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EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN ORGANISATIONS: A STUDY OF JUNIOR WORKERS IN THE COLLEGE OF ART AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN KNUST

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES, KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SOCIOLOGY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my work towards the M.A degree in Sociology and that, in the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the university, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, ideas and practices relating to human resource development have moved beyond a narrow conception of training and development. As business evolves and grow they are faced with great pressure to change. It has become necessary in view of the advancement in the modern world to invest in human resource training and Development. Training both physically, socially, mentally and intellectually are very essential in facilitating the level of productivity but also the development of personnel in organisations.

Training involves the use of formal processes to impart knowledge and help people to acquire the skills necessary for them to perform their jobs satisfactorily. The quality of training carried out by organisations differs from organisations to organisations. Development on the other hand is an unfolding process that enables people to progress from present state of understanding and capability to a future state in which higher-level skills, knowledge and competencies are required.

The study sought to examine the effectiveness of training and development in organisation, It sought to look at whether training improves skills and the role motivation play in training effectiveness. Questionnaire was designed using structured questionnaires to collect data from junior workers of the College of Art and Social Sciences of the university. The result of the training indicated that training impacted very much on the skills of the workers and enhanced positively on their performance. The study also revealed that there is a relationship between effectiveness of training and development and skills and knowledge and acquisition. It was recommended that there should be systematic training for workers through the identification of their training needs and also there should be frequent evaluation of the training given to workers.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mum Ann, husband Ralph and children (Dionne, Charles,

Jernold, Ralph Jnr and Kendra.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Human resource development is very essential to the economic development of every nation. Most of the developed countries such as the USA, United Kingdom and Japan lay so much emphasis on the development of human resources(www.humanresource.com). There is a general agreement among commentators such as business executives, administrators and human resource persons that the structure as well as the fundamental dynamics of business has dramatically changed over the past two decades. Human development is an acclaimed mode of transition of technical skills and ethical values to the labour force of every nation.

At the global level, in the advanced capitalist world, the previous dominance of the U.S.A has begun to give way to a three-way competitive rivalry between North America, the European Union (E.U) and the Pacific Rim countries, which is dominated by Japan and the four tiger nations of Hong Kong, South Korea, Singapore and Taiwan. At the European level, as part of the process of European integration, the E.U has introduced a number of measures to remove barriers to free trade and encourage the mobility of capital, services and people. All these changes in the global world have become possible due to the emphasis placed on the human resources development.

Africa has not been left out of this globalization of trade and business. African youth constitute a vast reservoir of talents and skill and opportunity. Realizing the importance of training and development to the general development of its human resources certain organizational structures have been put in place to train and develop the potentials of African youth. African Development Training Partners (ADPT) is one organization

that plays an important role in the training and development of most African youth to stimulate economic activity and increase productivity.

Ghana is endowed with natural resources and significant human potentials, however, the ability to realize the full potential of its human capital is hampered by the unavailability of necessary logistics such as textbooks, school buildings and qualified teachers. It is therefore believed that with the necessary financial support, Ghana will be able to train and develop its youth and benefit from their potential. It is in this vein that the government places more emphasis on education and training of the youth.

The provision of educational training opportunities, such as the building of more secondary and technical schools, vocational training schools and colleges, professional and tertiary institutions attest to the fact that the government is more interested in developing the talents of its youth. Even though the government is playing its part, it is realized that in the 21st Century, the expectations and values of those who apply for work have changed dramatically. Training and development views have changed drastically over the past years. Gone are the days when the issue was regarded as a matter exclusive to the human resource department. As organizations strive to enhance performance through their human capital, workplace learning professionals and trainers are increasingly expected to deliver results. Formal learning interventions in the contemporary workplace are designed and delivered with the expectation of improving organizational and employee performance. Scholars, experts, social scientist and school administrators now recognize the fact that training is obviously indispensable not only in the development of the individuals but also facilitate the productive capacity of the workers.

Skills and professional training may include technical, interpersonal, managerial and leadership, capacity building and depends on the job specific and the type of the worker. Development, on the other hand, is more focused on the person's career progression and so looks to the future. Development activities may include classroom training, temporary reassignment, coaching and mentoring, reading books and journals and participating in networking events and seminars. Skills training and career development are required for staff to enable them work towards taking the organization to its expected destination. It was against the backdrop of the relative importance of training and development that this work seeks to look at the effectiveness of training and development of junior staff of the College of Art and Social Sciences in Kwame Nkrumah University of Science andTechnology(KNUST).

1.2 Profile of KNUST/CASS

KNUST started as the College of Technology by a government ordinance on 6th

October, 1951. It began formal operations on 22nd January, 1952 with 200 Teacher Training students, who were relocated from Achimota College to form the pioneering students of the college. Consequently the Kumasi College of technology was converted into full-fledged university by an act of parliament on 22nd August, 1961. Previously the university was using the faculty and departmental system. Currently, the university operates the collegiate system and has six colleges under it. These are College of Agriculture and Natural resources, College of Art and Social Sciences,

College of Engineering, College of Health Sciences,College of Architecture and Planning and College of Sciences. The College of Art and Social Sciences was established when the collegiate system was introduced in2005. It has the largest number

of programmes in five faculties namely; Faculty of Art, Law, Business and Social Sciences and a Centre for Cultural and African Studies. Under these faculties are different departments and sections manned by heads of departments and sectional heads respectively.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

According to Olaniyan and Ojo (2008), the success of an organization lies on the people who form and work within the organization. Human resource capacity building is the most valuable asset of any organization because it is the workers who man machines, materials and even money to get things done for organizational success. Therefore, the employees in an organization perform their duties and make meaningful contributions to the success of the organizational goals dependingon the acquired relevant skills and level of knowledge base. It is in this view that organizations such as educational institutions conduct training and development programmes for the different levels of their employees.

Organizational leaders know the benefits of training and development yet most of them are not fully committed to this objective of human capital development. Most organizations keep on identifying problems such as overstaffing, declines in real wages, non-transparent pay systems, sub-optimal organizational and management, limited capacity in skills and administrative technologies, however, there have been an un-coordinated, fragmented and adhoc approach to the training and human developmental needs of the organization.

Another problem identified was that various organizations usually limit their training and development programmes to the senior level management ignoring the middle and

junior level management. This leads to weak teamwork which causes lack of understanding among the various levels… (Bratham et al, 2005). It is also observed that the situation where training and development programmes are undertaken, they do not fit the needs of the various management levels. KNUST as an educational institution is also bedevilled with some of these problems. A brief interaction with sampled junior staff clerks, drivers and plumbers showed that KNUST is more interested in organising training for senior members and senior staff than for junior staff. It is in the light of the above observation that the study seeks to investigate the extent to which workers improve their knowledge after training and also investigate how employees develop understanding and attitudes as a result of the training received.

1.4 Research Questions

1. Does skills training improve workers" job demand and knowledge base?

2. Does training lead to skills development among KNUST junior staff?

3. Is age a variant of training effectiveness?

4. Is there a relationship between gender and training effectiveness?

5. Is there a relationship between incentives and training effectiveness?

6. Is there a relationship between motivation and training effectiveness?

1.5 Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to examine the effectiveness of training and development in organizations. Specifically, the study sought to find out the following:

- Whether skills" training improves job demand knowledge base?

- Training leads to skills development among KNUST junior staff.

- Age as variable determines training effectiveness.

- Gender as a variable determines training effectiveness.

- The relationship between incentives and training development.

- Whether motivation affects training effectiveness.

1.6 Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis I

H0: No significant relationship exists between training and workers skill development.

H1: A significant relationship exists between training and workers skill development.

Hypothesis II

H0: Motivation does not facilitate training effectiveness and skill development.

H1`: Motivation facilitates training effectiveness and skill development

Hypothesis III

H0: Incentives and training effectiveness are not related.

H1: Incentives and training effectiveness are positively related.

HYPOTHESIS IV

H0: Employees age does not determine effectiveness of training and development H1:

Employees age determine effectiveness of training and development.

1.7 Significance of the Study

Research programmes are usually conducted to contribute to knowledge and to transform society. This research would be good for KNUST specifically in organizing and implementing future training programmes. This would help improve the quality of work and raise the moral of the junior workers. It would also help the university to implement new or change policies or regulations pertaining to training and development.

The research would be useful to other organizations which engage in training and development of employees, thus corporate institutions such as universities and the banks would benefit from the recommendations outline of the research in designing policies and training programmes for their employees.

The findings of the study would serve as a reference for future researchers who would like to conduct research into training and development of employees especially in Ghana.

The study would also consolidate the knowledge of the researcher as well as other individuals who have interest in training and development on issues pertaining to training and development so that the gap between theory and practice would be bridged.

1.8 Definition of Concepts

A lot of concepts are used in the study. It is important that these concepts are explained for better understanding.

PRODUCTIVITY: In this work productivity refers to the output per unit of a worker. It is a measure of efficiency of production. It is a ratio of what is required to produce it. Usually this ratio is in the form of an average, expressing the total output divided by the total input .That is, the rate at which workers perform, especially in relation to the work, time and money needed to produce them.

EFFECTIVENESS: It is the capability of producing a desired result. When something is deemed effective it means it has an intended or expected outcome or produces a deep vivid impression. It refers to how a worker is able to put to use knowledge or idea acquired after training and development.

PERFORMANCE: It is the accomplishment of a given task measured against pre-set known standardsor accuracy, completeness, cost and speed. It is also deemed to be the fulfilment of an obligation, in a manner that releases the performer from all liabilities under the contract. It refers to how well or badly a person or worker does a particular job.

TRAINING: It refers to the acquisition of knowledge skills and competencies as a result of the teaching of vocational or practical and knowledge that relate to specific useful competencies. It is the process of teaching or being taught the skills for a particular job or activity.

DEVELOPMENT: It is an organisational activity aimed at bettering the performance of individuals and groups in organisational settings. The process of becoming bigger, better, stronger or more advanced in one‟s profession.

JUNIOR STAFF: This refers to those who fall below the senior level category of the university.

UNDESIRABLE WORKER BEHAVIOUR: Any behaviour put up by a worker that is contrary to what the organisation expects which in turn affects the productivity of the organisation.
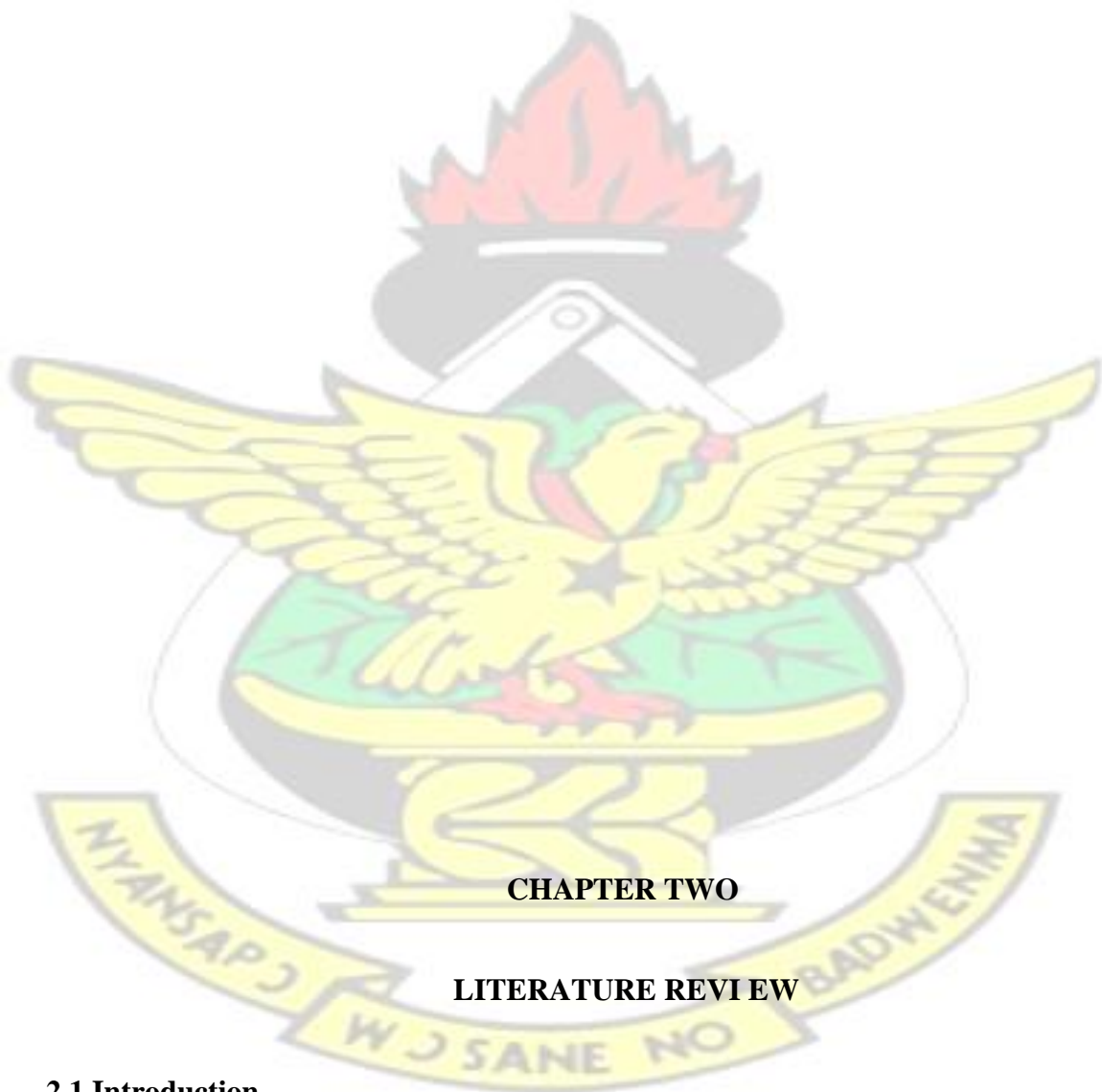
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVI EW

2.1 Introduction

This study involves the review of the literature that has been written about effectivetraining and development of human resource in organisations. The review

identifies the similarities and the differences that exist among the various studies and discusses the salient themes that are relevant to this study. The exact literature reviewed sought to acknowledge the contribution of various scholarly works, done in the field of study and to establish the knowledge gap in the literature which strengthens the justification of this study.

The literature was reviewed in relation to the following themes:

• Historical development of training and development.

• Theories in training and development/motivational theories

• Methods/ Techniques of training and development

• Models/ Cycles of training and development

• The impact of training and development on productivity.

2.2 Historical Development of Training and Development

Training has always been an essential part of human life, particularly in the working environment. The concept of training predates history. The apprenticeship system emerged in ancient cultures to provide a structured approach to the training of unskilled workers by master craftsmen. This system was marked by three distinct stages: the unskilled novice, the journeyman or yeoman, and finally, the master craftsman. Together, they formed an "organic" process whereby the novice "grew" into a master craftsman over a period of years of training.

With the onset of the Industrial Age, the training of the unskilled underwent a dramatic transformation in which vocational education and training emerged to replace the

traditional apprentice system. The division of labour in an industrial factory resulted in specific job tasks that required equally specific training in a much shorter time span. As training activities grew more methodical and focused, the first recognizable modern training methods began to develop during the 19th and early 20th centuries: gaming simulations became an important tool in the Prussian military during the early 1800s and psychodrama and role playing were developed by (Moreno, 1910).

The early 20th century witnessed the emergence of training and development as a profession, resulting in the creation of training associations and societies, the advent of the assembly line requiring greater specificity in training, and the dramatic training requirements of the world wars. In America, important groups started forming, and this included the American Management Association in 1923 (which began as the National Association of Corporation Schools in 1913), and the National Management Association in 1956 (which began as the National Association of Foremen in 1925).

At the same time, Henry Ford (1863-1947) introduced the assembly line at his Highland Park, Michigan, plant. Because the assembly line created an even greater division of labour, along with an unprecedented need for precision and teamwork, job tasks and assignments required more highly specific and focused training than ever before.

The enormous production needs of the World War I and II created a heavy influx of new workers with little or no industrial education or skills to the workplace, thereby necessitating massive training efforts that were fast-paced and effective. In particular, the heavy demand for shipping construction during World War I resulted in a tenfold increase in workers trained on-site by instructors who were supervisors using a simple four-step method: show, tell, do, check. During World War II, large numbers of trained industrial workers left their jobs to enter the armed forces, severely limiting the organizational support normally provided by co-workers in training their replacements.

Heavy demands were placed on foremen and supervisors, and the training within industry (TWI) service was formed to train supervisors as instructors.

Job instruction training (JIT) was employed to train defence-plant supervisors in instructing new employees in necessary job skills as quickly as possible. Other programmes included job relations training (JRT), job methods training (JMT), and job safety training (JST). During this time, the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) was formed (www.humanresource.com)

By the end of World War II most companies and organizations realized the importance of training and development as a fundamental organizational tool. Training programmes that originally were developed in response to national crises had become established corporate activities with long-term strategies working toward improving employee performance. In the mid1950s gaming simulations gained

popularity. Trainers began giving serious consideration to the efficacy of their training programs, and interest in the evaluation of training programs grew. The 1960s witnessed an explosion of training methods as the number of corporations using assessment centres increased from one to one-hundred by the end of the decade.

Government programmes to train young men for industrial jobs, such as the Job Development Program (1965) and the Job Corps were initiated to improve the conditions of the economically disadvantaged. New methods included training laboratories, sensitivity training, programmed instruction, performance appraisal and evaluation, needs assessments, management training, and organizational development.

Training and development in the United Kingdom also started in the 19th century. During the 19th century, vocational and technical education was initially left to voluntary groups and employers, for example the Mechanics Institutes founded in the 1760s to provide technical education. During the next century, technical schools and

colleges offering part-time technical education gradually came into being, some funded by employers and some by private subscription. Under the Technical Instruction Act 1889, responsibility for these institutions was assumed by the new county councils and county boroughs, and many existing colleges and universities came into existence in this way.

Typically, the education provided by these technical colleges was for supervisory and technical staff rather than ordinary manual workers and was mostly carried out in the evenings, in individuals' own time.

During the latter part of the 19th century, concern grew that compared with other industrial nations (notably Germany), Britain's labour force was of a poor standard, leading to a lack of competitiveness. The Associated British Chambers of Commerce felt that, this and related problems of unemployment and under-employment, stemmed from the lack of proper industrial training.

In 1917, the emphasis shifted to skill training for (mainly) disabled ex-servicemen, to enable them to gain both employment and trade union membership. It is significant to note that the government's role was seen as providing residual protection for the most vulnerable (the disabled) rather than to intervene. Training was still seen very much as a matter for employers. From 1925, the interrupted apprenticeship scheme enabled those whose apprenticeships had been interrupted by the war to resume them. A severely restricted number of grants were made available for individual vocational training, while government training centres were established to provide six-month courses in skilled trades if the men concerned were considered to have a reasonable chance of obtaining employment. For the long-term unemployed, instructional centres were established. The aim was to accustom men to the idea of work, and refusal to attend could mean denial of unemployment benefit. For women, training schemes were

established to fit unemployed women and girls for domestic employment and between the wars almost two million people received some form of training, the majority (1.5 million) in Junior Instructional Centres. The principal aim of virtually all the schemes was to mitigate long-term unemployment, which disappeared with the onset of the Second World War.

In 1940 Ernest Bevin, the Minister of Labour and National Service, transformed the Ministry's training schemes to convert industry to all-out war production. Government training centres were given the central role and their numbers expanded to provide labour for munitions factories, and in coal mining.

From 1941 women were admitted for the first time and the length of basic training courses was reduced from 16 weeks to around 4 to 8 weeks. Only those showing exceptional promise were retained for higher grade training, and the majority received only preliminary grounding in trades enabling them to do semi-skilled work. In 1945, with the end of the war in sight, courses were again adapted to the needs of post-war reconstruction to provide training for the building industry.

The post-war years were a period of full employment, and the consensus remained that employers should bear the major responsibility for training their employees; and training, in most cases, still meant time-served apprenticeships which were regulated by industry-wide national agreements between employers and unions, formed by the widely varying custom and practice of each industry.

A voluntary industrial training council was established in 1960 to set up a training advisory service and regional industrial training committees, and encouraged the appointment of training development officers in various industries.

During the 19th century and indeed well into the 20th century, training was based around apprenticeships: for most people, training ended when their apprenticeships ended. On-

the-job training that was unstructured was established to provide semiskilled labourers with capacity to guide them in dispensing their duty.

It was not until the 1920s that theories about management (and, by extension, management education and training) from the USA arrived in the UK. Ever since then, the UK has been quick to pick up ideas from across the Atlantic.The first were F. W. Taylor's principles of scientific management, and sociologists like Elton Mayo suggested that relationships between workers and between management and workers were crucial in maintaining interest in work. In the Second World War, training officers came into being as a distinct category of staff. Training was beginning to develop a business profile. During the 1950s and 60s, Mayo's work was picked up by other sociologists and psychologists like Argyris, McGregor and Herzberg, and by the late 1950s it was accepted that there was more to management than Taylor had suggested, although his legacy lingers on. Work was increasingly complex and dynamic, and there was need to pay attention to innovation and change.

In larger organisationstraining activities with structured courses grew from the 1950s onwards. These courses offered managerial training towards adapting to existent and mostly involved managers too. Managers had initially conducted these courses, but their growth meant that specialist trainers and training departments came into being. After 1964 the ITBs had an impact too, in seeking to spread best practice. In the late 1960s the first business schools in the UK opened, rapidly followed by others; management education had become an academic discipline.

Training through the use of conceptual case studies began in China in the 15th century B.C. Taoist and Confusionists presented parables to their students and asked them to contemplate possible solutions.

In recent times new instructional methods are under continuous development, several training methods have proven highly effective and are widely used to acclimate new employee, impart new skills, and improve existing skills. They include structured onthe-job training, role playing, self-instruction, team building games and simulations, computer-based training, mentoring, and job rotation.

2.3 Theories of Training

Different training and development theories have emerged over the years. Numerous viewpoints concerning learning process exist today. The objective of this study, however, is to classify the theoretical review of the existing literature of the learning/training theories into three paradigms. These are (a) behaviourism or social learning, (b) constructivism, (c) cognitivism theories.

2.3.1 Behavioural Theories

J.B. Watson is said to be the father of Behaviourism. He studied animal's response to conditioning based on the experiments of Ivan Pavlov. It was Watson (1913) who concluded that learning is a sequence of stimulus and response actions in observable cause and effect relationships.

Behaviourism focuses on objectively observable behaviours and discounts mental activities. Behaviourists focus on eliminating maladaptive, conditional reflexes, and developing more adaptive ones, often working with people suffering from irrational fears or phobias (Alberto & Troutman, 2003). They view learning as the acquisition of

new behaviour and identify two different types of conditioning as a universal learning process: These are (a) classical conditioning and (b) operant conditioning.

Operant Conditioning: Operant conditioning occurs when a response to a stimulus is reinforced. If behaviour is rewarded, that behaviour is repeated. B.F. Skinner (1968) is considered the best-known behaviourist to use reinforcement techniques and is responsible for much of the sophistication of modern training and teaching. The theory of B.F. Skinner is based upon the idea that learning is a function of change in overt behaviour. Changes in behaviour are the result of an individual's response to events (stimuli) that occur in the environment. According to Skinner, voluntary or automatic behaviour is either strengthened or weakened by the immediate presence of a reward or punishment (Skinner, 1968).

The most important aspect of Skinner's contribution to training is the significance attached to the organism, which is essentially active in the environment in the emitting behaviour. According to Skinner, the job of the trainer is to ensure the right behaviour is reinforced, thus the trainer should have the clear idea about the terminal behaviour of the trainees, and the trainer should closely follow the trainees to appropriately reinforce correct responses. This is the purpose of programmed instruction. Burns (1995) notes that much competency basedtraining are based on this theory.

2.3.2 Cognitive Theories

Cognitive theories on the other hand view learning as involving the acquisition or reorganization of the cognitive structures through which human process and store information" (Good & Brophy, 1990). Cognitive theory is governed by an objective

view of the nature of knowledge and what it means to know something; it emphasises that, the transition from behavioural instructional design principles to those of a cognitive style was not entirely difficult. The goal of instruction remained the communication and transfer of knowledge to learners in the most efficient and effective manner possible (Bender et al, 1995).

Classical Gestalt Theory and Tolman‟s Sign Learning Theory, which is otherwise known as purposive behaviourism, are the most important cognitive theories relevant to training. The gestalt psychologists explain that, learning is neither a matter of adding new traces nor subtracting old ones but of changing one gestalt into another. They view learning as a purposive, exploitative, imaginative and creative process of developing new insights or modifying old ones (Biggie, 1964; Hill, 1963). Hill (2002) treats motivation as a crucial aspect of learning process. It is closely related to arousal, attention, anxiety, and feedback/reinforcement. Weiner (1990) points out that behavioural theories tend to focus on extrinsic motivation (rewards) while cognitive theories deal with intrinsic motivation (i.e., goals)

Tolman's theory is an attempt to combine the advantages of cognitive and connectionism theories. Tolman (1932) states that what an individual learns serves as "the lay of the land," which gradually develops a picture of the environment known as the "cognitive map". Once he is given a problem, he uses the map to solve it by selecting alternative ways and means. Three characteristics of Tolman‟s theory (Hill, 1963; Morea, 1972; Hillgard and Bower; 1975) include: (a) The concern with goal directed behaviour, not with conscious experience; (b) the explanation of learning in terms of the effects of external stimuli on behaviour; and (c) the consideration of the behaviour which is changed through an organism‟s experience of the environment.

The points that assume importance in the context of training and development are (a) individual behaviour which is goal directed so that training should take into account the trainee's goal; (b) learning is a meaningful process so training must evolve a process where the learner can understand what he learns; and (c) each learner learns through his own cognitive map. The trainer should take this into account and organize a program on the basis of the cognitive maps of the learners.

Constructivism: Constructivism is recognized as a unique learning theory in itself. Behaviourism and cognitivism both support the practice of analysing a task and breaking it down into manageable chunks, establishing objectives, and measuring performance based on those objectives. Constructivism, on the other hand, promotes a more open-ended learning experience where the methods and results of learning are not easily measured and may not be the same for each learner.

Constructivism as a paradigm or worldview posits that learning is an active, constructive process. The learner is an information constructor. Training enables workers to actively construct their own subjective representation of objective reality. Constructive learning is transferable.

Training allows workers to create organising principles that they can take with them to other learning settings. In this sense they gain ownership of what trainers learn.

Constructive training assessment engages trainers" initiative and personal investments in physical models and artistic representation.By grounding learning activities in an authentic real world context, constructivism stimulates and engages trainers.

Finally constructivism promotes social and communication skills by creating a seminar or training environment that emphasises collaboration and free exchange of ideas.

Trainers learn how to articulate their ideas clearly as well as collaborate on task effectively by sharing in group projects.

2.3.3 Social Learning Theories

Social learning theories, especially the Social Learning Theory of Bandura and Double Loop Learning of Argyris, have been found to have great relevance in the context of training and development. Bandura's social learning theory got the widest acceptance because of its complete, but parsimonious interpretation of social learning (Davis &Luthans, 1980; Manz& Sims, 1981). Bandura‟s theory explains human behaviour in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and environmental determinants. Learning takes place both as a result of experienced responses (i.e., operant view of learning) and vicariously through observing the effects on the social environment of other people's behaviour. In explaining his theory of modelling, Bandura (1969, 1976, and 1977) considers four distinct components or sub-processes: attention, retention, motor reproduction, and motivational processes. These processes explain the acquisition and maintenance of observational learning or modelling (Davis and Luthans, 1980) as it happens in

training.

Social learning theory plays an important role in training and development. First, the manager, by becoming a role model for his/her co-workers, can improve their behaviour. In fact, employees are more likely to imitate their superiors than their peers because of their status, experience and reward power. Second, modelling has a considerable role to play in implementing a self-managed approach through selfobservation and self-monitoring (Davis and Luthans, 1980). Third, for improving the effectiveness of training, a vicarious or modelling principle has been proposed to

be used in four stages, namely, 1) presentation of models displaying the desired behaviours, 2) imitation or rehearsal by the observer of the modelling behaviours; 3) social reinforcement or favourable recognition for adoption of the modelled behaviours by the observer; and 4) transfer of training to encourage the use of learned behaviours back on the job (Goldstein and Sorcher, 1974; Manz and Sims, 1981).

Because of the importance in human interaction in management, social learning theory (particularly modelling and role-playing) provides general framework for many aspects of management education. Coaching and monitoring are commonly used management development techniques that attempt to harness social learning in the work place (example, Rossett, 1990).

Learning theories are the basic raw materials, which are applied in training activities. It is, therefore, essential that the trainer understand the learning theories so that he or she can design the effective training program. Schon (1990), defines design as "the process by which things are made, designers make presentations of things to be built" (p, 110). The behaviourists, the cognitivists, and the humanists emphasize different aspects of the teaching-learning process in their approaches. While behaviourists focus on external environmental conditions resulting in observations and measurable changes in behaviour, constructivists believe that all humans have the ability to construct knowledge in their own minds through a process of discovery and problemsolving. On the other hand, the humanists emphasize on emotions, attitudes of human behaviour that influence learning.

Although all learning theories permeate all dimensions of training, none of them is most appropriate under all circumstances. Depending on the trainees and training approaches, different learning theories may apply. The training facilitator is just like a house builder who selects different tools as different problems arise. Consider the

example of three approaches to training, which are: (a) the traditional approach to training, (b) the experiential approach, and (c) the performance-based approach (Rama et al, 1993). In traditional approach to building a house (training), the training director designs the objectives, contents, techniques, assignments, plans, motivation, evaluation etc, while in experiential approach; the training director incorporates the experiences wherein the trainee becomes most active and influences the training process. In this approach, trainers and trainees jointly determine the objectives and order of the training. On the other hand, performance-based approach to training measures goals through the attainment of a given level of efficiency instead of passing grades of the trainees. Therefore, different tools are needed in different training styles like a house builder needs different tools for different problems.

Learning theories not only explain how learning takes place but also why learning occurs. These theories provide us with a relevant conceptual framework for interpreting the learning processes and direct our attention to those variables that are crucial in achieving the desired goals. Therefore, the training director gets the underlying structures of the learners' way of learning through this theoretical knowledge and can identify what particular behaviour is involved in the proposed training program.

2.4 Motivational Theories

Motivation according to Armstrong (2006) is concerned with the factors that influence people to behave in certain ways. There are three components of motivation; these are direction (that is what a person is trying to do), effort, (how hard a person is trying) and persistence, (how long a person keeps on trying). Approaches to motivation are underpinned by motivation theory. These theories are instrumentality theory, content theory and process theory.

2.4.1 Instrumentality Theory

This theory has the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another. Instrumentality theory states that people only work for money (Armstrong 2006). The theory emerged in the 19th century with its emphasis on the need to rationalise work and on economic outcomes. It assumes that a person will be motivated to work if rewards and penalties are tied directly to his or her performance, thus the awards are contingent upon effective performance. Instrumentality theory has its roots in Taylorism that is the scientific management methods of F.W Taylor (1911). He stated that „It is impossible, through any long period of time to get workmen to work much harder than the average men around them unless they are assured a large and permanent increase in their pay‟. This principle is based on reinforcement as influenced by Skinner‟s (1974) concept of conditioning- the theory that people can be conditioned to act in certain ways if they are rewarded for behaving as required. It is also called the law of effect. (Armstrong, 2010: 254)

2.4.2 Content (Needs) Theory

The basis of this theory is the belief that the content of motivation consists of needs. An unsatisfied need creates tension and a state of disequilibrium. To restore the balance, a goal that will satisfy the need is identified, and a behaviour pathway that will lead to the achievement of the goal is selected. All behaviour is therefore motivated by unsatisfied needs.

According to content,all needs are equally important for a person at any time; some may provide a much more powerful drive towards a goal than others depending on the individual‟s background and present situation. The theory also states that the same need can be satisfied by a number of different goals and the stronger the need and the longer

its duration, the broader the range of possible goals. At the same time one goal may satisfy a number of needs, a new car provides transport as well as an opportunity to impress the neighbours.

Needs theory was developed by Maslow (1954) who postulated the concept of a hierarchy of needs. He suggested that there are five major needs categories which apply to people in general, starting from the fundamental physiological needs and leading through a hierarchy of safety, social and esteem needs to the self-fulfilment, the highest need of all.

The implication of Maslow's theory is that the higher order needs for esteem and selffulfilment provides the greatest impetus to motivation, that is, they grow in strength when they are satisfied, while the lower needs decline in strength on satisfaction. But the jobs people do will not necessarily satisfy their needs,especially when they are routine or deskilled. Even though this theory has been seen as very intuitive and very influential it has not been verified by empirical research and it has been criticised for its apparent rigidity. Different people may have different priorities and it is difficult to accept that peoples need progress steadily up the hierarchy.

2.4.3 Process Theory

This theory emphasises on the psychological process of forces that affect motivation, as well as on basic needs. It is also known as cognitive theory because it is concerned with people's perceptions of their working environment and the ways in which they interpret and understand it. According to Guest (1992a), process theory provides a much relevant approach to motivation than the theories of Maslow and Herzberg which he suggests have been shown by extensive research to be wrong. Cognitive theory can

be more useful to managers than needs theory because it is seen to provide more realistic guidance on motivation techniques. The processes areexpectations (expectancy theory), goal achievements(goal theory) and feelings about equity(equity theory).

Herzberg was the first to show that satisfaction and dissatisfaction at work nearly always arose from different factors. Herzberg (1959) wrote the following useful little phrase, which helps explain his fundamental theory, that the factors which motivate people at work are different to and not simply the opposite of the factors which cause dissatisfaction. This theory can be expanded by stating that the job satisfiers deal with the factors involved in doing the job, whereas the job dissatisfiers deal with the factors which define the job context."

The 2008 graph diagram presented by Herzberg was based on the total percentages of 'First-Level' factors arising in his 1959 research of high and low attitude events among 200 engineers and accountants, encompassing short and long duration feelings. While Herzberg's overall conclusions were clear and consistent, the statistics from his study was interpreted in many different ways in their finer details, because of the depth and layering of his survey methodology and analysis

Certain parallels can be seen with Maslow theory.Herzberg's ideas relate strongly to modern ethical management and social responsibility, and directly to the Psychological Contract. This is remarkable. Herzberg's ideas were developed several decades before proper consideration and description of these more recent and important organizational perspectives. Many decades ago, Herzberg like Maslow, understood well and attempted to teach the ethical management principles that many leaders today, typically in businesses and organisations that lack humanity, still struggle to grasp. In this respect Herzberg's concepts are just as relevant now as when he first suggested them, except

that the implications of responsibility, fairness, justice and compassion in business are now global.

Although Herzberg is most noted for his famous 'hygiene' and motivational factors theory, he was essentially concerned with people's well-being at work. Underpinning his theories and academic teachings, he was basically attempting to bring more humanity and caring into the workplace. He and others like him did not develop their theories to be used as 'motivational tools' purely to improve organisational performance. They sought instead primarily to explain how to manage people properly, for the good of all people at work.

Herzberg's research proved that people will strive to achieve 'hygiene' needs because they are unhappy without them, but once satisfied, the effect soon wears off - satisfaction is temporary. Then as now, poorly managed organisations fail to understand that people are not 'motivated' by addressing 'hygiene' needs. People are only truly motivated by enabling them to reach for and satisfy the factors that Herzberg identified as real motivators, such as achievement, advancement, development, etc., which represent a far deeper level of meaning and fulfilment.

Examples of Herzberg's 'hygiene' needs (or maintenance factors) in the workplace are:policy, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, salary, company car, status, security, relationship with subordinates, and personal life. Herzberg's research identified that true motivators were other completely different factors, notably:achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibilityand advancement.

Herzberg identified a specific category within the study responses which he called 'possibility of growth'. This arose in relatively few cases within the study and was not considered a major factor by him. Where referring to 'growth' or 'personal growth' in terms of Herzberg's primary motivators, 'growth' should be seen as an aspect of

advancement, and not confused with the different matter of 'possibility of growth'. Herzberg addressed money particularly referring specifically to 'salary' in his study and analysis. He acknowledged the complexity of the salary issue (money, earnings, etc.), and concluded that money is not a motivator in the way that the primary motivators are, such as achievement and recognition.

He explained that salary appears as frequently in the high sequences of events causing high or low attitude feelings recalled by interviewees in the study as it does in the low sequences, however, we find that in the lows events leading to dissatisfaction, salary is found almost three times as often in the long-range as in the short-range attitude changes. There was no such bias towards the more important long-range feelings in the high attitude events.

About the interrelation of salary and other factors, he stated that, when salary occurred as a factor in the low cases, that is causes of dissatisfaction.It revolved around the unfairness of the wage system within the company, it was the system of salary administration that was being described it concerned an advancement that was not accompanied by a salary increase. In contrast to this, salary was mentioned in the high stories that areevents causing satisfaction, as something that went along with a person's achievement on the job. Salaries are a form of recognition; it meant more than money; it meant a job well done; it meant that the individual was progressing in his work.

Herzberg‟s conclusion on money was viewed within the context of the sequences of events, salary as a factor belongs more in the group that defines the job situation and is primarily a „dissatisfier‟. Many people argue nevertheless that money is a primary motivator butfor most people money is not a motivator. For all people there are bigger more sustaining motivators than money. Surveys and research studies repeatedly show that other factors motivate more than money.For instance, a survey by Development

Dimensions International published in the UK Times newspaper in 2004 interviewed 1,000 staff from companies employing more than 500 workers, and found many to be bored, lacking commitment and looking for a new job. Pay actually came fifth in the reasons people gave for leaving their jobs.

The main reasons were lack of stimulus jobs and no opportunity for advancement - classic Herzberg motivators - 43% left for better promotion chances, 28% for more challenging work; 23% for a more exciting place to work; and 21% and more varied work.

While many of course give up their 'daily grind' jobs, some do not. They wisely recognise that their work is part of their purpose and life-balance. Others who give up their jobs do so to buy or start and run their own businesses. They are pursuing their dream to achieve something special for themself, whatever that might be. And whatever it means to them, the motivation is not to make money, otherwise why don't they just keep hold of what they've got? Why risk it on a project that will involve lots of effort and personal commitment? Of course the reason they invest in a new business venture is that pursuing this sort of plan is where the real motivators are found - achievement, responsibility, advancement, etc. not money.

2.5 Training Models/Cycle

Business evolves and grows and employees need to keep pace with new developments. Evaluating business for needs training or not is the first step in the training model. Once gaps are identified in employees" skills it may require some specific training to meet the new task. There are various training models that are used

in training. There is the five steps training model but most of them are the four step model.

Figure 1: A diagram showing the Basic Five Step Training Cycle in Organisations.
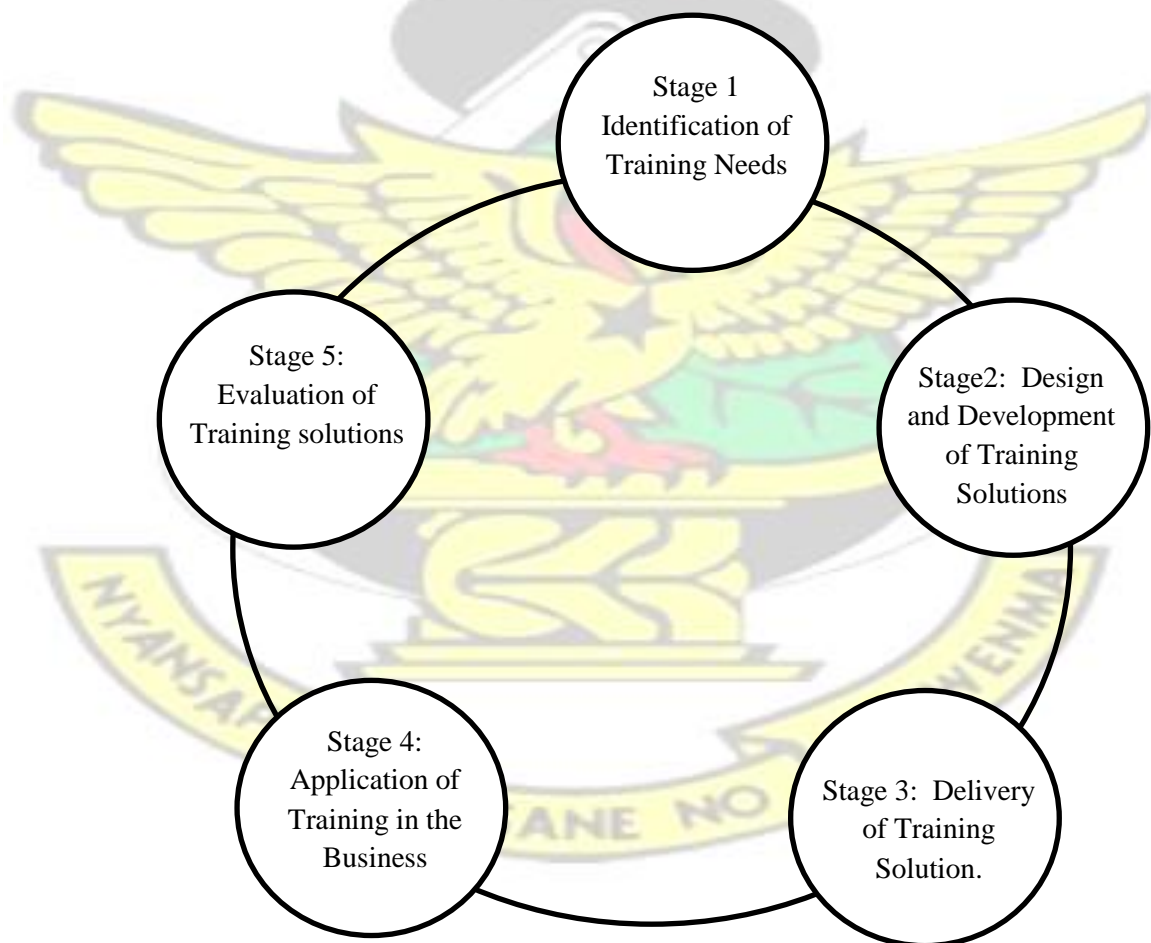
Source: Bratton and Gold(2003)

The stage one of this model is the initial stage of the training cycle. It addresses or identifiestraining need.This stage will help those who identify training needs to consider why the training is required and its expected outcome and impact. Additionally, this stage considers measurement and evaluation of training impact on workers behaviour change and job performance.How you will measure if the training has met the original need that is, brought about intended change in behaviour, performance etc.

The second stage covers planning, design and development of training. It aims to ensure that a systematic and consistent approach is adopted for all training solutions. Training solutions cover face to face training and open and flexible learning including e-learning.The third stage of the training cycle ensures that the delivery of the training is effective and provides opportunities for the learners to learn. This will involve choosing the most appropriate format for meeting training needs, and taking advantage of different training methods.

The fourth stage of the training cycle is concerned with ensuring that all learning outcomes are applied and reinforced in practice within the business environment. This stage helps those who monitor the development of individual learners and review their progress.The fifth and final stage of the training cycle deals with the collection, analysis and presentation of information to establish the improvement in performance that results from the training. This stage will help those who evaluate learning programmes, or who respond to developments in learning, or plan and introduce improvements in learning interventions

2.5.1 Systematic Training Model

According to Bratton & Gold (2003) the systematic training model is a preferred routine that is adopted by organizations in the training process. This approach emerged during the 1960"s under the encouragement of the industrial training boards. The approach was based on a four-stage process and was widely adopted as a new training model.

This model neatly matches the conception of what most organizations would regard as rationality and efficiency, a consistent theme in many human resource processes. With this model the emphasis is on cost effectiveness throughout. Training needs of employeesare identified so that wasteful expenditure can be avoided. Objectives involving standards are set, whilst programmes are designed and implemented based on the objectives. Finally outcomes are evaluated or more precisely validated to ensure that the programme meets the objectives originally specified based on the organisational criteria. In the systematic model training needs assessment and analysis is concerned with identifying gaps between work performance and standards of work or performance criteria that have a training solution. Once these gaps have been identified, clear and specific objectives can be established that can be used to design learning events and evaluate the outcomes. Outcomes of the needs would be used to plan development activities. These may take the form of on –the-job courses run by specialists and increasingly, open and distance learning or e-learning activities. Evaluation occurs as the last stage of the model. Although a number of writers have pointed out the value evaluation at each stage does (Donnelly, 1987), the image of evaluation encompassed by many trainers is that of a final stage added on at the end of a training course. In such cases, evaluation serves to provide a feedback to trainers, so that small adjustments and improvements may be made to activities, or to provide data

to prove that the training meets the objectives set so that the expenditure on training may be justified.

Taylor (1991) has argued that it is possible to present two views of why systematic training models may not match organizational reality. In the first, referred to as the rehabilitative critique, it is argued that the systematic models concept are sound and can be used as an approximation to reality, serving to highlight the problems to be overcome at each stage by refining techniques. In identifying training needs, for example, trainers may not have access to the real learning needs of the organization because of lack of access to information and low credibility with senior managers. The refinement would be for trainers to raise the profile of training. The second view is the radical critique whichargues that the systematic model is based on flawed assumptions and is merely a legitimizing myth to establish the role of the trainer and allow management"s right- to define skill within the employment relationship .It is often assumed that,training is in everyone"s interest. In times of rapid change, however the definition of skills and the redesign of work, which determine and is determined by employee learning, may lead to a divergence of interest between employees and management and unbalance the employment relationship between them.

Taylor however concluded that while systematic models may have helped to professionalise the training activity and provide a simple and easily understood explanation of training procedures, such models are incomplete and really suitable for organizations operating in stable environments where goals could be clearly set, outcomes measured and mere compliance obtained from employees. According to Taylor (1991) however, continued adherence towards what is still essentially a mechanistic procedure may well prevent trainers tapping into the more nebulous but powerful organizational forces such as mission, creativity, culture and values.

2.5.2 Integrated Approach Model

Due to the problems associated with the systematic training model the integrated approach was also adopted. It is an approach that highlights interdependence within an organization, such as link to strategy, the role of line managers and perhaps the emergent features of learning. It is therefore an approach to which the label „human resource development" seems more suited. Because change may occur frequently, it is important the people are able and prepared to move beyond their existing skills, knowledge and abilities. Competencies can be utilized within a performance management system to provide performance and development plan that will include the identification of training needs and a plan to meet such needs. Instead of being driven by trainers, training needs are demand-led. Research into the use of competencies has found that, the main uses are discussions and rating of job performance, and identifying training needs (Strebler et al, 1997). It is interesting to note that the overall satisfaction with competencies depended on the way in which they were introduced and the provision of training for those who will be required to use them. It was, however, also found that where competencies were used in performance review identifying training and development needs might actually be detrimental to confidence when using competencies. This difficulty highlights the importance of the line manager"s role in the assessment and development of others. At the heart of the learning climate lies the line manager- employee relationship.

Human resource development requires the integration of the various activities, the key to achieving this depends on the thoughts, feelings and actions of line managers. Some organizations have recognized this and have included developing others within their competency frameworks for managers(industrial relations services, 2001). A number

of roles have been associated with managers to support the fusion, including coaching and mentoring.

The move from mechanistic training towards an HRD approach is not without its difficulty and problems. Chief among these is that an organization can be understood as a single and unified entity in which the voice of management is dominant. As (Garavan et al, 1999) argue, most comments about HRD tend to make such an assumption and adopt a top-down perspective.

Typical of such a view is the idea that competency frameworks, has a link between strategy and performance and they provide descriptions of a one best approach to fulfil work tasks. They also work prescriptively to state corporate values for everyone(industrial relations services, 2001). There is, however, the potential of such frameworks to restrict creativity and retreat to narrow and mechanistic training activities that serve short-term needs (Garavan and McGuire, 2001). Further difficulties arise from generalized and abstracted presentation of a skill as a combination of different competencies. Holmes (2000) argues that the root problem is the belief that there are definitive meanings of skill. Instead, skill is often dependent on the situation and context which are highly varied.

It is increasingly being recognized that rather than seeing organizations as single, unified and stable entities, a more pluralist and dynamic view needs to be adopted and composed of a set of ongoing activities and processes. It is within such activities and processes that people make sense of what they do and how work should occur, including what should not be learnt. Bratton (2001) argues, where management presents HRD to pursue policies of „lean" production, employees may be reluctant to learn new skills. In the context of a change to the employment relationship during restructuring, an employee may be required to learn but may also become aware that, such learning has

a cost and may undermine her or his collective relations with other employees. Employees may realize that learning agenda belongs to management and that talk of corporate values, strategy and competencies are not neutral but rest on a dominant management ideology. Other models such as Kolb model can also be adopted. However, whichever the trainer will decide to use, is very important that the right training technique or method is used in other that the organization achieve the necessary benefit from the money invested in the training.

2.6 Methods or Techniques of Training and Development

Although training needs differ from company to company, the techniques and methods used to carry out training are usually similar. Some of the most often-used techniques and methods include the informal methods such as on-the-job training, coaching, mentoring job rotation, behaviour modelling and self-paced learning as well as the formal methods known as the classroom training which includes methods such as lecture, case study, discussion, role-playing, demonstration, simulation etc.

2.6.1 On-The-Job Training

On-the-job training (OJT). This is the simplest and most basic form of training. You sit the employee down at the machine, show him how to run it, check up on him frequently at first, less often later. He receives direct experience and produces while he learns. On-the job training however has cost in that supervisors have to spend time overseeing the training, the more trainees, the more time it takes as the supervisors goes from one to the other. Also, supervisors may not be especially skilful at delivering training .Also, trainees will never produce at the same rate as a trained worker, but will tie up the use of actual production machinery or facilities while being trained, and may inadvertently

damage expensive equipment. A benefit of OJT is that it allows the trainees to experience actual job conditions. A bank teller may learn certain skills in the classroom, but will have no experience in handling the pressure and conflicting demands of operating during a Friday rush in the bank. It should however be noted that OJT is usually used when the number of trainees is small, it is also good when training is conducted under real work conditions .It is also good when you need to use actual equipment in production, also when you have good supervisors for training and they have the time. Other employees can also be used to teach their skills to others However, OJT should be avoided if large number of employees is to be trained. .It is also important to know that you cannot take supervisors off the job to do training.

2.6.2 Job Rotation

It is often used as a method of training for high fliers, the object being that when the individual reaches the top of the organisation he will be able to draw on vast range of experiences from different parts of the organisation. The time spent in each of the various jobs is usually one to two years. A variant on this is a graduate traineeship where the trainees spend shorter periods in either variety of sections in the same department or in a variety of departments.Walters (1983) identifies four less job related forms of training in the field. These range from observational visits through to consultancy exercises where the trainees tackle and hopefully solve real problem. The value of these experiences very much depend on the way they are structured, and often trainees become frustrated as they want to get on with the real job. Work shadowing, where the trainee spends a period of time accompanying an experienced person in post, could also be included here.

2.6.3 Self-paced Learning

Different terms are used for self-paced learning, such as distance learning, open learning and flexible learning. The critical features are the issue of flexibility. Learners control the pace and the timing of their own learning and they are not tutor- dependent. The most traditional version of self-paced learning is the correspondence course. These are used today, not because of their perceived excellence, but because of the difficulties of finding formal courses and meeting formal time-tables. Developments from self-paced learning include radio and television inputs which lead to open university-style of learning. Programmed instruction, either in the form of text or via teaching machines, was seen as the future of distance learning some fifteen to twenty years ago. This method has never really fulfilled its potential and further developments have concentrated on computer- based training and more recently on interactive video. Although such training is not trainer-dependent, the trainer plays a vital role as a reference point for the trainee, and is someone who can provide help and encouragement. The trainer also plays a vital role in ensuring that the learning materials and content are appropriate for and acceptable to the learners, which is a more difficult task when there is little contact with trainees. Webberley (1986) argues that the learning „agenda" should be negotiated with the trainees where possible.

2.6.4.Coaching

According to Armstrong (2007), the industrial society (1999) defines coaching as the art of facilitating the enhanced performance, learning and development of others". It takes the form of a personal on –the job approach to help people to develop their skills and levels of competence. Hirsch and Carter (2002), state that coaching is aimed at the rapid improvement of skills behaviour and performance usually for the present job. The coach uses feedback and brings an objective perspective. The need for coaching may

arise from formal or informal performance reviews, but opportunities for coaching will emerge during normal day-to-day activities. Coaching is most effective when the coach understands that his or her role is to help people to learn and individuals are motivated to learn. Individuals should be given guidance on what they should learn and feedback on how they are doing. Coaching takes place within the framework of the general plan of the areas and direction in which individuals will benefit from further development. Coaching plans can be incorporated into the personal development plans set out in a performance agreement.

2.6.5.Mentoring

It is the process of using specially selected and trained individuals to provide guidance, pragmatic advice and continuing support, which will help the person or persons allocated to them to learn and develop. It has been defined by Clutterbuck (2004) as off line help from one person to another in making significant transitions in knowledge, work or thinking.

Hirsch and Carter (2002) suggest that mentors prepare individuals to perform better in future and groom them for higher and greater things that is, career advancement. It is also defined as a method of helping to learn, as distinct from coaching, which is relatively a direct means of increasing people"s competence. It involves learning on the job so the individual will acquire the particular skills and knowledge the job holder needs.

Mentoring also complements formal training by providing those who benefit from it with individual guidance from experienced managers who are wise in the ways of the organisation. Mentors usually provide their mentees- with; general help with learning programmes, guidance on how to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to do a

new job, advice on dealing with any administrative, technical or people problems individuals meet, especially in the early stages of their careers. Mentors give information on the way things are to be done around the organisation to conform to the corporate culture and its manifestations in the shape of core values and organisational behaviour. There are no standard for mentoring procedure; it is essential to select mentors who are likely to adopt the right non directive but supportive help to the person or persons they are dealing with. Mentees are then carefully briefed and trained in their respective roles.

2.6.6.Classroom Training

Classroom training is used when you need more balance in the information you want to get across. With on-the-job-training, the trainee might get one or two things repeated over and over but miss the chance to really learn other important facets of the job. In classrooms, you can focus more strongly on the specific skills that trainees need to acquire. The trainer has more control and can train a number of individuals at one time. The methods used in classroom training include:

Lecture: A lecture is a talk with little or no learner participation except a question- and-answer session at the end. It is used to transfer information to an audience with controlled content and timing. When the audience is large there may be no alternative to a straight lecture if there is no scope to break it up into discussion groups. The effectiveness of a lecture depends on the ability of the speaker to present material with judicious use of visual aids. However effective the speaker, it is unlikely that more than 20% of what was said will be remembered at the end of the day..... And after a week, all will be forgotten unless the listeners have put some of their learning into practice. For maximum effectiveness, the lecture must never be longer than 30 or 40 minutes; it

must not contain too much information, it must reinforce learning with appropriate visual aids and it must clearly indicate the action that should be taken to make use of the material.

Case study:A case study is a history or description of an event or set of circumstances that is analysed by trainees in order to diagnose the causes of a problem and work out how to solve it. Case studies are mainly used in courses for managers and team leaders because, they are based on the belief that, managerial competence and understanding can best be achieved through the study and discussion of real events. Case studies aim at promoting enquiry, exchange ideas, and the analysis of experience in order that the trainees can discover underlying principles that the case study is designed to illustrate. Case study is not based on facts. The analysis of a case study is superficial and the situation is unrealistic. It is the trainer''s job to avoid these dangers

by ensuring that the participants are not allowed to get away with half baked comments. Trainers have to challenge assumptions and force people to justify their reasoning. Trainers have to seize every chance to draw out the principles they want to illustrate from the discussion and to get the group to see how these are relevant to their own working situation.

Discussion: The main objectives of discussions is to get the audience to participate actively in learning, It is also to give people the opportunity of learning from the experience of others; to help people to gain the understanding of other points of view and to develop powers of self-expression. The aim of the facilitator is to guide the groups thinking. He or she may therefore, be more concerned with shaping attitudes than imparting new knowledge. The facilitator may stimulate people to talk, guide the discussion along predetermined lines.

Role-playing: In role-playing, the participants act out a situation by assuming the roles of the character involved. The situation will be one in which there is interaction between two people or within a group. It should be specially prepared with briefs written for each participant explaining the situation and broadly, their role in it. Alternatively, role playing could emerge naturally from case study when the trainees are asked to test their solution by playing the parts of those concerned. Role-playing is used to give managers, team leaders or sales representatives practice in dealing with face-to-face situations such as interviewing, conducting a performance review meeting, counselling, coaching, dealing with a grievance, selling, leading a group or running a meeting. It develops interactive skills and gives people insight into the way in which people behave and feel .Role-playing enables trainees to get expert advice and constructive criticism from the trainer and their colleagues in a protected training situation.It can help to increase confidence as well as skills in handling people. The main difficulties are either that trainers are embarrassed or that they do not take the exercise seriously and overplay their parts.

Demonstration: Demonstration is an essential stage in instruction, especially when the skills to be learnt is mainly a doing skill (Bratton and Gold 2003) Demonstration takes place in three steps:

The complete operation is shown at normal speed to show the trainee how the task should be carried out eventually.

-The operation is demonstrated slowly and in correct sequence, element by element, to indicate clearly what is done and the order in which each task is carried out.

-The operation is demonstrated again slowly, at least two or three times, to stress the how when and why of successive movements.

Simulation: Simulation is a training technique that combines case studies and role playing to obtain the maximum amount of realism in classroom training. The aim is to facilitate the transfer of what has been learnt off the job to the on-the-job behaviour by reproducing, in the training room, situations that are as close as possible to real life.

Trainees are given the opportunity to practice behaviour conditions identical to or at least very similar to those they will meet when they complete the course. It is worth noting that even though it is true that professional training personnel, either in-house or outside, are the most skilled at presenting information, it is often more costeffective to develop line personnel as trainers. When you train your own trainers, you help them develop new skills, and eliminate the need to explain highly complex or technical materials to people not familiar with your company.

2.7 Impact of Training and Development on Productivity

Training, education and degree completion programs have become one of the most desired employee benefits available to job seekers. Among younger job seekers, the opportunity to learn new skills is the number one benefit they seem to expect.

According to Gregory P Smith(www.humanresource.com).in his article Employee training and retention, Generation X and Generation Y workforce view training and development as critical. They value the opportunity to advance and make more money. They also want to make a bigger contribution and have a fear of failing or falling behind in a competitive world.

Satisfying this desire with training accomplishes personal and organizational goals. Well-trained employees are more capable and willing to assume more control over their jobs. They need less supervision, which frees management for other tasks. Employees

are more capable to answer the questions of customers, which builds better customer loyalty. Employees who understand the business complain less, are more satisfied, and are more motivated. All this leads to better management-employee relationships.

The American Management Association (www.humanresource.com)survey of 352 HR executives confirmed that certain enhancement issues were of top importance to employees and improved retention. "Investing in employees' future is more important than immediate compensation (Rolfe GreenbergAMA's director of management studies) in his work."Programs that improve work skills and future career development are seen as particularly effective." Has reported that: The AMA survey identified the following skill enhancement techniques as a retention strategy:

Skill Enhancement Issue/Used in Organizations

- External conferences/seminars/78.1%

- Tuition reimbursement/67.3%

- Managerial training/66.8%

- Company support for degree/62.2%

- Interpersonal skills training/56.8%

- Technical training/54.5%

- Employability training/35.2%

It further stated that in a study of more than 3,100 U.S. workplaces, the National Centre on the Educational Quality of the Workforce (EQW) found that on average, a

10 percent increase in workforce education level led to an 8.6 percent gain in total productivity but a 10 percent increase in the value of equipment increased

productivity just 3.4 percent.

Another study by ASTDshowed that "leading-edge" companies trained 86 percent of employees while "average" companies trained only 74 percent. Leading edge

companies also spent twice as much per employee. Companies that invest the most in workplace learning, the study showed yielded higher net sales per employee, higher gross profits per employee, and a higher ratio in market-to-book values.

In addition to better productivity, organizations that emphasize employee development make a lasting impression on their employees" Adeniyi (1995) It has also been realized that employee training allow organizations to achieve management objectives, resolve issues and align cultures to their mission and values. Employee training and development initiates, can transform organizations specialized skills training to employees by not only increasing safety and productivity but also leads to higher job satisfaction which highly improves performance of the organization. Training and development leads to job satisfaction and high morale among employees. In addition, it leads to increased employee motivation, increased efficiencies in processes resulting in financial gains, increased innovation in strategies and products, increased capacity to adopt new technologies and methods, reduced employee turnover, enhanced company image and increased demand for its products.

Adeniyi (1995) observed that staff training and development is a work activity that can make a very significant contribution to the overall effectiveness and profitability of an organization. It is worthy of mention that organizational development follows the development of individuals who form the organization. It follows that no organization becomes effective and efficient until the individuals have and apply the required skills and knowledge.

Oribabor (2000) submitted that training and development aim at developing competences such as technical, human, conceptual and managerial ethics for the furtherance of individual and organization growth. Isyaku (2000) also argued that the process of training and development is a continuous one. Man is dynamic in nature, the

need to be current and relevant in all spheres of human endeavour"s make staff development a necessity, thus to keep track with current events and methods.

According to Akintayo (1996), Oguntimehin (2001) and Graig (1976), training and development increase productivity, improves the quality of work; improves skills, knowledge, understanding and attitude; enhance the use of tools and machines; reduces waste, accidents, turnover, lateness, absenteeism and other overhead costs, eliminates obsolesce in skills, technologies, methods, products, and capital management. It brings incumbents to that level of performance to fit job performance; enhance the implementation of new policies and regulations; prepares people for achievement, improves man-power development and ensures the survival and growth of the enterprise.

Pitfield (1982) is of the opinion that the objectives of training are to: provide the skills, knowledge and aptitudes necessary to undertake required job efficiently, develop the workers so that if he has the potentials, he may progress, increase efficiency by reducing spoilt work. The need to perform one"s job efficiently and the need to know how to lead others are sufficient reasons for training and development and the desire to meet organizations objectives of higher productivity.

Manu (2004) in his survey on training and development of firms in Ghana, first of all tried to describe selected successful models of training and development as they may apply to firms, Secondly, he selected models, described selected methods of needs assessment for training and development programs for employees and thirdly, he identified selected managerial techniques that contributes to lost productivity and morale. The fourth point was to selectively assess what business skills are most essential for career success and the fifth point was that the results, recommendations for developing a comprehensive plan model for the creation of effective employee

training and development programmes in Ghana. This study was conducted by engaging in comprehensive review and critique of the existing literature on training and development models (Manu, 2004).

According to Manu (2004), most banks see training as a key part of their employment equity initiatives, their performance enhancement and performance recovery initiatives and their strategic human resource provision. There are five key priority areas using the workplace skill plans, information technology related skills development, management leadership skills development, customer interface-related skills, specialist financial skill development, back office processes and support skills development. In all these it also emphasized that the process of transfer of training has a great impact on job productivity, effectiveness and satisfaction.

However, according to Brandt Sakakeeny a training industry analyst for Solomon Smith, training can be a great investment and at the same time a waste of money (Rosner, 1999) Training is a waste of money when the desired behaviour does not occur. Gupta acknowledges that not all performance problems can be addressed by training. In some cases non training interventions are necessary (Gupta, 1999).

2.8. Conceptual Framework

In many organisations training, employee development and any other learning activities form a significant if not the pivotal components of the organisation. Employees are recruited to perform a specific task that will require learning and change. Once recruited employees become worth investing in, although the form of this investment may be subtler than simply possessing a large budget. Understanding what employees know and how they currently do their jobs is the key to devising ways to help them improve.

To undertake a successful training programme, training needs analysis will help identify where training is needed in the company. It determines not only which problems are most pressing, but which can be most economically solved through training. It is important to take into consideration the personality traits of employees as companies plan for trainings and therefore choose appropriate methods that will suit employees .For training to be effective and its impact felt on the productivity of the company, other factors need to be considered, these includes factors such as motivation, incentives and organisational culture.

Figure 2 A conceptual framework on the effectiveness of training and development in organisations

Performance Appraisal

Organisational
culture
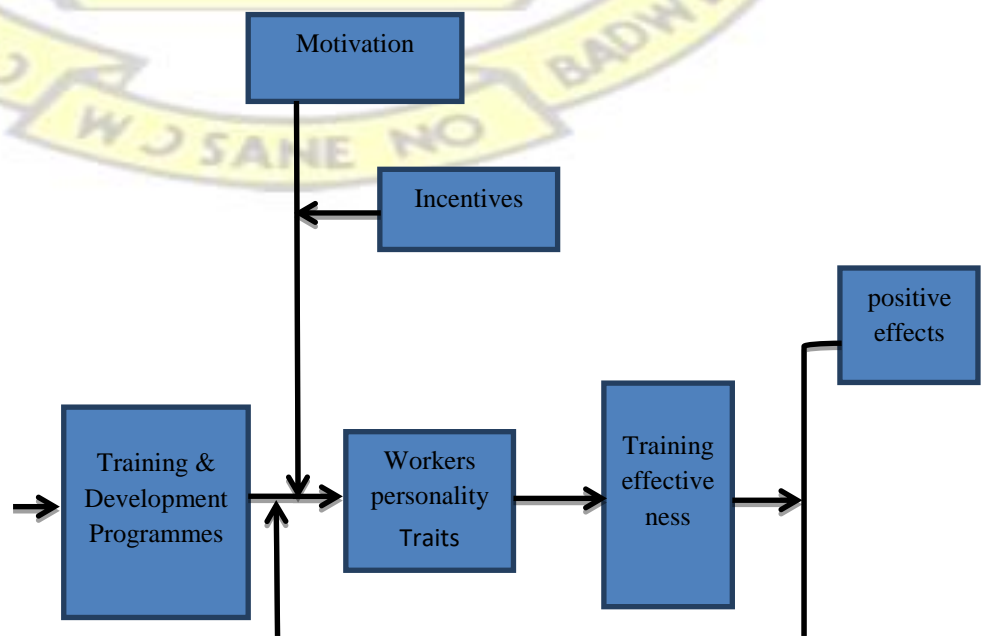
The conceptual framework on effectiveness of training and development in organisations shows that in planning training and development activities, it is important to look at the performance appraisal of workers. The training effectiveness will also depend on workers personality traits (age, sex and educational background). Effectiveness of training and development is also affected by motivational packages available to junior staff including different assortment of incentives.
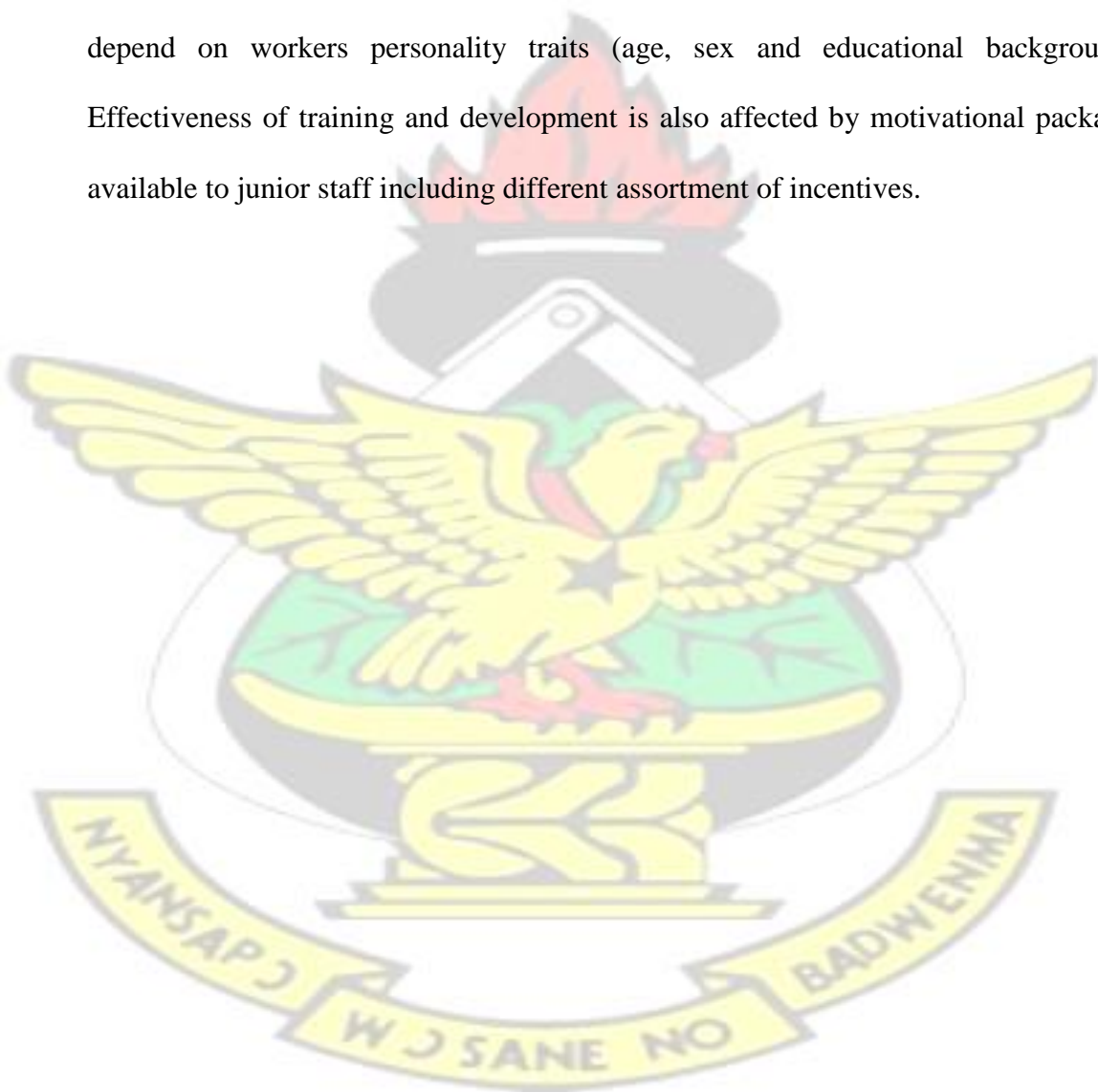
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Research Setting

Kumasi is located in the transitional forest zone, about 270km north of the national capital, Accra. It covers a total land area of 254 square kilometres, stretching between latitude 6.35^o – 6.40^o and longitude 1.30^o – 1.35^o, an elevation which ranges between 250 – 300 meters above sea level. Kumasi is bounded to the north by Kwabre District, to the east by Ejisu-Juaben District, to the west by Atwima-Nwabiagya District and to the south by Bosomtwe-Atwima-Kwanwoma District.

The districts are agrarian and serve as bread basket for the Metropolis. They also play important role in housing some of the active labour force that work in the Metropolis (estimated 400,000 commuters). The Metropolis on the other hand provides these districts with lucrative platform to market and sell their produce which contributes to revenue generation to these districts as well as Kumasi. The unique centrality of Kumasi as a traversing point from all parts of the country also makes it a special place for many to migrate to.

The educational system in Kumasi consists of basic school, Senior High Schools (SHS), Vocationaland Technical Schools, Training Colleges and Tertiary Institutions.

The basic school consists of Pre-School, Primary School and Junior High School (JHS). To facilitate the services provided by these educational systems, the Metropolis has a total of 2325 educational facilities supporting the provision of these services.

The presence of infrastructural facilities for higher education, such as the two State Universities, a Private University, a Polytechnic and two Teacher Training Colleges have influenced the inflow of residents from other districts, municipal and metropolitan areas into the Metropolis. In view of the unique role Kumasi plays in the development of human resource to the nation, Kumasi was chosen as the research site for this study.

3.2. Research Design

The research design was a social survey that utilized quantitative methods using survey questionnaire to gather the data for the research. Responses were then analysed using quantitative analysis such as descriptive and numerical statistics to come out with answers to the research questions and objectives. The study used a cross sectional survey design which utilized a non-probabilistic convenience sample with structured questionnaire for the collection of quantitative data which were statistically analysed to determine patterns of association.

3.3. Sampling Procedure

3.3.1 Target Population

The target population for the study was all junior workers of Kwame Nkrumah

University of Science and Technology.The total number of junior workers of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology is One thousand five hundred and fifty-five (1555).

Study Population

All junior workers of College of Art and Social Sciences (KNUST) who have undergone training and development programmes organized by the university and who have worked for five years or more in the university qualify to be participants in the study.The total population was 98.

3.3.2.Sampling Units

The sampling units for this research were the individual workers of the College of Art and Social Sciences at Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology. They include mechanics, drivers, cleaners, typists, and labourers; both men and women who work in the College of Arts and Social Sciences.

3.3.3. Sampling Frame

A non-probabilistic convenient sampling technique was adopted in sample frame selection. The researcher contacted the quality assurance unit for the list of all junior workers in the College of Art and Social Sciences taking into consideration the various faculties, departments and sections. A total number of 98 workers were obtained for the sample frame

3.3.4 Sample Selection

The sample size for the study was 98, which is considered large enough (60 or more) to allow for statistical test of significance as could be used in hypothesis testing (Oppenheim, 1992).The total number of junior workers at the College of Art and Social Sciences numbered 98, therefore complete enumeration method was adopted for the sampling selection.

3.4 Methods for Collecting Primary Data

In this research the data collection tool used by the researcher was the questionnaire. The researcher used structured questionnaire for this study because most of the respondents could read to understand the research items. The items in the research instrument included both close-ended questions and open-ended questions. The responses to the open-ended questions were analysed using thematic coding. That is to say, response categories were generated and coded by grouping responses under themes. Thus, responses which bore same or similar themes were grouped under one category. However there were other junior workers who could not read and understand. Therefore, the researcher used the structured questionnaire as in interview guide to conduct a structured face-to-face interview.

3.5. Fieldwork

The researcher collected introductory letter from the Head of Department of Sociology and Social Work to seek consent for the fieldwork. Preliminary visits were made to the junior workers to seek for a suitable time for the administration of the questionnaire. The questionnaires were piloted using employees of the maintenance department of KNUST who were not participants to the study. Nineteen (19) questionnaires were pre-administered to find out the length of time needed to complete each questionnaire and to determine the logical and administrative feasibility and sequence of questions. It was also to ensure content validity to respondents. Pre- and post-testing of questionnaires were conducted to check the reliability of the research instrument (Oppenheim, 1992). A Pearson correlation was computed to assess test-retest reliability of individual scores of the research instrument for nineteen participants within three (3) weeks interval between administrations: $r(19) = .67$.

Although there are no established rules for determining how strong test-retest coefficients of stability needs to be, a correlation coefficient of .69 and above for a period of two weeks between administrations is considered a reasonable degree of stability (Cronbach, 1990:14)

Structured self-administered questions were used to enable the investigator to ask predetermined set of questions using the same wording and order of questions. The researcher then administered the questionnaire through hand delivery. Face-to-face interview was conducted for those respondents who could not read and understand the questionnaire. There were situations where some of the interviews were done through the translation of the questions into theTwi local languages.

3.6.Response Rate

This determines the number for analysis (N = 86). In all, ninety-eight (98) questionnaires were administered. The expected number of answered questionnaires was 98; however the number of questionnaires received was eighty-nine (89).The number of questionnaires discarded was three (3). Therefore the total number of valid questionnaires received was eighty-six (86) giving a consent rate of 87.8% and a nonresponse rate of 12.2 percent. The 12.2percent assent rate could be due to factors such as fear of victimization from bosses and colleagues.

3.7 Field Problems Encountered

As in any research work, the researcher faced certain challenges or difficulties. The researcher anticipated the problem of response bias in the collection of data.

Also, some of the respondents were afraid of being victimized and were therefore reluctant to respond to some of the questions. The researcher solved this problem through office editing. Some of the respondents misplaced some of the questionnaire (N = 5) that were given them. Therefore, the researcher kept some more questionnaires handy and as such those missing items were quickly replaced. However, this prolonged the questionnaire administration process to four (4) weeks instead of the three (3) weeks envisioned.

3.8 Data Handling

Data gathered from both open- and close-ended questions were coded for analysis.

The data collected from open-ended questions were coded using thematic coding. Responses which bordered on the same or similar themes were grouped and given codes similar to that in the close-ended questions for entry into the computer. The close-ended questions were already in various response categories and analysed quantitatively using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics was used to summarize and organize data to find out the mean, frequencies and percentages. The results were then presented using frequency distribution tables, proportions bar graphs and pie diagrams. Bivariate analysis was done to assess the relationship between variables in the hypotheses.

3.9. Ethical Considerations

The principal areas of ethical issues in this study included the consideration of the privacy rights, the impact of psychological harm, deception and confidentiality of the respondents and plagiarism.

In order not to invade the privacy of respondents, the researcher made prior visits and telephone calls to the Heads of departments of the respondents so that they would give him convenient periods for data collection. Respondents were also given the opportunity to carry questionnaires home to answer at their convenience if it conflicted with their work schedules. Indent

Letters of introduction were first of all sent to the departmental heads of junior workers in the College of Arts and Social Sciences during which time junior workers were

informed of the import and extent of the study. This was to prevent deception of respondents. They also had the opportunity to ask questions for clarification before they were finally given the questionnaires to answer.

To ensure confidentiality and anonymity of respondents, no names were required or collected from respondents. Their telephone numbers, email addresses or nicknames were not required for this exercise taken. The researcher also assured them verbally that their responses would not be disclosed to any other person except for purposes of analysis and possible publication. In any of these, however, no attempt would be made to identify respondents with their responses.

Finally, findings of earlier researchers that were quoted or paraphrased to support analysis or literature reviewed for this study were acknowledged through both in-text referencing and the bibliography.
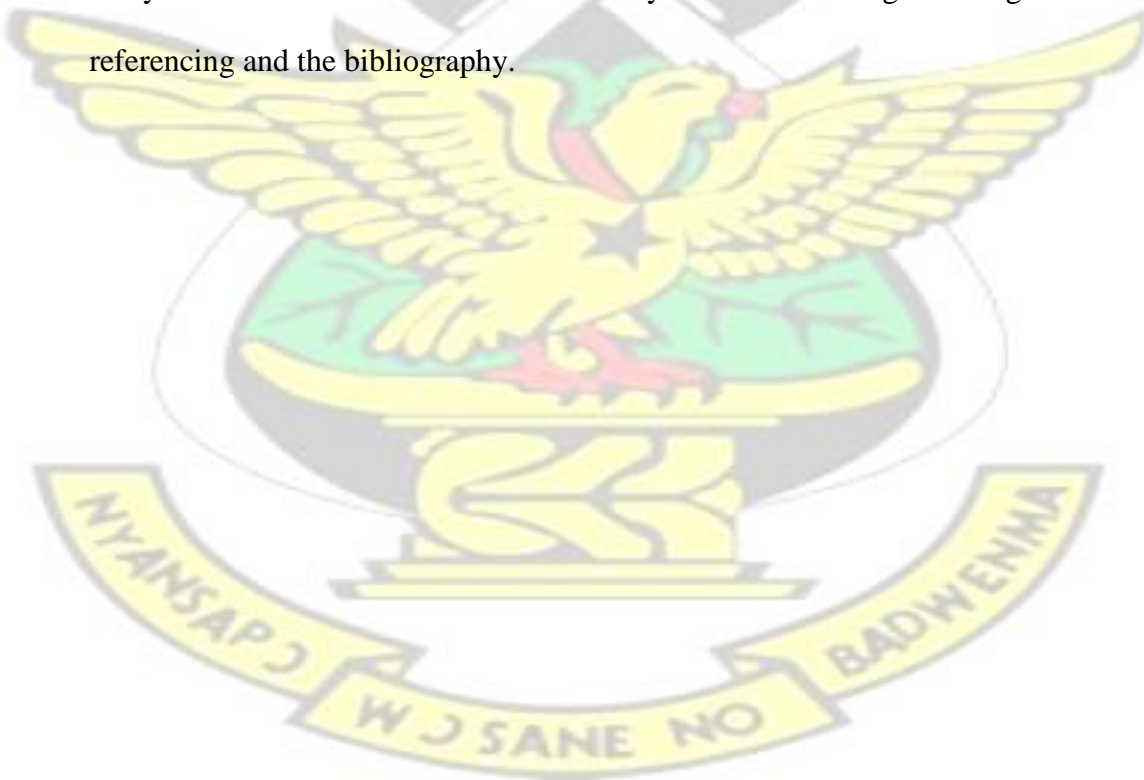
CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, it will also analyse the data collected and explain thechart and tablepresentation. A discussion of the major research questions and hypotheses would also be done.

4.2. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The background of people determines what people can do and how they can do it. Hence, it was important to analyse the background of respondents to see what effects it might have on respondents" responses to training and development programmes. The background characteristics that would be analysed in this study include: gender, age, education, number of years of work and marital status of respondents, and type of job done.

Table 4.2.1 Gender Distribution of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	66	76.7
Female	20	23.3
Total	**86**	**100**

Source: Fieldwork, July 2011

The respondents were dominated by males 76.7percentand a few 23.3percent females (n = 86). This is probably due to the fact that most of the work which was done by junior workers demanded more physical strength than mental ability therefore more men are

required to take up these strength demanded jobs whiles few females are required to take up clerical administrative duties.

Table 4.2.2 Age Distribution of Respondents

Age of Respondent	Frequency	Percentage (%)
20 – 29	13	15.1
30 – 39	30	34.9
40 – 49	35	40.7
50 -59	6	7.0
Missing	2	2.3
Total	**86**	**100.0**

Source:Fieldwork, July, 2011.

From Table 4.2.2 we see that 15.1% of the respondents in this sample have attained ages 20 – 29 years, 34.9 percent were 30 – 39 years, 40.7 percentwere 40 – 49 years, 7.0% were 50 – 59 years and 2.3% were missing items. From the table the largest group of the respondents were age group 40-49 years with 40.7%, this group forms the active working group that can be trained to work for more years. The group was followed by 30-39 year group with a percentage of 34.9 percent. The least group in this category was the 50 and above group with a percentage of 7.0, probably because the work of the junior workers involve people with more strength and energy and also most people would be preparing for retirement at this level. There was 2.3 percent of missing items, meaning two people did not state their age.

4.2.3. Educational Background of Respondents

Regarding the educational level of respondents, 19.8 percentwere primary school leavers; 7.0 percent were JHS leavers; 50.0 percent were SHS/Secondary School leavers; 20.9 percent Tertiary and 2.3 percentwere those without any educational background who are treated as „Other". Figure 4.2.1 presents a pie chart on the educational level of the respondents.
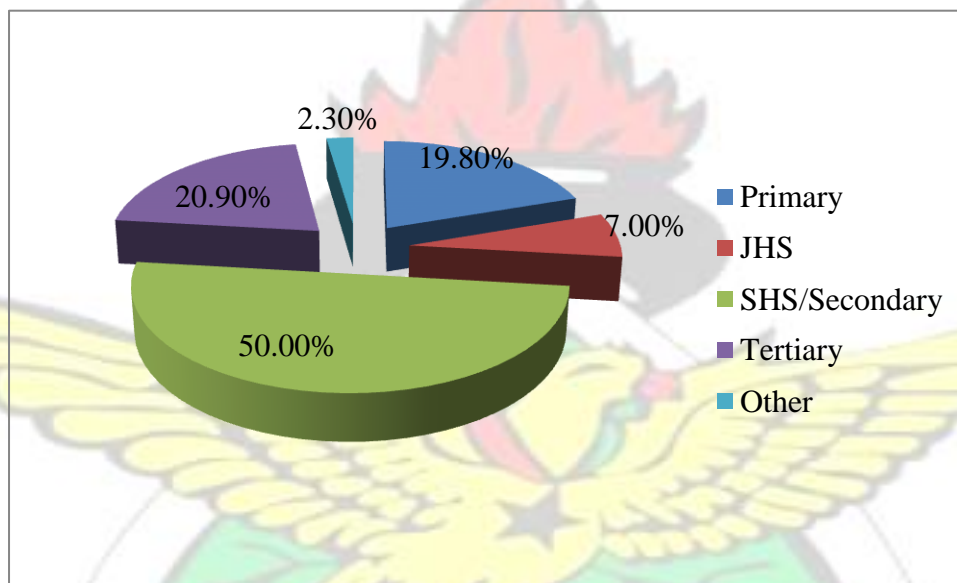
Figure 4.2.1: Educational Level of Respondents

Source: Fieldwork July 2011

From the figure 4.2.1 above, 26.80 percent of the respondents have had formal basic education. Junior workers of the University were dominated by workers who have secondary education, probably because most of the workers in this category, such as drivers, masons etc, require technical knowledge before they can perform their work effectively.The least in this group is the tertiary group because most of the work in this category does not require much educational knowledge to perform their duties. Perhaps the policy that workers are promoted when they attain higher qualification may be the result of the few graduate workers.

4.2.4. Number of Years of Work

From figure 4.2.4 the workers have worked with the University for varied number of years are discussed 2.3 percent have worked for up to 2 years, 15.1 percent have worked for 3 – 4 years, 10.5 percent have worked for 5 – 6 and 7 – 8 years and 61.6 percent which constitute the majority have worked for more than 10 years [n=86] (see figure 4.2.2).

Figure 4.2.2: Number of Years Worked with College of Art and Social Science
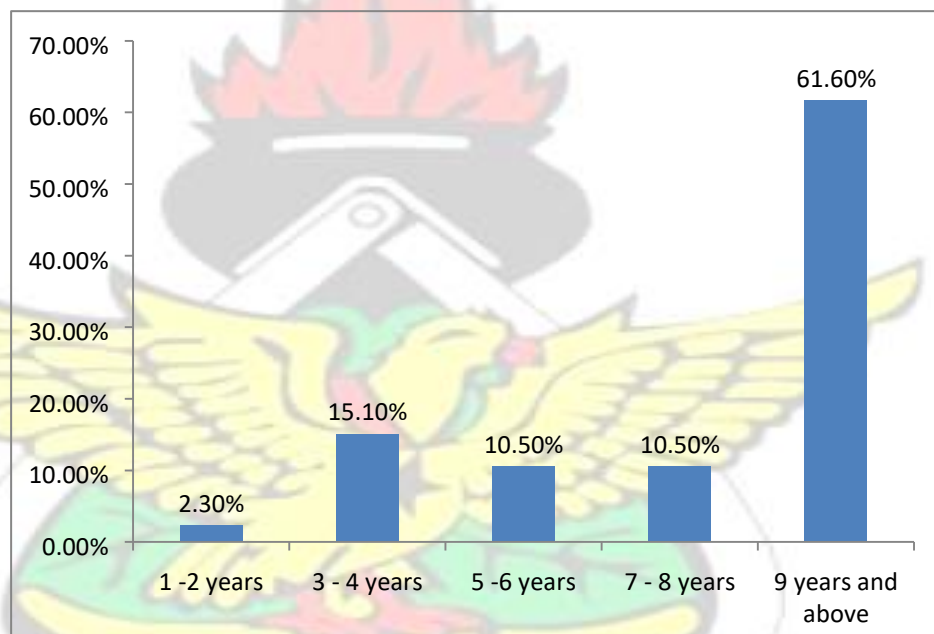
Source: Fieldwork, July 2011

4.2.5. Marital Status of Respondents

From table 4.2.5marital status of respondents is discussed. 73. 3 percent were single, 21 percent were married and 3.4percent were widowed. Thus, those who have married at some point add up to 24.4percent. This group is dominated by the single group with a percentage of 73.3percent probably because this type of work demands more time and

as such most of the workers want to have more time for their work .There were 2.3 percent of missing items, meaning these people did not mention their marital status.

Table 4.2.5 Marital status of respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
		(%)
Single	63	73.3
Married	18	21
Widowed	3	3.4
Missing	2	2.4
Total	**86**	**100**

Source: fieldwork, July, 2011

4.2.6. Type of Job Done

From the findings of the study, 10.5percent of the respondents were cleaners; 16.3 percent were clerks; 17.4percent were administrative staff; 23.3 percentwere labourers; and others 30.2 percent; while 2.3 percent did not provide answer to this item as shown in Table 4.3. From the table, it was shown that labourers constitute a larger group than all other classes of junior workers in KNUST. This may be because the university campus is so large and demands more hands to enable them keep grasses and lawns constantly trimmed to make the compound presentable. They were followed by the administrative staff with 17.4percent also indicating that more of the work was probably administrative and as such more hands were needed to keep the university running

smoothly especially taking into consideration the huge numbers of teachers and students who all need administrative services.

The other group of workers among junior workers of the university were messengers, drivers and auxiliary workers. Auxiliary workers do not constitute a formal group in most cases. If messengers were the smallest group in numbers, it presupposes that telephone system and other technological channels of communication were effective in the system thus, calling for few manual hands.

Table 4.3: Type of Job Done

Type of Job	Frequency	Percentage
Cleaner	9	10.5
Clerk	14	16.3
Administrative Staff	15	17.4
Labourer	20	23.3
Other	26	30.2
Missing score	2	2.3
Total	**82**	**100.0**

Source: Fieldwork, July 2011

4.3: Training and Development Programmes for Workers

Among the human resource management functions, training and development of employees is critical to organisations. It is believed that the success of an organisation to some extent depends on training and development policy of the organisation. According to Beardwell and Holden (1993), the recognition of the importance of training in recent times is influenced by the intensification of competition and the

relative success of organizations where investment in employee development is considerably emphasized. In addition, technological developments and organizational change have gradually led some employers to the realization that success relies on the skills and abilities of their employees, and this means considerable and continuous investment in training and development.

4.3.1: Types of Training and Development Programmes

From the responses (n=86), the predominant training programme organised by the university is in-service training 34.9 percent. Employee personal training (other) is the next with 23.3 percent. Coaching is the next line of training 16.3 percent for junior staff. Findings reveal that 14 percent of the workers go through on-the-job training. The kind of training programmes organised or resorted to by the University is presented in figure 4.2.3 below.

Figure 4.2.3: Kinds of Training Programmes Organised by KNUST
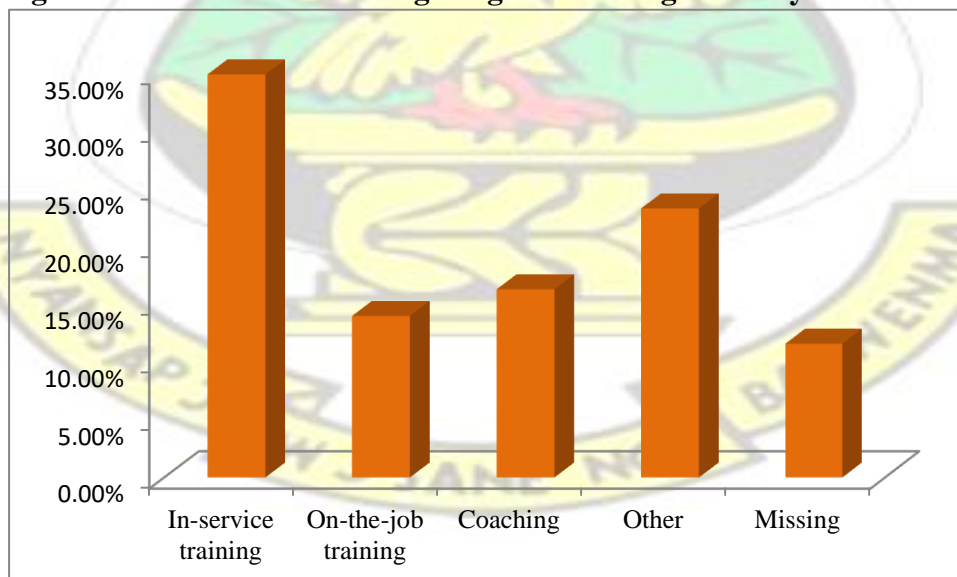
The University usually offered job to workers who are competent and knowledgeable among several qualified applicants, hence on-the-job training is rare. On-the-job training is resorted to when there was nobody to carry out a particular duty and a worker is needed to fill in for a short period. . Coaching occurs when a worker is found to be hard working but lacks the ability to work independently. However, induction training and cultural orientation are organised for newly recruited workers.

4.3.2 Regularity of Training and Development

The regularity of the training programmes for workers is captured here. From the data it is realised that, the university usually organises training programmes for its workers once a year. 34.9 percent of respondents indicated that they are trained once a year. This to a large extent is not good for an organisation that deals with producing the country"s" human resource base, most of the respondents who are in this category are drivers and that means that the university is more interested in training its drivers than the other workers. 21percent of the population indicated that they are trained twice a year, whilst 8.1 percent indicated they were trained once every two years. About 36.0 percent of the respondents also explained that they have not had any training on the job they are trained to do except a classroom training programme organised for all junior workers at KNUST senior high school. This indicates that training for junior workers is not often done by the university. The table below indicates the periods for training and the percentages.

Table 4.4 Regularity of training and development

Training period	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Once a year	30	34.9
Twice a year	18	21
Once every 2 years	7	8.1
Others	31	36
Total	**86**	**100**

Source: Fieldwork July, 2011

4.3.2 Organisers/Sources of Training for Workers

In reference to Figure 4.2.4 below, the training programmes are sometimes organized by the administration of the university with 31.40 percent whilst 36 percent of respondents responded that their departments organizes the training programmes for them, this indicated that some of the departments know the essence of training for their junior staff since they benefit directly from their services. The College of Arts and Social Sciences had the least number of respondents, which are 2.3 percent, which indicated that they seldom organize training programmes for junior workers.

Those who responded "others" were 11.6 percent.This is probably because the university relies on other trainingorganizations such as EMPRETECand others. Human resource training organizations that are contracted to conduct training and development programmes for the junior staff also play important role.There were 14 percent missing items, meaning 14 percent of respondents did not indicate the organization that organizes training for them

Figure 4.2.4: Unit That Organizes the Training Programmes
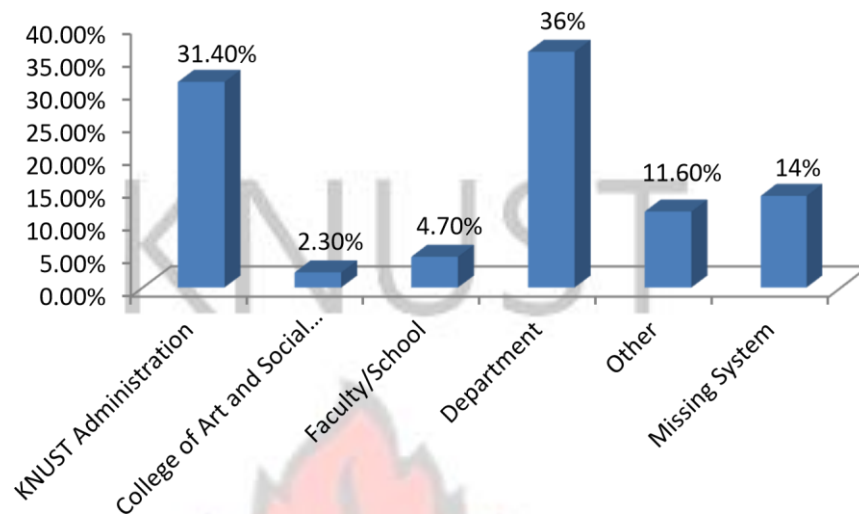
Source: Fieldwork July, 2011

4.4. Effectiveness of Training and Development Programmes

4.4.1 Relationship between Training and Job Knowledge

Training improves the morale and increase the quality of staff through the knowledge they acquire. It was due to this idea that respondents were asked whether there is a relationship between training and improving job knowledge 74.4 percent of respondents responded „yes‟ that training improves knowledge whilst 25.60percent responded no.

Figure 4.2.5 Relationship Between Training and Job Knowledge
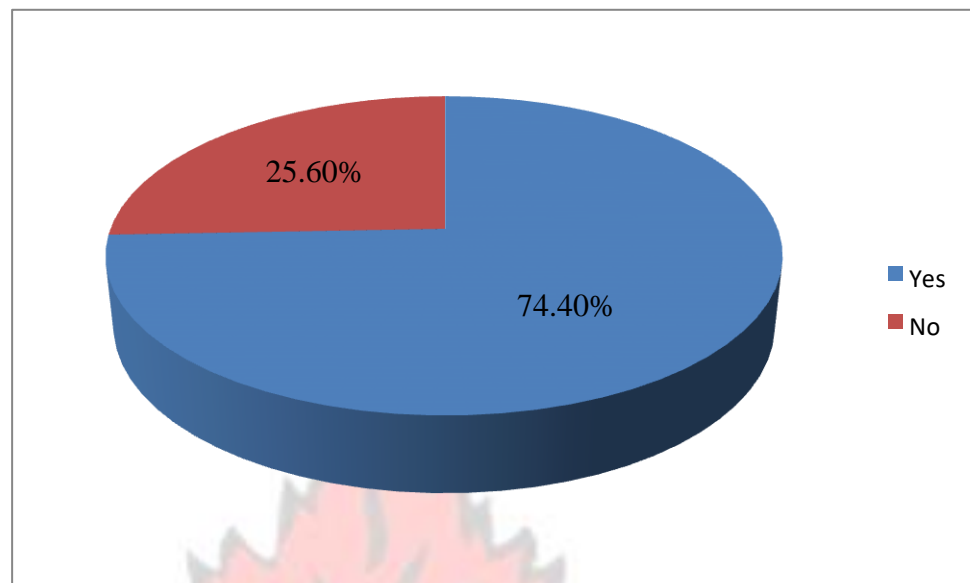
Source: Fieldwork July, 2011

4.4.2. The Role of Training in Acquiring New Skills

In measuring the role of training and acquisition of new skills and its impact on the performance and productivity respondents were asked the question if the training they received enable them acquire new skills apart from what they already had, and how that impacted on their performance. It was found out that 48.4 percent of respondents said that training impacted very much on their performance.

4.5 Motivation and Training effectiveness

From Figure 4.2.6 below, the study sought to find out the relationship that exists between training and motivation. The study found out that about 25.6percent of workers are motivated to go for training because they want to be promoted, 22 percent go for training because of the behaviour of their bosses, 16 percent go for training because their bosses encourage them, 14 percent of respondents go for training to improve upon their skills whilst 12 percent are compelled by their bosses to go for training. There were 10.4 percent of missing items This shows that with a friendly environment and a good relationship between superiors and subordinates more junior workers of the university will avail themselves for training, with only a few who do not really understand the benefit of training being compelled by their superiors to go for training.

Figure 4.2.6: Reasons Why Employees go for Training
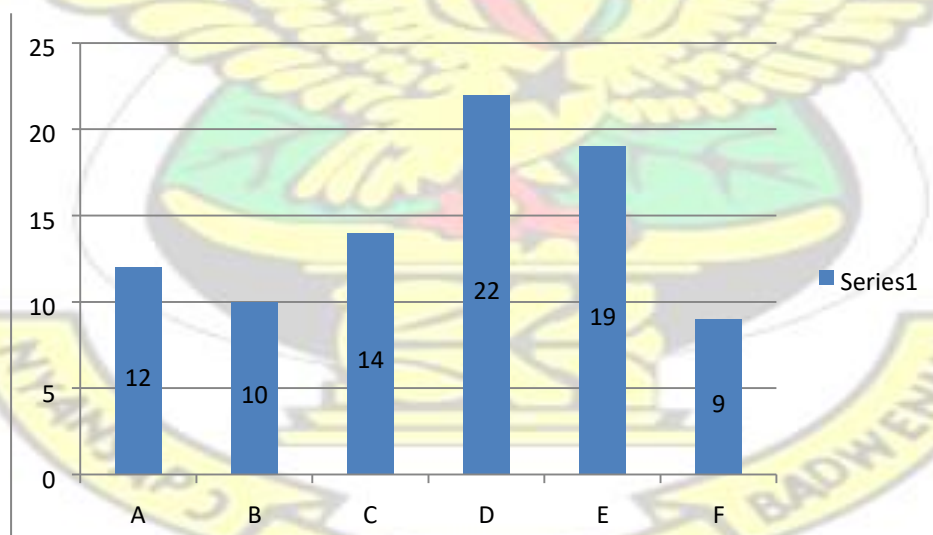
KEY

A	To acquire skills
B	Force by boss to participate
C	Encourage by boss to participate
D	For promotion
E	Boss" behaviour
F	Missing Items

Source: Fieldwork July, 2011

4.6. Motivation for Transfer of Training

From the data gathered most of the employees were asked what motivates them to transfer what they learned during training. From Figure 4.2.7 below, 50% of respondents stated that they will be motivated to transfer their knowledge in order to be recognized by their immediate supervisors. This might be so in that in being recognized by supervisors one can be recommended for future promotion. 24% said they will transfer their knowledge so that they will be recognized by management,

12.80% stated that they will transfer knowledge in order to have personal satisfaction, 10.20% stated that they will transfer training in order to be recognized by their colleagues whilst, 3% gave other reasons such as availability of materials to work with and other incentives.

Figure 4.2.7 Motivation for transfer of training
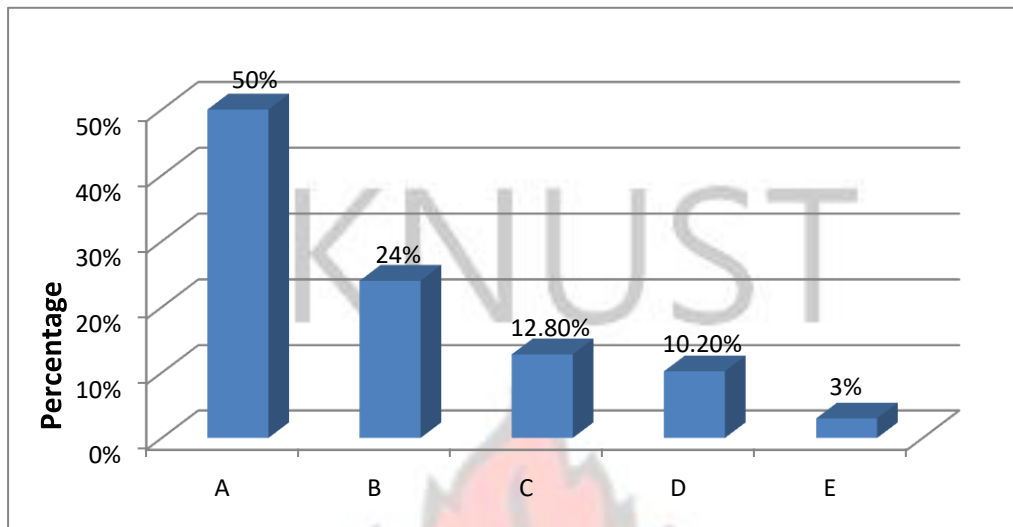
KEY

A	Positive recognition by immediate supervisor
B	Recognition by management
C	Personal sense of recognition
D	Recognition by peer
E	Other reasons

Source: Fieldwork July,2011

HYPOTHESIS TESTING 1

4.7 Relationship Between Effective Training and Development and Skill and Knowledge Improvement

In order to determine the relationship between effective training and development and skills and knowledge improvement, the researcher assumed the following hypotheses:

H₀: A significant relationship exists between training and development and workers skill and knowledge development

H₁: No significant relationship exists between training and development and skills and knowledge development.

To test and prove the hypothesis stated above, several items soliciting information on the effectiveness of training and development and skill and knowledge improvement were analysed with the test of comparison of grand mean and displayed in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.5 Comparison of Means of Effectiveness of Training and Skill Improvement

STATISTICS	TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT	SKILLS ACQUISITION
Mean	2.903	1.878
Known Variance	1.717	0.968
Observations	656	635
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Z	4.171	
P(Z<=z) one-tail	0	
z Critical one-tail	1.245	

P(Z<=z) two-tail	0	
z Critical two-tail	1.459	

Source: Fieldwork July, 2011

From Table 4.4 above, the z value is far greater than the critical values of both the one-tailed and two-tailed normal distribution and the p-value is also zero (0) for each. In this case the study failed to accept the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis at statistical evidence of 95% confidence level. This means that there is a relationship between effectiveness of training and development and skill and knowledge acquisition. The frequency of training, the kind of training and the body or unit that organizes the training programme determines the level of knowledge and skills acquired by the workers.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING 2

4.8 Relationship between Motivation and Effectiveness of Training and Development

To ascertain the relationship between motivation and effectiveness of training and development, the following approve hypothesis was assumed:

H_0: There is no relationship between motivation and effectiveness of training and development.

H_1: There is a relationship between motivation and effectiveness of training and development.

To determine the relationship several items measuring motivation and effectiveness of training and development were computed and the grand mean values, critical values

and the z-values were computed for the analysis. The two averages were compared with the paired z test and the values are displayed in table 4.5 below.

Table 4.6 Comparison of Motivation and Effectiveness of Training and Development

STATISTICS	MOTIVATION	TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT
Mean	1.732	2.903
Known Variance	0.814	1.717
Observation	793	656
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
$P(Z \leq z)$ one-tail	1.302	
z Critical one-tail	1.645	
$P(z \leq z)$ two-tail	1.103	
z Critical two-tail	1.459	

Source: Field work July, 2011

As shown in Table 4.5 above, the z value for comparing the two means (x =1.732, x 2.903) is less than both the single-tailed and two-tailed critical (1.645 and 1.459) values and with their corresponding p-values< 0.05. This implies there is enough statistical information at 95% confidence level to accept the null hypothesis while we fail to accept the alternate hypothesis that there is difference between motivation and effectiveness of training and development.

Majority of the workers accept the training with the view that there will be promotion and recognition after training and development. However, workers will have to go through frustrations to get either promoted or not. As a result workers are themselves not encouraged to accept training and development; unless it is made compulsory, no worker will opt for training and development programmes if it is not going to enable him get promoted or will lead to future career progression.

4.10. HYPOTHESIS TESTING 3

The researcher wanted to know if incentives and training effectiveness have some linkage. Hence, it was hypothesized that:

H_0: Incentives and training effectiveness are not significantly related.

H_1: Incentives and training effectiveness are significantly related.

First to establish whether there is a relationship between incentives and training effectiveness or not, correlation analysis was performed. Three items measuring incentive was correlated with four items measuring training effectiveness as in Table

4.6 below.

KNUST

Table 4.7: Correlation Analysis of Incentives and Training Effectiveness

		Training improve knowledge about present job	Training received helped acquire new skills	Understand job better after going through training	Training received enabled me avoid certain mistakes
Incentives	Pearson correlation Significance Population	-.113 .192 62	256* .041 64	-.005 .966 66	.274* .013 66
Receive all the materials you need to enable you work effectively	Pearson correlation Significance Population	-.123 .171 62	.389** .001 64	.502** .000 66	.125 .159 66
How tolerant is your boss towards your mistakes	Pearson correlation Significance Population	-.221* .045 60	.054 .338 62	.151 .117 64	.015 .453 64
Does your boss praise you when you achieve your objectives	Pearson correlation Significance Population	-.102 .214 62	.402** .000 64	.469** .000 66	.345** .002 66

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).   *.

Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

From the Table 4.6 two of the incentive items are significant to two or three of the items measuring training effectiveness, with $p < 0.01$, that is at 99 percent confidence level. Specifically the table shows that there is a strong relationship between whether workers receive all they need to enable them work effectively after training and training received help acquire new skills at p<001. It also showed a strong relationship between whether workers receive all the materials they need to work effectively and workers understand their jobs better at p<.000. With regards to the relationship between how tolerant your boss is towards your mistakes and training improves knowledge about present job, there was a strong relationship at p<.045. The table also showed that there is a strong relationship between, does your boss praise you when you achieve your objectives and training received helped acquire new skills at p<.000, as well as does your boss praise you when you achieve your objective and understand your job better after going through training at p<.000. The relationship between does your boss praise you when you achieve your objective and training received enabled me avoid mistakes was strong at p<.002.

A further t-test of sample with unequal variances was performed and the result is displayed in the table below. By examining the table, the t-value is less than both onetail and two-tail critical values, meaning the value fall in the region of acceptance of the null hypothesis at 95% confidence level.

Table 4.8 t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS	INCENTIVES
Mean	1.620155039	1.72
Variance	0.773444334	0.705125628
Observations	258	200
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	437	
t Stat	-1.236194115	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.108525223	
t Critical one-tail	1.648347962	

P(T<=t) two-tail	0.217050446	
t Critical two-tail	1.965407254	

Source :Field work July, 2011

4.11 HYPOTHESIS TESTING 4

H_0: Age and effectiveness of training are not related.

H_1**:**Age is a function of training effectiveness

Table no 4.9 Chi-Square Test on the Relationship between Age and Training Effectiveness

Statistics	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2sided) (P-Value)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.632[a]	12	.056
Likelihood Ratio	23.200	12	.026

Linear-by-Linear Association	.039	1	.844
N of Valid Cases	64		

α=.05, 2-tailed test

Source:Fieldwork July, 2011

Table no. 4.7 demonstrates a chi-square test between age and effectiveness of training at 95% level of confidence. The value of the test statistic or the p-value is 0.056 which is greater than the significance value (0.05). Therefore, the sample provides enough evidence to accept the null hypothesis which stated that there is no relationship between age and effectiveness of training among junior workers in the College of Arts in KNUST. Hence, we accept the null hypothesis and conclude that we are 95 percent confident that there is no significant relationship between age and training effectiveness. By this test, age is, therefore, not a component of training effectiveness among junior workers in the College of Arts at KNUST. In saying so, one is, however, 5 percent of the time fallible.

KNUST

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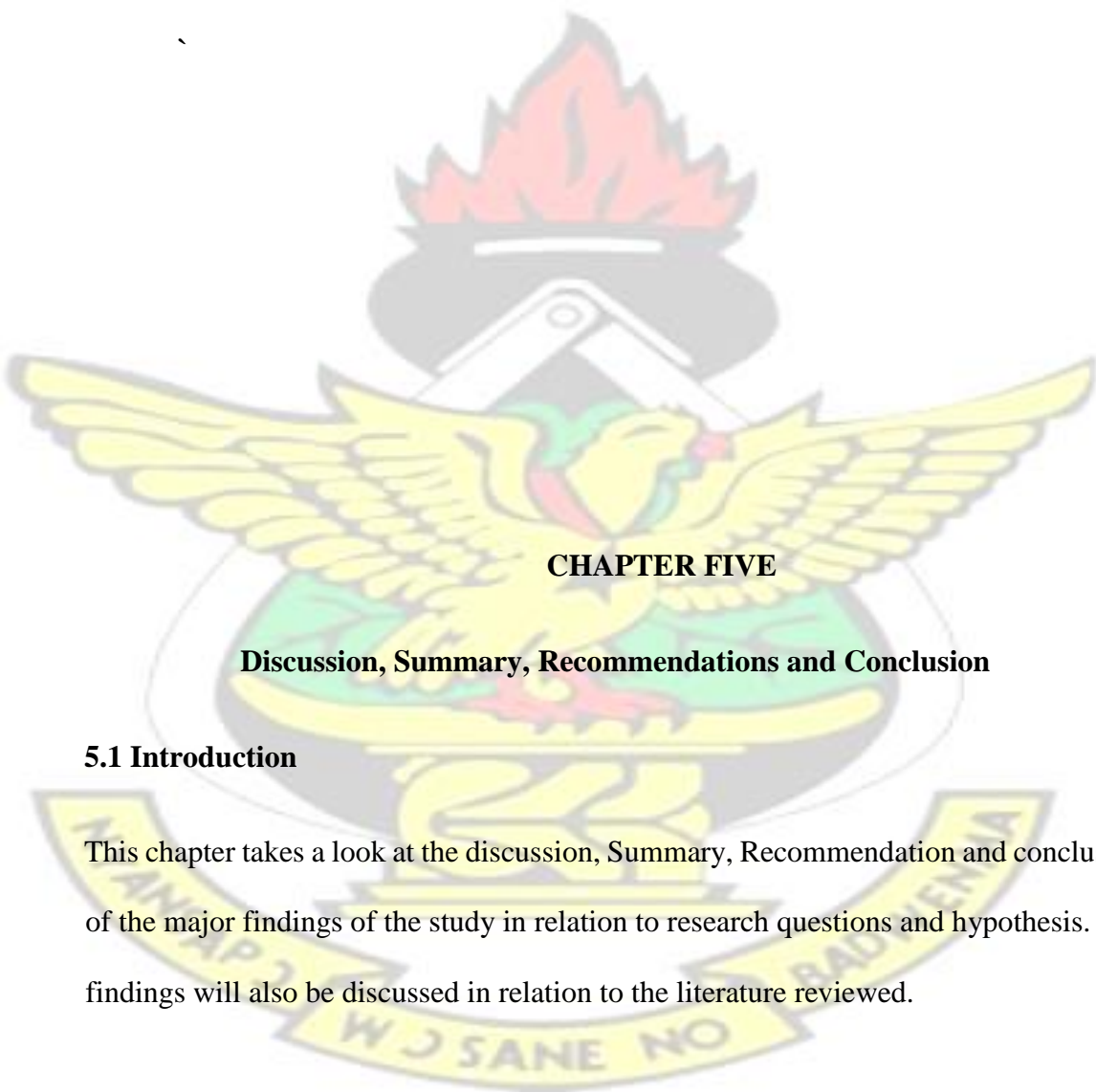
CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion, Summary, Recommendations and Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter takes a look at the discussion, Summary, Recommendation and conclusion of the major findings of the study in relation to research questions and hypothesis. The findings will also be discussed in relation to the literature reviewed.

5.2. Discussion of Findings

The findings revealed that males dominated the study with 76.7percent whilst females were 23.3percent (table 4.1). This is probably due to the fact that most of the work done by the junior workers demand more physical strength than mental ability, therefore more men are required to take up these strength demand jobs whilst few women are required to take up clerical administrative duties such as typists receptionists and cleaners of the offices and washrooms.

Table 4.2 also shows that those within the age bracket of 30-49 dominated with a percentage of 75.6 percent out of the total population. This finding can be attributed to the fact that most ofthe works of the junior workers require more strength and vigour, therefore it is required that people within the active workforce are taken on. Further, people within this age group have more years to spend at their work places therefore they can be trained for the university to benefit from the knowledge they acquire

Education plays a very important role in human resource development in everynation. It is required that everyone attains a little bit of education in other to survive in the job world. From Figure 4.2.1 the respondents were dominated by Senior High School (SHS) leavers with (N= 45=3, 50 percent). This shows that most of the workers have had basic formal education. The dominance of the SHS leavers can be attributed to the fact that workers in this category, such as drivers, masons, cleaners and typists require technical knowledge before they can perform their work effectively. The least in this group was the tertiary group. This is probably because most of the work in this category does not require much educational knowledge for its performance. Perhaps the policy that workers are promoted when they attain higher qualification may be the result of the few graduates.

With regards to the marital status of the respondents, the findings revealed that the unmarried (N=64) were in the majority with 75.0 percent. This is probably because this type of work demands more time and as such most of the workers want to have more time for their work. It is also probably because most of the work in this level has scanty income levels. Looking at the age range of workers whose age falls within 3049 it would have been expected that most of them would be married.However it is not so, it can therefore be said that most of the workers looking at their income levels believe that they may not be able to provide for a family or a wife and therefore refrain from getting married.

The findings also indicated that the type of job done by most of the respondents was dominated by labourers with a percentage of 23.3 percent. This can be seen from Figure 4.3. This can be attributed to the fact that the university campus is so large and therefore requires more hands to enable them keep the grass and lawns constantly trimmed to make the compound presentable.The administrative staff followed up in number also indicating that more hands are required to keep the university running especially taking into consideration the huge number of teachers and students who require administrative services. The least of workers among the junior workers were messengers(N=2,10percent). This is probably because due to the availability of telephone system and other technological channels of communication the university prefers using those channels than relying on messengers.

The new paradigm of management which emphasises employee empowerment requires coaching and support for workers to carry out various duties. There are varieties of ways organisations set up training and development programmes for workers. These include in-service training, on-the-job training, mentoring and coaching.Traditionally, companies also offer tuition reimbursement to allow workers the opportunity to expand

their knowledge. However, only few workers eligible for this opportunity use it, because of the demands of work and family life makes it difficult for employees to invest extra time outside of the job for such opportunities (Rosenwald,2000).

Tuition reimbursement is primarily enjoyed by senior management and those who recognise the value of training. As a result, many organisations find in-house programmes more beneficial for workers. Broadly, the training programmes can be either formal or informal.This assertion is corroborated by the findings of the study which revealed that the major training programme organised by the university for its junior workers is in-service training34.90 percent, since most of the workers here include drivers and clerks it is not surprising that in-service training dominated the training programmes.This is because from time to time these drivers would have to be trained on safe driving methods.

Employee personal training is the next with 23.3 percent, coaching was the next line of training comprising 16.3 percent for junior workers. The findings indicated that 14 percent of the workers go through on- the- job training.This is probably because the university usually offered jobs to workers who are already competent and knowledgeable among several qualified applicants; hence on the job training is rare. It also revealed that on the job training is only resorted to when there was nobody to carry out a particular duty and a worker is needed to fill in for a short period. Coaching is only resorted to when a worker is found to be hard working but lacks the ability to work independently. It is also revealed that when workers are employed induction training is organised for them as well as cultural orientation. This is to enable them work according to the organisational culture of the university

On the regularity of training and development programmes for the workers, it was revealed from Table 4.4 that, majority of the workers have received training once (N=30 34.9percent), this to a large extent is not good enough, for an organisation that deals with producing the country"s human resource base. Most of the respondents in this category were drivers meaning that the university is more interested in training its drivers than the other workers.21percent (N=18) revealed that they have been trained twice whilst (N=31) ,36percent) of respondents explained that they have not had any training on the job except a classroom training programme organised for all junior workers at the KNUST senior high school. This indicates that training for junior workers is not often done by the university.

The study also revealed that training programmes organised by the KNUST administration was (N=27) 31.4percentwhilst (N=31), 36 percent revealed that their departments organised the training programmes for them. This indicates that some departments know the essence of training for their junior workers.The college of Art and Social Sciences had the least number of respondents which was (N=2), 2.3 percent which indicated that they seldom organise training programmes for junior workers. Those who responded „"others"" were (N=10), 11.6 percent. This is probably because the university relies on other training organisations such as EMPRETEC and NBSSI. Human resource training organisations that are contracted to conduct training and development programmesor junior staff also play a major part.

It is a well-known fact that training improves the morale and increase the quality of staff through the knowledge they acquire. It was due to this idea that respondents were asked whether there is a relationship between training and improving job knowledge. Seventy four percent,(74.4 percent N=64) responded yes whilst (N=22),25.6 percent) responded no. This might be due to the fact that the training received by the (N=22),

25.6 percent was not relevant to their needs or perhaps proper training evaluation was not done to assess the training needs of the workers (see Figure 4.4.1) It is also important to note that no matter the job knowledge acquired by employees if the necessary materials are not provided for the employees to work with, the training received becomes ineffective. From the responses given even though workers acquire new skills through training, they do not receive adequate materials to work with therefore rendering the training and skills received ineffective.

The focus of this work is to find out the role training plays in the acquisition of new skills and how it impacts on the productivity of individual employees. In measuring this respondents were asked the question, does training received enable you acquire new skills apart from what you already had and, how has it impacted on your work performance? Forty eight point four percent (48.4%, N=42))of respondents said that training impacted very much on their performance.This findings corroborate earlier studies by (Zaccardies1998) that employees will not perform well at work no matter how hard they try and regardless of how much they want to until they know what they are supposed to do and how they are supposed to do it.

It is therefore not surprising that 48.4 percent (N=42) responded very much. Probably this is due to the fact that these employees apart from the training received are properly evaluated to make the training received have an impact on them. It is also necessary to note that looking at the educational background of respondents, we have JHS, 7.0 percent,(N=6) SHS 50.0 percent (N=43), tertiary 2.09 percent (N=2) and people with no educational background 2.3 percent (N=2).What this means is that in planning training for such people, different training programmes should be planned for each group, this is because if the same programme is planned for all the groups it will not be effective. Twenty-six percent(26.6,%) (N=23) said much, 18.8 percent (N=16)

responded average and 6.2 percent (N=5)responded that training impacted little to acquisition of new skills(N=86). It is not surprising that some of the respondents said they did not acquire any skill.

Ages of workers also have an impact on training and helps in planning training and development programmes. People who are older may not be able to sit through long training programmes like young ones, also their absorption capacity will not be like the young employees., therefore different programmes should be planned for different ages and age- groups in order to enable them acquire new skills.

Cole (2002) states that employees, who understand the business they do, complain less, are more satisfied and motivated, all these lead to better management of employee relationships. He further states that employees who receive training have increased confidence and are motivated to work harder. Training improves the morale and increase the quality of staff through the knowledge they acquire Cole"s assertion was supported by the findings of this study which shows that 26 percent (N=22) of workers go for training because they want to be promoted, 22 percent (N=19) go for training because of the behaviour of their bosses, 16percent,(N=14) because their bosses encourage them, 14 percent (N=12) to improve their knowledge and skills whilst 12 percent(N=10)are compelled by their bosses to go for training.This shows that with a friendly environment and a good relationship between superiors and subordinates, more junior workers will avail themselves for training, with only a few who do not really understand the benefits..

Ensuring that employees use the skills they acquire during training when they return to the job is the essence of training. The goal of training is performance improvement. If trained employees show no improvement in their performance your training effort and

spending have been wasted. Therefore transfer is not only essential to training success; it must be an integral part of the training process. It is observed that the immediate supervisor of the employee is the key element in the successful transfer of the skills learned on the job. This assertion is supported by the findings of the study which showed that with proper motivation and incentives employees will always be willing to transfer their knowledge onto their jobs.

This findings can be seen from Figure 4.2.7 which shows that 50 percent,(N=43) of respondents stated that they will be motivated to transfer their knowledge in order to be recognised by their immediate supervisor. This is probably because being recognised by your immediate supervisor is a sure way of being recommended for future promotion. Twenty-four percent 24 percent (N= 21) stated they will transfer their knowledge so that they will be recognised by management, 12.8 percent (N=11) stated that they will transfer their knowledge in order to have personal satisfaction, this shows that it is not every time that people do things for others to see but it is also important, sometimes for people to have the intrinsic motivation of personal satisfaction. 10.2 percent (N=9) stated that they will transfer training in order to be recognised by their colleagues whilst 3 percent (N=3) gave other reasons such as availability of materials to work with and other incentive. Several hypotheses were tested in this research work to find out the relationship between certain variables. In all four hypotheses were tested. These included finding out the relationship between effective training and development and skill and knowledge acquisition. Also the relationship between motivation and effectiveness of training and development was also tested. And finally the researcher explored the relationship between incentives and training effectiveness.

The outcome of the test of hypothesis to find out the relationship between effectiveness of training and skills and knowledge improvement was also done. From Table 4.5, it is

observed that the s value of 4.171` is far greater than the critical values of both the one-tailed (1.245) and two tailed (1.459) normal distribution, whilst the p- value is also (0) for each of them. In this case the study failed to accept the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis at a statistical evidence of 95% confidence level. This means that there is a relationship between effectiveness of training and development and skill and knowledge acquisition. This shows that with constant and frequency of training workers will be able to acquire more knowledge and skills to improve on their work. Also the kind oftraining given and the body or unit that organises the training determines the level of knowledge and skills that employees are able to acquire.

Another test of hypothesis was conducted to find out the relationship between motivation and effectiveness of training and development.

As shown in the table 4.5 above, the z value for comparing the two means is less than both the single-tailed and two-tailed critical values and with their corresponding pvalues< 0.05 . This implies there is enough statistical information at 95 percent confidence level to accept the null hypothesis while we fail to accept the alternate hypothesis that there is difference between motivation and effectiveness of training and development.

Majority of the workers accept the training with the view that there will be promotion and recognition after training and development. However, workers will have to go through frustrations to get either promoted or not. As a result workers are not encouraged to accept training and development; unless it is made compulsory, no worker will opt for training and development programmes if it is not going to enable him get promoted or will lead to future career progression. This is corroborated byHerzberg's research which proves that people will strive to achieve 'hygiene' needs

because they are unhappy without them, but once satisfied, the effect soon wears off; - satisfaction is temporary. People are only truly motivated by enabling them to reach for and satisfy the factors that are identified as real motivators, such as achievement, advancement, development, etc., which represent a far deeper level of meaning and fulfilment

On the relationship between incentives and training effectiveness positive relationship was seen between whether workers receive all the materials they need to work with and training received helped acquire new skills. It is realised that if workers go for training and do not receive the materials they need to work with such as tools and conducive environment the training received does not become effective. Also how tolerant bosses are to their subordinates has a relationshipwith how workers are able to improve their knowledge. Since some workers are slow in the application of knowledge, it is important that supervisors allow the workers to apply their knowledge at their own pace otherwise they are bound to make mistakes. It is also important that bosses praise their subordinates from time to time because it was realised that there is a positive relationship between praises by bosses and the acquisition of knowledge as well as understanding job better and avoidance of mistakes. This is probably because the more workers are praised the more their moral is boosted to transfer their knowledge to their work.

Notwithstanding the individual result obtained, a further analysis was performed. A ttest for unequal variance showed the following result by aggregating the items. The t test showed that the null hypothesis is accepted whilst the alternate hypothesis is rejected.

5.3 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken with the topic (Effectiveness of training and development in organisations, Astudy of junior workers in KNUST). The objectives of the study was specifically to find outwhether skills" training improves job demand knowledge base, whether training leads to skills development among KNUST junior staff, whetherage as variable determines training effectiveness. It also studied the relationship between incentives and training development and explored motivation effects on training effectiveness. The Literature on training effectiveness was reviewed based on the following themes. The historical development of training and development, theories in training and development/motivational theories , methods/ techniques of training and development models/ Cycles of training and development and the impact of training and development on productivity.

The population for the study was 98 and a non probabilistic convenient sampling method was used in selecting the sampling size. The research design was a social survey that utilized quantitative methods using survey questionnaire to gather the data for the research. Responses were then analysed using quantitative analysis such as descriptive and numerical statistics to come out with answers to the research questions and objectives. The study used a cross sectional survey design which utilized a nonprobabilistic convenience sample with structured questionnaire for the collection of quantitative data which were statistically analysed to determine patterns of association. Pearson"s correlation was used in testing the various hypotheses.

The study was divided into five chapters with the first chapter dealing with the introduction that is the background to the study, statement of the problem, research

questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, definition of concepts, and conceptual framework.

Chapter two looked at the literature, Literature was reviewed in relation to work that has already been done and was related to this work. The literature was reviewed in six parts. That is historical development of training and development, theories in training and development, motivational theories, methods and techniques of training and development, models and cycles of training and development and the impact of training and development on productivity.

Chapter three dealt with the research methods, specifically looking at the research settings, profile of KNUST, research design, sampling procedures that are the sampling units, target populations, study population, sampling frame and sampling selection. The method of collecting primary data was also looked at in this chapter, fieldwork, response rate, field problems/ limitations data handling as well as ethical considerations were all looked at in this chapter.

In chapter four the primary data collected was presented and analysed with regards to the objectives and hypotheses. Accordingly the results of the study are summarised below and recommendations and conclusions provided for the study.

5.4 Summary of Finding

This study was conducted with a set of objectives and hypotheses which related directly to the research questions. The fundamental objective was to examine the effectiveness of training and development in organisations specifically at KNUST .The data collected indicated that the university since its establishment has been involved in training and

developing for her junior workers. The data collected affirmed the objective of training and development programmes that are available in the university. The university has different training and development programmes for its junior workers such as in-service training, on-the-job training, coaching.

Data collected and analysed indicates that training and development programmes helps to improve the knowledge of workers, improve workers skills and finally improve workers understanding and attitudes, All these helped to improve on the overall performance of the university. These finding supports the objective of the study that explores workers effective productivity relationship to training and development programmes availability.

The data gathered also indicated that there is a positive relationship between motivation and training and development in that it was observed that most junior workers are motivated to go for training in other to improve their knowledge, to be promoted by their bosses, and also to be away from their bosses. This shows that motivation plays important role in training and development. The transfer of knowledge data gathered indicated that workers are motivated to transfer their knowledge in other to be recognised by management, some for personal satisfaction, whilst others want to be recognised by colleagues. Availability of incentives also plays a major role in motivating workers in transferring their knowledge

The study attempted to establish a relationship between training and development and workers acquisition of skills and knowledge development by postulatingthe hypothesis that positive relationship exist between training and development and workers skills development. The findings were that there is a positive relationship between effectiveness of training and development and skills and knowledge acquisition. What

it means is that the frequency of training and the unit or department that organises the training programme determines the level of knowledge acquired by workers.

Finally the study tried to ascertain the relationship between motivation and effectiveness of training and development by postulating the hypothesis, Motivation facilitates effectiveness and skill development. The findings were that majority of the workers accept the training with the view that there will be promotion and recognition after training and development. However, workers will have to go through frustrations to get either promoted or not. As a result workers are themselves not encouraged to accept training and development; unless it is made compulsory, it is believed that, workers will opt for training and development programmes if the exercise is not going to enable them get promoted and lead to future career progression. Chapter five dealt with the discussion of the findings of the study whilst chapter six dealt with the summary, recommendations and conclusion of the work.

5.5 Recommendations

Many organisations know the importance of training and development programmes as far as enhancing skills and productivity. For training and development to be effective, KNUST may consider the following training activities and objectives.

Systematic training

The training needs of workers should be identified professionally in conjunction with line managers as well as assistant registrars within the training and development section. There should be an agreement on what trainees are lacking, the skill they need and the kind of training attitudes that needs to be changed to improve work performance.

The needs identified should come from KNUSTs strategic plan which will cover the various departments and sections. The training plan, implementation and evaluation should be a continuous process for the organisations development. The frequency of training should be improved in order to enhance productivity.

Objectives should be Achievable and Unambiguous

Objectives of training programmes organised for workers should take into consideration the various training models, taking into consideration the SMART method, which is specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and timely. The training should not be ambiguous. Targets should be set, standards should be measured and workers made to see targets as achievable and attainable. Finally training evaluation trends must be cultivated for all training and development programmes.

Career Planning and Development

It is important that organisations plan the career progression of their workers, so as to match their aspirations with the opportunities available.

Employees must be made to identify their aspirations and abilities and counselled to know the training and development programmes required for their particular career. Information on their career progression should also be made available to them. In planning the career progression the individuals abilities, age and educational level of workers should be considered. Workers should also be made aware of the succession plan of the university in other for them to develop themselves accordingly.

Motivation and Morale

For training effectiveness to be achieved, workers should be motivated. If the university is able to use its motivation policy effectively it will enable more workers to avail themselves for training. Motivation includes extrinsic items such as, extra pay, allowances and fringe benefits. While extrinsic motivation will include recognition by management and colleagues, appreciation, opportunities for promotion, career progression and consultation for important matters.

The morale of workers can be boosted in order to make training effective and increase productivity. A boosted morale will help reduce absenteeism, accidents and employee turnover. This practice leads to job satisfaction and the overall development of the university.

Improved Inter-personal Relationship

Good inter-personal relationship can also be made part of the organisational culture. As workers are able to interact freely with their superiors and colleagues, they are able to improve their skills and knowledge about the university. They are then better able to contribute their quota towards the production of the country‟s human resource base.

Availability of Incentives

To enable workers to transfer the knowledge they acquire at training there should be availability of incentives to enable employees work with. The availability of incentives

boosts the morale of employees and encourages them to work harder. This includes good working environment, protective gears and proper ventilation at the work place.

Evaluate Training for Effectiveness

It is very important to periodically evaluate the training given to workers. This will enable the trainers to know whether the training given is yielding the needed results. It will also indicate where there should be interventions and improvements. The basis for evaluation should be determined by trainers at the planning stage.

5.6 Conclusion

The study sought to look at the effectiveness of training and development in organisations with junior workers of KNUST as the case study. The findings and recommendations have been duly provided. It is realised that even though the university provides training for its workers; attention is not focused on the junior workers.

The findings gave answers to most of the research questions posed in the work. The findings showed that workers acquire knowledge and new skills to improve upon their work. This is usually done through in -service and, on- the-job training and seminartraining programmes. However this should be done more often for the junior workers to improve their confidence levels.Outside training should also be continued for those who had the knowledge to go to school.

For the effectiveness of training to be achieved the university should take into consideration the abilities, age, gender and the marital status of the workers into consideration whenever they are planning programmes for them. All the various sections should be given equal attention, so that all the workers will be given equal opportunities to be trained. This will enable them improve their performances as individuals to meet the growing trends in technology. Also the findings demonstrated that incentives and motivation plays important role in the effectiveness of training and development, Since that enables them to transfer their knowledge to their work.

It is also recommended that future studies should look at new trends in the future development of other workers of the university.

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APPENDIX A:

QUESTIONNAIRE

EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT IN ORGANISATIONS: A STUDY OF JUNIOR WORKERS IN THE COLLEGE OF ART AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN KNUST

QUESTIONNAIRE EMPLOYEES

This study is purely for academic purpose. The questionnaire is to find out the effectiveness of training and development in organisations. Confidentiality and anonymity of both respondents and information volunteered are assured .Please indicate your answer with a (tick x)

PART-A-   GENERAL INFORMATION

1.   Please indicate the number of years you have worked for this university?

a.   1-2 years   ☐
b.   3-4 years   ☐
c.   5-6 years   ☐
d.   7-8 years   ☐
e.   9 years and above   ☐

2.   This is my job description ☐

a.   Cleaner ☐

b.   Clerk ☐

c.   Administrative staff ☐

d.   Labourer

e.   Other, specify:

....

3.   How regular does the university organise training for you?

a.   Once a year ☐

b.   Twice a year ☐

c.   Three times a year ☐

d.   Once every 2 years ☐

e.   Other, specify:

....

4. What kind of training programmes does the university organise for you?

a.   In-service training ☐

b.   On –the job induction training ☐

c.   Mentoring ☐

d.   Coaching

e.   Other, specify:

....

5.   Which unit undertook the training programme?

a.   KNUST Administration ☐

b.   College of Art and Social Sciences ☐

c.   Faculty/School ☐

d.   Department ☐

e.   Other, specify:

....

6.   Did the training improve your knowledge about your present job?

a.   Yes   ☐

b.   No   ☐

7. Explain your answer to question 6

above...

....

8. Has the training received helped you acquire new skills apart from what you
    already had?

a.   Very much   ☐

b.   Much   ☐

c.   Average   ☐

d.   Very little   ☐

e.   Not at all   ☐

9. Do you now understand your job better after going through the training?

a.   Very much   ☐

b.   Much   ☐

c.   Average   ☐

d.   Very little   ☐

e.   Not at all   ☐

10.   Has the training received enabled you to avoid certain mistakes you used
to make?

a.   Very much   ☐

b.   Much   ☐
                    ☐
c.   Average   ☐

d.   Quite a bit

e.   Not at all   ☐

11. After going through training do you receive all the materials you need to enable you work effectively?

a. Yes   ☐

b. No   ☐

12. How satisfied are you with the quality of training you have received since you worked with the university?

a.   Highly satisfied   ☐
b.   Satisfied   ☐
c.   Moderately   ☐
d.   Not satisfied   ☐
e.   Not satisfied at all   ☐

14.   Do you recognise any need for further training or changes in your department?

a.   Yes   ☐
b.   No   ☐

15.   In your view what are some of the factors that affect effectiveness of training and development at the university?

a.   Improper planning of the training programme   ☐
b.   lack of proper evaluation of the training programme   ☐
c.   lack of needs assessment   ☐
d.   lack of acceptable standards   ☐

e.   Other, specify:

....

16. Please rank the following in terms of how each motivates you to transfer your knowledge from training to your job. (Rank from 1 – 8)

a. Positive recognition by my immediate supervisor ☐

b. Visibility to senior management ☐

c. Peer recognition ☐

d. Personal sense of recognition ☐

e. Other, specify ☐

17. How tolerant is your boss towards your mistakes?

a. very tolerant ☐

b. tolerant ☐

c. intolerant ☐

d. very intolerant ☐

e. Other,

specify...

....

18. How would you describe the relationship between you and your boss

a. Very cordial ☐

b. Cordial ☐

c. Hostile ☐

d. Very hostile ☐

e. Indifferent ☐

19. Does your boss praise you when you achieve your objectives?

a. Yes, very much ☐

b. Yes, averagely ☐

c. Yes, just a little ☐

d. No, no praise ☐

e. Other, specify:

....

20. Choose the one which applies to you from the following sentences

a.   My boss" behaviour encourages me to practice what I learn from ☐
        training

b.   My boss" behaviour encourages me to go for more training ☐

c.   I go for training to improve upon my skills ☐

d.   I go for training because I want to be promoted ☐

e.   I go for training because I am compelled by my department ☐

21. How would you describe your relationship with your colleague workers?

a.   Very friendly ☐

b.   Friendly ☐

c.   Unfriendly ☐

d.   Very unfriendly ☐

e.   indifferent ☐

BIO-DATA

22.   My age is between

a.   20-29 ☐

b.   30-39 ☐

c.   40-49 ☐

d.   50-59 ☐

e.   60 and above ☐

24.   My gender is

a.   Female   ☐

b.   Male   ☐

25.   I attended school up to

a.   Primary   ☐

b.   JHS   ☐

c.   SHS/Secondary   ☐

d.   Tertiary   ☐

e.   Other,

Specify...

26.   My religion is

a.   Muslim   ☐

b.   Traditional   ☐

c.   Christian   ☐

d.   Other, Specify:

....

27.   I am from this ethnic group

a.   Akan   ☐

b.   Ewe   ☐

c.   Gonja   ☐

d.   Dagomba

e.   Ga Adangbe   ☐

f.   Other,

    specify.................................

....

....

28.   Marital status

a.   Married   ☐
b.   Not married   ☐
c.   Divorced   ☐
d.   Separated   ☐
e.   Widowed   ☐

APPENDIX 2:

LIST OF ACRONYMS

KNUST: Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology

CASS: College of Art and Social Science

JIT   : Job Instructional Training

TWI : Training within industry

JRT   :Job Relations training

JMT : Job Methods Training

JST   :Job Safety Training

ASTD: American Society for Training and Development

OJT   : On-the Job Training

EQW : Educational Quality of the Workforce

JHS   :Junior High School

SHS :Senior High School

SPSS : Statistical Package for Social Sciences