TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT AS A KEY TO ENHANCE EMPLOYEES PRODUCTIVENESS AT TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY (TUT)

by

BERNEDICT MANDLA NGWENYA

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DECLARATION

I, **Bernedict Mandla Ngwenya,** declare that the dissertation herewith submitted for the MTech (Human Resource Development) degree at UNISA represents my original work. Any other work of a similar nature has been appropriately referenced and this body of work has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other university.

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Bernedict Mandla Ngwenya

ABSTRACT

Research in training and development at organisations has produced important results in the previous two decades. The results indicate that higher motivation and satisfaction levels of employees are the result of training and development effectiveness with relation to work and employees' productivity.

The aim and purpose of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of training and development in enhancing organisational productivity. The researcher wanted to determine whether training and development did in fact enhance the productivity of employees.

A non-probability sampling method was employed when conducting the research. The research methods used were a combination of observations, a questionnaire, a workshop, a survey and interviews with participants.

A qualitative research approach guided this process in order to accomplish the aim and purpose of the study and was based on data collection and analysis of information, documents and interviews to determine training and development for performance improvement

Key terms

Productiveness; Training; Development; Human resource development; Human resource management, Skills; Knowledge; Training programmes; Performance; Investment; Communication; Attitude

ACRONYMS

ASTD – American Society for Training and Development

CODAP – Comprehensive Data Analysis Programme

CU – Corporate University

HR – Human Resources

HRD – Human Resources Development

HRM – Human Resources Management

IHRM – International Human Resources Management

KSA – Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes

OD – Organisational Development

ROI – Return on Investment

SAEM – South African Excellence Model

SHRD – Strategic Human Resources Development

SHRD – Strategic Human Resources Management

T&D – Training and Development

TUT – Tshwane University of Technology

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Training and development (T&D) can be described as interventions and activities that are intended to improve knowledge, abilities and skills in organisations which increasingly focus on the learner, simply because training and development of employees at all levels within the organisation is now considered to be a vital component of maintaining competitiveness in the international arena. It provides some form of significance in human resource management (HRM) and human resources development (HRD) literature. Such training and development practices provide trainees with opportunities for planning to win, as well as equip employees with strategic thinking for success (Garavan, 1997).

The process of training is also defined as the systematic acquisition of skills, rules, concepts or attitudes that results in improved performance in the work situation. In some of these instances, such as direct on-the-job training, the instructional environment is very similar if not identical to the on-the-job environment. In other instances, the training occurs in a place far-removed from the actual worksite, such as a classroom (Goldstein and Gessner, 1988). Development refers to an all important process, through which individual and organisational growth can achieve its full potential over time. Education is a major contributor to that development process, because it directly and continually affects the formation not only of knowledge and abilities, but also of character, culture, aspirations and achievements (Harrison, 1992). The ultimate difference is that training is the shorter-term, systematic process through which an individual is helped to master defined tasks or areas of skill and knowledge to predetermined standards; development is focused on the longer term, which has to do with the role of encouraging, arranging and promoting individuals' development, particularly in an organisational context.

Corporate university (CU) is an emerging model for continual training in the corporate world, as well as continual learning for employees. The first corporate

university was established by General Electric in 1950 and more recently such a model for training employees has been adopted by a large number of corporations worldwide. The prospects of CUs are increasingly clarified as being the right choice for continual employee development towards more specific education that improves the performance of personnel and increases their job productivity. This new model of work-related training has received a notable boost from the widespread availability of information and telecommunication technologies (El-Tannir, 2002).

In a new approach to tackling the skills shortage, Murray & Roberts Cementation is investing in increased capacity at its training centre to allow for greater numbers of students, as well as exposure to the true mining environment. Full-scale mock-up shafts, tunnelling and production areas, which allow training to be done in a simulated environment, will allow people to train in a genuine, though smaller shaft. Murray & Roberts Cementation's director of business development, Allan Widlake, explains that this will allow the company to train and place more people in the field and put the company ahead of its competitors. It will also reduce risks and allow for greater productivity (Van Der Merwe, 2007).

At Murray & Roberts, training for personnel includes initial induction and basic skills. This is followed by specialised skills when required. Retraining is then done on a yearly basis. Computerised training facilities are also incorporated, where training is done to Mine Qualification Authority standards. In today's competitive business environment, it is necessary for companies to use the benefits of technology to their best advantage. (Van Der Merwe, 2007).

In the United States, many states have developed requirements for school teachers from pre-kindergarten through to Grade 12. For example, in New Jersey, state regulations mandate that all active teachers and educational service personnel complete 100 hours of development every five years, consistent with New Jersey development standards. In the state of Florida, instructional personnel must complete 120 service hours or two college courses every five years in each area of certification. Developing standards are becoming a legislated mandate in a number of states in the United States of America (Wikipedia, 2008).

The researcher came to decide on this topic after reading many articles and after realising that South Africa has a shortage of skilled labour. Many companies take their employees through various training courses and development exercises so that their personnel can acquire necessary skills and required competency levels. Companies send employees on various training and development practice courses to try and bridge the existing gap between the employees' performance and organisational standards. Many companies have introduced an internship programme through the Department of Labour; such a programme will directly contribute to the development of large numbers of previously unskilled South Africans. The South African government decided to introduce the Skills Development Act of 1997 to improve the skills levels of the South African population.

The relevance and the importance of the study is that it will provide companies and firms that are using the expertise of training and development practitioners with the ability to keep employee morale and company productiveness and profitability at high levels, while at the same time trying to help organisations decrease the level of employee turnover by helping immediate supervisors communicate in a better and more positive way with their employees. Supervisors are often promoted because of the technical skills gained during training and development processes. Through training managers, organisations can increase their retention of employees, which will indirectly boost the productiveness and profitability level of the organisation (Stewart, 2001). This study will help prepare companies for their future training and development exercises by thinking globally while doing it locally.

Some people need training because it is known that they lack particular knowledge or skills. In many situations, for example, it is obvious that newly hired sales people lack knowledge of the product sold by the companies hiring them, but it might not be obvious that these same new employees lack basic sales skills. In the case of commodity products, it might also be clear that employees lack basic product knowledge. A person selling personal computers, for instance, will probably not have much trouble making the transition to a furniture store. It is obvious that the introduction of a new system carries the requirement of training new users, especially if its functions are new or represent a radical departure from previous

systems (Nickols, 2003).

1.2 Background to the Study

The advantages of identifying and measuring the benefits of training and development are enormous and a comprehensive discussion is somewhat beyond this study's scope. It may be possible to start with a simple example, say the production of a "gizmo" assembler, and then measure productiveness before and after exposure to training. The assumption here is that an increase in productivity in the assembly of "gizmos" could be attributed to any associated training. But, already those schooled in the techniques of research will be quick to point out that several intervening and confounding variables may be at work to help change production results (Gillery and Eggland, 1989).

According to Garavan (1997), training and development are essentially concerned with learning. Furthermore, development appears to be a primary process to which training contributes. In turn, this contribution facilitates both the individual and the organisation. It is therefore logical to suggest that training and development are seen as complementary components of the same process, i.e. the enhancement of human potential or talent.

Training and development on the job may develop or enhance process skills. Training of employees in skills relevant to a current occupation, such as leadership training for managers and training for specific techniques or equipment of educators, technicians, metal workers, medical practitioners and engineers, contributes directly to enhancing employees' performance. Trainers should keep in mind that training is occasionally a solution to specific business or performance problems. On these occasions, companies should realise that a good training assessment is essential. Training can also be used to provide a shared experience as part of a team development effort. Training can be used either as an incentive or as a reward. Training, then, is more than a simple remedy for knowledge or skill deficiencies. It is essential to note that it is the day-to-day aspect of leading people – not of managing them or their work – that really affects productiveness. Training and development programmes are designed to help personnel understand the

impact of specific training courses on business or organisational performance. For example, organisations can ascertain the status of employee certification required by the regulatory change, as well as the percentage of employees who have competency gaps as defined by their job requirements.

People and their development are crucial to increasing or sustaining growth, through their increased performance competitiveness and profitability levels. Money spent on training staff should have a direct and positive impact on the bottom line, because well-trained staff are not only able to perform better at their jobs by enhancing productiveness, but will also possess a higher level of motivation and be less likely to leave their current company and join another (Croft, 2007).

In order to develop a more productive environment, one of the key challenges is to ensure that employees are skilled: this can be done through training and development practices. In order to improve productiveness, an organisation is required to lead, innovate and respond appropriately to changes in the labour market. Training is an important precursor for firms who wish to improve their productiveness. Lower skills levels have a negative effect on productiveness, even when they are consistent with the product skills demands (Mason, Van Arle and Wagner, 1996). Training and development processes are essential for improving performance, increasing employee morale and increasing the health, effectiveness and productiveness of the organisation.

1.3 Problem Statement and Research Questions
1.3.1 Problem Statement

Globally, training and development are well-researched topics aimed towards enhancing employees' productiveness. Although most hospitality organisations train employees to behave appropriately with customers (Gilbert, Guerrier and Guy, 1998), the industry has a poor reputation for training (Maxwell, Watson and Quail, 2004; Pratten, 2003) – although this is not well-supported empirically. Managers may be reluctant to invest in training, in case staff members subsequently leave (Davies, Taylor and Savery, 2001; Jameson, 2000; Loe, Ferrel

and Mansfield, 2000; Lowry, Simon and Kimberly, 2002) or because their time is already fully occupied with recruitment and selection. Performing a task publicly with insufficient skill jeopardises service quality and can demean and embarrass employees; yet, anecdotal evidence overwhelmingly suggests that training is poor and that employees are punished for their inability to perform. Training and development affects job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Lam and Zhang, 2003; Lowry et al., 2002; Pratten, 2003; Smith, 2002; Taylor, Davies, and Savery, 2001), which in turn affects staff retention. Hotels that provide inadequate training exacerbate staff turnover (Lashley and Best, 2002) and threaten quality standards and profit.

South Africa is facing increasing shortages in skills and expertise, which is affecting the country's ability to compete globally with companies of high international standard. The country is facing the challenge of creating a skilled labour force and improving employees' productiveness. The quality of training and development issues must be addressed by policymakers.

In a specific context, the research problem is the fact that the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) does not have proper evaluation methods, instruments and strategies that are appropriate for the evaluation of training and development programmes.

There is no doubt that an individualised approach to learning can have a considerable impact on learning and that there is a real need for more information about successful strategies and approaches to improve learning (Ecclestone, 2005).

The way in which international companies manage human resources on an international scale can be seen as a key determinant of the success of globalising strategies. Organisations attempting to succeed in a global business environment must invest in the acquisition and development of employees and acquire effective managers throughout the world (Dowling and Welch, 2004; Drost, Frayne, Lowe and Geringer, 2002; Schuler, Dowling and Ceiri, 1993). However, Adler and Bartholomew (1992) have suggested that an organisational strategy is becoming

increasingly international – faster than its implementation and much faster than the development of international managers.

It is recognised by most South African business organisations that there is a shortage of highly skilled personnel. The World Competitive Report, in collaboration with the World Economic Forum, ranked South Africa last out of a total of 48 countries profiled with regards to human resources development was. For the past two years, the World Competitiveness Yearbook has ranked South Africa at the bottom of a league of 47 countries in terms of skilled labour, economic literacy, education systems, unemployment levels and IT skills. The poor development of skills training in South Africa also underpins the lack of competitiveness in the global village. Although this study is limited to the Tshwane University of Technology environment, the recommendations will have wider applications.

1.3.2 Research Question

Based on what the researcher has said above, the research problem has been identified and is related to the application of training and development as effective measures of enhancing employees' productiveness within the education sector. The following main question is identified:

What training methods, strategies and programmes would be effective for enhancing employees' productiveness at the Tshwane University of Technology?

1.4 Aim and Objectives
1.4.1 Aim

The aim and purpose of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of training and development in enhancing organisational productiveness.

1.4.2 <u>Objectives</u>

The objectives of this research are to:

❖ Provide recommendations on implementing essential training and development methods that will play an important role in enhancing organisational productiveness;

❖ Play an important role in improving the use of HRD resources (funds) and make sure that such funds are used wisely;

❖ Provide enough data to ensure that training and development programmes are effective and highly productive;

❖ Integrate learning at work in a way that is relevant to employees;

❖ Enable employees to become more effective learners;

❖ Help managers to view training and development as an important tool for improving employees' skills, abilities and knowledge.

Because of the Skills Development Act of 1997, companies require employers to invest in staff training; thus, managers need greater articulation of how these training interventions would benefit their companies.

1.5 <u>The Value and Benefits of the Study</u>

1.5.1 <u>Value of the Study</u>

The potential value of this research is that companies and organisations using HRD programmes can benefit in terms of strategies to help companies prepare for the challenges of HRD for managers within the HRD department, as well as for practitioners directly involved with the provision of training and development. The research will also help consultants acquire the relevant skills and consulting functions. This research will help practitioners who perform multiple roles of HRD to acquire a proper combination of the knowledge, skills and attitudes required for performing their duties.

1.5.2 <u>Benefits of the Study</u>

- ❖ Members will have an opportunity to improve continually.
- ❖ Benchmarking opportunities will be provided.
- ❖ An important analysis involving self-evaluation will be provided.
- ❖ The organisational self-evaluation will provide opportunities for training and development, as members will develop a better understanding of the South African Excellence Model and its criteria.

1.6 <u>Research Methodology</u>
1.6.1 <u>Research Design</u>

The design of this research project addressed an approach that was non-experimental and descriptive in nature. Such an approach was qualitative in determining training and development effects on employees' productiveness at the Tshwane University of Technology. A sample representative of the population was selected at TUT and used in the research study. The focus was on performance as the most essential part of quality improvement, as well as continual job performance improvement through the training and development system. From the demarcated population, a selection of representative respondents was made for the pilot case study.

The research was commenced by using literature as a data collection method, in order to determine the need and focus of the problem. The literature review was conducted in order to determine relevant theories and arguments surrounding the stated topic.

A formal evaluation of the performance excellence of TUT staff was conducted by making use of original evaluation questionnaires in order to obtain the required information. The following process was conducted:

- ❖ Planning and preparing self-evaluation – After discussion with staff members, questionnaires were prepared and distributed.
- ❖ Conducting the evaluation – A formal self-evaluation of the staff activities and

achievements was completed by staff members, by making use of a self-assessment questionnaire.

All the findings from the questionnaires were evaluated and validated by a follow-up of employee interviews and focus groups.

1.6.2 Population and Selection of Cases

This research used the purposive sampling method, which has been extensively defined by writers such as Sekaran (1992), Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell and Alexander (1990). Purposive sampling involves specifying the types of people targeted, based on their predetermined parameters: the investigation targeted organisational members within certain salary brackets.

An invitation was issued to 80 staff members who were invited to convene at the Gencor Community Hall at TUT. This number included staff members who were grouped according to the lowest levels of employment (Levels 16-18), junior staff members (Levels 12-15), senior staff (Levels 7-11) and members in managerial positions (Levels 1-6). Structured interviews were conducted with four staff members placed on Levels 16 to 18 (e.g. gardeners, cleaners, administrators and clerks). The interaction assisted members because some of them had a problem with understanding concepts that had to be analysed.

A presentation was conducted to inform the unit members of the need for job performance improvement and the use of technology. Self-evaluation questionnaires were distributed to all members and completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher, so that all the available staff members of the research population were included in the research sample.

Non-probability methods have the distinct advantage of quickly assessing participants who are most likely to provide rich information. For this reason, non-probability methods of sampling are more commonly used in qualitative research (Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell and Alexander, 1990). Selecting the representative sample of respondents was an important task for the researcher in order to ensure

that no systematic bias occurred in the data gathered. At the same time, the researcher's analyses also had to be free from bias.

1.6.3 <u>Data Collection and Instruments</u>

The researcher employed the following data collection methods:

1.6.3.1 Interviews: Structured interviews regarding the research problem were conducted with training and development quality evaluators at TUT, as well as with the officers and senior training and development practitioners at selected TUT training units.

The purpose of the interviews was the equal sharing of information with participants of the study: such information was used for the analysis of data. The confidentiality of the information being sought and collected was emphasised.

1.6.3.2 Questionnaire: An existing generic questionnaire and customised questionnaire were part of an organisational self-evaluation from members of the selected case study. Truelove (1995) states that if a questionnaire is selected as the technique, detailed planning is required. This included the content of the questionnaire, piloting, distribution, follow-up of non-responses, analysis and use of results. A questionnaire has the potential of reaching large numbers in a short time. Its only weakness was interpreting the replies and also being unable to use follow-up questions.

1.6.3.3 Workshop: The researcher facilitated a workshop by selecting senior members from the case study. Individual responses, as well as consensus ratings after the group discussion, were recorded.

1.6.3.4 Observation: The researcher was a participant observer of the case study of the self-evaluation and implementation of performance improvement at TUT. Truelove (1995) defines observation as an approach that can be used to collect information about the workplace, the workforce and working processes. It allows those involved in the analysis of the organisation's training needs to develop areas

of the organisation that have not been worked with previously. Observation is generally an unobstructive way of collecting information: it depends upon the extent of the openness and trust that exist. Observation is not the primary source of information to be used, but it can certainly provide insight and the basis for "hunches".

The data collected was supported by an intensive literature study to assist in determining the answers to the research problem and sub-problems.

1.6.4 <u>Data Analysis</u>

The interviews, workshop and questionnaires yielded large amounts of information and this required a summary, which was done by extracting short, representative questions and writing a short passage that is a summary of the main themes of the research.

In the formal analysis, the researcher discovered additional themes and concepts and built towards an overall explanation. In order to commence with final data analysis, one has to put all the materials from the interviews that link to one theme or concept into one category and then compare materials within categories in order to find variations and meanings. One then has to compare material across all the categories to discover links between the themes. The goal was to integrate themes and concepts into a theory that offers accurate and detailed, yet difficult, interpretations of the research area.

The above process was assisted by making use of the available computer-aided software, the Comprehensive Data Analysis Programme (CODAP), for the analysis of data – it was used as a tool for the management of textual data and to store and release information. CODAP clusters the task and this gave a complete specification of the job or, more usually, of a group of training functions.

The process included editing, which was a crucial element of analysis because it assisted with identifying errors and rectifying those mistakes. The main objective of editing was to achieve accuracy, consistency and uniformity (Cooper and

Schindler, 2001).

1.7 Conclusion and Outline of the Dissertation

This dissertation presents the findings about the topic – training and development – as key to enhancing employees' productiveness. The study unfolds with the introduction of the topic, along with its relevance and importance.

The main topics that the researcher discusses in the remaining chapters are included in the literature review in Chapter 2, which explains existing literature that is relevant to the topic. The literature contains both theoretical and experimental elements. For example, the thesis aims to determine whether training and development lead to improved productiveness. The literature review reports on studies and theory that discuss the ability of training and development to improve employees' productiveness. Chapter 2 reviews the studies that are crucial in discussing the benefits of training and developing organisational employees in order to enhance their productiveness.

The third chapter consists of the research design and methodology, which was organised according to the stages of the research process, such as identifying and selecting data sources by using existing marketing instruments, validity and reliability assessments; developing new measuring instruments; collecting and gathering data; documenting fieldwork data; capturing data; editing data; analysing data; and interpreting such data (synthesis). The fourth chapter focuses on the presentation and discussion of the results of the fieldwork done by the researcher. The final chapter, which is Chapter 5, presents conclusions and recommendations. The conclusion that is put forward is justified and supported by the analysis performed.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has shown the introductory phase of the research approach to carrying out the study, which involved the background of the study, the methodology used, the research questions and problems, the value and benefits of the study and the aim and objectives thereof.

The literature has been gathered from a variety of sources, such as scientific journals, articles, conventional discourse analysis, historical studies, life history methodology, case studies, surveys, methodological studies and secondary data analysis of well-known researchers in the field of human resources development. This covers a number of topics such as organisational development, skills development and learning, organisational change, a learning organisation, knowledge management, talent management, emotional intelligence, business ethics, evaluation, return on investment and learning and coaching.

Training and development of employees at all levels within organisations is now considered a vital component in maintaining competitiveness in the international arena. It is also significant in HRM and HRD literature. If one accepts a competitive market perspective on HRM/HRD, then the central notion is the view that training and development strategies are important means by which the inefficiencies of the employment relationship can be reduced and a closer approximation to competitive labour market outcomes can be attained (Garavan, 1997).

Training is defined as practical education in any profession, art or craft. The HRM/HRD definition does not differ significantly. It is generally defined as a planned and systematic effort to modify or develop knowledge, skills and attitudes through learning experiences, in order to achieve effective performance in any activity or range of activities (Garavan, Costine, and Heraty, 1995b; Harrison, 1993; Reid and Barrington, 1994). Van Wart, Cayer and Cork (1993) suggest that training is driven and aims to impart skills that are immediately useful in particular

situations. As an activity, it appears to span many boundaries, including on- and off-the-job training, training for younger workers, adult training, as well as formal and informal training through work experience.

Development is an act or process of developing: a gradual unfolding of growth. Gillery and Eggland (1989) define development as the advancement of knowledge, skills and competencies and the improved behaviour of people at the organisation for both their personal and professional use. Within HRM/HRD literature, development as a concept embraces both the outer reality of the environment and organisational goals and the inner reality of the emerging self. Baum (1995) characterises development as a process that takes place at any time and is not constrained by formal parameters or at specified points within an individual's lifecycle.

This particular topic has been researched by Jinabhai (2005), wherein he concludes that the importance of training and development, in the light of the shortages experienced in South Africa, is emphasised by the trend evident in other industrialised countries, where there are large numbers of skilled employees at the operating management level.

The debate about the role of T&D at organisations is a well-travelled road, with no end in sight as yet. Much of the literature suggests that T&D have been changing in significant ways in terms of how it performs (Rainbird, 1994; Garavan, Costine and Heraty, 1995a, Garavan, Heraty and Barnicle, 1999; CIPD, 2001; CIPD, 2006; Carter, Hirsh, and Aston, 2002). The predominant view is that it has transformed itself from being merely a training provider of training events into an agent of strategic organisational development (OD) and change (Buckley and Caple, 1995; McCracken and Wallace, 2000; and Horwitz, 1999). This perspective seems to outweigh the alternative viewpoint that, in fact, such a change in role might be limited (Truss, Gratton, Hope-Hailey, Stiles and Zaleska, 2002; Keep, 1989) and it overshadows the concerns that some have expressed about its approach (McMahon and Carter, 1990; Hamlin, 2002).

2.2 Definitions

2.2.1 Training

Training is usually a process associated with preparing someone for performing a task or role, typically, but not necessarily, in a work setting (Buckley and Caple, 1990; Jarvis, 1990; Nadler and Nadler, 1990). It may also be seen, however, as a specific element or outcome of a more general process of education (Goldstein and Gessner, 1988).

2.2.2 HRD

Human resources development refers to a wide range of concerns to do with the overall development of the individual and forms one aspect of the broader field of human resource management or planning (Harrison, 2000; Megginson Joy-Matthews and Benfield, 1993; Steward and Goldrick, 1996; Thomson and Mabey, 1994; Wilson, 1999).

2.2.3 HRM

Human resources management is understood as signifying the management of labour in its broader sense (Adams, 1993). In this understanding, HRM is concerned with the management of all employment relationships in the firm, incorporating the management of managers, as well as non-management labour, and potentially covering a diverse array of styles, such as those discussed by Purcell and Ahlstrand (1994). Within each internal labour market or workforce segment, HRM incorporates a range of sub-functions and practices, including workforce governance, work organisation, staffing, development and ward systems – some of which are individually oriented, some collectively oriented and others a blend of both (Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Quinn Mills and Walton, 1984; Begin, 1992).

2.3 Discussion of Literature Review

Employment performance would serve as a reasonable indicator of the main role of training and development/human resources development at the Tshwane University of Technology. The performance evaluation data would offer a scope to compare any changes between employees' performance before receiving training and employees' performance after undergoing training. The literature has increased the shift of terminology from "training" to "HRD" as both a title and an indicator of the change of role (Mankin, 2001; Garavan et al., 1995a). However, the literature shows that training and development continue to be the most frequently used measures to improve performance. Training remains the most popular task and the role continues to be described more as a provider and manager of a training and development programme than as a strategic change or OD agent. This is perplexingly in conflict with what is supported in much of the literature (Auluck, 2007).

Recently, some multinational firms such as Heineken, Haagovens and Banks have developed a new long-term corporate T&D strategy which is primarily directed towards less-educated employees. The main argument is that becoming a knowledge intensive organisation will only be a success if employees at hierarchical levels of the organisation will profit from investment in human capital formation. Therefore, it is expected that the market for corporate training and development will expand, especially in the lower-educated employee segment.

Phillips (1999) suggests that for organisations to achieve the intended results of T&D, the effectiveness of training should be enhanced, particularly when training delivery methods that aim to integrate practical work are used. The most well-known example is on-the-job training. The use of on-the-job training has increased considerably, together with coaching and the use of external training. Thus, needs analysis is crucial to the effectiveness of T&D efforts, because a great amount of T&D takes place without much consideration of the real needs of the organisation and employees.

The T&D offered in organisations serve as important drivers of performance. How people think as members of groups affects the outcomes of learning interventions. Therefore, T&D are a key input to or driver of learning and performance in organisations. The field of T&D has undergone tremendous changes and expansions in vision. Training is no longer about only instructing individuals to do their jobs efficiently and effectively: it has expanded to embrace non-training solutions aimed at improving performance at the individual, process and organisational levels (Rummler and Brache, 1995; Swanson, 1996). Most T&D interventions underestimate the important effects of group membership. Training is aimed at improving current work skills and behaviour, whereas development aims to improve abilities in relation to some future position or job, usually a managerial one (Dowling, Welch and Schuler, 1999). For example, a truly global manager needs a set of context-specific abilities, such as industry-specific knowledge, and a core of certain characteristics, such as cultural sensitivity, the ability to handle responsibility and the ability to develop subordinates (Baumgarten, 1992). These characteristics are considered important international competencies and can all be developed through effective international training and management development.

Evidence also indicates that low skills levels can have a negative effect on productiveness, even when they are consistent with the product skills demands (Mason et al., 1996). Poor performance by British firms, in the research carried out by Mason and colleagues, was explained by the failure of workers to anticipate machinery problems or to take action to reduce product wastage due to the limited training received. Such evidence would support a move towards enhancing national skills levels, particularly at the intermediate level, both through in-company training and also through the national vocational education system. Workplace training and development are used to develop skills needed by individuals in order to secure employment and to increase business performance effectiveness.

Initiatives to encourage individuals and employers to invest in skills are set within Lifetime Learning, a policy framework (DFEE, 1996). National statistics shows that during the past 10 years, the percentage of people in employment receiving training grew from 9,9% in 1986 to 36,4% in 1996 (Tregaskis and Brewser, 1998).

Training and development play a crucial role in enhancing employees' productiveness. Felstead and Green (1996) reported a similar trend and found out that while companies, both large and small, did decrease the level of their training, particularly if they had reduced their size of the workforce, the training levels remained relatively high. Therefore, such training indicated the effort put in by organisations to try and enhance employees' skills and competitive levels which will ultimately assist with improving employees' performance.

Strategic human resources development (SHRD) has become an important component of HRM, as a means to improve performance and organisational effectiveness. HRD acts as a crucial feature of HR planning activities which are positively related to productiveness, product development, market share and sales growth (Koch and McGrath, 1996; Kallenberg and Moody, 1994). Increasing profits may also result in higher investments in training (Hendry, Pettigrew and Sparrow, 1989) and more investment in training results in lower labour turnover (Arthur, 1994). T&D have a positive impact on the relationship between management and employees and improving product and service quality may require delegation of authority and responsibility to employees at lower levels.

Various organisations apply SHRD, which basically provides the capacity to enhance the abilities and competencies as a necessary requirement for effective performance. SHRD serves as a combined function of ability, motivation and opportunity. Evidence of external fit or HRM as strategic integration has some support. The evidence is not, however, conclusive. The notion of internal fit or HRM as an ideal set of practices carries stronger empirical support. Several studies shows that when T&D practices are frequently used, the better the performance is that occurs in respect of productiveness, skills flexibility, labour turnover and financial indicators (Guest, 1997; Delaney and Huselid, 1996; MacDuffie, 1995).

There is strong evidence that HR issues such as T&D are considered at implementation phases of strategic decision-making, but there is generally a lack of HRD involvement in corporate strategy formation. A T&D strategy follows the organisational strategy, with some interactive linking. Some authors argue that the

literature has been optimistic about possibilities for the close linking of corporate and T&D strategies and that greater emphasis needs to be given to a strategic choice perspective (Purcell and Ahlstrand, 1995).

It is essential that prior to the provision of T&D, one should conduct training needs assessment or a plain needs assessment to determine what kind of training is needed. The providers and professors of this methodology differ greatly among themselves about how best to conduct a needs assessment. They disagree even more greatly when it comes to defining what does or does not qualify as a needs assessment. A small group of purists claims that no training should ever be developed or delivered unless it has been preceded by a solid needs assessment. Trainers would do well to keep in mind that training is only occasionally a solution to specific business or performance problems. On these occasions, a good training needs assessment is essential. However, training is also used to communicate information, introduce new ideas and debate issues. Training can also be used to provide a shared experience as part of a team development effort. Training can be used either as an incentive or as a reward. Therefore, training is then more than a simple remedy for knowledge or skill deficiencies (Purcell and Ahlstrand, 1995).

According to Stewart (2001), training firms help companies increase their profitability levels. Stewart further states that in 2001 with the economic downturn and potential recession on the horizon, Birmingham companies were engaging the expertise of training companies and HR firms in an effort to keep employee morale and company profitability and productiveness high. Birmingham tried to increase employee morale by helping supervisors communicate in a better and more positive way with their employees. By coaching managers, organisations can increase their retention, which boosts productiveness and profitability.

Nickols (2000) states that training, development and organisational development projects are centred on improving performance and productiveness; he believes that it is the day-to-day aspect of leading people – not of managing them or their work – that really affects their productiveness.

Money spent on training staff should have a direct and positive impact on the bottom line, because well-trained staff are not only able to perform better at their roles by enhancing productiveness, but will also be more motivated and less likely to leave their current job and join another company (Croft, 2007). Printing companies that invest in employee training and career development are more likely to be profitable in the long term. United Litho dedicates a high 25% of sales to training and development and links all human resource initiatives to corporate goals, which in turn benefits the bottom line. Diamond Packaging actively applies for training grants to support its efforts to enhance employee skills and development (Anonymous, 2005). According to this source, award-winning companies offer a wide array of training, employee development and educational programmes that enhance employees' skills and improve the bottom line.

In order to develop a more productive environment, one of the key challenges is to ensure that employees are skilled. International evidence suggests that productiveness must not only be the responsibility of the individual employee, but the key to improved productiveness lies in the innovative management of employees. In order to improve productiveness, improved management is required to lead, innovate and respond appropriately to changes in the market for goods and services, as well as the labour market.

SHRD has become an important component of HRM, as a means to performance and organisational effectiveness. HRD is a critical feature of human resource planning activities which are positively related to productiveness, product development, market share and sales growth (Koch and McGrath, 1996; Kallenberg and Moody, 1994). Other studies conclude that training investment results in higher profits and productiveness (D'Orcimoles, 1995; Kallenberg and Moody, 1994). Therefore, it is important for companies to budget and to put their effort into training and development activities. However, authors such as Horwitz (1999) argue that without a proper and systematic training needs analysis, it is unlikely that HRD will make a meaningful strategic contribution to enhancing organisational effectiveness, because there are no proper plans and strategies outlined and so companies will be training for the sake of training, without any clear objectives and goals to be achieved after the training process.

By using new British industries (1983-1996) and a variety of estimation, it was found that work-related training is associated with significantly higher productiveness. A one percentage point increase in training is associated with an increase in value added per hour of about 0,6% and an increase in hourly wages of about 0,3%. The effect of productiveness on training is twice as large as the wage effect, implying that existing studies have underestimated the benefits of training by focusing on wages (Dearden, Reed, and Van Reenen, 2006). Training has strong positive correlation with both variables, wages and productiveness, but the association is somewhat weaker for wages than for productiveness. It can be concluded that trained workers are more productive than untrained workers.

The amount of training is an important precursor for firms that wish to improve their productiveness. The firms that need to increase production in the following few years are more likely to be involved in training than those who have decided to reduce their production levels and therefore tend to reduce their levels of training (Savery and Luks, 2004). According to Peak (1995), research shows that there is a distinct correlation between increased training budgets and improved productiveness levels.

2.4 <u>Performance Appraisal</u>

The term "performance appraisal" has generally meant the annual interview that takes place between the manager and the employee to discuss the individual's job performance during the previous 12 months and the compilation of action plans to encourage improved performance (Wilson, 2000). Moon (1993) succinctly defines appraisal "as a formal document system for the periodic review of an individual's performance".

Performance appraisal is part of the larger process of performance management. Marchington and Wilkinson (1996) describe appraisal as a cyclical process: determining performance expectations, supporting performance, reviewing and appraising performance and, finally, managing performance standards.

Performance appraisal can be used for numerous purposes including: reward; discipline; coaching; counselling; negotiating improvements in performance; improving the work environment; raising morale; clarifying expectations and duties; improving upward and downward communications; reinforcing management control; helping validate selection decisions; providing information to support human resource activities; identifying development opportunities; improving perceptions of organisational goals; and selecting people for promotion and redundancy. In short, performance appraisal appears to be a "panacea" (Taylor, 1998).

For those involved with human resources development, the performance appraisal interview is widely regarded as one of the main instruments for identifying training and development needs at the individual level. Indeed, Armstrong and Baron (1998) maintain that "'performance management' should really be called 'performance and development management'". Moreover, Taylor (1998) concludes from an investigation of a number of research studies "that performance appraisal is, in practice, more of an organisational curse than a panacea".

The appraisee is the most knowledgeable person about the work performance and should be the most important source of information on achievements and areas for development (Murphy and Cleveland, 1995). By giving appraisees more responsibility for appraisal, there is a stronger possibility of commitment and "a much higher level of appraisee motivation is engendered" (Fletcher, 1986: p.120).

The responsibility for the success of the appraisal also lies with the organisation and the appraiser. George (1986) suggests that the degree of openness required in the appraisal process is "unlikely to materialise without an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect – something that is conspicuously lacking in many employing organisations".

Appraisal should be perceived as an important tool for the development of the individual in order to achieve organisational objectives. Moon (1993: p. 7) argues that "effective staff appraisal isn't simply a matter of 'going through the motions', holding ritualistic interviews and mechanically completing forms, before returning to

the more important task of getting on with the day-to-day management of the team. On the contrary, appraisal is a tool for managers to help them manage effectively".

Appraisal is sometimes regarded as achieving relatively little because of the infrequency of interviews. It is now widely accepted that a once-a-year interview is neither sufficient to monitor and evaluate performance nor to follow through training and development action plans (Wilson, 2000).

"No matter how clearly goals are presented and administered, if the review is an annual event that employees and managers don't think about until a week or two before evaluation time, the process isn't achieving its purpose" (Sahl, 1990: p. 54).

Organisations need to audit and evaluate regularly and systematically and improve their performance appraisal systems continually.

2.5 <u>Training</u>

Training is a common requirement of due process when poor performance results in a disciplinary action and is also a means of raising performance standards. It makes economic sense to provide training, if only to avoid the complications and consequences of negative behaviour (Poulston, 2008). Training can be related to teaching manners to a child – the benefits can be seen, but it is not possible to say whether a specific instruction results in a particular response.

Training is about improving performance – one has to concentrate on what the competencies for jobs are at the organisation. However, no training activity has potential for success without an adequate training need assessment effort, which narrows the gap between what is taught in the training sessions and what is required to improve job performance.

There are many different training and development methods, such as on-the-job training; informal training; classroom training; internal training courses; external training courses; on-the-job coaching; life-coaching; mentoring; training assignments and tasks; skills training; product training; distance learning; technical

attitudinal training and development; and accredited training and learning. All these methods are available for use and application according to individual training needs, as well as organisational training needs.

Schofield (2001) points out that many employers view training as a "third order issue" in their business strategy and do not view it as their social responsibility. Compounding this is a continuing concern that cost, rather than quality, can often drive the training choice. In terms of quality, "user choice" may mean that the employer chooses the best training organisation, but the least expensive option.

As pointed out by Cooney (2003: p. 69), "the Australian system shows little regulation of the quality of training or quality of supervision for trainees". Auditing is procedurally based rather than outcomes-based. There is very little follow-up by the Australian Apprentices Centres or State Government Field Officers after people have signed up, to see what employers and employees are doing and if training is indeed taking place. If better outcomes are to be achieved, the regulation and monitoring of quality standards must be strengthened.

"The main concern for the government is to ensure a better educated, better trained, more adaptable workforce", while individual employers are primarily concerned with "improving the capacity of existing employees to perform a reasonably well defined set of activities". Therefore, organisations are more willing to invest in training that is specific to their needs, rather than general training (Keep, 1986: p. 177).

Training and development are shaped by the training methods and approaches adopted within organisations and they shape the role of training methods in communicating different aspects of training and process.

Early studies in the 1970s (Revans, 1971; Burgoyne and Stuart, 1976) and 1980s (Burgoyne and Hodgson, 1983; Mumford, 1986) show that informal and continual methods of updating (e.g. on-the-job problem-solving) were more effective than more formal periodic methods (e.g. attending courses, seminars and conferences). Antonacopoulou (1998; 1999b) provides further insight into managerial learning

and highlights the multiplicity of factors affecting individuals' propensity to learning, as well as various organisational and personal considerations that shape what managers choose to learn, how they learn and indeed whether they are likely to learn.

More specifically, research evidence suggests that from the perspective of the individual manager, training is not always perceived as a learning opportunity, because the expectations of the individual from training are subordinated by the expectations of the organisations.

Training as a learning opportunity may provide individuals with more insight into the organisation's values and the performance standards to be met. However, as long as training fails to develop the individual as a person (by providing the confidence, self-insight and freedom to initiate new actions), it is unlikely that individuals will regard training as a learning opportunity (Antonacopoulou, 1999c).

Training is nothing without the motivation to apply it effectively. A strong capability to plan and manage skills training, the acquisition of knowledge and the development of motivation and attitude largely determines how well people perform at their jobs (Chapman, 2007).
People are trained for a range of reasons – not least of which is to hold onto a job no matter how poorly paid it may be or how bad the training is (Snell and Hart, 2007).

2.5.1 <u>On-the-Job Training</u>

It is widely cognised that the best apprenticeships and traineeships involve a combination of off-the-job and on-the-job training, whereby practical skills and underpinning knowledge about these skills are developed (Smith, 1999; Schofield, 1999a; Schofield, 1999b; Schofield 2000; Strickland, Simons, Harris, Robertson and Harford, 2001). Bowman, Stanwick and Blythe (2005) noted that "the filly on the job mode raises concerns about the quality of training and training outcomes, particularly the breadth of skills gained".

The development of underpinning knowledge is seen as a crucial aspect of developing transferable skills among workers. Studies have indicated that apprentices and trainees prefer, and in some cases expect, a mix of on- and off-the-job training, whereby they will learn a diversity of skills and will receive some level of support throughout their training (Strickland et al., 2001).

Apprentices and trainees are more likely to remain motivated and are less likely to withdraw from the training when it meets their needs. Maintaining a good balance of on-the-job and off-the-job training, however, is one of the major challenges for employers and training organisations. The use of more rigorous training programmes could significantly improve an expatriate's performance in an overseas environment – thus minimising the incidence of failure (Shen, 2006).

The imbalance between on-the-job and off-the-job training has been of concern among academics and policy analysts for some time. Schofield (2000), for example, has argued that "the rapid growth of 'fully on the job' training in the apprentices and traineeship system in recent years, and the allocation of public funds to support it, is one of the factors undermining system confidence in workplace training generally" (See also Saunders, 2001).

The on-the-job component is very much dependent on what the employer is prepared to allow an apprentice and trainee to do. It is often the case that employers are not prepared and see little reason for apprentices and trainees to learn skills beyond what is required for their particular job. This situation contributes to tension between registered training organisations (that provide apprentices and trainees with broad-based and transferable skills) and employers who are more interested in developing the skills of their specific workplace (Snell and Hart, 2007).

Halachmi (2002) offers an expanded list of reasons in support of introducing performance measurement as a promising way to improve performance:

❖ If one does not know the actual cost, one cannot tell whether or not one should do the work or outsource it.

❖ If one cannot tell the full/real cost, one cannot get the best value for money when contracting out.

- ❖ If one cannot demonstrate results, one may undermine one's own ability to communicate with important stakeholders in order to arrange necessary support.
- ❖ If one cannot document that the business process, material or people one uses are the most suitable for achieving the sought-after results, one's performance will be questioned.
- ❖ If one cannot show that in comparison to the past or to another provider that one is on par or doing even better, there may be questions about one's accountability.
- ❖ If one does not have the data about who is satisfied with one's performance and why, one may change when one should not or, even worse, stay on a course that seems to be right at face value, but is in fact incorrect.

Managers are confronted with the need to select and implement performance measures that will make their organisation more accountable, effective and responsive to clients' needs. As pointed out by Hatry (1999), performance measurement is a recurring activity. For performance measurement to be meaningful, one has to benchmark and make comparisons with it over time. Performance measurement is one of the main tools for inducing not only better productiveness, but also openness and accountability.

2.6 Development

Development is used to describe the process of economic and social transformation within countries. This process always follows a well-ordered sequence and exhibits common characteristics across countries. One can say that development has occurred when there has been an improvement in basic needs, when economic progress has contributed to a greater sense of self-esteem for the country and the individuals within it and when material advancement has expanded the range of choices for individuals (Thirlwall, 1994).

The development of human resources continues to be important to the well-being of contemporary organisations. According to the American Society for Training and Development's (ASTD) president and chief executive officer, Tony Bingham,

businesses are investing in training more than ever. Bingham contends that companies seem to realise that a well-trained workforce is the key to competitiveness (ASTD, 1996).

The more that organisation seeks excellence, the more employees' training and education become important. In contemporary organisations, information dissemination by itself leads to little or no results: it is the ability of the organisation to disseminate knowledge that leads to employees' skills and abilities being developed. What matters is converting technology into better organisational performance through people. What is true about the 21st century is that the development of human resources is no longer an option, but a must (Al-Khayyat, 1998). Since the 1960s, many industries have sought the establishment of a joint institute that is mainly responsible for the development of its human resources.

Development is not restricted to training. It is anything that helps a person grow in ability, skills, confidence, tolerance, commitment, initiative, interpersonal skills, understanding, self-control and motivation.

The main challenge that institutes are confronted with is the question of how to determine the development needs of its member organisations – a task that is highly critical for successful operations. Impeding these efforts however, is the lack of access of these institutes to member organisations.

Organisations, regardless of the industry, are after all indirectly responsible for the development of human resource infrastructure in the country to which they belong. However, no development programme achieves success without considering the actual training and development needs and requirements of the human resources.

Organisations cannot do without some kind of training and development activities. The literature has long established that the extent to which the training decision is rationally justified is dependent on the extent to which a rigorous training and development needs assessment has been adequately performed, in order to explain the actual why and how to carry out training activities and whether training is, in fact, the necessary solution (Anderson, 1993; Camp, Blanchard and Huszczo,

1986; Goldstein, 1986; Nadler, 1982; Patrick, 1992; Roscoe, 1995).

Self-development, as an approach to management development, is the idea that individuals are responsible for their own development. However, there are inherent tensions within self-development, particularly when organisational and individual priorities are reconciled. Research findings show that the rhetoric of self-development within organisations has not yet addressed the asymmetries of power relationships within the workplace, nor has it created the necessary freedom for individuals to develop themselves in practice (Antonacopoulou, 2000).

Development focuses on strengthening employees' abilities that are needed for a career and on reinforcing the motivation for these abilities.

2.7 **Productiveness**

Productiveness is referred to as a yardstick for efficiency, whereby the output/input performance of an economy, a sector, an undertaking, a business or a component of a business is measured against the performance in a previous period or against the performance of other business undertaken or against set standards (Van Niekerk, 2005).

The economic efficiency of an undertaking, however, is determined to a large extent by the production unit's technical performance with regards to productiveness. The objective of productiveness improvement may be defined as the optimum combination and maximum utilisation of all the productive resources engaged in the undertaking, so that only the economically unavoidable costs are retained in the undertaking, in order to maximise the profitability of the undertaking in the long term. When the concept of productiveness is used in this context, it is regarded as one of the most fundamental concepts in business economy.

Van Niekerk (2005) suggests that productiveness is reflected in the relationship between the output of goods manufactured and/or services rendered and the input of production factors consumed in supplying the goods and/or rendering the services.

Local markets based on small companies experience rapid productiveness growth, because local competition encourages firms to train, develop and innovate or rapidly adopt new technologies, as well as encourages a greater division of labour and profitable competition-collaboration relationships (Porter, 1990; Pyke, Becattini and Sengenberger, 1990; Signorini, 2000).

Total productiveness is therefore measured by considering the ratio (co-efficient) between the output (production, yield) of goods and/or services and the input of production resources in an economy, branch of industry, undertaking, production unit or component of a production unit.

Successful business leaders realise that talent is the most important competitive advantage in our knowledge economy and a skilled workforce is key to growth and achieving results. Today, the emphasis on improved performance and growth means that the development of employee and strategy takes centre stage.

One of the first tasks that the American President Obama has undertaken as part of his economic recovery plan is to find solutions to help avoid a longer and worse recession. President Obama appointed the United States' first Chief Performance Officer, Nancy Killefer, to demonstrate that the public sector, like organisations in private industry, is increasing its focus on performance improvement. In the current knowledge economy, the most successful companies align people, processes and systems in order to manage and measure their performance effectively.

The difference between mediocre companies and high-performing companies relates to how well their people strategy connects to their business strategy. The idea of a knowledge economy has given learning a vital new role in the leadership of organisations. The ability to anticipate talent requirements and to meet them in a timely fashion is likely to be the key performance advantage for decades to come.

Baines (1997) writes that a reason for failed productiveness improvement programmes is that they tend to concentrate on reducing inputs rather than on increasing outputs. Ong (1997) concludes that two major areas are of importance in working to improve a company's productiveness and quality – shortest

improvement time and the company's budget.

2.8 <u>Training, Development and Productiveness</u>

Training aims to improve current work skills and behaviour, whereas development aims to increase abilities in relation to some future position or job, usually a managerial one (Dowling and Welch, 2004). International training is related to training for international assignments. The name productiveness implies that it reflects a company's production ability and the measures of productiveness are a subset of the performance measurements (Grunberg, 2004).

Training and development are strongly correlated and very difficult processes to separate in terms of their causal relationships with productiveness. There is a clear link between these factors and the idea that quality is seen as a significant contributing factor in the decisions of a number of apprentices and trainees to leave before completion of their training.

Training is perceived to be narrower and focused on specific needs, while development is perceived to entail both education and training and to encapsulate the notion of continual improvement (Sisson and Storey, 1988).

The strong interconnections between education, training, development and performance beg a re-conceptualisation of their association – from a set of disjointed processes to a multifaceted whole, with each process acting both as a part and a whole at the same time (Antonacopoulou, 2000).

Education, training, learning and development are multiple components within the same hierarchy of systems aimed at individuals' growth and organisations' productiveness. According to hierarchy theory, a "system is hierarchical when it operates on more spatiotemporal scales" (Giampietro, 1994: p. 617; also see Pattee, 1973; Salthe, 1985). In other words, there are multiple levels of interpretation (industrial, organisational, individual), where the same components acquire a different role or identity for the system/level under analysis. Each component in a hierarchy is a "holon" (Koesttler, 1969). Holons have a double

nature. They are at the same time a whole consisting of smaller parts, as well as some parts of a greater whole. Therefore, these factors are interdependent on each other.

If effort is concentrated on contributing towards individual growth and increased organisational productiveness, but education, training and development are treated as separate, one will be overlooking their interconnections and the fact that each of these processes has elements of others – an idea that some commentators have acknowledged (Buckley and Caple, 1990).

It appears that the manner in which education, training and development takes place influences their purpose, the way they are defined and the role they play in relation to increasing productiveness.

The assumption that learning is linked to economic performance and competitiveness at the levels of both the national economy and industrial organisations has been central to the recent changes in education and training policies in the UK and elsewhere (Ball, 1991 and Ranson, 1992).

The vision of the UK as a learning society is based on the premise that by improving the mechanisms that supply skills and learning (primarily within organisations), this will help change the attitudes of individuals towards education, training and development (Antonacopoulou, 2000).

Efforts by successive governments to change attitudes towards education and training in order to improve competitiveness are evident from a series of initiatives aimed at enhancing the provision of vocational education and training.

The investment of organisations in education, training and development must be aligned with individual learning processes, so that the outcomes of such efforts can support both organisational and societal performance in learning. Training and development programmes are essential in the attempt to increase productiveness. Performance and productiveness can therefore be viewed as a company's ability to provide customer value (Grunberg, 2004).

2.9 <u>Conclusion</u>

It seems that the amount of training and development in an organisation is an important forerunner for those that wish to improve their productiveness.

Through a clear sense of direction, individual training and development plans can support organisational objectives. Such plans are sometimes unachievable because they are inappropriate, too expensive or there is lack of time. The importance of training and development in light of the shortages experienced in South Africa is emphasised by the trend evident in industrialised countries, where there is a large pool of skilled employees at the operating management levels. Van Aardt (1994: p. 70) maintains that "if South Africa is to become more globally competitive it should in the long-term assume the skills pattern already established in the USA".

It appears that those organisations that wish to improve their productiveness and/or profitability are more likely to train their staff. Findings suggest that investment in training is seen by owners and managers of organisations as beneficial for the well-being of the organisation and for the future support of the productiveness level of the firm.

Although the T&D role has changed, this change has not been as radical as some authors have claimed. This suggests an apparent gap between how the T&D role is described in some literature and the way it is described with regards to productiveness improvement. Some of the findings show a considerable gap between theories and organisational training practices. Companies pay little attention to international T&D; therefore, international T&D have a considerable adverse impact on organisations. Those organisations that desire to increase their production in the following years are more likely to be involved in training, while those that have decided to reduce their production levels will tend to reduce their levels of training.

The next chapter will consist of the methodology followed by the researcher in conducting the research, including the procedures applied in collecting and

analysing the data, sample design and sampling methods, together with the measuring instruments used.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter covered the literature that assisted the researcher in conducting this study.

This chapter will cover the researcher's methodology and the design used, with respect to the effectiveness of training and development in enhancing employees' productiveness at the Tshwane University of Technology.

Data collection methods and fieldwork practice, as well as data capturing, data editing and data analysis, will also be discussed in this chapter.

3.2 Research Design

The design selected by the researcher is non-empirical and descriptive in nature. Such an approach is qualitative in determining the effect and extent of training and development on employees' productiveness at the Tshwane University of Technology. A representative sample of the entire population was selected as a pilot case study.

The researcher used the literature review as a data collection method. The literature covered the importance and relevance of training and development activities that contribute towards superior productiveness within an organisation. It also covered various arguments from various researchers and voiced their opinions, arguments and theories with regards to the stated topic.

From the arguments and theories identified, formal evaluation processes of employees at TUT were conducted, by making use of questionnaires in order to draw information from the feedback of respondents, with regards to the role of training and development in enhancing productiveness at TUT. All the findings drawn from the questionnaires were evaluated and validated by a follow-up of

interviews and focus groups.

3.3 Sample Design and Sampling Methods

The researcher employed a non-probability sampling method, because such methods are commonly used for qualitative research approaches (Minichiello et al., 1990). Sampling was necessary in order to obtain a sufficiently sized group – in this way, a meaningful analysis could be drawn from a particular sub-group of specific interest. The researcher therefore chose the simplest method which was a theoretically rigorous sampling method – random sampling, whereby a random sample of people was extracted from the predefined population. The sample reflected the characteristics of the population from which it was drawn (Partington, 2002).

With random sampling, members of the population have an equal chance of being included in the sample. An alternative sample strategy is called stratified sampling. Prior knowledge of the make-up of the population from which a random sample was drawn made the researcher aware that there might have been population characteristics or strata (e.g. ethnic groups or age and gender distribution etc.) that made random sampling from within specific sub-groups necessary, if the sample was to be representative and efficiently chosen (Gill and Johnson, 2002). Participants were recruited by word of mouth at TUT.

3.4 Measurements

The researcher used measuring instruments such as interviewing schedules, questionnaires and focus groups. Certain measuring instruments were also used to ensure validity and reliability.

3.5 Data Collection Methods
3.5.1 Interviews

The purpose of using this method was to obtain and assess information from employees that would enable the researcher to evaluate the impact of training and

development activities on employees' future performance in the job, in comparison to the employees' performance prior to the actual provision of training and development activities. Some of the information was obtained through the use of a questionnaire, but the aim of the interview was to validate and also supplement the data with more detailed explanations or specific information about personal experiences. Personal characteristics were also obtained by the researcher in an individual face-to-face meeting with the employees.

Meetings provided the researcher with an opportunity to analyse and edit data and also to evaluate the effectiveness of training and development activities. The main purpose of the interview was that of equal sharing of information. The confidentiality of information being sought and collected was emphasised and maintained.

3.5.2 <u>Surveys</u>

Through the use of surveys, the researcher gauged the perceptions, opinions, attitudes, beliefs and intentions of the organisation's employees. Through this approach, the researcher gathered reliable information relatively quickly, covering data from a large number of employees. For example, a survey was used to determine training needs and to evaluate the reactions of trainees about the particular type of training they have undergone. One frequently used type of survey is an employee assistance programme, referred to by some as an audit (Van Wyk and Schenk, 2000).

An employee assistance programme can be defined as a systematic, objective investigation into perceptions, feelings, behaviours, attitudes and opinions of employees at an organisation. The rationale underlying such a survey is that one needs to have knowledge about how satisfied employees are at TUT, in relation to their needs, desires, attitudes, opinions and fears. In larger organisations, it would not be possible to know how staff members feel by simply applying the "management by walking about" strategy. Alternatively, companies need to apply the "management by objectives" strategy in order to obtain employees' understanding and opinions.

3.5.3 <u>Questionnaire</u>

The questionnaire was used as part of an evaluation process of training and development's relevance in enhancing productiveness at an organisation. As pointed out by Truelove (1995), when a questionnaire is selected as a technique for data collection, particularly when there is a geographic spread of staff, detailed planning is required.

Questions took the form of multiple choice, scale or open-ended questions. A self designed questionnaire for data collection was tested in a pilot survey in order to ascertain whether the respondents understood the questions correctly, were able and prepared to answer them and whether the information collected was, in fact, the information that was required.

3.5.4 <u>Workshop</u>

The researcher organised a workshop at the institution for the invited participants in the survey. The workshop was conducted to inform participants about the research study and their essential role in the study, participants were informed about the importance of their honesty in the feedback given, it was further explained that the success of the research study depends on them. The researcher analysed and captured all responses from the group of participants.

3.5.5 <u>Observation</u>

The researcher was an active observer in the actual training and development activities offered to employees and also observed employees performing their duties after the training process. Observation is an approach that can be used to collect information about the workplace, the employees' work and working processes (Truelove, 1995).

The researcher's data collected was supported by the intensive literature review.

3.6 <u>Data Capturing and Data Editing</u>

The researcher captured the data using Microsoft Excel, following strict specifications and ensuring accuracy. Furthermore, the documents were barcoded and scanned into an email, using a Xerox scanner and photocopy machine, in order to store the records. The aim was to maintain a high level of accuracy and reliability of the data captured. Through barcoding, documents were meticulously documented and recorded.

The questionnaire data was firstly edited by the employees' supervisor, immediately after the employees had provided the information. The supervisor proofread all the documents and verified the information with all employees. In the next phase, the researcher read the documents and verified the information with the employees' supervisor – this was done in order to improve the accuracy of the results and to avoid inaccurate interpretation and analysis of information from the data gathered.

3.7 <u>Definitions and Key Variables</u>
3.7.1 <u>Research Question</u>

The approach to the study included research questions, such as "What training methods and programmes are effective for enhancing productiveness?" and "Which strategies can be developed to increase performance?".

The research questions can be attributed to factors such as:
❖ Failure to make correct decisions as to whether the programmes are in-house or externally provided;
❖ Poor training and development policy.

3.8 <u>Data Analysis</u>

The researcher acknowledged that interviews can provide a large amount of information and require a proper summary by forming short questions that are clear and easy to understand. Editing of all the data was a crucial approach for

analysis in order to identify any problems in the questionnaire and to remove any data that contained misinterpretations and faults or ambiguity.

The data analysis phase began while the interviews were in process. The main purpose was to ensure that questions were accurate, specific and easily understood by the respondents, so as to provide a clear and correct response. After the completion of interviews, a more detailed approach of data analysis was followed in terms of what respondents had raised in the interview phase.

The researcher preferred to focus on individuals during the interview process, in order to allocate enough time to respondents and also to obtain enough and relevant information and opinions as per the interview questions rather than focusing on a group of individuals.

3.9 <u>Conclusion</u>

Clearly, as globalisation increases, it is redefining how, why, when and where training and development should take place. Globalisation sees everything in an organisation as part of a process that can be improved. The main goal of an organisation is to manage its performance and productiveness effectively. A performance management process is created by integrating systems in the human resource areas, such as selection development and succession planning (Robinson and Robinson, 1995a, 1995b).

Training activities require training needs assessment, which effectively narrows the gap between what is taught in the training sessions and what is required to improve job performance. The analysis sought to demonstrate the interplay between training, development and productiveness at the organisation.

The next chapter will cover the presentation of the results. All graphical presentation and calculations will also be shown in the chapter.

CHAPTER 4
# PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter covered the methodology and the design followed for this research study.

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the data received from participants through questionnaire responses. Graphical presentation will be shown, based on each question and responses from participants and, thereafter, brief comments will be made based on the graphical representation. A total of 190 questionnaires were distributed to employees and a total of 160 (84,2%) were completed and returned to the researcher. Questionnaires that were incomplete were returned to participants for correction.

Supervisors and employees are included in the total group of all employees surveyed. The majority of respondents were employees in junior and middle management positions at the Tshwane University of Technology.

4.2 Demographics

A total of 190 questionnaires were supplied and 160 were collected from various participants: 65,6% of responses were from junior employees, 20,6% from middle-level employees and 13,7% from senior employees. The graph below indicates how the questionnaires were distributed among the different personnel that took part in the study.
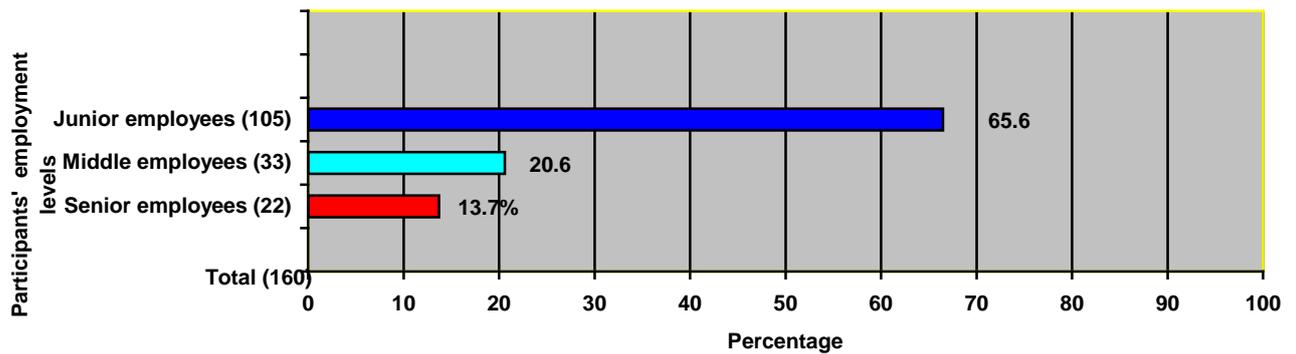
Graph 4.1: Demographics

The three sub-groups made a holistic group of TUT employees from which the survey was made: namely, junior-level employees, middle-level employees and senior-level employees. Most respondents were junior employees (65,6%), followed by middle-level employees (20,6%) and, lastly, senior-level employees constitute 13,7% of respondents. Refer to the graph above.

4.3 <u>Graphical Interpretation and Analysis of Data</u>

A graphical representation of all data collected from all questionnaires was made, graphs and brief analyses of graphical data analyses are given below.

4.3.1 <u>Employees' Lack of Training</u>

Respondents were requested to provide their views with respect to the impact on productiveness caused by lack of employee training.
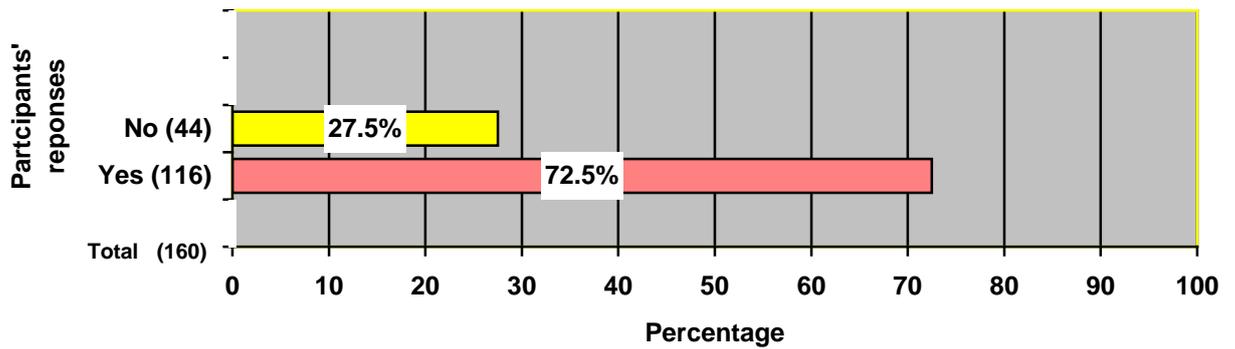
Graph 4.2: Employees' lack of training

From the graph above, the following is clear: 72,5% of respondents agreed that lack of training is the greatest contributor to poor performance of employees at TUT, while 27,5% of respondents disagreed.

4.3.2 Lack of Clear and Proper Job Description

Respondents were requested to express an opinion about the negative effect on productiveness due to factors such as lacking a clear and proper job description.
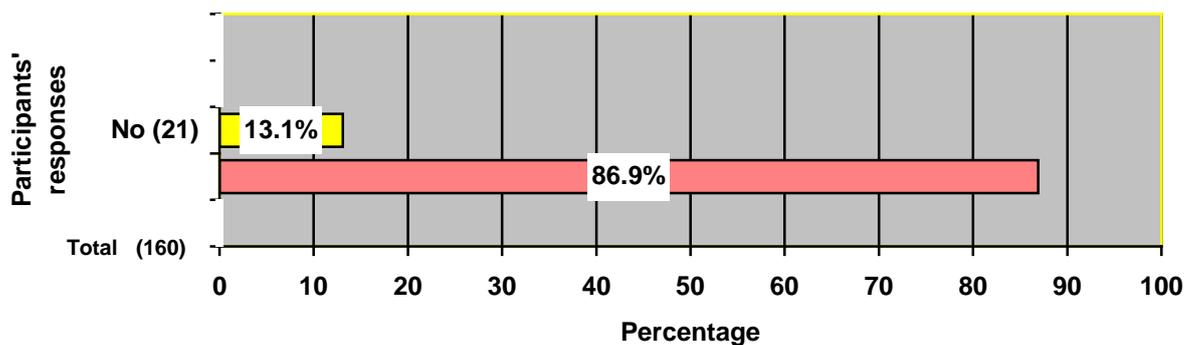

Graph 4.3: Lack of clear and proper job description

A total of 86,9% of TUT employees agreed that a lack of clear and proper job descriptions affects their performance, while 13,1% of employees disagreed. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.3 <u>Employees' Inability to Do the Job</u>

Opinions were requested on whether the inability to perform the job has a negative impact on productiveness.
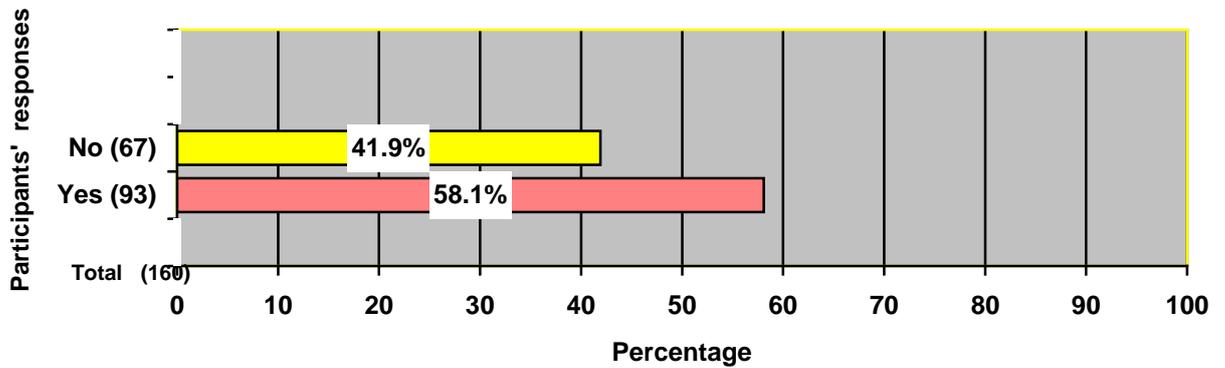
Graph 4.4: Employees' inability to do the job

From the graph above, participants' views are represented as follows: 58,1% of TUT employees agreed that their inability to perform their jobs contributes to their poor productiveness, whereas 41,9% of respondents disagreed.

4.3.4 <u>Poor Job Design</u>

Opinions on whether poor job design contributes to lower productiveness were requested from respondents.
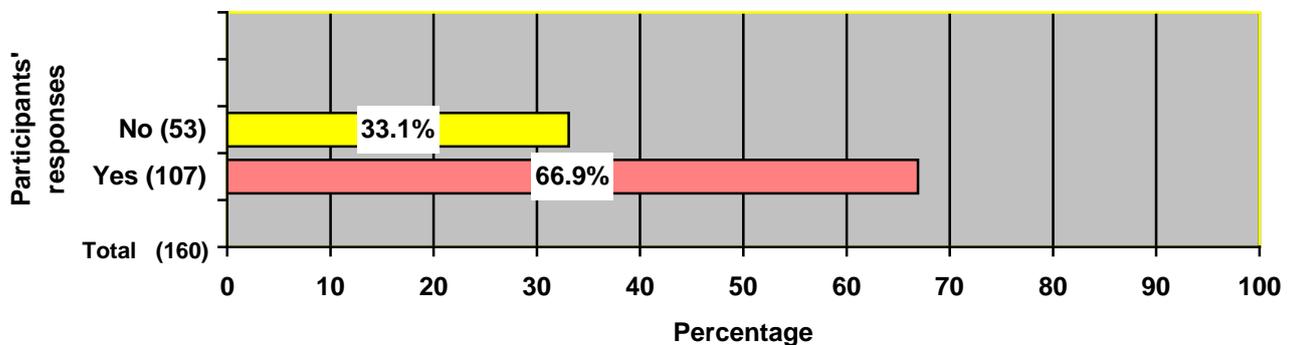
Graph 4.5: Poorly designed jobs

A large proportion (66,9%) of respondents agreed that poor job design led to lower levels of productiveness, while 33,1% disagreed. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.5 The Culture of the Organisation

Respondents were requested to provide their views with regards to the impact of organisational culture on productiveness.
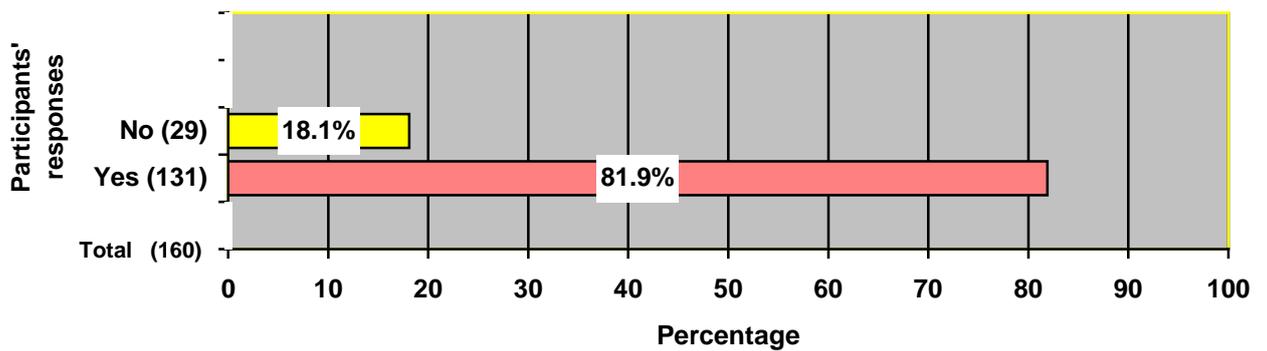

Graph 4.6: The organisational culture

The graph presents the respondents' views as follows: 81,9% of TUT respondents agreed that the culture of the organisation is a vital contributory factor towards poor productiveness levels in the organisation, while 18,1% of respondents disagreed.

4.3.6 Employees' Work Environment is Inconducive

Respondents were requested to indicate their views with regards to the effect of an inconducive organisational environment.
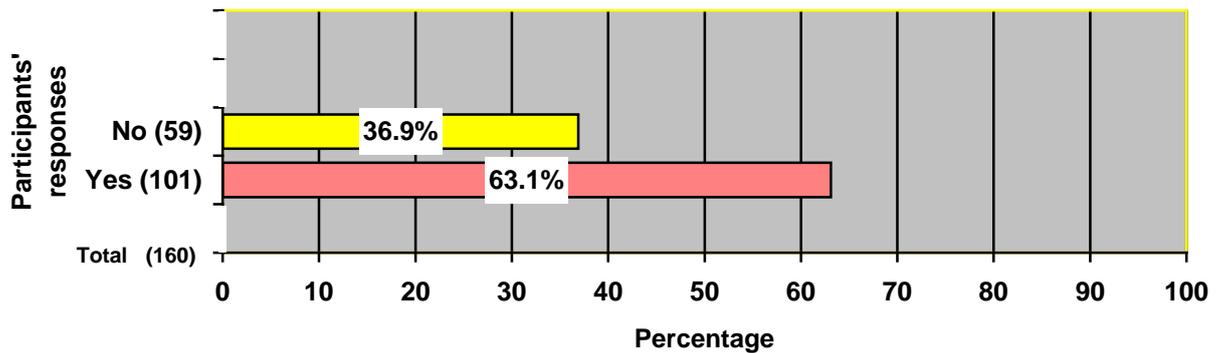
Graph 4.7: Inconducive work environment

The percentages are: 63,1% of respondents agreed and 36,9% disagreed. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.7 <u>Lower Level of Communication</u>

Respondents were asked if they consider a lower level of communication within an organisation as having a negative impact on their productiveness.
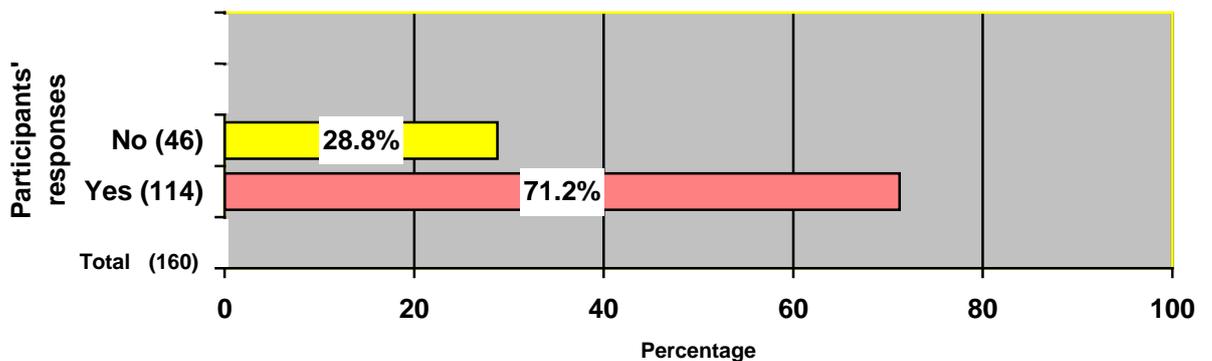

Graph 4.8: Poor communication level

71,2% of the respondents concurred with the view that a poor communication level at the organisation negatively affects productiveness, whereas 28,8% of respondents disagreed. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.8 <u>Unattractive Company Products and Services</u>

This question is aimed at determining the impact that unattractive products and services have on productiveness.
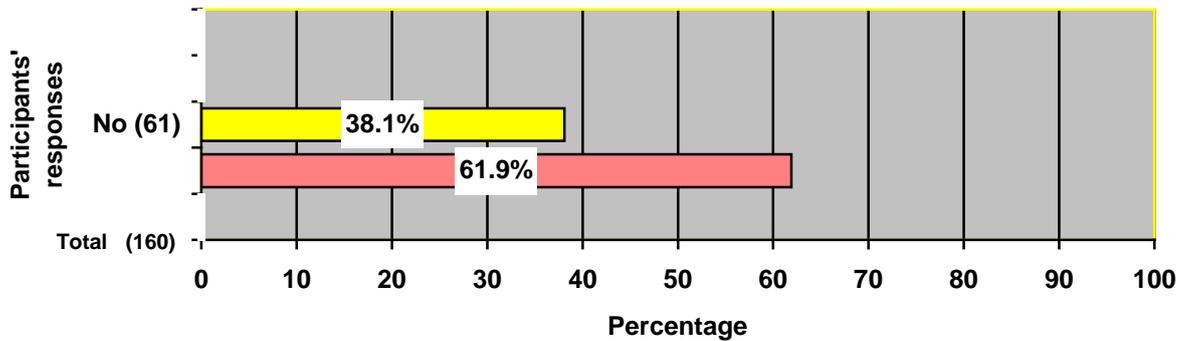

Graph 4.9: Unattractive company products and services

TUT employees' views were that 61,9% agreed that unattractive company products or services have a negative effect on performance and 38,1% of respondents disagreed with this statement. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.9 <u>Unchallenging Work</u>

Respondents were asked for opinions about the effect that unchallenging work has on organisational productiveness.
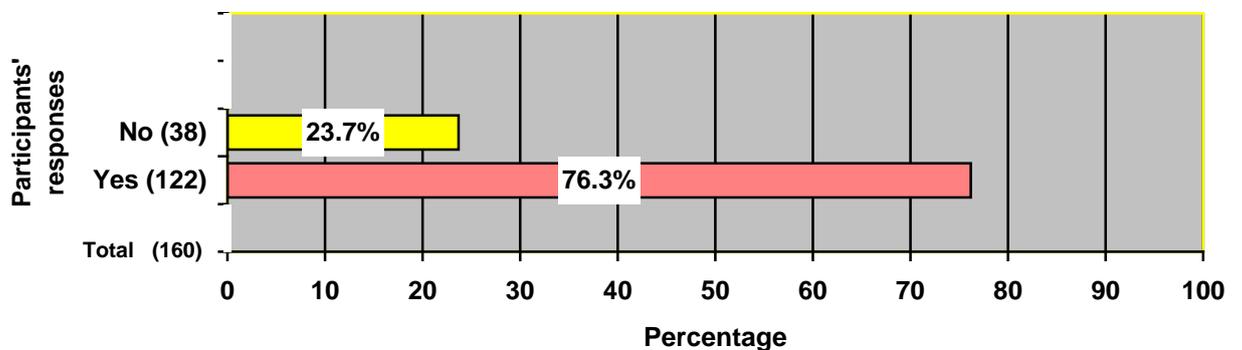

Graph 4.10: Unchallenging work

76,3% of respondents replied that unchallenging work contributes towards their poor job productiveness, whereas 23,7% of respondents felt that unchallenging work has no effect on job productiveness. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.10 Insecure Employment

Respondents were requested to provide their opinions about the impact of job security on productiveness.
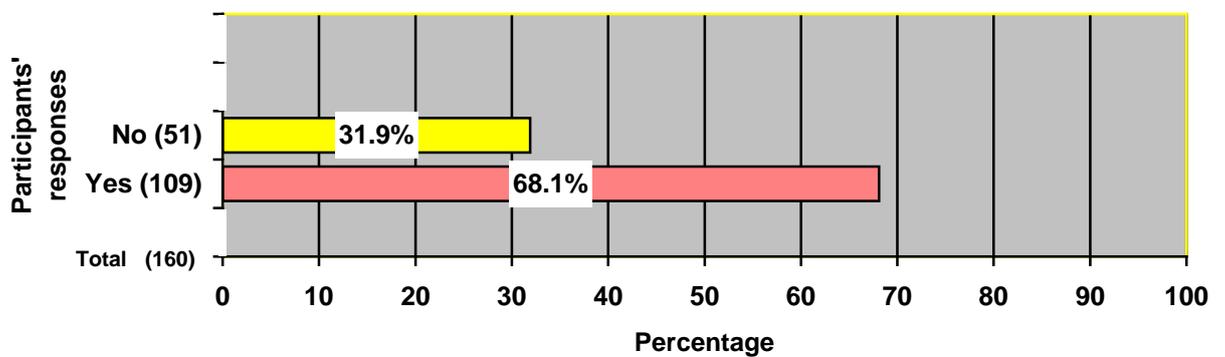
Graph 4.11: Employment insecurity

About 68,1% of the respondents agreed that an element of insecurity will negatively affect their job productiveness, while only 31,9% of respondents disagreed with the fact that job insecurity contributes negatively towards productiveness. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.11 Non-Professional Training and Development Exercises

The following question was aimed at determining the impact of non-professional training and development programmes on organisational productiveness.
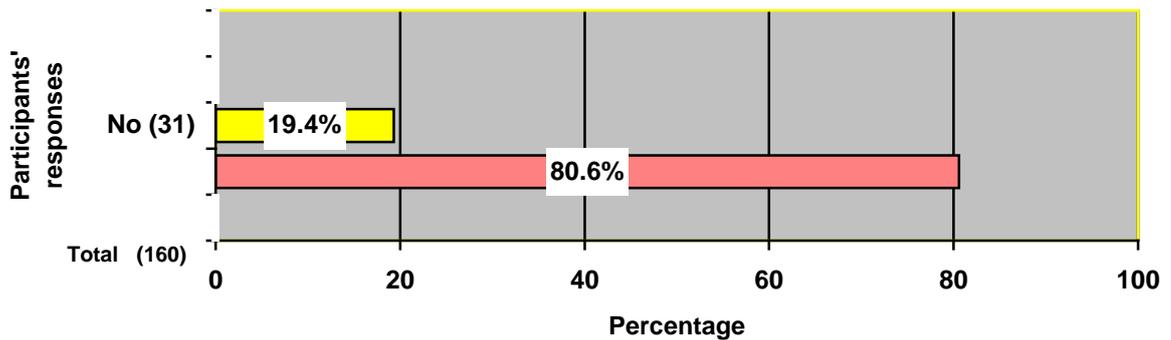
Graph 4.12: Non-professional training and development exercises

80,6% of respondents at TUT agreed that non-professional training and development exercises provided to them contributed to poor job performance, while 19,4% of respondents disagreed with this idea. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.12 Poor Employer Reputation and Image

This question determines whether employers' reputation and image have a positive or negative effect on organisational productiveness.
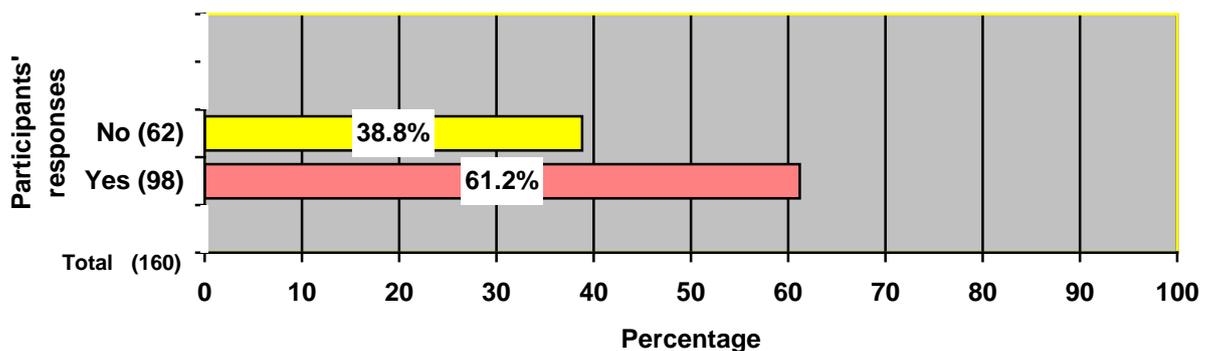

Graph 4.13: Poor image and reputation of the employer

The TUT employees' views with regards to the above factor were that 61,2% of the respondents agreed with the statement that poor reputation and image of the company may negatively affect the job productiveness of employees, while 38,8% of respondents felt differently. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.13 Lower Salary Levels and Advancement Opportunities

This question aimed to determine whether lower salary levels and advancement opportunities have a negative impact on productiveness.
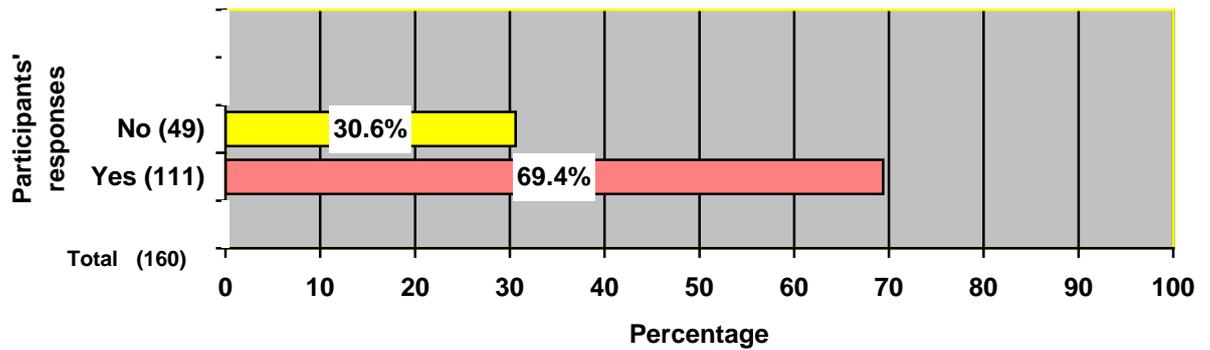

Graph 4.14: Lower salary levels and advancement opportunities

A total of 69,4% respondents felt that lower salary levels and development opportunities for employees at the organisation affect the productiveness of employees and 30,6% of respondents disagreed with this idea. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.14 Employees' Lack of Desire and Motivation to Do the Job

The following question was presented to obtain respondents' views with regards to the effect that lack of desire and lack of motivation to do the job have on organisational productiveness.
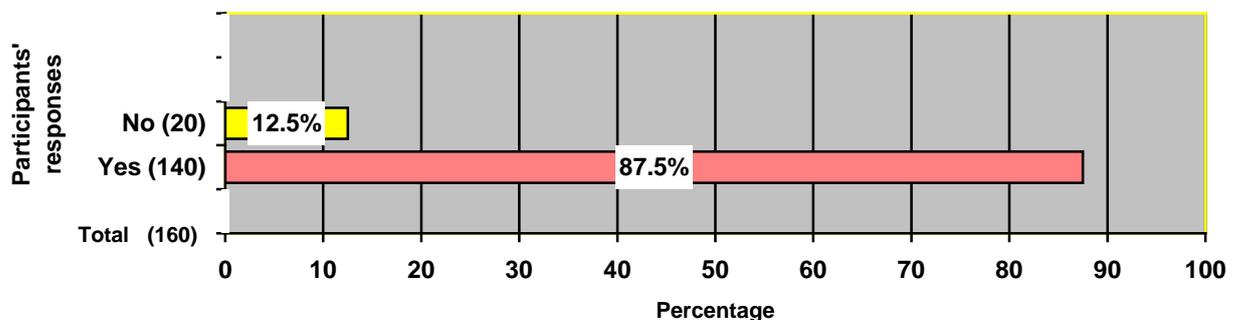

Graph 4.15: Lack of desire and motivation from employees to do the job

87,5% of respondents supported the statement that lack of desire and motivation contributes to poor job productiveness and 12,5% of respondents disagreed with this statement. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.15 Poor Task Competence

This question ascertains whether poor task competence has a positive or negative effect on organisational productiveness.
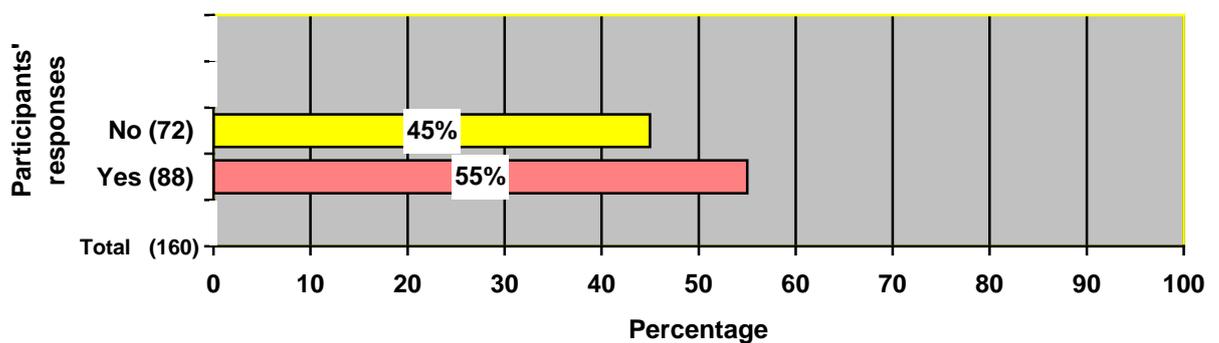
Graph 4.16: Poor task competence

TUT employees' views with regards to the above question were that 55% of respondents felt that a lower level of task competence affects job productiveness and 45% of respondents felt that this does not contribute to poor job productiveness. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.16 Unclear Objectives

The respondents were asked for their views regarding the impact of unclear objectives on organisational productiveness.
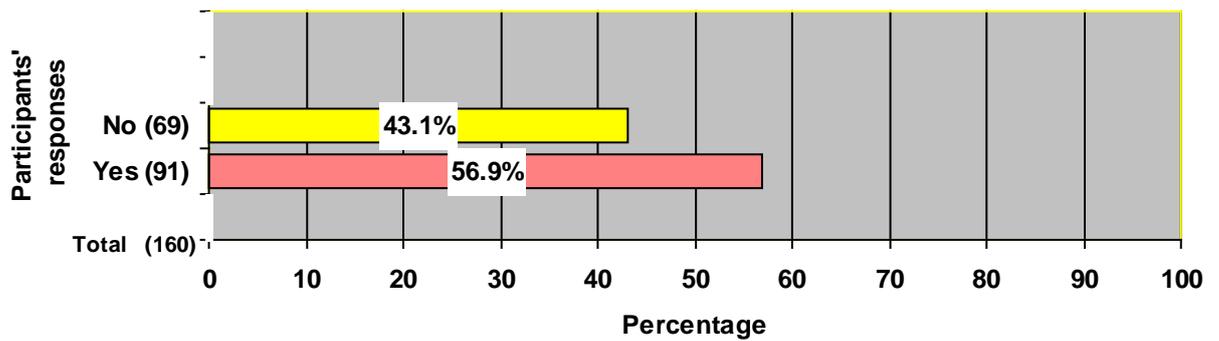
Graph 4.17: Unclear objectives

TUT employees' views with regards to the above question were that 56,9% of respondents felt that it was true that unclear objectives ultimately affect job productiveness and 43,1% of respondents did not agree. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.17 <u>Unrealistic Job Expectations</u>

Respondents were requested to provide their views concerning the impact of unrealistic job expectations on organisational productiveness.
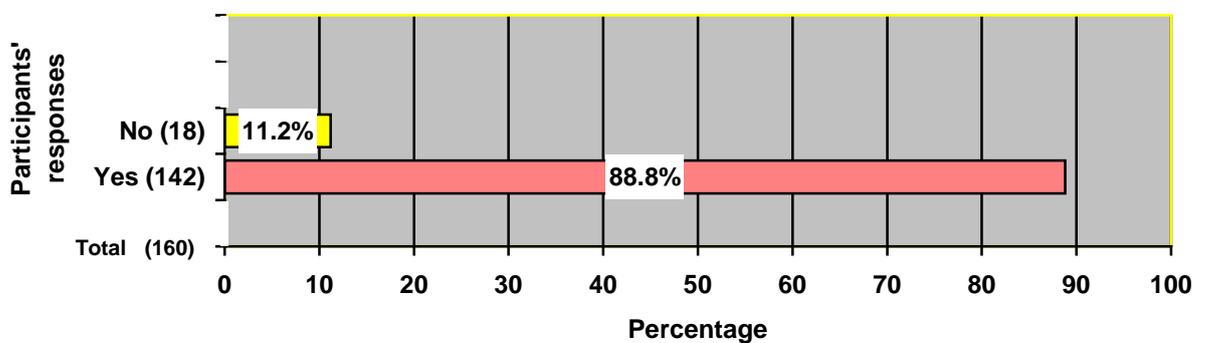
Graph 4.18: Unrealistic job expectations

TUT employees' views with regards to this statement were summarised as such: 88,8% of respondents agreed that unrealistic job expectations negatively affect productiveness and 11,2% of respondents felt that unrealistic job expectations do not affect productiveness. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.18 <u>Introduction of New Technology</u>

The respondents were requested to express an opinion about the introduction of new technology to the organisation.
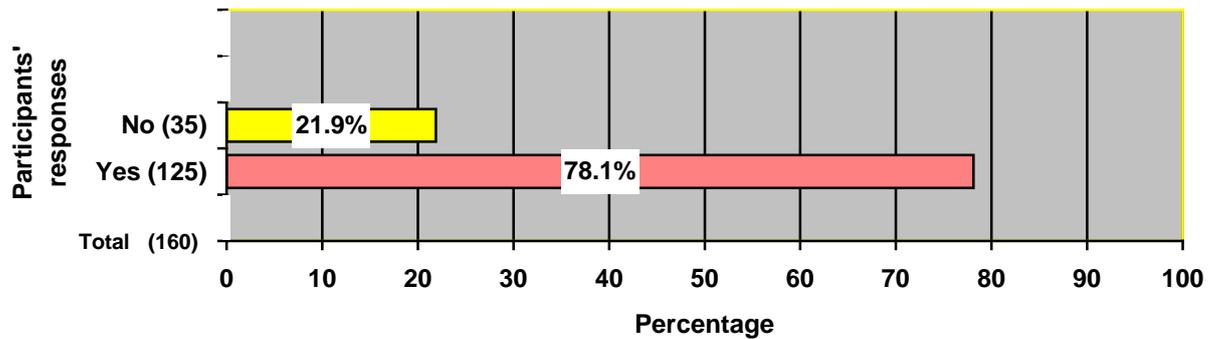
Graph 4.19: Introduction of new technology

TUT employees' views with regards to the above statement were summarised as follows: 78,1% of respondents agreed that the introduction of new technology will ultimately have a negative effect on job productiveness, whereas 21,9% of respondents disagreed. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.19 <u>Technological Incompetence</u>

Respondents were asked to submit their views about the effect of technological incompetence on organisational productiveness.
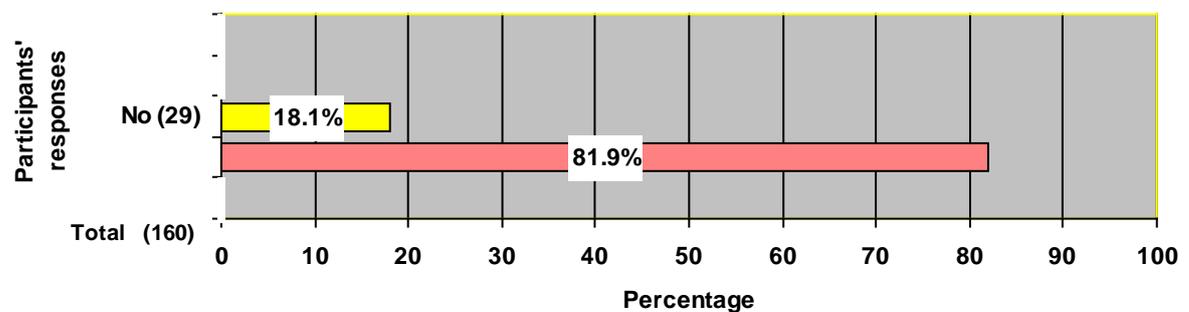
Graph 4.20: Technological incompetence

The views were that 81,9% of respondents believe that technological incompetence will negatively affect job productiveness, whereas 18,1% of respondents provided opinions to the contrary. Refer to the graph above.

4.3.20 **Quality of Training and Learning Opportunities Provided by the Organisation**

This question is aimed at determining the quality of programmes offered to respondents.
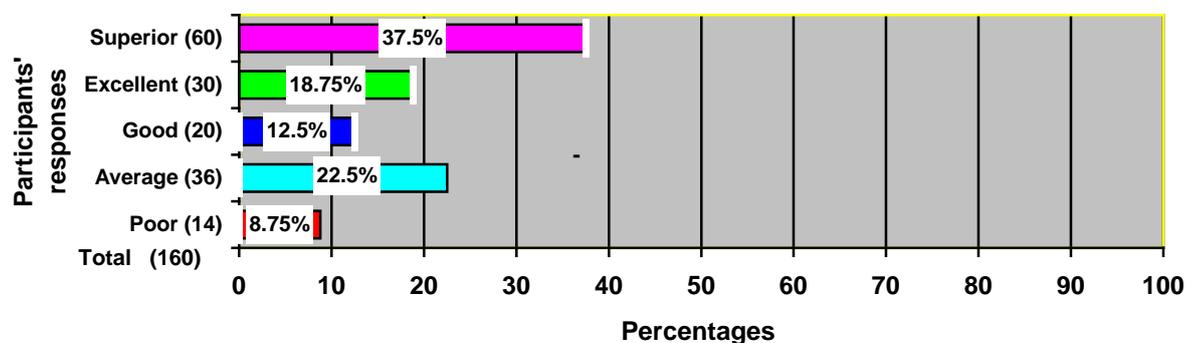
Graph 4.21: Quality of training and learning opportunities

- ❖ Most respondents rated the quality of training and development as superior (37,5%).
- ❖ Only 8,75% of respondents rated the quality of training and development as poor.
- ❖ A total of 18,75% respondents rated the quality of training and development excellently.
- ❖ 12,5% of respondents rated the quality of training and development as good.
- ❖ A total of 22,5% of respondents felt that the quality of training and development was average.

4.3.21 **Managers' Support and Encouragement**

Respondents were requested to express their satisfaction with their current managers, concerning the support and encouragement given.
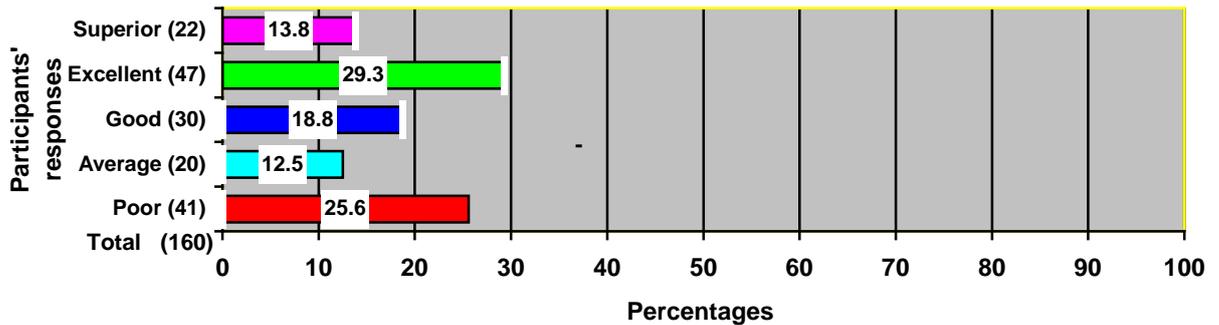
Graph 4.22: Managers' support and encouragement

- ❖ A total of 13,8% respondents rated the support and encouragement from their managers as superior.
- ❖ 25,6% of respondents rated their managers' support and encouragement as satisfactory.
- ❖ Most respondents rated the support and encouragement given by managers as excellent (29,3%).
- ❖ 18,8% of respondents rated the support and encouragement from their managers as good.
- ❖ Only 12,5% of respondents rated the support and encouragement received from managers as average.

4.3.22 **Overall Satisfaction with the Tshwane University of Technology**

This question establishes whether respondents are satisfied with their current organisation or not.
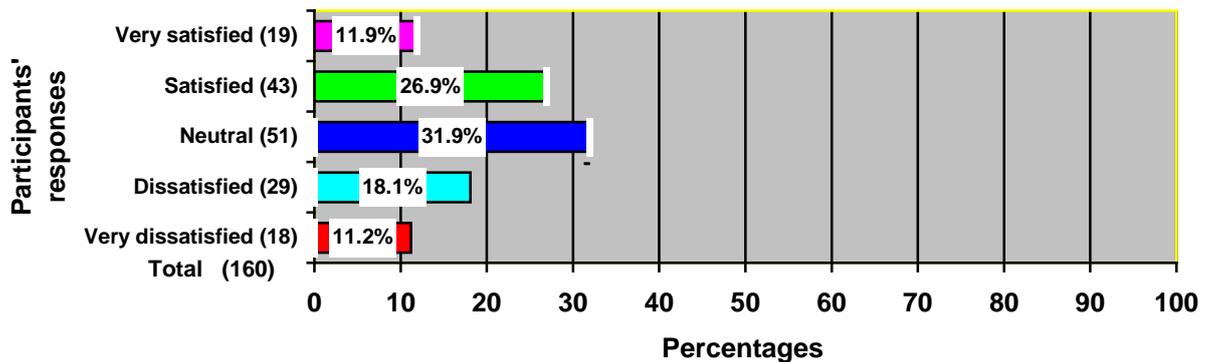
Graph 4.23: How satisfied are you with TUT?

The respondents' views with regards to the above factor were:

❖ A total of 11,9% respondents rated their satisfaction level with TUT as very satisfactory.

❖ About 26,9% respondents indicated their satisfaction with TUT.

❖ Most respondents rated their satisfaction level with TUT as neutral (31,9%).

❖ 18,1% of respondents rated their satisfaction level with TUT as dissatisfied.

❖ Only 11,2% of respondents rated their satisfaction level with TUT as very dissatisfied.

4.4 Other Reasons why Employees Perform Poorly at Their Jobs

A space was provided in the questionnaire for respondents to state their own reasons that they think will have contributed to poor productiveness.

These are the some of the reasons mentioned by respondents:

❖ Poor change management process;

❖ Organisational affirmative action policies;

❖ Poor management of talent;

❖ Employees prefer old technology;

❖ Resistance to change;

❖ Inadequate quality management;

❖ Lower discipline levels;

❖ Incompetence;

- ❖ Unrealistic expectations;
- ❖ Lack of managerial support;
- ❖ Poor organisational planning;
- ❖ Poor communication;
- ❖ Inadequate risk management;
- ❖ Resistance to change;
- ❖ Organisational politics.

4.5 Tables Representing the Summary of the Results

Graphs	Percentage %	
	No	Yes
Graph 4.18 Unrealistic job expectations	11,2	88,8
Graph 4.15 Lack of desire and motivation from employees to do the job	12,5	87,5
Graph 4.3 Lack of clear and proper job description	13,1	86,9
Graph 4.20 Technological incompetence	18,1	81,9
Graph 4.6 The organisational culture	18,1	81,9
Graph 4.12 Non-professional training and development exercises	19,4	80,6
Graph 4.19 Introduction of new technology	21,9	78,1
Graph 4.10 Unchallenging work	23,7	76,3
Graph 4.2 Employees' lack of training	27,5	72,5
Graph 4.8 Poor communication level	28,8	71,2
Graph 4.14 Lower salary levels and advancement opportunities	30,6	69,4
Graph 4.11 Employment insecurity	31,9	68,1
Graph 4.5 Poorly designed jobs	33,1	66,9
Graph 4.7 Inconducive work environment	36,9	63,1
Graph 4.9 Unattractive company products and services	38,1	61,9
Graph 4.13 Poor image and reputation of the employer	38,8	61,2
Graph 4.4 Employees' inability to do the job	41,9	58,1
Graph 4.17 Unclear objectives	43,1	56,9
Graph 4.16 Poor task competence	45,0	55,0

Percentages of the yes and No answers

Graph	Percentage %					
	Superior	**Excellent**	**Good**	**Average**	**Poor**	**Total**
Graph 4.21 Quality of training and development	37,50	18,75	12,50	22,50	8,75	100
Graph 4.22 Managers' support and encouragement	13,80	29,30	18,80	12,50	25,60	100

Graph	Percentage %					
	Very satisfied	**Satisfied**	**Neutral**	**Dissatisfied**	**Very dissatisfied**	**Total**
Graph 4.23 How satisfied are you with TUT?	11,90	26,90	31,90	18,10	11,20	100

4.6 Findings

The findings of this study can be summarised as follows:

❖ Respondents indicated that their organisation is taking longer periods to initiate the provision of training and development programmes for employees and, in certain instances, there is no training and development at all (Graph 4.2). Thus, in such instances, employees tend to take it upon themselves as to how to equip themselves with the necessary knowledge and skills for specific areas of their scope of operation. The literature review in Chapter 2 identified training and development as a key means by which the inefficiencies of the employment relationship can be reduced and a closer approximation to competitive labour market outcomes can be attained (Garavan, 1997).

The ASTD president and chief executive officer indicated that, more than ever, businesses are investing in training. He contends that companies seem to realise that a well-trained workforce is the key to competitiveness (ASTD,

1996).

❖ There was strong conviction among respondents that employees lack a clear and proper job description in rendering their services (Graph 4.3). This aspect is heavily dependent on managers who need to develop well-designed job descriptions.

❖ Some respondents believed that poor communication at the organisation has a negative effect on their productiveness (Graph 4.8). This factor is a hotly debated and frequently discussed topic globally. Communication plays an essential role in the success and effective operation of organisations. The literature review in Chapter 2 indicated that Birmingham tried to increase employee morale by helping supervisors communicate in a better, efficient and more positive way with their employees.

❖ Graph 4.12 indicates that ineffective training and development of employees has an adverse effect on employees' performance. When employees were interviewed, they stated that, in most cases, the providers of such training programmes are employees within the institution.

❖ The quality of training and learning programmes that are provided to employees are not always relevant to their operational expectations and functions (Graph 4.21). Therefore, there is no clear and proper communication with employees from top management to the bottom. Managers do not consult with employees with regards to which areas employees would like to be developed – managers simply organise certain training and development programmes and inform employees to choose from the available training programmes. In certain cases, one finds the selected programmes to be less important or irrelevant for equipping the employee with the necessary expertise required to improve the job performance levels.

❖ An average of (55%) of the total respondents agreed that poor task competence does indeed lead to poor productiveness (Graph 4.16). Evidence indicated that lower skills levels can have a negative effect on productiveness,

even when these levels are consistent with product skills demands (Mason et al., 1996). In the literature review, Mason indicated that poor performance by British firms was caused by the failure of workers to anticipate machinery problems or to take action to reduce product wastage due to the limited training received. Such evidence would support a move towards enhancing national skills levels, particularly at the intermediate level, both through in-company training and also through the national vocational education system.

❖ A large number of respondents heavily criticised poorly designed jobs, indicating that such jobs have a negative effect on their productiveness (Graph 4.5). Some respondents hinted that this could also lead to high job turnover.

❖ There was a strong belief from respondents that technological incompetence reduces their morale and thereby plays a big role in contributing to their poor competitiveness (Graph 4.20), which thus affects the company's overall productiveness.

❖ Some respondents felt that their poor level of productiveness is caused by their inability to do the job (Graph 4.4). Owing to little knowledge and skill competence, they lack the necessary expertise required from employees to be able to perform well and excel in their current duties.

❖ There was a strong belief that managers often have unrealistic job expectations from employees and give them unreasonable targets that are very difficult to achieve, with little resources and no proper support provided to such personnel to help them in achieving their required targets (Graph 4.18). Even when employees personally feel that they have performed well, when performance evaluations are made, the performance level will be low simply because targets are unreasonably high and such targets create unreasonable expectations from managers.

❖ Most employees felt that their performance is low because their current jobs are not challenging. They indicated that there is no job rotation and they therefore do one job for longer periods and end up being bored and demotivated (Graph

4.10).

❖ Introduction of new technology is said to be causing frustration and panic among respondents, because they think the new technology might be taking over their jobs (Graph 4.19).

❖ When there is employment insecurity, respondents become unsettled in their jobs because they are uncertain about their future (Graph 4.11).

Training and development are some of an organisation's most crucial activities and provide benefits that have been acknowledged.

4.7 <u>Shortcomings and Sources of Error</u>

Some respondents provided a form of biased response towards certain questions that were asked, respondents showed the bias by rating the institution favourably in nearly all the questions simply because they felt that they are rendering service and employed by the institution. Respondents were given new questionnaires to fill and were requested to be fair and objective in their responses as much as possible for the benefit of the study and for the success of the researcher as well. The failure of some employees to fill in the questionnaire is a shortcoming, with employees feeling that they had lack of time to answer the questionnaire thoroughly. A lack of interest from a certain number of employees and supervisors who did not want to participate in the survey process had a negative impact on the study.

4.8 <u>Conclusion</u>

Employees feel that more duties should be added to their current jobs, while some employees believe that a job rotation system would be of great assistance and think that the rotation system would certainly motivate them and provide them with new challenges of task competence. They believe that rotation would inspire and motivate them to rise to the occasion in order to perform better and achieve desirable results in a form of improved job performance.

Data obtained from interviews and existing documentation has been summarised descriptively. Graphical illustrations were used by the researcher to enhance the study's presentation. This chapter presented all the information that has been obtained from existing studies and from interviews – such information has been analysed and summarised descriptively. The interpretation of findings presented is based on the responses drawn from the questionnaire and also from the analysis and interpretation of such data.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The results of the research are now used to draw up conclusions from those analyses that were made in other chapters. Such an analysis should be useful in enhancing an understanding and the importance of training and development at the Tshwane University of Technology in order to enhance employees' productiveness.

5.2 Conclusions

Training and development at organisations serve as important drivers of performance. The way individuals think and do things will certainly affect the outcome of the training programme. Training is a key driver of increasing knowledge and job performance in organisations. Participants in the study expressed their strong views with regards to training and the demands it places on their time and energy. Training at TUT is a vital and necessary tool which will help employees respond to various job requirements and customer needs.

Respondents agreed, as revealed by the researcher's data analysis in the previous chapter, that most of the factors indicated do play a role in the poor productiveness of employees.

Supervisors shared their sentiments with regards to the role that training plays in enhancing employees' productiveness. Supervisors indicated that factors such as lack of employee training will affect the employees' performance (Graph 4.2). This has been shown through the statement that poor training and incompetence affects performance (Graph 4.20) – particularly when there is the introduction of new technology and new processes and performance at the organisation.

For managers to sustain and increase employee productiveness, they would need to increase employee participation – this will help employees determine where they

are today and which positions they would like to reach: this would obviously be achieved through the provision of training.

Graph 4.5 indicates that employees perform poorly because they do not know what they are supposed to do in their jobs, their job descriptions are not clear and they are not given detailed job requirements (Graph 4.3). Managers play a very important role in helping employees know what is expected from them. The researcher found that training was not efficiently used to communicate and share information or to introduce new ideas: therefore, training programmes should be used as a specific business solution to performance problems and training should therefore be focused on improving performance and productiveness.

Writers such as Vroom (1964) and Halachmi (2005) suggest that (other than training and development) there are mechanisms that can be employed to enhance employees' job productiveness. Money spent on training staff should have a direct and positive impact on the bottom line, because well-trained staff are not only able to perform better at their jobs by enhancing productiveness, but will also be more motivated and less likely to leave their current job and join another company (Croft, 2007).

On the other hand, employees' poor performance may be caused by their high level of incompetence (Graph 4.16). The literature shows that training and development continue to be the most frequently used measures to improve performance. Training remained the most popular task and the role continued to be described more as a provider and manager of training and development programmes than as a strategic change or OD agent (Auluck, 2007). T&D have expanded to embrace non-training solutions aimed at improving performance at the individual, process and organisational levels (Rummler and Brache, 1995; Swanson, 1996). The effect of training and development on productiveness is twice as large as the wage effect, implying that existing studies have underestimated the benefits of training by focusing on wages (Dearden, Reed, and Van Reenen, 2006).

The researcher concludes by agreeing that (TUT) does not have proper evaluation methods, instruments and strategies that are appropriate for the evaluation of training and development programmes, training and development are key to improving employees' job performance. However, managers need to perform evaluation before and after the programme in order to determine the effectiveness and efficiency of the programme and also the return on investment gained from conducting training programmes. Evidence indicates that low skills levels can have a negative effect on productiveness, even when they are consistent with the product skills demands (Mason et al., 1996).

5.3 <u>Recommendations</u>

The participants' comments represent a wide range of commitment to and engagement with the training and development process. Participants' comments were interpreted in the light of literature on the subject. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a strong suggestion that training and development programmes play a vital role in increasing productiveness.

Phillips (1996) mentions the example of the Magnavox Electronic Systems Company in California. A literacy programme was introduced at the company to improve the verbal and mathematical skills of employees. The benefits of the programme in terms of business impact were reduced scrap and rework – the programme ultimately increased productiveness. These benefits of training were converted into monetary value by using a return on investment formula.

A study of the ASTD (2000) revealed that training investment can yield a favourable financial return for companies and investors alike. It was found that an average increase of $680 in a company's training expenditures per employee generates, on average, a 6% improvement in total shareholder return. Therefore, it can be concluded that training pays off for businesses and investors alike, as there is a clear relation between training, development and bottom-line performance – which ultimately overlap and improve productiveness.

Thus, it would appear that training and development are likely to remain important for the foreseeable future. The following steps may be applied in order to support training and development activities.

5.3.1 Employees need to support all training programmes and the demands they require on their time and energy levels, particularly when such training programmes are regarded as important parts of employees' job performance.

5.3.2 Training and development programmes should be fully evaluated, taking into consideration the cost of training for the organisation.

5.3.3 Managers and training practitioners should develop satisfaction sheets which evaluate how effectively participants have digested the material and how they will apply it in the workplace.

5.3.4 Top management has to make sure that evaluation programmes take place and that such programmes should be revised and retained. Alternatively, when a programme's contribution is ineffective, it should be removed.

5.3.5 Employers need to evaluate the effectiveness of training in order to measure results, return on investment, behavioural changes, performance improvement, accountability and learning applied on the job immediately after training.

5.3.6 Top management needs to provide clear support for all training and development programmes.

5.3.7 The organisation should communicate the value and importance of training and development among employees at TUT.

5.3.8 Managers and supervisors should encourage employee thinking that will raise awareness about the value of learning and job performance.

5.3.9 Managers' expectations with regards to employees' targets should be fairly

reasonable and not demoralising on the part of the employees.

5.3.10 The organisation should always encourage training and career development through the integration of learning at work, in a way that is meaningful to the individual. This will enable the individual to be an effective lifelong learner and the job performance level will surely be higher.

5.3.11 The training of employees should commence as soon as they are employed by the organisation and the training should continue to be carried out throughout their entire careers.

5.3.12 The organisation need to take time to plan employees' training: this would lead to better results with better costs to company, simply because the organisation will match the employees' training with their most relevant and appropriate needs.

5.4 <u>The Value of the Study</u>

The potential value of this research is that companies and organisations using HRD programmes will benefit with regards to how such companies should prepare to face HRD challenges for managers within the HRD department, as well as for the practitioners who are directly involved with the provision of training and development programmes.

❖ This study offers managers advice about the need to analyse and evaluate factors that are necessary to enhance employees' job performance.

❖ This research will also teach people who perform multiple roles of HRD that they should possess a proper combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes about their behavioural roles. They will be taught to work using influence and power which includes influence through competence, ideas and acceptance and influence through their role.

5.5 <u>Conclusion</u>

This study discussed the need for training and development programmes and aimed to find the link between training and development and increased productiveness. This research has outlined an analysis of the effectiveness of training and development programmes in enhancing productiveness. The dissatisfaction of employees was high owing to lack of support from managers and most of the employees were unhappy about the work environment (Graph 4.7), which affected their performance and productiveness.

Lack of focus and attention on training and development had an impact on the productiveness of the organisation. It appears that those organisations that wish to improve their productiveness and/or profitability are more likely to train their staff. Findings suggest that investment in training is seen by owners and managers of organisations as beneficial to the well-being of the organisation and to the future support of the productiveness level of the firm.

Employees indicated that non-professional training and development exercises affected their performance negatively (Graph 4.12). Therefore, the more that significant and quality programmes are offered to employees, the more organisations are likely to achieve increased productiveness.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

Employees' Job Performance Survey

The following questionnaire is the researcher's independent survey which is aimed at maximising the effectiveness of training and development on employees' productiveness. Your participation will assist the researcher in achieving the desired objective of the study. The information presented in the questionnaire will be kept confidential.

As part of the training and development review process, it will be helpful for each participant to fill out a self-assessment of their training and development.

Questions concerning the questionnaire can be referred to:

Bernedict Mandla Ngwenya

082 631 7974 **(Cell)**

(011) 559 6338 **(Tel)**

ngwenyb@yahoo.com **(E-mail)**

Demographic Information

Surname	
Initials	
Place of birth	
Age	
Cellphone or telephone number	
Job title	
Campus on which employee works	
Home address	
Date	
Time	
Next of kin	
Number of children	

Please mark your choice below by using an "X".

<u>**General Information**</u>

1. What is your gender?
    - o Female
    - o Male
    - o Other (e.g. lesbians and gays)

2. Type of employment?
    - o Permanent
    - o Part-time
    - o Contract

3. Are you a supervisor at work?
    - o Yes
    - o No

4. Employee's level at work
    - o Junior level
    - o Middle level
    - o Senior level

5. Employee's marital status
    - o Married
    - o Single
    - o Widowed
    - o Divorced

6. Employee's race
    - o Black/African
    - o White
    - o Indian/Asian
    - o Coloured
    - o I don't wish to say

Factors Contributing to Employee's Job Performance

1. Employee's lack of training
    - o Yes
    - o No

2. No clear and proper job description
    - o Yes
    - o No

3. Employee's inability to do the job
    - o Yes
    - o No

4. Poor job design
    - o Yes
    - o No

5. The culture of the organisation
    - o Yes
    - o No

6. Employee's work environment is inconducive
    - o Yes
    - o No

7. Lower level of social responsibility
    - o Yes
    - o No

8. Unattractive company products or services
    - o Yes
    - o No

9. Unchallenging work
    - o Yes
    - o No

10. Insecure employment
    - o Yes
    - o No

11. Non-professional training and development exercises

   o Yes

   o No

12. Poor employer reputation and image

   o Yes

   o No

13. Lower salary levels and advancement opportunities at an organisation

   o Yes

   o No

14. Employee's lack of desire or motivation to do the job

   o Yes

   o No

15. Poor task competence

   o Yes

   o No

16. Unclear job objectives

   o Yes

   o No

17. Unrealistic expectations

   o Yes

   o No

18. Introduction of new technology

   o Yes

   o No

19. Technological incompetence

   o Yes

   o No

Satisfaction Ratings

1. How do you rate the quality of training and learning opportunities provided by the organisation?
   - o Superior
   - o Excellent
   - o Good
   - o Average
   - o Poor

2. How do you rate your overall training process?
   - o Superior
   - o Excellent
   - o Good
   - o Average
   - o Poor

3. How would you rate your satisfaction with your manager in terms of support?
   - o Very satisfied
   - o Satisfied
   - o Neutral
   - o Dissatisfied
   - o Very dissatisfied

4. Overall, how satisfied are you with the Tshwane University of Technology?
   - o Very satisfied
   - o Satisfied
   - o Neutral
   - o Dissatisfied
   - o Very dissatisfied

5. What specific suggestions can you provide that would help you improve your productiveness?

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