically-based method, like participant observation and other ethnographic approaches, belong to the family of qualitative methods which emerged to challenge the postivists analytic/deductive philosophies (Chamberlain 1974; Spradley, 1980; Hammersley and Atkinson 1983). Phenomenology has been described as a descriptive

philosophy which offers a form of analysis which leads to the description of the essential structure of the phenomena (Atkinson 1972). It is fundamentally a way of seeing the world of behaviour and making sense of it. The phenomenologists seek out conscious meaning based upon behaviours that are by their nature qualitative. Therefore, protocol analysis method is one of the qualitative methodologies which is based on phenomenological principles, regulations and ethics for its research conduct. That is why this research argues that, any attempt to evaluate a phenomenologically-based research project must begin with an understanding of phenomenology itself - its principles, regulations and conduct of research, which are distinct and separate from those of the positivists. The positivist dominance in the research scene has resulted in the tendency to use their principles, regulations and conduct of research as a yardstick with which to evaluate all others, even though this may not be appropriate.

The Principles of Phenomenologically-Based Protocol
Analysis and its Epistemological Justification

The phenomenological thesis is mainly centred around the argument that an individual subjective experience is a source of knowledge about the phenomena under investigation. The counter-thesis is contained in the positivist argument that the subjective experience of an individual cannot be accepted as a source of knoweldge. This is because the process by which an individual's subjective experience is acquired cannot be verified. Since the process of acquiring meaning cannot be verified, the knowledge derived from it must be regarded as subjective and therefore invalid. Central to the positivist argument is the verification principle, that is, the view that a statement's validity is given meaning by the method of its verification (School of Logical

Positivism). To the positivist, a valid statement is one which meets three fundamental principles:

1. Logic of experiment (i.e. anything that can be proven by scientific experiment).

2. Universal laws (i.e. anything that can be explained, based on appeal to universal laws).

3. Neutral observable language (i.e. anything that is based upon test by appeal to description that simply correspond to the state of the world involving theoretical assumption, and this being beyond doubt).

Therefore the positivist's criterion for a scientific statement is that which meets these three principles. Anything short of this standard is regarded by him as subjective and hence invalid.

Because of the infrequent use of the phenomenologist's research methods and the frequent use of the positivist's research methods, the positivists have made their case. To the extent that much of the current research epistemology in social science is dominated by their views which tend to be used as a yardstick for evaluation of researches in terms of validity. The phenomenologists have yet to make their presence felt in this respect. The phenomenological case is based upon the following fundamental methodological principles:

1. The principle of " quality versus quantity", which states that a large sample size does not necessarily yield more information about the phenomena of investigation. As a result of this principle, phenomenologists use a small population and ask fewer questions of their subjects. They select a small sample which has the characteristics of the phenomena under investigation or that can

give reliable information on the subject under investigation. Also embodied in this principle of equality versus quantity is the tradition to seek a deep intentional analysis of the subject's experiences, which differs from the positivist's probing or prompting based upon the asking of more questions. The phenomenologist asks the subject being interviewed a few questions which are directed mainly at general themes. The respondent's articulations are then taperecorded, transcribed and are later deeply probed to get behind and beyond the words in order to derive meanings which the subject assigns to the object of the investigation.

2. The principle of "epoche" is the phenomenological tradition of suspending all bias, assumptions and beliefs about an object of investigation. This is usually done at a later stage when the researcher embarks on the construction of the questionnaire or questions for the interview at the data collection stage. The objective of this principle is to reduce the impact of the researcher "demand characteristics". This is the view that, as part and parcel of the social research, the researcher has an impact on the process of investigation itself and this, in turn, can have a bearing on the outcome of the findings. The interviewing process itself is conducted in the phenomenolgical tradition whereby leading questions and prompts are avoided. Leading questions or prompts are in the positivist tradition, and are used to lead the respondent to the researcher's variables. Since the phenomenologist suspends his hypothesis and variables, he only seeks to understand the meaning that the respondent gives to the object of the investigation, which he then later compares with his suspended hypothesis or variables. What this means is that the

phenomenologist does not translate his hypothesis or variables into questions when interviewing his respondents. He only asks his respondents to talk about the object of the investigation in a general way without any preconceived assumptions or beliefs of his own about the object of investigation.

3. The principle of "eidetic reduction", which represents the phenomenological tradition of searching for meaning and for how experiences show themselves in the consciousness of the respondents. This stage in the positivistic tradition is equivalent to that of data analysis, which is assisted by use of computer and statistical analysis employed to manipulate the data.

The phenomenologist uses intuition and reflection which are in phenomenological language called phenomenological seeing and interpretation. This means, "looking, looking again, then again, each time with greater precision, until we reach a clear evident grasp", Kohak, (1978), p.23. This is then transcended back to the context of the subject of the investigation. For the positivists this stage represents the data analysis in which the relationships and correlations between variables are established in order to prove or disprove the research hypothesis. In contrast, the aim of the phenomenological seeing and interpretation is to establish the invariants and noetic/noematic correlates, which consist of the basic essences of the protocols and the subject's, subjective experiences, which, when contrasted with the objective phenomena of the object under investigation, will yield the universal meaning about the object of investigation.

6.3 Summary of the Objections and Criticisms

The criticisms and objections to a phenomenologically-based protocol analysis stem from the positivist's objection to the phenomenologist's reliance on individual experience with which to understand the world of behaviour. The positivist's objection is deep-rooted in a tradition which dismisses such subjective experiences as emotional and therefore invalid because it is held that the process of acquiring meaning cannot be verified scientifically. These arguments can be illustrated using B.F. Skinner's operating conditioning model.

Figure 6.1 Chart showing the positivists position
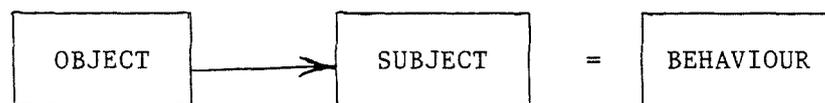
This position takes a linear relationship, that is the presence of an object is held to induce the behaviour of the subject. An automatic relationship that does not assume any intermediary process.

Figure 6.2 Chart showing the phenomenologists position
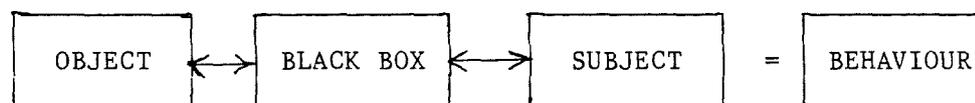
This position involves a two-way relationship, that is, it is held that the subject reacts to the object, interprets it, establishes a meaning for it and, in accordance to the meaning assigned to it, some behaviour is induced. Thus, the view is taken that a subject's behaviour is a result of the meaning assigned to an object and not the mere presence of the object. Between the object and the subject is a

black box (which represents an individual's subjective experience which gives the object its meaning and hence the behaviour). Burgoyne and Hodgson (1982) argue that the positivist's logical position is weak because it neither recognises consciousness nor the subjective interpretation of the object by the subject as a factor in the behaviour of the subject. It focuses only on the presence of the object as the cause of the subject's behaviour. The phenomenologist's logical position withstands the test because to him, the subject's behaviour is his reaction to what he perceives the object to be. Therefore, to the phenomenologist, the subject's behaviour is in accordance with what his conscious experience interprets the object to be. Therefore, it holds the interviewee's subjective interpretations and his behaviour to be inseparable. In Husserl's terms they are but the subjective and objective aspects of the same thing which he termed "empirical subjectivity". The strength of this argument is that it recognises an intermediary process which is subjective, which takes place within the Black Box, and which thus cannot be empirically verified.

B.F. Skinner (1953), argued that any phenomena that cannot be scientifically verified is subjective and is therefore invalid. This argument equates subjectivity with a lack of verification and validity as anything that is verifiable. This of course does not offer an explanation as to why the same subject, in the same environment behaves differently at different times, or for that matter, why different subjects react differently to the same object in the same environment. The phenomenologist's logical position can offer an explanation of the varying behaviour of different or the same subjects in the same or in different environment as being attributable to their individual subjective experience of the objects involved. The strength of the

phenomenologists' argument is in their recognition of the intermediate process in the subjective experience of the respondent.

Kohak (1978) and Schutz (1972), have both argued that the weakness of the positivists' position is the omission of the subjective experience of the subject, which is equated with subject's consciousness. In phenomenological terms, this constitutes conscious-experience including perception, interpretation, reflection and individual emotions. They argue that an individual's subjective emotion cannot be divorced from his behaviour, his emotional experience or from his personality. An individual's action is defined through the meaning that he assigns to the object of his decision (Schutz 1972).

To understand how phenomenologists deal with the concept of subjectivity, one must understand Husserl's transcendental phenomenological reduction or "eidetic reduction". This is what Kockelman (1967) called the methodological path back to the meaning of essence (reality) implicit in the experience. Husserl resolved this by treating the act of consciousness and its object as inseparable. Because to him, subjectivity is transcendental, that is, it goes beyond ordinary appearances in order to discover the essential "objective or absolute" (reality) structures in what otherwise would be merely a subjective phenomena. Atkinson (1972) called it the process of going beyond, behind or underneath the conventional patterns or structures of thought and action in order to locate their common ground (intentionality). Ihde (1977) saw the concept as being associated with Cartesianism (the philosophy of 'Descartes'), that is, the tradition which locates subjective phenomena within the subject and contrasts those phenomena with the objectives phenomena located outside of the

subject.

Ihde's work in fact goes to justify Kohak's (1978) and Sander's (1982) argument that, the phenomenologists go beneath and beyond in their treatment of reality, while the positivists treat reality superficially. The phenomenologist treats the subjectivity of an individual's experience as a social, interpersonal or intersubjective understanding which can be shared through the individual articulations or the thinking aloud of the individual subject. This is the view that, although each individual experience is unique because of individuality, there exists a basic common experiental structure, common to all individuals. This is the universal essence or reality from which muiltiple realities spring. For example, if several individuals were to describe their experiences of a table, certain likely essential features would emerge in their descriptions, probably the flatness of top, standing on a leg or legs, etc. Therefore, the premises of a phenomenologically-based protocol analysis is an acceptance of a common based consciousness that relates one man's uniqueness to another man's uniqueness, thereby making it shareable.

6.4 An Illustration of How a Phenomenologically-based Research Approaches, Conducts, Analyses and Reaches Conclusion

Example

Let us assume that we are interested in investigating the relationship between the training given to primary school teachers in teaching methods, and the number of pupils who pass their secondary school entrance examinations in a certain district. The facts are that the secondary school entrance in this district is by competitive examinations, which involves several primary schools in the district. Only 50% of the total number of candidates are admitted to the secondary

school.   In   the district where the study is conducted the total number
of primary school teachers is 200,   and the numbers of teachers   trained
in the use of teaching mehods is 50, of whom 10 had completed the course
two years ago.

Using   the   phenomenological principles discussed   above,   we   will
illustrate   how   the phenomenologist will approach   this   investigation,
using   the   protocols   generated by this   question,   to   illustrate   the
phenomenological   paradigm.   Evoking   the phenomenlogical tradition   of
suspending bias,   hypothesis and variables and refraining from   leading
questions and prompts,   the phenomenologist's hypothesis could be   "That
there is a relationship between the training in teaching methods and the
number   of   pupils   who passed their   secondary   school   entrance.   The
question for interview can be constructed as follows:"

Question: Can   you talk about teachers training in   teaching   methods:
and   the   number of pupils who pass their secondary school   entrance   in
your school?

Figure 6.3   Table showing the protocols and their invariants.

Protocols	Invariants
In our school I am the only teacher trained in teaching methods, and because of that the Headmaster asked me to teach the senior classes	Training in teaching methods – Teaching in Senior Classes
The results of the school for the last two years before I joined them were 10 and 8 passes out of classes of 40 and 38 respectively	Results $\dfrac{10}{40}$ – $\dfrac{8}{38}$
The results for the two years I have been teaching were 12 and 15 passes out of classes of 40 and 36 respectively	Results $\dfrac{12}{40}$ – $\dfrac{15}{36}$
I believe training in teaching method helped, before I took the training myself, I used to think teaching children was a matter of telling them what the subject is about, and their reception was automatic	Teaching children meant telling them what the subject was about
The course has enabled me to reassess that beliefs and has shown me how to communicate with the pupils and how to get feedback from them	Reassess of beliefs – how to communicate and get feedback from pupils

Figure 6.4   Table showing the process of protocols analysis.

Protocol Analysis

Invariants	Noetic and Noamatic correlates	What is symbolized or the essence (truth)
Training in teaching methods – teaching in senior classes	Scarce talent – seniority	Professionalism
Lower results before the arrival of the professional(10/40,8/83)	Absence of a professional orientation	Trial and error
Higher results after the arrival of the professional (12/40, 15/36)	Professional approach	Professionalism equal higher results
Teaching children meant telling them about the subject	Unprofessional approach	Poor attitude
Reassessing of beliefs, knowing how to communicate and how to get a feedback	Professional orientation and approach	Scientific approach and techniques

The positivist on the other hand would have first, used his
variables and hypothesis in the construction of his questionnaire. Then
sampling techniques would be applied to select the population sample
among the 200 teachers. Second, he would use a computer and statistical
analysis to correlate the relationship between his variables in order to
prove or disprove his hypothesis.

Discussion of the Protocols

What these protocols show is that the teaching methods were regarded by the respondent as a special talent which was associated with seniority and professionalism. As the respondent puts it:

> "I am the only teacher in our school trained in teaching methods, and because of that the headmaster asked me to teach senior classes".

It was also associated with higher performance. As seen by the fact that. after the input of a professional teacher the school performance improved. This is shown by comparing the results for the two years without a trained teacher and the two years with a trained teacher in teaching methods. This type of training helped the teachers to change their attitude towards teaching as seen from the teacher's statement,

> "before I took the training myself, I used to think teaching children was a matter of telling them what the subject is about".

The teacher believed that the course enabled the teachers to become professionally oriented, to approach teaching scientifically and to use professional techniques. As the teacher put it:

> "the course has enabled me to reassess that beliefs and has shown me how to communicate and how to get a feedback from the pupils".

De-suspending the hypothesis, we can now correlate the literature review findings with those from the protocol analysis: we can conclude from this that a relationship does exist between teaching methods and number of pupils who pass their secondary school entrance examinations. This is evident from the fact that teaching methods are a special talent for a teacher. They enable him to approach the teaching of children professionally and to use a scientific approach and technique in teaching. The untrained teacher in contrast has no such professional orientation and approaches the teaching of children unprofessionally. Due to the acquisition of professional techniques, teachers trained in

teaching methods are therefore likely to prepare their pupils better for examinations, and as a result of this professional orientation, the pupils are likely to perform better in their examinations.

This analysis has been conducted in accordance with the four levels of phenomenologically-based content analysis which Sanders (1982) identified as:

1. The description of the phenomena as revealed in the taped interviews, which represents transcribed narratives, describing and identifying the qualities of human experience and consciousness that gives the person being studied his/her unique identity and outlook. In our example this was the teacher's description of his experience of the course in teaching methods, and how it helped to change his attitudes about teaching children.

2. The identification of the "themes or invariants" that emerged from the descriptions. The themes or invariants themselves represent the bones or the skeleton of the description and the importance and centrality accorded to them by the description. In our example the themes included the instructions in teaching methods, the teaching in senior classes, the poor results of the school before the arrival of the trained teacher, the improved results after the arrival of a trained teacher, the teacher's confession of how the training changed his attitude and made him reassess his beliefs, the improved talent, communication and how to get a feedback from pupils.

3. The "noetic/noematic correlates", which represent the individual's perception of the reality of the phenomena under investigation, the interpretation of which will lead to the identification of essence or what an experience actually is. In our example it is the

scarcity of talent, seniority and professionalism, absence of professional approach, professional orientation, unprofessional approach and professional approach.

4. The "abstraction of essences or universal" from the noetic/noematic correlates, which is accomplished through intuition and reflection. This represents the final step in the eidetic reduction where the subjective meaning inside the subject is contrasted with the objective phenomena outside of the subject. In our example it is professionalism or talent poor results, professionalism equals higher performance, poor attitude and scientific approach and techniques, and our being able to conclude that a relationship does exist between teaching methods and the number of pupils who pass their secondary school entrance examination.

What has just been illustrated in the above example is how one can use an individual teacher's subjective experience, about a phenomena (training in teaching methods and number of puils passing their secondary school entrance examinations) as perceived internally by him, to understand the objective phenomena outside of him called professional orientation or talent. This outside phenomena (professional orientation) is specific and has an established criterion, or qualities that are known and proven by published work or studies. Our rationale is based on the fact that, what we made of the teacher's subjective experience correlated with the established criterion or qualities of the professional method of teaching and as such, we were able to conclude that since a teacher's subjective experience correlates with professional methods of teaching, then training in teaching methods is related to the number of pupils who pass their examinations to the secondary school. What we have learnt in the exercise is that the

difference between the positivist and the phenomenological approaches is

in the way each sees things which are both supported by their respective

principles.   In no way can the work of one approach be evaluated using

each others approaches.   Instead each approach needs to be evaluated on

its own principles.

6.5 Comparison of the Positivists' and Phenomenologists'

     Methodology and Principles

Positivist Approach and Principles Justification	Phenomenological Approach and Principles Justification
1. The problem is envisaged as an everyday felt problem that needs identification of causes and solutions.	– do –
2. Statement of the problem and its significance, that is what the problem is and the need for an investigation.	– do–
3. Literature review, what has been published on the topic and the trend of issues and a statement of possible hypothesis.	– do–
4. Population and population size, decision on usages of sampling techniques to get a representative sample of the population under investigation.	Select the population with the characteristics under investigation or the population that will give reliable information about the phenomena of investigation.
Evoking their principle of representativeness, and a large sample population. In our example, the representative sample can be selected at random using random sampling. Bearing in mind that the sample selected is reasonably large in order to be representative of the total population.	Evoking the principle of quality versus quantity. In our example select the teachers that have just completed the course. Because they have the characteristic of the phenomena under investigation i.e. training in teaching methods.

Positivist Approach and Principles Justification	Phenomenological Approach and Principles Justification
5. Data collection, administration of a questionnaire or interview using leading questions or prompts to unearth information from the respondents, which will correspond or correlate to the researchers variables, to enable the proof or disproof of the research hypothesis.	Historical or documentaries using the respondents work to derive meanings from, or interviews where the respondents are presented with cards containing the questions to which the respondents respond to, and these responses are tape-recorded. And are later transcribed into the protocols which are used as the raw data from which invariants and noetic/noemotic correlates are derived.
Evoking the principle of knowledge of truth and the variables underlying the investigation, but needs the respondent to provide the hard data. In our example the teaching methods and pupils passing their secondary school entrance is assumed as truth, that needs to be confirmed by the teachers. Therefore will use leading questions and prompts, to generate data that will either confirm his hypothesis or disprove it.	Evoking the principle of epoche, that suspends all bias, assumptions, beliefs and preposition about the object or subject of investigation. In our example, the relationships and the variables are suspended and the interviewee asked to talk only on the theme or topic under investigastion. To generate the protocols from which a search for meaning will be conducted.
6. Data Analysis, use of a computer, statistical analysis to manipulate the data, so that relationships between the variables can be established in a statistical or graphic form.	Phenomenologically based protocol analysis using phenomenological seein and interpretations to establish invariants and noematic and noetic correlates that is the subject subjective experience which are transcended back to the object of investigation.
Evoking the principles of correlation, the relationship between the hypothesis and the data. In our example the number of teachers who approve of the hypothesis and those who do not, i.e. establishment of a hard data to confirm either way.	Evoking the principle of eidetic reduction, that is the search for meaning and how experiences show themselves in the consciousness of the respondent. Use of intuition, reflection or phenomenological seeing and interpretation and transcended the result back to the context of investigation. In our example whether a relationship exists between teachers trained in teaching methods and the number of pupils passing their secondary school entrance examination.

Positivist Approach and Principles Justification	Phenomenologist Approach and Principles Justification
7. Discussion of the findings, (that is what the findings are) and what they mean in relation to the subject of investigation.	Discussion of the protocol findings using meanings derived from the protocols, in terms of what these meanings represent or symbolised in the context of the subject of investigation.
Evoking the confirmation principle i.e. confirming that the hypothesis as stated has been proven or disapproved.	Evoking the de-suspension principles, i.e. suspension of epoche and to contrast the protocols findings with the hypothesis and facts as known in the real world. In our example what the findings symbolizes.
8. Discussion of the research findings conclusions and recommendations and future prospects and generalization of the results to the entire population.	Problematic generalization, that is generalizing the problem to group under study or the phenomena under investigation.

6.6 Sources of Problems for the Phenomenologically-Based Research

The problems of acceptability and lack of widespread use of the phenomenoloaly-based research stems from two sources. One is from the failure to understand its principles, and the second, is the use of the positivists' principles to evaluate its work. To illustrate these points we will go through some of the problem that a phenomenologically-based research encounters in a research process.

1. The first problem encountered by a phenomenologically-based researcher is in the decision on the number and type of subject to be chosen. In this decision the phenomenologist is guided by his principle of quality versus quantity, that is "a large sample does not yield more information" and because of his beliefs in this principle he goes for a small informed population and deep

intentional anlaysis of the subject experience.   The deep
intentional analysis is obtained by the phenomenologist's tradition
of asking few informed subjects to talk on the subject of the
investigation;   by asking them specifically to talk on the major
themes.   This is then tape recorded, transcribed into the protocols
which are subsequently probed for meaning.   In this way the meaning
which the respondents attach to the object are identified.   This
explains   the phenomenologist's interest in the quality of   meaning
as opposed to the quantity of information.

In the above example, it was seen that the teacher's training in
teaching methods was seen to be associated with the number of
pupils who passed their secondary school entrance.   This conclusion
was   arrived   at through the protocols of the teacher   by
phenomenologically interpreting the words and pharses he used in
describing the phenomena under investigation.

The problem encountered here is two-fold and stems from the failure
to understand the phenomenologist principles.   The problem from the
positivist point of view is the smallness of the population size
and use of the few of questions.   Viewed from the positivist
tradition it is considered necessary for a sample to be large in
order to be representative, and many questions need to be asked on
the relevant topics (with probes and prompts).   In order to
establish   relationships   between   the   variables.   The
phenomenologists, as stated above, can argue that although their
population is small, it has the advantage of being an informed
population.   They ask only a few questions because they suspend
their bias, beliefs and assumptions, and are interested in deep
intentional analysis of the subject experience, that is the quality

of meanings as opposed to the quantity of information. The phenomenologist logic is that more detailed questions do not necessarily yield more information about the object of the investigation. Rather they yield more data and more data does not mean more information.

2. A second aspect of the phenomenologically-based method is the tape recording of all the respondents' words in full. This process is rarely a feature of positivist research. Where it is done, the recordings are edited and summarised to bring out the main points and supply a number of illustrative quotes. Their tradition is more usually involving the use of a questionnaire or interview using notes. The respondents' responses are summarised and are either used as a statistical data or placed into categories under headings. The tape recording of all the respondents' articulation is the phenomenologist tradition which goes for and is a prerequisite for the deep intentional analysis which follows. This is the analysis of the subjective experience of the respondent. Hence, every word is needed to establish the meaning the respondent attaches to it. That meaning is then used to arrive at the conclusion about the object of investigation. The problem again stems from the two principles. On the one hand the positivists are looking for facts, figures, to establish the relationships between their established variables, while the phenomenologists are looking at intentionality. The former group uses statistical correlation in order to establish the relationship between variables, while the other uses intentionality analysis (going behind, beneath, the words) to derive meanings, to be transcended back to the object of investigation.

3.   The   third feature of the phenomenological approach is the   process
      of analysis, which is done at four levels:

      (a)   The establishment of the protocols from the interviews or from
            the   historical documents,   e.g.   in our example the teacher's
            protocols.

      (b)   The identification of the invariants,   which are   the   themes
            that   emerge   from   the protocols,   e.g.   in our   example   the
            training in teaching methods, teaching in senior classes, poor
            results in the absence of a   professioinal   teacher,   improved
            results   on   arrival   of   the   professional   teacher,   course
            improving   teacher's   attitudes   about   teaching   children,
            improvement in communication and feedback between teacher   and
            pupils.

      (c)   The   establishment   of   the noetic/noematic   correlates   which
            represent the respondent's perception of reality or essence of
            the phenomena under investigation,   that is,   the what and how
            of experiencing.   In our example, this was the association of
            training in teaching methods with seniority,   professionalism,
            assessing   of   teacher's beliefs,   improved communication   and
            feedback between teacher and pupils.

      (d)   The   abstraction of the essence or universal meaning from   the
            noetic/noematic   correlates,   which   is   accomplished   through
            intuition   and   reflection.   This is getting   the   subjective
            experiences   inside the subject and contrasting them with   the
            objective phenomena outside the subject, in order to establish
            the universal meaning.   In our example it was represented   by
            the   use   of   the teacher's subjective   experience   which   was
            extracted   from   the   meaning   the   teacher   attached   to   the
            training in teaching methods and the passing of pupils.   This

is evident in his confession that, taking the course enabled him to reassess his beliefs, and to improve the communication and feedback between him and the pupils. Given this subjective experience, we can now de-suspend our principle of epoche to get back to our variables and hypothesis obtained through the literature review on teaching methods. *

The hypothesis was that there was a relationship between teaching methods and number of pupils who passed their secondary entrance examinations. Because training in teaching methods made the teacher professional and enable him produce better results. We can now conclude from the phenomenological produced data that a relationship does exist between the training teachers in teaching methods and pupils passing their examinations.

This form of research is objected to by the positivists, who evoke their principle of verification. They dismiss the data produced as subjective and invalid. This is because the process of acquiring meaning by the subject cannot be verified. In contrast the phenomenologist argues from the fundamental principle which states that an individual's subjective experiences is a source of knowledge about that phenomena. This again becomes a matter of appreciating the different research approaches and their respective philosophical basis. Otherwise, one would be using principle

---

*In this example literature review findings were assumed — no literature search was conducted. Because in the ideal phenomenological-based approach, hypothesis are derived from the literature review, i.e. why three chapters of this research are devoted to literature review.

from one philosophical base to evaluate a research approach based on another principle. It is like using football rules to referee basketball. Because, it is held, they are both ball games.

4. The fourth aspect of phenomenologically-based research is its tradition that placed the protocols in the body of the research. This approach is in contrast to the positivist tradition of appendixing such material. The latter argue that it is a source of data.

The phenomenologists tradition takes the protocols as both data and analysis and is presented in a tabular form, whereby the invariants are put alongside the protocols to save the reader the task of having to look at the appendix, all the time he wants to refer to where the invariants were derived from. This also enables the reader to judge for himself how accurate the interpretation was. This too satisfies the phenomenological view that since it is descriptive data that cannot be summarised statistically, it is thought best to present it, with the analysis alongside it, for the convenience of the reader. The difference again is a matter of tradition, that is, a matter of approach to which the positivists have their own way of seeing it and the phenomenologist have their own approach.

5. The fifth aspect of the phenomenological approach is the decision about the generalization of the research findings. The positivist tradition is to generalise research findings to his entire relevant population. The phenomenologist only generalizes his research findings to the group or problem under investrigation (this is called Problematic

Generalization). This is because the phenomenologist uses his findings for further investigation for a wider problem or issue.

6.7 Summary

1. The philosophical argument presented in this chapter resembles the classical argument of the natural science versus the social science paradigm. It raises the issue of whether social science research can be treated within an experimental research design, similar to that of natural sciences and questions the validity of a social science research that has used the non-experimental design.

2. The positivists take the natural sciences paradigm and argue that it is appropriate to treat human behavior from a natural science perspective. The phenomenologists in contrast, take the social environment paradigm and argue the need to establish a paradigm that suits the social phenomena under investigation.

3. The positivist uses his hypothesis and variables, by translating them into questions. He uses questions, prompts and probes to generate data that either proves or disproves his hypothesis. The phenomenologist in contrast suspends his hypothesis and variables and asks the respondents to talk about the major themes of phenomena under investigation. This focuses on the subjective meaning that the respondent gives to the object of investigation, as his base for reality.

4. The logic and the rationale of both paradigms is based on their own respective theories and principles. Each has its own research and way of seeing the world. Therefore, each has its own approach. The principles of one therefore, cannot be used to evaluate the research approach of the other.

5. Phenomenologically-based method focuses on the subjective meaning based on the subject interpretation of the phenomena of investigation. Thus, in this respect it belongs to the family of the interpretative sociological methods to which social interaction and interaction of meaning is regarded as the central problem (Spender 1980). It differs with other ethnological methods which assumes a stable collective view of a society or the groups and take for granted that the phenomena of social enquiry will also have the same meaning to all their respondents. Therefore, the phenomenologically-based methods are used by the social definition school of sociology, because of their ability to generate a data from the actor's point of view.

6. Phenomenologically-based method is similar to the Repertory Grid (which is the brain child of Kelly's Theory of Personal Constructs). Repertory Grid is a technique used by people to think about things. It is how they perceive the objects around them. The similarity of the two methodologies is in their recognition of a sense data that is data from the actor's perception of the object of investigation. The grid uses the personal constructs of the actor about the object under investigation to construct the reality of the object or in other words the reality of the object as perceived by his conscience.

While the phenomenologically-based method uses the subjective meaning of the subject about the phenomena of investigation in phenomenological terms the (noetic/noematic correlates) to arrive at the universal meaning of the phenomena of investigation. Both methodologies are into a subjective-meaning based data which treats the actors intentionality as the centre point of the problem and not the interviewer's meaning or perception of it. The difference between

the two approaches is very insignificance and lies within the utilization of the data. While the grid tends to be positivistic at this later stage of the data utilization by quantifying the personal constructs in a geometrical form or Likert's Scale type indicator. The phenomenologist transcends the subjective meaning through its phenomenological seeking process using intuition or reflection to arrive at the universal meaning.

7. Transferability of theories, methodologies and management techniques across cultural boundaries have tended to follow a very slow arithmetical progression, in that concepts developed in USA have taken time before they were well grounded in Western Europe. This is even with strong social and economic ties between the two regions. In the case of Africa and other Third World regions this time lag is expected to take even a much longer period. This slow rate of transferability of concepts plus the cultural rejection of alien concepts must be borne in mind by the Third World managers in their management development programmes as constraints which had to be anticipated.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0   The Protocols and the Invariants

This chapter deals with protocols and invariants of the protocols. The protocols were generated from a schedule interview conducted with senior local government administrators from Southern Sudan. The eight respondents that constituted the responding group all worked in the local government department of the regional governments of the Southern Sudan. They consisted of seven local government administrators who were attending a short course at the Institute of Local Government Studies, University of Birmingham and one administrator on a study leave, working towards a Ph.D. in the School of Public Administration at the University of Liverpool.

7.1   The Local Government Structure in the Sudan and Southern Sudan

Before embarking on the presentation of the protocols and their invariants. it is appropriate to give an introducion to the structure of the local government system in the Sudan as a whole and how it breaks down in the Southern Sudan. This will enable the reader to understand the levels involved in the discussion of the protocols.

All of our eight respondents came from three levels of the local government system. One was an Inter-regional Director responsible for the training of all local government administrators in the three Southern Regions, four were Directors in the Regional Government. and three were Chief Executive Officers heading Area Councils in their various regional governments. (See Fig. 7.1).

172

Figure 7.1   Chart showing the local government structure
             in the Sudan.

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │     THE PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC    │
                    └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                                     │
        ┌────────────────────────────┼────────────────────────────┐
┌──────────────────┐                 │                    ┌──────────────────┐
│  THE PEOPLE'S    │                 │                    │   THE COUNCIL    │
│ NATIONAL ASSEMBLY│                 │                    │   OF MINISTERS   │
└──────────────────┘                 │                    └──────────────────┘
                         ┌───────────────────────────────┐
                         │ THE GOVERNMENTS OF THE SIX REGIONS │
                         └───────────────────────────────┘
              │                                          │
   ┌──────────────────────┐                  ┌──────────────────────┐
   │ THE FIVE NORTHERN     │                  │  THE SOUTHERN REGION │
   │ REGIONS               │                  └──────────────────────┘
   └──────────────────────┘                              │
              │                             ┌──────────────────────────┐
   ┌──────────────────────┐                 │    THE PRESIDENT         │
   │ THE GOVERNOR OF THE   │                 │ OF THE HIGH EXECUTIVE    │
   │ REGION                │                 │ COUNCIL (HEC) SOUTHERN   │
   └──────────────────────┘                 │    GOVERNMENT            │
              │                              └──────────────────────────┘
   ┌──────────────────────┐                        │
   │ THE DEPUTY GOVERNOR   │             ┌─────────────────┬───────────────┐
   └──────────────────────┘     ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
        │                       │ THE HIGH     │  │ THE PEOPLE'S │
  ┌───────────┬───────────┐     │ EXECUTIVE    │  │ REGIONAL     │
┌──────────┐ ┌──────────┐       │ COUNCIL(HEC) │  │ ASSEMBLY     │
│THE REGIONAL│ │THE PEOPLE'S│    └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘
│COUNCIL OF  │ │REGIONAL   │          │
│MINISTERS   │ │ASSEMBLY   │          │
└──────────┘ └──────────┘            │
        │                             │
┌──────────────────────┐    ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ THE LOCAL POPULAR     │    │ THE LOCAL POPULAR        │
│ GOVERNNENT            │    │ GOVERNMENT               │
└──────────────────────┘    └──────────────────────────┘
        │                             │
┌──────────────────────┐    ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ COMMISSIONER OF THE   │    │ COMMISSIONER OF THE      │
│ PROVINCE              │    │ PROVINCE                 │
└──────────────────────┘    └──────────────────────────┘
        │                             │
┌──────────────────────┐    ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ COUNCILS OF THE LOCAL │    │ COUNCILS OF THE LOCAL    │
│ DISTRICTS             │    │ DISTRICTS                │
└──────────────────────┘    └──────────────────────────┘
              │                       │
            ┌───────────────────────────┐
            │  COUNCILS FOR SMALL UNITS  │
            └───────────────────────────┘
```

Sources: Shaked   Haim   Ronen and Yehudit (1982) the Democratic Republic of
           Sudan in Middle East Contemporary Survey Vol. 5 1980/1.

FIGURE 7.2   CHART SHOWING THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT BREAKDOWN IN THE SOUTHERN SUDAN.

173

SOUTHERN SUDAN

SOUTHERN REGIONS ARE HEADED BY
THE PRESIDENT OF THE HIGH EXECUTIVE
COUNCIL.

REGIONS (3)

BAHR EL GHAZAL	EQUATORIA	UPPER NILE

REGION IS HEADED
BY GOVERNOR.

PROVINCES (8)

LAKES	EASTERN EQUATORIA	JONGELI
EASTERN B.G.		SOBAT
WESTERN B.C.	WESTERN EQUATORIA	UNITY

PROVINCE IS HEADED
BY A COMMISSIONER.

AREA COUNCILS (24)

WESTERN (RAGA)	CENTRAL (JUBA)	MALAKAL (MALAKAL)
EASTERN (GOGRIAL)	WESTERN (YEI)	NORTHERN (RENK)
NORTHERN (AWIEL)	SOUTHERN (TORIT)	MIDWEST (KODOK)
CENTRAL (RUMBEK)	EASTERN (KAPOETA)	CENTRAL (SOBAT)
WESTERN (TONJ)	CENTRAL (YAMBIO)	EASTERN (NASIR)
EASTERN (YIROL)	EASTERN (MARIDI)	WESTERN (BENTIU)
WAU (WAU)	WESTERN (TAMBURA)	NORTHERN (AKOBO)
		WESTERN (FANGAK)
		SOUTHERN (BOR)
		EASTERN (PIBOR)

AREA COUNCIL IS
HEADED BY CHIEF
EXECUTIVE OFFICER

RURAL COUNCILS (48)

WAU	WANYJOK	JUBA	CHUKDUM	MALAKAL	MAIWUT
RAGA	RUMBEK	TERAKEKA	IKOTOS	RENK	BENTIU
GOGRIAL	CUEIBET	YEI	MARIDI	MALUT	LEER
TWIC	THIET	KAJOKAJI	MUNDRI	MABAN	MAYOM
AWIEL	WARAP	TORIT	IBBA	KODOK	FANGAK
ARIATH	YIROL	MAGWI	YAMBIO	TONGA	AYOD
	AWENRIAL	KAPEOTA	TUMBURA	SOBAT	BOR
			EZZO	NASIR	KONGOR
				AKOBO	WAAT
				PIBOR	PACHALA

RURAL COUNCIL IS
HEADED BY EXECUTIVE
OFFICER.

VILLAGE COUNCILS (COMMITTEE)

BY POPULATION RANGE 1,000 TO 20,000		

VILLAGE COUNCIL
IS HEADED BY
AREA CHIEF.

SOURCES: CONSTRUCTED FROM THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT ACT 1980.

NOTE   CURRENT DEDATE BETWEEN NORTH AND SOUTH IS THE NORTH DEMAND TO ELIMINATE THE HIGH EXECUTIVE
        COUNCIL ON TOP SO THAT GOVERNOR OF THE SOUTHER REGIONS REPORT DIRECTLY TO THE PRESIDENT.
        PRESIDENTIAL DEGREE NO. 1. 1983 ELIMINATED IT, BUT HAS TO BE REINSTATED BY THE PROVISIONAL
        GOVERNMENT AFTER APIRL 1985 COUP.

OUR EIGHT RESPONDENTS' POSITION IN THE CHART WERE:

DIRECTOR OF INTER-REGIONAL TRAINING IS LOCATED IN THE TOP BOX WITH HIGH EXECUTIVE COUNCIL
CHARGED WITH THE RESPONSIBILITY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATORS TRAINING FOR ALL THE
THREE REGIONS. FOUR OF OUR RESPONDENTS WERE DIRECTORS IN THE REGIONAL GOVERNMEMENTS
AND WERE LOCATED IN THE SECOND BOX. THREE OF OUR RESPONDENTS WERE CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICERS
HEADING AREA COUNCILS IN THE THIRD BOX.

174.

The protocols start with a brief personal profile of the respondents, a job profile and his personal assessment of his job set up. These profiles were obtained by the respondents filling in a profile sheet (see appendix II). The main body of the protocols was generated by the questions on the cards which focussed on the four themes of management. The rules of the intervied were in accordance with the phenomenological principles described in chapter six (see the Methodology). These four themes were typed on to cards also in accordance with the phenomenological tradition, and worded to avoid leading the respondents towards the researcher's bias (demand characteristics). The content of the cards is shown in Figure 7.3 below. Before administering the interview it was made clear verbally to the respondents, that the wording of the questions on the cards was done in such a way that they would not be led by the researcher's bias. Most important to them were the themes on the cards and their relevance to their organizational managerial environment.

Fig. 7.3 Chart showing the wording of the cards.

Card one: Organisational Objectives

   Can you talk about the use and the roles of objectives in

   your organisation's management or administration?

Card two: Managerial Approach or Style

   Can you discuss managerial style or approaches to

   management, in the management or administration of

   your organization?

Card three: Use of theories and techniques

   Can you talk about the uses of theories and techniques

   in the management or administration of your organization?

Card four: Factors that influence management

    Can you talk about any factors that influence the management

    or the administration of your organization?

7.2 Respondent One: Personal Profile and Protocols

    Respondent one was 37 years old, a university graduate who held a postgraduate diploma in development administration. He had had four years of job-related training and had 10 years of experience both with Southern Regional Government and the Sudan Public Service. He came from the Yirol Area Council in Lakes Province of Bahr El Ghazal Region. Ethnically he was Nilotic and belonged to the Dinka tribe.

Job Profile:

He was a director on the grade three scale. He was responsible for the Inter-Regional Programme for the training of local government administrators in the three Southern Regions. He had under his overall supervision fourteen subordinates and of these fourteen, only four reported to him directly.

His Personal Assessment of his Job Responsibilities:

He regarded the four subordinates who reported to him directly and the fourteen subordinates under his overall supervision as too few. He recommended that only the heads of departments to report to the director or director position.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card One   Organization's Objectives

My organization is inter-regional training
for any organization to exist. it must have
aims and objectives. The objectives of this
particular organization are to cater for the
training of local government administrators
with a view to strengthening the Area
Councils which were created a year ago.

Cater for the training
of local government
administrator - strength-
ening the area councils.

This is a new experience, an experience
aimed at involving people in the way of
running their own affairs.

New experience - aim at
involving people.....
running their own affairs.

So that for anybody to sell this idea to
the people, that they are here to manage
their own affairs through their Area
Council; a well-trained cadre must be
created and this is why this particular
project was created in 1983. to cater for
this particular policy of the Government.

Creation of a well-trained
cadre to cater for the
policy.

This is what we are doing now, so the
objectives of this particular organisa-
tion is specific, it is not general. it
is not an aim, because aim tends to be
rather general. So it is an objective
which is (training of local government
administrator with the view of strength-
ening the area Council)

Generalness of aims -
and specificity of
objectives.

Therefore this determines the role of
the project, and as a role. the role to
play is that we are here now in the UK
to be trained with the view to train
others: in identifying the problems of
the Area Councils. that their weakness
and strengths are known and probably get
creative measures for all these problems.

Trained to train others -
in identifying the problems
of the Area councils -
so weakness and strength
are known - so creative
measures to resolve them
are taken.

So the objective always determines the
role, from the objectives as I have
already stated stems the managerial
approach towards it, i.e. how to
obtain the objectives.

Objectives determining
the role.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Two   Managerial Approach or Style

In this particular project, I am now managing as I have already stated, that it is to service the Area Council in terms of personnel. We have now representatives at the Regional, Provincial and Area Council level, who are full-time staff and as I have already stated to improve the working of the area council, to identify area problems and to recommend solutions, which will come to the headquarters in Juba for us also to review and may be get solution to them, in terms of training the cadre capable of handling those types of problems.

Having representatives at the regional, provinicial and area council level fulltime.

Identify area problems and recommend solutions to the headquarters.

We do that as a final review to which we call our representatives in the regional, provincial and area council so that we sell the idea we have developed at the headquarters in consideration to whatever the regional, provincial and area council recommendations.

Calling of the representatives to sell the idea developed in the headquarters in consideration to their recommendation.

As soon as we are agreed, this is when we draw up our training therefore the whole project is a project which you cannot manage through a centralized system. It is a project you have to do through others so we fully delegate all our representatives in the regions, provinces, and area councils.

Project not manageable through a centralized system – fully delegated to representatives.

Our project is therefore managed through delegation to those areas, because they know what they want, they know their problems. We only come in at the level of finding solutions to all their problems, so we fully delegate all our powers to our representatives in the regions, provinces and area councils.

Project managed through delegation – because area know their problems and wants.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Three Usage of Theories and Techniques

The operation of the project actually has two levels: there is the management of the day to day running of the project, which is the co-ordination I am doing. There is the other role of teaching with the view I already mentioned, i.e. improving skills, the knowledge of the officers of the area councils. This is the other level, the level of the training, these two levels we operate from.	Two levels of the project: the day to day coordination and teaching with a view to improve officers skills.
Being an institution which is mostly academic, the theories. most of what our lecturers actually apply usually has more to do with Area Councils. the Local Government and Community Development etc., so we have theories like self-help, self-reliance, which are fostered by countries like Tanzania, the Slogan of "Ujanna", that is the theory of self help reliance.	Apply theories having to do with area councils, local government and community development, i.e. theories like self-reliance as advocated by Tanzania.
There are other theories depending on the course or subject you are trying to give. What it boils down to is that you are trying to give a comparative analysis between what we have and what the advanced countries have. Definitely these are all the theories we use in training, depending on whatever subject you are tackling and how you want to relate it, in terms of other experiences, so the approach really depends on the subject you are talking about, so the subject matter and ways of relating it determines the theories they use as trainers.	Depends on the subject matter and ways of relating it.
The techniques also apply, also varies from teacher to teacher, they have so many methods they use in terms of techniques, be that a lecturer, be it a case study. or be it a project appraisal and so on: all these vary from teacher to teacher; so in actual fact they use many methods, which they think can sell whatever idea they want to sell to the trainers.	Usage of many methods which they think can sell the idea to the trainers.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Three (continued)

But basically the theories they use are so diversified the techniques they use are also diversified, all depending on whoever is doing the job, as far as I am concerned in the management of the day to day activities and the personnel under me, what we have been doing in the whole South, the approach always has been that each has a defined role to play and he is fully delegated. You are assumed to be committed, you are only asked as to how the job is going on: whether we do that to the end of the line depends on the individual to individual and his training capacity.

Each person has a defined role to play — he is assumed to be committed.

In most of the regional government departments you shape your job in whatever form you wanted it to be, and in this process many things come in to play, many directors we had did not have a lot of management training background and experience and therefore most of them tended to withhold a lot of powers to themselves. Some do this because they do not turst their suborinates and some do think they have delegated the powers.

Most tend to hold a lot of powers to themselves — some think they had delegated, but not.

At times a lot of political activities come into play. so in a way one cannot say that there are particular approaches or techniques in operation currently in use in the Southern Sudan.

Political activities come into play — which do not enable uses of any particular techniques.

The approach should always be behavioural i.e. most of us once you are told that this is your job and trained for it, you are supposed to do it the way you best think should be done, it is only when something goes wrong with it that's when we come to find out what you did that went wrong and therefore questionaing the specific theories in use.

You are supposed to do it the best way you think it should be done — when it goes wrong then find out what went wrong.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Three (continued)

There are no specific theories we use in the Southern Sudan. as there are many interferences in the whole system and there are a lot of frequent changes, e.g. labour turnover and ups and downs coming up suddenly that do not allow proper observations of management style and theories with them so I cannot really say that there exist certain managerial approaches or style, rather than to say it seems to depend on the individual manager, the nature of his job, but certainly in our case much depends on the individual manager and his spirit.

No specific theories or techniques in use rather usage depends on the individual manager and the nature of his job.

Card Four: Factors that influence Management

Factors affecting the functioning of any organization, you know varaies much, but actually - basically you cannot have any good organization unless really you know what you want and you can express whatever you want by having organization structure spelled out, department by department, unit by unit. Once that is established we can now see the occupational aspect of it, who can do what, at what level. You know and once you define who can do that you commit somebody who is qualified for it as already defined.

No good organization, unless you know what you want and can express it in the organization's structure - employe a a qualified person for it.

Usually you are expected to have an organization well established. These are time factors that can form a good organization. first of all the set up must be well done in terms of structuring, the occupational aspect, in terms of what job that should be there and who should fill them.

Set up must be right - structuring - and who can do the job.

But then all these factors can only work in a situation where people must accomplish whatever they are assigned to do, but in our case in the Southern Region a lot of factors come into play, e.g. the development of manpower in the South has been very much disturbed in that as long as you drop a structure of the Ministry department and you recruit people from outsdie, you expect the development of the staff within the ministry to be according to whatever one can afford to do and you progress all the way up.

Drop of the Ministry, Department Structure - and recruitment from outside.

PROTOCOL	INVARIANTS

Card Four (continued)

How this has been disturbed by so many things, pole vaulting, in terms of promotion came in where you get somebody from outside the organization, who is not even well qualified, put there, the problem of supervision and interest of employee have not been well seen over years in the Southern Region, so a lot of frustrations come into play also, these factors have actually spoiled our system in the Sudan as a whole.

Pole vaulting promotion of outsiders who are not even well qualified - supervision and interest of the employee not being paid attention to.

The third thing is that there have been a lot of changes in our system in the Sudan, each time you adopt a system, you adopt a law, a regulation, at times it gets changed so suddenly without giving reasons why the first change did not succeed and why you are now going in for another change, we usually don't know. All these add to frustration.

At times it gets changed so suddenly without giving reasons.

The major factors that affect all our organizations is the fact that there is lack of commitment and respect for the system. We created them, we do not respect them. This factor I think is spoiling most of our regional government in the South.

Lack of commitment and respect for the system - we create them and do not respect them.

The issue of resources can be a factor but again we know that of course we don't have resources in terms of manpower trained, as a whole has been there in the Southern Region. I have been thinking a lot of trained manpower does exist in the South, but the problem seems to be the deployment of this manpower has been going wrong. As I mentioned before the pole-vaulting type of business has spoiled the whole system, you get people because of political reasons put on top, not only that they come from outside the department, people are trained for a particular job but by the time he is back he is removed somewhere where he does not have any training and somebody who does not know the job is brought in his placed just for political convenience.

The deployment of manpower has been going wrong - you get people of political reasons are put on top.

People trained for a particular job when they come back they are removed where the are not trained.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Four (continuted)

So I take the view that we do have sufficient trained manpower but the major problem is with measurement, how do we measure success. we may say that we have no resources, a statement we can only make if we can measure the resources we have. | Problem of measurement or or identification.

We adopt very inadequate methods for measuring a lot of things, manpower shortage success etc. are but a few, therefore I feel that if we can be assured of what we have, what we need, we can then search knowing what we have, what we need. | Adoptation of inadequate methods of measurements.

This brings us to the problem of record keeping in the Sudan as a whole, which tends to be very poor, all because of people's attitudes and commitment to their work. | Poor record keeping - due to people's attitude and commitment to their work.

7.3 Respondent Two: Personal Profile and Protocols

He was 38 years old, a university graduate, who held a postgraduate diploma in development administration. He had had 2 years of job-related training and 12 years of work experience with the Southern Regional Government and 15 years with the Sudan Public Service. He was from Bahr El Ghazal Region, Western Bahr El Ghazal Province, Wau Area Council, a Sudanic, by ethnicity and Balanda by tribe.

Job Profile: He was chief executive officer, (grade III) responsible for the administration of an Area Council and all the government units in that Area Council were all accountable to him. He had 40 subordinates reporting to him directly and was responsible for an overall Area Council population of over 60,000.

His Assessment of the Administrative Set Up: He regarded 40 subordinates reporting to him directly and an overall responsibility of a population over 60,000 as many. Argued that this is too heavy a responsibility, which made the discharging of administrative functions

difficult it and did not give him time for planning. He would

recommend only six subordinates to report to a person or position.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card One: Organization's objectives.

The main objectives of the Area Councils
is to make an effective involvement of
the public in the planning and decision
making of the activities of the Area
Council concerned.

Effective involvement of
the public in planning
and decision making of the
activities of their Area
Council.

It is also the responsibility of the said
Area Council to see to it that all the
services from education services, health
services, agricultural services and
developmental activities are discharged
to the best of efficiency, so that the
public in that Area council are rendered
these services in the best manner possible.
This role or this objective is the most
important of the objectives of the Area
Councils.

Discharge of services to
the best of efficiency –

Also it is the duty of the Chief Executive
Officer in the Area Council to explain the
Government policies, we services as the
channel through which the Government
policies are explained to the grass-roots
of the masses in the rural areas.

Explanation of the
Government Policies –
to the masses in the
rural area.

So one can sum it up that the major
objectives of the Area council is the
involvement of the masses in the Government
through their elected representatives
as councillors and in decision making
on the council as to what services should
be rendered to the people at what cost.
The other aspect is the explanation of
the Government policies.

Involvement of the masses
in Government through
their elected represent-
atives as councillors –

Card Two: Managerial Approach or Style.

The Area Council are created by a Warrant
from the Council of Ministers or the High
Executive Council for the former Regional
Government of the Southern Region. The
Area Council consists of the Chief Executive
Officer or Assistant Commissioner who is a
Civil Servant employee of the Regional
Ministry of Regional Administration and

Card Two (continued)

Councillors elected from the area headed by
the Chairman. The election of the
Councillors involves all the people in that
area council just like election to the
National or Regional Assemblies. Each Area
council consists of a 30 member Chamber, of
the 30 members 24 members are elected
directly others are appointed or through
their own organizations, the 30 members sit
to elect Chairman, Vice and Chairman of
various committees. The administration of
the council is then in the hand of the
elected members and the Chief Executive
officer who heads the executive organ of
the government of the area, by the virtue
of his office, the Chief Executive officer
is the Secretary and Treasurer of the
Council, he writes all the minutes and
reports of the council all the ordinances
passed by the council, the by-laws, he is also
the chairman of the Security Committee, and
the heads of all technical departments in
the area, e.g. agriculture, health, etc.
Under him are the Executive Officers for
Rural Councils. As heads of the executive   The style of management
organ in the area all government depart-   is due to the individual
ments be they Central or Regional Govern-   administrator or circum-
ment are under him, he reports to both   stance of the decision.
the Central Government and Regional Govern-
ment on their activities in his area, and
he is responsible to them for good admin-
istration in the area. He makes the
comprehensive budget of the area council,
disciplines all the civil servants in his
area council. Therefore one can say that
the Chief Executive Officer is everything in
the Area Council. Management of the Central
and Regional Government Departments are
delegated to him and he is always a very
senior civil servant within the range of the
super scale from Grades five to one special.
The way he runs his administration in his
area council is up to his personality, there
are those that tend to be very dictatorial
and use force in implementation of his
decisions, there are others who tend to be
democratic and sell their decisions, so the
style of management is due to the individual
administrator or the circumstance in which
the decisions are taken and how they need
to be implemented, but the office of the
Chief Executive Officer gives the man

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Two (continued)

holding it a lot of power, because in the
Province the only person he is accountable
to is the Province Commissioner and the
Commissioner is accountable to the Minister
of Regional Administration or the Governor
of the Region.

Card Three: Usage of Theories and Techniques.

The usage of theories, it is true that some
of the theories we learnt at the colleges
are applied in our organization's management,
but I think a lot of filtering is done to
suit one's environment, what happens in the
area council may be that some contemporary
theories of organization might take place
more than the classical theories of
administration, this is because the role
is changing from that of maintaining law
and order from the colonial period or
early time of independence to now where we
are embarking on developmental roles.

A lot of filtering is done
to suit one environment –
contemporary theories of
organization might take
place more than classical
theories.

Therefore an administrator is faced with
people directly and he has to use a lot of
human relations in order to get product-
ivity out of the people, so the administra-
tor has to do a lot of selling and explaining
as to why certain things need to be done and
in the way in which it has to be done. That
is why I personally think that the old
classical approach which tends to be
interested in productivity only cannot
work since the council relationship with
people is continuous and since we owe it
to these people who are not educated like
us, that their own betterment can only
come through their co-operation with their
council authorities and fellow citizens from
the area. I think this is a difficult card
this as far as I can contribute to it.

A lot of selling and
explaining as to why
certain things need to be
done and in certain ways.

Involvement with people.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Four   Factors that influence management

There are a lot of factors that influence
the management of the area councils.
Number one there is a very clear political
influence affecting the management of the
area councils and this I found in very area
council I have worked in. e g. we train our
officers and we know who will be effective
where. but we are not allowed that by
politicians the posting of administrators
is politically interfered with. So you
get an officer being posted to an area
where he is less effective because the
politicians who represents that area
either does not want him there because he
does not want the effective officer there
because he does not share his political
views. Well trained administrative
officers are frustrated by this. You
find when the President visits an area
or the Governor of the Region, he goes
and declares a school to be open in that
area without consulting the Chief
Executive Officer whether the Council
can afford to do so. He only contributes
a token sum of money and the rest is a
burden on the council. When he is gone
the people come upon the Executive Officers
there as to why that project declared by
the President or Governor is not open.
Thus the council might be compelled to
change their priorities and meet first the
project that was declared by the President
or the Governor of the Region, this affects
the planning space of the Council.

Lack of resources is another major problem:
most council expenditure have to be
raised from taxes. and some councils cannot
afford because the people are themselves
so poor so you cannot extract any taxes
out from them. The grant in aid from the
Central and Regional Governments sometimes
does not come so whatever little that is
generated in taxes is used as salaries or
expenditures of the Council and therefore
no development takes place, and some of
the services are greatly affected.

There is a very clear
political influence
affecting the manage-
ment of Area Councils –
in posting administrators.

Declaration of project
without consultation of
Chief Executive Officer

Lack of resources.

People not able to afford
taxes because of poverty
– failure of the grant in
aid from the Central and
Regional Governments.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Four (continued)

We also have a problem of untrained
administrators not being able to manage
well and they make expensive mistakes,   Expensive mistakes and
or lose respect from the masses that   loss of respect from the
makes it very difficult to get the   masses.
administration of the Council going.
Failure to understand the local people
means confrontation with them, there-
fore no co-operation from them.

As local government administrators we
are expected to approach the natives
through their chiefs and elders and
sometimes an administrator might come
from another area even of the Southern
Sudan where the local beliefs, customs,
are strange to him. If he does not
approach carefully he can be misunder-
stood or he himself not understand   Administrators being
the people. The administrators are   exemplary - or lose public
expected to be exemplary in whatever they confidence.
do otherwise they might lose public
confidence and therefore their co-
operation. In this area of factors   Officer character being
there are a lot that can influence   a viable asset.
negatively or positively. Positively
we found that the officers character, his
understanding of the local environment,
a valuable asset for the administration
of the council.

7.4 Respondent Three: Personal Profile and Protocols:

He was 42 years old, a university graduate, who held two postgraduate

diplomas and a certificate of journalism. He had had four years of job-

related training. He had had 10 years with the Southern Regional

Government and 16 years with the Sudan Public Service. He was from

Equatoria Region, Western Equatoria Province, Eastern Area Council

(Maridi), a Sudanic by ethnicity and a Moru by tribe.

Job Profile: He was acting director, (grade III) responsible for the

administration of the Local Government Service at the Regional

Headquarters. All Chief Executive Officers in the Region reported to

him directly. He had 43 subordinates report to him directly, and over a hundred subordinates were under his overall control.

His assessment of the administrative set up: He did not think that 43 immediate subordinates reporting to him directly, and an overall subordinates of over 100 under his control could be regarded either as too few or too many. He argued that, "it is difficult to say too few or too many, because Local Government is a vast unit, having various sizes and interests", e.g. for an Area Council like Juba, it may need many officers, while others may not. Refraining from recommending any specific number of subordinates that should report to a person or position by arguing that, "this depends on the nature of organization, local government is a large organization".

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card One

My organization's objectives are:

(a) To train local government officers and their support staff in the Area Council to carry out their duties effectively.	Training of officers and staff to enable them to be effective.
(b) To bring down the policy of central-ization to the grass roots of the people through election of their representatives to the Area Councils.	To bring decentralization to the people through election of councillors.
These objectives are carried out through the election of members to the chamber of the Area Council, to go and make policies, and the executive organ of the area council, comprising of the Chief Executive Officer and the staff of Executive Officers and their supportive staff execute these as a services to the people in various kinds, e.g. education services, health services, etc.	

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Two Managerial Approach or Style

My organization is arranged as follows:

(a) My department makes and passes regulations governing the activities of the area council, and passes them to the Commissioner of the Province who passes these regulations or directives to the area councils for execution.

Makes and pass regulations governing the activities of area council.

(b) My department reviews reports on the activities of the Area Councils, which are made by the Chief Executive Officers to the Commissioners of the Provinces and make proposals as to what should be done.

Reviews report on activities of the Area Councils.

(c) My organization checks on the performance of the Area councils by paying regular visits to the area councils with the view to finding out their problems and rendering solutions to them where possible or report to the Commissioner of the Province about the problem and to the Regional Government.

Checks on the performance of the Area Councils.

Card Three: Usage of theories and techniques

My organization brings elected members and the Chief Executive Officers to attend seminars, workshops which discusses past experience of other countries, inform of case sudies, exercises, lectures, etc. The techniques we use in our job is a surprise visit to the Area Council, requesting immediate report on their current activities, progress and problems. this is to make sure that the Chief Executive Officer is keeping up with his work and the problems are not allowed to become chronic to the point where they become difficult to resolve, this is a practical technique we use which most officers don't like.

Discussion of past experience of other countries in form of case studies, exercises etc.

Surprise visits and request for immediate report on their current activities.

PROTOCOL   INVARIANTS

Card Four: Factors that influence management

The following are major factors that
deter the work of Area Council manage-
ment:

(a) Lack of funds for the daily activities   Lack of funds for the
of the councils, e.g. to render most   daily activities of the
essential services, like schools, health   Councils.
centres etc.

(b) Political interference by members of   Political interference
the National, Regional Assemblies and   by members of the National
Ministers in the affairs of the Area   Regional Assemblies and
Council. These bodies always influence   Ministers.
my Ministry as to which Officers should
be posted to which Area Council or
should be taken away from which area
council. They interfere on the transfer
of officers.

(c) Lack of understanding of the functions   Councillors' failure to
of elected councillors, who when elected   understand their functions.
assumed they are the administrators of
the council, while they are legislators.

7.5 Respondent Four: Personal Profile and Protocols:

He was 44 years old, a university graduate, who had also a postgraduate

diploma in development administration. Had 12 years with the Southern

Regional Government and 16 years with the Sudan Public Service. He was

from the Upper Nile Region, Sobat Province, Midwest Area Council. A

Nilotic by ethnicity and Shulluk by tribe.

Job Profile: He was Deputy Director, (grade III) responsible for the

Local Government Finance in the Regional Government Headquarters. He

co-ordinated all Area Councils Budgets, with the Regional Government and

the Central Government. He had 2 subordinates reporting to him, and an

overall subordinates of 6 under his overall supervision.

His assessment of the administrative set up: He regarded two

subordinates reporting to him and an overall 6 subordinates under his

overall supervision as either too few or too many. He argued that* "he would not regard this as either too few or too many, for it is always the next man in line of authority that should report, especially in my line (finance) work, you can by pass him sometimes should the need be".

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card One: Organization's objectives

Taking the Local Government Ministry as a whole, I will talk of goals rather than objectives, which are really very specific. In a ministry you cannot expect them to have details so one can say goals or objectives means the same thing. The Ministry as a whole is responsible for the general planning for Area and Local Councils and acts as a liaison agency between the Regional and Central Government and council of Local Government.

Responsible for General Planning for Area Councils
- Acts as a liaison agency.

Taking my line in particular with the ministry as a whole and my position connected with finance, I could put the main function or the goal of the Ministry is to: budget both current and developmental budgets of the Area Councils. It is through this ministry that the local councils get the grant in aid which are meant to meet the council deficients or a supplementary budget when their local budgets cannot meet all their expenditure, it is the ministry that plans as to what services as agreed by the Central Government and the Regional Government, and what service to be undertaken by the local councils that suits their needs.

Budgets both current and and developmental budgets for the Area Councils.

Agrees on the service to be undertaken that suits the council's needs.

It is the ministry that sees to it that all the services are costed and compared with the direct local government revenues. Where there is a difference the ministry co-ordinates with the Regional and Central Governments to get the necessary grant in aid to enable the council run the service as planned and suiting their local conditions.

Costing and comparing service to the revenue – co-ordinating with regional, and central

* Note: The respondent responded to hierarchy of reporting as opposed to the recommended number of subordinates that should report to a person or position. He seemed to imply that hierarchy of reporting does not matter in his line (finance) because in his opinion it could be bypassed if need be.

Therefore the ministry exists to co-ordinate
the activities of the local councils with
the regional and central government plans.

government - to enable
the necessary aid.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Two: Managerial approach or style.

In regard to Card Two, that is the managerial
approaches, well really both formal and
informal approaches are applied or used with
more emphasis on the informal approach. When
dealing with experienced cadres one expects
an understanding of what is needed but when
dealing with lower cadres informal approaches
work better. You see, management is a very
delicate thing, especially dealing with human
beings, relations matter, good working
relationship is very important, a good
working relationship both between you and the
workforce and among the working members themselves.

Use of both formal and
informal approaches with
emphasis on informal.

Importance of good working
relationship.

This depends mostly on good training of the
people concerned, and how work is assigned.
This depends on the top management, the kind
of training they have given, the job assign-
ments and how job descriptions are done and
as to whether job requirements are well
clarified and understood by all, doing all
these in itself is good management so that
everybody has a description of what he should
be doing, and this reduces supervision, so
instead of closed supervision you have a
general supervision.

Having a description of
what everyone should be
doing.

Because you know closed supervision makes
the subordinates restless and uncomfortable.
Once people are well trained they tend to
develop that kind of a remote supervision
from afar thus giving the person a certain
amount of freedom to act. And it is after
you acquired a certain amount of freedom
that one can begin to enjoy the work you
are doing, and that is when you begin to
work with less pressure, and you cannot
like the organization unless you like the
work you are doing in the organization.
Here then you can make an employee part of
the organization; it is after this that
he or she realises that his or her success
is the success of the organization, then his
interest and that of the organization are
made to be one.

A remote supervision
from afar giving the
person being supervised
freedom to act and the
feeling of being a part
of the organization.

To some extent here the personality of the
person concerned also plays a very important
role and of course you don't get the person-
ality from training, but it can be improved
by training. So one can conclude that
approaches and the style a manager uses in
managing his organization begins with the

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Two (continued)

personality of the manager himself, the people he or she works with, the work atmosphere, I don't think we do have any specific approach or style of management that is Southern Sudanese, but I think the way we think and the way we behave tend to influence the way we are approached. I think this is the very little I can say about this card.	The way we think, behave, influences our way of approach.

Card Three: Usage of theories and techniques.

In regard to question three or card three, the usage of theories techniques, for sure theories and techniques are useful guide and framework to work wih. I take them to be more or less like opinions, they are like personal experiment of others in the field so I take them as useful guide and framework for effective and efficient management. But there are certain situations such as there are times when they don't work and you are compelled to use your own judgement. There are situations such as time for political pressure when such guides tend to be undermined and people go for quick short cuts. There are times one may employ what I call hit or miss (trial and error) because these theories or techniques are what men have tried in their situations and have proven their worth but of course the situations do not repeat themselves, this is not saying that I don't like theories or techniques, but what I am trying to say is that judgement based on the relevant situation is also good, because when you have been doing the work for a long time you develop your own way of doing it that sometimes do not resemble the known theories or techniques that are already established.	Judgement based on the relevant situation is also good - you develop your own way of doing it from experience.

PROTOCOLS   INVARIANTS

Card Four: Factors that influence management.

I think that factors that influence manage-
ment in our situation are clear. I think
the main one is political changes or
political decisions, because the general
Public Administration of the Civil Service
is subordinated to politics or political   Political changes or
decisions, because the general administ-   decisions because Civil
ration or management of public enter-   Service is subordinated
prises, even if it is not governmental   to politics or political
is affected by the political situation   decisions.
prevailing in the country. But in case
    of a government department, its
administration is in accordance with the
decision of the political arm of the
government, although top administrators
can help advice and influence and decisions,
most of the decisions are political, so
political influence is expected, whether it
be a new party, or political ideology or
change of leadership, all come with new
policies, since every government that comes
up has a policy statement which is translated
into a working programme.

In our situation, the changes are too
frequent, and political decisions are not
well thought out, that is why their effect   Frequency of change –
on the administration tends to be nega-   Lack of feasibility
tive. Internally change of personalities   studies.
especially top administrators can affect
management somehow as personal style
comes, the people respond to the change
itself, when people are used to a
particular situation a change of any kind
is resisted. I have tended to be very
general, but I think you are interested in
the factors that influence management of
public sector organizations in the Southern
Sudan. While those general factors I
mentioned do apply to the Southern Sudan   Lack of history of
situation, we seem to be greatly affected   management from the
by the fact that we are new to these   Southern Sudan point
situations, first the government has been   of view.
in existence for less than fifteen years
from 1972 now 1984, and this brings me to
something I had in mind; that we have
not established any traditions of governing
or management. We do not have examples
of our own, which we can cite. So in
conclusion most of the general examples I
mention do effect management of our public
organizations plus shortage of well
trained manpower.

7.6 Respondent Five. Personal Profile and Protocols

He was 37 years old, a university graduate, who held a postgraduate diploma in development administration. He had had 11 years experience with the Southern Regional Government and 11 years with the Sudan Public Service. He was from Bahr El Ghazal Region, Lakes Province, Yirol Area Council. He was a Nilotic by ethnicity and a Dinka by tribe.

Job Profile: He was Deputy Director, (Grade V), responsible for the Local Government finance in the Regional Headquarters. He budgeted for all Area Councils in the Region and co-ordinated with the Central Government. He had 2 subordinates reporting to him directly, and 12 subordinates under his overall supervision.

His assessment of the administrative set up: He regarded his situation as adequate.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS
Card One Organization's Objectives. My organization's objectives, as a matter of fact I work in the Local Government. and the objectives of the local government as far as I can think of are two main objectives, there may be others but they are derived from these two major ones. First is to establish a genuine local government system in the Sudan in general and Southern Sudan in particular, this genuine local government system can come about through analysing out the situation, by making researchers about our way of life, discuss, present papers, with the view to arrive at local government system which will be ideal for the Sudan, therefore our number one objective is the establishment of a system of local government that is acceptable to our way of life, I don't think we have achieved a perfect one but we would want to come close to it.	To establish a genuine local government system in the Sudan in general and Southern Sudan in particular – that is

PROTOCOLS   INVARIANTS

Card One (continuted)

The second objective is how to implement
that system in the administration of the
local ogvernment and how to apply it to   To implement that system
the people to the betterment of their   in the administration of
lives and be integrated into their culture.   the Local Government —
This is what we are now trying to do by   and be integrated into
sending officers to the field to work in   their culture.
councils, with elected councillors and
try to manage with a system of government
of two branches, the councils as legislators
and officers as the executive branch.

Our other objectives in the headquarters   Bring into the field
is to plan the mechanics to let it work   trained officers in the
by brining into the field trained officers,   process of administration
in the process of administration, and   and electing enlightened
electing enlightened people in the area   people ... to the Council
councils to council chambers to legislate   Chamber.
for the councils.

There have been changes of a local govern-
ment system in the Sudan, there was the
1971 Local Government Act which was recently
changed to 1981 Act, these changes are part
and process to locate an ideal system, or
one can say they are a process of theor-
izing of local government, to cope with
new themes, the government as a whole is   Continue changes or adjust-
trying to implement. Therefore all these   ment, are aimed at meeting
continue changes which I would rather call   our objective of a system
adjustments are aimed at meeting our   to meet the needs of
objective of a system to meet the need of   people — in a type of
the local people, and in the type of   government they can
government they can participate in.   participate in.
So I can conclude that our objectives are
to establish a system of local government,
acceptable to local people, that will
enable them to participate in the
systematic administrative process that will
enable it to work so that the lives of our
people in the rural area are improved. I
don't think it is a process that is estab-
lished once and for all but it is a
continuous process, which has to be adjusted
from time to time.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Two: Managerial Approach or Style.

As to the managerial styles and approaches
in use in the local government management,
as you know management itself is an inexact
science, since it is a social science,
there is not exerimentation in management,
where you experiment and come to apply the
result of the experiment exactly as the
result of the experiment has it. We learnt
in schools many ways we can manage, in fact
I take it that management is a tool, it is
a tool whereby you can solve certain
problems in life, but not to be applied as
it is, others apply management techniques
as they are taught, others use informal
approaches.

Others apply management
techniques as they are
taught, others use
informal approaches.

Our society is a bit backward and sometimes
one may say that it is easier to approach
management from very informal ways. Informal
ways which might not be accepted in the
Western world, or in a formal organization's
setting, or at times when you are dealing
with colleagues in an office setting certain
formal approaches might work because they
understand them. But take an office in the
field in a remote rural area of the Southern
Sudan, he may approach things differently.
So I take it that the only way we can manage
in our present situation in the Southern
Sudan rural areas is through informal
approach, or in the local traditional ways.

I take it that the only
way we can manage in our
present situation...
through informal approach
or in the local tradition-
al ways.

I don't know how to put it but certain
approaches and styles which have worked
well somewhere else are good examples
to have but I think one has to face his
situation as he best sees it.

Facing the situation as
as one best sees it.

So I can say that the general approach and
styles in our management system tends to
be local or Sudanese ways, according to
the nature of the problem, the people you
are working with, I cannot even recommend
a uniform approach or style of management
for the Sudan or the Southern Sudan,
because of the different environments
that do exist in various area councils
because of different ethnic groupings,
wo while certain approahes or styles might
be good to know the local problem in the
local situation has to be addressed in its
own terms.

Local problem in the
local situation has to
be addressed in its own
terms.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Three: Usage of theories and techniques.

As it is here we may use some aspects of a theory or technique and sometimes we may not, from my own experience most people tend to be theory X oriented. Most people tend to control everything because of lack of experience with dealing with personnel. This I have seen in my organization that the head of the unit is the one in charge of many things, and things just come like that, so there is the tendency to put things in the hands of one person, and only that person taking all the decisions, e.g. in our ministry it is either the minister or the director taking all the decisions, e.g. in our ministry it is either the minister or the director taking all the decisions. This is due to ignorance, the subordinates may not be able to handle the situation, but I think they should be allowed to participate so they too can learn, so people holding the power to themselves is more a matter of them not knowing the practice of management or people behind them now knowing how to handle the situation.

> Most people tend to be theory X oriented.

> Most people hold power to themselves as a matter of ignorance in the practice of management.

Especially in our ministry wherever things go to the minister, the only time people seem to participate is the preparation of the budgets, because people contribute ideas about their units and in the process of budget preparation sometimes planning techniques are used, like collection of data about the department, organization of data about the department, organization of that data and preparing figures to support certain claims, and this is where one feels that there may be management theories are being applied.

> The only time people seem to participate is the preparation of the budget .... this is where one feels that there may be management theories are being applied.

Otherwise I find that people tend to apply what they find in real life more useful than book theories and techniques, what might have been gained through trial and error earlier in life tend to be more applied than well established theories.

> People tend to apply what they find in real life more useful than book theories and techniques.

Failure or non usage of theories and technqies in our situation could mean a lot of things, first and foremost is the fact that most of our administrators have not been well taught in these theories and

> Most of our administrators do not know these theories or techniques - situation does not permit - or environment might need a

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Three (continuted)

techniques, therefore they may not know
them, or for those who knwo them the
situation may not permit their application,
sometimes the environment might be so that
a different approach than what is known
might be needed.

different approach.

Card Four: Facotrs that influence management.

Factors that influence management in our
situation are two major factors. In
regard to my organisation, first is the
lack of resources, e.g. money to finance
the planned projects, therefore planned
projects stay on paper without being
implemented. At times we may not even
have funds to meet the salaraies of
employees, and this can be very demoral-
izing, it does not give people an
incentive to work, and this makes you
the top manager, not to ask too much of
a subordinate, since the organization
is failing to meet its part of the
obligations.

Another factor is politics, local govern-
ment administrators are involved in
running of the elections from National,
Regional and Local elections, therefore
get into conflict with the political
leadership and this affects work.
Politicians who do not want an officer
they don't agree with to work in his
constituency because they think he will
spoil his chance in the next elections
so they demand their transfers, so you
find an officer moving from place to
place not because he does not know his
job but because nobody wants him in his
area. Sometimes we have to have officers
we know can handle a situation in a
particular area of work there because
officers capable cannot be allowed by the
politicians of the area. So the two major
factors are lack of resources sometimes
you cannot do anything about it, then
the political interference, this is
because local government is so well tied
to politics that the administrators are
so much subjects to political abuses and
politics seem to control the whole
ministry.

Lack of resources, e.g.
money....this makes the
top manager not to ask
too much.

Officers moving from place
to place not because he
does know his work but
because nobody wants him
in his area.

7.7 Respondent Six: Personal Profile and Protocols

He was 34 years of age, a college graduate who had 11 years experience with Regional Government of the South and 12 years with the Sudan Public Service. He was from Upper Nile Region, Sobat Province, Midwest Area Council. He was a Nilotic by ethnicity and a Shulluk by tribe.

Job Profile: He was Chief Executive Officer, responsible for the administration of an Area Council. He had 20 subordinates reporting to him directly, and he was responsible for an Area Council population of about 100,000.

His assessment of the administrative set up: He regarded 20 subordinates reporting to him directly and a responsibility of a population of 100,000 as too many. He argued that "there is too much concentration of powers in one person, ultimate delegation should be made to others, that a lot of time is wasted on reporting on matters that are valueless.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card One: Organization's objectives.

The objectives of my organization are the guidelines which are laid down by the government as well as by the council, i.e. to have adequate service rendered to the inhabitants of the area council, to maintain security and rule of law in the area. I think these are the basic objectives for our existence and can be elaborated in several ways. And I think I should stop here.	To have adequate services rendered to the inhabitants of the Area Council Services. To maintain security and rule of law in the area.

Card Two: Managerial approach or style.

Since the objectives of the council is to render services to the inhabitants of the area councils, it follows that the council has to have funds, and these funds have to be raised from the people themselves, therefore the officers go to collect the funds. The way the officers approach it is up to the individual officer, but the	The way an officer approaches it, is up to the individual officer.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

main objective is that sufficient funds
must be raised to meet the operations of
the council.

Actually the managerial approach or
style as I said earlier is dependent on
the type of the manager himself, and from
problem to problem that is being handled.
There are those that are rigid and not
flexible, there are those who apply the
principles while there are those who
don't, the best method in the management
of an organisation is to make all your
subordinates fully aware of the
managerial system by which the organiz-
ation is run, this is done by making them
understand the procedures by which the
work is done. This I think when done
could motivate them and they should be
aware of good leadership of the manage-
ment.

To make all subordinates
fully aware of the
management system by
which the organisation
is run.

Card Three: Usage of Theories and Techniques.

In actual practice the usage of theories
and techniques in the management of day
to day administration in our organisation
should be a must, but it is not being
very effective, for the very simple
reason that most of our managers are
unaware of these theories and techniques
and as such they do not apply them,
instead they use trial and error.

Most of our managers
are unaware of these
theories and techniques
and as such they try to
use trial and error.

And in actual fact, as I said before that
there are situations in our environment
when these theories and techniques cannot
work, therefore the officer in the
field has to try something else. We have
tried some techniques like MBO, which
seems to work in principle but never in
practice, simply because not everybody
understands it.

Techniques like MBO which
seem to work in principle
but never in practice.

Card Four: Factors that influence management.

Factors that influece management of
organisations varies from organization
to organization. In the organization
to which I belong, the most important
factor that affects our administration
most is training. We lack trained
officers who can run day to day

The most important
factor that affects our
administration is
training – lack of
trained officers who
can run day to day
administration of

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS
administratons of the Councils effective-ly. most of the cadre we have in the field do not have adequate training and have not acquired skills in administration.	the council effectively.
Other factor is lack of discipline and leadership officers who make mistakes are not being disciplined and therefore go on repeating their mistakes.	Lack of discipline and leadership.
Another is political interference by the politicians, this has contributed to most of our problems, because politicians want to satisfy their political ends and this interferes with the administration of most councils and organization of the ministry as a whole. I think basically these are the problem areas in local government and the administration of the area councils in particular. I should stop here with no further comments.	Political interference by the politicians.

7.8 Respondent Seven: Personal Profile and Protocols

He was 36 years old, a university graduate, who held a postgraduate diploma and had one year of job related training. He had 12 years with the Southern Regional Government, all of which had been in the Sudan Public Service. He was from Equatoria Region, Eastern Equatoria Province, Western Area Council Yei. He was a Nilo-Hamtic by ethnicity and Kakwa by tribe.

Job Profile: He was Deputy Director, (Grade IV), who assisted the director of local government in the Regional Headquarters. He had 6 subordinates reporting to him directly, and 25 subordinates are under his overall supervision.

His assessment of the administrative set up: He assesses his situation as reasonable.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card One: Organization's objectives.

Organization's objectives, in my organization
the main objectives are to provide first
all essential services, inform of education
from primary to intermediate school and
provision of classes for the eradication
of illiteracy and the maintenance of
building for education and provision of
health services both preventative, such
as drugs, vaccines, building of
dispensaries, primary health care centres
etc. The others also include provision of
clean drinking water, for instance Bore
Wells, local well repairs, feeder and
excess roads, transport for the masses,
e.g. buses in some cases in towns like
Yei and Kajo-Kaji, where we had to provide
electricity.

Provide first of all
essential services.

We also had to provide storage facilities,
farming implements etc. for the farmers.
In direct response to card one our main
objectives in the Area Council is to
collect enough revenue in the form of
taxes, fees, changes, etc. so as to
implement the activities of the council.
We have to provide security for people
in for of police protection, by building
Police Stations, so essentially the
objectives of my organization is the
provision of services to the people of
the local area.

To collect enough revenues
in form of taxes, fees,
changes etc. so as to
implement the activities
of the council.

Card Two: Managerial approach or style.

How the organization is managed. We get
the Area Council level as an example: Area
Council level consists of elected members,
thirty of them with their Chairman, and
their function is actually to run the Area
Council as a whole. They act as a body
not as individuals.

Area council consists
of 30 members whose
function is to administer
the council as a body.

On the other side is the Chief Ececutive
Officer, who is the Executive organ of
the organisation, who is also the
Secretary, Treasurer of the Council,
who works together with the elected
members and their chairmen and chairmen
of committees who are elected among the
members themselves.

Chief Executive Officer,
who is the executive organ
of the organization.

| PROTOCOLS | INVARIANTS |

Card Two (continued)

In the Area Council might consist of
Rural Councils which are headed by the
the Executive Officers, who are members
of the Chief Executive Officer or some-
times known as A/Commissioner and the
E.O. of the Rural Council does the duty
of C.E.O. in the Rural Council. They are
the leaders of the executive organ, working
with the E.O.'s are heads of all the
technical departments like veterinary,
agriculture, health, co-operative police,
prison and education.

Area councils might
consist of rural councils
headed by the Executive
Officers as members of the
Chief Executive Officer's
team.

All of these departments are responsible to
the Chief Executive Officer, who renders
report on their work in the Area Council,
and disciplines them on behalf of their
mother ministries. Below the Rural
Council we have the Village Chiefs, who
are organised into village councils who
work with E.O.and the Junior Executive
Officers for the administration at the
village level.

Below the Rural Councils
we have the village
chiefs.

Card Three: Usage of theories and techniques.

I must apologise for missing out card three.
I feel a bit confused with it and would
like to go to card four.

Miss out because of
confusion.

Card Four: Factors that influence management.

There are a lot of factors that influence
administration of the council. First is the
council itself, the members of the council
or the councillors may influence the
activities of the council, i.e. in planning
it, if they think that the plans which
the C.E.O. is doing is either bad or
good and they may try to change it
altogether, but the real factor that
influences the work of the Area Councils
are the politicians, in most cases most
politicians seem not to appreciate what
the C.E.O. are doing, because they fear
that by doing development in the area
that by doing development in the area
especially if you come from the area,
they think you are doing it for future
interest, in which you may try to
contest elections and then to overthrow

The real factor that
influences the work of
the Area Council are the
politicians.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

them, so the politicians are suspicious
of the work of officers in the area
they represent. They want to see to
it that any development in the area is
brought by them so they continue to be
elected.

The other factor actually is the corruption from the officers themselves, especially junior officers and the bosses either in the area council or at the Regional level through merchants, a rich merchant can decide to give a big boss something and the Boss will influence activities of the Council in favour of the merchants, e.g. in awarding contracts, the Boss does not care whether the act is on the wrong side or not.	Corruption by officers through merchants - rich merchants give gifts to boss to influence activities of the council in his favour.
The factor is financial, especially the availability funds to meet councils expenditure, because if your finance is always available then work can go on.	No availability of funds.
The other final factor in my opinion is the new ideas, e.g. like areas where I come from on the borders you get new ideas from Zaire, Uganda and from the Sudan itself. These new ideas influence the the activities of the council, so as a matter of fact there are many factors that influence management of the councils, some are apparent, some are not very apparent. But I think one can say that political factor is most common in all councils.	New ideas from neighbours e.g. Zaire and Uganda for the border councils.

7.9 Respondent Eight: Personal Profile and Protocols

He was 32 years old. He held a postgraduate degree (MPA) and was working towards a Ph. D. in Public Administration. He had had 8 years of work experience with the Southern Regional Government, same years with the Sudan Public Service. He was from Upper Nile Region, Jongeli Province. A Nilotic by ethnicity and a Nuer by tribe.

Job Profile: He was Chief Executive Officer, (Grade V), responsible for the administration of the Area Council, all Central and Regional

personnel in the Area Council were accountable to him. He had 17 immediate subordinates reporting to him directly, and was responsible for an Area Council population of about 100,000.

His assessment of the administrative set-up: He regarded 17 immediate subordinates reporting to him directly and an overall responsibility of an Area Council population as too many. He does not recommend any specific number to report to a person or a position and did not give any reasons.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card One: Organization's objectives.

As an administrator our role and objectives are related to effecting the services which are rendered to the people, such as social services, health, education, public services and the ultimate aim is that these services are rendered effectively and efficiently so that people feel the impact that there are facilities for them such as health facilities, education facilities and other serivces like getting clean water, sanitation, etc.	Our roles and objectives are related to effecting services – the ultimate aim is that these services are rendered effectively and efficiently so people feel the impact.
As an effort to bring about service to act these services there are obstacles to achieving them, mainly because of lack of resources both manpower and material. Besides the resources, there are problems from the masses who are supposed to benefit from these services – there is in most cases, their response is either slow or or negative, because they have a tendency of expecting the management or the administration or the government or the organization in charge to provide everything for them, whereas the administration at times or in most cases does expect a maximum participation from them, and this is an area of conflict.	Expect a maximum participation from the masses.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

Card Two: Managerial approach or style.

As an administrator, I am expected to apply rules of the administration in a way as seen to be more — given to the people in impartial and fair way, but that depends from one person to another, and from one area to another. Certain circumstances might have an impact on running the administraton or managing affairs of any locality.

Apply rules of administration in a way as seen to be more given to the people impartially and a fair way.

But basically one has to first of all decide the knowledge one has and experience one also has to learn from people who are directly affected by the management and through their responses and plus what management has for them, one can be. And in most cases we are able to see clearly what are the clear problems facing the people and how we can go round them so in most cases not all of them do get solutions, but one does feel that there is a way any time since people try. Going a little further in explaining how the administration varies from one area to another, depending on where an administrator is dealing with a society that is more or less homogenous, comprising of one tribe, other things that are involved are awareness of the issues involved.

Awareness of issues involved in the administration.

If the administrators are highly aware then that is an asset, e.g. in the Dinka or Nuer areas where their major problems are connected with cattle, e.g. marriages that are conducted in cattle and most problems revolved around cattle, and they know their rights very well, the administrator is expected to know their customary laws, and the way they can effect decisions in a fair and adequate manner, whereby nobody is cheated.

Knowledge of customary laws, and the way they effect decisions.

This knowledge of the customs and the traditions of the people can contribute to the success of administration. But when the area compromises different tribes, the problem is even more complex, because there is always rivalry of tribes to see to it that each is associated with the authority, and the administrator will have to be very careful as to the application of the customary laws so it helps to be well informed about the background of all

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

the ethnic groups you deal with, because
one major problem in area councils with
mixed ethnic grouping is the feeling
that the administrator showing a tendency
to favour one ethnic group within the
area, and your discharge of duties as an
impartial person is questionable and that
can threaten many things — your credibility
and people's participation can be affected.

Administrator showing
the tendency to favour
one ethnic group — this
affects the administrator's
standing.

It does not always happen but there are
situations where it did, that an
administrator through his lot with one
ethnic group and cost him quite a
problem. Of course there will be people
complaining against the administrator
for whatever reason they like, but the
administrator must not give them the
chance where they will establish hard
evidence. One can then say that approaches
or styles of management always depend on
the individual administrator himself, the
situation or the local environment, the
customs and traditions of people, the type
of problem itself that is being handled.

Approaches or styles of
Managment depends on the
individual administrator,
situations, customs and
the type of problem.

Card Three: Usage of theories and techniques.

The application of theories and techniques
of management in the Southern Sudan and
particularly in administrative field,
generally tend to come under a lot of
questions in that some who have not had
the chance of making wider research or
investigation into the theories tend to
pose questions that the theories are
more adamant...that they are not coping
with the existing environment and
cultural way of life, which they feel
should be the one to be developed to
define their administrative arrangements
in the way they should be administered.

They are not coping with
existing environment and
cultural way of life.

But one thing which most of the people who
have benefitted from the administration...
and from theories, have proved to be useful
is that those administrators who have
grasped some Western theories, either
through training or their own experience
in their own way, be it in different
organizations either abroad or in different
posts of the country come back to the
south — it has given them some art of
building, some confidence in their

It has given them some art
of building some confidence
in their running of
administration.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS

running of administration, in that they
can work certain theories into the local
environment, and can improve the local
administration effectively, i.e. the idea
of encouraging people more...which also..
you supervise what they are doing in a
manner that they don't see that you are
threatening life in them.

This is an achievement in the area of
theories, because in theory you get all
the explanations that people can be
encouraged but in practice you find
people sometimes, they tend to sense   Good theorists can manage
the feeling of the government and even   using their philosophical
if you tell them good things, they   wit to make some success.
still are reserved, but good theorists
can manage using their philosophical
wit to make some of the theories a
success.

But that success is very minimal because
it also has something to do with some
administrative ability of putting it
material through how they can articulate
it, how they can work it with their own   Theories depend on those
normal way of understanding things and   who are administering
how also people have regard on their   them.
administration and their own personality.
So in general theories depend on those
who are administering them.

Card Four: Factors that influence management.

The factors which influence administration
or management in the Southern Region and
in particular our area administration of   They range from cultural,
local government are numerous. They range   political, social and
from cultural, political, social, ethnical   economical.
and economical.

Otherwise and culturally it is a problem
in an area like the Southern Sudan, where
people tend to value their own way of
life, their own culture, their own
traditions and social set up and their
own local political institutions that
exist and they usually feel that any   Otherwise they feel that
government that administrates them should   anything coming from
integrate all these in the system, other-   outside is alien.
wise they feel that anything coming from
outside is alien; like the way the
government comes to tell them or the
administraion comes to tell them how they

can improve their livestock if they are
cattle owning or their farming techniques
if they are farmers or their entire life
in general whether they do farming or
cattle rearing alike. For them this is
a type of making them to do what they
feel they already know, they tend to
question that and regard it as interference
in their own culture, their own social
values, their own norms and it becomes
difficult from one area to another to
really effect government decision
effecitvely.

So what does transpire in most cases is
once a skilful administrator recognises
such problems he resorts to making an
appeal to the entire population, e.g.
using Notables, the Chiefs and the
influential people in the area, and using
his supportive staff to acquaint them with
the issues that they are facing from that
particular locality which is affected.
Most administrators usually do this in
order to improve their general
administration and management of public
affairs, come to the political party
because there are areas where the citizens
or the inhabitants are a little bit
enlightened or informed about political
issues and administrative problems are
explained through the local politics, this
is where sometimes they tend to respect
government policies, when the understand
the politics of it, this depends on their
experience with their politicians and the
elite and some officials who are
connected with their area.

This approach sometimes worsens the
situation, because politicians during
elections promise anything, e.g.
school or dispensary for the area but
do not materialise because it may not
be financially feasible, this is when
it is not explained to them can be a
problem to get their co=operation in
any other project, because they feel   So political issues
frustrated with every educated person   do affect management
be they politicians, administrators,   of the local council
traditional elites or anyboy associated   in several ways.
with government, they are all regarded
as unreliable. So it takes a lot of
selling and explanation. So political
issues do effect management of the

local council in several ways, the
politicians would want the administrator
to implement what will enhance his
chances of success in the next
elections.

This tends to be a problem in that the
administrator may not be from that area, and
would want to administrate fairly or what
is administratively right, and very talented
administrators have been frustrated by this
kind of situaton, being caught between
what is administratively right or his
function as a civil servant and the
politicians wants to have him implement
his projects.

Another area of great importance is
finance. The administrator is responsible
for collection of taxes and raising of
revenue for the council. There is the
problem of physical collection from the
natives who are reluctant to give in their
taxes, there is the suspicion that what is
collected does not go to the chest as a
whole, and as to whether taxes collected
meets all the expenditures of the council,
for all its social services. This is an
area of a lot of suspicions, because
natives tend to feel that once taxes have
been collected they expect immediate
service, not knowing that only certain
services can be met at certain times,
because their taxes do not cover all the
council expenses for the service, some-
times some natives feel why should they
pay the salaries of all these officials
in the councils, part of this suspicion
is ignorance and it takes a talented
officer to give the explanation necessary.

Commenting on the general administration
of the Southern Sudan, one must recognise
the fact that it is a new region that is
still undergoing a lot of political
development which I think is now
questionable, but even then the first
records of administration from 1972 to 1980
things were going on well, certain things
featured in the entire administration of
the Southern Sudan, that was meant to be
effected through the local government area
especially by the local government officers
who seem to have come up was that local

Caught between what
is administratively
right — and implementing
the politician project.

Problem of physical
collection of taxes from
the natives not willing
because they suspect
their taxes are not
being used properly.

PROTOCOLS	INVARIANTS
government became more vulnerable to the politicians, the politicians become more involved in the transfer of administrators and saw to it that the administrators with their political inclination went to their constituencies, the administrators circume to the politician, the progress of administrators became politized, appointments became political, promotion became political, and many political supporters of politicians began to progress up therefore frustrating those who wanted administration as a profession.	Local government became more vulnerable to the politicians...supporters of politicians began to progress up, therefore frustrating those who wanted administration as a profession.
The politization of local government led to many things, at certain points it was considered that administrators should be sent to their area of origin, hoping that would reduce complaints which were politically motivated, it was thought that an administrator from the same area would not be prejudiced at the development of the area, but that policy came with its own problems, first finding an administrator for various areas, sometimes did not have, or did not have the calibre or capacity to manage a particular situation in that area or for that matter the administrator himself taking sides in the local political issues and therefore failed his function as a fair and an impartial discharger of his duties.	Consideration to send administrators to their place of origin.
It was not surprising that even the complaints to have the Southern Sudan further decentralized started with complaints in the local government, most of the complaints that certain politicians took up to split the Southern Sudan into the three administrative regions instead of one started from the local government problems.	The complaints to have the Southern Sudan further decentralised started with complaints in the local government.
Another problem I can see was that the problem of local government were never well addressed by the Regional Government of then Southern Region, maladministration was left unchecked, I think a lot of reforms, a lot of reconstructions and improvement is needed to enable an effective local government in the Southern Sudan, and I hope the past mistakes and experience will enable the people of the Southern Sudan to build a sound local government system.	Lots of reforms, reconstruction and improvement is needed to enable an effective local government in the Southern Sudan.

7.10 The Summary

This chapter has dealt with the protocols and   their   invariants.
All of these were generated from interviews with the eight senior local
government administrators from the Southern Sudan who constitute the
sample population on which this research is based.   The protocols were
their verbatum transcription of their articulations or their 'thinking
aloud' on the four themes of management pratice.   They were based on
their experience in the management or administraton of   their
organisations in the Southern Sudan.

Each of the protocols began with a brief profile of each of the
respondents stating his personal characteristics, his job profile and
his personal assessment of his job set up.   The objective of the
profile was to provide a background to the respondent to enable us to
illustrate that all the respondents included in the sample met all the
criterion as defined by the research in chapter one.   That is they were
senior administrators in their units, who are able to participate in
their organisation's policy formulation and implementation and they
belonged to the admintrative cadre of super scale ranging from Grade
Seven to One Special.* The invariants will be analysed in the next
chapter using phenomenological seeing and interpretation.   The aim will
be to establish their noetic and noemotic correlates and their essences
or universal meanings, i.e. what they symbolised in the context of the
objective of investigation.

---

* Under the 1975 Public Service Regulations the Senior Administrative
cadre ranged from Grade Seven to One Special.   This range constitutes
the policy makers.

CHAPTER EIGHT

8.0 The Protocols Analysis

This chapter deals with the protocols analysis. It analyses the invariants to establish their neotic and noematic correlates. Hence it aims to establish the true essence or the universal meaning of the protcol contents. The analysis begins with the interpretations of the respondents' profiles. The profile analysis illustrates the respondents' educational attainment and experience in the management or administration of Public Service organizations in the Southern Sudan and Sudan in general. It also shows their geographic and ethnic diversity.

8.1 The Respondents' Profile Analysis

This analysis attempted to answer the methodological question of whether or not the eight respondents met the relevant characteristics. that is, were they the relevant population? The answer to this question is illustrated in Tables 8.1 and 8.2 respectively. Table 8.1 illustrated the respondents jobs, job grades. length of service, both in the Southern Regional Governments and the Sudan Public Service and their educational attainments. Table 8.2 illustrates the geographic and ethnic diversity of the respondents. All this evidence indicated that our eight respondents were indeed the relevant informed sample and had met all the criterion of the phenomenologically-based method.

Table 8.1 Table showing analysis of the respondents' jobs, job grades, length
of service and educational attainment.

| Respondent No. | Job | Job Grade | Length of Service | | Educationl Attainment | Age | Remaining years of service to the mandatory retirement at 65 |
			Southern Regional Governments	Sudan Public Service			
1	Director	Grade III	10	10	University	37	28
2	Chief Executive Office	Grade III	12	15	University	38	27
3	Acting Director	Grade III	10	16	University	42	23
4	Deputy Director	Grade III	12	16	University	44	21
5	Deputy Director	Grade V	11	11	University	37	28
6	Chief Executive Officer	Grade V	11	12	University	34	31
7	Deputy Director	Grade IV	12	12	University	36	29
8	Chief Executive Officer	Grade V	8	8	University	32	33
	Average		10.75	12.5		37.5	27.5

Sources: Extracted from Summary of Respondents Profile.

From this table the following points are derived:

216

(1)   All   the   respondents   were   all   senior   administrators   within
        their   respective   organizations.   Two   were   heads   of   their
        organizations,   with   the   title of director and acting director,
        three were second in command in their organizaions with the   title
        of   deputy   directors,   and   the last three were   Chief   Executive
        Officers that is, heads of the Area Councils Administration.

(2)   All   the respondents' job grades were also very high with four   at
        Grade III, three Grade V and one Grade IV.   All of them within the
        high administrative cadre, ranging   from   Grade IV to one special.

(3)   All the respondents had length of service ranging from 8-16 years,
        considering   average length of service in the Sudan Public Service '
        is 30 years, they are a little below mid career service.

(4)   All   the respondents were university graduates,   with at   least   a
        postgraduate diploma,   which made them the most qualified cadre in
        the Civil Service.

(5)   All   the   respondents ages ranged from 32-44 which   meant   another
        27.5   years of service each,   considering the Sudan Public Service
        pensionable age of 65.

Looked   at   in   the context of the   Sudan   Public   Service   regulations,
particularly   the   mandatory   retirement age of 65 and the 30   years   of
service,   our   respondents   are seen to have progressed at a   very   fast
rate.   This   high rate of progress is indicated by the fact   that   they
have   an   average   age of 37.5 and an average of 12.5 average   years   of
service.   All   our respondents have reached the top of the   Sudan   Civil
Service   grades and are ranked third to the seventh on the Civil Service
grades   ranging from eighteenth to one special.   This is an   indication
that   they too (eight respondents) have benefitted from the   rapid   pole
vaulting   promotions   aired in the protocols.   This has been one of   the
factors that had been alleged to have contributed to low performance   of
the Southern Sudan Public Service organizations.

Table 8.2   Table showing the respondents' geographic and
            ethnic background.

Respondent No.	Region	Province	Area Council	Ethnic Group	Tribe
1	Bahr El Ghazal	Lakes	Yoril	Nilotic	Dinka
2	Bahr El Ghazal	Westerns Bahr El Ghazal	Wau	Sudanic	Balanda
3	Equatoria	Western Equatoria	Eastern Area Council (Maridi)	Sudanic	Moru
4	Upper Nile	Sobat	Mid West	Nilotic	Shulluk
5	Bahr El Ghazal	Lakes	Yoril	Nilotic	Dinka
6	Upper Nile	Sobat	Midwest	Nilotic	Shulluk
7	Equatoria	Eastern Equatoria	Western Area Council (Yei)	Nilo-Hamitic	Kakwa
8	Upper Nile	Jongeli	Fangak	Nilotic	Nuer

Sources: Extracted from the Summary of the Respondents Profile 8.2.

From Table 8.2 the following points were derived:

(1)   The respondents represented all the regions of the Southern Sudan,
      3 from Bahr El Ghazal, 3 from Upper Nile and 2 from Equatoria.

(2)   The respondents' provincial representatives were 2 from Lakes
      Province, 2 from Sabat Province and one each from Western Bahr El
      Ghazal, Western Equatoria, Eastern Equatoria and Jongeli
      Provinces.

(3)   The respondents represented the following Area Councils, Yoril
      Area Council, Midwest Area Council, Wau Area Council, Eastern Area
      Council (Maridi), Western Area Council (Yei) and Fangak Area
      Council.

(4)   The   respondents represented the three major ethnic   groupings   of

the   Southern Sudan at the ratio of 5 Nilotic,   2 Sudanic and   one

Nilo-Hamitic.

(5)   The   respondents   represented only six of over 50 tribes,   of   the

Southern Sudan. at the ratio of 2 Dinka,   2 Shulluk. one Balanda,

one Moru. one Kakwa and one Nuer.

In   the next section we will be analyzing the protocols   invariants

to   further   establish   their noetic and noematic   correlation   and   the

essence or the truth as derived from the respondents' perception of   the

themes   of management practice.   Sections 8-2   8.3.   8.4 and 8.5   will

feature cards one,   two.   three and four respectively. The themes dealt

with will be organizational objectives, approach or style of management,

use   of   theories and techniques in management   practice,   and   cultural

factors that influence management in the Southern Sudan.

8.2   Card One: Organizational Objectives. Protocols Analysis.

Respond-ent	Invariants	Noetic and Noematic Correlates	The Essence or Truth
One	To cater for the training of local government admin-istrators...to strength-en the Area Council	To provide a profess-ional training to improve Area Councils performance	Efficiency and effectiveness
	New experience aim at involving people in running their own affairs	To involve people in the management of their own affairs	Participative Management
	Creation of a well-trained cadre to cater for the policy	To provide policy expert	Professional-alism
	Generalness of aims and specificity of object-ives	To state clearly	Clarity of purpose

	Trained to train others in identifying the problems of Area Councils, so weakness and strength are known, so creative measures to resolve them are taken	To train trainers, in the art of problem solving	Professional-ism
	Objective determining the roles	To define the role	Clarity of purpose
Two	Effective involvement of the public in planning and decision making of the activities of their Area Council	To involve the public in the management of their Area Council	Participative Management
	Discharging of service to the best of effic-iency	To render services effectively	Efficiency and effectiveness
	Explanation of the Gov-ernment Policies to the Masses in the Rural Areaa	To deliver Government Policy to the people in the rural area	Channel of Govern-ment Policy
	Involvement of the masses in government through their elected represent-atives as councillors	To involve people through election of their representatives to the Council Chambers	Participative Management
Three	Training of officers and staff to enable them to be effective	To train officers and staff of the councils to be effective	Professional-ism
	To bring decentraliz-ation to the people through election	To involve people in the government of their councils by elections of representatives	Participative management
Four	Responsible for general planning for Area Council Acts as a liaison agency	To plan for Area Council and to co-ordinate between area council's Regional and Central governments	Co-ordination
	Budgeting both current and developmental budgets for the Area Councils	To budget both current and developmental budgets for Area Councils	Plan
	Agrees on the Service to be undertaken that suits the Council's needs	To determine the services that suits the Council's needs	Provider

	Costing and comparing services to the revenue - co-ordinating with the regional and central government to enable the necessary aid	To cost and compare the service with the projected revenue - so necessary aid can be obtained from the regional and central governments	Plan
Five	To establish a genuine local government system in the Sudan, and Southern Sudan that is acceptable to our way of life	To provide a system and government that suits the local tradition	Aculturation
	To implement the system in day to day administration and to integrate it into the culture	To integrate the system into the local culture	Harmonization
	Bring into the field trained officers in administration and electing enlightened people to the Council Chamber	To bring trained administrators and enlighten people of the Area Council together to manage the council jointly	Checks and balance
	Continue changes or adjustments are aimed at meeting our objective of a system to meet the need of people - in the type of Government they can participate in	To aim at the system that meets the need of people to enable them to participate	Participative Management
Six	To have adequate service rendered to the inhabitants of the Area Council	To provide adequate service in the Area Council	Care
	To maintain security and rule of law in the area	To provide law and order in the Area Council	Police
Seven	Provide first of all essential service	To provide essential service	Care
	To collect enough revenue, inform of taxes, fees, changes etc. so as to implement the activities of the council	To collect sufficient funds to meet council's activities	Fund raiser

| Eight | Effecting service - aim of which is to render them efficiently and effectively, so people can feel the impact | To render service, effectively and efficiently so people can feel our impact | Efficiency and effecitveness |
| | Expect a maximum mass participation | To involve all the people | Participation management |

8.3 Card Two   Managerial Approach or Style   Protocols Analysis.

Respondent	Invariants	Noetic/noematic Correlates	Essence or Truth
One	Having representatives at the regional, provincial and Area Council level full-time - to identify area problems and recommend solutions to the headquarters	By representations at the Area Councils, Provincial and Regional level to identify problems and make recommendations	Representative system
	Calling of the representatives to sell the idea developed in the Headquarters in consideration to their recommendation	By selling policies developed at the headquarters, based on the representatives recommendations to the representatives to execute	Sale system
	Project not manageable through centralized system but full delegation to representatives	By delegation to the representatives	Delegation of powers
	Project managed through delegation - because area know their problems and wants	By delegation to the area representatives because of their knowledge of problem and wants of the area	Delegation to people who know
Two	The style of management is due to the individual administrators or circumstance of the decision	By allowing the individual administrator to initiate style according to his personality and the circumstances of the decision	Delegation

Three	Makes and pass regulations governing the activities of Area councils	By making and passing the regulations governing the activities of Area Councils	Legislation
	Reviews reports on activities of the Area Councils	By reviewing reports on activities of the Area Councils	Supervision
	Checks on the performance of the Area Councils	By checking performance of the Area Councils	Evaluation
Four	Uses of both formal and informal approaches with emphasis on informal	By applying both formal and informal approaches but more to informal	Situational approach
	Having a description of what everyone should be doing	By job description	Division of labour
	A remote supervision from afar, giving the person being supervised freedom to act and feeling of being part of the organization	By general supervision	Application theory y
	Personality of the person concerned plays an important role	By allowing the person on the spot to express himself	Situational approach
	The way we think, behave, influences our way of approach	By respecting the local culture	Situational approach
Five	Others apply management techniques as they are taught, others use informal approaches	By allowing the individual manager a preference	Situational approach
	I take it that the only way we can manage in our present situation is through informal approach or in the loca traditional way	By using local traditional ways	Situational approach
	Facing the situation as one's best sees it	By using personal initiative	Innovative approach
	Local problem in the local situation has to be addressed in its own terms	By using the knowledge of the local situation	Situational approach

Six	The way an officer approaches it, is up to the individual officer	By allowing individual initiative	Innovative approach
	To make all subordinates fully aware of the managerial system by which the organisation is run in the administration	By making the system known to all the subordinates	Clarity of means
Seven	Area Council consists of a 30 member council who administers the Council as a body	By joint decision	Democracy
	Chief Executive Officer, who is the executive organ of the organisation	By having a legislative and executive organ	Checks and balance system
	Area Councils might consist of rural community headed by Executive officers as members of the Chief Executive Officer team	By having a structure and accountability chart	Hierarchy
	Below the rural councils we have the village chiefs	By having a structure and accountability	Hierarchy
Eight	Apply rules of administration in a way seen to be more given to the people in impartial and fair way	By being fair and impartial to all concerned	Fairness and justice
	Awareness of issues involves in the administration	By being knowledgeable about the local issues	Expertism
	Knowledge of customary laws and the way they affect decisions	By being knowledgeable about the customary laws and their effects on the decisions	Local expert
	Administrators showing a tendency to favour one ethnic group - this affects the administrator's standing	By avoiding favouritsm	Fairness and justice
	Approaches or style of management always depends on individual administration, situation, customs and the type of problem	By recognising individuality, situation, traditions and the nature of the problem	Situational approach

8.4   Card Three   Use of Theories and Techniques, Protocols Analysis.

Respond-dent	Invariants	Noetic/Noematic Correlates	Essence or Truth
One	Two levels of the project the day to day co-ordin-ation and teaching with the view to improving officer's skills	Teaching to improve skills	Education
	Apply theories having to do with Area Councils, Local Government, i.e. their liking self-help. self-reliance as advocated by Tanzania	Theories that self-help reliance oriented	Self-oriented
	Depends on the subject matter and ways of relating it	Subject matter and its relations with local environment	Link between the subject and environment
	Usage of many methods which they think can sell the idea to the trainers	Methods that sell the idea to the trainers	Marketing
	Each person has a defined role to play - he is assumed to be committed	Role definition	Division of labour
	Most tend to hold a lot of powers to themselves - some think they have delegated	Holding to the power and not knowing how to delegate power	Centralization
	Political activities come into play - which do not enable uses of any part-icular techniques	Politics hindering the use of any techniques	Politicization
	You are supposed to do it the best way you think it should be done - when it goes wrong then find out what went wrong	Best way deemed appropriate	Judegement
	No specific theories or techniques in use. rather usage depends on the individual managers and nature of his job	Depending on the personality of manager and nature of his job	Situational

Two	A lot of filtering is done to suit one environment contemporary theories of organization might take place more than classical theories	Choice of contemporary theories over classical to suit one environment	Situational approach
	A lot of selling and explaining as to why certain things need to be done and in certain ways	Explaining the why and how of actions	Sale approach
Three	Discussion of past experience of other countries in form of case studies, exercise etc.	Using experience of other countries	Case studies
	Surprise visit and requesting of immediate report on current activities	Using unannounced visits to avoid preparation	Maximum alert
Four	Judgement based on the relevance situation is also good - you develop your own ways of doing it from experience	Using experience and knowledge of the environment	Situational approach
Five	Most people tend to be theory x oriented	Use of theory x	Closed supervision
	Most people hold power to themselves as a matter of ignorance in the practice of management	Centralization of power in self	Centralization
	The only time people seem to participate is the preparation of budget. This is where one feels that there may be management theories being applied	Application of management theories is seen in the budget preparations	Participative system
	People tend to apply what they find in real life useful than book theories or techniques	Application of acquired experience as opposed to book theories and techniques	Experience
	Most of our administrators do not know those theories or techniques - situation does not permit or environment might need a different approach	Application of theories and techniques hinder by ignorance of administrators or situation	Lack of knowledge

Six	Most of our managers are unaware of those theories and techniques and as such they use trial and error	Usage of trial and error due to lack of knowledge of modern management theories or techniques	Lack of knowledge
	Techniques like MBO, which seem to work in principles but never in practice	Trial of techniques like MBO which work in principle but not in practice	Lack of knowledge
Seven	Miss out because of confusion	–	–
Eight	They are not coping with the existing environment and cultural way of life	Failure to use because they are seen as out of touch with the local culture	Conflict
	It has given them some art of building, some confidence in their running of administration	Those who use them help build some confidence in them	Self-reassuring
	Good theorists can manage using their philosophical wit to make some success	Usage of the philosophical background of theories to make success	Theorizing
	Theories depends on those who are administering them	Usage of theories depends on the user	Conceptualization

8.5 Card Four: Factors that Influence Management Protocols Analysis.

Respondends	Invariants	Noetic/Noematic Correlates	Essence or Truth
One	No good organization, unless you know what you want and can express it in organization. Structure-employ a qualified person for it	Organization structure and qualification of people	Organization and poor training

	Set up must be right, structuring - and who can do the job	Structure of organization and people	Organization and division of labour
	Dropping the Ministry and department structure and recruitment for outside of people loyal to you	Outside recruitment of loyalists	Paternalization of the organization
	Pole vaulting promotion of outsiders who are not even well qualified. Supervision and interest of employees not being paid attention	Pole vaulting promotion from outside and poor supervision and neglect of employee interest	Rapid promotion. Poor supervision. Poor personnel practice
	At times it gets changed so suddenly without giving reasons	Sudden changes without warning	Rapid changes no feasibility studies
	Lack of commitment and respect for the system we create them and do not respect them	No commitment to the system and respect for it	Trial and error
	The deployment of manpower has been going wrong. You get people because of political reasons are put on top	Politically motivated promotions	Political allgeiance
	People trained for a particular job. When he comes back he is removed where he is not trained	Wasted training	Misplaced talent
	Problem of measurement of success	How to measure success	Evaluation
	Adoptation of inadequate methods	Poor methods of assessment	Evaluation
	Poor record keeping due to people's attitude and commitment to their work	Poor record keeping	Absence of records
Two	There is a very clear political influence affecting the management of Area Councils in posting administrators	Political interference	Conflict of politics and administration

	Declaration of project, without consultation with chief executive officer in the Area Council	Lack of consultation	Poor co-ordination
	People not able to afford taxes because of poverty failure of grant in aid from the central and regional government	Lack of funds	Economics
	Expensive mistakes and loss of respect from the masses	Lack of training	Education
	Administrators being exemplory or loses public confidence	Poor example	Unexamplory
Three	Lack of funds for the daily activities of the council	Lack of funds	Economics
	Political interference by members of the national, regional assemblies and ministers	Political interference	Conflict of politics and administration
	Councillors failure to understand their functons	Failure to understand roles	Education
Four	Political changes or decision because Civil Service is subordinated to politics or political decision	Political changes affecting decisions	Politics
	Frequency of changes and lack of feasibility studies	Lack of feasibility studies	Short sightedness
	Lack of history of management from the Southern Sudan point of view	Lack of examples	No tradition
Five	Lack of resources, e.g. money...this makes the top manager not to ask too much...	Lack of resources	Economics
	Officers moving from place to place not because he does know his work but because nobody wants him in his area	Politicians interference in transfer of officers	Politics

Six	The most important factor that affects our adminis- tration is training. Lack of trained officers who can run day to day administration of the councils effectively	Lack of trained officers	Education
	Lack of discipline and leadership	Lack of discipline and leadership	Poor adminis- tration
Seven	The real factor that in- fluences the work of the Area Council are the politicians	Political interference	Politics
	Corruption by officers through merchants. Rich merchants give gifts to boss to influence activities of the council in his favour	Corruption by officers and merchants	Ethics
	Non availability of funds new ideas from neigh- bours, e.g. Zaire and Uganda	Lack of funds	Economics
		New ideas	Innovations
Eight	They range from cultural, political, social and economic	Many factors	Environment
	Otherwise they feel that anything coming from outside is alien	Outside values	Culture
	So political issues do affect management of the Local Council in several ways	Political issues	Politics
	Caught between what is administratively right and implementing the politician projects	Conflicting issues	Conflicts of politics and administration
	Problem of physical collection of taxes from the natives not willing because they suspect their taxes are not properly used	Problem in taxes collection	Mistrust

In the next section, an analysis will be carried out of the respondents' perceptions of the concepts of management practice. The research at this stage will be conducting the intentional analysis, i.e. looking into the respondents' articulations for statements or phrases that express the respondents' intentionality. The intentional analysis themselves will indicate the three levels of uniqueness, those that expressed the universal or commonly shared views, those that expressed the collective view. i.e. those that are shared only by members of society or social group, and lastly those that expressed the individuality of the respondent or his specific job requirements Hofsede (1984).

Those that expressed the universally and collectively held views will be indicated by a number of X's against the number of respondents that shared the view. Those that represented the individuality of the respondent will show an X against that respondent's number. Therefore, the universally and collectively held views are merged into one commonly shared views in this analysis. Universally held views represent the share views by all human beings and collectively held views represent those held by a group or subgroup because of their shared membership in those groups. Because of the uniqueness of our respondents, who are a class of their own, because of being the urbanized elites of the Southern Sudan, educated by the same educational institutions, trained in the same field, trained abroad and work in the same ministry. They share both their universal and collective uniqueness. Hence, the only differences they had can be attributed to their individualities and specific job requirements. (A good example in the protocols can be seen in the responses of the Director of training and Finance, see Respondents one and four protocols).

Even the tribal and ethnic background do not show in the protocols. The explanation for this state of affairs could lie in two sources; one their being urbanized elites (the melting pot of Southern Sudan) who are losing their tribal connections due to their isolation from their tribal and ethnic basis or two because they are policy making bodies who see a global view of the organization and tend to ignore tribal or ethnic views of things.

8.6 The Respondents' Perception of Organizational Objectives in the Management or Administration of their Organizations

Fig. 8.3 Table Showing the Respondents' Perception of their Organizational Objectives.

PERCEPTIONS	RESPONDENTS NUMBERS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Efficiency and Effectiveness	X	X						X
Participative Management	X	X	X		X			X
Professionalism	X		X					
Clarity of Purpose	X							
Channel of Government Policy		X						
Co-ordination				X				
Plan				X				
Provider				X				
Aculturation					X			
Harmonization					X			
Check and Balances					X	X		
Care						X		
Police						X	X	
Fund Raiser							X	

Sources Extracted from the Protocols.

In the analysis of the respondent's perceptions of their organizaional objectives the following articulations were shared by most of the respondents. The association of organizational objectives with participative management, efficiency and effectiveness,

professionalism   check and balances and policing. These fell into our first category concerned with the commonalities.

The articulations that associated organizational objectives to clarity of purpose, channel of government policy, co-ordination, plans, provider, aculturation, care and fund raiser were opinionated. They represented our third category which were bias towards the individuality of the respondents or towards the nature of their jobs.

An example of the shared view is illustrated by the quotes from the protocols of the respondent one. two and three. Respondent one said:

> "This is a new experience, an experience aimed at involving people in the way of running their own affairs...to manage their own affairs through their Area Councils".

Respondent two said:

> "to make an effective involvement of the public in the planning and decision making of the activities of the Area Councils concerned".

Respondent three stated:

> "to bring down the policy of decentralization to the grass roots to the people through election of their representatives to the Area Councils".

These quotes represented the shared view of our respondents about organizational objectives being associated with the concept of participative management.

An example of the bias view is also illustrated by the quotes from our respondents four, five and six.

Respondent four said:

> "I could put the main function or goal of the ministry is to budget both current and development budgets for the Area Councils".

Respondent five said:

> "number one objective is the establishing of a system of local government that is acceptable to our way of life."

Respondent six pointed out that organizational objectives are in his opinion guidelines which are laid down by the government and the council.

These quotes represented the opinionated view, that are biased towards the individuality of the personal respondent or towards his specific job requirements. In the phenomenological terminology they represented the individual uniqueness as opposed to the latter view which represented the common based and shared view of the object or subject of investigation.

It can therefore, be summarised that our respondents' perceived the setting of organizational objectives in the management of an organization as a process of professional and participative management which was likely to achieve efficiency and effectiveness.

8.7 The Respondents' Perception of the Managerial Approach

or Style of Management in their Organisations

Fig. 8.4 Table showing the respondents' perception of managerial
approach or style in their organisation.

PERCEPTIONS	RESPONDENTS NUMBERS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Representative system	X							
Sale System	X							
Delegation	X	X						
Legislation			X					
Supervision			X					
Evaluation			X					
Situational Approach				X	X			X
Division of Labour				X				
Application of Theory X					X			
Innovative Approach						X		
Clarity of means						X		
Democracy							X	
Checker							X	
Hierarchy							X	
Fairness and Justice								X
Expertism								X

Source   Extracted from the Protocols.

In the analysis of the respondent' perceptions of the managerial approaches or styles used in their respective organizations, very few articulations felt into our first and second categories of the shared views. Instead most of the articulations felt into our third category those that represented the individuality of the respondents and their specific jobs requirements. Perhaps, this does not come as a surprise because almost all our eight respondents with the exception of respondent three took the view that approaches or styles used in organizational management should be a matter for the manager on the spot. The contingency approach to this view was well put by respondent one when he said:

> "we fully delegate to all our representatives in the regions, provinces and the Area Councils...because they know what they want, they know their problems".

The same view was shared by respondent two who said:

> "so the style of management is due to the individual administrator or the circumstance in which the decisions are taken and how they need to be implemented."

Respondent four suggested two different approaches or styles of management, one to apply to the educated employees who understand what is happening in the organization and the other to apply to the less educated employees who do not understand what is happening in the organization:

> "well really both formal and informal approaches are applied or used with more emphasis on the formal approach, when dealing with the experienced cadres one expects an understanding of what is needed, but when dealing with lower cadres, informal approaches work better."

Respondents five and eight argued mainly on the environmental difference. Respondent five stated:

"I cannot even recommend a uniform approach or style of
management for the Sudan or Southern Sudan because of the
different environments that do exist in the various Area
Councils and in the different ethnic groupings...the local
problem in the local situation has to be addressed in its own
terms."

Respondent eight, justifying a situational approach according to local

area problems illustrated with an example. He pointed to the Dinka and

Nuer areas where their problems were centred around cattle and their

problems being resolved within the context of their customary laws.

"In the Dinka and Nuer areas where problems are connected with
cattle, e.g. marriages that are conducted in cattle, and most
problems resolved around cattle, and they know their rights
very well, the administrator is expected to know their
customary law and the way they can effect decisions in a fair
and adequate manner, where nobody is cheated."

These respondents went on to support the view that job situations, such

as those cited earlier, did influence how decisions would be approached.

8.8 The Respondents' Perception of the Use of Theories

and Techniques in the Management or Administration of

their Organizations

Fig. 8.5 Table showing the respondents' perception of the use
of theories and techniques in the management or
administration of their organizations.

PERCEPTIONS	RESPONDENT NUMBERS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Education	X							
Self Orientation	X							
Link (Environment and Subject)	X							
Marketing	X							
Division of Labour	X							
Centralization	X							
Politicize	X				X			
Judgement	X							
Situation	X	X	X					
Sale Approach		X						
Case Study			X					
Maximum Alert			X					
Closed Supervision					X	X	X	
Participative						X		
Experience						X		
Lack of Knowledge						X		
Conflict						X		X
Theorise								X

Source   Extracted from the Protocols

In the analysis of the respondent's perceptions of the use of theories and techniques in the management or administration of their organizations, there was little commonality. As in the case of styles and approaches to management considered earlier most of our respondents felt that it was also left to the individual administrator and his environment to decide what theories and techniques were appropriate to use and how best to apply them in his environment. Respondent one tried to justify the dependency of the use of theories and techniques on the situation by pointing out that :

> "depending on whatever subject you are tackling and how you want to relate it, in terms of other experiences...so the subject matter and ways of relating it determines the theories they use as trainers."*

Respondent two accepted that theories learnt in colleges were applied, but added that: "But I think a lot of filtering is done to suit one's environment". Respondent four went on at length to explain the use of theories and techniques in his organization's management and how such use was affected by the situation:

> "I take them as useful guides and framework for effective and efficient management, but there are certain situations, such as are times when they don't work and you are compelled to use your own judgement...such as time for political pressure when such guides tend to be undermined and people go for quick short cuts."

The articulations that were associated with the individual respondent's personality and their specific job requirements were illustrated by respondents one, four, five, and eight. Respondent four explained:

---

* Note here how the use of theories or techniques in organizational management is tied to the specific job requirement as seen by the Director of Training.

"because when you have been doing the work for a long time you develop your own way of doing it, that sometimes does not resemble the known theories or techniques that are already established."

Respondent five pointed out to the people preferring to do things their own ways by which they are used to through long usage as opposed to book theories or techniques. He explained:

"I find that people tend to apply what they find in real life more useful than book theories and techniques. What might have been tried through trial and error earlier in life tends to be more applied than well established theories and techniques."

Respondent eight pointed out the challenges to uses of theories and techniques in management or administration in the Southern Sudan as inconsistent with the way of life:

"The application of theories and techniques of management in the Southern Sudan particularly in administrative fields, generally tend to come under lots of questions...that the theories are more adamant, that they are not coping with the existing environment and cultural way of life."

He concluded that these people feel instead it should be their culture that should be developed to define their administrative arrangements. Respondent one concluding his articulations on uses of theories and techniques pointed out that:

"I cannot really say that there exist certain managerial approaches or styles, rather than to say it seems to depend on the individual manager and the nature of his job."

Therefore, it can be summaried that uses of theories and techniques in organizational management tended to be a combination of factors ranging from the personality of the manager, nature of the job and the environment of the decision.

8.9 The Respondents' Perception of Factors that Influence Management or Administration of their Organization

Fig 8-6 Table showing the respondents' perception of factors that influence management or administration of their organization.

PERCEPTIONS	RESPONDENT NUMBERS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Organization and people's lack of skills	X							
Organization and people's attitudes	X							
Outside Recruitment	X							
Rapid Promotion	X							
Poor Supervision	X							
Rapid Change	X							
Lack of feasibility studies	X							
No adherence and respect for system	X							
Politics	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Misplaced Talent	X							
Poor Evaluation	X							
Poor Record Keeping	X							
Conflict of Politics and Administration		X	X			X		
Poor Consultation		X						
Economics		X	X		X	X	X	
Education		X	X					
Manager being unexamplory		X						
Short Sightedness				X				

PERCEPTIONS	RESPONDENT NUMBERS							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Lack of Tradition					X			
Poor Administration								X
Ethics								X
Lack of Innovativeness								X
Culture								X
Conflict of Issues								X
Mistrust								X

Sources: Extracted from the Protocols Analysis.

In the intentional analysis of the respondent's perceptions of the factors   that   influenced management or administration   of   their organizations in the Southern Sudan. The shared views held by most of the respondents were politics, economics, conflict of administration with politics and poor education of the administrators.

Views   which   reflected   the individual respondents level   of uniqueness and their specific mode of identification were lack of skills, people's attitudes, outside recruitment, rapid promotions, poor supervision, rapid changes, lack of feasibility studies, lack of systems, misplaced talent, poor evaluation, poor record keeping, poor consultations, ethics and lack of innovativeness.

Respondent five tried to bluntly explain political interference:

"then the political interference, this is because local
government is so well tried to politics that the
administrators are so much subjected to political abuses and
politics or political decisions."

Respondent four was even more direct when he said:

"I think the main factor is political changes or political
decisions, because the general public administration or the
Civil Service is subordinated by politics or political
decisions."

Respondent two observed how economics affected organizational

operations:

"lack of resources is another major problem, most council
expenditures have to be raised from taxes, and some councils
cannot afford because people are themselves so poor so you
cannot extract any taxes out from them, the grant in aid from
the Central and Regional Governments sometimes does not come,
so whatever little that is generated in taxes is used as
salaries...no development takes place, and some of the
services are greatly affected."

Respondent four emphasised lack of tradition in the government, cited

the age of the regional government and people having not grasped the art

of government:

"we seem to be greatly affected by the fact we are new to
these situations, first the government has been in existence
for less than fifteen years from 1972-1984 this brings me to
something I had in mind that we have not established any
traditions of government or management."

Respondent six saw the problem from within as he observed:

"other factor is lack of discipline and leadership, officers
who do mistakes are not being disciplined and therefore go on
repeating their mistakes."

Thus, it can be concluded from the intentional analysis of the respondents' perceptions that the factors that influence the management of Public Service Organizations in the Southern Sudan as mainly politics, economics and conflict of politics and administration. These of course being environmental factors that can influence either positively or negatively (Herzberg's Hygiene factors).

In the next chapter the last of the phenomenological principles will be evoked. The suspended research hypothesis that were derived from the literature review will be de-suspended and a comparison will be made between the literature review findings and the protocols findings. At that stage a conclusion will be arrived at, that should be problematic (apply to the problem of investigation only but not to the entire population) and recommendations can be made for further future research.

CHAPTER NINE

9.0 Analysis of the Literature Review and the Protocol Findings

This chapter seeks to integrate the findings of the literature review on the concept of culture with the one on management practice. Its objective is to identify the areas of conflict, so that these can be resolved so as to enable organizations in the developing world to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. At present, these are retarded by a conflict between their own cultural values and the imported managerial practices. In the process of this analysis a summarised conception of management practice will be arrived at which is based on the Western value system which underlies the four management practice themes that were under investigation. This will be contrasted with the protocol findings based on the articulations of the Southern Sudanese Public Sector managers on these same four management practice themes to demonstrate the difference in perceptions. The origin of conflict will be illustrated, and a model will be developed that is mutually inclusive, accommodating both the cultural values system and the organizational interest. Suggestions will be made as to the desirable conditions under which the model can operate successfully and directions for future research will be proposed.

9.1 Culture and Management Practice

The key issue which this research investigated was presented in a statement of the problem in chapter one. Let us restate this question in the context of Southern Sudan cultural environment. What is the relationship between management practice and culture and do they conflict with each other? The answer to this question can be found in two sources. First in the study of sociology and second in the Behavioural School of management. The study of sociology shows us that

every man is a product of his culture, while the Behavioural School of
management defines management as the process of achieving a desired
group goal through co-operative effort. Seen thus, one is able to see
the relationship between culture and management practice. That
relationship is that management is a vital process in the achievement of
social and economic development of any society. Therefore, the Third
World developing societies need effective management to achieve their
social and economic development as Western industrialized countries have
done. The problem they encounter is that management is cultural bound.
The ideas, theories and techniques used by the industrialized West are
rejected by Third World cultural values, because of their own built in
cultural values that are alien to theirs. Because of the vastness of
the subject, the research selected four themes of management practice. A
literature review based on those selected themes was conducted and the
following hypothesis were suggested. These became the basis of the
study:

Hypothesis one was that there was a relationship between
the manager's culture and the way he perceived his
organizational objectives.

Hypothesis two was that there was a relationship between
the way a manager approached management of his organization
and his cultural background.

Hypothesis three was that there was a relationship between
the manager's culture and the kind of theories or
techniques that he used in the management of his
organization.

Hypothesis four was that there was a relationship between
management practice and cultural factors in the
achievement of organizational performance.

In this analysis we will attempt to test these hypotheses by comparing the Western oriented literature review findings underlying the four themes of management practice with those of the Southern Sudanese managers, derived from their articulations from the same. Hypothesis one was translated into card one, which addressed the issue of the managers' perceptions of organizational objectives in the management or administration of their organizations. This comparison is shown in Figure 9.1 which composed the five popular literature review findings to those of the Southern Sudanese managers.

Fig. 9.1 A Table Contrasting Five Popular Literature Review Findings to those of the Southern Sudanese Managers on their Perceptions of the Organizational Objectives.

No.	Western Managers' Five Popular Perceptions	Southern Sudanese Managers' Five Popular Perceptions
1	Mission	Participative Management
2	Strategic Management	Efficiency and Effectiveness
3	Motivation	Professionalism
4	Participation	Checks and Balance
5	Means-Ends process	Policing

Sources: Derived from the Literature Review of Western Managers Perception of What Organization's objectives means within their value system and the protocol of Southern Sudanese Managers on what they perceive organization's objectives within their value system.

In the above comparison, although organizational objectives are perceived similarly in both cultural contexts, there are marked differences in the emphasis placed upon them by the two cultures. In the Western context organizational objectives emphasise a missionary view which places heavy emphasis on the definition of the organization's

purpose for existence, where it intends to go and how it will conduct its business. In the Southern Sudanese context, organizational objectives are seen as an aspect of participative management, i.e. involving people in the affairs of their organizations. A possible explanation for the different emphasis lies in the two environments. In the Western environment there exists an optomistic view of life as advanced by Newman (1972). This is the 'master of destiny' viewpoint where a manager knows that he/she can influence the future. This was in contrast to the environment in the Southern Sudan were the view of life was not so optimistic. We saw the history of local government administration during the colonial period from 1889 to 1956 where the emphasis was heavily placed on the maintenance of law and order. We also saw the erosion of democracy during the seventeen year Civil War between the North and South which too made the participation of people in their own affairs impossible. Because of this blinkered view of life, people have tended to value participation in the affairs that matter in their own lives. That is why it does not come as a surprise that participative management was perceived by the Southern Sudanese managers as the prime objective of organizational objectives in the management or administration of their organizations.

In the Western context organizational objectives were also seen as enhancing strategic management, motivation, participation and as a means-end process. These interpretations of organizational objectives are greatly influenced by the cultural environment. Strategic management is in fact the translation of the missionary view into achievable objectives, and stating the means through which they would be achieved. Motivation is the creation of an atmosphere where the workforce is willingly able to achieve the defined organizational

objectives without being coerced by management. Participation is the implementation of the Western liberal democracy in the work environment. The means-end process is associated with the hierarchy of objectives, i.e. the achievement of a departmental objective being the same achievement of the overall organizational objective. Therefore, the essence that comes out of this comparison is that, the cultural environment of the manager greatly influenced his/her perception of the objectives of his/her organization.

In Figure 9.2 we will make a comparison of the literature review findings of the Western managers' perceptions of what influenced their approaches or styles of management in their organisations, with those of Southern Sudanese managers.

Fig. 9.2 Table Contrasting Five Popular Perceptions of Factors that Influence Managerial Styles or Approaches in Western Societies to those of Southern Sudan.

No.	Western Managers' Perceived Factors	Southern Sudanese Managers' Perceived Factors
1	Empirical	Situational
2	Interpersonal	Delegation of powers
3	Group Behaviour	Legislation
4	Cooperative System	Sale System
5	Socio-technical System	Representative System

Sources: Derived from the General Literature Review and the Protocol Findings.

In the Western society there is a long history of management of complex organizations and several styles or approaches that have been passed on through several generations of practitioners and scholars. These approaches have varied from place to place, from organization to organization and from manager to manager. However they tend to have a common cultural value system from which they all eminated.

In the literature review which was mainly Western oriented, it was found that there were several ways of approaching the management of an organization and these ways or styles were themselves rooted in some type of value system, idealogy or discipline. Kootz, O'Donnell and Weihrich (1980) identified such eleven ways. Luthams (1981) saw only three major dimensions, i.e. technical, conceptual and human; Massie (1971) appreciated different approaches, but advocated an integration of these approahes in order to achieve a balance view. Details of these discussions were presented in chapter four.

Within the Southern Sudan situation, there is a clear lack of such a long history. As respondent five pointed out, the history of government in the Southern Sudan is only under fifteen years old. In the African cultural environment in general, Damachi (1978) and Seddon (1985) have cited cultural difference as being responsible for the differences in the approaches or styles of management used in West to the ones emerging in Africa. Thus, it can be concluded that the styles or approaches to management or administration of an organization are influenced by the culture of the manager.

In Figure 9.3 we will compare the literature review findings based on the Western managers' perceptions of the use of theories and techniques in the management or administration of their organizations with those of the Southern Sudanese managers.

Fig. 9.3 A Table Contrasting the Five Popular Literature Review
          Findings to those of the Southern Sudanese Managers on the
          use of Theories and Techniques in the Management or
          Administration of an Organization.

No.	Western Managers' Five Popular Perception	Southern Sudanese Managers' Five Popular Perception
1	Value System	Situation
2	Situation	Supervision
3	Discipline	Politics
4	Rejection	Education
5	Integration	Judgement

Sources: Derived from the Literature Review and the Protocol Findings.

The literature review findings on the relationship between the culture of the manager and the theories and techniques used by that manager indicates that both are drawn from the same subjective culture. Therefore, it follows that a theory or a technique developed in a different cultural environment tends to be rejected when applied in another cultural environment. This rejection is like the rejection in the biological organism where the host biological organism rejects a foreign body that is transplanted into it. The rejection is a result of the host cultural environment rejecting the built in cultural assumptions from the cultural environment of origin. This argument has been the basis of the works of Hofstede (1980); Oberg, (1963);

Kiggundu, Jorgensen and Hafsi (1983) and several other authors cited in chapters three, four and five. In comparing the perceptions of the Southern Sudanese managers with those of the Western managers with regard to the factors that influence the use of a theory or a technique, there were a great many similarities. The Southern Sudanese managers identified the local situation as the most influential factor while the Western literature identified value system as the most popular factor. It follows from this that since the two environments are different their influential effect will tend to be different.

In Figure 9.4 we will illustrate a comparison of the five popular literature review findings to those of the Southern Sudanese managers on the factors that influence management in their organizations.

Fig. 9.4   Table Contrasting Five Popular Factors that Influence
           Management Environment in Western Societies to those
           of Southern Sudan.

No.	Five Popular Factors of Western Society	Five Popular Factors of The Southern Sudan
1	Master of destiny view	Politics
2	Beliefs in Independent Enterprise	Economics
3	Personnel recruitment based on merits	Education (lack of training)
4	Decision based on objective analysis	Poor Administration
5	Shared decisions	Lack of foresight

Sources: Derived from Literature Review and the Protocol Analysis
          Finding.

In this comparison the factors that influenced the management of an organization were found to be very diverse. The Western environment showed the optimistic view of life associated with the Newman's (1972) 'master of destiny' viewpoint and belief in the independence of the enterprise and its role as an instrument of social action. The Southern Sudan environment showed politics and economics as being the leading factors that influenced management or the administration of an organization. Given the political and economic stability of most of the Western industrialized countries, and the political and economic instability of the Sudan, it does not come as a surprise that these factors were identified. In the Southern Sudan environment other factors such as lack of trained personnel, poor administration, and the lack of foresight were also identified. These too are symptoms of an illiterate society, trained personnel are usually drawn from the trained manpower available in the society and the empirical data is provided by trained manpower. Because of the high illiteracy rate in the Southern Sudan trained personnel and empirical data are bound to be scarce. These differences too can be explained in the context of Hofstede's cultural maps. Most of the Third World countries belong to the opposite camp of the Western industrialized countries. (See Hofstede's studies in chapter three of this study).

Thus, it can be concluded from these comparisons that factors that influence the management of any organization management or administration are different in different environments. This proved that a relatonship does indeed exist between culture and management practice. Having established this relationship, a problematic generalization can be made that culture effects management practice. By problematic generalization is meant a generalization only to the phenomena or object

of investigation.

In the next section we will try to resolve the conflict of culture
and management practice.

9.2 Resolving Cultural Conflict in Management Practice

In attempting to resolve the conflict of culture and management
practice, it is only prudent that one gets to the root causes, by first
illustrating how it develops. We know from the literature review on the
concept of culture and its effects on management practice, that every
person is a product of his cultural upbringing and that culture is
acquired by the individual through his participation in the social
institutions of his society. This acquisition enables him to adopt
specific traditions and behaviour patterns specifically relevant to his
society. (Kroeber and Kluckhon 1953s; Singer 1961; Herskouit 1955;
Kroeber and Spence 1917 and Spiro 1956).

Because of the existence of several subjective value systems that
operate within one organizational environment, a conflict of values is
created by the different people interpreting, perceiving, and
interacting subjectively, i.e. each group of people with their own value
system perceive, interpret and interact according to their respective
systems. To enable us to resolve these conflicts, let us illustrate how
the traditional behaviour pattern of a society evolves and how it
affects the value system of the individual.

Lamont (1981) pointed out that there are three natural conditions
that set the limits to the kind of values a person can acquire. He
named these as the physical environment, man's own biology and his

psychological nature.   He further suggested that the content of a value

system is reached by a mutual process of adjustment,   i.e. a kind of a

balancing act,   between man himself and his environment and that these

take place at different levels as illustrated in Figure 9.5.

Fig. 9.5   Table showing the Levels of Adjustment in the Process of
           Evolution of the Traditional Behaviour Pattern

Natural Conditions	First Level of Adjustment	Second Level of Adjustment
Physical Environment	Inorganic	Mechanistic
Biological Nature	Organic	Internal adjustment to external stimuli
Psychological Nature	Self-conscious	Purposive or tele-logical

Sources: Developed from Lamont, W.D. 1981, Law and Moral Order,
           Aberdeen University Press, Aberdeen.

Lamont,   further argued that the contents of the traditional

behaviour patterns is either given or willed from generation to

generation by a process of imitation and assimilation. A traditional

behaviour pattern is said to be given when an individual is born into a

society with an integrated system of values.   In such circumstances he

cannot choose between any other available system.   For example, if he is

born Indian into an Indian society, the person is Indian and acquires an

Indian traditional behaviour pattern and Indian value system.   This

process is said to be given as a matter of information.   This means that

the contents of the behaviour pattern were passed from one generation to

generation as a matter of history.   The givers and the receivers believe

in the contents because they came from their ancestors, who in turn

received them from their ancestors, thus giving it the meaning of being

willed as Lamont observed:

> "To him it is given, but it can be given to him only because
> it has been 'willed' by his ancestors and evolved from beliefs
> and aspirations reaching back into the far unrecorded past."
> (Lamont 1981, p.5).

Therefore, it can be argued that conflict for the individual occurs at the point of cultural contact. This contact is defined as the meeting of two or more traditional behaviour patterns and is a result of the conflict between two or more value systems. It is the consequence of the different perceptions, interpretations and reactions to one object or phenomena. In an organizational environment this is translated into a conflict between different perceptions, interpretations and reactions to management practices, theories and techniques. Each individual manager or group of managers subjectively seeks to bring the differences together with varying degrees of success. Therefore, the solution to this conflict is finding a common base from which the differences emerged.

In the study of phenomenology in chapter six, we learnt of a common based consciousness that related one man's uniqueness to another man's uniqueness. This constituted a base from which multiple realities or subjective experience sprung. Hofstede also argued that universal mental programming was shared by all human beings. This commonality was illustrated by our example of the several individual's experiences of a table for which flatness of top and standing on a leg or legs was the shared experiences from which subjective views about a table sprung. Therefore, it is from that common based and shared view of organizations that we are going to start from in resolving conflict between culture and management practice.

Webber (1970), in her article Convergence or Divergence in Weinshall (1970) Culture and Management Selected Reading, pointed out the existence of two forces, the push-forces and the pull-forces. The push-forces achieve diversity or divergence by influencing management to respond in accordance to the local value system, while the pull-forces achieve uniformity by influencing management to act in a universal fashion as she observed:

> "by obeying laws of reason and science, men of varying cultural and idealogical positions presumably can agree on the best machine design or most desirable production system."
> (Webber 1970, p.41).

She found that technology, education and pragmatic philosophy were forces that tended to pull people towards uniformity and hence convergence, while culture, inertia (ethnocentism), time, stage of development, natural resources, and demographic forces tended to push people towards diversity and hence divergence. While these are difference with respect to the variables, the principle that certain forces can act as pull or push to influence people's perceptions and styles toward either a diversity or uniformity is highly associated to the commonality principles we found in the study of phenomenology.

Webber's study confirms Kiggundu, Jorgensen and Hafsi (1983) strong-fit, weak-fit concept. Their study of the use of administrative theory and practices in the developing countries found that those authors who investigated an organization's relationship with its environment in the developing countries were likely to find serious difficulties in getting the acceptance of Western ideas and concepts. They argued that Western ideas had what they called, a weak-fit, i.e. they did not fit well with most of the developing countries' ideas and concepts. This weak-fit was a result of the Western cultural

assumptions being rejected by the developing countries' people because they were alien to their culture. These same authors, when investigating technical matters in the developing countries' organizations, found what they called a strong-fit, i.e. that there was no conflict with the local value system. These findings confirmed Webber's (1970) argument about the neutrality of technology. This is because pure tehnology which seeks to improve living standards in the form of a machine design or production system does not have a built in cultural assumption. Hence, it can easily gain acceptance in any culture. Similarly, Hofstede (1984) highlighted the convergent aspects in universal mental programming which were shared by the entire human race. Therefore, Hofstede's universal mental programming, Webber's pull-forces which achieved convergence, and phenomenologically shared experience are in line with each other and can thus serve as the starting point for the resolution of conflict of culture and management practice. Taking these findings, one can relate them to Massie and Luytjes (1972) Dynamics of Social Relationships which were discussed earlier. These illustrated an integration of different societies A, B and C. In that illustration it was found that the three societies showed three levels of mental programming, same as in Hofstede (1984) and these were shown in figure 5.3 in chapter five. The dark spot represented the shared view by all the three societies; the light dark spot represented the collective views of AB, AC and BC respectively, while the white spots represented the level of uniqueness of the three societies.

This research therefore, argues that if Webber's concept of push and pull forces can be applied to Massie and Luytjes concept of dynamic social relationship. By reinforcing the pull-forces through a process

of social intervention, i.e. education and cultural enlightenment about
the danger of ethnocentrism, and all acts of push-forces. This social
intervention can be in the form of a special planned training programme
that should address itself to the problems caused by the conflict of
culture and management practices in the Public Service Organizations in
the Southern Sudan. For instance it could be designed to address itself
to the eliminaton of recruitment and promotion based on nepotism and
misplacement of talent in the Public Service Organizations of the
Southern Sudan (just to cite a few examples of the problems aired in the
Southern Sudan managers' protocols). The content of this programme can
take the format of Huczynski and Logan (1980) Management Training
Transfer Workshop, particularly their concept of "What is in it for me?"
but then asked in the context of the Public Service Organizations of the
Southern Sudan, e.g. (What is in it for organizations, if they left
recruitment and promotion based on nepotism?) The answer to this
question can be illustrated by using their benefit analysis which should
demonstrate the gains for the organizations for example if it opted for
recruitment and promotion based on the personal merits of the recruits.

Figure 9.6 A Chart Showing a Benefit Analysis Table.

Change for the Organization.	1.	Stop recruitment and promotion based on nepotism in the Southern Sudanese Public Service organizations.
	2.	Stop employment or transfer of employee to jobs for which they have no skills or talent.
Benefit to the Organization.	1.	Translation of organizational objectives into job related talents or skills, i.e. recruitment of employees with the organization's desired skills or talents.
	2.	Well placed talents or skills, i.e. right man in the right place.
The overall benefit to the society as a whole.	1.	Correction of social injustice in the society, i.e. where a privileged class always continues to improve its lot at the expense of the unprivileged.
	2.	Maximization of human resources in the society.

Source: Adopted from Huczynski and Logan (1980) Organizational Change Through Transfer Training Workshop, Leadership and Organization Development Journal, Vol. 1, No. 3, pp.25-31.

Part of the training programme can adopt such techniques like the Brain storming by confronting the the public service managers of the dangers of ethnocetrism and being made aware that cultural enlightenment has options that treat all valued judgement as equal. This can also include a message to those managers with concern for their relatives that the best way by which they can help them help themselves is to enable them acquire appropriate vocational talents. This would result in their acquisition of talent desired by the organizations and acquiring professional or vocational status, that should give them the freedom of movement and access to organisations of their choice. This too will theoretically result in an increase of the area of the shared views at

the expense of the level of uniqueness. This would mean an existence of social situation were there is more shared views among the three societies than those that divide them. This can be demonstrated in the following diagram:

Fig. 9.7 A Diagram Showing the Social Relationship Between the Three
Societies Before the Social Intervention.
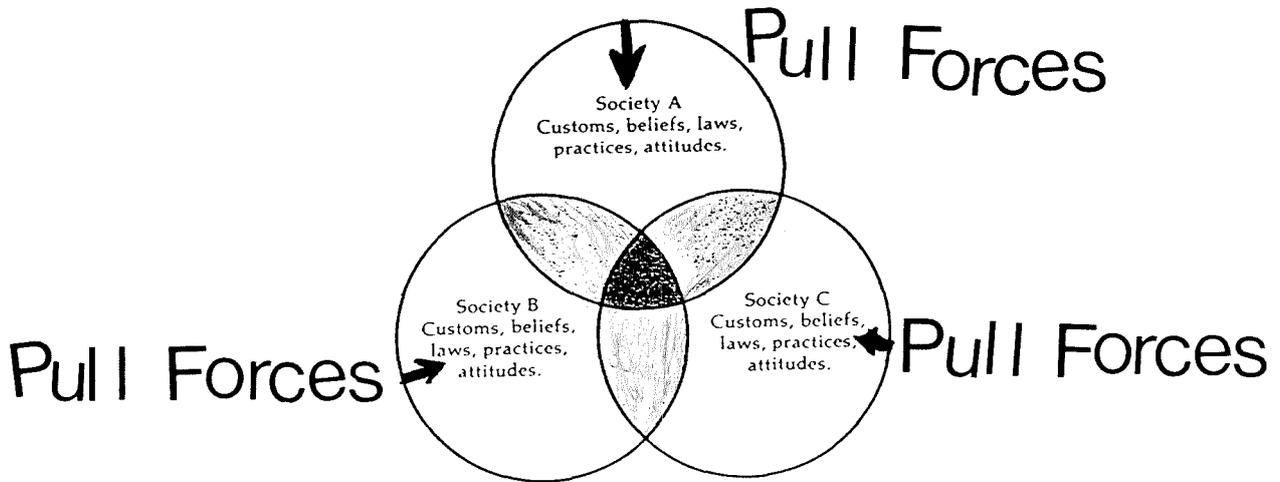
Sources: Derived from Massie and Luytjes (1972) Dynamics of Social
Relationships, in Massie and Luytjes (1972) Management in
an International Context, Harper Row Publishers, New York
and London, p.353.

Fig. 9.8 A Diagram Showing the Social Relationship Between the Three
Societies After the Social Intervention.
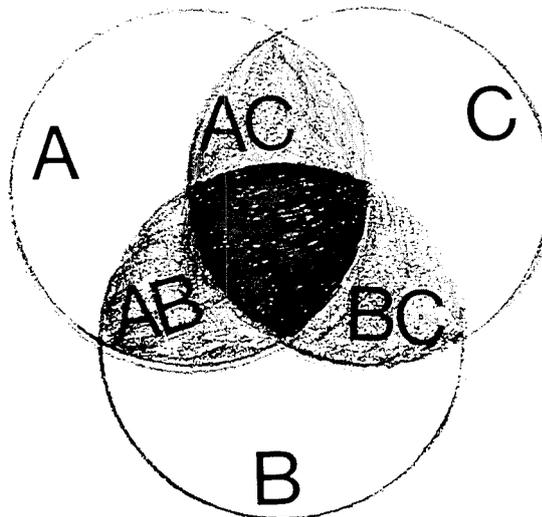
Sources: Derived from Massie and Luytjes (1972) Dynamics of Social
Relationships, in Massie and Luytjes (1972) Management in
an International Context, Harper Row Publishers, New York
and London.

Therefore, the argument for the resolution of conflict in cultural contacts is based on the reduction of the area of differences as illustrated in Massie and Luytjes model shown here. This can be contrasted with the total eliminaton strategy which implies the merger of cultures. This rarely happens in the real world. What tends to happen in practice as a result of two culture contacts is that the dominant culture influences the less dominant up to a point, but does not totally encompass it. Lamont (1981) observed that:

> "The immigrant culture penetrated and modified the indigenous one to a greater or less degree; and the degree to which an alien culture can be thus assimilated depends on the extent to which it is generally accepted as conducive to a better way of life". p.15.

A strategy for resolving the culture-management practice conflict is summarised in the mutually inclusive model. This model reflects both the local value system and the organizational interest. It is based upon Farmer and Richman's model for comparative management and economic progress as shown in figure 9.9 below.

Fig. 9.9 Table Showing the Mutually-Inclusive Model: Reflecting both Local Cultural Values Systems and Local Organisational Interest.

MANAGEMENT PRACTICE	MUTUALLY INCLUSIVE ASSUMPTIONS & BELIEFS	ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE
Organizational Objectives →	Perceived mutually by including in their perception the local value systems (absence of conflict between culture and management).	→ Nourishing, i.e. more likely to be positive because of elimination of conflict.

Approach and style of management	→	Mutually reflecting the local value system and organization's interest (lack of conflict).	→	Nourishing, i.e. more likely to be positive because of absence of conflicts.
Usage of theories and techniques in organization's management	→	Adoptation of mutually inclusive theories and techniques that reconcile the alien cultural assumption built into the theory and technique with the local value system.	→	Nourishing, i.e. more likely to be positive because of absence of conflict.
Factors that influence management of an organization	→	Resolve from within the cultural value system reflecting both values of the society and the organization's interest.	→	Nourishing, i.e. more likely to be positive because of elimination of conflict.

Nourishing positive
performance will
lead to positive
social and economic
progress for the
society

Sources: Developed from the study of cultural conflict with
organizational management, based on a revised Farmer
and Richman model.

Therefore, this research concludes that issues of cultural conflict with management practice can be resolved within the context of the convergence theory. This can be done by increasing the pull-forces, through the adoptation of education or training incorporating both technical, human and conceptual aspects. This will increase mutual understanding of culture values and enable managers to reconcile and perceive both local values system and management practice as mutually inclusive elements, that must remain mutually inclusive if an organization will achieve any significant progress.

9.3 Recommendations

In making the recommendations, two levels are recognized. First, is the general level or abstract theoretical level of the conflict of culture with management practice. Second, is the specific level of Southern Sudan environment and how these general level recommendations can be translated into Southern Sudan specific situations. Recommendations about the conflict of culture and management practice in the Southern Sudan cannot be made without reference to the macro-level of the problem, the North-South conflict, as Southern Sudan depends entirely on the decisions taken by the North. Because of this, a solution at the macro-level will permit a solution at the micro-level. The macro-level of the conflict in the Sudan is summed up by Legum reference of a classic example of a divided nation, by religion, ethnic kinship, region and history. What Legum (1965) failed to observe is the total lack of a Southern input in the Sudan national affairs, i.e. a total absence of Southern Sudanese in national institutions, where national decisions are made and executed, e.g. Foreign Service, National Ministries, Naional Corporations, National Banks, etc., just to mention a few. In fact, a case can be made that equates Sudanese nationalism to Northern tribalism as it is the Northerners that composed most of the Sudan national institutions and it is their subjective culture that is projected as national Sudanese culture.

In simplistic terms, a Pretoria-type segregation exists where citizens from the South are condemned to a secondary status in every aspect and only an ethnic handful in the North play the role of the big brother. Where only the second or third best is good for the small brother. In such circumstances, it is only crucial that something is done about this ethnocentric and racial prejudice that warrants a region

or segment of a region to monopolize a nation's decision making machinery and make itself the shareholders of the best and the rest of the country to qualify for the second or third best. Failure to resolve this institutionized discrimination legalizes injustice and inequality.

The research therefore ventures to make the following six recommendations reflecting the two levels mentioned above, of abstract theoretical and speific culture and organizational. In the second level to three sub-levels of cultural conflict are recognised, namely the group, subgroup and individual level, therefore the six recommendations can be tailored to any level.

(1)   That, in dealing with a complex subject of the nature of culture and management, one must recognise the difficulty of a total comprehension of the subject and therefore the lack of simple essay solutions that are subscribed to all situations. In fact one must sound a warning that whatever are the solutions they must be culture-organisation specific. This is what Smircich (1983) has called culture specific and organisational specific, i.e. the pairing of the culture aspects and organizational aspects and subscribing a mutually inclusive remedy that is within the cultural value system of the local society and the local organizational interest.

(2)   That an understanding of the level of cultural conflict is required in both cultural and organizatonal levels, i.e. as to whether the conflict is at the macro-level or micro-level in an organization's environment or at the group, subgroup or individual levels culturally.

(3)   That understanding of concepts of culture and organizational theory is required, to enable going down to the root causes as to how the

conflict is formed, so that the how of effect is understood properly, before solutions can be subscribed.

(4) That time variation of both culture and organizational concepts be recognised, i.e. what might have been culturally fashionable ten years ago may not necessarily be now. Likewise, what was organizationally reasonable then may not be now.

(5) That social forces that tend to generate diversity be recognised from those that tend to generate uniformity.

(6) That pull forces or forces that tend to generate uniformity be maximised, so as to reduce ethnocentrism and increase harmony.

9.4 Future Research Directions

This research does not claim to have answered all the questions about culture-management related issues in the Southern Sudan organizaional environment. In fact it has to admit having focused narrowly on the conflict of culture and management practices in the Public Service organizations of Southern Sudan. As the use of the phenomenologically-based problematic generalization had indicated in the conclusion of this last chapter, the protocol findings are not an end in themselves, but can be used in a further investigation for a wider issue. For example our protocol findings can be used in an investigation to establish a management environment in the Southern Sudan, i.e. in the identification of cultural ethos that enhances or inhibits management practices in that environment.

Perhaps a future culture-management related investigation in the Southern Sudan can examine the effects of subcultures within the Southern Sudan with an aim to establishing their views of management generally or their views on specific management practice themes.

A future research into culture-management related investigations should recommend the use of the phenomenologically-based research approach. This is because of this methodology ability to generate data from the actor's point of view and for its mocroscopic analysis that puts th observer in close touch with the subjective experience of the actor he/she is observing.

APPENDIX ONE : SAMPLE OF THE LETTER THAT WAS SENT TO THE

PILOT SURVEY RESPONDENTS AND THE PILOT

TEST QUESTIONNAIRE.

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW

DEPARTMENT OF
MANAGEMENT STUDIES
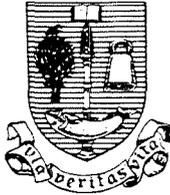
25 BUTE GARDENS

GLASGOW, G12 8RT
Tel. STD 041-339 8855

Extension

14th July 1983

Pilot Test Survey

Dear Participant:

This is a pilot test survey for a field work in the Sudan. You are
requested to respond as a manager in the Public Sector organization.
You respond as you understand it, certain terms have been defined in
the glossary at the end of the questionnaire. Your honest opinion
will help us to detect misleading and ambiguous questions, which we
can adjust accordingly. Any other criticism of the questionnaire is
also welcomed. You may use the back of the questionnaire or additional
paper as you wish.

Your time and patience used in going through this questionnaire is
highly appreciated by the author, and will accordingly be acknowledged
as a helpful contribution to this research.

After completion please enclose it in the self address and stamped
envelope and post it to me.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely

Andrew M. Madut

MANAGER'S POSITION. EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATIONAL RELEVANCE

1. a) Title.................. b) Grade or Scale............

2. Age...

3. Number of years in the present job......................

4. Number of years with Southern Regional Government......

5. Number of years with Sudan Public Service..............

6. Educational level completed on first appointment to the

    Public Service..

7. Educational level completed while in the Public

    Service...

8. Number of years of training in the present job.........

9. Number of years of training elsewhere before joining

    Public Service..

10. Relevance of your training to your present job.........

    ....

11. Relevance of your training to the Public Service.......

    ....

12. Relevance of your formal education to your present

    job...

13. Relevance of your formal education to the Public

    Service...

14. Membership of: (a) Professional Association...........

                    (b) Trade Union.......................

15. Number of hours work per day..........................

16. Effect of your mistake on: (a) Whole organization......

                               (b) Your department........

                               (c) Your unit..............

17. Number of subordinates reporting to you directly........

18. Are these subordinates reporting to you

             (a)   Too many...........................

             (b)   Too few............................

             (c)   Others.............................

19. Number of subordinates under your overall

supervision...

20. Number of subordinates you recommend to report to one

person or position.......................................

21. To what degree has the following been effective in the

discharge of your duties at your present job

        (a) Your formal education.......................

        (b) Your experience............................

22. To what extent have these been effective in the

discharge of your public service responsibilities

        (a) Your formal education.......................

        (b) Your experience............................

23. To what extent has your formal education been useful

in setting realistic and attainable objectives for

your present job......................................

24. To what extent has your experience been useful in

setting realistic and attainable objectives for your

your present job......................................

25. To what extent has your formal education and your

experience been useful in setting realistic and

attainable objectives for your Public Service

responsibilities (a) Formal education...................

             (b) Experience........................

273

OFFICIAL USE

26. In the discharge of your present duties which one

would you rank as first, your formal education or your

experience (a) First...................................

              (b) Second..................................

27. In the discharge of your public responsibilities which

one would you rank as first, your formal education or

your experience (a) First........(b) Second............

28. Any additional comments you would like to make in

regard to effect of formal education, and experience

in setting realistic and attainable objectives in a

Public Sector of the Southern Sudan....................

....

....

....

....

UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPTS OF MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS

1. What do you understand by the concepts of managerial

   effectiveness?...

   ....

2. Is this a realistic concept?...............................

   ....

3. Do you think this concept can work in a third world

   environment?..

   ....

4. Can this concept be translated into a workable

   relationship?...

   ....

5. Can this concept be applied in the Sudan environment

   in general and the Southern Sudan environment in

   particular?...

   ....

6. Is it important for any organization to have

   objectives?...

   ....

7. Is it important that these objectives are known by

   every employee of that organization?..................

   ....

8. Should every employee of the organization be involved

   and committed to the organization's objectives?........

   ....

9. How important is a team commitment in an

   organization?...

   ....

10. Any additional comments you would like to make in
    regard to the concept of managerial effectiveness, its
    validity and applicability in a public sector manage-
    ment of the Southern Sudan?............................
    ....
    ....

MANAGERS' PARTICIPATION IN THE DEFINITION OF OUTPUT REQUIREMENT

OFFICIAL USE

1. What do you understand by the concept of output

   requirement?..

   ....

2. Should an organization have output requirements?.......

   ....

3. Should output requirements be defined for:

   (a) Whole organization...............................

   (b) Departments or units only........................

   (c) Individual only..................................

4. Should all managers participate in the definition

   of output requirement?...............................

   ....

5. Is it important that all managers of the organization

   participate in the definition of output requirments

   for their organization?..............................

   ....

6. Should output requirement be co-ordinated for:

   (a) Whole organization...............................

   (b) Departments of the organization..................

   (c) Individuals working in the organization..........

7. Is co-operation important in the definition of ouput

   requirement?...

   ....

8. What is the importance of output requirement for the

   organization?..

   ....

277

OFFICIAL USE

9. Why is co-operation and co-ordination important in the
   definition of output requirement for an organization?..
   ....

10. Any additional comments you like to make in regard to
    managers' participation in the definition of output
    requirements for their organizations in the Public
    Sector Management of the Southern Sudan?...............
    ....
    ....

MANAGERS' UNDERSTANDING OF THEIR ORGANIZATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

OFFICIAL USE

1. Should managers know their internal and external

   environments?......................................

   ....

2. To what extent do they have to know these environ-

   ments?...

   ....

3. Is it important that they know these environments?.....

   ....

4. How much planning effort should be put into encouter-

   ing environmental factors?..........................

   ....

5. Should every organization have a contingency plan?.....

   ....

6. Should organizations leave environmental factors to

   chances?..

   ....

7. Should managers participate in plans to encounter

   environmental factors?...............................

   ....

8. Is it important that managers participate in plans to

   encounter environmental factors?.....................

   ....

9. What kind of input should managers have in plans to

   encounter environmental factors?.....................

   ....

10. Any additional comments you would like to make in

    regard to managers' understanding of their organiz-

    ational internal and external environments and managers

    participation in plans to encounter them, in the Public

    Sector management of the Southern Sudan.................

    ....

    ....

MANAGER'S CONCEPT OF A GOOD WORKING RELATIONSHIP?

1. What is your concept of a good working relationship in

   an organization?..

   ....

2. Should managers and subordinates know how they fit into

   the organization hierarchy?.............................

   ....

3. Is it important that they know how they fit into the

   organization's hierarchy?...............................

   ....

4. Do managers and subordinates have to know what is

   expected of them by the organization?...................

   ....

5. Should managers and subordinates have deadlines for

   every output requirement that is expected of them by

   the organization?.......................................

   ....

6. Is it important for an organization to have deadlines

   for every output requirement?...........................

   ....

7. What is your concept of a grievance?...................

   ....

8. Should organizations have grievance procedures?........

   ....

9. What is the importance of a grievance procedure in an

   organization?...

   ....

10. Should managers and subordinates be well prepared for

    responsibilities in the organization?...................

    ....

11. What is the labour turnover in your organization?......

    ....

12. Any additional comments you would like to make in

    regard to managers' concepts of a good working

    relationship in the Public Service organizations in the

    Southern Sudan?...

    ....

    ....

MANAGER'S PARTICIPATION IN THE POLICY FORMULATION

1. How is policy formulated in your organization?.........

....

2. Should all the managers be involved in the policy

   formulation?.......................................

   ....

3. Is it important that they participate in the policy

   formulation?.......................................

   ....

4. Do they always have an input in the policy

   formulation?.......................................

   ....

5. What is the impact of their input in the process of

   policy formulation?.................................

   ....

6. Are managers in your organization willing to

   participate?.......................................

   ....

7. Are the policies that are jointly formulated more

   acceptable to the managers than those that are

   imposed from above?.................................

   ....

8. Is there more commitment on the part of the managers

   to the policies that are jointly formulated than to the

   one that is imposed from above?.........................

   ....

9. Do you get more results from the jointly formulated

   policies than from those imposed from above?...........

   ....

10. Any comments you would like to make in regard to the

    managers participation in the policy formulation

    process in the Public Sector management of the

    Southern Sudan......................................

    ....

    ....

MANAGER'S PARTICIPATION IN THE PROCESS OF POLICY ARTICULATION

1. How are policies articulated in your organization?.....

   ....

2. Do all managers participate in the process of policy

   articulation in your organization?......................

   ....

3. Is it important that all managers do participate in

   the process of policy articulation?...................

   ....

4. Are policies in your organization express in a language

   and terms that are understood by all subordinates at

   all levels?..

   ....

5. Are there always any ambiguities in the policy

   statement?...

   ....

6. Is the rationale of every policy explained to all

   the managers?..

   ....

7. What is the impact of their input in the process of

   policy articulation in the organization?..............

   ....

8. Do you get more results from the policies that have

   been jointly articulated than from policies that are

   articulated from above?...................................

   ....

9. What additional comments would you like to make in

   regard to the process of policy articulation and

   managers participation in this process in the public

   sector management of the Southern Sudan?................

   ....

   ....

MANAGER'S PARTICIPATION IN THE PROCESS OF POLICY EXECUTION

OFFICIAL USE

1. How are policies executed in your organization?........

   ....

2. Are ways and means of executing a policy known to all

   managers in your organization?............................

   ....

3. Do all managers of your organization participate in the

   definition of ways and means by which policies are

   executed?..

   ....

4. Do these managers have an input in the process of

   policy execution in your organization?..................

   ....

5. What is the impact of their input in the process of

   policy execution?..

   ....

6. Are there always any ambiguities in the process of

   policy execution in your organization?..................

   ....

7. What is the importance of all managers participation

   in the process of policy execution?.....................

   ....

8. Do you get more results from the policy execution

   process that are jointly defined than from those that

   are imposed from above?.................................

   ....

9. Are there reasons offered as to why policy execution

   process is executed the way it is in your

   organization?......................................

   ....

10. What additional comments would you like to make about

    the process of policy execution in your organization

    and the managers participation in this process in the

    public sector management of the Southern Sudan?........

    ....

    ....

MANAGER'S PARTICIPATION IN THE PROCESS OF POLICY EVALUATION

1. How are policies evaluated in your organization?......

    ....

2. Do all managers in your organization all participate

    in the process of policy evaluation?...................

    ....

3. Do all the managers always have an input in the

    process of policy evaluation?.........................

    ....

4. What is the impact of their input in the process of

    policy evaluation in your organization?...............

    ....

5. Are there any criterion use in the process of policy

    evaluation in your organization?......................

    ....

6. Are these accepted by all the managers as valid

    criterions?..

7. Are these criterions known by all the managers in

    the organization?.....................................

    ....

8. What is the importance of all the managers

    participating in the policy evaluation process in the

    organization?..

    ....

289

9. Do you get more results from the process of policy

    evaluation that are jointly defined than from those

    that are imposed from above?...........................

    ....

10. What additional comments would you like to make about

    the process of policy evaluation and the managers

    participation in this process?.........................

    ....

    ....

GLOSSARY OF TERMS USED IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Formal education = School education.

2. Educational level = Stages in the educational ladder, e.g. Primary, Intermediate, College or University, etc.

3. Training = Education geared towards better performance.

4. Subordinates = Persons who report to persons or positions in the organizational set up.

5. Impact = Ramification or felt effect.

6. Ambiguities = Doubtfulness of meaning or interpretations or capable of a lot of meaning.

7. Managerial effectiveness = The extent to which a manager achieves his output requirements for his position.

8. Output requirements = Targets or tasks identified to be produced within a specific time.

9. Organizational environment = The immediate environment that is capable of influencing the organization's behavior which can either be from within called internal environment or outside called external environment.

10. Subordinate turnover = Labour turnover.

11. Grievance = A complaint presented to management.

12. Grievance procedure = Process of handling grievances in an organization.

13. Policy formulation = The process by which a policy is formed.

14. Policy articulation = The process by which a policy is stated.

15. Policy execution = The process by which a policy is implemented.

16. Policy evaluation = The process by which a policy is analysed.

17. Rationale = The principle reasons for an act or the motive.

18. Criterion = Standard of judging or measure.
*

---

*Note that these definitions are in accordance to management usage and may not necessarily be the every day English usage.

APPENDIX TWO: SAMPLE OF THE LETTER TO THE RESEARCH SELECTED

RESPONDENTS AND THE SCHEDULE INTERVIEW PROFILE

QUESTIONNAIRE.

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW

DEPARTMENT OF
MANAGEMENT STUDIES

25 BUTE GARDENS

GLASGOW, G12 8RT
Tel. STD 041-339 8855

Extension

30th May 1984

Dear Respondent:

This research is undertaking a project concerned with Public Sector
management in the Southern Sudan. You have been selected to
participate in this interview because it is the researcher's belief
that you will be able to give useful information that will help the
research.

You can rest assured that your participation will not be revealed
to anyone else nor your views attributed to your department.
Information you give will be treated in confidence, and used only as
statistical data for the research purpose.

Your contribution to this research will be highly appreciated, as it
is not only a contribution to this research but also to furthering
of understanding of organizational problems in the Southern Sudan.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely

Andrew M. Madut
Research Student
University of Glasgow

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES

25 BUTE GARDENS

GLASGOW G12 8RT

SCHEDULE INTERVIEW

POSITION, EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATIONAL PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS

1. What is your present title and grade in your organization?

    (a) Title........................ (b) Grade....................

2. How many subordinates are under your overall control?

    No..............

3. How many subordinates report to you directly or your position?

    No..............

4. Do you regard the number of subordinates reporting to you or

    your position in question three too many or too few?

    (a) Too many................ (b) Too few................

5. Can you give reasons for your choice in question four?

    ....

    ....

    ....

6. How many subordinates would you recommend to report to one

    person or position?

    No..................

7. How many years have you had on your present post? No.......

8. How many years have you had with the Southern Regional

    Government?   No............

9. How many years in total have you had with the Sudan Public

    Service?   No............

10. What Region, Province and Area Coiuncil are you originally

from in Southern Sudan?

(a) Region.....................

(b) Province...................

(c) Area Council..............

11. How old are you?   Age.......

12. What level of education did you complete when you first

joined the Public Service? Level of education.................

13. What level of education did you complete while in the Public

Service?

Level of education.............................

14. How many years of job related training have you had on your

present job?

No...................

15. How many years of training have you had elsewhere before you

joined the Public Service?   No................

Questions 16, 17, 18 and 19 are on cards, the respondent is requested to

talk on the topic on the card and the talk will be taped.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abdel Rahim, Muddathir. 1969 Imperialism and Nationalism in the Sudan, Oxford University Press, London.

Abelson, Robert P., et al. 1968 Theories of Cognitive Consistency, A Sources Book. Rand McNally Co. Chicago.

Abubaker, Gafar. S., 1979, Rural Participation in Programme Phases: A Case Study of Resettlement and Rural Development of Khashim-el-Girba (New Halfa) Project 1969-1976, Democratic Republic of the Sudan. D.P.A. Dissertation, State University of New York, Albany.

Abu Sin, Ahman, I., 1968. The Development of Civil Service in the Republic of Sudan 1899-1961, Institute of Public Administration, Khartoum.

Adedeji, Adebayo and Baker Colins (ed) 1974 Education and Research in Public Administration in Africa, Hutcheson Press, London.

Adedeji, Adebayo. 1974, Developing Research on African Administration; Some Methodological Issues, East African Literature Bureau, Nairobi, Kampala and Dar el Salaam.

Adedeji, Adebayo, 1969, Problems and Techniques of Administrative Training in Africa, Ibadan University of Ife Press, Nigeria.

Adelman, Irma and Marrise, C., 1973, Economic Growth and Social Equity in Developing Countries, Stanford University Press, California.

Adiar, John, 1973, Action Centred Leadership, McGraw-Hill Book Company (UK) Ltd., London.

Adorno, Theodor, W., et al., 1969, The Positivist Dispute in German Sociology, Heinemann, London.

Adu, A.I., 1969, The Civil Services in Commonwealth Africa, Development

and Transition, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., Ruskin House, Museum Street, London.

Adu, A.I., 1965, The Civil Service in New African States, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., Ruskin House, Museum Street, London.

Agassi, Joseph, 1977, Towards a Rational Philosophical Anthropology, Martin Nijhoff, The Hague.

Aguda, Oluwadare, 1973, Arabism and Pan Africanism in the Sudanese Politics, Journal of Modern African Studies, Vol. 2, p.117.

Ahmad, Abd-al Ghoffar, Muhammad, 1974, Shaskhs and Followers: Political Struggle in Ruja-a-All-Hoi, Khartoum University Press, Khartoum.

Ahmed, Rafia, Hassan, 1980, Central Personnel Growth in Expenditure and Size of the Sudanese Government 1955/56 - 1976/77, Ph.D. Thesis, Claremont Graduate School.

Alassam, Mukhtar, 1983, Regional Government in the Sudan, Public Administration and Development, Vol. 3, April-June, pp.111-120.

Alderfer, Harold, E., 1967, Public Administration in Newer Nations, Frederick A. Praeger Inc., New York.

Alier, A., 1973, The Southern Sudan Question, in Wai, 1973, The Southern Sudan, The Problem of National Integration, Frank Cass, London.

Ali, Mohamed, A. Rahman, 1974, Government Expenditure and Economic Development, A Case Study of the Sudan, Khartoum University Press, Khartoum.

Akolawin, Natale, O., 1964, Islamic and Customary Law in the Sudan: Problems of Today and Tomorrow: In Fadl, Hassan (ed.) 1964, Sudan in Africa, University of Khartoum, Khartoum.

Akpan, Ntieyang, W., 1982, Public Administration in Nigeria, Longman

Nigeria Ltd., Ibadan.

Ansley, Edgar, 1969, Staff Reporting and Staff Development, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London.

Ansoff, H. Igor, 1979, Strategic Management, The Macmillan Press Ltd., London.

Apter, E.O., 1961, The Political Kingdom in Uganda; A Study in Bureaucratic Nationalism, Princeton University Press, Princeton.

Argenti, John, 1972, A Management System for the Society, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., and Ruskin House Museum, London.

Argenti, John, 1969, Management Techniques, A Practical Guide, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., and Ruskin House Museum, London.

Arkell, A.J., 1955, A History of the Sudan, from Earlier Times to 1821, University of London, the Athlone Press, London.

Argyris, Chris, 1982, Reasoning, Learning and Action: Individual and Organisation, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, Washington and London.

Armstrong, Sir W., 1970, The Role and Character of the Civil Service: The Fifth Annual Lecture under the Thanks Offering to Britain Fund, June 1970, British Academy, CSJ.Arm.

Armstrong, Sir W., 1971, Personnel Management in Civil Service: A Speech given at the Institute of Personnel Management, 23rd October 1971, HMSO for C5D, CSJ/ISA.

Asad, Tanya (ed) 1964, Training for Public Service in the Sudan, Institute of Public Administration, Khartoum.

Ashton, David, 1984, Cultural Differences: Implications for Management Development, Management Education and Development, Vol. 15, pt.i; pp.5-13.

Atkinson, M., 1972, A Precise Phenomenology for the General Scholar, Journal of General Education, Vol. 23, pp.261-297.

Axline, Larry L., 1981, The Hard Impact of the Soft Skills of Management, Leadership and Organisational Development, Vol. 2, No. 4, pp.17-21.

Babbies, Earl R., 1973, Survey Research Method, Wadsworth Publishing Company Inc., Belmont, California.

Badal, R.K., 1977, British Administration in the Southern Sudan, Ph.D. Dissertation, School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London.

Baker, Earnest, 1945, Public Service in Western Europe, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Barratt, Alan, 1980, Have You an Intervention Strategy? Leadership and Organizational Development, Vol. 2, pp.29-36.

Barnett, Tony, 1977, The Gezira Scheme: An Illusion of Development, Frank Cass.

Barnet, R. and Muller, R., 1974, A Reporter at Large (Multi-national Corporations 1), The New Yorker, December, New York.

Barish, Norman and Verhulst, Michael, 1965, Management Science in Emerging Countries, Pergamon Press, Oxford and London.

Bashir, Ahmed, E., 1974, Confrontation Across the Sudd: Southern Sudan's Struggle for Freedom 1839-1955 Ph.D. Dissertation, Howard University, Dashington, D.C.

Bashir, I., 1976, Civil Service Reforms in Lebanon, Arab Development Institute, Beirut.

Battersby, Albert, 1970, Network Analysis for Planning and Scheduling, Macmillan and Co. Ltd., London.

Bauer, Raymond, A., and Gergen, Kenneth J., 1968, The Study of Policy Formation, The Free Press, New York and London.

Baumann, Zygmant, 1978, Hermeneatics and Social Science: Approaches to Understanding, Hutchinson, London.

Bechtold, Peter K., 1976, Politics in the Sudan, Parliamentary and Military Rule in an Emerging African Nation, Praeger Publishers, New York, Washington and London.

Bedeian, Arthur G. and Ghueck, William F., 1983, Management 3rd (ed) The Dryden Press, Chicago, New York, Philadelphia and London.

Bell, Colin and Newby, Howard, 1977, Doing Sociological Research, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., Boston and London.

Bell, D., 1974, The Coming of Post Industrial Society, Heinemann, London.

Bendor, Samuel, J., 1975, Language and Education in the Southern Sudan, Summer Institute of Linguistics, Juba, Sudan.

Benedict, Ruth, 1934, Patterns of Culture, Houghton, Mifftin, Boston, USA.

Bennett, Roger, 1981, Managing Personnel and Performance, An Alternative Approach, Business Books Ltd., London.

Berger, Monroe, 1964, The Arab World Today, Doubleday and Company Inc. New York.

Berger, Monroe, 1957, Bureaucracy and Society in Modern Egypt: A Study of Higher Civil Service, Princeton University Press, Princeton.

Berridge, William H., et. al., 1962, The Development of Civil Service, HMSO, London.

Berry, J.W., 1979, Culture and Cognitive Style, in Tharp, R.G. and Ciborwski, T.J. (eds.) Perspectives on Cross-Cultural Psychology, Academic Press, New York.

Berry, J.W., 1980, Social and Cultural Change, in Berry, J.W. and Triadis, H.C., (eds.) Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology, Vol. 2, Methodology, Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Beshai, Abel Amin, 1976, Export Performance and Economic Development in the Sudan 1900-1967, Ithaca Press, Middle East Centre and St. Anthony's College, Oxford, London.

Beshir, Mohamed Omer, 1968, The Southern Sudan: Background to Conflict, C. Horst and Co., London.

Bhagat, Rabi, S. and McQuoid, Sara J., 1982, Role of Subjective Culture in Organization's Review and Direction for Future Research, Journal of Applied Psychology, October 1982 pp.653-685.

Bidney, David, 1953, Theoretical Anthropology, Columbia University Press, New York.

Blau, Peter W., 1956, The Dynamics of Bureaucracy, Chicago University Press, Chicago.

Blau, Peter W., 1962, Bureaucracy in Modern Society, Random House Inc., New York.

Blau, Peter W., and Scott, Richard W., 1972, Formal Organization, Chandler Publishing Company, San Fransisco.

Blake, Robert and Mouton, Jane, 1978, The New Managerial Grid, Gulf Publishing Company Book Division, Houston, London.

Blumefeld, W.E. and Leidy, T.E., 1969, Effectiveness of Goal Setting as a Management Device, Research Note, Psychological Report, Vol. 24, p.24.

Blumer, Herbert, 1962, Society as Symbolic Interaction in Arnold Rose (ed.) Human Behavior and Social Process, Houghton Muffin, Boston.

Boas, Franz, 1966, Race, Language and Culture, The Free Press, New York.

Boot, R. and Reynolds, M., 1984, Issues in Practice, Management Education and Development, Vol. 15, Pt. 2, pp.79-82.

Borme, Alfred, 1948, Economic Development of the Middle East, Kegan Paul, Trench Trubuar and Co. Ltd., London.

Brauner, Ted R. and Hodgson, Frank Y., 1965, Overseas Management, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York and London.

British Association for the Advancement of Science, 1971, Conflicts in Policy Objectives, Papers presented to Section F (Economics) at 1970 Annual Meeting, Basil Blackwell, Oxford.

British Association for the Advancement of Science 1974, Does Research Threaten Privacy or Does Privacy Threaten Research? Report of Study Group, British Association Publication, London.

Brooms, Henri and Galmberg, Herrick, 1983, Communication to Self in Organisations and Culture, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 28 No. 3, September 1983, pp.482-495.

Browei, Philip, Chol, 1978, Educational Development in the Southern Sudan During the British Administration, Masters Thesis, University of Khartoum.

Brown, David, 1982, Who Are the Tribalist, Social Pluralism and
    Political Ideology in Ghana, African Affairs, Journal of the
    Royal African Society, Vol. 81, No. 322, January 1982, pp.37-
    64.

Brown, J.A., 1972, The Civil Service College, An Analysis of Some
    Aspects of its Works, Public Administration Bulletin,
    December 1972, pp.28-33.

Brown, John, 1979, Management in Central and Local Government,
    Pitman Publishing Ltd., London.

Brown, Roger, Glenn, 1970, Fashoda Reconsidered: The Impact of Domestic
    Politics on French Policy in Africa 1893-1898, The Johns
    Hopkins Press, Baltimore and London.

Buck, Vernon E., 1972, Working Under Pressure, Staples Press, London.

Bulmer, Martin, 1982, The Uses of Social Research - Social Investigation
    in Public Policy-making, George Allen and Unwin, London.

Bulmer, Martin, 1983, Sociological Research Methods, An Introduction,
    The Macmillan Press Ltd., London.

Bura, Abubakr, A., 1982, Some Managerial Obstacles to Development in the
    Third World Countries, Arab Journal of Administration -
    Administrative Economic and Social Development, April 1982.

Burgoyne, J.G. and Hodgson, V., 1982, "An Experiential Approach to
    Understanding Managerial Action" A paper presented at the
    Seventh Biannial Conference in Leadership and Managerial
    Behaviour, Oxford.

Burns, James, Macgregor, 1978, Leadership, Harper and Row Publishers,
    New York, Hagerstown, San Fransisco and London.

Bussons, R., Hussein, E., Schermerhorn, J. and Wilson H., 1984, Integrated Management-Organisation Development in Developing Country: A Case Study. Journal of Management Development, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp.3-15.

Byars, Lloyd L., 1984, Strategic Management: Planning and Implementation, Concepts and Cases, Harper and Row, Publishers, New York and London.

Cairneror, Frances, 1981, Changing Perception of Economic Policy, Essays in Honour of the Seventieth Birthday of Sir Alex Cairneror Methuen, London and New York.

Caiden, Gerald E., 1971, The Dynamics of Public Administration, Holt, Reinhart and Winston, New York.

Caiden, Gerald E., 1969, The Administrative Reform, Aldene, Chicago.

Caiden, Gerald E., 1967, The Commonwealth Bureaucracy, Melbourne University Press, Carlton.

Caldwell, Lynton, 1962, Improving the Public Service Through training. Agency for International Development, Washington, D.C.

Campbell, D.T. and Stanley, J., 1966, Experimental and Quasi-experimental Design for Research, Rand-McNally, Chicago.

Campbell, John et al., 1970, Management Behaviour, Performance and Effectiveness, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

Casterettle, Edward C. and Friedman, Morton P. (ed.) 1974, Handbook of Perception, Vol. 1, Historical and Philosophical Roots of Perception, Academic Press, New York and London.

Casterettle, Edward C. and Friedman, Morton P. (ed.) 1974, Vol. 2, Psychological Judgement and Measurement, Academic Press, New York and London.

Casterettle, Edward C. and Friedman, Morton P. (ed.) 1974, Biology of Perception System, Academic Press, New York and London.

CBI, 1977, Report to the British Companies with Interest in the Sudan, CBI, London.

Chamberlain, J.C., 1974, Phenomenological Methodology and Understanding: In D.E. Denton (ed.) Existentialism and Phenomenology in Education, New York Teachers College Press, pp.119-138.

Chapman, R.A., and Dunsire, A., 1971, Style in administration: Readings in British Public Administration, Allen Unwin Ltd., London.

Cherns, Albert B., et. al. (1972), Social Science and Government, Tavistock Publications, London.

Child, John, 1981, International Management, The Challenge of Cross-Cultural Inquiry, Leadership and Organization Development Journal, Vol. No. 1, February 1981, pp.2-5.

Child, John, 1977, Organisation: A Guide to Problem and Practice, Harper and Row Publishers, London.

Child, John, 1973, Man and Organization: The Search for Explanations and Social Relevance, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London.

Child, John, 1969, British Management Thought, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., and Ruskin House Museum, London.

Cicburce, Aaron, V., 1964, Method and Measurement in Sociology, The Free Press, New York and London.

Clarke, R., 1971, New Trends in Government Civil Service College Studies, No. 1, HMSO.

Clements, R.V., 1958, Managers: A Study of their Careers in Industry, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London.

Collins, Robert O., 1975, The Southern Sudan in Historical Perspective, The Shiloah Center for Middle Eastern and African Studies, University of Tel-Aviv, Student Association, Tel-Aviv.

Collins, Robert O., 1972, Land Beyond the Rivers, The Southern Sudan 1898-1918, Yale University Press, New Haven and London.

Collins, Robert O., 1983, Shadows in the Grass, Britain in the Southern Sudan 1918-1956, Yale University Press, New Haven and London.

Cooper, C. and Alexander S. (ed.) 1972, Economic Development in Middle East, American Elzevier Publishing Company Inc., New York.

Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1979, Commonwealth Law Bulletin, 1980, p.273.

Cromin, Anna and Minett, John, 1980, Cultural Collusions, Oxford Polytechnic, Faculty of Agriculture Planning and Estate Management, Oxford.

Crozier, Michael, 1964, The Bureaucratic Phenomenon, Tavistock Publications, London.

Dackey, Norman, and Helmer, Olaf, 1963, An Experimental Application of the Delphi Method to the Use of Expert, Management Science, Vol. IX, No. 3, April, 1963.

Damachi, Ukandi G., 1978, Theories of Management and the Executive in Developing World, The Macmillan Press Ltd., London.

Damachi, Ukandi G., 1973, Social Changes and Economic Development in Nigeria, Praeger Publishers, New York, Washington and London.

Davies, J. and Easterby-Smith, M., 1984, Learning and Developing from Management Work Experiences, Journal of Management Studies, Vol. 21, No. 2, pp.169-184.

Deal, Terrence E., and Kennedy, Allan A., 1982, Corporate Culture, Addison-Wesley, Reading, Mass.

Dean, M., 1969, The Fulton Report for Accountable Management in Civil Service, Public Administration, Spring 1969, pp.49-63.

Deng, Francis, Mading, 1982, The Recollections of Babo Nimier, Ithaca Press, London.

Deng, Francis, Mading, 1980, Dinka and their Songs, Oxford Library of African Literature, Oxford.

Deng, Francis, Mading, 1978, Africans of Two Worlds: The Dinka in Afro-Arab Sudan, Yale University Press and Institute of Asian and African Studies, University of Khartoum.

Deng, Francis, Mading, 1974, Dinka Folktales: African Stories from the Sudan, African Publishing Company: A Division of Holmes and Meier Publishers, New York and London.

Deng, Francis, Mading, 1973, Dynamics of Identification: A Basis for National Integration in the Sudan, Khartoum University Press, Khartoum.

Deng, Francis, Mading, 1971, Tradition and Modernization: A Challenge for Law Among the Dinka of the Sudan, Yale University Press, New Haven and London.

Department of Statistics, 1983, Census, Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, Khartoum.

Deril, I., 1958, Government Administration in Egypt: Civil Service Department, Cairo.

Douglas, Mary and Isherwood, Brown, 1979. The World of Goods: Towards an Anthropology of Consumption, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

Douglas, Mary (ed.) 1973, Selected Reading, Rules and Meaning, The Anthropology of Everyday Knowledge, Penguin Education, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

Dowey, H.K. and Ireland, R.D., 1979, Quantitative versus Qualitative: The Case of Environmental Assessment in Organizational Studies, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 24, pp.630-637.

Drever, J., 1972, A Dictionary of Psychology, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

Dreytus, Hubert, L. and Dreytus, Patricia Jean, 1964, Maurice Mestea-Pounty-Sense and Nonsenses, Northwestern Press, Evaluation, Illinois.

Drucker, Peter F., 1969, The Age of Discountinuity, Guideline to our Changing Society, Heinemann, London.

Drucker, Peter F., 1970, The Effective Executive, Pan Books Ltd., London.

Drucker, Peter F., 1980, Managing in Turbulent Times, Pan Books Ltd., London.

Drucker, Peter F., 1967, Managing for Results, Pan Books Ltd., London.

Duncan, J.S.R., 1952, The Sudan: A Record of Achievement, University of Edinburgh.

Dunn, William N., 1981, Public Policy Analysis: An Introduction, Prentice-Hall Inc., Englewood Cliff, New Jersey.

Dunkerley, David, and Salaman, Graeme, 1980, The International Yearbook of Organisation's Studies, 1979, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London.

Dunsire, Andrew, 1978, Control in a Bureaucracy, Martin Robertson, Oxford.

Dunsire, Andrew (ed.), 1958, The Making of an Administrator, Manchester University Press, Manchester.

Dunsire, Andrew, 1973, Administration: The Word and Science, Martin Robertson, Oxford.

Dunsire, Andrew, 1978, Implementation in a Bureaucracy, Martin Robertson, Oxford.

Durkhelm, Emile (1895), 1958, The Rules of Sociological Method 8th (ed.) Edited by George E.G. Calton Free Press, Gleneve, Illinois.

Dyer, William G., 1977, Team Building: Issues and Alternatives, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts and London.

Eden, Colin, Jones, Sue and Sums, David, 1979, Thinking in Organization, The Macmillan Press Ltd., London.

Edie, James M., 1964, Maurice Merleau-Pounty, The Primary of Perception and Other Essays on Phenomenological Psychology and Politics, North Western University Press, Evalton, Illinois.

Edie, James M., (ed.), 1962, What is Phenomenology? Quadrangle Books, Inc ., Chicago.

Edie, James M., 1973, Maurice Merleau-Pounty, Consciousness and Acquisition of Language, translated by Silverman, Hugh J., North Western University Press, Evalton, Illinois.

Eggan, Fred, 13, Cultural Drift and Social Change, Current Anthropology, Vol. 4, pp.347-355.

Ekunde, R., Olujemi, 1973, An Economic History of Nigeria, 1860-1960, Methuen and Co. Ltd., London.

El Hassan, Ali, Mohamed, 1976, Essay on the Economy and Security of the Sudan, Econmic and Social Research Council, Vol. 1, National Council for Research, Khartoum University Press, Khartoum.

El Jack, Ahmed H., 1973, The Sudan Management Development and Productivity Centre: An Evaluation of its First Phase of Operation 1965-1970, Khartoum University Press, Khartoum.

El Khawas, Mohamed, 1980, Southern Sudan in Historical Perspective, A Current Bibliography on African Affairs, pp.149-165.

Emeji, C.E., 1979, Administration for Development in Africa, Couch Magazine Ltd., Publishers, Oweri, New York and London.

Eprile, C., 1974, War and Peace in the Sudan 1955-1972, David and Chorlers, London.

Etzioni. Amitai, 1966. Studies in Social Change. Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York and London.

Etzioni, Amitai. 1969, A Sociological Reader on Complex Organizations, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York and London.

Evans-Pritchard, E.E., 1956, Social Anthropology, Cohen West Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois.

Evans-Pritchard, E.E., 1960, The Nuer: A Description of Modes and Livelihood and Political Institutions of a Nilotic People, Oxford, at Clarendon Press, Oxford.

Evans-Pritchard, E.E., 1976, Witchcraft, Oraches and Magic Among the Azande, Clarendon Press, Oxford.

EvansPritchard, E.E., 1968, Sources with Particular Reference to the Southern Sudan Eludes EC, Essay (based on a lecture given at Frabenaus Institute at Frankfurt.

Fabunmi, L.A., 1960, The Sudan in Anglo-Egyptian Relations: A Case Study in Power Politics 1800-1956, Spontiswoods, Ballantyne and Co. Ltd., London.

Fallers, Lloyd A., 1956, Bantu Bureaucracy: A Study of Integration and Conflict in the Political Institutions of an East African People, Heffer, Cambridge.

Fallers, Lloyd A., (ed.) 1964, The Kings' Men: Leadership and Status in Bruganda on the Eve of Independence, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Farber, Martin, 1968, Basic Issues of Philosophy Experience, Reality and Human Values, Harper Torchbooks, Harper and Rows Publishers, New York and London.

Farber, M., 1966, The Aims of Phenomenology, Harper and Row Publishers, New York.

Farmer, R.N., and Richman, B.M., 1965, Comparative Management and Economic Progress, Richard D. Irwin, Homewood, Illinois.

Fayerweather, John, 1959, The Executive Overseas: Syracuse University Press, Syracuse, New York.

Fiedler, Fred E., and Chemers, Martin, M., 1974, Leadership and Effective Management, Scotts Foresman and Company, Glenview, Illinois.

Filstead, W.J. (ed.) 1967, Qualitative Methodology, First Hand Involvement with Social World, Markham Publishing Co., Chicago.

Financial Times Survey, 1981, Nigeria Twenty Years of Independence, Spectrum Books Ltd., London.

Findlay, J.N., 1958, Hegel: A Re-examination, George Allan and Unwin Ltd., New York and London.

Firth, Raymond W., 1951, Elements of Social Organisation, Watts, London.

Firth, Raymond W., (ed.), Man and Culture, An Evaluation of the Work of B. Malinkowski, Harper, New York.

Fishbein, M., 1967, Attitude and Prediction of Behavior, in Fishbein, M. (ed.) Reading in Attitude Theory and Measurement, John Wiley and Sons, New York.

Fortes, Mayer, and Pattern, Sheila, (eds.) 1975, Studies in African Social Anthropology, Academic Press, New York and London.

Fortes, Mayer, 1955, Radcliff-Brown's Contributions to the Study of Social Organization: British Journal of Sociology, Vol. 6, pp.16-30.

Fuglesay, Andren, 1982, About Understanding Ideas and Observations on Cross-Cultural Communication: Dac Hammerskjold Foundation, Ovre, Scottsgalou, Sweden.

Fulton Report, 1968, Civil Service Commitee 1966/68 Report: Chairman Lord Fulton, HMSO, OJ/QJ.

Gaarder, R., 1980, Organization Development in Tanzania, Journal of European Industrial Training, Vol. 6, No. 1, pp.18-22.

Galt, Anthony H., and Smith, Lassy J., 1976, Models and Studies of Social Change. A Halsted Press Book, Scheukmen Publishing Co., John Wiley and Sons, New York and London.

Garratt, Bob, 1981, Contrasts in Chinese and Western Management Thinking, Leadership and Organizational Development, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp.17-23.

Geuss, Raymond, 1982, The Idea of a Critical Theory, Habermas and the Frankfurt School, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge and London.

Gibson, Quentin, 1960, The Logic of Social Enquiry, Routledge and Kegan Paul, New York and London.

Giddens, Anthony (ed.), 1974, Positivism and Sociology, Heinemann, London.

Glanem, Islam, 1982, Professional Management in the Middle East, Management Review and Digest, Vol. 9, No. 2, July, pp.3-7.

Glaser, B. and Strauss, A., 1967, Discovery of the Ground Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research, Aldine, Chicago.

Glueck, William F., 1976, Business Policy Strategy Formulation and Management Action, Second Edition, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York and London.

Gonzalez, R.F., and McMillan C., 1961, The Universality of American Management Philosophy, Journal of the Academy of Management, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp.33-41.

Gordon, T.J. and Helmer, Olaf, 1964, Report on a LongRange Forecasting Study, The Rand Corporation, Santa Monica, California.

Gough, John S., 1980, Interviewing in Twenty-Six Steps, British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education, London.

Gouldner, Alvin, W., 1976, The Dialectic of Ideology and Technology, The Origin, Grammar and Future of Ideology, The Macmillan Press Ltd., London.

Gregory, Kathleen, L., 1983, Motive-view Paradigm Multiple Cultures and Culture Conflicts in Organization, Administrative Science Quarterly, September 1983, Vol. 28, No. 3, pp.359-376.

Groidle, Merillee, S., 1980, Politics and Policy Implementation in the Third World, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey.

Guerrier, Yvonne and Macmillan, Keith, 1981, Manager's Values and Careers Decisions, Journal of General Management, Vol. 7, No. 1, Autumn, pp.22-23.

Guest, Robert H., Hersey, Paul and Blanehard, Kenneth, H, 1977, Organizaional Change Through Effective Leadership, Prentice-Hall Inc., Englewood Cliff, New Jersey.

Gurdon, Charles, 1984, Sudan at the CrossRoads, Middle East and North Africa Studies Press Ltd., Wisbech, Cambridgeshire, England.

Haaland, Gunner (ed.) 1980, Problems of Savana Development, The Sudan Case, Department of Anthropology, University of Bergen.

Haire, M., Ghiselli, E.E. and Porter, L.W., 1966, Managerial Thinking: An International Study, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York.

Hale, Sandra, Diergan, 1979, The Changing Ethnic Identity of Nubians in an Urban Melieu, Khartoum Sudan, Ph.D. Thesis, University of California, Los Angeles.

Hallowell, A., Irving, 1963, Personality Culture and Society in Behavioural Evaluation, Vol. 6, pp.429-509, in Sigmond Koch (ed.) Psychology: A Study of Science, McGrawHill Books, New York.

Hammar, Mirghani, Abdel-aal, 1979, The Public Corporation as a Tool of Management and Development (with special reference to the Sudan), Ph.D. Thesis, University of Pittsburgh.

Hammersley, Martyn and Atkinson, Paul, 1983, Ethnography, Principles in Practice, Tavistock Publications, London and New York.

Hammeed, K.A., 1974, Enterprise, Industrial Entrepreneurship in Development, Based on Case Studies from the Sudan, Sage Publications Ltd., London.

Hamid, Mohamed, Beshir, 1983, Confrontation and Reconciliation within an African Context: The Case of Sudan, Third World Quarterly, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp.320-327.

Hampton, David R., Summer, Charles E. and Webber, Ross A., 1982, Organisational Behaviour and Practices of Management, Scott Foresman and Company, Glenview, Illinois and London.

Hanika, F. de P., 1975, New Thinking in Management: A Guide for Managers, Hutchison, London.

Harbison, F. and Myers, C.A., 1959, Management on the Industrial World, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

Harris, Philip R., 1981, Synergistic Strategies for Organization. Development, Leadership and Organizational Development, Vol. 2, No. 3, pp.27-32.

Hassan, Yusuf, Fadl, 1963, The Afro-Arab and the Sudan, Edinburgh University Press, Edinburgh.

Hassan, Yusuf, Fadl, (ed.) 1971, Sudan in Africa, Studies Presented to the First International Conference, sponsored by the Sudan Research Unit, 712 February 1968, Khartoum University Press, Khartoum.

HC, Select Committee on Expenditure, 12th Report, Response to the Government Observation on the Committee's Report on Civil Service, HC 576 Session 1977/78, HC Debates Session 78/79, Vol. 960, 13311456, Sir James Dunnett, The Civil Service Seven Years After Fulton, Public Administration 54: 3718, 1976.

HC, Treasury and Civil Service Committee: Guidance, The Role and Powers of the Civil Service Department, HC 333-i to x Session 1979/80.

Heald, David, 1980, Introduction to Critical Theory, Horkheiner to Habermas, Hutchison, London, Melbourne and Sydney.

Helcriegal, Don and Slocum, John W.J., 1978, Management Contingency Approach, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachussetts, London.

Helmer, Olaf and Resecher, Nicholas, 1959, On the Epistemology of the Inexact Science, Management Science, Vol. VI, No. 1, October 1959, pp.25-52.

Helmstader, G.C., 1970, Research Concepts in Human Behaviour, Education, Psychology, Sociology, Appleton-Century-Crafts Educational Division, Meredith Corporation, New York.

Hennes, Gernard, G., 1977, Alone, You Get Nowhere: An Attempt to Assessing the Involvement of Personnel in the Sudan, Relief and Rehabilitation Programme 1972-75. Commission on World Mission and Evangelism, World Council of Churches, Geneva.

Herkovits, Melville, J., 1955, Cultural Anthropology, Knopp, New York.

Hindess, Barry, 1977, Philosophy and Methodology in the Social Science, The Harvester Press, Sussex.

Hill, Michael, 1972, The Sociology of Public Administration, World University, London.

Hofstede. Geert. 1984. Culture's Consequences: International Difference in Work-related Values, Sage Publications, Beverley Hills, London and New Delhi.

Hofstede, Geert, 1983, UNDP/ILO Interregional Project Cooperation, Among Management Development Institutions, Geneva.

Hofstede, Geert, 1980, Motivation, Leadership and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad? Organizational Dynamics: Summer 1980, AM ACOM, A Division of American Management Association.

Holley, John, 1980, Reflections of O.D. Experiences in Different Cultural Setting, Leadership and Organization, Development Journal, Vol. 1, No. pp.10-11.

Holski, Ole, R., 1969, Content Analysis for the Social Science and Humanities, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachusetts and London.

Holt, P.M., 1970, The Mahdist State 1881-1899: A Study of its Origins, Development and Overthrow, Oxford, Clarendon Press, London.

Hope, Kempe R., 1982, Improving Public Enterprise Management in Developing Countries, Journal of General Management, Vol. 7, No. 3, Spring 1982, pp.72-85.

Howell, John, 1974, Local Government and Politics in the Sudan, Khartoum University Press, Khartoum.

Howell, John, 1978, Political Leadership and Organization in Southern Sudan, Ph.D. Thesis, Department of Politics, Faculty of Letters and Social Science, Reading University.

Huczynski, Andrzej A. and Logan, David, 1980, Learning to Change, Organizational Change Through Transfer, Training Workshops, Leadership and Organization Development Journal, Vol. 1, No. 3, pp.25-31.

Huczynski, Andrzej A., 1983, Encyclopaedia of Management Development Methods, Gower Publishing Co., Aldershot.

Hussere, E., 1931, Ideas: General Introduction to Pure Phenomenology, translated by W.R.B. Gibson, The Macmillan Co., New York.

Hyman, Herbert, 1955, Survey Design and Analysis, Principles, Case and Procedures, The Free Press, New York.

Hymes, Dell H., (ed.) 1964, Language in Culture and Society: Harper and Row Publishers, New York.

Ihde, D., 1977, Experimental Phenomenology: An Introduction, Pitman Sons, New York.

ILO/UNDP, 1978, Growth, Employment and Equity: A Comprehensive Strategy for the Sudan: Report of ILO/UNDP Employment Mission 1975: A United Nations InterAgency Team, ILO Office, Geneva.

Jarvie, I.C., 1964, The Revolution in Anthropology, Routledge, London.

Jelinek, Mariam, Smircich, Linda and Hosech, Paul, 1983, Introduction Code of Many Colours, Administrative Science Quarterly, September 1983, Vol. 28, No. 3, pp.331-338.

Jick, T.D., 1979, Mixing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods, Triangulation in Action, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 24, pp.602-611.

Johnson, Douglas H., 1982, EvanPritchard the Nuer and The Sudan Political Service, African Affairs: Journal of the Royal African Society, Vol. 81, No. 323, pp.231-246.

Johnson. D H. 1978 History and Prophecy Among the Nuer of the Southern Sudan. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.

Johnson, Thomas W. and Stinson, John E., 1978, Managing Today and Tomorrow, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Massachussetts, London.

Jowel, Roger and Hourville, Gerald, 1977, Survey Research, Heinemann Educational Books, London.

Kappal, Geoffrey, 1973, Design and Analysis: A Researchers Handbook, Prentice-Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Kasfir, Nelson, 1977, Southern Sudan Politics since the Addis-ABBA agreement, African Affairs, Journal of the Royal African Society, Vol. 76, No. 303, April, pp.143-166.

Keat, Russel and Urg, John, 1975, Social Theory as Science, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London.

Keeling, D., 1972, Management in Government, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London.

Kelly, G. (1955), The Psychology of Personal Constructs, Norton, New York.

Khangi, Abdelrahman, Abdalla, 1980, The Impact of the Six Year Development Plan 1977/78-1982/83 on Public Education in the Democratic Republic of the Sudan 1956-1975: Plans and Goals, Policy Measures and Outcome, Ph.D. Thesis, University of Pittsburgh.

Kiggundu, Moses, N., Jorgensen, Jan J. and Hafsi, Tacieb, 1983, Administrative Theory and Practice in Developing Countries: A Synthesis, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vo. 28, No. March 1983, pp.65-84.

Kindleeberger, Charles P. and Herrick, Bruce, 1977, Economic Development, 3rd Edition, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York and London.

Kirk-Greene, Anthony and Douglas, Rimmer, 1981, Nigeria since 1970, A Political and Economic Outline, Hodder and Stranghton, London.

Kluckholhn, Clyde, 1954, Culture and Behaviour, in Garder Ludgey (ed.) Handbook of Social Psychology, Addison-Wesley, Cambridge, Massachussetts.

Kockelmans, J.J. (ed.) 1967, The Phenomenology of Edmund Husserl and its Interpretations, Anchor Books, Double Day and Co. Inc., New York.

Koch, Susan and Deetz, Stanley, 1981, Metaphor Analysis of Social Reality, Journal of Applied Communication Research 9, pp.1-15.

Kohak, E., Ideas and Experience, Chicago University Press, Chicago.

Koontz, Harold, O'Donnell, Cyril and Weinrich, Heinz, 1980, Management, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York and London.

Kotter, John P., 1978, Organizational Dynamics, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Massachussetts and London.

Kroeber, Alfred L. and Spair, E.H., 1917, The Nature of Culture, University of Chicago, Chicago.

Kroeber, Alfred L., 1952, The Nature of Culture, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Kroeber, Alfred L., 1948, Anthropology, Race, Language, Culture, psychology, Prehistoric News, New York.

Kroeber, Alfred L., 1944, Configuration of Culture Growth, University of California Press, Berkeley.

Kroeber, Alfred L., 1963, An Anthropological Look at History, University of California Press, Berkeley.

Kroeber, Alfred L. and Kluckholm, Clyde, 1952, Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions, Harvard University, Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology Papers, Vol. 47, No. 1, Cambridge, Mass.

Kroeber, Alfred L. and Pearsons, Talcott, 1958, The Concepts of Culture and Social Systems, American Sociological Review, Vo. 23, pp.582-583.

Kuper, Adam, 1983, Anthropology and Anthropologists: The Modern British School, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London.

Lachenmeyer, Charles W., 1973, The Essence of Social Research, A Copernicon Revolution, The Free Press, New York and Colier Macmillan Publishers, London.

Lagu, Joseph, 1981, Decentralization: A Necessity for the Southern Province of the Sudan, Sudanese Socialist Union, Khartoum.

Lamont, W.D. 1981, Law and the Moral Order, Aberdeen University Press, Aberdeen.

Latham, G.P., Mitchell, T.R. and Dossett, 1978, Importance of Participative, Goal Setting and Anticipated Rewards on Goal Difficulty and Job Performance, Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 3, pp.163-171.

Latham, G.P., and Yakl, G.A., 1975, A Review of Research on the Application of Goal Setting in Organizations, Academy of Management Journal, No. 18, pp.834-845.

Lauer, R.H. and Hadel, W.H., 1977, Social Psychology: The Theory and Application of Symbolic Interaction, Hompton-Miffin Co., Boston.

Lauer, Q., 1965, Phenomenology: Its Genesis and Prospect, Harper Torch Books, New York.

Laurent, Andre, 1980, Once a Frenchman Always a Frenchman, International Management, June, 1980, pp.45-46.

Lawrence, L.C. and Smith, P.E., 1955, Group Decisions and Employee Participation, Journal of Applied Psychology, vol. 39, pp.334-337.

Lawrence, Paul L. and Lorsch, Jay W., 1967, Organization and Environment, Division of Research, Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, Boston.

Lawrence, Paul L. and Lorsch, Jay W., 1969, Developing Organisation's Diagnosis and Action, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Mass. and London.

Lawler, Edward, E.III, 1971, Pay and Organizational Effectiveness, A Psychological View, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York and London.

Lazarsfeld, P.F. (ed.) 1972, Qualitative Analysis: Historical and Critical Essays, Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Lazarus, Harold and Warren E. Kirkby, 1968, the Progress of Management Process Behaviour and Operation's Research, Prentice-Hall Inc., Englewood Cliff, New Jersey.

Lea, David A.M. and Chaudhri, D.P., 1973, Rural Development and State, Contradictions and Dilemmas in Developing Countries, Methuen, New York and London.

Leach, Edmond, R., 1961, Rethinking Anthropology, London School of Economics and Political Science, Monographs on Social Anthropology, No. 22, London.

Leedy, Paul D., 1974, Practical Research Planning and Design, Macmillan Co. Inc. and Colier Macmillan Publishers, New York and London.

Legum, Colin, Shaked, Hallin and Deshow, Daniel, 1982, Middle East Contemporary Survey, Vol. 5, 1980/81, The Shiloach Center for Middle Eastern and African Studies, Holmes and Meier Publishers Inc., New York and London.

Legum, Colin, 1965, Introduction in Said, Beshir M., 1965, The Sudan Cross-Road to Africa, Bodley Head, London.

Le Barrow, Joseph Evan, 1980, The Impact of Structure, Economic Change on Political Movements in the Sudan 1900-1953, Ph.D. Thesis, Princeton University.

Lees, Francis, A. and Brooks, Hugh C., 1977, The Economic and Political Development of the Sudan, The Macmillan Press Ltd., London.

Lerner, Daniel and Lasswell, Harold, D. 1951 (ed.) The Policy science, Recent Development in Scope and Methods, Standard University Press, California.

Lewis, Ralph, 1981, The Myers Briggs Type Indicators, Leadership and Organizational Development, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp.27-31.

Lienhart, Godfrey, 1961, Divinity and Experience: The Religion of the Dinka, The Clarendon Press, Oxford.

Likert, R., 1961, New Pattern of Management, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

Little, I.M.D. and Mirlees, J.A., 1977, Project Appraisal and Planning for Developing Countries, Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., London.

Lock, Dennis, Tavernier, Gerard (ed.) 1970, Directors Guide to Management Techniques, Gower Press Ltd., London.

Locke, E., 1976, The Nature and Consequences of Job Satisfaction in Dunnette, M. (ed.) Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Rand McNally, Chicago.

Locke, E.A., Cartiedge, N. and Kneer, C.S., 1970, Studies of Relationship Between Satisfaction, Goal-Setting and Performance, Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, Vol. 5, pp.427-436.

Lockyer, K.G., 1975, An Introduction to Critical Path Analysis, Pitman Publishing Co., London.

Lord, Crohan, 1978, The Developing Structure of United Kingdom Government Management Service in Government 33 (3) 105-12 (ASL).

Loriria, Angelo Labele Lokovo, 1969, Decolonization and Problem of National Integration: Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles.

Lorsch, Jay W., Boughman, James P, Reece, James and Mintzberg, Henry, 1978, Understanding Management, Harper and Row Publishers, New York and London.

Louis, Meryl R., 1980, A Cultural Perspective on Organizations: The Need for and Consequences of Viewing Organizations as Culture-bearing Milieux, paper presented at the National Academy of Management Meetings, Detroit, Mich.

Lourie, Robert H, 1937, The History of Ethnological Theory, Farrar and Rinehart, New York.

Lupton, Tom, 1971, Management and Social Science, Penguin Modern Management, C. Nicholas and Comany Ltd., Manchester.

Luthans, Fred, 1981, Organizational Behaviour, McGraw-Hill International Book Co., London.

Lyles, M.A. and Mitroff, I.I., 1980, Organizational Problem Formulation: An Empirical Study, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 25, pp.102-119.

Mackay, Ian, 1980, A Guide to Asking Questions, British Association for Communication and Industrial Education, London.

Mack, John and Robertshaw, Peter, 1982, Culture History in Southern Sudan, Archaeology, Linguistics, Ethnohistory, Memoir No. 8 of the British Institute in Eastern Africa, Nairobi, Kenya.

Macqueen, Donald R., 1973, Understanding Sociology Through Research, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company Inc., Reading Massachussetts and London.

Mair, Lucy, 1974, African Societies, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Majak, Damacio, Dut, 1976, British Rule in Bahr El Ghazal 1907-1927, Masters Thesis, University of Khartoum.

Majak, Jonathan, Awoloc, 1979, Education for National Integrating, Ph.D. Dissertation, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana.

Malins, P.G. and Omolayole, M.O., 1972, Management and Its Environment in Niveria, in Massie, Joseph L. and Luytjes, Jan, (ed.) 1972, Management in an International Context, Harper and Row Publishers, New York and London.

Malinowski, Bronishaw, 1948, Magic Science and Religion and other Essays, Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois.

Malinowski, Bronishaw, 1931, Culture, Vol. 4, pp.621-645, in the Encyclopaedia of the Social Science, Macmillan, New York.

Malinowski, Bronishaw, 1944, A Scientific Theory of Culture and Other Essays, University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill.

Malinowski, Bronishaw, 1949, The Dynamics of Culture Change: An Inquiry into Race Relations in Africa, Yale University Press, New Haven.

Malwal, Bona, 1981, People and Power in Sudan, the Struggle for National Stability, Ithaca Press, London.

Malwal, Bona, 1984, The Sudan, A Second Challenge to Nationhood, Thornton Books, New York.

Management Development and Productivity Centre 1978, A Strategy for Management Development in the Sudan, Management Centre, Khartoum.

Manz, Charles C. and Sims, Henry P., 1981, The Ethics of Behavioural Management, Leadership and Organizational Development, Vol. 2, No. 4, pp.2-8.

March, J. and Simon, H., 1958, Organization, John Wiley and Son, New York and London.

Margerison, Charles, 1978, Influencing Organizational Change: The Role of the Personal Specialist, Institute of Personnel Management.

Margerison, Charles, 1980, Leadership Pattern and Profiles, A Major Study Identifying the Leadership Paths of British Top Chief Executive, Leadership and Organization, Development Journal, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp.12-17.

Marshall, A.H., 1948, Report on the Local Government in the Sudan, Government Printing Press.

Martin, Joanne and Powers, Melanie, E., 1983, Truth or Corporate Propaganda: The Value of Good War Story; in Pondy, Louis, R., et al (eds.) Organizational Symbolism, Greenwich CT. Jal Press.

Massie, Joseph L. and Lytjes, Jan (ed.) 1972, Management in an International Context, Harper and Row Publishers, New York and London.

Massie, Joseph L., 1971, Essentials of Management, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Mawut, Lazarus, Leek, 1978, The Dinka Resistance to the Condominium Rule 1902-1932, Masters' Thesis, University of Khartoum.

Mazrui, Ali A., 1971, The Multiple Marginality of the Sudan, in Hassôn Y. (ed.) 1971, Sudan in Africa University of Khartoum Press, Khartoum.

Mazrui, Ali A., 1984, Africa's International Relations: The Diplomacy of Dependency and Change, Heinemann, London.

McGregor, D., 1957, An Easy Look at Performance Appraisal, Harvard Business Review, Vol. 35, pp.39-94.

McGregor, D., 1967, Team Development, in the Professional Manager, McGraw-Hill, New York.

McGregor, D., 1960, The Human Side of Enterprise, McGraw-Hill, New York.

McLean, Adrian, 1980, Comparison Organizational Change, Comparison of Numerous O.D. Programme, Reflecting on the Different Assumptions Behind the Project Styles of Intervention Development Journal, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp.3-8.

McLoughlin, P.F.M., 1964, Language Switching as an Index of Socializaion in the Republic of the Sudan, Los Angeles.

Mead, Margaret, 1954, Cultural Patterns and Technical Change, UNESCO, Paris.

Meggenson, Leon C., 1967, The Interrelationship and Interaction between the Cultural Environment and Managerial Effectiveness, Management International Review, Vol. 7, No. 6, pp.69-70.

Miles, M.B., 1979, Qualitative Data as an Attractive Nuisance: the Problem of Analysis, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 24, pp.590-611.

Miles, Raymond, E., 1975, Theories of Management, Implications for Organisational Behaviour and Development, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York and London.

Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Natural Resoures of the Democratic Republic of the Sudan, 1974, Food and the Sudan, Some Facts Prepared for the United Nations World Food Conference on World Food Problem, 5th-16th November, 1974, United Nations World Food Programme.

Ministry of Interior, 1956, The Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the 1955 Mutiny in the Southern Sudan, Government Printing Press, Khartoum.

Ministry of Culture and Information, 1974, Facts and Figures, Published by Publication Section of the Ministry, Khartoum.

Ministry of Culture and Information. 1976. Unity and Emergence of a Just Society in the Sudan   Printing and Packaging Corporation Ltd. Nairobi Kenya.

Mintzberg. Henry, 1979 The Structuring of Organization. A Synthesis of the Research. Prentice-Hall Inc. Englewood Cliff. New Jersey.

Mintzberg, Henry   1973. The Nature of Managerial Work, Harper and Row, New York. Evaston and London.

Mmobuosi, I.B.   1983. The Problems of the Re-entrant on Transfer of Learning to Public Service Organizations in Nigeria. Ph.D. Thesis, University of Glasgow.

Morgan, Gareth   1980. Paradigms. Metaphors and Puzzle Solving in Organization Theory. Administrative Science Quarterly, No. 25 pp.605-622.

Morgan. Lewis H.   1964. Ancient Society. Harvard University Press. Cambridge. Mass.

Morgan, G. and Smercich. Linda 1980. The Case for Qualitative Research Academy of Management Review. Vol. 5 pp.491-500.

Muna Farid. A   1980. The Arab Executive. The Macmillan Press Ltd. London and Basingstoke.

Murdoch George P   1949 Social Structure. Macmillan, New York.

Murrell. Kenneth, L. 1981 Understanding the Egyptian Manager: A Third World Management Development Experience. Leadership and Organizational Development. Vol. 2. No. 3, pp.12-16.

Murrell. Kenneth L. 1981. Organization Development on the Third World. Lessons and Reasons Why Leadership and Organizational Development. Vol. 2. No. 4 pp.12-15.

Nadel. Siegfried. 1958. The Theory of Social Structure   A Memoir by Meyer Fortes, Free Press. Glencoe. Illinois.

Nadel, Siegfried, 1958. The Foundation of Social Anthropology, Free Press, Glencoe. Illinois.

Nafzizer, E. Wayne, 1977, African Capitalism: A Case Study in Nigerian Entrepreneurhip, Hoover Institution Press, Standford University, Standford, California.

Nair, Balokrshana, N. (ed.) 1975, Culture and Society, Thomson Press India Ltd., Publication, New Delhi.

Nayar, P.K.B., 1975, Administrative Context of Economic Development, Some Considerations, in Nair, B., P.K.B. (ed.) Culture and Society, Thomason Press India Ltd., New Delhi.

Naylor, Thomas H., 1979, Corporate Planning Models, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Philippines.

Negandli, A.R. and Estagen, B.D., 1967, A Research Model to Determine the Applicability to American Management Know How in Differing Cultures and or Environments, Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 8, No. 4, pp.309-318.

Nelson, Harold, D. et al., 1973, Area Handbook for the Democratic Republic of the Sudan, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C.

Newman, William H., 1972, Cultural Assumptions Underlying U.S. Management Concepts: In Massie, Joseph L., and Luytjes, Jan, 1972, Management in an International Context, Harper and Row Publishers, New York and London.

Newman, Derek, 1973, Organization Design, An Analytical Approach to Structuring of Organization, Edward Arnold, London.

Nove, Alex, 1973, Efficiency Criteria for Nationalized Industries, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., Ruskin House Museum, London.

Norris, Malcolm W., 1983, Local Government and Decentralization in the Sudan, Public Administration and Development, Vol. 3, pp.209-222.

Numeri, Sayed. 1977. The Five Year Plan 1970/75. Some Aspects of Plan and Its Performances. Development Studies and Research Centre. University of Khartoum Press. Khartoum.

O'Ballance, Eddar, 1977. The Secret War in the Sudan 1955-1972. Faber Ltd. London.

Oberg. W., 1963, Cross-Cultural Perspective on Management Principles, Academy of Management Journal. Vol. 6, No. 2, pp.129-143.

O'Buir, William M., Spain, David H. and Tessler, Mark A., 1973, Survey Research in Africa. Its Applications and Limits. North Western University Press, Evanston, Illinois.

O'Fahey. R.S., 1980. States and Society in Durfur, G. Hurst and Company, London.

Oesterdiekhoff, Peter and Wohlmath (ed.) 1983, The Development Perspectives of the Democratic Republic of the Sudan. the Limits of the Breadbasket Strategy, Westforum Varleg Murchen-Kolhn London.

O'Neil. John. 1974. Phenomenology. Language and Sociology, Selected Essays of Mourice-Merleau-Pounty. Heinemann, London.

Ottaway. Richard N.. 1980. Data Processing and Organisational Change, Leadership and Organizaional Change. Leadership and Organizational Development. Vol. 1, No. 1, pp.19-24.

Otokpa, Ogaba Jr., 1980, Nigerian O.D., The Work of Business Research Management Centre (BRMC). Leadership and Organizational Development. Vol. 1, No. 1, pp.13-16.

Parson Tattocts. 1951. The Social System. Free Press Glencoe, Illinois.

Peller, Mike. Burgoyne. John and Boydell, Tom, 1978, A Managers' Guide to Self-development. McGraw-Hill Book Company (UK) Ltd. London.

People's Local Government Act. 1980. The Attorney General Chambers Khartoum.

Perringo. A.E.B. 1968 Modern Management Techniques, Van Nostrand Co., Ltd London.

Petry M.J. 1981. Hegel. The Beatin Phenomenology, D. Deidel Publishing Company Dordrect Holland, Boston, USA and London.

Pondy Louis, R. and Mitroff, Ian, I., 1979, Beyond Open System models of Organizations. in Cummings, Larry, L. and Straw Barry (eds.), Research in Organizational Behaviour, Greenwich, CT Jal Press.

Popper, K.R., 1969. The Open Society and Its Enemies, Vol. I and II, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London and Henley.

Prasad, Benjamin, 1966, Comparative Managerialism, As an Approach to International Economic Growth, Quarterly Journal of AIESEL, International, Vol. 2, No. 3, August 1966, pp.22-30.

Presidential Order No. 1, 1983, on the Organization of Regional Government in the Southern Provinces, Attorney General Chambers, Khartoum.

Public Service Regulation 1975, The Attorney General Chambers, Khartoum.

Radcliff-Brown, A.R., 1961, Structure and Function in Primitive Society: Essay and Addresses, Cohen and West Free Press, Glencoe, Illinois.

Radcliffe-Brown, A.R. 1958, Method in Social Anthropology: in M.N. Strivens (ed.) Selected Essays, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Randale, P.E., 1969, Introduction to Work Study and Organization and Methods, Butterwood, London.

Reading, Hugo F., 1977, Dictionary of Social Sciences, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, Henley and Boston.

Redding William J., 1970 Managerial Effectiveness, McGraw-Hill Book Company New York and London.

Redding S., 1982 Results Orientation and the Orient Paper given to 9th International Conference, Asian Regional Training and Development Organization, Hong Kong.

Reeser, Clayton. 1973, Management Function and Modern Concepts, Scotts Foresman and Company, Glenview, Illinois and Brighton.

Redfield Robert. 1955. Societies and Culture as National System, Journal of Royal Anthropological Institute of Great Britian and Ireland, Vol. 85. pp.19-32.

Redfield Robert, 1956, Peasant Society and Culture: An Anthropological Approach to Civilization. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Redfield Robert. 1962, Human Nature and the Study of Society, University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Reining, Conrad C., 1966, The Zande Scheme: An Anthropoilogical Case Study of Economic Development in Africa, Evanston, Illinois.

Revans Regnold. 1971. Developing Effective Managers, Longman Group Ltd., London.

Richman, Barry. 1971. Reading in Organization Theory, Open Systems Approach. London House, New York.

Riley Patricia. 1983 A Structurationist Account of Political cultures Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 18. No. 3, September, pp.414-437.

Ritzer George 1975, Sociology: A Multiple Paradigm Science, Allyn Bacon Inc Boston.

Roberts. Karlene. H.M.. 1970 On Looking at an Elephant: An Evaluation of Cross-culture Research Related to Organizations in Weinshall, Theodore, d., (ed.) Culture and Management: Selected Readings, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

Roman, W.W., Latham, G.P. and Kinne, S.B., 1973, Effects of Goal Setting and Supervision on Worker Behaviour in an Industrial Situation, Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 58, pp.302-307.

Russell, Peter and McCall, Storrs, 1973, Can Session be Justified, in Wai, D.M., 1973, The Southern Sudan. The Problem of National Integration, Frank Cass, London.

Sablins, Marshall, D. and Service, Elman R. (ed.) 1960, Evolution and Culture, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Saby, Hussien Zulfakar, 1982, Sovereignity for Sudan, Ithaca Press, London.

Said, Beshir Mohamed, 1965, The Sudan Crossroads to Africa, Bodley Head, London.

Sanders, P., 1982, Phenomenology: A New Way of Viewing Organizational Research, Academy of Management Review, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp.353-360.

Sanderson, G.N., 1963, The Modern Sudan 1820-1956: The Present Position of Historical Studies, Journal of African History, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp.435-461.

Sanderson, Lilian, Passmore, 1980, Education in the Southern Sudan, The Impact of Government Missionary – Southern Sudanese Relationship upon the Development of Education. During Condominium Period 1898-1956, African Affairs, Journal of the Royal African Society. Vol. 74, No. 316, July 1980, pp.157-169.

Sanderson L.M., 1966. Education in the Southern Sudan, 1898-1948, Ph.D. Dissertation. University of London.

Sapir, Edward. 1958, The Unconscious Patterning of Behaviour in Society, in David G. Mandelbaum, Selected Writing of Edward Sapir in Language, Culture and Personality, University of California Press. Berkeley.

Sceetiz. Claire. Johoda. Marie, Delctsch. Morton and Cook, Stuart W., 1959, Research Methods in Social Relations, Methuen and Co. Ltd. Henry Holt and Company Inc., New York.

Scientific American. 1972 Perception Mechanism and Models, W.H. Freeman and Co., San Fransisco.

Schutz, Alfred 1972, The Phenomenology of the Social World, translated by G. Walesh and F. Lenhart, Heinemann, London.

Seddon. John W., 1985, Issues in Practice: The Education and Development of Overseas Managers, Management Education and Development, Vol. 16. Part 1, Spring 1985, pp.5-13.

Seddon. J.. 1985, The Development of Nigerian Organizations, Nigerian Management Review, Vol. 1, No. 2.

Self. Peter, 1977, Administrative Theories and Politics, An Enquiry into the Structure and Processes of Modern Government, George Allen and Unwin Ltd.. London.

Seligman, C.G. and Seligman, Brenda Z, 1956, Pagan Tribes of the Nilotics Sudan. Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., London.

Sieber. S.D.. 1973, The Integration of Field-work and Survey Methods. American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 78. pp.1335-1359.

Siehl, Caren and Martin, Joanne, 1981, Learning Organizational Culture "Working Paper", Graduate School of Business, Stanford University. California.

Singer, Milton. 1964. The Social Sciences in Non-Western Studies: American Academy of Political and Social Science Annuals 356 pp.30-44.

Singer Milton, 1961. A Survey of Personality and Culture Theory and Research in Bert Kaplan (ed.) Studying Personality Cross-culturally, Row Peterson, Evanston, Illinois.

Skinner. B.S., 1953, Science and Human Behaviour, The Free Press, New York.

Smircich. Linda 1983, Concepts of Culture and Organisational Analysis, Administrative Science Quarterly, September 1983, Vol. 28, pp.339-358.

Smith, George. Albert, Christensen C., Roland and Berg, Norman A., 1968, Policy Formulation and Administration, Richard D. Irwin Inc., Homewood, Illinois.

Smouts Marie-Claude, 1982, The Courier: African-Caribbean Pacific-European Community Dossier No. 27, March-April 1982, pp.48-78.

Snizere. William E., Fuhrman. Ellsworth R., and Miller, Michael K., 1979, Contemporary Issues in Theory and Research, Aldwych Press, London.

Solidarity Committee of the Southern Members, People's National Assembly 1981, The Redivision of the Southern Region: Why it must be Rejected. The Nile Printing Press, Juba.

Sorge, Arndt, 1982, Culture and Organization, Journal of General Management. Vol. 7, No. 2, Winter, pp.62-80.

Southern Provinces Regional Self-Government Act. 1972, Attorney General Chambers, Khartoum.

Southern Development Team, 1954, Report of Southern Development Team, on Natural Resources and Development, Potential in the Southern Provinces of the Sudan, Sudan Government Printing, Khartoum.

Spender, J.C. (1980), Strategy-making in Business Coping with Uncertainty in the Organizational Design Process, unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Manchester.

Spradley, James P., 1980, Participant Observation, Holt, Richert and Wiston, New York and London.

Staling, Grover, 1982, Managing the Public Sector, The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois.

Stevenson, Charles L., 1963, Facts and Values Studies in Ethical Analysis, Yale University Press, New Haven and London.

Steward, Jullian H., 1955, Theory of Culture Change: The Methodology of Multilinear Evolution, University of Illinois Press, Urbana.

Stewart, Rosemary, 1967, The Managers and Their Jobs, Macmillan, London.

Stodgill, Ralph M., 1974, Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research. The Free Press, a Division of Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc., New York, Collier Macmillan Publishing, London.

Stone, F., 1978, Phenomenological Approaches to Research in Education, (Multicultural Research Guide Series, 2) Storrs Conn, World Education Project, University of Connecticut.

Sudhalter, David L., 1980, The Management Option, Nine Strategies for Leadership, Human Sciences Press, New York and London.

Suleman, Ali, Ahmed, 1975, Issues in the Economic Development of the Sudan, Khartoum University Press, Khartoum.

Sylvester, Anthony, 1981, Arabs and Africans Cooperation for the Development, The Bodley-Head, London, Sydney and Toronto.

Terry, Pat, 1981, Organization and Search for Community, Leadership and Organization Development, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp.13-16.

Thelwall, R., 1980. Language. Culture and Identity in the Sudan, in Post-Independence Sudan, Proceedings of a seminar held in the Centre of African Studies. University of Edinburgh, 21st-22nd November 1980.

The Southern Sudan Provinces Regional Self-government Act 1972, The Attorney General Chambers, Khartoum.

Thompson, Kenneth and Tunstall. Jeremy, 1971, Sociological Perspective Selected Reading, Penguin Books, in association with Open University Press.

Tichy, Noel M., 1982, Managing Change Strategically: The Technical, Political and Cultural Keys, Organizational Dynamics, Autumn. pp.59-80.

Toffler, Alvin, 1970. Future Shock, The Bodley Head Ltd., London.

Tomekovic. T., 1962, Level of Knowledge of Requirements as a Motivational Factor in the Work Situation, Human Relations. Vol. 15. pp.197-216.

Torrington, Derek P. and Sulton, David F., 1973, Handbook of Management Development, Gower Press, Epping, Essex.

Treasury, 1976. Glossary of Management Techniques, HMSO, London.

Trevor, Malcolm, 1983, Does Japanese Management Work in Britain? Journal of General Management, Vol. 8, No. 4, Summer, 1983, pp.28-43.

Triadis, H.C., et al 1972, (eds.) The Analysis of Subjective Culture, John Wiley and Sons, New York.

Truningham, J. Spencer, 1965, Islam in the Sudan, Frank Cass and Co. Ltd., London.

Tunstall W. Brooke, 1983, Cultural Transition at AT&T, Sloan Management Review, Fall. 1983, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp.15-26.

Turner, Roy (ed.) 1974, Ethnomethodology, Selected Readings, Penguin Education, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

Tylor. Edward B., 1958, Primitive Culture, Research into the Development of Mythology. Philosophy, Religion, Art and Custom, Gloucester, Mass, Smith, Vol. 1, Organ of Culture, Vol. 2, Religiion in Primitive Culture.

Uriwick Lyndale F., 1937, Organization as a Technical Problem in Luther Qulick and Lyndale F. Urwick (eds.), Papers on the Science of Administration, New York.

Valentine. Charles A., 1972, Culture and Poverty, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Van Moanen, J., 1979, Reclaiming Qualitative Methods for Organizational Research: A Preface; Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 24, pp.520-526.

Vickers, Sir Geoffrey, 1968, Value Systems and Social Process, Tavistock Publications, London.

Vroom, Victor H. and Yelton, Philip W., 1973, Leadership and Decision-making, University of Pittsburgh Press and Fiffer and Simon Inc., and London.

Vroom. Victor and Deci, Edward L., 1970, Management and Motivation, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

Vroom, Victor H., 1964, Work and Motivation, John Willey and Sons Inc., New York. London and Sidney.

Wai,Dunstan M., (ed.) 1973, The Southern Sudan, The Problem of National Integration. Frank Cass, London.

Wai,Dunstan M., 1980, Pax Britania and the Southern Sudan: The View from the Theatre, African-Affairs, Journal of the Royal African Society, Vol. 79, No. 316, July 1980, pp.375-398.

Wai, Dunstan M.. 1979 The Sudan Domestic Politics and Foreign Relations Under Nimery, African Affairs, Journal of the Royal African Society, Vol. 78, No. 312, July 1978, pp.297-318.

Wai, Dunstan M., 1981, The African-Arab Conflict in the Sudan, Africana Publishing Company, New York and London.

Walton, Michael, 1981, Integrating the Internal Organisations, An Intervention, Leadership and Organisational Development, Vol. 2, No. 4, pp.22-25.

Warren, Roland, 1976 Social Change and Human Purposes: Towards Understanding and Action, Rand McNally College Publishing Co., Chicago.

Waxley, K.N. and Nemeroff, W.F., 1975, Effects of Positive Reinforcement and Goal Setting as Method of Management Development, Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 60, pp.446-450.

Webber, Ross A., 1970, Convergence or Divergence, in Weinstall, Theodore, O., 1977, Culture and Management, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

Weisberg, Herbert F., and Bowean, Bruce D., 1977, An Introduction to Survey Research and Data Analysis, W.H. Freeman and Company, San Francisco.

Weinshall, Theodore D. and Pugh, D.S., (eds.), 1977, Culture and Mangement. Penguin Education Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex.

White, Leslie A., 1964, Anthropology, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

White, Leslie A., 1949, The Science of Culture: A Study of Man and Civilization, Farrar Stans, New York.

Wild, John, et al, 1963, In Praise of Philosophy, North-Western University Studies in Phenomenology and Existential Philosophy Northwestern University Press, Evanston, Illinois.

Wild, Ray, 1982, How to Manage: 123 World Experts Analyse the Art of Management. Heinemann, London.

Wilkins, Alan L. and Ocuhi, William Q., 1983, Efficient Cultures and Exploring the Relationship Between Culture and Organisational Performance, Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 28, No. 3, September 1983, pp.468-481.

Willis, G., 1978, Qualitative Evaluation As the Aesthetic, Personal and Political Dimension of Curriculum Criticism, in A. Willis (ed.) Qualitative Evaluation, McCutcheon Corporation, Berkeley, California.

Willis, Paul E., 1978, Profane Culture, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London and Henley.

Winch, Peter, 1958, The Ideology of Social Science and Its Relations to Philosophy, Routledge and Kegan Paul, New York and London.

Woodward, Peter, 1981, Nationalism and Opposition in the Sudan, African Affairs: Journal of the Royal African Society, Vol. 80, No. 320. July 1981, pp.379-388.

Woodward, Peter, 1980, The South in Sudan Politics 1946-1956, Middle Eastern Studies, Vol. 1, No. pp.179-92.

Woodward, Peter, 1979, Condominium and Sudanese Nationalism, Rex Collings, London.

Worsley, Peter, 1978, The Third World, Weidenfield and Nicolson, London.

Yoshimo, U.Y., 1968, Administrative Attitudes and Relations in Foreign Culture, MSC, Business Topics, Vol. 16, No. 1, Winter, p.65.

Zimbardo, Philip and Ebbeson, Ebbe B., 1970, Influencing Attitudes and Hanging Behaviour, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Massachussetts and London.