

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**TRAINING, DEVELOPMENT AND PERFORMANCE IN A  
PUBLIC CORPORATION: CASE STUDY OF THE NIGERIAN  
RAILWAY CORPORATION**

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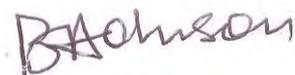
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## ABSTRACT

Rail transport in Nigeria confronts the challenge of providing more efficient services to serve the needs of the economy. Past neglect of the corporation has led to poor performance, contributing less than .5% to GDP. A much reduced, ill-motivated and inefficient workforce and management neglect have resulted in the NRC's current dilapidated and degraded state. Moribund traffic and diminishing capacity to serve its customers have resulted in a huge loss in income for the corporation. Management has taken up the challenge to restore the corporation to its former glory, by providing efficient services to cargo owners and improved safety and operational performance to the numerous commuters. The NRC has adopted T&D as a core strategy to cope with ever-increasing competitive pressure and demands for efficient and improved services, as well as a better manpower base.

This study focuses on analysing Training and Development (T&D), and performance in a public corporation in Nigeria. The primary aim was to analyse the perceived impact of T&D on performance as well as workers' perceptions of the organisation's effectiveness in managing the factors that hinder or promote training transfer. The relationship between the impact of T&D and performance in a government-owned corporation has not received adequate attention in Nigeria; only occasional references are made to a connection between these concepts. The evidence suggests that the impact of T&D on performance is subject to debate and many organisations do not measure it. However, organisations are increasingly considering human capital (i.e. the people who make up an organisation) a source of competitive advantage; such advantage is sustained mainly through human resource development initiatives. Therefore, investing in human capital has become a critical strategic option for contemporary organisations because the ability of any firm to compete successfully is a function of the availability of skills and knowledge and how they are managed.

Furthermore, despite the numerous benefits of T&D to organisations, the influence of T&D in the public sector has not received serious attention and is traditionally not evaluated. This is due to leadership changes when one regime replaces another as politicians' lack of awareness of T&D's impact on organisations and the economy. There is a dearth of effective instruments to measure changes in performance directly or indirectly related to T&D activities. Furthermore, the bulk of the studies on the influence of T&D initiatives on individual and

organisational performance have been conducted in the manufacturing sector. It is not known whether similar results will be obtained in other sectors.

This study was carried out among 297 employees of the Nigerian Railway Corporation (NRC). A questionnaire was administered to employees and personal interviews were held with the Directors, as well as technical and administrative staff. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were adopted and the results were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics, e.g. Pearson correlation, Chi Square multiple regression etc. The analysis was largely descriptive and regression-based and the investigation was a co-relational study in a public sector organisation. Through a literature review, interviews and a questionnaire survey, the study explored the formulation, implementation and evaluation of T&D initiatives in a public corporation and how these are perceived to influence individual and organisational performance.

Training and development was found to impact positively on employees' skills, knowledge and ability, irrespective of their position and function. This influenced overall organisational performance. Training and development was found to be responsible for approximately 23% of the improvement in job performance. Motivation to transfer, performance self-efficacy, transfer design and personal capacity were the only factors found to significantly influence transfer of learning on the job; this implies that the influence of transfer factors is contextual or situational, i.e. factors that influence learning transfer in one organisation may not do so in another. This study contributes to knowledge by presenting a framework for essential practices for T&D which was formulated from the findings of the literature review. It further contributes to knowledge by adding value to the on-going debate on the impact of T&D and training transfer on job performance in a typical government organisation, and by presenting a possible framework for the future study and management of T&D programmes. Finally, the study contributes to knowledge as it was carried out in a unique context – the NRC in Africa. The majority of previous studies were conducted in developed countries focusing on commercial organisations, and never on the transport sector.

Key words: Training, Development, job Performance, training transfer, skills, knowledge, competences, organisations, learning, management, Railway, Nigeria, case study.

<b>CHAPTER ONE.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.0. INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1. THE DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING DICHOTOMY .....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>1.2. MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY.....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1.3. PROBLEM DESCRIPTION.....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.4. PROBLEM STATEMENT .....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.5. AIM.....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.6. OBJECTIVES .....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.7. RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1.8. HYPOTHESES.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1.9. SCOPE OF THE STUDY .....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>1.10. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.10.1. Primary Data .....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.10.2. Secondary Data.....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.11. DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS .....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.11.1. Training.....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.11.2. Employee Development.....</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>1.11.3. Organisational Commitment.....</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>1.11.4. Continuance Commitment .....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>1.11.5. Affective Commitment.....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>1.11.6. Productivity.....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>1.11.7. Training and Development Needs Analysis (TNA) .....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>1.11.8. Profit.....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>1.11.9. Employee Retention .....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>1.11.10. Turnover Intention.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>1.11.11. Employee Job Satisfaction.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>1.11.12. Employee Loyalty .....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>1.11.13. Structure of the Thesis.....</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>CHAPTER 2.....</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>2.0. INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>2.1. MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA.....</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>2.2. THE NIGERIAN RAILWAY CORPORATION .....</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>2.3. NIGERIAN RAILWAY CORPORATION MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES .....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>2.4. CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>35</b>
<b>CHAPTER 3.....</b>	<b>37</b>
<b>3.0. INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>37</b>
<b>3.1. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND IN TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT .....</b>	<b>37</b>
<b>3.2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY .....</b>	<b>43</b>
<b>3.3. PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR ESSENTIAL STRATEGIC T&amp;D PRACTICES .....</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>3.3.1. Organisation’s Strategic Objectives.....</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>3.3.2. Environmental Scanning.....</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>3.3.3. Training and Development Needs Analysis (TNA).....</b>	<b>46</b>
<b>3.3.4. Identification of T&amp;D Objectives .....</b>	<b>54</b>

3.3.5.	Align T&D with Strategy .....	54
3.3.6.	Selection of T&D Methods .....	59
3.3.7.	Execution of Training and Development .....	59
3.3.8.	Training and Development Evaluation .....	60
3.3.9.	Feedback .....	62
3.4.	CONCLUSION.....	63
CHAPTER 4.....		64
4.0.	INTRODUCTION .....	64
4.1.	FACTORS INFLUENCING T&D NEEDS.....	64
4.2.	CHALLENGES IN TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT.....	67
4.3.	TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT METHODS .....	69
4.3.1.	Off-the-job Methods .....	70
4.3.2.	Lectures.....	71
4.3.3.	Corporate Universities.....	72
4.3.4.	Workshop Training .....	73
4.3.5.	Conference and Seminars.....	74
4.3.6.	On-The-Job Training and Development.....	75
4.3.7.	In-Service Training.....	76
4.3.8.	Job Shadowing .....	77
4.3.9.	Coaching .....	78
4.3.10.	Mentoring.....	79
4.3.11.	Job Rotation.....	80
4.3.12.	Secondment .....	81
4.3.13.	Delegation.....	82
4.3.14.	Job Enlargement .....	82
4.3.15.	Job Enrichment .....	83
4.3.16.	Understudy Assignments .....	84
4.3.17.	Hands-On Training.....	84
4.3.18.	Committee/Work Group .....	84
4.3.19.	Vestibule Training.....	85
4.3.20.	Simulation .....	85
4.3.21.	Apprenticeship.....	86
4.3.22.	Action Learning.....	87
4.3.23.	Induction/Orientation .....	88
4.3.24.	Organisational Socialisation.....	88
4.3.25.	Technology as a Training Method .....	88
4.3.25.1.	Audio-visual Methods .....	89
4.3.25.2.	E-Learning .....	89
4.4.	CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS FOR T&D OUTCOMES.....	91
4.4.1.	PERFORMANCE COMPETENCIES.....	91
4.4.2.	Job Performance .....	92
4.4.3.	Job Satisfaction .....	93
4.4.4.	Turnover Intention .....	94

4.4.5.	Organisational Commitment .....	96
4.5.	ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES.....	97
4.5.1.	Increase in Productivity and Performance.....	97
4.5.2.	Retaining Employees .....	100
4.5.3.	Profitability.....	101
4.6.	TRAINING TRANSFER.....	103
4.6.1.	Specific Factors Affecting Transfer .....	105
4.6.2.	Trainee Characteristics .....	106
4.6.3.	Motivation.....	108
4.6.4.	Work Environment/Climate .....	110
4.6.5.	Ability.....	114
4.7.	CONCLUSION.....	116
CHAPTER 5.....		118
5.0.	INTRODUCTION .....	118
5.1.	THE RESEARCH PROBLEM .....	118
5.2.	PROBLEM STATEMENT .....	119
5.3.	AIM OF THE STUDY.....	119
5.4.	OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY .....	119
5.5.	METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS .....	120
5.5.1.	Research Philosophy.....	122
5.5.2.	Pragmatism.....	123
5.5.3.	Research Approach.....	125
5.5.4.	Research Strategy (Case Study) .....	126
5.5.5.	Reflexive Research data gathering.....	128
5.5.6.	Research Choice (Triangulation).....	130
5.5.7.	Time-horizon .....	134
5.5.8.	Techniques and Procedures .....	135
5.5.9.	Methods of Data Analysis.....	154
5.5.10.	Ethical Considerations.....	155
5.5.11.	Limitations of the Study .....	156
5.6.	CONCLUSION.....	157
CHAPTER 6.....		159
6.0.	INTRODUCTION .....	159
6.1.	NRC TRAINING PROGRAMMES ANALYSIS .....	161
6.2.	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	161
6.2.1.	Training and Development Participants.....	162
6.2.2.	Number of Participants .....	162
6.2.3.	Participation by Gender .....	164
6.2.4.	Participants' Age Categories .....	165
6.2.5.	Participants' period of training .....	166
6.2.6.	Respondents' Department.....	167
6.2.7.	Respondents' Grades .....	168
6.2.8.	Tenure of the Respondents.....	169

6.2.9.	Training Methods Applied .....	169
6.2.10.	Training and Development Objectives .....	170
6.2.11.	Training and Organisational Objectives.....	173
6.3.	Training Needs Analysis .....	174
6.3.2.	Training Programme Evaluation .....	179
6.3.3.	Quality of Customer Service.....	180
6.4.	TRAINING AND EMPLOYEES' COMPETENCIES.....	181
6.4.1.	Effects of T&D on Knowledge .....	182
6.4.2.	Effects of T&D on Skill.....	183
6.4.3.	Training and Employees' Ability .....	184
6.4.4.	Training and Employees' Morale.....	186
6.4.5.	Training and Employees' Confidence.....	187
6.4.6.	Training and Employees' Performance .....	188
6.4.7.	Training and Employees' Commitment.....	190
6.4.8.	Turnover Intention after Training.....	191
6.4.9.	Employees' Turnover after Training.....	193
6.4.10.	Training and Job Satisfaction .....	195
6.5.	TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS ON DEPARTMENTS .....	198
6.5.1.	Performance Competence (Departmental Levels).....	198
6.5.2.	Job Satisfaction (Departmental Levels).....	199
6.5.3.	Job Performance (Departments Levels) .....	200
6.5.4.	Turnover Intention (Departmental Levels).....	201
6.5.5.	Employees' Commitment (Department Level) .....	202
6.5.6.	Performance Competence (Employees' Grades) .....	203
6.5.7.	Job Satisfaction (Employees' Grades) .....	204
6.5.8.	Job Performance (Employees' Grades) .....	205
6.5.9.	Turnover Intention (Employees' Grades) .....	206
6.5.10.	Commitment (Employees Grades).....	207
6.5.11.	Morale (Employees Departments) .....	208
6.5.12.	Employees' Confidence (Employees' Departments) .....	209
6.5.13.	Ability (Employees' Departments) .....	210
6.5.14.	Skills (Employees' Departments).....	211
6.5.15.	Knowledge (Employees' Departments) .....	212
6.5.16.	Overall Individual Performance (Department).....	214
6.5.17.	Morale (Employees' Grades).....	215
6.5.18.	Confidence (Employees' Grades).....	216
6.5.19.	Ability (Employees' Grades) .....	217
6.5.20.	Skills (Employees' Grades).....	218
6.5.21.	Knowledge (Employees' Grades).....	219
6.5.22.	Overall Individual Performance (Employees' Grades) .....	220
6.6.	TRAINING TRANSFER SYSTEM - NRC.....	222
6.6.1.	Training Transfer Descriptive Statistics.....	223
6.6.2.	Ability Factors and Performance .....	223
6.6.3.	Motivation Factors and Performance .....	227

6.6.4.	Trainees' Characteristics and Performance.....	230
6.6.5.	Work Environment and Performance .....	233
6.6.6.	LSTI and Job Performance.....	239
6.7.	PERFORMANCE COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE .....	240
6.8.	OVERALL ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE .....	242
6.3.	FRAMEWORK FOR TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT .....	244
6.4.	HOLTON 111 1996 HRD EVALUATION RESEARCH AND MEASUREMENT MODEL ..	245
6.5.	CONCLUSION.....	245
CHAPTER 7.....		247
7.0.	INTRODUCTION .....	247
7.1.	DISCUSSION OF TRAINING PROGRAMME.....	247
7.1.1.	Employee Participants.....	247
7.1.2.	Gender of those Participating in Training.....	248
7.1.3.	Age of Participants.....	248
7.1.4.	Training Methods used.....	249
7.1.5.	Achievement of Organisational Objectives .....	250
7.1.6.	Achievement of T&D Objectives .....	250
7.1.7.	Training Needs Analysis.....	251
7.1.8.	Training Initiatives Programme Evaluation .....	253
7.2.1.	Trainings' Impact on knowledge.....	254
7.2.2.	Training and Employees' Skills.....	255
7.2.3.	Training and Employees' Ability .....	256
7.2.4.	Perceived impact of training on morale.....	256
7.2.5.	Impact of Training on Confidence .....	257
7.2.6.	Overall Employee Performance.....	257
7.2.7.	Training and Employees' Commitment.....	259
7.2.8.	Turnover Intention after Training.....	260
7.2.9.	Employees' Turnover after Training.....	260
7.2.10.	Training and Job satisfaction.....	261
7.2.11.	Training and Customer Service .....	263
7.3.	EFFECTS OF TRAINING .....	263
7.3.1.	Performance Competence (Departments) .....	264
7.3.2.	Job Satisfaction (Departmental Level).....	264
7.3.3.	Job Performance (Departmental Level) .....	264
7.3.4.	.Turnover Intention (Departmental Level).....	265
7.3.5.	Employees' commitment (Departmental Level) .....	265
7.3.6.	Performance Competence (Employee Grade).....	266
7.3.7.	Job satisfaction (Employee Grade).....	266
7.3.8.	Job Performance (Employee Grade).....	267
7.3.9.	Turnover Intention (Employee Grade).....	267
7.3.10.	Employees' Commitment (Employee Grade).....	268
7.3.11.	Training and Morale (Departments).....	268
7.3.12.	Training and Confidence (Departments).....	269

7.3.13.	Training and Ability (Departments).....	269
7.3.14.	Training and Skills (Departments) .....	269
7.3.15.	Training and knowledge (Departments) .....	270
7.3.16.	Overall individual performance (Department) .....	270
7.3.17.	Morale (Employees' Grades).....	270
7.3.18.	Confidence (Employees' Grades).....	271
7.3.19.	Ability (Employees' Grades) .....	271
7.3.20.	Skills (Employees' Grades).....	272
7.3.21.	Knowledge (Employees' Grades).....	272
7.3.22.	Overall Performance (Employees' Grades).....	272
7.4.	TRAINING TRANSFER SYSTEM - NRC.....	273
7.5.	DISCUSSIONS OF TRAINING TRANSFER - NRC .....	273
7.6.	ABILITY FACTORS .....	273
7.7.	MOTIVATION FACTORS .....	274
7.8.	TRAINEE CHARACTERISTICS FACTORS .....	276
7.9.	WORK ENVIRONMENT FACTORS .....	277
7.9.2.	Ability Factors and Performance .....	280
7.9.3.	Motivation Factors and Performance .....	283
7.9.4.	Trainee Characteristics and Performance.....	285
7.9.5.	Work Environment and Performance .....	287
7.10.	TRAINING AND PERFORMANCE.....	292
7.10.1.	Training and Employees' Performance .....	292
7.10.2.	Training and Organisational Performance.....	293
7.11.	FRAMEWORK FOR TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT.....	294
7.12.	HOLTON 111 1996 HRD EVALUATION RESEARCH AND MEASUREMENT MODEL 295	
7.13.	CONCLUSION .....	295
CHAPTER 8.....		297
8.0.	INTRODUCTION .....	297
8.5.	RECOMMENDATIONS .....	309
8.6.	CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE.....	318
8.7.	FUTURE RESEARCH POSSIBILITIES.....	319
8.8.	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	320
8.9.	CONCLUSION.....	321
9.0.	REFERENCES .....	324
APPENDIX.....		I
10.0.	APPENDIX 1 TRAINING AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE .....	I
10.1.	APPENDIX 2 TABLES OF VARIABLES.....	VII
10.2.	APPENDIX 3 QUESTIONNAIRE .....	XXI
10.3.	APPENDIX 4 LETTERS .....	XXX
10.4.	APPENDEX 5 ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER.....	XXXI

	<b>Figure</b>	<b>Content</b>	<b>Page</b>
1	Figure 2.1	Historical Development of the NRC	29
2	Figure 3.1	HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model	38
3	Figure 3.2	Conceptual Framework of the Study	43
4	Figure 3.3	Framework for Essential Strategic T&D Practices	44
5	Figure 4.1	Conceptual Framework for Employees' T&D Outcomes	92
6	Figure 4.2	Conceptual Framework for Organisational T&D Outcomes	102
7	Figure 4.3	Factors Affecting Training Transfer	105
8	Figure 5.1	Saunders et al.'s (2007) –Research Onion”	121
9	Figure 5.2.	Research Onion for this Study	122
10	Figure 5.3	Five-step procedure for drawing sample	132
11	Figure 5.4	Decision Tree for Mixed Method Design	133
12	Figure 5.5	Five-step procedure for drawing sample	136
13	Figure 6.1	Number of Participants	163
14	Figure 6.2	Gender Groups	164
15	Figure 6.3	Departmental Categories	165
16	Figure 6.4	Staff Grade	168
17	Figure 6.5	Training Methods used	170
18	Figure 6.5	Objectives of the NRC	172
19	Figure 6.7	Customer Service	181

	<b>Tables</b>	<b>Content</b>	<b>Page</b>
1	Table	Performance Profile of the NRC	32
2	Table 3.1	Essential Areas for TNA	49
3	Table 5.1	Respondents' Biographical Details	137
4	Table 5.2	Random Digit table	139
5	Table 5.3	Disproportionate stratified sampling	142
6	Table 6.1	Variables Measured	160
7	Table 6.2ba	Cronbach's Alpha Values	161
8	Table 6.2b	Descriptive Statistics	162
9	Table 6.3	Number of Participants	163
10	Table 6.4	Gender of the Participants	164
11	Table 6.5	Respondents' Age Categories	165
12	Table 6.6	Period of Training	166
13	Table 6.7	Respondents' Department	167
14	Table 6.8	Respondents' Grade	168
15	Table 6.9	Tenure of the Respondents	169
16	Table 6.10	Training and Development of Objectives	172
17	Table 6.11a	Training and Organisational Objectives	174
18	Table 6.11b	Organisational Objectives	174
19	Table 6.12	Training Needs Analysis (TNA)	176
20	Tables 6.13a/b	Needs Analysis/Organisational Level	176
21	Tables 6.14a/b	Training Analysis (Job Level)	177
22	Tables 6.15a/b	Needs Analysis (Personal Level)	179
23	Table 6.16	Training Programme Evaluation	180
24	Table 6.17	Customer Service after T&D	181
25	Tables 6.18a/b	Training and Development and Knowledge	183
26	Tables 6.19a/b	Training and Employees' Skills	184
27	Tables 6.20a/b	Training and Employees' Ability	185
28	Tables 6.21a/b	Training and Employees' Morale	187
29	Table 6.22a	Training and Employees' Confidence	188
30	Table 6.22b	Training and Employees' Confidence	188
31	Tables 6.23a/b	Training and Employees' Performance	189- 190
32	Tables 6.24	Performance Competence and Commitment	191

33	Tables 6.25	Performance Competence & Com (Directors' Response)	191
34	Table 6.26	Turnover Intention after Training	192
35	Tables 6.27	Turnover Intention after Training (Directors' Response)	193
36	Table 6.28	Employees' Turnover after T&D	194
37	Table 6.29	Training and Job Satisfaction	196
38	Table 6.30	Training and Job Satisfaction	196
39	Tables 6.31a/b/c	Training and Job Performance	197
40	Tables 6.32a/b	Performance Competence (Departmental Levels)	199
41	Table 6.33a/b	Job Satisfaction (Departmental Levels)	200
42	Tables 6.34a/a	Job Performance (Departmental Levels)	201
43	Tables 6.35a/b	Turnover Intention (Departmental Level)	202
44	Tables 6.36a/b/c	Employees' Commitment (Department Level)	203
45	Tables 6.37a/b	Performance Competence (Employees' Grades)	204
46	Tables 6.38a/b	Job Satisfaction (Employees' Grades)	205
47	Tables 6.39a/b	Job Performance (Employees' Grades)	206
48	Tables 6.40a/b	Turnover Intention (Employees' Grades)	207
49	Tables 6.41a/b	Commitment (Employees Grades)	208
50	Table 6.42a/b	Morale (Employees' Departments)	209
51	Tables 6.43a/b	Employees' Confidence (Employees' Departments)	210
52	Tables 6.44a/b	Ability (Employees' Departments)	211
53	Tables 6.45a/b	Skills (Employees' Departments)	212
54	Tables 6.46a/b	Knowledge (Employees' Departments)	213
55	Tables 6.47a/b	Overall Individual Performance (Department)	215
56	Tables 6.48a/b	Morale (Employees' Grades)	216
57	Tables 6.49a/b	Confidence (Employees' Grades)	217
58	Tables 6.50a/b	Ability (Employees' Grades)	218
59	Table 6.51a/b	Skills (Employees' Grades)	219
60	Table 6.52a/b	Knowledge (Employees' Grades)	220
61	Table 6.53a/b	Overall Individual Performance (Employees' Grades)	221
62	Table 6.54	Training Transfer Factors	223
63	Table 6.55	Ability Factors and Performance	226
64	Table 6.56a/b	Ability Variables	227
65	Table 6.57	Motivation to Transfer	229
66	Table 6.58a/b	Motivation Variables	230

67	Table 6.59	Trainees' Characteristics and Performance	232
68	Table 6.60a/b	Trainees' Characteristics Variables	233
69	Table 6.61	Work Environment and Performance	237
70	Table 6.62a/b	Work Environment Variables	238
71	Table 6.63a/b	Predictors of Job Performance	239- 240
72	Table 6.64a/b	Performance Competence and Performance	241
73	Table 6.65	Overall Organisational performance	243- 244

## CHAPTER ONE

### 1.0. Introduction

In order to remain competitive in an increasingly globalised world, organisations place high priority on continuous learning in order to upgrade employees' skills and competencies (Subhani, Hasan, & Rahat, 2010; Sarwar, et al., 2011). Companies with learning cultures will be able to adapt and succeed in today's changing business environment. Employees' skills and knowledge are considered a competitive advantage in the contemporary knowledge-based society (Sarwar, Azhar & Akhtar, 2011). As organisations increase in size and complexity so too, do their operational challenges and the number of employees that need training (Shoosmith, 2008). The factors that influenced the business world in the past have changed in recent times. Economic development, the knowledge economy, globalisation and technological changes have created a huge skills and knowledge gap that creates an urgent need for employees and managers to acquire additional capabilities, such as innovation and accomplishing the organisation's strategic plan (Burgard, 2011; Karthikeyan, Karthi, & Graf, 2010; Martin, 2010). Changing market demand and constant changes in work processes imply constant change in the skills required in an organization (Saunders, 2010; Rowold, 2008). These changes have increased the challenges and pressures experienced by organisations (Sahinidis & Boris, 2007). Thus, many companies are turning to T&D to solve their ever-increasing worker and organisational needs (Morin & Renaud, 2004). In contemporary society, where the reward for skills is high, as are the negative effect of a lack of skills, individuals and organisations need to prioritise T&D in order to upgrade skills (Australian Industry Group, 2011).

Employee T&D is an integral part of the pursuit of improved growth and productivity (Rabey, 2007; Panagiotakopoulos, 2011, p. 350). Indeed, the need to invest in the current labour force is more urgent than ever before, since the ability to compete is dependent on knowledge development and how well that knowledge is managed and utilised (Vemic, 2007). Therefore, the goal of T&D should be to enhance constant knowledge acquisition and innovation (Kumpikaitė, & Čiarnienė, 2008). Organisations should create a situation where knowledge is shared in order to promote their strategic plan (Hatala & Fleming 2007). In the contemporary economic environment, capital moves fast from one location to another, Attracting, developing and retaining motivated, skilled and satisfied employees is essential

for organisations that wish to improve productivity (Georgellis & Lange, 2007). While it has been widely acknowledged that training helps to develop employees' skills, enhance the quality of their work, improve productivity and build employee loyalty to an organisation, some organisations do not provide sufficient support for T&D, while others implement it in an ad-hoc fashion (Akinyele, 2007).

Training and development enhances the ability of an organisation to be knowledge intensive and at the same time enables employees to take up new jobs or tasks efficiently (Karthikeyan, Karthi, & Graf, 2010; Hasnat, 2011). Therefore, T&D offers an organisation an opportunity to improve efficiency and productivity both in the long and short term (Forsyth, 2001; Brinkerhoff, 2005; Farahbakhsh, 2010; Wapmuk, 2010). Maintaining improved productivity and performance is a function of having the right skills (Giovanni, 2011). It has been consistently argued that T&D has the potential to enhance the ability of employees to make maximum use of the company's resources (Ukenna, Ijeoma, Anionwu, & Olise, 2010; Shadare, 2006). Adile (2009) observed that T&D helps workers build their individual skills, knowledge and abilities, which will eventually help them to make substantial contributions to organisational performance and productivity (Jacobs & Washington, 2003). In the globalised world, organisations continually seek sustainable competitive advantage through human resource capital differentiation (D'Natto et al., 2008). Training can no longer be regarded as a waste of time, money and other resources (Indradevi, 2010; Giangreco et al., 2009). Many workers have not done well in organisations because of a lack of basic T&D (Adenigi, 2010). These employees may want to do well but still fail because they do not have the prerequisite skills and knowledge which can only be obtained through T&D (Aniekwu & Ozochi, 2010). To overcome these challenges and build a solid manpower base, some countries have enacted laws that require organisations in both the private and public sectors to spend a fixed percentage of their budget on staff training (Lynton & Pareek, 2000).

Changes in the demography of the workforce and the need for skills within the public sector have heightened the need to improve T&D in order to meet the current and future skills needs of different sectors. Therefore, T&D has become one of the most important elements of effective human resources management (Babaita, 2010). The more organisations strive for excellence, the more essential employee T&D becomes, especially now that people are more aware of the duty of the public service to provide superior services (Pepple, 2009, p.1). The

recent interest in human resource research on T&D is proof of the fact that competitiveness is increasingly built on significant investment in human resources (Heraty & Collings, 2006).

Furthermore, T&D has facilitated the optimal utilisation of employees by improving morale, employee progression and profitability (Okotoni & Erero, 2005, p.1). The International Labour Organisation (2000 cited in Okotoni & Erero, 2005, P.1) has acknowledged that T&D increases the chance of trainees retaining their jobs; “improves their productivity at work and widens their career choices and opportunities”. Moreover, continuous T&D of public service employees ensures improved performance (MGIJIMA, 2009). It has been acknowledged that a low skills base and the incapability of many civil servants are the main causes of poor service delivery in Nigeria (Adamu, 2009). If Nigeria is to achieve the Millennium Development Goals, substantial investment is required in T&D (Sechindemi, 2010). The Nigerian government has realised that it cannot achieve its vision for 2020 without successfully “harnessing the potential, talents, energies, motivation, and drive of the workforce” (News Agency of Nigeria (NAN), 2011). Speaking at a workshop on human capital and succession development in 2011, Professor Oladapo Afolabi, the former head of the civil service in Nigeria, revealed that the government would spend N40 billion annually to train and develop its civil servants (NAN, 2011).

The Nigerian Railway Corporation (NRC) has adopted T&D as a core strategy to respond to increasing competitive pressure and demands from the public for efficiency and better performance. Training effectiveness is a measure of how well training achieves its intended outcomes (Laoledchai, Wee Land & Low, 2008). Although the authorities have recently spent millions on the T&D of civil servants, there have been few studies of the impact of the training on the performance of public enterprises (Leake & Parry, 2011; Sun & Ross, 2009, NAN, 2010; Kaufman, 1985). Furthermore, evaluation of the influence of T&D on the public sector has been limited, due to the changes that occur when one group of administrators replaces another (Huquea & Vyasb, 2008; Healy & Ireland, 2001). Either the succeeding administrators do not know the economic impact of T&D on the organisation (Aragón-Sánchez, Barba-Aragón, Sanz-Valle, 2003), or they deliberately down-play its significance. It is against this background that this study aims to evaluate the perceptions of NRC employees of the effects of T&D on employee performance with the aim of comprehending the challenges and making recommendations for an effective T&D framework.

The remaining part of this chapter briefly discusses the differences between the concepts of development and training and how they relate to each other, the problem statement, the motivation for the study, its aims, the research question and the hypotheses. This chapter also briefly discuss the research methodology and the limitations of the study. The challenges organisations confront when formulating and implementing T&D initiatives are highlighted. The chapter concludes with an outline of the structure and content of each chapter of the thesis. These sections of the chapter provide an overview of the study and the theoretical assumptions that it sets out to prove. They therefore provide the reader with the rationale for the whole project; especially the problem statement. The following section clarifies the meaning of the concepts of training and development by identifying the differences between the two concepts and how they relate to each other.

### **1.1. The Development and Training Dichotomy**

In this study, development refers to the improvement of employees which normally takes place within the organisation and aims at improving employee competencies. The all-encompassing intent of development programmes is to make a planned programme available to increase staff competence, and develop employees' ability to manage future job assignments in order to accomplish the long term goals of the organisation (Venkatesh, 2009; Jacobs & Washington, 2003). On the other hand, training is conducted with the aim of meeting the present needs of the organisation (Jonck, 2001; Wilson, 2005). Employee development is generally acknowledged as a more-encompassing concept than employee training (Erasmus et al., 2006). Employee development implies continuous learning opportunities for employees to develop their skills in order to improve or sustain performance and leadership (Meyer, 2007).

Training is seen as an event; it starts and ends within a short period of time, while development is an on-going process that extends throughout an employee's career. In other words, "training is short-term and skill oriented, whereas development is long-term and career oriented" (Owusu-Acheaw, 2007). Training is a programme that aims to directly impart knowledge and skills to employees for immediate job activities (Gibb, 2002), while employee development aims to impart experience and skills for the future needs of the organisation, especially the career paths of new and young employees (Adamu, 2008). Training is meant to impart a specific skill to an employee to enable him/her do a particular

job. Development, on the other hand, is meant not only to impart skills and knowledge, but also to change the whole person through gaining experience throughout his/her career in the organisation (Gibb, 2002).

Indeed, training and development complement each other in the sense that training is an organised approach to learning to enhance the effectiveness of employees and the organisation; while development results in the acquisition of new competencies that promote the growth of employees and the organisation (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). The similarity between these two concepts is that both are meant to boost the level of capability and workers' performance in an organization, mainly when the performance or work standard is considered to be low or when there is low morale or a generally poor attitude to work which hinders performance. In both cases, employees are exposed to new knowledge and skills associated with their current job and proposed new jobs. Development helps to sustain or reinforce positive behaviours learnt during training (Nicks, 2011).

## **1.2. Motivation for the Study**

The relationship between T&D and performance as part of organisational transformation in the public sector has not been widely studied in Africa in general or Nigeria in particular. Only occasional reference has been made to the connection between these concepts (Huque & Vyas, 2008).

The majority of the studies on the relationship between T&D and productivity have focused on manufacturing companies rather than public organisations such as the NRC. Only a few studies have considered the effects of T&D on employee performance in government-owned enterprises or service organisations in Nigeria. It has been assumed that the findings on the influence of T&D activities on organisational performance in the manufacturing sector can be applied to other sectors (Birdi, Patterson, & Wood, 2007).

Furthermore, most of the studies on T&D have been carried out in the developed world and the emerging Asian economies, where the culture and business environments are different from that of Africa in general and Nigeria in particular. Public corporations' investment in T&D is still very low, especially in developing countries like Nigeria. The reasons include, but are not restricted to the fact these corporations do not evaluate the effect of T&D on

performance and therefore, they have no knowledge of its economic impact on organisations (Aragón-Sánchez; Barba-Aragón; Sanz-Valle, 2003). This study, therefore, focuses on government organisations in order to make recommendations for a future framework for the study of T&D in Nigerian organisations.

Detailed studies are lacking on the effectiveness of T&D in public organisations in Nigeria and the factors affecting transfer of learning. There is also no known study in Nigeria on the management of the factors that influence transfer of training in Nigerian public organisations today. Therefore, there is a need to determine the effectiveness of T&D in governmental organisations in terms of implementation and learning transfer in workplaces, and to make recommendations for the improvement of T&D programmes. There is a clear need to establish an effective and systematic T&D programme and to measure the degree to which the skills learned are transferred on the job. This will enable an evaluation of the impact of T&D on government enterprises' performance in Nigeria. This study aims to investigate the impact of T&D on individuals and their subsequent effect on organisational performance in order to provide an effective framework for the future study of T&D.

Despite significant financial investment by organisations and the federal government in the T&D of civil servants, the impact of T&D initiatives on Nigerian public corporations is not usually evaluated. Sofo (2007, cited in Hussain, 2011, p 48) found that only 11% of organisations measure the impact of training on employees and organisational performance. William et al. (2003 cited in Leberman, 2006, p.3) indicated that throughout the world the impact of training on performance is minimal. Therefore, there is an urgent need for a study of the management and effectiveness of T&D on performance in government enterprises. The study will contribute to a Nigerian public service HRD strategy by suggesting better ways of carrying out T&D and the links between T&D activities and performance.

Despite the long history of T&D implementation in both the public and private sectors in Nigeria, it was observed during data collection that there were no systematic plans and evaluation mechanisms in place. While government has spent a considerable amount on training, the extent of the application of the skills learned during T&D has not been established. For example ~~transfer~~ of training, as a domain of concern for human performance, was not researched before in the context of developing countries" (Subedi, 2004, p. 598). This study is ground-breaking as there are only a few prior studies on the

relationship among the various variables it considers in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular.

The aim of this study is to provide a holistic view of T&D practices in a public organisation to examine whether NRC employees and departmental heads perceive that effective management of T&D impacts on performance. The study also seeks to provide insight into the factors that influenced T&D transfers in the corporation in order to make recommendations for more effective implementation of T&D in the future.

### **1.3. Problem Description**

The link between T&D initiatives and organisational performance is still an issue for debate. Some have argued that the association between productivity and training is weak and hard to prove (Matilda, 2009). Molina and Ortega (2003) cited in Matilda (2009) identified some negative impacts of training on firm performance. Some commentators argue that the negative impacts recorded may be because training was offered without an efficient approach, example, a lack of alignment of training with the overall corporate strategic plan (Aragon-Sanchez, et al., 2003; Huquea & Vyas, 2008). Furthermore, organisations still tend to view training as an expense rather than as an investment that will yield positive results (Obisi, 2011, p. 81). Moreover, ~~many~~ many organisations meet the needs for training and development in an ad-hoc way, which makes training these organisations more or less unplanned and transfer of training has been a problematic to companies” (Taiwo, 2007; Obisi, 2011, p. 84). Scholars have indicated that only about 10% of the skills and knowledge learned during training is transferred to the job (Hussain, 2011, p.47). This is problematic, as without learning transfer, organisations will never improve their performance levels; a major reason for undertaking training in the first place. Therefore the main problem statement for this study is:

### **1.4. Problem Statement**

Significant investment in T&D interventions in public organisations in Nigeria and indeed around the world does not regularly lead to commensurate improvement in employee and organisational performance, and proper learning transfer on the job due to the lack of efficient management of T&D programmes.

### **1.5. Aim**

The aim of this study was to provide a holistic view of T&D practices in a public organisation in Nigeria in order to make recommendations for future T&D interventions and to formulate a framework for essential practices for T&D for future use in institutions of higher learning as well as public and private organisations. The study also aimed to investigate how effective the NRC has been in managing training transfer, the factors that influence transfer of learning in the organisation and to make recommendations for more effective management of T&D interventions in the future.

The following objectives were formulated to achieve the aims of the study described above.

### **1.6. Objectives**

1. To investigate the nature of T&D programmes in the NRC (e.g. evaluation of TNA, objectives, T&D and type of training methods) in order to formulate a framework for the future study and execution of T&D.
2. To assess the impact of T&D on all employee, in terms of their (i) knowledge, (ii) skills, (iii) ability, (iv) morale at work, (iv), general morale(v) confidence, and overall performance as well as the relationship between employees' performance competence (e.g. skills and knowledge) gained from T&D and b (i) employees' organisational commitment, (ii) turnover intention, (iii) job satisfaction, and (iv) job performance.
3. To explore the effectiveness of the T&D among employees in different positions and departments in the organisation.
4. To study the factors that influence the transfer of learning and establish the training transfer factor that is the highest predictor of training transfer on the job in order to make recommendations.
5. To investigate how effective T&D is in enhancing individual and organisational performance in order to make recommendations for better performance in the future.
6. To develop a framework for essential practices for T&D for both public and private organisations in Nigeria and around the world.

7. To make informed recommendations for future effective policy planning, implementation and practice of T&D in organisations and institutions of higher learning.

Based on the research objectives above, five research questions were formulated for this study.

### **1.7. Research Questions**

1. How effective are the current T&D programmes in the NRC?
2. Do the T&D initiatives impact on employees' (a) knowledge, (b) skills, (c) ability, (d) morale and (e) overall performance (f) commitment, (g) turnover intention, (h) job satisfaction, and (i) productivity?
3. Do the T&D initiatives impact on employees at various levels and departments equally or differently?
4. What are the factors that affect transfer of training on the job and which factor is the highest predictor of job performance?
5. Do T&D initiatives improve individual and overall organisational performance?
6. Can a new framework for essential practices for T&D be formulated to enhance the efficient planning and implementation of T&D in organisations?

Four hypotheses were developed to test the objectives of the study.

### **1.8. Hypotheses**

1. The T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing employees' a (i) knowledge, (ii) skills, (iii) ability, (iv) morale, (v) confidence and (vi) overall performance. (b) There is a significant relationship between employees' competence gained through T&D and (i) employee commitment, (ii) turnover intention and (iii) job satisfaction.
2. There are significant differences in the influence of T&D on a) administrative and technical staff's a (i) competence, (ii) job satisfaction, (iii) performance, (iv)

turnover intention, (v) commitment and b) senior staff's b(i) competence, (ii) job satisfaction, (iii) performance, (iv) turnover intention, and (v) commitment.

2(c) There are a significant differences between the impact of T&D on c) administrative and technical staff's (i) morale, (ii) confidence, (iii) ability, (iv) skill, (v) knowledge. and d) senior and junior staff's (i) morale, (ii) confidence, (iii) ability, (iv) skills and (v) knowledge.

3. There are significant relationships between learning transfer factors (LTSI) and the perceived influence on job performance.
4. (a) There is a significant relationship between the perceived skills and knowledge (performance competence) gained from T&D and perceived employee job performance. (b). There is a significant positive relationship between overall employee performance and overall organisational performance as a result of the T&D initiatives implemented in the organisation.

### **1.9. Scope of the Study**

This research was restricted to NRC employees who had participated in any form of training and development activity in the past year (the 2010/2011 financial year) in the regional headquarters in the Lagos zone of the NRC in Lagos State. The emphasis of the present study is not only to investigate if properly-managed T&D impacts on the performance of both employees and the organisation but also the factors that influenced T&D transfer from the training venue to the workplace.

The choice of NRC, Lagos zone was influenced by the fact that, while the NRC is very important in the lives of ordinary Nigerian people and the survival of the Nigerian economy, few empirical in-depth studies have been conducted on whether the effective management of T&D influences its performance at both individual and organisational levels in a government enterprise. Lagos is both the federal and regional headquarters of the NRC. Furthermore, all the NRC's various departments are represented in Lagos, including training centres. The centre also housed all the data (information) required by the researcher.

## **1.10. Research Methodology**

### **1.10.1. Primary Data**

The primary data formed part of the empirical research. This study applied multi-method approach of data collection processes, which included the use of questionnaires and interviews. The data were partly obtained through an in-depth questionnaire administered to the 297 NRC employees who attended training programmes aimed at improving service quality and productivity. Further data were collected by means of an in-depth interview questionnaire, which was administered through personal interviews with the Directors.

### **1.10.2. Secondary Data**

Secondary data collection involved reviewing previous research on T&D both within and outside the NRC, using both local and international accredited journals. The findings of the study were analysed against current T&D models and their impact on performance. The literature review is incorporated with the analysis of the primary data. A detailed analysis of both primary and secondary data collection methods used for this study is provided in chapter five. In order for the researcher to familiarise himself with the meaning of the key concepts used in this study, it was necessary to define the meaning of each.

## **1.11. Definition of Key Concepts**

### **1.11.1. Training**

Training is recognised as a means whereby employees acquire and develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to perform their jobs better and improve overall organisational performance. –Training is defined as a systematic approach to learning and development to improve individual, team, and organizational effectiveness” (Dysvik, 2007). Training can be defined as an activity that is designed to improve the performance of employees and the organisation and assist an organisation to attain its mission and performance goals (Horner, 1998). According to Gibb (2011, p. 16), –training means learning undertaken for the development of skills for work and in work, on-job or off-job, to enable effective performance in a job or role”.

### **1.11.2. Employee Development**

Employee development is not just an effort to enhance the value of people's knowledge through training but is also as a way of training an individual to undertake specific tasks and employment functions, which assist in organisational transformation (Dysvik, 2007). Employee development covers a range of issues. It is designed to expand individual talents and knowledge and the transformation of the whole person. Employee development is any activity that aims to assist an employee, especially young ones, to develop new experience in their current job so that they can be promoted to managerial positions in the future. It refers to any action that results in constant learning and personal growth which may lead to the achievement of an individual employee's and organisation's set objectives (Kemp, 2009). Employee development promotes the growth and advancement of individual employees within the organisation in order to enable the organisations to grow (Lee & Hur, 2012). Patrick & Kumar (2012) note, that employee development is a continuous effort to upgrade the employee's and the organisation's skills, abilities and knowledge. Shelton (2001) defines employee development as, a scheme to support employees to gain new competences within their current employment or to improve them to enable them fulfil their goals and the organisation's future goals.

### **1.11.3. Organisational Commitment**

Organisational commitment can be described as the extent to which an employee identifies with and involve him/herself with the organization he/she is working for (Ugboro, 2006). Organisational commitment has been defined as the assurance made by employee/s to identify with and involved in a specific establishment or company and –psychological link between an employee and his or her organisation that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organisation” (Kumar & Bakhshi, 2010, p. 26). Organisational commitment is confirmed when an employee demonstrates high levels of well-being, greater job involvement, stronger performance and job satisfaction, and reduced absenteeism and turnover (Davis & Stazyk, 2013, p. 7). Organisational commitment is a mental state or mindset that binds a worker to an organisation, in that way reducing the rate of employee turnover and absenteeism (Prabhakar & Ram, 2011, p. 55). In other words, it is a

psychological state which disposes an employee to continue to work for the organisation (Pandey & Khare, 2012).

#### **1.11.4. Continuance Commitment**

Continuance commitment refers to the costs the employee incurs if he/she is leaves the organisation; these may include loss of benefits, financial loss or diminished status (Ugboro, 2006). Continuance commitment denotes a situation where employees decided to stay with an organisation because of the costs they will bear if they leave the organisation (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnysky, 2002, p. 21). Continuance commitment is defined by Akinyemi (2012, p. 55) as an –employee’s opportunity cost of leaving the organization”. Jeros (2007, p. 7) defines continuance commitment as the envisaged costs which the employee will bear for parting ways with the firm. Continuance commitment occurs when employee perceives the opportunity cost of leaving the organisation to be greater than staying (Prabhakar & Ram, 2011, p. 55).

#### **1.11.5. Affective Commitment**

Affective commitment refers to an employee’s identification with and emotional attachment to the organization he/she is working for (Ugboro, 2006). Affective commitment denotes a situation where employees are passionately attached to, identified with, and involved in the organisation’s activities (Mayer et al., 2002, p. 21). Affective commitment is described as an employee’s identification and involvement with the company (Akinyemi, 2012). It refers to commitment founded on the emotional ties the employee has with the organisation as result of cordial work experiences (Jeros, 2007). Affective commitment has been defined as an employee’s behaviour towards the organization, which is evident in his/her firm belief in and acceptance of the company’s goals (Davis & Stazyk, 2013, p. 7).

#### **1.11.6. Productivity**

Productivity is the marginal input per unit of labour. Productivity can be described as the actual input of a factor of production during a given period (CMD, 2011). Productivity is the difference between the input and the output. When the output is greater than the proportionate increase in input, productivity increases; but when proportionate input is less than the output,

productivity decreases. Productivity is defined as “a measure of the rate at which outputs of goods and services are produced per unit of input” (Parham, 2006, p. 2). Put differently, productivity can be described as the degree to which organisations produce output from inputs (Parham, 2011, p. 7). Productivity is the real output for every hour of labour or, more broadly, the actual output for every unit of total input (Steindel & Stiroh, 2001). Productivity can be referred to as the association between the production of goods and service and the inputs of resources (Sharpe, 2002, p. 31).

#### **1.11.7. Training and Development Needs Analysis (TNA)**

This is an activity to establish the gap between the skills employees have and the skills they do not have that they need to do their work more efficiently. It requires an investigation of the needs of the organisation prior to the implementation of a T&D programme to enable an organisation to achieve its set goals and objectives (Edralin, 2011; Stringfellow, 2011; Fowler, 2009; Business Performance Pty Ltd, 2008).

#### **1.11.8. Profit**

The profit of an organisation can be explained as the surplus of revenue gained over spending during a given period of time (CMD, 2011). The term ‘profit’ is generally used to describe gross profit. Gross profit is the excess which accumulates to an organisation when it subtracts its total costs in producing products from its total income gained from the sale of products. Investopedia (2014) defines profit as a “financial benefit that is realized when the amount of revenue gained from a business activity exceeds the expenses, costs and taxes needed to sustain the activity”.

#### **1.11.9. Employee Retention**

This refers to the degree or extent to which an organisation is able to retain its employees, especially the most productive ones (Khawaja, Anwer & Mazen, 2013). Employee retention means an employee’s on-going association with his/her organisation, or the willingness of an employee to continue working with and for the organisation (Adi, 2012, p. 340). Shelton (2001) defines employee retention as the ability of the organisation to retain key workers who contribute to its business growth. Employee retention can be examined in terms of employee

turnover, which is the number of employees that have to be replaced in a given time period (Mbah & Ikemefuna, 2011).

#### **1.11.10. Turnover Intention**

This is the degree to which an employee will want to remain with or leave a particular organisation (Khawaja, et al., 2013). According to Akinyemi (2012, p. 56), Chatzoglou, et al. (2011, p. 133) and Jha (2009), turnover intention refers to mindful and deliberate willingness to quit the organisation. Turnover intention has been defined as the willingness of an employee to look for employment with another organisation within a year (Medina, 2012, p. 6).

#### **1.11.11. Employee Job Satisfaction**

This measures the degree to which workers like or dislike their jobs and are willing to do their best to improve performance for the success of the organisation (Yip, Goldman & Martin, 2014). Shelton (2001) defines employee job satisfaction as the stage in an employee's working life when they enjoy their job and are eager to put in more effort into ensuring the company's success. Locke (1976, p. 1300 cited in Chatzoglou et al., 2011, p. 131) describes job satisfaction as a "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". According to Egun et al. (2004, p. 5 cited Medina, 2012, p. 7), an employee's affection for his/her job is built by comparing desired outcomes and the actual outcomes.

#### **1.11.12. Employee Loyalty**

Employee loyalty is the extent to which an employee takes pride in his/her organisation and how far he/she is willing to go to defend the organisation against criticism. The degree of loyalty can be measured by how much personal responsibility employees take for their jobs (Costen & Salazar, 2007). Employee loyalty may be defined as the degree to which there is general readiness on the part of employees to commit themselves to the success of the organisation (Pandey & Khare, 2012).

### **1.11.13. Structure of the Thesis**

#### **Chapter 1: Overview of the study**

This chapter briefly discussed the background, problem description, and problem statement, the motivation for the study, its aims, research questions, objectives and hypotheses. It presented a definition of key concepts and the structure and the scope of the study, as well as the research methodology and limitations.

#### **Chapter 2: Nigeria: Facts and Figures.**

Chapter two analyses Nigerian facts and figures, manpower development in Nigeria, the historical background to the NRC and its manpower development initiatives in recent times.

#### **Chapter 3: Theoretical Background of the Study**

Chapter three presents the theoretical background and conceptual framework of this study which was based on Holton et al., (2008). It discusses a framework for effective T&D strategic practices and how they impact on the management of T&D initiatives.

#### **Chapter 4: Training Methods and Outcomes**

This chapter examines training and development methods and outcomes and the factors that influence the ability and motivation to transfer what is learned on the job. It provides a distinction between development and training factors that influence T&D and the challenges that arise.

#### **Chapter 5: Research Methodology and Design**

Chapter five discusses the research methodology and describes the target population, data collection techniques (stratified random sampling), the data collection process, formulation, validity and reliability measuring instruments, descriptive statistics, and inferential statistics.

#### **Chapter 6: Data Analysis and Presentation of the Results**

Chapter six focuses on the qualitative and quantitative data analyses and presents the results of the study. Both the qualitative and quantitative (descriptive and inferential) results are presented using tables and charts.

## **Chapter 7: Discussion of the Results**

The results presented in chapter six are discussed, as well as the study's contribution to knowledge, and its limitations.

## **Chapter 8: Conclusion and Recommendations**

This final chapter summarises the previous chapters and provides recommendations for future research.

### **1.12. Conclusion**

Current trends in the globalised business world indicate that economic development, a dynamic business environment and changing market demand have increased the need for new skills and knowledge. In order to respond effectively to increasingly complex technology and market expectations, organisations need skilled employees. This requires that organisations engage in T&D in order to initiate and maintain productivity improvements and to secure their competitive advantage. The change in the demography of the workforce and the need for skills within the public sector have highlighted the need to improve T&D in order to meet the current and future diverse needs of both employees and organisations. The evidence suggests that T&D's impact on performance is still debatable and many organisations do not measure its impact on organisational performance. Organisations engage in T&D for various reasons which include orientation of new employees, fulfilling statutory requirements and improving the acquisition of critical skills. A lack of support from top management, failure on the part of supervisors to encourage employees to use newly-acquired skills and lack of proper planning are some of the fundamental problems confronting human resource personnel in implementing T&D in their organisations. The significant resources committed to T&D interventions in public organisations in Nigeria and indeed around the world do not automatically result in a commensurate improvement in employees' skills and knowledge, learning transfer and job and organisational performance. Hence, this study aims to provide a holistic overview of T&D practices in a public organisation in Nigeria and to establish NRC employee's perceptions of how effective it has been in impacting skills, knowledge and performance in order to make recommendations to improve the future implementation of T&D interventions. The study also sought to investigate how effective the NRC has been in managing training transfer, the factors that have influenced transfer of learning in the organisation and to make recommendations for more effective future management of T&D

interventions. The following chapter provides a brief historical background of the NRC and highlights the facts and figures on manpower development in Nigeria and the NRC.

## CHAPTER 2

### NIGERIA: FACTS AND FIGURES

#### 2.0. Introduction

As noted in the previous chapter, organisations are harnessing T&D to increase their competitiveness and improve service delivery (Giovanni, 2011; D’Natto et al., 2008; Karthikeyan et al., 2010; Georgellis & Lange, 2007; Sahinidis & Boris, 2007). Globalisation and demographic changes have heightened the need for skills and knowledge in organisations. However, the debate continues on the impact of T&D initiatives on organisational success. This chapter presents contextual historical and geographical data on Nigeria and the educational and manpower development of its citizens, particularly civil servants. The second section of the chapter discusses the contextual historical background of the Nigerian Railway Corporation (NRC) and its T&D efforts in recent times. A brief descriptive analysis of Nigeria and the NRC is also provided as both form part of the context of the study. Moreover, a study of past T&D activities in Nigeria and the NRC will provide an overview of T&D in Nigerian organisations, how it has been managed over time, and the factors that influenced its implementation in Nigerian organisations. This discussion of the study background is part of the formulation, execution and evaluation of the study.

Nigeria is a West African country that spans more than 923,768 sq. km on the west coast of the continent, and is located along the lines of longitude 30E – 160E and latitude 40N – 140N (Federal Government of Nigeria FGN, 2010; Akanji & Bankole, Goke, 2006). It is the most populous country in Africa and the 7<sup>th</sup> most populous in the world with a population growth rate of 2.55% (World Bank, CIA World Factbook). The total population of Nigeria is 164,385,656 and the country has a population density of approximately 178 per km<sup>2</sup>. Persons in the age group 0-14 years constitute 39.6% of the population, while 56.3% fall into the 15-64 years age group (the economically active population) and 4.2% are 65 years and older. Nigeria has an economically active population of approximately 92,384,738, with a total labour force of about 67,256,090. Of this total, approximately 51,181,884 people were employed, while 16,074,205 were unemployed and 2,127,691 were “newly unemployed” in 2012 (National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) 2012). The total unemployment rate is estimated at

23.9% (NBS, 2012). Nigeria records an average of 1.8 million new entrants into the active labour market per year (NBS, 2011). In the second quarter of 2012, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate was 6.28% compared with 7.61% in the corresponding quarter of 2011. In August 2012, the country's inflation rate was 11.7% (NBS, 2012).

## **2.1. Manpower Development in Nigeria**

The establishment of higher education institutions in Nigeria began when the colonial authorities launched the Yaba College of Technology in 1932 with the aim of producing middle managers for government departments. Diploma courses were offered ~~in~~ "Engineering, Medicine, Agriculture, Teachers' Education and other vocations" (Ugwuonah & Omeje, 1998). This was followed by the establishment of the University College, Ibadan in 1948. From 1952 to 1955, three polytechnics were established; the Nigerian Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology, Zaria in 1952, Ibadan in 1954 and Enugu in 1955 (Ugwuonah & Omeje, 1998).

The Nigerian government has made an effort to improve the skills, knowledge and aptitude of the nation's labour force for the benefit of employees and to promote economic development (Bukar, & Mwajim, 2012). According to the National Policy on Education (2004), the aim of the Nigerian educational system is to foster the development of the Nigerian people and society at large. The majority of skilled employees are produced by universities, polytechnics and colleges of education (Olakulehin, 2008, p. 124). In 2011, Nigeria had 117 universities, of which 27 were federal government-owned, while 36 were owned by state governments, and 54 were private universities. Nigeria has 72 polytechnics, 50 colleges of health technology, 36 colleges of agriculture and 63 colleges of education according to the National Commission for Colleges of Education, National Board for Technical Education, and National University Commission (2011, cited in Idialu, and Idialu, 2012, p. 57). A total of 1.37 million students were enrolled in universities, polytechnics and colleges of education in 2006; by 2007, this had increased to 1.98 million (NBS, 2011). A hundred and twenty thousand students graduate annually from Nigerian universities and other tertiary institutions and 500,000 students graduate from secondary and vocational schools (Dejene, Mochache, Kunene & Boahene, 2005, p. 1).

Despite the large number of graduates turned out every year, demand for skilled personnel and technicians remains high. The country's educational institutions are perceived to be incapable of responding to shifting labour market needs because of their supply-driven orientation (Dejene, Mochache, Kunene & Boahene, 2005). This stems from the authorities' failure to involve the private sector in vocational and technical education planning and implementation. As a result, the system produces skills that do not match the demands of the Nigerian labour market (Idialu, & Idialu, 2012, p. 57). Out-dated syllabi, teaching equipment, and teaching and assessment methods have led to inefficiencies in the education system and to skills shortages (Bukar, & Mwajim, 2012, p. 249; Duze, 2010, p.119). Consequently, many qualified individuals do not find jobs, while in certain sectors, jobs are available but there is a shortage of skilled and educated candidates. Many university graduates occupy jobs that they were not formally trained for (Eukora, 2003). Therefore, there is a need to renew T&D to increase capacity building. The problem in the public service is a lack of quality employees rather than the numbers employed (Eukora, 2003). Other government policies have not helped to solve this problem (Maikasuwa, 2011; Omodia, 2009, p. 114; Akanji & Bankole, 2007).

From 1997-2002, the Nigerian Government's financial allocation to education was less than 12% of its overall budget. Furthermore, approximately 70-80% of the government's budget is allocated to recurrent items such as salaries (Bukar, & Mwajim, 2012, p. 248; Eukora, 2003). According to the Federal Ministry of Finance (FMF) (2000, p. 36 cited in Eukora, 2003), the 20% of the budget allocated to staff training was either not fully released or was only partially used for training and development programmes (Bukar, & Mwajim, 2012, p. 249). In 2000, Nigeria spent a mere 2.4% per cent of its GDP on education; this trend has not changed. According to 2001 data, the total education budget represented 7% of the Federal Government's annual budget (Ezekwesili (2007 cited in Olakulehin, 2008, p. 125). This explains the low participation rate in higher education; according to Ezekwesili (2007 cited in Olakulehin, 2008, p. 125) only 2% of citizens aged 18-23 enter higher education. The government ministries responsible for technical education seem to be unable to effect improvements in the poorly-performing vocational and technical schools. The number of people enrolled in school rose from 104 in 1948 to 1,096,312 in 2008 (Bukar & Mwajim, 2012). Higher institutions currently produce 120,000 graduates annually and 500,000 students graduate from high schools. The majority of these graduates leave the country in search of greener pastures in Europe and America (Idialu & Idialu, 2012, p. 56). This brain drain is the

result of the Nigerian government's failure to meet the needs and aspirations of its highly educated and skilled professional and technical manpower. As a result, more than 60% of the Nigerian labour force is categorised as unskilled or untrained. A further problem is that Nigerian higher institutions are producing many graduates with skills of questionable quality and applicability Bamiro and Adedeji, (2010, cited in Idialu and Idialu 2012, p. 58; E nukora, 2003). The universities are not producing the skills, knowledge and technology required for growth through indigenous scientific research (Ifedili & Marchie, 2011, p. 400; E nukora, 2003; Olakulehin, 2008, p. 123). The poor quality of education in Nigeria is evident in –staff and student indiscipline, poor remuneration and poor service conditions, dilapidated facilities, cultism, examination malpractice, strike action, sexual harassment, drug abuse and apathy to work and learning” (E nukora, 2003; Ajayi & Ekeundayo, 2008, p. 214) and limited financial allocations (Olakulehin, 2008, p. 123). While the NUC staffing norms required that 33,951 academic staff be appointed to cater for the needs of the 433,871 students registered in 2000, only 18,328 were in the system. This represents an academic staff deficit of 15,718 (46%) (E nukora, 2003). This trend is growing worse over time.

The acute shortage of skilled manpower is illustrated by number of graduates employed in different ministries (Okotoni & Erero, 2005, 2; Teboho, 2000, p. 1). Employed graduates and officers at Grade Levels.08 – 17 level represented less than 50% of employees in 11 of the 20 Ministries evaluated (Adegoroye, 2006; Okotoni & Erero, 2005, 2). The lowest levels were recorded in Police (30.2%), Affairs (32.6%) and Commerce and Labour (34.7%) within the core civil service. The percentage of graduate employees in the ideal age group (that allows for the best performance of their tasks) was less than 15% in 18 of the 20 ministries surveyed. –The overall average ageing was 91.5% among the Officer Grade Levels 08 – 17 i.e. 91.5% of the officers were found to be above average age for their grade levels/position occupied” (Adegoroye, 2006). In summary, less than 50% of employees are graduates and most are not in the age group that allows for the best performance of tasks at their grade levels. This has serious implications for the quality of output and the productivity of public servants as well as the sustainability of the public service itself (Adegoroye, 2006).

It has been reported that Nigeria has one of the world's lowest literacy rates (Ozoemena, 2012). Nigeria was ranked 153<sup>rd</sup> out of 187 countries in the United Nations Development Index in 2012 (Human Development Report 2013); a sign that human capital is extremely underdeveloped in the country. A 2001 nationwide study conducted by the Management

Services Office (MSO), Office of the Head of the Civil Service of the Federation reveals the state of Nigeria's manpower development: (a) 60% of the workforce was made up of employees who were 40 years old and above which portrays an aging workforce; and (b) that 70% of the entire workforce were unskilled staff composed mainly of employees on grade levels 01 – 06 (Adegoroye, 2006, p. 14; Goke, 2006). This demonstrates the urgent need for systematic and regular T&D programmes for the development of civil servants across the country (Akanji & Bankole, 2007).

The Nigerian public's demand for accountability and quality services can only be achieved if employees have the requisite skills and are efficient and competent. This can only be achieved through an efficient training system. If Nigeria is to achieve its dream of 20 2020 Millennium Development Goals, it requires a public service with appropriate skills and competencies (Pepple, 2009; Rwehera, 2009). The overall objective of Vision 20 2020 is that Nigeria will be placed in the bracket of top 20 largest economies of the world by the year 2020, able to achieve a GDP of not less than \$900 billion and a per capita income of not less than \$4000 annum by the year 2020" (Rwehera, 2009, p. 2). Recently the government directed all ministries to plan, run and maintain programmes for training personnel in an effort to improve their competences to the highest possible level (Fajana, 2002, cited in Owoyemi et al., 2011).

Fajana (2002, cited in Owoyemi, et al. 2011) notes that public sector organisations have been criticised for their low levels of workplace T&D. While it has been claimed that the lack of training in Nigerian organisations is caused by employee disinterest, such claims have not been substantiated. Experts have argued that the failure of Nigerian organisations to engage in T&D is a manifestation of the country's economic and organisational culture (Owoyemi, 2011). Low staff morale and productivity and inappropriate employee development practices have characterised the Nigerian civil service (Goke, 2006, p. 9). This has contributed to serious capacity gaps at every level of government-owned organisations. This problem can be attributed to delays in establishing systematic T&D programmes in the civil service, the failure to identify the skills needed and the lack of commitment to upgrade employees' skills (Goke, 2006, p. 9). To improve employees' skills and to make the NRC more attractive to investors, the government has embarked on a total asset rehabilitation campaign for the NRC. One of the transformation strategies is a T&D programmes for its entire workforce.

The Nigerian policy on skills formation highlighted the need for increased productivity and performance in order to ensure the survival of both public and private organisations (Okotoni & Erero, 2005). Generally, the aim of T&D is to upgrade employees' skills and compensate for deficits in the educational system. It also aims to improve productivity and assist employees to cope with the demands of their jobs. Employee development focuses on producing employees with suitable job competences, drive and experience to facilitate the development of their organisations (Alani & Isola, 2009). However, despite specialists' and government functionaries' acknowledgement of the importance of T&D, as articulated in white papers and different reform measures, T&D in the Nigerian public service has not yielded the desired results (Okotoni & Erero, 2005; Yakubu, Kamba, 2011, p. 45). It is important to note that the inadequate emphasis on employee development in the Nigerian public and private sectors is the result of a lack of understanding of the concept. In modern Nigeria, labour has been relegated to the background in relation to other factors of production (Omodia, 2009).

Training in Nigeria has been considered an expense that is only justified when it is absolutely necessary, rather than an investment in the future and the success of government and businesses. Some organisations half-heartedly embrace T&D, implementing it only on a very small scale when deemed necessary (Akanji & Bankole, 2007). Furthermore, many employees view training sessions as an opportunity for free time to make extra money. This explains why training is the first item to be dropped when there is an economic downturn (Kunder, 2000). The improvement and implementation of T&D in Nigeria has been hindered by these attitudes. Some employers send their employees for training with the wrong motive of claiming subsidies from the Industrial Training Fund (ITF) (Akanji & Bankole, 2007). Other do so merely to fulfil government's policy on T&D. It has been shown that "when organizations view public policy as just a financing opportunity, they do not get any returns from training" (Dumas, Hanchanes & Royaume du Maroc, 2010, p. 585).

The Nigerian government adopted a number of measures to promote T&D. The Ashby Commission was established in 1959. One of its mandates was to accelerate manpower training in the country (Okoh, 2002). It is believed that human capital is the most important factor of production, partly because of its ability to coordinate other factors of production to produce goods and services. The Nigerian government has invested in both formal and informal training (off-the-job and on-the-job) as well as adult education to develop human

capital. Employee development in the Nigerian public service assists civil servants to develop specialised skills for efficient and effective job performance, and for the achievement of the strategic goals of the sector or of a particular corporation (Adegroye, 2006). One government initiative was the restructuring of the Nigerian educational system from 6-5-4- to 6-3-3-4 (a change from six years of primary school, five years of secondary school and four years of tertiary education to six years primary school, three years junior secondary, three years senior secondary and four years of tertiary education). This aimed to categorise students according to their capabilities and place them on a proper career path for future development. It sought to address the need for manpower development in different regions of the Federation, and also served as a developmental input to both public and private sector organisations (Omodia, 2009, p.114).

One of Nigeria's initial plans for manpower development was based on the Wolle report of 1969 entitled "a statement of federal government policy on staff development in the federal public service" (Akanji & Bankole, 2007). The T&D approach adopted in Nigeria aims to create organisations that will articulate government policies that offer direction on the application and execution of programmes (Akanji & Bankole, 2007). The head of the federal civil service is responsible for manpower development (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004). The National Policy on Education (NPC) was published in 1977. It has since been revised three times (in 1981, 1998 and 2004). It captures the Nigerian government's intentions with regard to education. The federal government has established agencies whose function is to conduct off-the-job training and development programmes for personnel in the public and private sectors. These agencies are as follows: Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON), Centre for Management Development (CMD), and Agricultural and Rural Management (ARMTI). They are responsible for training technicians and professionals who are earmarked for managerial positions and other special duties. Managers, senior administrators and professionals who are earmarked for leadership positions are trained at the National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies (NIPSS) (United Nations, 2004). Other institutions include the Industrial Training Fund (ITF), the National Centre for Economic Management and Administration (NCEMA) and the Nigerian Institute of Management (NIM). The National Teachers' Institute (NTI) and National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) specialise in off-the-job training for teachers and education personnel (Wapmuk, 2010; Alani & Isola, 2009). The Civil Service College in

Abuja was established to cater for the T&D of middle level and executive management (Adegoroye, 2006, p. 15).

Training and development programmes in Nigeria are established in terms of the Industrial Training Fund (ITF) Act. The ITF was set up via Decree 47 of 1971 to support the acquisition of competences in public and private organisations in an effort to create sufficient personnel to meet the needs of the different segments of the economy (Alani & Isola, 2009). It was intended to enhance human resource performance, increase output and induce value-added production in industry and commerce (Industrial Training Fund Amendment Act, 2011; Maikasuwa, 2011). The Act encourages training for private and public sector employees in order for organisations to develop skills in management and for technical and entrepreneurial development. The ITF also sets and monitors training standards for organisations in different sectors of the economy.

The ITF Act requires employers to contribute to the Fund. In 2004, an employer with more than 25 employees (amended in 2011 to five employees) in his/her establishment or an employer with less than five workers with an annual turnover of #50, 000, 000 (fifty million naira) or more, contributed 1% of their annual payroll. This includes part-time workers who have worked in the establishment for three months (ITF Act, 1971; Maikasuwa, 2011). Organisations are obliged to provide adequate training to indigenous employees and are also obliged to accept students for industrial attachment purposes. Failure to comply with these provisions incurs a penalty of up to N1, 000, 000 (one million) for a corporate body and N100, 000 for the Chief Executive, Secretary or principal officer of the company. Furthermore, all government suppliers, contractors or consultants doing business with the federal government must contribute to the ITF. The Act applies to public and private organisations as well as organisations operating in free trade zones making use of customs services for exports and imports (Maikasuwa, 2011).

The major aim of this legislation is to improve employee performance and enhance organisational productivity as well as encourage the improved participation of proprietors in the establishment of T&D programmes and amenities (Wapmuk, 2010). The ITF is empowered to refund 60% of the levy paid by the proprietors on its list. The aim of the repayment system is to encourage proprietors to train their employees in accordance with the requirements of the diverse sectors of the economy (Akanji & Bankole, 2007). This is

necessary because the skills gaps at all levels of the public service are the consequence of a dearth of logical training, needs analysis and the absence of serious efforts to improve workers' skills (Adegroye, 2006, p.15).

The development of human resources in Nigeria demands that the education system be realigned with the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS). There is an urgent need to cultivate multidimensional skills in the workforce that graduates from Nigerian educational institutions (Ogundele, Hassa & Ibraheem, 2011). These institutions are required to design programmes that accommodate the training needs of the public service in collaboration with public service departments (Balogun, 2011). The government embarked on T&D in order to establish a civil service that is results-oriented. The rationale is to improve operational efficiency in the ministries and raise public officials' standard of performance to the maximum level of proficiency.

In recent times, government has repositioned existing training institutions like the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON), Badagry, the Centre for Management Development and Federal Training Centres, among others. The government is also harnessing opportunities for training activities through international cooperation e.g. the UN, and working with other organisations like ASCON. ASCON was established via Decree No. 39 of 1973; now the ASCON Act, Cap 6, Vol. 1 LFN 1990 to offer higher management training for senior public and private sector executives and to facilitate study courses, conferences, lectures, and seminars (Alani & Isola, 2009). The Centre for Management Development was established through Act 51 of 1976. Its function is to stimulate, promote and coordinate management education, training and development. It coordinates the activities of and directs institutions responsible for training and retraining managerial personnel in Nigeria.

The National Teachers' Institute (NTI) started operations in 1976, and was enabled by Decree No.7 of 1978. The main goal of the NTI is to offer programmes to update and improve teachers' skills as indicated in the relevant curriculum using Distance Education Techniques (Alani & Isola, 2009). In February 2012, the Federal Government opened a #50m (fifty million naira) skill acquisitions centre (a mechanical craft workshop) in Orozo to produce workers who fit the manpower needs of the present stage of the country's development and to

boost manpower development in view of its 2020 objective of becoming one of the top 20 economies of the world (Onuba, 2012).

While it is clear that the Nigerian government has shown much commitment to training, Nwankwo (1968 cited in Balogun 2011) observed that absence of an effective follow-up system of monitoring and evaluating the performance of trainees was a major problem hindering T&D in Nigeria. While millions of Naira was spent on training annually, no kobo was spent on evaluation of training, although the trainers are aware that evaluation provides a feedback to the trainees and the sponsoring organization (Balogun, 2011). Balogun (2001) adds that evaluation of such training is often superficial. The study showed that consulting firms tend to shy away from long-term evaluation of the impact of training on job performance and at the organisational level. Part of the reason for this is that consulting firms lack resources, either in terms of time or the finance necessary for effective training evaluation (Balogun, 2011). They consider the evaluation exercise too costly with no purpose and create the idea that the use of resources for such exercises simply reduces their financial profit (Balogun, 2011). Hence, the current study is regarded as ground-breaking.

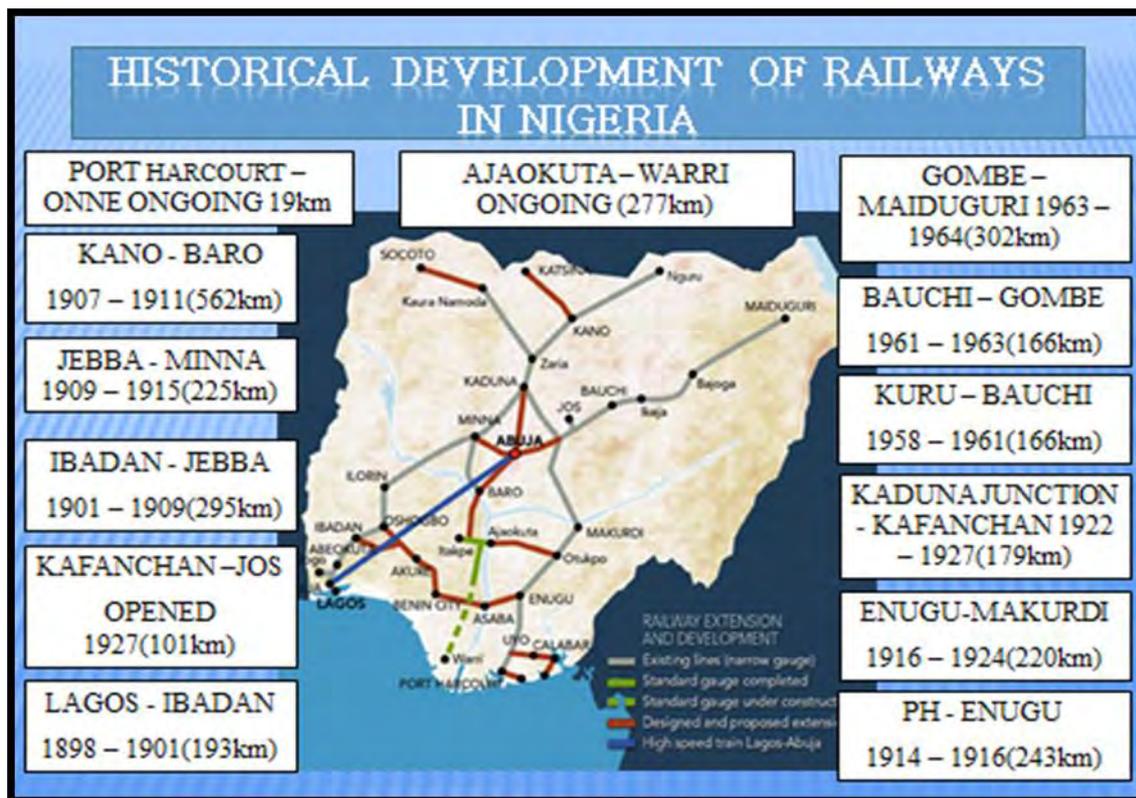
## **2.2. The Nigerian Railway Corporation**

Nigeria has vast natural mineral resources which, coupled with a large population, has increased demand for railway transport. An efficient and growing economy needs transport systems that move people and goods around cheaply and fast (Igbokwe, 2009). The National Transport Policy acknowledges the need to develop a transport system that guarantees accessibility to the different geographical zones of the country (NBS, 2010). The policy on Public Private Partnerships (PPP) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) call for a functional, reliable and effective transport system; the NRC is a major component of such a system (Pepple, 2009). An efficient rail transport system will help to facilitate the production and distribution of goods to different locations and promote the use of public as opposed to private transport.

The NRC was started in 1898 by the British. The first rail line ran from Lagos to Ibadan. Nigeria's railway system has two major rail lines; one from the south to the northern part of the country and connects Lagos in the south to Nguru in the north, and the other from Port Harcourt in the south to Maiduguri in the north. Its network covers more than 3,505

kilometres of main line, 1,067 kilometres of narrow gauge (3'6"), and 338 kilometres of standard gauge (1,435mm). There are 19 kilometres of Port Harcourt-Onne narrow gauge track on standard gauge formation and 338 kilometres standard gauge rail line still under construction of 1435mm that extends from Itakpe-Ajaokuta to Warri (standard gauge). This project was embarked upon to transport iron ore from Itakpe Iron ore to Warri port (NRC, 2011; Obi, 2009).

**Figure 2.1: Historical Development of the NRC**



Sou

Source: NRC (2011) used with Permission (inserted Map of Nigeria from Global Marketing International).

The rail lines were initially established to facilitate the transportation of agricultural produce, e.g., groundnuts, cocoa, cotton and palm products, from inland to the coast from where they were exported to Britain to serve its industrial needs (Punch Editorial Board, 2008; Olusoji, 2004). In modern times it is used to import consumer goods to various parts of the country (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2010). It is used to distribute petroleum products and serves as a mass transit system to different parts of the country (Aderibigbe & Adurokiya, 2011). The production of petroleum has influenced development in Nigeria in a way that was not expected, thereby imposing increasing demand on the railway transport system. The railway

has the potential to provide a well-organised and cost-effective means of transport, mainly for heavy cargo destined for long routes (FGN, 2010). The NRC's Managing Director noted that nearly 700,000 passengers travelled on the new express passenger trains between January and April 2004 (Abubakar, 2004). In light of the repositioning of the Corporation, some organisations, including the oil companies, have expressed interest in doing business with it (NRC, 2011).

The government has recognised the economic potential of the railway system in transforming Nigeria's economy, hence, the awarding of contracts to extend the railways and the recent repositioning of the rail system (National Association of Transport (NAT), 2002). The economic impact of the railway system includes its positive influence on trade and commerce, industrial development and growth; furthermore, it offers employment to many people (NAT, 2002). Investment in the NRC, although much smaller than in other transport sectors, stood at approximately N10 billion in 2001 (FGN, 2011). Railway transport has suffered from decades of neglect which resulted in inadequate maintenance and the deterioration of the system. The railway system has been significantly reconstructed and modernised in recent times. The signalling and telecommunications system is being upgraded from manual to semi-automatic. Carriage and wagon workshops are in the process of being restored, workshops are being reequipped and the NRC has embarked on strategic repositioning in an effort to make it an attractive means of transportation. Nigerian Railway Corporation management has taken up the challenge to transform the corporation to its former glory, by providing efficient services to cargo owners and improved safety and operational performance to the numerous commuters (NRC, 2011).

Irrespective of its industrial capacity, the size of the population and technological advancement, every nation requires a transport system that works. A nation with an inefficient rail system may not achieve meaningful economic growth irrespective of its economic policies. Similarly, the transformation and growth of the Nigerian economy could be influenced to a certain extent by the development of the railway system (Sanni, 2004). During the colonial era, the NRC was strong and economically feasible and contributed significantly to the British industrial revolution. It served as the most efficient means of transportation by which the colonialists gained access to hinterland for agricultural products (Esan, 2010, p. 17). Railways are seen as the lowest energy consuming mode of transport, as well as the best means of mass transportation in any country (Olusoji, 2004, p. 9). Past

neglect by the government, transport policies, implementation, funding constraints and consistent staff depletion through retrenchments have led to its present poor condition (Esan, 2010, p. 11, NRC, 2012). Decades of neglect prevented the Nigerian railway system from achieving its mission and vision of becoming competitive and establishing an efficient and reliable transport system. This hindered its quest to promote safety and security and the faster movement of goods and people through reformed and organised administrative procedures (Esan, 2010, p. 11).

Rail transport in many parts of the world is facing the challenge of providing more efficient services to serve the needs of the economy and meet society's expectation of mobility (Corsini, 2004, p.7). Despite recent improvements in the Nigerian railway system, it still contributes less than .5% to GDP (Igbokwe, 2009). This is due to past neglect and stiff competition from road, air and sea transport which has negatively affected its performance. Passengers and goods previously carried by railways have virtually been taken over by road and sea transport; something that the federal government wants to turn around. The main objective of the NRC is to offer efficient and safe transportation of passengers and goods that is cost effective and offers value for money, improved market share and quality service. However, a much reduced, ill-motivated and inefficient workforce and management neglect have reduced the NRC to its present dilapidated and degraded state (Aderibigbe, & Adurokiya, 2011; Agha, 2007). The NRC is less able to compete because the rail routes are poor, old and dilapidated. All these factors have led to a reduction in the number of trains and passengers (Esan, 2010).

**Table 2.1: Performance Profile of the NRC**

<b>46 YEARS PERFORMANCE PROFILE</b>		
<b>YEAR</b>	<b>PASSENGER</b>	<b>FREIGHT</b>
1964	11,288,000	2,960,000
1974	4,288,000	1,098,000
1984	15,000,000	1,182,000
1994	784,802	106,000
2004	1,751,159	62,575
2006	798,802	41,495
2007	1,478,700	36,758
2008	1,996,324	47,409
2009	1,285,080	52,489
2010	1,514,215	141,247
2011	3,493,443	341,396

**Source: NRC Management (2012), used with permission**

The poor asset base and decline in the NRC's performance in recent times are illustrated by its operational statistics in relation to the number of passengers, freight traffic, revenue and available locomotives (see table 2.1). In 1964, the NRC carried an average of 11 million passengers and 2,960,000 tonnes of freight; in 2010 it carried about 1.5 million passengers (Agha, 2007). The present condition of the NRC has led to moribund traffic and diminishing capacity to serve its customers which have led to a huge loss in income (FGN, 2010). This state of affairs improved once government embarked on the rehabilitation of the corporation: the number of passengers increased from 1,514,215 to 3,493,442 in 2011, a more than 100% increase, thanks to massive T&D initiatives in the 2010 financial year.

During the 1980s, the NRC employed a workforce of more than 33,000; by 2011, this had shrunk to just 6,000 employees (Aderibigbe, & Adurokiya, 2011). It currently has a total workforce of 6,322, comprised of 3,330 junior and 3,992 senior staff, of which 4,021 and 2,301 are technical and administrative employees, respectively (NRC, 2010). One thousand three hundred and twenty eight (1,328) of these employees are based in Lagos (the location of this study), of which 878 are administrative staff and 450 are technical staff. Eight hundred and eleven (811) are junior staff and 517 are senior staff. In an effort to turn around the fortunes of the NRC, the goal is to transform its structure to a competent, flexible and

competitive form. Furthermore, the authorities have resolved to turn around the poor state of the Nigerian railway system in order for it to participate fully in the nation's transport system (FGN, 2010). All the major stations are being rehabilitated and five contracts have been awarded for refurbishing wagon and coach facilities. Training workshops in Enugu, Zaria, Kafanchan and Lagos are also undergoing rehabilitation (Esan, 2010, p.3; Madza, 2002, p. 7).

### **2.3. Nigerian Railway Corporation Manpower Development Initiatives**

All stakeholders agree that there is an urgent need for a renewed NRC, capable of establishing a serviceable, competent and viable railway system in Nigeria (RGN, 2010). Furthermore, the authorities have realised the importance of efficient human resources to enhance the corporation's performance. Competent human resources are also vital for the planning, maintenance and operation of infrastructure and for achieving the organisation's objectives (Khadijat, 2005). Like any other business venture, the success of the NRC will depend on the quality and quantity of the employees available to develop and implement its strategic business plan. The government has acknowledged that improving the efficiency of railway transport will depend on T&D to create a new management system (FGN, 2010). It also recognises the serious shortage of knowledge and capacity challenges and the importance of an adequate manpower pool to confront future challenges. The importance of improving management capabilities among employees and managers in public organisations cannot be overemphasised. Consequently the NRC has adopted T&D as a core strategy to cope with ever-increasing competitive pressure and demands for efficiency and better services.

Training effectiveness is a measure of whether training achieves its intended outcomes (Laoledchai, Wee Land & Low, 2008). Although the government has spent millions on T&D, there have been few studies on the impact of training on public enterprises' performance (Leake & Parry 2008; Sun & Ross, 2009; NAN, 2010; Kaufman, 1985). Furthermore, evaluations of the influence of T&D on public organisations have not received serious attention or traditionally have not been undertaken due to the changes that occur when one group of administrators replaces another. Either the succeeding administrators are not aware of the economic impact of T&D or they deliberately downplay its implementation (Huquea & Vyasb, 2008; Healy & Ireland, 2001; Aragón-Sánchez, Barba-Aragón, Sanz-Valle, 2003; Alani & Isola, 2009).

The authorities have also realised that little will be achieved by improving rail transport infrastructure in the absence of the improvement of its manpower base. The Nigerian government has resolved to install a dynamic management team in the rail industry that will allow the Corporation to emerge as a leader in the country's transport sector. Twenty five locomotive engine drivers have undergone training in South Africa in order to enable them to operate 25 new locomotive engines imported from Brazil (Esan, 2010, p. 37). The training was designed by the federal government to balance infrastructural acquisitions with staff reinforcements. In 2010, the NRC conducted strategic workshops in Lagos and in other parts of the country to enhance efficiency and innovation in operational and commercial services among the senior officers. The Lagos workshop was a strategic initiative to improve operational efficiency and the commercial viability of the corporation (Esan, 2010, p. 38). Furthermore, as stated by Sijuwade, the Managing Director of the NRC, it aimed to strengthen employees' roles as the main operations and commercial officers by improving their competencies in contemporary business approaches and ideas (Esan, 2010, p. 38). He added that the workshop would help participants understand the features and uniqueness of the strategic directions to reclaim and reposition NRC to be more efficient and successful.

The Mechanical/Electrical staff in all the geo-political zones of the corporation underwent training in Lagos organised by the NRC in conjunction with General Electric in 2010. This aimed to enable these employees to operate and maintain the recently imported locomotive engines. An expert from General Electric remained in Nigeria to provide further training and improve the competence of the maintenance staff in relation to the new locomotive engines. Other training experiences included a month-long training for new employees to serve as an induction process (Esan, 2010, p. 38). This training was organised for 200 new employees in the five geo-political zones of the country. Senior station masters, station masters, shunters, cabin operators and level crossing keepers were among this group (Adekanmbi, 2010). Frankieszer Peacock International in Ibadan organised a two-month training programme on basic computer skills at the railway premises. The training included Computer Appreciation, Microsoft Word and Excel, Corel Draw and the Internet (Adekanmbi, 2010, p. 39). The NRC managing director assured employees that further training would be provided (Adekanmbi, 2010).

These development initiatives launched by Adeseyi Sijuwade, the NRC Managing Director and Chief Executive Officer (CEO) have raised employee morale. T&D, which was previously restricted to the advantaged few, is now available to every member of the workforce. Training opportunities are available irrespective of an employee's status; this will enable the NRC to contribute to economic growth through an effective and efficient transportation system and the safe and smooth movement of passengers and goods (Nwachukwu, 2011). The NRC also has a continuous programme of employee development in place that utilises the skills of experienced and efficient senior workers and managers (NRC, 2011).

#### **2.4. Conclusion**

The Nigerian government has made concerted efforts to improve the competency levels of the nation's labour force, by establishing a number of training schemes to encourage manpower development. Moreover, the Nigerian policy on skills formation highlighted the need for increased productivity and performance as important prerequisites for the competitive survival of both public and private organizations in the country. In recent times the government has embarked on capacity building to upgrade the skills of civil servants, by repositioning existing training institutions. Unfortunately these efforts have not yielded the expected outcomes, as there is still a mismatch between the skills produced and the actual skills needs of Nigerian organisations. The acute shortage of skilled manpower is demonstrated by the fact that graduates officers at grade levels 08 – 17 constitute less than 50% of staff in 11 of the 20 ministries evaluated. The evidence suggests that the long-term infrastructural decay of the nation's higher education and training institutions has contributed to the serious capacity gaps experienced at all levels of public corporations' departments and productivity among Nigerian civil servants. The NRC's long-term infrastructural decay has drastically reduced its flow of customers and led to financial difficulties. The authorities have recognised the importance of efficient human resources for the enhancement of the corporation's performance. They also recognise the serious shortage of knowledge and the capacity challenges confronting the Corporation and the importance of an adequate manpower pool to address future challenges. To address the present employees' skill shortages and to render the NRC attractive to investors, the government has embarked on a total asset rehabilitation campaign in the NRC. One of the strategies to achieve the total transformation of the NRC is intensive T&D programmes for its entire workforce. The NRC

has therefore put a series of T&D initiatives in place to improve improving the skills of its entire workforce and to boost organisational productivity.

The following chapter discusses the theories that underpin the study and demonstrates their links to T&D and individual and organisational performance outcomes. The effective management of T&D is also discussed.

## CHAPTER 3

### THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

#### 3.0. Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the broad Nigerian context and efforts made towards the T&D of the country's workforce. It also discussed the historical background of the NRC and its T&D activities aimed at repositioning the moribund Corporation. The present chapter discusses the theories that underpin this study. These theories support and authenticate the study's validity. They are the platform upon which this study was built and provided the theoretical assumptions that underlie its research aims and objectives. These theories as well as essential practices (suggested framework) for the effective management of T&D interventions form the main content of the present chapter.

#### 3.1. Theoretical Background in Training and development

Holton (1996), whose model this study is partially based on, is a Professor of Human Resource Development. His work built on that of Baldwin and Ford (1988, p. 63) who posited that for trainees or employees to use their new competences, what they learn must be relevant to their job requirements and for a reasonable length of time on the job. Holton (1996) and Holton et al. (2008) presented a conceptual evaluation and research model which posits that HRD outcomes are a function, ability, motivation and environmental influence at three outcome levels: learning, the individual and the organisation. A secondary variable in the form of individual characteristics influences motivation. His model indicates that the primary outcome of training interventions is learning, which helps to improve individual and organizational performance (Alaweh, 2008). Holton, Bates, Seyler, & Carvalho (1997) pointed out that improving performance is an important objective of T&D; they proposed that learning is of little value to an organisation until it transferred to performance. Thus, skills and knowledge learnt from training lead to value creation and are a function of many factors example, the extent to which employees are motivated to transfer their skills. Is the training designed in such a way that it is transferable by relating it to the organisation's strategic goals and objectives? How ready are employees to learn and utilise learning on the job and is there a favourable environment that encourages trainees to transfer such learning? It is important

to note that the best way to improve training transfer is by accurately analysing the factors influencing transfer and making efforts to remedy the inhibiting ones. This model was adopted for the study because it provides a theoretical basis to discuss the association between skills and knowledge learned during T&D programmes, and organisational performance. This chapter also discusses other theories that indirectly connect T&D and organisational performance.

### HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model

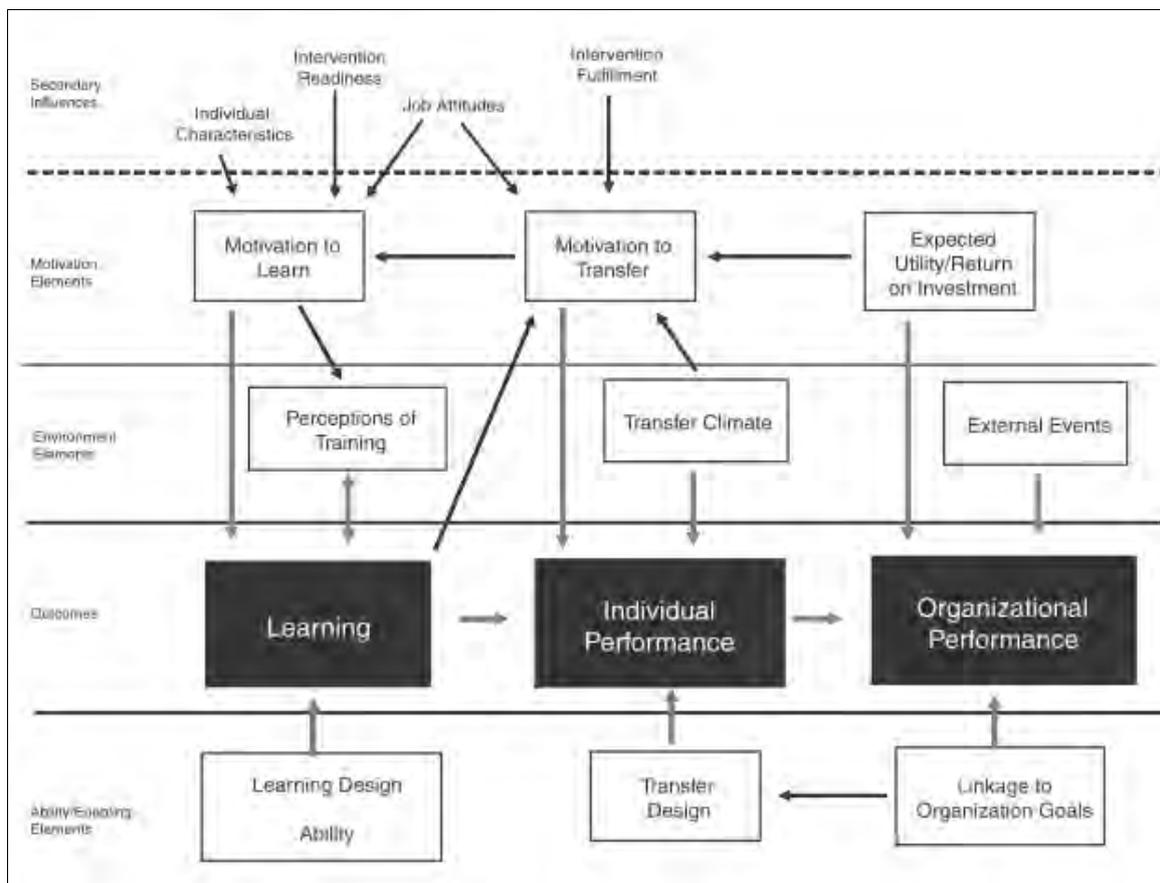


Figure 3.1: Adapted from Holton (1996) HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model. Used with permission.

Senge (1999) highlighted the importance of continuous learning for both the individual and the organisation. He pointed out that organisations that desire to do well in a competitive marketplace will undoubtedly depend on learning and that all barriers to the continuous development of knowledge and new ideas should be eradicated. A learning organisation, according to Senge (1999), continuously develops its employees, acquires new ideas and is open to innovation. His learning organisation model is based on the assumption that

knowledge learned leads to “greater motivation, flexibility, more creativity, improved social interaction”. Effective teams/groups share knowledge and are mutually dependent. The benefits to organisations include increased production, more efficient products, greater advantage over competitors and an increase in profit margins (Vermic, 2009). Senge’s (1999) hypotheses are indirectly related to the present study in the sense that they do not detail how the new skills and knowledge learned can be transferred or utilised in the workplace; this is a major concern of this study. However, Senge (1999) does discuss T&D’s impact on organisational performance; this partly supports Holton’s assertions (1996). The shortcoming of Senge’s work is the lack of empirical evidence to support his suppositions. The only well-known study was carried by Bates and Khasawneh (2005, p. 106) in which it was indicated that “learning organisation culture can predict learning transfer climate and that both of these factors can account for significant variance in the perceived innovative capacity of an organisation”.

The human capital theoretical framework did not explicitly demonstrate a link between T&D and workplace performance, but did so indirectly. The theory was based on the assumption that investment in T&D programmes enhances gains in employees’ lifetime earnings. Human capital can be referred to as the knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes embodied in a person that will help him/her to improve his/her performance and effectiveness. The skills or competencies embodied in human capital generally pay off in the form of enhanced productivity, which, when valued by the labour market, results in positive outcomes, e.g., promotion. In the same manner, companies train their employees to acquire skills that enhance their productivity (Rita, Dobbs, Sun & Roberts, 2008). Therefore, the main contention of human capital theory is the supposed association between training and skills and knowledge acquisition, an increase in productivity and the ability to compete favourably in the labour market which eventually results in higher earnings for employees (Dobbs et al., 2008). Therefore, training policy which depends on human capital theory and is resource-based will have a significant influence on organisational performance (Garcia, 2005).

Equally important is Becker's (1993) classic study which explained how investment in a person’s education and training is similar to business investment in equipment. He also considers education and training to be the most important investment in human capital. Becker (1993) indicated that human capital emphasises the knowledge, expertise, and skills of an individual accumulated through education and training. The fundamental assumption of

this theory lies in the belief that education and training bring about increased learning. This enhances individual and organisational performance as well as business earnings (Marimuthu, Arokiasamy & Ismail, 2009).

A resource-based view of a firm is a theoretical model that deals with training and firm performance (Swanson & Arnold, 1996). This model suggests that for a firm's resources to sustain competitive advantage or become a source of competitive advantage, they must have four attributes: be valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, or be replicated by other organisations in the industry (Swanson & Arnold, 1996). These primary sources necessary for sustained competitive advantage are imbedded in human capital. Tacit knowledge learned through T&D cannot or will be difficult to replicate by other competing organisations. Thus, T&D can be seen as an investment in human capital that provides workers with exceptional knowledge, skills and ability that can add value to the organisation and improve performance (Ostroff & Bowen, 2000). While they did not explicitly link training to improved organisational performance, they indirectly indicated that T&D initiatives can impact on trainees' tacit competencies thereby enhancing their job performance and ensuring the survival of the organisation.

Social exchange theory Homans (1958) posits that people enter into a relationship with the aim of making the best use of the benefits they will obtain (Cook & Rice, 2003, p. 54; Devan, 2006; Dysvik & Kuvas, 2008). The relationship between social exchange theory and T&D and employees' performance can be explained in this manner. Employers provide training as an opportunity for employees to develop and be productive. Employees, on the other hand, endeavour to work hard on a given task and other related duties as a way of reciprocating the gesture from management; hence improved performance (Dysvik & Kuvas, 2008). Thus, a give-and-take formal obligation between employer and employees is moderated by the expectations of both parties in relation to the T&D offered by the employer. Therefore, providing T&D for employees may be regarded as a social exchange between the workers and management. This process starts when an organisation signals its readiness to accommodate its employees' interests by offering T&D opportunities. Employees reciprocate by showing positive attitudinal and behavioural responses that assist the company in fulfilling its business objectives (Newman et al., 2011; Kavaas & Dysvikm, 2010). Numerous studies have shown that employees regard a T&D opportunity as sign that their organisation desires to enter into a social exchange with them (Newman et al., 2011).

Furthermore, according to Malhotra et al. (2007) cited in Newman, Thanacoody and Hui (2011) individuals increase their organisational commitment if the organisation meets their expectations in relation to the fulfilment of their various individual needs. Employers want employees to be more productive and loyal, while employees, on the other hand, want a better career, job security and self-development (Bulut & Osman, 2010). Social exchange theory does not directly demonstrate that T&D will improve organisational performance per se. Rather, it suggests that T&D can serve an incentive or motivating factor for employees to become more committed to the organisation in exchange for future rewards. Thus, more committed employees are more productive. Nonetheless, this theory does help to establish the link between T&D and improved organisational performance.

This assumption is further explained by the reinforcement theory Skinner, F. Frederic (1957 and Joseph T. Klapper (1960), which posits that behaviour is controlled by its consequences (Ellis & Johnson, 2014; Heath, 2007). That is to say, individuals will repeat behaviour which seems to produce good results or pleasant consequences, for instance, a wage increase or promotion (Jonck, 2001). Employees expect that attending training programmes will enable them to acquire skills. They believe that these new skills will enable them to perform better in their jobs, which will lead to pleasant consequences like an increase in salary. Those who believe in the above assumptions will put more effort into the training itself. They will also be motivated to make better use of the knowledge and skills learned during training, hence the increase in performance. Furthermore, output/productivity increases because the perceived interest shown in employees by offering them training suggests that management has a special interest in their future career; this will motivate them to perform better as a way of reciprocating the favour.

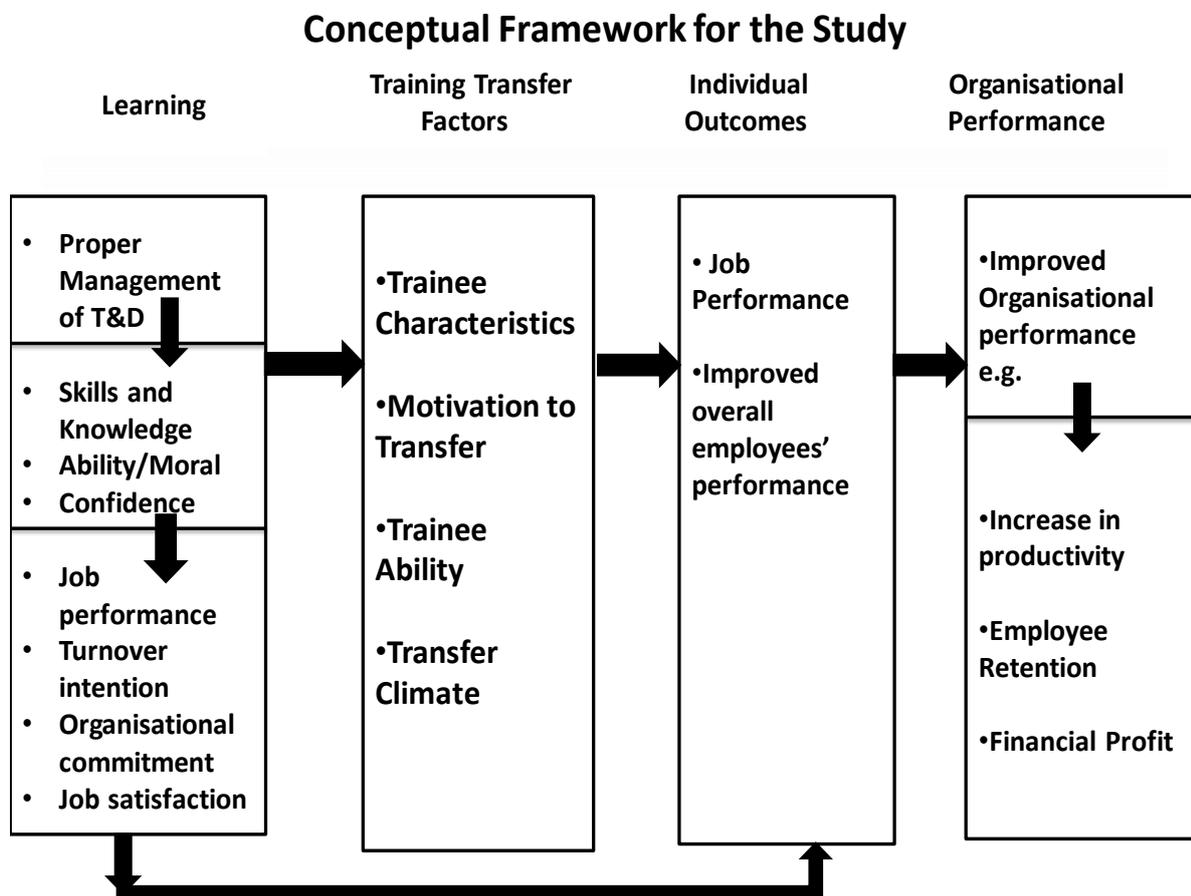
Guest (1987) developed a theoretical framework to demonstrate how HRM policies can affect human resources and organisational outcomes. The importance of Guest's model is the fact that it is an analytical framework for studying the relationship between HRM policies and firm performance. He acknowledged that commitment is a vital outcome, concerned with the goal of associating employees with organisational performance. This theory implies that T&D can play a role in HRM and contribute to improved strategic integration, employee commitment, and quality. Invariably these HRM outcomes lead to high job performance, high problem-solving ability, high cost effectiveness, low turnover intention and reduced

absenteeism (Guest, 1987). Again this theory did not explicitly show that T&D impacts or leads to organisational performance. Training is simply treated as one element of the HRM bundle which impacts on positive organisational outcomes.

Goal-setting is a motivational theory that enables us to analyse and understand the relationship between transfer of training and organisational performance. Goal-setting theory posits that “conscious behavior is purposeful and it is regulated by goals” (Johnson, Garrison, Hernez-Broome, Fleenor & Steed, 2012, p. 557). Generally when people set goals they are more likely to achieve them, as goal setting increases the obligation and enthusiasm to fulfill that goal. The bottom line of this theory lies in the relationship between consciously set goals, intentions and task performance. According to Gyatso (2007) —“a goal is a behavioural intention that channels efforts in a certain direction through the setting of, and striving for a specific standard of proficiency of behaviour within a specified time limit”. Performance goals target improvement relative to an individual’s past job performance (e.g. increased ability to perform a major task). To apply this theory to T&D and organisational performance, this study posits that an individual puts more effort into T&D with the goal of gaining more skills and knowledge to enable him/her to become more efficient in the workplace and improve job performance. In becoming more efficient, he/she becomes more productive and this can earn him/her promotion or an increase in earnings. In other words, a performance goal will encourage an employee to transfer what was learned to the work situation in order to achieve his/her goal of participating in training (Tharenou et al., 2007). Goal-setting is a motivational theory and does not directly explain the relationship between T&D and increased performance, but it can indirectly explain how T&D can motivate employees to be more committed to the organisation. There is no theory that demonstrates that T&D can directly influence individual and organisational performance. Nonetheless, the theories considered above indicate how T&D initiatives can motivate employees to learn and to apply their learning on the job, which eventually leads to an increase in individual and organisational performance.

### 3.2. Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual model of this study was based partly on the Holton (1996) HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model and Holton III & Bates's (2008) Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) Measuring model, as well as the author's research findings. The Holton et al. (1996) model was modified through an extensive review of secondary literature by the author. The framework aims to demonstrate an understanding of how consideration of some essential practises in the formulation, implementation and execution of T&D can influence individual and organisational outcomes. Furthermore, the framework was structured, designed and analysed to develop an understanding of the activities and interrelationship between T&D and factors that influence the transfer of training in an



organisation.

**Figure: 3.2. Conceptual Framework for the Study: (Adopted and modified from the structure of Holton III & Bates, (1996), through secondary research finding by the author). An extension of Holton 111 (1996) model.**

This framework is grounded on the concept that an effective T&D system is based on effective and systematic planning and administration of a T&D strategy. Furthermore, it posits that T&D transfer is based on a number of already known factors: motivation to transfer; trainee ability and transfer climate, as well as the secondary variable, trainee characteristics, which influence motivation (Dorji, 2005). It also assumes that T&D can improve employees' competences, which leads to improved job performance, organisational commitment, low turnover intention, and job satisfaction. These premises will be used as the basis of evaluation for the present study. It is appropriate to discuss each of these suggested essential strategic factors in order to determine how they can contribute to the success of T&D programmes.

### 3.3. Proposed Framework for Essential Strategic T&D Practices

One of the major aims of this study was to propose a framework for T&D practices. Figure 3.3 below presents the proposed framework for T&D essential practices that was formulated after an extensive literature review by the author. A more detailed explanation is provided below.



Figure: 3.3. Source (Formulated through secondary research findings by the author)

### **3.3.1. Organisation's Strategic Objectives**

A common problem encountered by trainers is offering a T&D course that is not applicable to strategic organisational objectives (Sun & Rose, 2009). The major key strategic goal of many organisations is to improve the efficiency of their human assets through engagement in T&D which enables them to improve their bottom-line. It has been demonstrated that many organisations that make substantial investments in training earn more financially per employee and have higher profit per employee (Smith, 2011). Therefore, understanding an organisation's strategic plan or objectives is very important because it helps to develop the aims of T&D initiatives that accomplish its strategic objectives. The assumption is that for T&D initiatives to be effective in promoting organisational growth, the organisation's strategic business objectives must drive its efforts. For T&D to be truly meaningful and useful to the organisation, it should be conducted with the sole aim of achieving its strategic objectives. The main objectives of T&D are to equip employees with the skills and experience they need to perform better in order to help the organisation achieve its aims and objectives. Consequently, who are to be trained and for what skill are the function of the organisation's strategic business objectives. Both long-term and short-term business objectives should be considered. The consideration of strategic business objectives takes precedence in T&D programmes because they serve as a road map, which everything else follows. Successful T&D interventions should be linked to other key drivers of successful business growth. Once the strategic objectives have been considered, internal and external factors that may affect T&D programmes should be taken into account.

### **3.3.2. Environmental Scanning**

A number of environmental factors may affect the content of T&D programmes. Organisations are complex and are influenced by many environmental factors; therefore, it is necessary to assess these factors before deciding on the T&D needs of the organisation and its employees (Mahmoud, Salah & Abdunaser, 2010, p. 57). Organisational strategy is influenced by external environmental factors. In the same way, T&D policies and objectives can be influenced and shaped by such factors (Flanagan, 2010). Environmental scanning helps to establish these factors so as to respond to their challenges and needs; such factors

include the political, economic, social and technological environments. The political environment refers, for example, to government regulations on training, while economic factors may include, amongst other things, changes in customer demand and complaints. Social factors may include demographic changes (for example, an increase in the number of women in the workplace). Technological factors include changes in technology that may affect work processes or productivity and service performance; for instance, the use of new locomotives in the NRC calls for drivers to be trained to use them (Rainbird, 2006). The rationale for conducting environmental scanning is best summarised in the following statement by the ILC (2008).

–To understand the importance of T&D for organisation and the need to engage in it, the sources of productivity change must be reviewed and the rapidly changing context, both inside and outside the enterprise, must be noted. The changing context has a profound impact on the strategies that are available to enterprises and on their training needs”. (ILC (2008)

Furthermore, scanning the organisation’s business environment will uncover important information that may positively influence T&D activities and their outcomes. A T&D programme’s success depends partly on the availability of information on the business environment. Environmental scanning provides a deeper understanding of the organisational setting, the company’s goals and T&D opportunities (HR Magazine, 2008).

An effective T&D programme should consider government policies regarding T&D as well as new technologies and their possible influence on training programmes. Furthermore, the challenges faces businesses call for careful evaluation of organisations’ market position in order to be able to determine what talent, skills and knowledge they need to be successful (HR Magazine, 2008). Environmental scanning should be accompanied by T&D needs analysis (TNA), as both influence the T&D’s success.

### **3.3.3. Training and Development Needs Analysis (TNA)**

Training needs analysis is the first and most important step in any training process. The aim is to improve training and company effectiveness as it makes no sense for an organisation to embark on a training programme that is not relevant to its needs (Obisi, 2011). Needs analysis involves the proper diagnosis and prioritising of unique information to establish the training needs of employees, the organisation and the tasks in order to identify appropriate

training and avoid wasting resources (Akinfolarin and Alimi, 2011, p. 104; Opperman & Meyer, 2008; Ching-Yah, Phyra & Keomony, 2007, p. 845). Many organisations do not have sufficient information to determine what should be included or excluded in a training programme. In Nigeria, training is usually designed by public institutions other than the organisation conducting the training (Sehindemi, 2010; Adamu, 2008). Repeating what an employee already knows can be very boring for trainees as well as frustrating for trainers.

Training needs analysis allows T&D choices to be made (Clarke, 2011, p. 141). An organisation examines what is lacking or the gaps between what they have and what they don't have or what they need to have in order to improve performance (Edralin, 2011; Stringfellow, 2011; Fowler, 2009; Business Performance Pty Ltd, 2008). It identifies the deficits in the skills and knowledge of individual employees that hamper them from achieving a certain level of proficiency (Husain, 2001; Balogun, 2003; Brown, 200; Erasmus, 1999, p.53). It helps to determine the gap between what an organisation is able to produce now and what it needs to produce to remain competitive and make a profit (Onuka, 2006).

Effective needs analysis is essential in today's changing workplace, where employees need to come to grips with new technology and flexible production processes; this requires that they upgrade their skills and knowledge on a constant basis (Patton & Pratt, 2002, p. 465; Kunder, 2000). Training can impact positively and effectively on organisational performance when it is guided by the results of TNA (Chi & Lin, 2008). Like feasibility studies, TNA is an important tool that provides the information necessary to provide effective training opportunities (Rycus & Hughes, 2000). In the context of the current global economic meltdown and financial downsizing, organisations must make optimum use of their training time and resources. This requires that they identify training needs before training takes place (Sriyan de Silva, January 1997). Cau-Bareillea, Gaudartb & Delgouletc (2012) found that problems encountered by older workers in adapting to new work methods were more a sign of organizational problems to do with the management of change rather than training problems due to age". The T&D department should identify employees' current skills, knowledge and abilities and compare these with the desired levels for the company and employees to be successful (Husain, 2011; Meyer, 2002). TNA provides answers to questions like: why is training needed in the organisation? What training do employees need to perform

their tasks effectively; which individuals or group of individuals need training; and what type of T&D method/s should be used? (Wexley & Latham, 1991).

Training need analysis also provides a basis for evaluating training and helps the organisation align T&D with its strategic plan (Blanchard and Thacker, 2010). In the absence of such analysis, T&D outcomes will rest on mere speculation and the training offered may serve little or no purpose (Fowler, 2009). Needs analysis is necessary because it helps planners to determine the conditions under which T&D activities will take place. Not all organisational problems can be addressed through training; some may just require advice from managers or a change in an individual's attitude and/or the organisational culture. Different types of organisational problems call for different measures; furthermore some call for specific training methods (Bratton, 2003).

It has been noted that the majority of organisations in Nigeria do not normally conduct training needs assessment before training takes place (Obisi, 2011; Akinfolarin & Alimi, 2011, p. 104), especially those that make use of external consultants. This may result in the training budget being reduced because management does not realise the need for T&D. Furthermore, little learning transfer will take place because the needs of employees and the organisation were not properly diagnosed prior to training taking place. The result is that employees' skills and knowledge are not upgraded and their performance levels remain unchanged.

#### **3.3.3.1. Importance of Needs Analysis**

Training needs analysis helps HR managers to obtain facts to solicit support from top management for the implementation of T&D. An obvious means of obtaining management's attention and support is to demonstrate that training directly affects activities in the organisation's various departments. Management tends to support training when it is demonstrated that trainees perform better on the job after the exercise. Both employers and employees need to be motivated and this can be achieved by giving them reasons why training should be conducted and why they need to participate in it. Such information can only be obtained through conducting TNA. The TNA report provides a point of reference for the performance levels, skills and knowledge of the organisation and its individuals before

the training. It helps to highlight any shortfall in the skills and attitude employees need to perform their jobs effectively (Akinfolarin & Alimi, 2011, p. 104).

TNA should determine how the training programme will fit with future organisational strategic plans and objectives, by identifying the skills needs and specifying the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation. Lack of TNA not only contributes to a lack of application of the skills learnt, but also has the potential to waste resources and time. Some organisations spend substantial amounts of money on training more employees than they actually need or on training the wrong employees (Capps & Capps, 2005).

**Table 3.1.: Essential Areas for TNA**

<b>Essential Areas for TNA</b>	
<b>Reason for T&amp;D</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establish the needs, motives and process.</li> </ul>
<b>Establish what is Lacking</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establish what the individual and the organisation lacks now that would be achieved after training? E.g. skills, behaviour, knowledge, ability, performance, job satisfaction etc.</li> </ul>
<b>What need to be Achieved?</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Establish the aims and objectives of the training.</li> <li>• Establish the cost and expected benefits.</li> </ul>
<b>Select Appropriate Delivery Method/s</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ascertain appropriate and cost effective training methods.</li> <li>• Establish the venue.</li> </ul>
<b>Budget Approval</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Present budget to the management for approval.</li> </ul>

**Source: Adopted and modified from Fowler (2009) and Mello (2006, p.406) through secondary research findings**

### 3.3.3.2. Levels of Needs Analysis

In any organisation there are different levels of needs; these should be considered when developing and implementing T&D programmes (Rycus & Hughes, 2000). It is important to analyse the organisation's skills availability in relationship to current job needs, as well as

future tasks prior to T&D activities (Meyer, 2007). There are three different levels of needs: individuals, the tasks and organisational needs. A proper needs analysis at all three levels will guarantee the consideration of the overall needs of the organisation, the specific needs of individual employees and the tasks (NCVO, 2011). Training and development is not meant to exclusively correct skills and knowledge challenges; other more subtle factors impact on an employee's performance which can only be identified through TNA.

Details of each of the following levels of need are discussed because of their importance to T&D success:

- a. Operational level analysis
- b. Job/tasks level analysis
- c. Employee level analysis

#### **3.3.3.3. Organisational Level Analysis**

TNA at the organisational level studies the organisation as a whole. This requires a study of the entire organisation's work environment. Existing level of employees performance are measured against industry standards (Erasmus, Leadolff, Mda, & Nel, 2008; Wexley & Latham, 1991). TNA at the organisational level reviews the organisation's strategy and operational plans and requires that trainers have a strategic picture of the organisation's business objectives, performance and future direction. Other important factors include the organisation's mission statement, philosophy, values, structure, goals and task demands (Hayes, 2007). At this stage, the TNA starts with an evaluation of actual organisational performance with the aim of identifying problems in performance, skills, and knowledge and comparing these with the desired standard (Husain, 2011).

Furthermore, TNA at organisational level looks for problems that might be solved through training interventions; examples include production problems, job dissatisfaction, low organisational commitment and so forth (Husain, 2011). Other issues to consider are the quality of human resources and constraints so that an appropriate training programme can be developed that matches workplace requirements (Meyer, 2007). Needs analysis at organisational level should examine the availability of competences in various departments and divisions as well as indicators of organisational ineffectiveness such as labour output,

accidents, loss of profit, absenteeism, customer complaints, low quality products and poor service delivery. Generally, organisational level analysis should reveal problems or potential problems in the organisation, which will help to determine where training is needed. The failure of training to change employee behaviour and improve organisational performance has been attributed to weak connections between the content of the training and the actual needs of the organisation (O'Driscoll, 2007).

Needs analysis at organisational level must pay attention to changes in the laws and regulations of the host country (Brown, 2002). Any change in the laws or rules governing T&D will partly determine an organisation's training needs. Employees and management alike may need to be sensitised about new laws and regulations and the consequences of violating them.

#### **3.3.3.4. Task Level Analysis**

Task or job analysis is a reputable method of identifying the skills and knowledge required to carry out tasks in an organisation (Wilson, 2005). T&D's impact on performance or return on investment largely depends on whether the T&D programme is designed in such a way that the skills learnt can be applied to current task requirements. In other words, the knowledge and skills learned during T&D must be relevant to the tasks that employees will perform in the workplace (Eramus et al., 2008). Needs analysis at this level starts with an analysis of job requirements regardless of the person doing the job and is mainly concerned with the analysis of the specific content or information of current jobs. It asks questions like: what are the job requirements in terms of human resources? (Opperman, 2008, p.13). TNA considers the following questions: what jobs are to be performed and what are the prerequisite skills and knowledge to perform the task at hand? (Meyer, 2007). Task needs can be obtained by considering job descriptions, and duties or responsibilities relating to both tasks and sub-tasks.

#### **3.3.3.5. Individual Level Analysis**

Needs analysis at the individual level aims to determine whether individual employees need training or additional training, or to establish any shortfall in an employee's skills and knowledge that are required to perform his/her job. It basically aims to discover the gap

between an employee's current capacities/skills and the capabilities necessary for his/her job (Wilson, 2005). It enables the HRD unit to establish the extent to which each employee's skills are developed or need to be updated and whether there is any need for T&D. Needs analysis at individual level enables an organisation to determine what skills employees need at present and for the future (Opperman & Meyer, 2008). Unless the organisation accurately evaluates individual training needs, the skills acquired may not be related to their task. The inability to properly identify employees' training needs weakens the quality, efficiency and importance of on-the-job training and also prevent learning transfer; this undermines job performance and organisational outcomes (Rycus, Hughes, 2000).

The focus here is on the individual and it involves the diagnosis of individual employee performance to determine the level at which he/she is performing and why. Comparing an employee's job performance and expected job performance could determine whether there is a need for training or not. Performance data can be obtained using a performance appraisal technique and diagnostic achievement tests, as well as employee review feedback, amongst others. If deficiencies emerge, training can be designed to help the individual meet performance criteria. Needs analysis allows individual employees to reflect on their training needs and takes their career ambitions and development needs into account (NCVO, 2011). Employees need to think about specific skill/s that they need to improve on.

Establishing the T&D needs of individual employees is not sufficient. The best T&D method/s to fulfil these needs also need to be established. Effective T&D also involves finding out how individuals have learnt in the past, what was beneficial and what they enjoyed.

#### **3.3.3.6. Methods of Needs Analysis**

Whether the training analysis is based on overall job performance or a particular aspect of a job, a number of methods can be applied to identify the training needs of the organisation, individual employees and for tasks. The methods adopted depend on the size of the organisation and the knowledge that needs to be instilled. Surveys, observations, tests, the examination of staff performance records and interviews can all be used (Akinfolarin & Alimi, 2011, p. 104). Surveys are commonly used, primarily because they gather lots of information from a large number of employees and the data collected can be analysed using

the readily available inferential statistical method. This method is easy to administer and has minimal bias.

Performance appraisal is another commonly used method in TNA. It is usually conducted by the line manager in collaboration with the HR department. Performance appraisal exposes strengths and weaknesses in employee and organisational performance; therefore, it helps to determine whether there is a need for T&D. Performance appraisal evaluates the performance of all employees (Patton & Pratt, 2002, p. 468). Training needs can also be established through observations. This is best done by the supervisor or “skill subject matter expert” (Patton & Pratt, 2002, p. 468). This method provides firsthand information about the work situation. Its disadvantage is that it is time-consuming and can only be used for a limited number of workers at a time.

Interviews are another important technique for gathering information. They help to obtain information from persons in strategic positions on the training needs of a department or group. Exit interviews provide an opportunity to gather additional information. For instance, a high staff turnover rate may indicate that an organisation has a problem. This method is favoured because it allows employees to participate fully in seeking solutions to solving their own career problems and is accepted by managers and supervisors. The main disadvantage of interviews is that they are time-consuming and require expertise on the part of the interviewer (Eramus, 2008, p. 133).

An “assessment centre” can also be used to determine training or development needs. This does not refer to a physical place; rather, it depicts an approach or method. More and more organisations are using assessment centres mainly in Europe and in Africa to analyse employee competence (Byham, 2009). Assessment centres usually involve employees or participants in a range of exercises, which resemble the activities carried out in the actual job. Assessment centres assess employees on tasks that are similar to those they perform in the workplace, and enable management to place the employee in the most appropriate training programme. This method helps the organisation to seek out good and poor behaviour and to establish more accurately which T&D activities are required. Assessment centres provide quick answers to training needs and save the organisation time and effort in placing employees in the right training programme. While it differs from traditional approaches, it is

a reputable method. The advantage of this method lies in its ability to obtain results faster than other diagnostic methods (Byham, 2009).

Questionnaires are another widely used method of needs assessment. They provide different kinds of information which include the –needs, problems and potential problems, employees‘ perceptions, attitude, opinions ...” (Erasmus, 2008, p. 132). Both structured and unstructured questionnaire can be used. Questionnaires are able to reach large groups of employees and they are cost effective.

Other methods of needs analysis include the use of advisory committees. This is a group of individuals that identifies problems that require training to rectify and which need urgent attention. Skills tests are another means of detecting the availability of required skills and competencies for current and future tasks in an organisation.

#### **3.3.4. Identification of T&D Objectives**

Training and development objectives set out what trainees should be able to achieve after undergoing training. Training objectives should be based on the results of environmental scanning and T&D needs analysis (Erasmus et al., 2008). This is based on the premise that appropriate T&D programme objectives should be derived from the TNA report (Erasmus et al., 2008). The T&D objectives serve as a road map for the selection of the training content, methods and implementation and for the evaluation of the programme. Training objectives enable trainers and trainees to know precisely what they are expected to achieve or learn at the end of the whole exercise. They provide consistency in designing the training programme and facilitate objective evaluation of the course. There is always a direct and indirect relationship between T&D and an organisation’s business objectives (Whenua, 2009, p. 35). The identification of T&D objectives calls for the alignment of T&D with the organisational strategic objectives.

#### **3.3.5. Align T&D with Strategy**

One of the major causes of the failure of an organisation’s T&D activities is non-alignment between the T&D objectives and its goals and objectives (Kunder, 2000). Strategic alignment can be defined as a situation in which the objectives and activities of an organisation are in

harmony with the system that supports it. In this case, T&D is a means of supporting an organisation's strategic objectives. In recent times organisations have started to recognise the impact of aligning human resources with their strategy plan (Oni, 2003). Organisational strategy determines the type and amount of training that is carried out and whether resources should be committed to it or not. Moreover, the skills needs of the organisation should be influenced by its intended business strategy (Whenua 2009, p. 36). It is important to note that adopting effective strategy in any organisation depends mainly on the workforce that undertakes its execution (Papalexandris & Chalikias, 2002). When T&D is acknowledged as a strategic approach, it will be a powerful tool for achieving an organisation's objectives (Kalaiselvan & Naachimuthu, 2011).

Research has shown that when T&D activities are directly aligned with an organisation's strategic objectives and goals, the possibility of employees utilising the skills they have learnt from the training exercise on the job is enhanced (D'Natto et al., 2008). When training is regarded as part of an organisation's strategic objectives, line managers have no other option but to support the training programme and the use of the skills acquired. Opposing the training programme implies a rejection of the strategic objectives of their employer and the consequences are usually dire. On the other hand, training programmes that are not aligned with an organisation's strategic direction will result in a low rate of learning transfer. Some organisations do not have a clear cut idea of what they want from training and are therefore unable to link training with their overall strategic business objectives (Babaita, 2010). Skills development should be an integral part of broader development strategies if it is to contribute substantially to the overall productivity of the organisation (ILC, 2008). This can be done by linking T&D to the immediate and long term needs of the organisation, e.g. by assessing how T&D can assist it to achieve its strategic objectives and the improvement of employee performance as well as overall performance. If strategic alignment of T&D is to be effective, it must be an on-going activity which is updated every year. To develop a more effective T&D plan, management should take into consideration the –strategic goals of the organisation, the business plan to achieve the goals, administrative mandates, employee performance improvement and training needs, and changes in the work environment, technology and innovation” (Bjornberg, 2002, p. 509).

The need for wide-ranging and formal T&D activities is obvious, especially in the current business climate (Schmidtke & Hughes, 2010). Training and development ensures that an

organisation has a talented and skilled workforce. As a strategic option it seeks to provide the knowledge, skills, positive behaviours and attitudes needed for both the present and the future survival of the organisation. As such, it should prepare the organisation for unforeseen circumstances that are common in the dynamic economic environment. Training and development can be effective in helping an organisation achieve its strategic goals and objectives by answering the following questions:

- What are the organisation's current objectives and those for the next financial year?
- How can T&D enable the organisation to achieve its goals and objectives?
- What skills are available?
- What kinds of knowledge and skills does the organisation need to achieve its strategic objectives?

Other questions that may be asked include the following:

- Are external factors dictating that T&D should take place (example, to fulfil government and the organisation's training policies)?
- Can the organisation take a proactive approach to T&D in order to move the organisation to a new performance level?
- Are there potential problems in the organisation that may be prevented or rectified through the use of T&D?
- Can the organisation gain a competitive edge by implementing a T&D programme?

The best knowledge for any organisation is knowledge that is of strategic importance to it. This includes an organisation's needs, goals and objectives and creates competitive advantage (Vermic, 2007). Aligning T&D with a strategic plan has been judged by ASTD as one of the T&D best practices (Rivera & Paradise & Bjomberg, 2002 cited in Burke & Hutchins 2008, p. 109). Organisations that were effective in linking their corporate strategy plan to their learning objectives showed improved performance. It is not sufficient to invest in T&D interventions and take it for granted that they will rectify skills and performance problems. Training initiatives need to be strategically aligned with overall strategic goals and objectives in order to be effective (Chi & Lin, 2008). Organisations should adopt a strategic approach to T&D rather than an unplanned and ad hoc one, as it makes T&D more focused and effective. If training formulation and implementation processes are not aligned with an organisation's

needs, they may provide irrelevant content and methods that will not address the organisation's problems (Chi & Lin, 2008).

It is unfortunate that many organisations have not changed their mind-set on their understanding of what training is and how it promotes an organisation's survival. Such organisations still consider T&D an expense instead of considering it part of a strategic choice. This is why such organisations' training managers do not participate in the development or formulation of the corporate strategy. In more dynamic and successful organisations, training managers are part of the business strategy formulation planning team (Meyer, 2002; Wexley & Latham, 1991). Linking the training function and corporate strategy will motivate leaders to take T&D more seriously, because it equips employees and managers to implement the proposed corporate strategy plan.

Recent studies have overwhelmingly demonstrated the need to align T&D with an organisation's strategic plan; although some organisations still resort to reactive T&D interventions when problems arise (Blanchard & Thacker, 2010). The human resource development unit is tasked with ensuring that human resource development programmes are aligned with and support an organisation's strategies. The inclusion of T&D as a strategic option is the result of the constantly changing business environment; organisations have to adapt their T&D programme in line with these changes to cope with new conditions. Furthermore, organisations now understand that employees are resources that are essential for competitive advantage and that training is a strategic instrument (Blanchard & Thacker, 2010, p.10). As such, T&D is an essential and deliberate part of doing business, not an afterthought (Ow, 2007).

In some organisations T&D is relegated to an operational rather than a strategic issue (Rainbird, 2000). Strategic employee development helps an organisation implement its strategic business plan and its human resources strategic plan by improving the skills and knowledge of its workforce (Erasmus et al., 2008).

Furthermore, the purpose of the activities of organisational training should reflect the organisation's company policy and strategic direction if it is to make any meaningful impact on employee performance. By way of example; a company needed a computer-based software solution to enable it to manage employees' time, attendance, personal information

and payroll to avoid errors and save time. To solve these problems they decided to tailor their training programmes to support their strategic objective of enhancing the efficiency and performance of each department. To this effect the company offered training to all employees and its 600 managers. All the managers were trained to use a desktop computer, which give them greater access to important material and enhanced their capacity to manage their workers efficiently (DACG, 2002). The employees were trained to manage their personal data online. After the training, employees were paid the right amount at the right time and overall performance was enhanced. This example demonstrates the importance of aligning training with the strategic objectives of an organisation (DACG, 2002).

A well planned and executed T&D programme will motivate employers and employees alike and promote improved results (Hu & Yang, 2010). Montesino (2002) suggested a positive relationship between the perceived alignment of training with the strategic direction of the organisation and the general support of employees using the newly acquired knowledge (Montesino, 2002). The trainees acknowledged a very high usage of skills gained during training in organisations that aligned their training programmes with their strategic direction. However, trainees in organisations where there was lower alignment of training programmes with strategic direction reported low to high transfer of learning. These results suggest that employees who were able to understand the connection between training activities and organisation's strategic plan were able to use the knowledge acquired during training on the job more than those who did not understand that connection.

According to Daniel (2003 cited in Babaita 2010), T&D should not be seen as a superfluity that should be undertaken only when it is financially convenient to do so. This highlights the importance of embarking on long term strategic T&D planning (Maglen, Hopskin and Burke, 2001). Training develops skills and changes undesirable attitudes; organisations are reinvented to meet their new strategic goals (Babaita, 2010). While organisations commit resources to T&D interventions, these are often wasted on poorly planned and poorly implemented programmes (Bunch, 2007). Furthermore, organised T&D activities can help companies to harness all employees to increase their productivity (Aniekwu & Ozochi, 2010). Once these issues have been addressed, the organisation needs to select an appropriate T&D method/s.

### **3.3.6. Selection of T&D Methods**

The selection of the T&D method/s is very important for the success of the programme as the application of inappropriate training method/s will lead to frustration and a waste of time and resources. Once the strengths and weaknesses (the training needs) of the organisation and the training objectives have been identified, the best possible method/s to conduct the training need to be identified in order to enable the organisation to achieve its set objectives. This is crucial as the method/s to be adopted should be determined by what skill/s need to be imparted and who will participate in the training (Huquea & Vyas, 2008). While a specific training method sometimes needs to be employed for a particular project, at other times it becomes necessary to use multiple methods. Diverse learning methods are important when the organisation plans to provide learning opportunities to various categories of employees using different training methods example, job rotation, job enlargement, mentorship, workshops and e-learning and so on. The selection of appropriate T&D is followed by the execution of the project.

### **3.3.7. Execution of Training and Development**

After the identification of proper T&D method/s, the training is executed. Whatever the intents and purposes of the T&D, execution must be carried out in a manner that will enable the organisation to maximise the results of the money, time and hard work put into it. The survival of any project will depend largely on how proficiently it was executed and how different groups of people in the organisation were carried along. Management needs to ensure that T&D plans are transformed into actual T&D activities. Constraints to the execution of the programme and learning must be removed, for example, making resources and equipment available to enable learning. Put differently, at this stage management makes the necessary resources available and sets aside time for employees to attend the training. Equally important at this stage is psychological support from managers. Employees should understand the importance of T&D. Everyone, including management, should support T&D initiatives. The training and learning environment should encourage teamwork, collaboration, creativity and sharing. This will motivate trainees to participate in other T&D initiatives and transfer the skills learnt on the job at a later date. Like any other well planned and managed project, daily exercises or activities should be evaluated and a report composed for future reference.

### **3.3.8. Training and Development Evaluation**

According to Brown and Sitzmann (2011 cited in Saks & Burke, 2012, p.119) evaluation is an effective method of determining the effectiveness of a training programme and facilitates decisions regarding future training programmes. Training and development interventions are not over until the programme's success or failure is evaluated and established, even where similar programmes have produced positive results in the past for other companies (Bernatek & Heil, 2011). The evaluation of T&D can take place at different stages of the training process. It could be evaluated at the early stage, at the end of the T&D initiative or after a period of time (Wilson, 2005). The evaluation of T&D has gained much attention and the pressure to evaluate is increasing due to the need for accountability and to provide evidence of return on investment because of the huge expenses involved (Bjomberg, 2002; (Dorji, 2005; Wilson, 2005; Eseryel, 2002; Rahman & Shah 2012). In the past, organisations did not normally measure the impact of T&D interventions (Srimannarayana, 2011, p. 118). This led to assumptions that money spent on T&D initiatives is wasted, as the benefits of T&D were not readily apparent (Danvila del Valle & Rodriguez-Durarte, 2008; Kunder, 2000). Effective T&D requires knowing whether the results obtained met the required results for individual employees as well as the organisation as a whole. Training is a means by which an organisation achieves growth, success and effectiveness; it is not an end in itself, and consequently, it is important to understand how it has contributed to the growth of an individual employee and the organisation as whole. Some organisations simply evaluate T&D in order to understand how far it has helped them to improve their bottom line and the extent to which it has met their strategic business objectives. However, there is a need for continuous evaluation of a programme to ensure that the strategy is on course in achieving the desired objectives.

Furthermore, effective evaluation of T&D allows the organisation to determine the effectiveness or the extent to which expectations or the desired standard has been met, example, the impact of the training exercise on the employee's job performance. It is important to note that T&D activities in Nigeria are hindered by the lack of an effective follow-up system of checking and evaluating trainees' performance (Balogun, 2011). Furthermore, according to Saks and Burke (2012, p. 123), training evaluation has been found to influence training transfer in organisations. However, despite the fact that T&D activities

are important for an organisation's survival, only a few organisations undertake a systematic evaluation of the impact of training on their employees and the organisation (Brinkerhoff, 2005). An effective evaluation provides information on whether the organisation is doing well or not and offers the opportunity to make suitable changes (Thorne & Mackey, 2001). Evaluation serves as a follow up on the learning received and enables an organisation to ascertain whether the skills and knowledge acquired are being utilised. T&D should be measured against strategic performance and strategic results indicators, because this allows for an evaluation of the level of success and the overall impact of the T&D intervention (Pollitt, 2007). The correlation between training, employees and organisational results is not absolutely clear-cut. This makes it essential that training objectives be completely unambiguous in order to know what to evaluate.

Informing employees of progress is fundamental to the smooth running of T&D initiatives. Therefore, management and employees themselves should identify any achievements or setbacks during and after the exercise (Pollitt, 2007). The outcome of the evaluation of a T&D activity will be a key indicator of the effectiveness of the overall strategy and a determinant of the success of the programme. Evaluation is required to determine how best to conduct future T&D activities. It also enables an organisation to determine the strengths and weakness of its programme (Opperman & Meyer, 2008) and offers opportunities for improvement (Girly, 2011). The primary purpose of evaluation should be to determine the impact of T&D on employees' attitudes and how it has impacted individual performance on the job, profit, employees' job satisfaction and the overall performance of the organisation (Wilson, 2005; Meyer, 2007). Other decisive assessment factors include whether employee turnover has remained the same, decreased, or increased and how many of those who took part in T&D have been selected for promotion. These are indicators of how successful the T&D has been (Galanou & Priporas, 2009).

Consideration of who should take part in the evaluation and who is interested in its outcome is very important. This will determine how the evaluation will take place and even whether it will occur or not. Different levels of evaluation should be designed for different people. For instance, the trainer might like to know how trainees feel about the training programme, while managers responsible for training might be interested in the outcomes of training. Trainees, on the other hand, might like to express their opinions of the impact of the exercise (Blanchard & Thacker, 2010). Inaccurate or inappropriate evaluation will produce

information that is not useful to employees and the organisation alike. Managers and those responsible for training should ensure that relevant data are collected for improved evaluation and the variables used should be measurable and quantifiable. Moreover, evaluation can be done qualitatively using variables like attitudes, behaviours, employee turnover, skills, commitment, and job satisfaction and the performance of those who took part in the T&D programme (Bernate & Heil, 2011).

The method/s of evaluation will depend on what is to be measured and the extent of the evaluation; some organisations use a scorecard, amongst other methods, for evaluation, because it allows a larger number of employees to be evaluated. Evaluation and feedback are therefore the final exercise in T&D programmes.

### **3.3.9. Feedback**

Evaluating and feedback communicate whether T&D has been effective in helping an organisation meet its goals as well as employees' personal objectives. Training and development is not complete until the outcomes of the evaluation are established and communicated to all stakeholders. Feedback is just as important to a learner as it is to the organisation. It encourages individual employees and the organisation to congratulate themselves on their efforts and to pinpoint areas that need improvement. Feedback is best used when employees' performance is inhibited due to lack of knowledge about their efforts. When supervisors or managers fail to provide feedback, job performance undoubtedly suffers. Feedback enables employees to know how well they are performing. This may impact positively on their confidence and their resolve to participate in future training programmes. In modern organisations, managers need to give employees information on how T&D have improved their performance and promoted the organisation's stated strategic business objectives. Performance problems can only be solved if management understands the role of feedback. The principle that feedback results in improved performance is one of the most reliable and tested relationships in contemporary T&D activities. Schroth's (1997, p. 163) study found that employees who received 100% feedback outperformed those who received 50% feedback by about 75%. This is because feedback affects employee motivation. Employees who receive positive feedback from their supervisors are motivated to improve their performance. Both formal and informal feedback should be structured and

intentional in order to result in outcomes useful to the organisation as well as to employees. It should be specific and must be given on time for more effective results.

### **3.4. Conclusion**

The indirect link between T&D programmes and improved individual and organisational effectiveness is highlighted by motivational theories such as the goal setting and social exchange theories examples. The theory of human capital discusses the processes that relate to training initiatives to instil hard-to-imitate competencies in employees which serve as a competitive advantage, enhance employee performance and promote organisational performance. Holton (1996) presented a conceptual evaluation and research model which posits that HRD outcomes are a function, ability, motivation, and environmental influence at three outcome levels: learning and individual and organisational performance, with a fourth secondary variable comprising individual characteristics which influence motivation. His model indicates that the primary outcome of training interventions is learning which helps to increase individual and organisational performance. Social exchange theory posits that people enter into a relationship with the aim of making the best use of the benefits they stand to obtain. Thus, a give-and-take formal obligation in the employer-employee relationship is moderated by the expectations of both parties in relation to T&D. Goal-setting is a motivational theory that enhances the analysis and understanding of the relationship between transfer of training and organisational performance. The bottom line of this theory lies in the relationship between consciously set goals, intentions and task performance. Effective management of strategic T&D programmes should include environment scanning, training needs analysis, and the selection of appropriate T&D methods. Evaluation, feedback, and the identification and alignment of T&D objectives with the strategic objectives of the organisation are considered necessary and effective in promoting the success of T&D programmes. The next chapter discusses the different types of T&D methods and their advantages and disadvantages as well as the benefits of T&D to employees and organisations; these include, amongst other things, improved productivity and profit.

## CHAPTER 4

### TRAINING METHODS AND OUTCOMES

#### 4.0. Introduction

The previous chapter considered the theoretical background, the conceptual framework of the study and a suggested framework for future implementation of effective T&D. New T&D techniques are influencing the manner in which organisations conduct training. To some extent, successful training is dependent on the appropriateness of the training method used. Therefore, this chapter discusses the factors that induce firms to engage in T&D, different T&D methods and their advantages and disadvantages, and instances where they have been applied effectively. The study examines how each T&D method can benefit organisations, focusing on public organisations in Nigeria using the Nigerian Railways Corporation (NRC) as a case study. This chapter also examines the impact of T&D on individual and organisational performance and the factors that influence the transfer of skills and knowledge on-the-job. It is necessary to discuss the factors that influence organisations to provide training before discussing the methodology and the impact of T&D.

#### 4.1. Factors Influencing T&D Needs

Companies train for various reasons. For instance, the organisational developmental approach to training is based on the needs of departments, while the systematic needs-based training approach is based on the identification of the training needs of organisations and wellbeing. On the other hand, the political approach to training favours workers who are privileged and loyal to the authoritative figures in the organisation (Olaniyan & Ojo, 2008, p. 329).

Operating successfully in the global economy requires new knowledge and new skills (US Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2010). Hence, a concerted effort must be made to identify T&D needs (Adenigi, 2010). As companies evolve through various technological and environmental changes, employees and managers must keep up with these changes so as to adapt; this can be achieved through T&D. That is to say, as industry changes, management and skills need to function well in response to such changes (Australian Industry Group,

2011). Constant changes in production technology and working practices call for continuous T&D interventions; while some organisations operate in stable business environment, others operate in sectors that are experiencing rapidly changing technologies (Rainbird, 2000). It is particularly important for the latter to continuously train and retrain their employees. Changes in the production process of a highly complex product influence the rate of training offered by an organisation. These changes require not only highly trained employees, but constant learning in order to adapt to the processes.

–Things are changing so much quickly these days, and companies have adapted so much faster than before to remain competitive. The fact is that one of the most powerful tools we have at our disposal to change performance... can help people to adapt more readily to that change is learning”. (Blanchard and Thacker, 2010, p. 10)

In recent times line managers have taken on responsibilities previously reserved for experts; therefore, they also need training. Managers are becoming enablers, facilitators and coaches. Many managers need T&D in order to remain up-to-date in their fast changing positions (Capps & Capps, 2005). Training should partly focus on a long-term proactive strategy, which sees T&D as a remedy for the fast changing business environment. For instance General Electric (GE) has built a strong leadership base over the years, thanks partly to their sophisticated recruitment systems and T&D programmes (Knudson, 2011). General Electric and other organisations use training to prepare employees for future leadership positions and managers are trained to take up new roles. General Electric spends approximately \$1 billion on in-house T&D every year, as well as an additional \$38 million per year to reimburse staff enrolled for outside degree programmes for tuition fees (GE, 2005). As a result, GE “never experienced any dearth of good leaders to take over the reins as and when the need arose” (GE, 2005). Some organisations use training to maintain the talents of internal experts which they draw on when necessary. Unilever increased production through education and training and uses training to enhance employees’ capabilities (Gorelick & Tantawy-Monsou, 2005).

The Peter Principle posits that employees are promoted until they reach their highest level of competence, after which any other future promotion raises the employee to a level of incompetence (Madden, 2010). The level of incompetence experienced by a newly promoted employee or manager may be caused by the employee being promoted to a position for which he/she has no prior experience or knowledge. Thus, the employee may require a different

work skill. By way of example, a sales person who does very well may earn promotion to the position of sales manager. The proficiency or skills which earned him/her the promotion may not be relevant in the new job. One approach that could be used to avoid the Peter Principle effect is retraining the employee before he/she takes on a new post (Madden, 2010). Training content can be designed such that it enhances product creativity (Burroughs, Darren, Dahl, Moreau, Chattopadhyay & Gorn, 2011).

Projects meant to enhance an organisation should always be linked to both organisational and employees' needs. In some instances organisations experience a decline in sales and an increase in customer complaints. Such an organisation may plan and structure training to reduce these problems (Beardwell, 2004). By way of example, when Northwest Airlines was experiencing problems with employees and customers, which lead to a loss in revenue, the then CEO decided to shift the culture to a more customer-friendly and people-oriented one in order to build a new sense of pride, care and support for one another among and within groups. The CEO decided to conduct training to support these goals and eradicate behaviour that might prevent the desired change. A three-day training course stressed communication, basic leadership and behavioural change on the part of managers and employees alike. After the training the behaviour of different parties changed for the better (Jick & Peiperl, 2003, p.446).

Studies have revealed that organisations mainly engage in training because they believed that it increases employees' performance (Edralin, 2011). For instance, profitability shows a positive and strongly significant association with the number of employees being trained among organisations in Europe (Hansson, 2007, p. 319). Thus, training programmes can be used as a reward for past performance. Organisations engage in training in the hope of increasing profits or gains. Studies have also shown that organisations that experience high levels of employee mobility reduce their investment in training. This is because they may not be able to recoup their investment in training (Hansson, 2007, p. 317).

Training and development can also improve critical skills and knowledge to help employees remain employable and build the skills base of an organisation. This is important in the current business environment where jobs and work processes are constantly changing (Khammam, 2010). The average age of the workforce is increasing and the majority are unskilled labourers. This creates a need for the T&D of new and young employees to replace

the older ones who will eventually retire (Blanchard & Thacker, 2010). The threat of redundancies also motivates organisations to engage in training initiatives in order to retain skilled and loyal employees.

Training and development can also serve to unite employees from two different organisations with different cultures following mergers and acquisitions. A new company culture is formed from two formerly autonomous organisations (Boglarsky, 2005). T&D can be used to communicate the new company's identity, structure and vision to employees and to eradicate fears of the unknown. For instance, in the case of the HP and Compaq merger, the new company put all employees through training programmes to explain the new company structure and to help them overcome anxiety about their new co-workers (Khuntia & Pattnaik, 2011).

In some countries, organisations initiate T&D in order to meet statutory requirements (Okereke & Igboke, 2011). These laws aim to promote economic growth. Common among such trainings are sexual harassment, and discrimination and diversity training. Countries like Nigeria and South Africa require that a percentage of an organisation's turnover be earmarked for T&D each year (Coetzee et al., 2009). In such cases, organisations embark on T&D to avoid sanctions. Some aspects of training are compulsory by law; for instance, in the US the Occupational Safety and Health Act requires organisations to provide training in handling dangerous materials and the importance of safety precautions (Blanchard and Thacker, 2010, p.15). Some organisations adopt T&D in order to comply with company policy; the attitude of a company towards T&D is reflected in its policy (Gorelick & Tantawy-Monsou, 2005) and such policy stipulates the importance, standards and scope of T&D interventions. Other organisations take to T&D because it enables the human resource development unit to train future managers and develop employees' potential for their future and current career prospects (Meyer, 2007).

#### **4.2. Challenges in Training and Development**

Like all organisational strategic options, T&D activities confront many challenges; one of the major issues is the lack of support from top management and an organisational culture that may hinder any intended changes (Kyriakidou & Maroudas, 2010, p. 43). Huang (2001, p.442) found that strong support from top management was positively associated with

training effectiveness. Therefore, the successful implementation of T&D activities depends on the sincerity and commitment of top management (Hameed & Waheed, 2011). When top management and the organisational climate are opposed to the intent and content of T&D efforts, the exercise can be fruitless and difficult to implement. Some managers and employees are unwilling to take the time to train; they see training as a bother and an unwanted interruption (Longenecker & Fink, 2005, p. 74).

It is not uncommon for employees to complain that they were not allowed to practice what they learnt, sometimes due to their managers' attitudes. One of the major reasons for this is managers' lack of trust and confidence in the quality of the training, the trainers and the capabilities of the trained staff. Heavy workloads, insufficient training materials and the lack of clear T&D objectives make it almost impossible for employees to take T&D programmes seriously (Dorji, 2005). Some trainees and managers have the wrong attitude towards T&D; some middle managers do not support it (Phillips, 2003). Training and development is sometimes seen as a ritual which must be performed from time to time without any real objective. Some managers use training as means to reward employees who are loyal to them. Furthermore, in some cases, employees are not properly prepared for training and consequently lack the motivation to participate in training activities (Oladimeji, 2011). According to Burak, Elmer and Smith Robert (1977, cited in Obisi, 2011, p. 88), T&D can fail for the following reasons:

- –The benefits of training are not clear to top management
- Top management does not reward supervisors for carrying out effective training.
- Top management does not plan and budget systematically for training.
- Middle management does not receive proper incentives from top management to provide training.
- Training external to the employing unit sometimes teaches techniques or methods that are not appropriate to the practice of the participants.
- Trainers provide limited counseling and consulting services to the rest of the organisation". (Elmer and Smith Robert, 1977 cited in Obisi, 2011, p. 88)

### **4.3. Training and Development Methods**

The objective of any organisation is to train its new and old employees in the best possible manner so that they can perform their job at optimal level and contribute to increased productivity and profitability. However, it is essential that training be conducted efficiently and it should consume minimal time and resources. It is well-established that modern organisations accept that a well-trained labour force is important for organisational success (Danziger & Dunkle, 2007); furthermore, keeping employees' skills and abilities up-to-date is critical. This is why both management and employees should be involved in selecting training methods and determining skills requirements. Organisations need to weigh the advantages and disadvantages of each T&D method in order to establish which best serve their needs and those of their employees. Organisations take into account not only the skills and knowledge required, but other issues like costs (Awe, 2010).

As organisations grow bigger and more complex their T&D approaches may include both on-the-job and off-the-job training methods. Some organisations have sophisticated recruitment and training programmes, while others adopt a more informal approach (Culver, 2009). The method of T&D interventions varies from organisation to organisation according to their needs and objectives, and their organisational policy. For instance, if an organisation wants to introduce a completely new idea, a seminar may be most appropriate to get information across to a big audience. However, a workshop may be more appropriate to impart a practical skill, as it helps to develop trainees' problem-solving abilities (Awe, 2010). There is a vast array of T&D methods, and selecting the most suitable method will depend on the need (what the organisation wants employees to learn) and the circumstance that led to T&D (Thorne & Mackey, 2001). The selection of T&D methods is important in the sense that adopting a wrong method will lead to a project failing to provide the desired outcomes (Awe, 2010). This section examines T&D methods utilised by employers and the advantages and disadvantages of each to the organisation and the employees/ trainees.

Training can be conducted using different approaches or a combination of approaches and may include on-the-job or off-the-job methods (Olaniyan & Ojo, 2008). The Nigerian civil service has traditionally, but not exclusively, utilised the following methods for staff development:

- Proper career management
  - Induction
  - Job enlargement
  - Job enrichment
  - Coaching
  - Counselling
  - Mentoring
  - Performance appraisal
  - Understudying
  - Periodic deployment or job rotation
  - Consultants and special training
- (Adegoroye, 2006; Ajidahun, 2007)

#### **4.3.1. Off-the-job Methods**

Off-the-job training takes place outside the actual work environment of an organisation (Venkatesh, 2009). It is usually executed in a setting particularly chosen for it; an environment other than the normal work environment and it may or may not be near the actual work environment (Alipour, Salehi & Shahnava, (2009). While on-the-job training develops best practices for a particular job, off-the-job training aims to improve basic competences that are more general in nature (Agarwal, 2012). Off-the-job training is usually provided by professionals and academicians at a designated location. This technique includes lectures, seminars, workshops, simulation, programmed instruction, teleconferences or discussions and so forth. Off-the-job training offers participating employees the opportunity to meet new people in the same field, which gives them the opportunity to compare issues and discover new ideas. It concentrates on learning rather than performance (Chand, 2008) and conveys theoretical knowledge and behaviour (Kunasz, no date). It is suitable for training white collar or managerial level employees. The disadvantage of off-the-job training is that it has the potential to disrupt work activities; this should be assessed before selecting a training method (Awe, 2009). Moreover, it is more expensive than on-the-job training, as it requires an environment other than the workplace and experts are employed to conduct the training. However, off-the-job training allows trainees the opportunity to pay more attention to the material taught. According to Strickland et al. (2001, p 20), learning outside the work environment allows trainees to think and reflect, and broadens their skills more than on-the-job training. Trainees are able to ask questions and meet others in their field of work (Strickland et al., 2001)

### 4.3.2. Lectures

A lecture is an off-the-job training approach which involves the verbal presentation of training material. It normally takes place at learning institutions such as corporate universities. Although it may be the most cost effective in certain situations (reaching a large audience), it might not be the most effective way to train workers, because it is hard to ensure that everyone understands the subject matter on the same level (Small Business Management, 2011). In certain situation, trainees are inactive. Their only role is to absorb the information delivered by the trainer. This can be resolved by the trainer including interaction among learners or between learners and the trainer. Discussions and a question and answer session at the end of the lecture can make the session more interactive (Sarwar, 2011, p. 5). The advantage of lectures is that they provide new ideas, which may not be available through on-the-job training methods. If sufficient energy and meaning is devoted to their presentation, lectures can be very interesting (Lynton & Pareek, 2000, p. 195).

The main disadvantage of lectures is the fact that, however interesting they might find them, participants remember only approximately half of its content immediately afterwards and this decreases over time (Lynton & Pareek, 2000). Lectures have been criticised for their inability to offer two-way communication between trainers and trainees and they do not encourage feedback. Lecturers do not take differences between individual trainees' ability into account. Furthermore, the lecture has been perceived to be inefficient in teaching job-related skills that can be used in real work situations (Wexley & Latham, 1991). Girdharwal (2007) found that lecture were not trainees' most preferred technique for most learning objectives. An idea delivered at a lecture may not be concrete or relevant, especially when it is not directly connected to real job circumstances (Pant, 2012, p. 160). The lecture mirrors the traditional method of training that provides information or specific skills and knowledge rather than enabling learning. Girdharwal (2007) suggested that lectures be used in conjunction with other training methods rather than as a stand-alone technique. Furthermore, lectures may not be appropriate to train newly employed personnel, as they are generally used to build on employees' current skills. Classroom system of learning is problematic in the sense that skills learned are hardly transferred to real-life and real-time practices (Molnar & Watts, 2002).

### 4.3.3. Corporate Universities

Corporate universities are established for the internal T&D of company employees. They offer induction programmes for new employees and training aimed at employee adaptation, reduction of employee turnover, and turnover intention and improved performance (Fenn, 2012). A number of businesses in the developed economies have started their own universities to train new employees and keep the older ones abreast of current changes in the business environment. Corporate universities usually offer short training courses to enable employees to acquire both technical and relational skills. The trainees have the opportunity to put theory into practice in real-life situations that may directly influence their work. Corporate universities are important for organisational success and development, especially during periods of economic meltdown when organisations are challenged to look for new solutions to improve performance. Unfortunately, the corporate university as a training method has not taken root in Africa and certainly not in Nigerian public organisations. While the NRC has its own Railway Training Institutes in Lagos and Enugu, the effectiveness of these institutes is questionable and they are a shadow of what they were in the 1980s. The researcher's observations and discussions with employees revealed that poor government funding has left the Lagos institute in a dilapidated state. Unlike corporate universities in developed countries, Nigerian Railway Training Institutes cater mainly for technical employees engaged in maintenance work. Training and learning are offered on a demand driven basis, which may or may not be driven by the organisation's strategic business objectives. In contrast, at corporate universities each staff member is mandated to attend training related to practical and soft skills acquisition that dovetails with the company's overall goals (Fenn, 2012).

Corporate universities' training contents are company specific; they serve the skills needs of a particular organisation and aim to inculcate the organisation's culture and values by streamlining the training function. Organisations start corporate universities in order to develop their employees' skills and maximise their investment in training (Marin & Renaud, 2004). Corporate university training is a means of recruiting new employees, although training at the university does not replace their initial orientation courses. Passing criteria are rigorous. While training at the corporate university is not compulsory in some organisations,

it is often the quickest path to increased pay and career progression. Corporate universities' programmes ease the burden of recruiting graduates from traditional universities who have no work experience. They also allow organisations to provide technical training to newly employed workers with little experience. Corporate universities differ from normal universities in the sense that teaching materials are company specific while lecture materials or topics at other institutions of higher learning are not. They are mainly used for company T&D, adult learning, and implementing organisational change. The corporate university usually aligns the organisation's strategy with the learning goals set for trainees. It provides the total education requirements of employees and the entire business chain, including customers and suppliers. It is a proactive means of continuous efforts to facilitate the achievement of the organisation's business strategies and for sharing the organisation's vision and values (Morin et al., 2004) through aligning training content with corporate goals and objectives. Corporate university training can also be used as a reactive exercise based on the sporadic needs of an organisation.

One of the advantages of the corporate university is its ability to convey a strong message to workers of the significance of self-styled skill development. Furthermore, it aids the development of succession planning, and the attraction and retention of employees. It also enables the development of a common organisational culture. The corporate university can shape the culture of an organisation by fostering leadership and creative thinking. Its curricula are designed to provide employees with practical business knowledge, managerial competence and task-oriented skills in order to make the organisation more competitive. The disadvantage of corporate universities is that trainees do not have the opportunity to gain the ideas available to other students in open universities. Furthermore, Morin and Renaud (2004, p.295) suggest that the training provided at corporate universities has a relatively small effect on individual job performance.

#### **4.3.4. Workshop Training**

This method is one of the most appropriate methods of training when a large number of employees are to be trained at the same time (Stringfellow, 2011). It is best used in a situation where training and learning require practical exercises and when more complex skills need to be acquired. Participants learn from one another in a workshop situation by practicing their skills and knowledge. They provide additional input in the form of their past experiences,

resulting in the development of new thoughts that would otherwise not have occurred. Workshops can be helpful in a public service organisation like the NRC, because they enable participants to evaluate different ways of work, which enables them promptly identify and resolve problems in real work situations. Practical or technical skills are best learnt in a well-organised workshop; tools and equipment can be used and progress can be closely monitored. However, when the travel-related costs incurred for a large group of employees are taken into account workshops can be very expensive for some organisations, especially those in the public sector Nigeria, whose funding is very limited. Trainees and management may expect too much from a single workshop programme (Sandoval, 2010). One major disadvantage of workshops as a training technique is the false impression that may be created of their comprehensiveness and usefulness. Workshops normally run over a period of a few days; the skills and knowledge acquired may be incomplete and insufficient to enable a worker make a meaningful contribution in the workplace. Management may have the wrong impression that the knowledge and skills acquired are sufficient and that the employees do not require further training. Furthermore, the workshop topic may not be helpful to the organisation and the exercise would then be a waste of resources. These factors may account for the fact that some trainees do not improve their performance after a workshop and that retention is very low in some instances. Such problems can be solved by a series of subsequent workshops, where inputs are built on the outputs of previous workshops.

#### **4.3.5. Conference and Seminars**

Conferences are normally used by organisations to update their employees' skills and knowledge (NCVO, 2011). They provide an opportunity for participants to share information and ideas, broaden their outlook and gain experience from people from different professional backgrounds as well as those who work in the same industry (Lynton & Pareek, 2000, p. 191). Conference participants discuss modern skills and business challenges to reach consensus on a solution for a particular topic or technique with the help of experts in the field. The main advantage of a conference is that it encourages everyone's participation. Sharing ideas with people from different organisations encourages knowledge transfer and promotes a sense of renewed hope and inspiration among participants. The downside of this method is that participants may generate an idea that supervisors or manager/s may not accept; hence training transfer will not take place. The costs of attending conferences are quite high and government organisations may not be able to reimburse participants for their

expenses. This may lead to lack of learning transfer on the part of employees, as they will not be held accountable if there is no improvement in their performance after the conference or seminar. As in the case of a workshop, attendees may expect too much from a conference or seminar, which can lead to disappointment. Attendance at one seminar or conference may lead to the acquisition of little or no knowledge; hence this will not have the expected positive impact on business performance.

#### **4.3.6. On-The-Job Training and Development**

On-the-job T&D methods of training enable trainees to acquire knowledge and experience over a period of time while they perform their regular duties (Taiwo, 2007, p. 12; Rothwell and Kazans, p. 5). The trainees are trained in the organisation where they work. This type of training targets employees who do not possess the academic qualifications needed for their jobs. On-the-job training is highly effective as it involves activities that enable employees to learn new roles and responsibilities (Forsyth, 2001). This provides them with skills and knowledge to meet the demands of customers and other stakeholders (Pulley, 2006). According to Fajana (2004 cited in Shadare, 2010), on-the-job training enables an employee to become accustomed to the instruments and materials that he/she will use in the workplace. This technique involves job directives given by an employee's manager or senior staff member who is talented and experienced (Adiel, 2009). It is most useful when employees are promoted and take up a new position, when productivity decreases, when there is need for employees to specialise in a particular skill, or there is a need to improve skills and knowledge to deal with the demands of the job (Alani & Isola, 2009). On-the-job T&D strengthens manager-subordinate relationships, has a positive motivational effect and above all improves performance (Forsyth, 2001). It offers managers the opportunity to take practical steps within a particular job context to attend to a specific need of the organisation prior to resorting to external methods if necessary (Poro, 2009). It also enables employees to be trained in the use of specific equipment for maximum return on investment (Pettinger, 2002, p. 61). However, on-the-job training is not without its limitations. Organisations like the NRC may not have sufficient personnel or the expertise to train employees in-house. Moreover, managers and experienced employees may be preoccupied with other managerial concerns and may not have time to train (Awe, 2010). Furthermore, the trainees may adapt the approaches advocated by the trainer; this may result in them adopting undesirable habits, with adverse consequences.

In-house T&D aims to enable employees to acquire skills and knowledge through internally organised training; it updates employees on the new techniques or skills associated with the performance of their duties. In-house training is usually the responsibility of supervisors and employees. Supervisors are presumed to know the modus operandi of good training and have the understanding and skills to produce a productive employee. A few examples of on-the-job training methods are discussed below.

#### **4.3.7. In-Service Training**

This is a training method where the organisation undertakes to train its employees in a vocational centre sponsored by the organisation or according to an agreement between the employee and the organisation. In-service training is described as “a systematic effort that leads to coordinate and set ambitious, interests and following desires of people with needs and goals of organizations according to people’s expectations” (Danayi, Kordestani, Ahmadian, & Anabestani, 2012). The most important aim of in-service training is to enhance employees’ effectiveness to enable them to adapt to a changing environment (Ghelich, 2007 cited in Sarboland & Aghayi, 2012). In-service training is becoming more important as science and technology evolve (Sarboland & Aghayi, 2012). As a result of globalisation, the world is changing and evolving; upgrading the quality of in-service training is a concern for many organisations (Yigi, 2008). As knowledge changes as a result of globalisation, teaching and learning methods also change. In-service training can close the gap by improving teaching and learning methods (Yigi, 2008). Like the other forms of training, it aims to update the employee’s capabilities. It renders maximum benefit to the organisation using it when it supplements, rather than substitutes for, formal training (Akinyele, 2007). In-service training has been found to be helpful in positively influencing employees’ personal abilities, loyalty and their overall organisational commitment (Sarboland & Aghayi, 2012, p. 2698). GaniNia, Gilaninia & Sharami’s (2013) study found that in-service training instils feelings of competence, efficacy, trust and empowerment in employees. In-service training was found to have positive influence on the communication skills and overall behaviours of teachers (Jahangir, Saheen & Kazmi, 2012). It was also found to have positive impact on workers’ operations (Danayi, et al., 2012) and instill a sense of confidence, competence and effectiveness (Sammak, Nia, Shafiee & Fahim, 2013, p. 1055). In-service training is best used in the training of civil servants, especially teachers. It helps to educate contemporary

teachers for changing times so that any changes introduced have positive results for learners and enables schools to face an uncertain future with assurance (Yigi, 2008). It helps civil servants, especially teachers to effectively develop their competences throughout their career. In-service training enable trainees to build on and put into practice the competences learned during their training. It is most effective when it is used to train new employees who are often ill-prepared or employees who are newly promoted to the rank of supervisors and managers (Rycus & Hughes, 2000). One of the disadvantages of in-service training is that insufficient time is allotted to it and that there is not sufficient training material (Conco, 2005).

#### **4.3.8. Job Shadowing**

According to Nayab & Finn (2007), job shadowing is a training approach that allows a new employee to familiarise him/herself with the job in a short period of time. Learning is achieved by observing a trained and experienced employee in all the tasks he/she performs as part of his/her daily routine. The benefit of job shadowing is that new employees can build their confidence much faster and assume responsibilities in a much shorter time. The new employee observes and experiences different situations, procedures, methods and scenarios during the training period. Job shadowing is an appropriate way of introducing new staff to the organisation (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2013, p. 72). It provides an understanding of the tasks associated with their work and thus a wide-ranging understanding of a particular job (Heathfield, 2011). New employees act as observers, while old, more experienced employees function as the demonstrator. The new employee spends a few days following the routine of the old employees, observing how the job is carried out and gaining insight into approaches that allow for the effective handling of the work. Job shadowing is also essential when an employee wants to learn about a different job in an organisation. It is used during internships, because it allows the trainee first hand, practical experience. This method is best used for would-be receptionists, administrative assistants, clerks, secretaries and so forth. It is an essential tool for the NRC as the corporation is hiring new employees as part of its rehabilitation exercise to replace retired members of staff. The advantage of job shadowing in a big and complex organisation like the NRC is that it eliminates the feeling of intimidation that new employees often feel when performing a task for the first time. Job shadowing builds new employees' confidence by offering them a real life opportunity to observe the procedures and methods used in the organisation. It enables new employees to build rapport with other employees, enabling a much faster integration of

the new staff member with their peers or work team. However, job shadowing is not without its disadvantages. It provides trainees with a limited and superficial understanding of job processes, rather than the core skills required of them. This is mainly due to the fact that job shadowing is usually limited to a few days to a week. This may not offer trainees the opportunity to learn about key work challenges.

#### **4.3.9. Coaching**

Robbins and Hunsaker (2009, p. 160) note that coaching is a developmental process of helping employees to improve their performance. A coach acts as a guide for trainees to discover new skills and knowledge based on former experience and impending opportunities (Mackey & Livsey, p. 239). Coaching is applied when an organisation wants to improve its employees' performance and/or when young and inexperienced employees lack knowledge, make regular mistakes or need advice on a particular issue. It can be a strategy to transform non-performing employees into performing ones (Rothwell & Kazanas, 2004, p. 7). The young protégé is attached to an experienced manager to enable him/her to acquire knowledge, experience and skills required for the performance his/her duties. A coach is an employee or manager who understands the organisation's business strategic objectives and internal dynamics – he/she speaks the language of the organisation. A coach finds way to improve performance, create a supportive climate, and change behaviour (Hunsaker, 2009, p. 160). Coaching helps the subordinate and the supervisor to work together in a way that will enable the young employee to perform better. Coaching is essential for training young protégés earmarked for supervisory or leadership positions to enable them to gain knowledge for their future positions (Burley, 2012).

Coaching has an advantage over off-the-job training in the sense that training is tailored to a specific need of the organisation using the results of the T&D needs analysis. Coaching can be used to improve employees' performance deficiencies and can also serve as a motivational tool for those carrying out their tasks satisfactorily. For coaching to be effective, the coach must understand the trainee's job and the skills required to meet his/her performance level. The protégé and the coach must agree on the performance objectives to be achieved. Passmore & Rehman's (2012) study found that learning occurs much faster with coaching compared with other methods. Coaching has the advantage of interpersonal interaction between the manager and the protégé. It involves regular, structured and constructive

feedback on progress made or needing to be made by the trainee. Coaching allows employees, especially those who are newly-hired, to imbibe a helpful attitude and organisational culture (Branham, 2005). It is vital for the induction and development of new employees and enhances succession planning and skills transfer. It also helps to build an employee's competence and promotes a culture of learning in an organisation (Meyer, 2007). Coaching is an essential T&D method in Nigerian public organisations, where government or bureaucratic protocols may delay or hinder the development of civil servants using outside professionals. The major disadvantage of the coaching method is that managers are afraid that younger employees will take over their positions; they see no point in coaching someone to usurp them. Furthermore, coaching requires feedback, which can be threatening to employees' self-esteem, especially when it involves negative comments. This can lead to defensive behaviour and hostility which, if left unchecked, might lead to a decrease in future job performance and an increase in turnover intentions (Wexley & Latham, 1991). Furthermore, coaching involves receiving instructions and counselling from only one manager and not from co-workers and only offers company-specific information to trainees. The trainee may not have the opportunity to interact with other managers in different departments or organisations. Some coaches do not perceive the coaching as one of their core assignments and so make less time available for coaching. Coaches often lack relevant professional training and may thus lack current skills and techniques.

#### **4.3.10. Mentoring**

Mentoring is system of training where a continued relationship is developed between senior and junior employees. A mentor is a wise and experienced employee or manager who serves as a role model over a period of time (Mackey & Livsey, 2006, p. 243) and Pettinger (2002, p. 125). The mentor assists the personal development of the mentee for the benefit of the employee and the organisation. Mentoring is concerned with providing direction and a clear understanding of how the company goes about its business. It is essential in communicating vital information on the organisation's mission and values, bringing about learning transfer which stands the mentee in good stead for his/her future in the organisation (Okurame, 2009, p. 347). Mentoring is cost effective in attracting, retaining and developing staff. For an example an organisation might be able to retain its graduate employees if it provides for their on-going development. Mentoring allows the mentee to gain advice and suggestions from the mentor. Furthermore, mentoring can empower employees from ethnic groups to accelerate

their career progression, especially in an organisation where equity is an issue (Rolfe, 2011, p. 10). Mentoring produces positive, sustainable organisational, industrial and professional development and improvement and reinforces positive attitudes, values and behavior on the part of employees (Pettinger, 2002, p. 127). Mentoring differs from coaching in the sense that it is concerned with improving how employees fit within the organisation, while coaching is about improving performance (Burley, 2012). A mentor could be a manager who is experienced, productive and willing to share his/her experience with a young, less-experienced employee. The mentor normally plays a modest and informal developmental role. Mentoring involves a sequence of informal yet constructive meetings between the mentor and the protégé (Forsyth, 2001, p. 55). It involves a series of dialogues (between the mentor and mentee), feedback sessions and counselling on the part of the mentor. Mentoring adds a powerful element to a series of developmental exercises and has a powerful influence on a young employee when carried out effectively. The knowledge and skills imparted through on-going interaction and communication are invaluable (Forsyth, 2001). According to Taiwo (2007, p. 18), mentoring and coaching are more effective in helping employees retain their skills than other methods of training. Okurame's (2009, p. 356) study of a large government hospital in Nigeria showed that employees' attitudes to work in a public organisation can be enhanced through mentoring activities. For mentoring to be effective, mentors must be carefully chosen based on their interpersonal skills, disposition and their wiliness to develop young employees.

#### **4.3.11. Job Rotation**

Job rotation refers to the periodic redeployment of employee/s from one department to another or from series of jobs with the aim of helping them to become familiar with the different phases of the work process. According to Bennet (2003 cited in Baro, 2012, p. 389), job rotation can take two different forms: job rotation within-function and job rotation across function. It also helps employees to familiarise themselves with the responsibilities associated with different jobs. In other words, this method enables employees to obtain particular practical knowledge and experience promptly instead of waiting for an opportunity for training. A typical job rotation involves temporary assignments that may last from one to a few months, to a few years (ZeroMilion, 2011; Adegoroye, 2006). In certain job rotation practices, the protégé may assume the position of an observer, while at other times he/she may be assigned a responsibility where he/she is required to make his/her own decisions. Job

rotation is task-based because the exercise is done in the work area and focuses on real job processes. The main assumption is that the trainees will be able to gain an overall perception of the organisation and how the different parts relate to one another. The most important aspect of job rotation is its ability to offer trainees an opportunity to increase their problem-solving and decision-making skills. More importantly, it offers employees the chance to enlarge the range of their experience, skills, and ability by working in different divisions, business units and functions. For example, Baro's (2012, p. 398) research in Nigeria found that job rotation was an important programme for employees to acquire new skills, improve their productivity, develop new relationships across the organisation and acquire new skills for future career development. Job rotation could be an effective T&D technique for training new recruits in the NRC and other government entities. It could also be an effective succession planning method, as there will be a need to pass on tacit knowledge from experienced employees to new staff members. Furthermore, it would help management to identify employees who have the potential and ability to fill a position. The disadvantage of job rotation is the lack of a structured lesson guide which may result in the trainer omitting important information because what is learned is based on the events of the day rather than what new employees need to know to be effective and productive. There is not always enough time to gain the needed skills. Finally, experienced employees may not be willing to share their knowledge with new employees (Baro, 2012).

#### **4.3.12. Secondment**

Secondment is the provisional attachment or relocation of employees to another organisation to promote their development and that of their establishment (Mackey & Livsey, p. 243). This method allows the employee to take up a different role in a different division of the organisation or in a different organisation for a set period of time, normally from a few months to about two years. Organisations use secondment in conjunction with other training methods like formal mentoring to develop potential leaders (Barkworth, 2004, p. 3). Secondment allows employees to develop new experience and knowledge, organisational competencies, known-how and to learn additional ways of doing things (NCVO, 2011). It helps employees to develop their present knowledge and skills in a different environment free from constraints. It may play a significant role in employees' career development and organisational succession planning. It can also be used as a functional choice to address performance problems and skills shortages. Secondment allows employees the opportunity to

gain new cultural insights and retain and share knowledge. It could be a useful tool for the NRC and other government establishments to impart skills to match their specific needs and requirements. It would be a cost effective way for the NRC to develop knowledgeable and motivated employees. It offers organisations the opportunity to hold on to their important employees during difficult periods (Barkworth, 2004). Tuffrey (1997 cited in Barkworth, 2004, p. 4) observes that secondment has been shown to offer employees greater increases in competency than other methods of development. This could enable the NRC to use skilled workers, while providing them with training opportunities. Jackson (2003) notes, that exposing employees to different work situations can help them improve their communication and problem-solving skills or acquire vital skills in project management. The important questions to consider are - will the employee be effective after the reassignment? Secondly, will confidentiality be at risk as a result of competition and conflicts of interest on the part of the employees? (Wittgenstein, 2007).

#### **4.3.13. Delegation**

Delegation is described as a situation where a manager or supervisor takes the initiative to allow his/her subordinate to make decisions and carry out action on his/her behalf (Forsyth, 2001, p. 30). Delegation is one of the most effective methods to develop a subordinate's growth and development. It enables them to improve their job capabilities and knowledge. Well-organised managers empower their subordinates to accomplish assignments by entrusting them with responsibility and authority (Robbins & Hunsaker, 2009, p. 174). Another advantage of delegation is that it allows employees to develop and gain much-needed experience. Delegation builds morale, improves job performance and boosts job satisfaction. Robbins and Hunsaker (2009, p. 174) observe that empowering employees through delegation is a one of the most effective tools to enhance productivity in an organisation. It allows managers time to concentrate on other more important organisational issues (Forsyth, 2001, p. 31). The main problem with delegation is that it involves risks; something may go wrong as a result of the employee's inexperience and more time may be wasted in trying to sort things out. Moreover, some managers are still afraid of relinquishing control.

#### **4.3.14. Job Enlargement**

This approach allows an employer or manager to expand an employee/s current job to incorporate new and higher level tasks. That is, new tasks and responsibilities are added to the employee's existing job. This could involve assigning an employee to manage a project to enable him/her to acquire valuable experience that will serve him/her well in the future (Heathfield, 2008). This is common means of encouraging employee development. Job enlargement leads to multi-skilling, because the employee acquires more skills as he/she takes on extra tasks. An enlarged job helps to eradicate the boredom that results from performing the same or a limited number of activities in a particular job. Therefore, job enlargement makes work more fulfilling and satisfying. It offers employees the opportunity to experience jobs that are multipurpose and yet very similar in some features. Some authors do not regard job enlargement as training per se; they argue that a worker needs training to prepare him/her to handle additional responsibilities. This infers that job enlargement should not be a stand-alone technique. Rather, it should be combined with another method example lectures (Nayab, 2011). If not properly planned, job enlargement may result in a heavy workload which may be counter-productive. This technique may work well at the NRC and other government establishments as it does not involve any costs. A supervisor does not have to spend time outside his/her normal duties to train the employee/s.

#### **4.3.15. Job Enrichment**

This refers to a situation where job activities are increased through vertical expansion. The employee is given an opportunity to plan, control and manage his/her job activities. Job enrichment encourages maturity on the part of employees and leads to job satisfaction and a sense of fulfilment. The difference between job enlargement and job enrichment is that the former involves increasing the job quantitatively, while the latter implies improving the job qualitatively such that employees are more satisfied and fulfilled. This technique empowers employees by giving them more insight into handling different decision-making situations. Job enrichment has a more motivational impact in the sense that it involves acquiring experience in managerial duties. Studies have established a positive association between job enrichment and job satisfaction (Nayab, 2011). It is also useful to government organisations in the same way as job enlargement.

#### **4.3.16. Understudy Assignments**

This technique is generally used by supervisors or managers to train employees who are likely to occupy their positions in the near future. It is normally used to train future managers; here, the potential manager works directly with the incumbent manager for a few weeks or months studying his/her techniques and management style and gradually taking over from him/her (Russell, 2011). This ensures that the trainee is properly trained to become a manager. The importance of understudying is that it allows for successful succession planning and for the smooth transition into a new job. If the worker is continuously trained to take over managerial functions, the chances are that the organisation will be in the hands of competent manager/s in the future. Understudy as a T&D technique can be very effective for employees in government-owned organisations example, the NRC, as it eliminates the administrative bottlenecks managers have to go through to secure funding to hire external trainers (consultants). Understudy makes transition easy and simple for the new manager, because he/she has a better understanding of the present condition and future direction of the organisation.

#### **4.3.17. Hands-On Training**

Hand-on training directly involves the trainee by encouraging him/her to practice in order to learn the job. Hands-on training is used in situations where it would be impracticable to show employees how to do something without being physically present. Training the locomotive drivers in the NRC is a good example; it would not be practicable to teach a locomotive driver how to drive a train in a traditional classroom environment. Hands-on training is appropriate for workers engaged in manual labour like factory workers. It is mainly used in manufacturing and transportation businesses whose primary job function is physical activity (Stringfellow, 2011). It allows trainees the opportunity to study and comprehend what is happening. The main disadvantage is that certain things cannot be taught using hands-on training; for instance, complex accounting calculations are best taught in a classroom situation where demonstrations that aid learning can be accommodated.

#### **4.3.18. Committee/Work Group**

In this T&D method, organisations train their employees by involving them in different management discussions and activities aimed at generating ideas to solve the company's problems (Omodia, 2009, p. 115). This is primarily necessary when an organisation is preparing individuals to take over managerial positions or as head of organisational units. This method ~~in~~volves interactional techniques of agreeing, disagreeing, negotiation of meaning and clarification" (Martine, 2006, p. 36). It gives the learners the opportunity to share real information about the issues discussed. It allows for the maximum sharing of ideas and motivates the trainees to contribute to their own learning. The disadvantage of this method is that government-owned organisations might not have the facilities for group learning. In the NRC, for example, facilities are in short supply and are not adequately maintained.

#### **4.3.19. Vestibule Training**

Vestibule training involves training employees in a related working environment, where they can practice their skills with the same tools they are likely to use in their real work setting (Omodia, 2009, p. 115, Adeniji, 2010). Practical skills can be imparted to employees through industrial attachments (Olaniyan & Ojo, 2008). This method of training and development is important in a situation where there are sensitive operations and high levels of accuracy are needed. It is best used for training employees for clerical and semi-skilled jobs (Khammam, 2010). This technique may not be feasible or practicable for civil servants because it requires time to locate appropriate organisations to provide training. It is only suitable for an organisation that has effective and functional Training Institute/s.

#### **4.3.20. Simulation**

Simulation is an instructional method to accelerate knowledge by allowing for skills development, practice and feedback in settings identical to the real work setting (Weaver et al., 2010). Simulation can be effective in training civil servants in Nigeria; for example, training NRC technical personnel and locomotive drivers, especially newly employed drivers, to handle their new locomotive engine trains. This technique allows for active learning through active learner participation and repetitive practice. Put differently, it is a training technique where employees are confronted with realistic decision-making in a real world situation in as short a time possible. Possible issues and different solutions are discussed.

Simulations can help organisation acquire core technical skills; this sometimes requires virtual reality computer-based simulation platforms. Companies seeking a better return on investment may use virtual reality simulation platforms to teach core skills. Simulation is a participatory T&D method that involves a computer programme which allows for experimentation with complex interactions. A virtual business or office environment is created, real life business issues are tackled, decisions are made and the effect of the decision is known immediately. Simulation exercises require a proper briefing and sometimes preparatory work to set them up. The simulations technique is best used for individual training. It is very popular in training health personnel, and it allows for the development of employees' skills in a structured manner. Moreover, it enables management to identify employees' weaknesses and their development is then directed towards remedying these weaknesses. The advantage of simulation as a training method is that training can be standardised and assessed using performance metrics. These include the time taken to complete a task, the type and number of errors committed, ideal arrangements and many other markers of performance. Simulation helps to replicate exercises or practices that will be essential on-the-job (Taylor, 2012). One disadvantage of simulation as a training technique is that it has a narrow focus on technical competencies and does not address non-technical competencies. The intensity and duration of successful simulation training has not been defined and it currently exists as training supplement. Moreover, simulators are currently designed for individual learning and are not a network that provides for group training. It may be difficult to practice in the NRC or other government organisations in Nigeria because of the lack of technological expertise.

#### **4.3.21. Apprenticeship**

Apprenticeship refers to the acquisition of skills through a wide-ranging practical training exercise over a period of time. This method of training is appropriate for artisans and tradesmen (Aniekwu & Ozochi, 2010, p. 97). The trainee works closely with the instructor for a period of time, often hired by the organisation on a part-time basis to carry out the instruction. This method is more practical and job-related; therefore, it produces employees who can perform practical jobs. Apprenticeship is mainly used for practical skills development (Wexley & Latham, 1991). This approach to training guarantees that skills development is company specific and also ensures that employees gain appropriate skills (Aniekwu & Ozochi, 2010). It results in high quality work standards.

The advantages of apprenticeship include having a fully experienced workforce trained within the organisation as opposed to those recruited from other organisations. This method allows an organisation to obtain a surplus of workers with the practical skills and qualities that it requires and that may not be available externally. It also provides a better fit between those trained and the working practices of the organisation. Like any other in-house training method, apprenticeship removes the problem of having to recruit skilled and suitable employees externally. This method is generally more cost effective, because training workers within saves time and money (Husluck, Hogarth, Balsuaf, & Briscoe, 2008). Apprentices are appreciated in an organisation where they are seen as would-be replacements for an aging workforce. Apprenticeship contributes to the pool of skilled workers from which employees can be selected and has the potential to enhance the organisation's reputation among the entire workforce. Apprenticeship can be used for all skills training, especially in an organisation's own training institutes, can be carried out in real work environments and takes longer time, which is beneficial in terms of the internalisation of the knowledge acquired (Pant, 2012, p. 166). Many successful technicians have undergone this type of training.

#### **4.3.22. Action Learning**

In this form of learning, trainees work in groups of six to eight to offer support and encouragement, share experiences and test novel concepts (Mackey & Livsey, p. 244). There is normally an advisor who establishes contact and provides opportunity and resources. The groups meet regularly to work on real problems with the support of the individuals in the group. Learning in this setting relies on skills acquisition through listening and asking questions. This method helps the trainees to reach the desired solutions to certain issues and enables them to take action (NCVO, 2011). It allows trainees, and sometimes the manager, to work full time on a task in order to assess and resolve problems in a department other than their own. Successful action learning is dependent on the contribution, motivation and support of every group member to allow learning to take place (Mackey & Livsey, p. 244). Action learning allows management to handle special projects. It could be useful for a government organisation in the sense that it deals with real and current issues in the organisation. It is cost effective and easy to practice, although it is demand-driven. This implies that it can only serve as a reactive measure to solve the organisation's problems. The disadvantage of this method is that one assignment will not be sufficient to impart adequate

skills and knowledge to employee/s to enable them to contribute meaningfully to the growth of the organisation.

#### **4.3.23. Induction/Orientation**

This training technique targets new employees; its purpose is to orient new employees on the vision and aspirations of the organisation in order that they may discharge their duties efficiently. Induction training assists new staff to appreciate the values and challenges of the organisation they are working for. Orientation can be formal or informal. Formal orientation introduces new employees to the organisation's requirements such as its norms, ethics, rules and regulations, job requirements and work-related demands. Informal orientation involves the social interaction that occurs in a work environment that may either boost or deter productivity (Omodia, 2009, p. 114; Olaniyan & Ojo, 2008).

#### **4.3.24. Organisational Socialisation**

Organisational socialisation is a training technique through which organisations initiate their newly employed staff to participate in the business (Fogarty, 2002). It provides new entrants with information and knowledge about their jobs and helps them to adapt to their role in the organisation (Saks & Gruman, 2011; Lalonde, 2003). Organisational socialisation perpetuates an organisation's way of life and its values, attitudes, beliefs and practices. Furthermore, it helps new employees overcome the initial anxiety experienced when one is learning a new functional role. Organisational socialisation theory posits that T&D leads to more positive job-related attitudes, for example, job participation and job fulfilment (Maanen & Schin, 1979). Socialisation is necessary because new employees usually experience anxiety as a result of the loneliness and isolation that come with moving to new location in an organisation. The stability and productivity of an organisation depend on how effective newcomers are in the performance of their jobs (Maanen & Schin, 1979).

#### **4.3.25. Technology as a Training Method**

Many organisations are embracing organised learning as a way of confronting the challenges posed by globalisation and technological changes. Traditional methods of training do not support continuous learning and are becoming less fashionable, especially in the developed

economies. They are time consuming and expensive, partly because of the travel and accommodation costs involved (Koulianos, Shah, Skytta & Syampa, 2012). Standard forms of classroom instruction have been replaced by technology. Many organisations are using technology as a training platform; this makes it possible to deliver training from different locations, near and far. The increased use of technology as a training tool is partly due to its cost effectiveness and its ability to build different elements into programmes in order to improve the quality of the training (Kumpikaitė, & Čiarnienė, 2008). It allows for easy updating, assessment and distribution of information. Technology has the potential to enhance learning; for example, the use of computer graphic interfaces have the potential to enable trainees to learn more (HR Magazine, 2008). Technology allows for training materials to be designed that enhances learning, motivate, stimulate and increase retention.

#### **4.3.25.1. Audio-visual Methods**

This training technique involves the use of audio, audiotape, internal TV, video and films. Audio-visual methods are commonly used in communication training, to enable the organisation's future leaders and sales personnel to become more articulate speakers (Kunasz, 2003). Videotape provides trainees with excellent feedback after their individual presentation. This technique is useful in imparting interviewing skills and behavioural modelling training, and so forth (Wexley & Latham, 1991). Audio-visual methods are best used when training is required that demonstrates how processes should be monitored over a period of time (Wexley & Latham, 1991, p. 181). This training technique is advantageous when training is to be conducted for the entire staff of an organisation, as employees do not have to travel from different locations to the training venue. This method is best combined with a live lecture during the session.

#### **4.3.25.2. E-Learning**

E-learning is sometimes referred to as computer-based training; however, it is defined as delivering training through the use of electronic media (Sarwar et al., 2011). The internet and multimedia technologies are the main enablers of e-learning. In recent times, e-learning has been used extensively by many organisations to train their workers and customers (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2013, p. 54). Training materials and instructions on how to apply them are located on a website or an organisation's intranet. Learning can

also be facilitated through the use of LANs, CDs or the Internet. E-learning has the advantage of allowing greater interaction; trainees can carry out their exercise while going through the training materials (Stringfellow, 2011). One of the major benefits of online learning is that it provides learners with the opportunity to learn at their own pace, in their private space. Trainees can fit training around their existing timetable and finish the programme anywhere they find convenient (Leask & Zimmer, 2011).

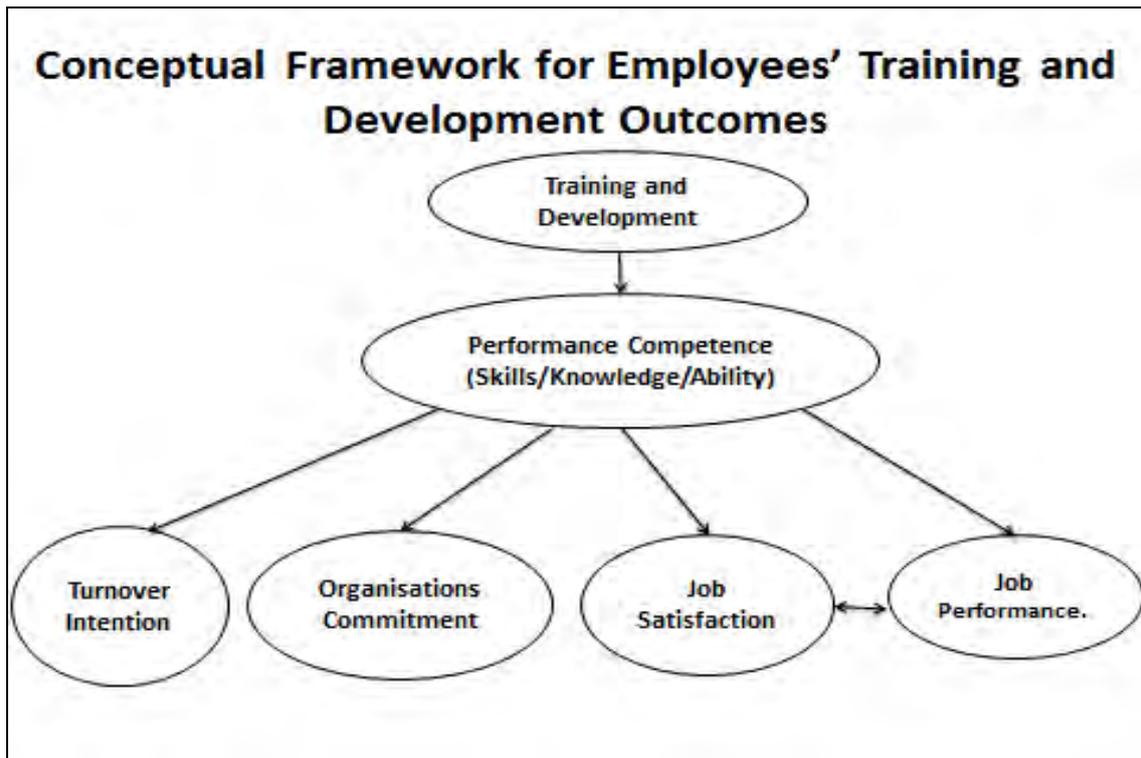
E-learning is cost-effective, because trainees do not have to travel and be accommodated in hotels, and so forth in order to attend training sessions, saving time and maintaining productivity. Furthermore, it can reach an unlimited number of trainees at the same time. Online training also offers opportunities for continuous training that is cheap, less time demanding and focuses on promoting self-sufficiency (Leask & Zimmer, 2011). E-learning offers training to workers in different locations with incompatible timetables at the same time. It allows for the use of various learning resources as well as interaction and collaboration between trainers and trainees in an individual, personalised environment (Cáliz, 2002). E-learning guarantees a reliable training message that is conveyed through technology. On the other hand, internet-based training or e-learning does not allow an opportunity for discussion or role play. Moreover, some courses are better taught through interactive discussions, for instance, conflict management and team-building. Furthermore, untested standard software or programmes are unlikely to meet local requirements (Meyer, 2007, p 305). Another problem is that the creation of a reliable programme that meets individual needs is still at an early stage and is not common; programmes that are accessible are still of an introductory nature (Cáliz, 2002). Therefore, to gain more from training there should be a blend of e-learning and conventional training methods that involve the physical presence of a trainer. The initial high level of investment required in e-learning renders it out of the reach of some organisations, especially government establishments. Nigerian organisations, including the NRC, do not seem to be ready to use e-learning as a training technique. The poor and erratic power supply in Nigeria, poor infrastructural development and slow network service make e-learning an unattractive method. Therefore the effective use of e-learning as a method of training in Nigeria is limited to a few locations.

#### **4.4. Conceptual Frameworks for T&D Outcomes**

##### **4.4.1. Performance Competencies**

The main aim of T&D is to impart knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours that improve workers' performance and achieve the organisation's objectives (Indradevi, 2010). When employees receive training they acquire skills and knowledge that will stand them in good stead for the future. Knowledge, skills and ability are referred to here as performance competences; these are the characteristics that enable employees to accomplish their tasks. Training helps employees to become competent, flexible, dynamic and able to adapt to the needs of the organisation (Obisi, 2011). Nikandrou, Brinia, & Bereri (2009, p. 262) found that employees cited personal career growth and the need for new knowledge as reasons for participating in training activities. Santos and Stuart's (2003) study indicated that individuals benefited from training through improved knowledge and skills, confidence, self-efficacy and organisational satisfaction. Costen and Salazar (2011) suggest that training directly influences workers' skills and impacts on their level of competence, while Taiwo (2007, p. 18) found an association between effective training and the acquisition of the skills and knowledge required for workers to perform well on-the-job. Furthermore, Rosner (1999) observed that T&D enhances employee morale, improves their skills and performance and helps them excel in their jobs. As a result T&D has become an indispensable duty of human resource departments in any organisation, including those in the public sector.

The multifaceted set of relationships illustrated in the diagram below depict a positive correlation between T&D and the following variables; skills, competences, job performance, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and employees' turnover intention.



**Figure 4.1: Conceptual Framework for Employees' T&D Outcomes (author's secondary research findings)**

#### **4.4.2. Job Performance**

Generally, there is a positive relationship between T&D and workplace performance (Drake-Knight, 2012). Employee development is not only an endeavour to enrich the quality of an employee's knowledge and skills, but also prepares them to undertake specific tasks to improve their job performance (Okoh, 2002; Oladimeji, 2011; Ji; Huang; Liu; Zhu, & Cai, 2012). For instance, ergonomic training aims to impart knowledge and skills in the efficient use of office facilities which can improve work flow, employees' effectiveness and overall job performance (Robertson & Huang, 2006). Workers' ability to control their working environment improves individual job performance. Clombo and Stanca (2008) indicated that while training has a positive impact on clerks, it has a significant but negative impact on executives. The differences between the impact of training on white and blue collar workers could be due to the fact that white collar workers' productivity-enhancing skills are generally acquired through advanced education, while on-the-job training is sufficient to enhance the knowledge and skills of blue collar workers. Manasa & Reddy (2009) and the Centre for Management Development (CMD) (2011) found that, with proper motivation, T&D can

result in productivity improving to as high as 90%. Akinwumi and Adeyanju (2011) established that level of education and training have a significant impact on teachers' performance in Nigeria. Training and development enhance other qualities in trainees, such as an improvement in profit making and service quality, the proper use of employees, improved employee safety and motivation, reduced resistance to change, reduced costs as result of a decrease in mistakes, and improved competence and job performance (Olaniyi, 2006 cited in Shadare, 2010). Lockers & Latham's (1990) goal setting theory argued that a consciously set goal that is clear and challenging can lead to increase in performance. This explains why T&D leads to improved performance. Trainees are aware that the aim of T&D is to acquire competencies to achieve an organisation's set goals. Social exchange theory is another motivational theory which encourages trainees to apply their knowledge on-the-job because of what they hope to gain in the end. Therefore, T&D should be a core strategic intent for organisations that want to grow and be productive. However, not every study has found a significant positive association between T&D and an increase in performance, Cooney, Terziovski, & Samson, (2002) indicated that employee training was found to have a small effect on employees' performance.

#### **4.4.3. Job Satisfaction**

When employees receive training they acquire skills and knowledge, which leads to reduced working hours as a result of increased efficiency. This enables them to do their jobs better, become more efficient, gain self-esteem and raises their morale, which lead to job satisfaction (Ryan, 2009; ILC, 2008; Forsyth, 2001; Ellinger et al., 2003 cited in Rowold, 2008). It has been established that T&D is positively and considerably associated with job satisfaction and that job satisfaction is also positively and significantly associated with workplace performance on most measures of performance (Felsteda, Gallieb, Greenc, & Zhoud, 2010, p. 1678; Schmidt, 2007; America, 2001, Donald, 2009). The two domains are mutually reinforcing; thus, as workers derive more satisfaction from working in a successful organisation, so their performance continues to improve (Georgellis & Lange, 2007). Studies have found that respondents who participated in training demonstrated higher degrees of understanding of job requirements and hence, job satisfaction (Georgesllis & Lange, 2007; Glaveli & Karassavidou 2011; Spears & Parker, 2002, p. 14). Appropriate T&D makes employees happier in their jobs and they feel valued by their employers (Shelton, 2001, p. 44). On the other hand, according to Melymuka (2000 Cited in Schmidt, 2007), employee

dissatisfaction was partly attributed to their lack of fulfilment in their jobs, which was caused by the failure to receive the training they needed. Blum & Kaplan (2000 cited in Schmidt, 2007) observed that the opportunity to acquire new competences is crucial to job satisfaction. Shields & Ward, (2001 cited in Schmidt, 2007) also found that financial benefits impact less on job satisfaction than the opportunity to train among nurses in the UK. Randstad North Nankervis, Compton and McCarthy (1999) were of the opinion that effective training would not only equip employees with most of the knowledge and skills needed to accomplish jobs, but also contribute to job satisfaction. A survey of 271 network professionals established that even perceived opportunities to learn new skills was sufficient to lead to improved job satisfaction (Blum & Kaplan, 2000 cited in Schmidt, 2007).

Furthermore, Siebern-Thomas's (2005 cited in Jones, Jones, Latreille, & Sloane, 2008) analysis of 13 countries in the European Community Household Panel between 1994 and 2001, found that job satisfaction was inclined to be higher where there was access to workplace training. Molina and Ortega (2003) demonstrated that training can have a positive outcome on organisational performance by enhancing employee job satisfaction. Senge (1999) and Becker (1993) note that training leads to the accumulation of knowledge, expertise and skills and that this results in improved job performance; this enhances job satisfaction, as explained above, therefore these are therefore mutually reinforcing. Thus, management can improve employees' job satisfaction by increasing the rate of T&D activities that impact positively on their general skills acquisition (Jamshed, Halepota, & Irani, 2010; Jones, Jones, Latreille, & Sloane, 2008). Job satisfaction, which is a product of T&D, is not only an important source of employees' happiness, but also an essential factor that may influence their intention to quit or not quit the organisation (Rowold, 2008).

#### **4.4.4. Turnover Intention**

Gone are the days when employees dedicated their entire working life to one organisation because of profound interest or a lack of better alternatives. Training and development has the potential to decrease staff turnover and turnover intentions both in the short and long term and encourages the desire to contribute to the collective effort to achieve the overall goals of the organisation (Nickels, 2009; Adenigi, 2010). Every employee wants to remain in an organisation where he/she will be more competent and remain valuable and competitive (Nduchiadi, 2011; Young, 2007). Training and development lays a solid foundation for new

employees and serves as a source of reinforcement for the old ones. Wagner (2000 cited in Shelton, 2001) notes that the rate of employees retention is higher in organisations that are keen to train their staff members. Furthermore, it has been shown that employees who receive fewer training opportunities than they are entitled to contemplate leaving the organisation (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006 cited in Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008). This is due to the fact that T&D helps an organisation develop a culture where everyone feels valued and is prepared to work together for a common purpose (Emerald, 2012). The results of the study by Pajo, Coetzer & Guenole (2010, p. 300) suggest that employees who participate in T&D are less likely to quit the organisation.

However, the impact of T&D on intention to quit is not straight forward. In some instances, training has led to employees moving from one organisation to another. This is commonly experienced when the training is self-sponsored and/or when the skills acquired are of a more general nature. Sieben (2005) suggests that specific training reduces employees' intention to look for another job, but also points out that self-sponsored training undertaken during the employee's own time induces intention to leave. Furthermore, firm-financed training and firm-specific training minimise the rate of employees leaving the organisation (Hansson, 2008). This supports the standard human capital theory, which argues that investment in firm-specific skills reduces employee turnover, while investment in general skills could result in increased turnover or turnover intention (Flaherty, 2007, p.1). The transferability of general skills increases employees' mobility because such skills are more attractive to other organisations, particularly those in the same sector (Nickels, 2009 & Shelton, 2001). General training induces job mobility in the sense that the skills learnt can be useful to many organisations and can raise workers' productivity for other employers. On the other hand, specific skills bind the worker to the firm and serve as a barrier to exiting, as workers will lose a portion of the return on such skills if they move to another organisation (Jones et. al., 2008). Contrary to human capital theory, Koster, De Grip & Fouarge (2009) suggest that investment in general training does not induce the intention to leave the organisation. The effect of general training on intention to quit may be reduced by the positive effect of job satisfaction experienced by employees after the training intervention.

#### 4.4.5. Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has three parts: affective, continuance and normative commitment. Affective commitment is described as passionate affection for, empathy with, and participation in the achievement of organisational objectives (Ugboro, 2006). Affective commitment occurs in an organisation when employees' values are aligned with those of the organisation. In such a case, it becomes normal for the employees to be emotionally attached to the organisation (Ugboro, 2006). Continuance commitment, on the other hand, is described as employees' keenness to continuing working in an organisation because they have served it for many years; they stand to lose should they leave the organisation (Ugboro, 2006). Normative commitment can be described as a broad loyalty and feeling of duty to the organisation that results from an individual's belief that this is the moral and right thing to do. The employee believes that they ought to be committed to the organisation that provides them with their daily bread, even if this requires personal sacrifices (Ugboro, 2006).

Well-trained employees are more competent and relish the opportunity to take control of their jobs. These positive outcomes lead to more committed employees who are likely to remain in the organisation (Owoyemi et al., 2011; Brum, 2007, p. 2). Reinforcement theory suggests that behaviour is controlled by its consequences (Jonck, 2001); an employee's decision to be more committed to the organisation after training could stem from past experience of employees being promoted or rewarded for improving their performance after their training encounter. Further, employees, who view T&D as an incentive have more binding commitment to achieving organisational goals and commit themselves to the organisation where they have career prospects (Silberman & Philips, 2006; Brum, 2007; Klein, 2001; Smith, 2011). Young employees view T&D as very important, because they want the opportunity to grow and advance their careers. They equally want to make a tangible contribution to the growth of the organisation they work for. Oloyede (2005 cited in Shadare, 2010) argues that improving workers competences enhances productivity as well as commitment and motivation. Highly committed employees are more likely to be motivated and involved in activities that achieve organisational objectives. This offsets many direct and indirect costs which an organisation may bear as a result of employees leaving (Newman et al., 2011; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Brum, 2007).

The points made in the above paragraph support the social exchange theory which posits that individuals are likely to support issues that they stand to gain from. Employees are happy to work for and identify with an organisation that is prepared to invest money in their career advancement (Wilson, 2000 cited in Shelton, 2001). Companies with highly committed employees can be 200% more productive than low-commitment companies (Flanagan, 2010, citing Harvard Business Review, 2008). The same study found that 80% of employees who received T&D felt strongly committed to their organisation. Bulut and Culha (2010) found that training positively affected employee commitment, while Sunyoung & Hea (2008) demonstrated that HRD programmes like on-the-job training, mentoring, coaching and self-development significantly influence organisational commitment. Abbas and Yagoob, (2009) observed that a leadership development programme influences employees' attitude, commitment and trust in the organisation. Natarajan & Dinesh's (2011) study of 220 employees in India indicated that workers trained at younger age who stay longer in training, show more commitment than other employees. The empirical evidence has clearly demonstrated the importance of T&D to employees' organisational commitment; therefore, there is a need for organisations to engage in T&D as a means to enhance such commitment.

#### **4.5. Organisational Outcomes**

While many organisations acknowledge the shortage of skills in the labour market (Shoesmith, 2008), the question is: why are they reluctant to embark on T&D, if the outcomes are significantly positive? The main reason is that there is a lack of knowledge or information on the importance of T&D to organisations. Furthermore, organisations, especially in the private sector, tend to be more interested in outcomes such as financial gain and an increase in the organisation's value (Akinyele, 2007; NAN, 2010; Aragón-Sánchez; Barba-Aragón; Sanz-Valle, 2003). Consequently, according to Matilda (2009), "most of the government-commissioned research that sought to establish a general link between investment in skill and subsequent productivity improvements by firms ... may not have the expected impact on its prime intended target audience".

##### **4.5.1. Increase in Productivity and Performance**

In recent times, T&D has been positively connected to job proficiency (Leberman et al., 2006). The importance of T&D as means of organisational survival cannot be over-

emphasised. This is especially true when the job involved is a complex one (Ng & Feldman, 2009). An improvement in productivity partly depends on how well organisations and their employees can change and innovate. However, innovation is contingent on how well-trained and skilful employees are. Well-trained employees improve the ability of the organisation to be creative and creativity increases production through efficiency and effectiveness. The link between T&D and productivity was substantiated by Holton et al.'s, (2000) study and can be traced back to Becker's (1993) classic study whose fundamental assumption was that education and training brings about increased learning. In turn, increased learning brings about increased productivity and increased productivity brings about an increase in wages and business earnings. Education and training has been found to increase organisations' returns; which ensures their survival (Collier, Gree, Kim & Peirson, 2011, p.352). Other studies have found that T&D results in increased productivity and performance (Khan, Khan & Khan, 2011; Kyriakidou & Maroudas, 2010, p. 41; Marimuthu, Arokiasamy & Ismail, 2009; ILC, 2008; Aniekwu & Ozochi, 2010; Indradevi, 2010; Olaniyan & Ojo, 2008; Chiaburu & Lindsay, 2008). Furthermore, it has been established that training enhances organisations' ability to achieve a high level of performance and foster better performance outcomes (Ayarkwa, Adinyira & Osei-Asibey, 2012, p. 234; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008; Galanou & Pripora, 2009; ILC, 2008; Karthikeyan, Karthi, & Graf, 2010; Bourga, Stoltzfusa, McManusb, & Fry, 2010). A study carried out by the Centre for Business Research (2003) found that three-quarters of the respondents felt that T&D improved labour productivity. Furthermore, training was found to have a positive influence on the performance of civil servants in Abia state, Nigeria. Almost half of those who had received any kind of training or manpower development acknowledged that it had improved their performance, compared with 21.2% of those who did not receive any form of T&D (Okereke & Igboke, 2011). In a similar study, respondents reported increased output after T&D (Owusu-Acheaw, 2007). Approximately 75% of Cosh, Hughes, Bullock, & Potton's, (2003) study respondents indicated that training had improved their productivity. Senge's (1999) work can be used to explain these results. He argued that learning in organisations (through T&D) leads to knowledge acquisition, which leads to team knowledge sharing, greater motivation, social interaction, flexibility and more creativity; together, these lead to an increase in quality products, productivity and profit.

Furthermore, a study by Farahbakhs (2010) indicated that employees' performance in public organisations was higher after training than before training. Rasmussen, (2005) emphasises

that workers who are trained may be 230% more industrious than those who are untrained and doing a similar job. Colombano & Krkoska (2006) and Nguyen, Truong & Buyens (2011) posit that positive organisational performance is closely related to training programmes. Other studies have produced similar results (Knox & Walker, 2004; Maglen, Hopskin & Burk, 2001; Bartel, 1994; Birdi, Patterson & Wood, 2007, Dearden, Reed & Reenen, 2000; Leimbach, 2010). For instance, Birdi et al., (2007) found that a five percentage point increase in training is associated with a 4% increase in productivity. They also established an average of -7% rate of return for firms that do not provide training and an average of 24% for those that do (Almeiada & Carneiro, 2005). As organisations spent more on training, so productivity increased by 47% in the manufacturing sector and by 12% in the services sector” among European organisations (Shoesmith, 2008, p.1). Furthermore, Zwick (2003); Nover & Novelis, (2011); Tharenou, Saks & Moore (2007); Mohamad, et al. (2009) and Ng & Siu, (2009) indicated a significant positive association between training and organisational productivity. Becker’s, (1993) arguments are also applicable here. He argued that individuals accumulate knowledge, expertise and skills through T&D that lead to or bring about increase in productivity. Finally, the importance of T&D is aptly summarised in the following the paragraph:

–Among others T&D increase productivity, improves the quality of work; improves skills, knowledge, understanding and attitude; enhances the use of tools and machines; reduces waste, accidents, turnover, lateness, absenteeism and other overhead costs, eliminates obsolescence in skills, technologies, methods, products, capital management etc. It brings incumbents to that level of performance, which is needed for the performance for the job; enhances the implementation of new policies and regulations; prepares people for achievement, improves man-power development and ensures the survival and growth of the enterprise”. (Kayode, 2001 cited in Olaniyan, & Ojo, 2008)

However, not all studies have shown the same association between T&D and productivity enhancement. The impact of T&D on employees’ performance has not been as straight forward as anticipated; there have been instances where the results have been different. For example, Eikebrokk and Olsen (2009) posit that there is insufficient consistent and definite evidence that training leads to better performance, especially for SMEs. Liao & Martin, (2011) did not find any direct link between T&D and organisational performance, although they found training to have an indirect but insignificant effect on production. Guest, Michie, Conway, & Sheehan, (2003) found no association between training as part of HRM practice

and corporate performance. Lear (2010) found that the T&D on basic supervisory, management and leadership skills was not effective in improving performance. However, he established that T&D on interpersonal and technical skills had a huge impact in driving organisational performance. Furthermore, Rogers and Woodford (1999, p. 67) and Broad and Newstrom, (1992, cited in Buckley & Caple 2004) indicated that the majority of trainees felt that the training they received did not impact on their job performance.

The inconsistency in the literature can be interpreted to mean that some of employees may not have had the opportunity to apply the skills and knowledge they acquired during training effectively. Furthermore, it could mean that the training itself did not address their needs and those of the organisation; therefore, training transfer could not take place. Some companies are not sure if the training they offer is useful to their employees; in some of these companies, training is not effectively linked to the corporate strategy (Wexley & Latham, 1991). Furthermore, it has been suggested that some organisations may have offered training in the wrong areas because of a lack of evaluation and feedback on previous T&D interventions (Molina & Ortega, 2003). Regular T&D evaluation prior to further T&D interventions is necessary in order to align T&D with organisational strategic objectives. The inconsistencies in the findings of various studies are one of the reasons why the present study is important; there is an urgent need to establish whether or not the proper formulation, execution and evaluation of T&D interventions can lead to improved organisational performance.

#### **4.5.2. Retaining Employees**

The retention of the employees is a significant factor in determining the returns to employers providing training. This relates to the ability of an organisation to recoup its investment in training (Hansson, 2008, p. 18). According to Becker, (1962 cited in Liao, Mo & Grant, 2001), trained employees are less likely to leave an employer, which suggests that training can be an avenue through which employees can be retained in an organisation. Inadequate initial training, poor orientation to the job and lack of on-going training are considered among the major factors contributing to high staff turnover (Blenkner & Rose, 2006). In other words, a lack of T&D can cause some employees to leave an organisation. The main reason is that untrained employees are more likely to experience a sense of inadequacy, are not committed to the job, lack job fulfilment and perform poorly (Blenkner & Rose, 2006). Guest, Michie, Conway, & Sheehan (2003); Adeniji (2010) & Greenhalgh & Mavrotas

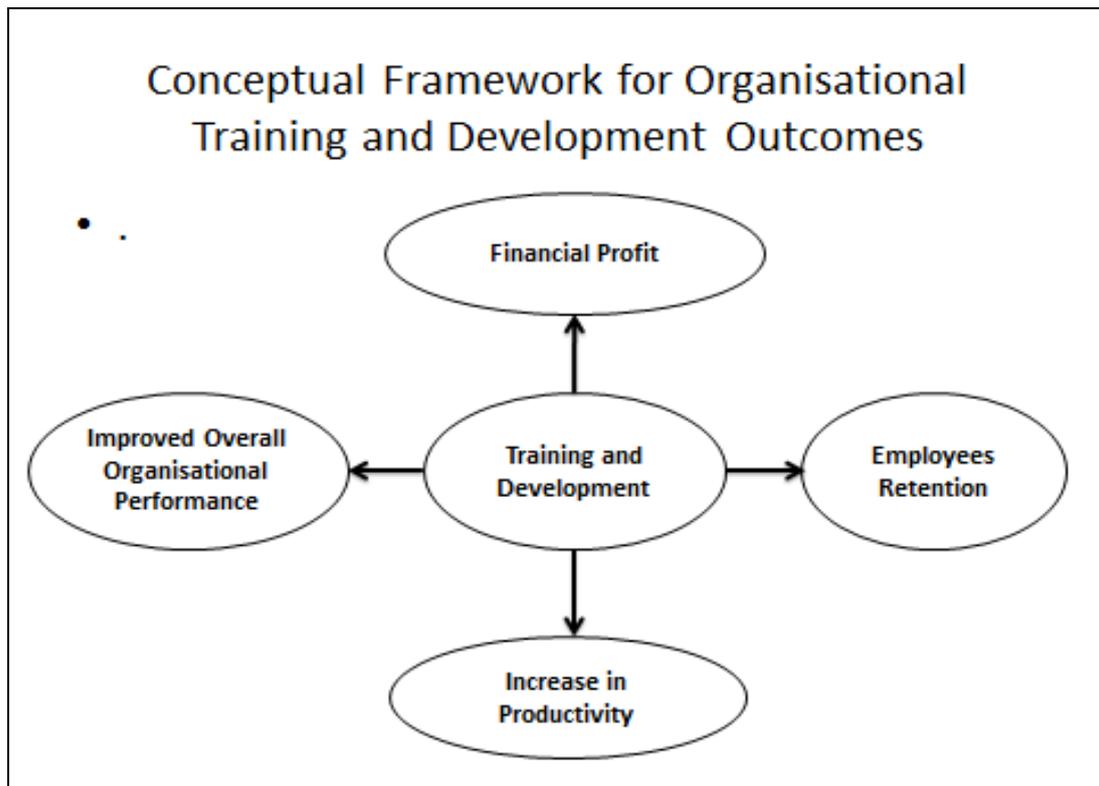
(1996) found training to have significant effect on employee tenure. Furthermore, Korpi and Mertens (2003) indicated that the turnover rate for those who did not receive any training was up to 15% higher than those who received vocational training. Flaherty (2007) and Acton & Golden (2002) found that participation in tuition reimbursement training exercises increase employee retention. Furthermore, it has been established that additional training has helped organisations reduce both voluntary and involuntary turnover more than organisations that do not implement regular training (Molina, and Ortega, 2003). A staples retail outlet that experienced high employee turnover was able to increase retention through implementing a carefully designed training plan (Shoesmith, 2008). A survey by the American Management Association (AMA) of 302 human resource executives confirmed that some development issues were of prime importance to employees and enhanced employee retention (Smith, 2011). The above examples validate the robustness of the relationship between T&D and employee retention and also highlight that formal job training is a good investment for many firms in terms of reducing employee turnover and turnover intention.

#### **4.5.3. Profitability**

Training and development interventions can contribute to the general success and profitability of any organisation, by helping to improve employees' skills and abilities and contributing to the achievement of organisational objectives (Adeniyi, 1995 cited in Olaniyan, & Ojo, 2008; Liao et al., 2011). No organisation can become profitable until their entire workforce becomes skilful, efficient and productive. Thus, the importance of T&D cannot be over-emphasised. Human assets are one of an organisation's most important assets; the more efficient human assets are; the better position the organisation will be in to maximise profit (Hasnat, 2011). Better performing organisations are always associated with reduced costs and increased profitability, among other factors. Superior performance can only be achieved through efficiently trained employees (Ow, 2007). For instance, GE has won many awards and much admiration because of its ability to sustain profitability consistently over the years. The source of GE's success was its ability to successfully train and develop its diverse workforce (Knudson, 2011). GE has its own corporate university to train and develop employees for future leadership positions. Smith (2011) reported that a study conducted by the ASTD in the US confirmed that organisations that engage in more training of employees, gain improved net sales for each worker, and make higher gross profits per employee. This study confirmed that training expenditure generally but slightly

improves the profit margin. This is because T&D leads to an increase in operational efficiency which results in fewer accidents and less wastage of time on administrative and production processes (Cosh, Hughes, Bullock & Potton, 2003). Senge (1999) argued that learning in an organisation (through T&D) leads to knowledge acquisition, which results in team knowledge sharing, greater motivation, social interaction, flexibility, and more creativity. Put together, this leads to an increase in quality products, greater work productivity, and profit.

Nonetheless, training does not always lead to improved profitability or profit making. According to Blanchard and Thacker (2010), some organisations have reported receiving less worth from their training activities. These differences in the effect of T&D interventions on profit may be the result of some organisations using more effective training systems than others and having a culture or environment that allows for transfer of training on-the-job.



**Figure 4.2: T&D and Organisational Performance (author's secondary research findings)**

#### 4.6. Training Transfer

Training transfer refers to the extent to which skills and knowledge learnt are transferred from one context to another; it is the effective application of competencies gained by employees during training to their jobs (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 1). Training transfer (positive transfer) can be described as the extent to which employees successfully use the knowledge and skills gained in the training setting on-the-job (Yamhill, & Mclean, 2005; Cromwell, & Kolb, 2004; Baldwin & Ford, 1988 cited in Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons, & Michael, 2007, p. 283). Put differently, training transfer occurs when employees apply the knowledge, skills and attitude they learn in a training environment to solve problems in the workplace environment (Subbedi, 2004, p. 591). The debate on training transfer focuses on the factors that may hinder or promote the transfer of learning from one context to another. The terms ‘transfer of training’ and ‘transfer of learning’ will be used interchangeably in this study. Organisations are not overly concerned with learning; their main concern is learning to enhance performance and their survival. Therefore, if transfer is stimulated, practised and reflected on, it becomes easy to achieve (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 17). According to Dabielson & Wiggenhom (2003, p.20 cited in Peterson, 2005), training is important only to the point that it adds more to job productivity than the provision of any other scarce resource. This study evaluates how effective NRC management were in handling these factors. It study also evaluates the effectiveness of the factors in influencing employees to apply the skills and knowledge they learned in training in their jobs. The anticipated return on investment in training can only be achieved to the extent that training is transferred on-the-job (Chiaburu, & Lindsay, 2008; Nijman, Nijhof, Wognum, & Veldkamp, 2006; Velada et al., 2007). The significant time and money spent on T&D does not always translate into positive outcomes in terms of productivity and financial assets. The costs of T&D have influenced the desire to understand the factors that encourage or hinder the utilisation of knowledge in the workplace setting; continual technological changes necessitate ongoing T&D (Percival, Cozzarin & Formanek, 2013). Therefore, understanding the factors that influence transfer of knowledge on-the-job will encourage the utilisation of skills and knowledge which leads to positive outcomes both for the organisation and for individual employees (Egan & Barlett, 2004). The purpose of evaluating these various transfer factors is to enable organisations to understand possible or already known transfer setbacks and formulate interventions to enhance learning transfer in the future (Holton, Bates, Bookter, & Yamkovenko, 2007). The influence of training transfer on performance depends on the availability of opportunities to

utilise the skills and knowledge learnt (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Transfer of learning can be hindered, or improved by the organisational culture and systematic factors like work habits, the organisational climate, evaluation procedures, the readiness of employees and feedback techniques (Shoobridge, 2003).

The desire to guarantee full transfer of skills and knowledge must be taken into account before, during and after training interventions. The effectiveness of training programmes and their ability to achieve their intended outcomes depend on the extent to which the skills learned are utilised. Transfer of training is an important factor in enhancing performance and achieving competitive advantage and thus requires urgent attention (Weldy, 2009). Training and development has been shown to have a direct relationship with improved job performance. However, this outcome is not guaranteed; moreover, employees' capability to get the job done does not guarantee that it will be done. There is considerable evidence that a sizeable portion of an organisation's investment in training is not productive because of poor training transfer environmental factors (Ylvisaker, Hibbard, & Feeney, 2006; Capps & Capps, 2005; Swart, 2002; Burke & Baldwin, 1999). Workers appear to use little of the skills and knowledge they acquire through training in their workplace (Nijman, Nijhof, Wognum, & Veldkamp, 2010). Studies have shown that only 10% to 15% of staff learning is transferred on the job (Abdullah, & Suring, 2011, p. 335; Saks, 2009; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Kontoghioghes, 2004; Coates, 2007, Cronwell & Kolb, 2004 cited in Perryer, & McShane 2008). Studies have reported different transfer success rates and the differences have been strongly associated with the organisational climate (Saks & Belcourt, 2006; Saks, 2009). Although there are discrepancies in the average success rate of training transfer Saks & Belcourt (2006) & Saks (2002 cited in Burke 2009, p. 383) suggest up to 40% failure to transfer learning immediately after training. This problem has been blamed on an unfavourable workplace environment, which does not offer easy transfer of acquired knowledge. The role of the managers and supervisors as major influences in this regard should not be overlooked.

However efficient the T&D intervention was, if what is learned (e.g. behaviour or skills) is not transferred to relevant job performance or is not maintained over time, the training has failed. Some researchers have postulated that the state of trainees, especially motivation and self-efficacy, plus the transfer climate influence the transfer of training (Tannenbaum, & Yukl, 1992; Nga, Mien & Wim, 2010; Kirwan & Birchall, 2006). If training results in

enhanced knowledge and relevant skills, workers job performance will likely improve, as the skills learned in training are transferred to the job (Tharenou et al., 2007, p.252).

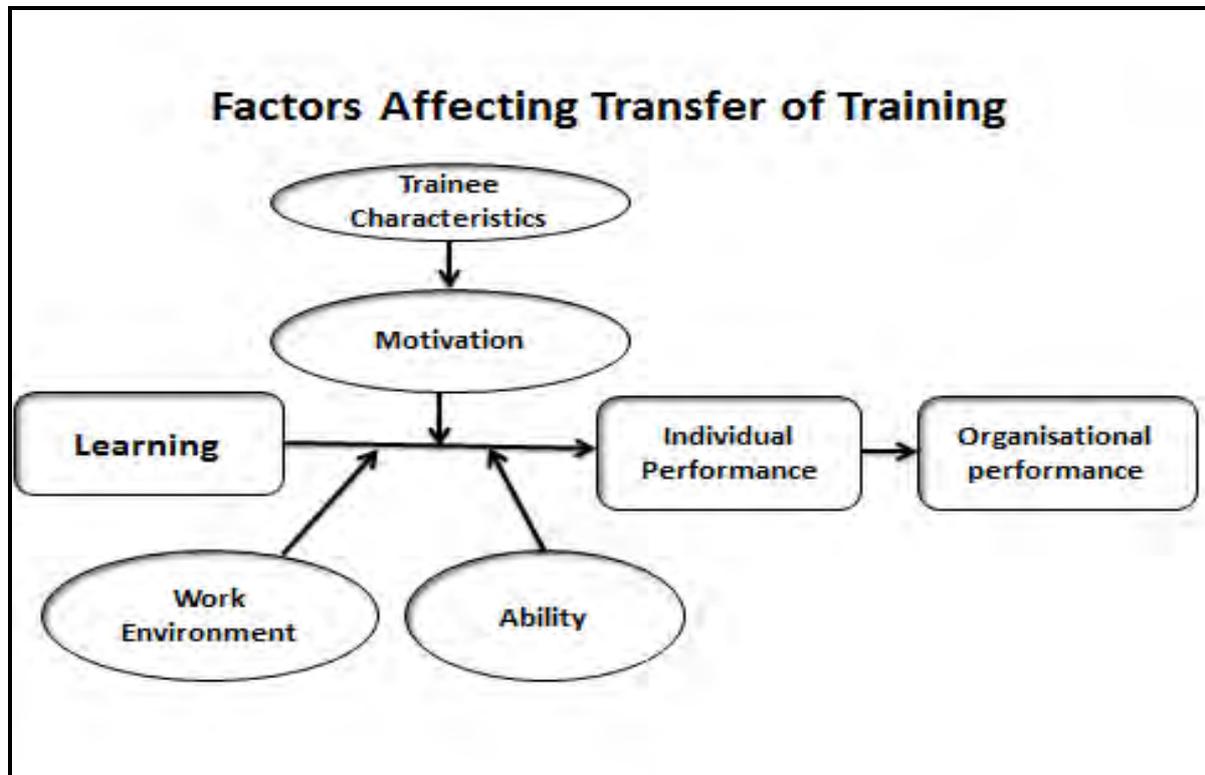


Figure 4.3: Factors Affecting Training Transfer (Holton III et al., 2008)

#### 4.6.1. Specific Factors Affecting Transfer

This section discusses in detail the specific factors that influence transfer of training, including training design, transfer motivation, transfer climate or organizational environment, and personal characteristics. No matter how motivated employees were before and after training, they may not be able transfer what they have learned if environmental obstacles exist in the organisation. There are a number of factors that can prevent the transfer of the knowledge in an organisation. These include time constraints; employees may not have enough time to put what they have learnt in training into practice. Other factors include a lack of applicability of the skills learned to the work situation, partly because of inappropriate training content or design. Further reasons include personal and group challenges, peer support, and the immediate supervisor, who can either promote or hinder transfer of learning (Holton; Bates, & Ruona, 2000). Furthermore, factors like workers' behaviour, support from management, job-related issues and deficits in training exercises can influence the

transferability of skills and knowledge (Haslinda & Mahyuddin, 2009; Abozed; Melaine & Saci, 2010). Grossman and Sala, (2011) identified the most important factors that influence transfer of learning as trainees' characteristics, training design and the work environment. Leimbach, (2010, p. 83) found that the effect of training can be improved by up to 186% if all of the learning transfer methods are effectively applied.

The question to ask here is: do the company's culture and environment encourage the sharing of knowledge gained during training? Can a T&D programme be designed such that it encourages knowledge transfer? Can T&D programmes be designed such that they are suitable for employees' needs and relate to their jobs? Knowledge and skills are generally transferred on-the-job when the actual job environment fits the ideal job environment (Awoniyi, Orland & Morgan, 2002). When such issues are ignored in the formulation and implementation of the T&D programme, what was learnt in training may be of little use to the organisation. Researchers have posited that when training is complex and involves several factors that influence learning transfer it becomes necessary to measure the extent of these factors in order to help management answer questions like, why does training work or why does training not work? (Yamhill, & Mclean, 2005) It is important to control these factors in order to produce results that can be useful to the organisation (Holton, 1996). It should be noted that skills acquired during training do not guarantee that learning transfer will occur. Therefore, our concern is to discuss the factors that influence learning transfer in organisations.

#### **4.6.2. Trainee Characteristics**

Trainees characteristics include learners readiness and performance self-efficacy. Trainee characteristics comprise an individual's perceptions, readiness, confidence, general beliefs or self-expectations that make training transfer possible for an individual in any given organisation (Holton III & Bates, 2008; Tziner, Fisher, Senior & Weisberg, 2007; Leberman, McDonald & Doyle, 2006, p. 99). Trainees' readiness to train and to change their overriding attitudes and behaviour are important factors that can influence learning transfer. This suggests that trainees' preparedness should be assessed before embarking on T&D initiatives. Pre-and post-training activities also motivate trainees to learn and use the skills learnt during T&D (Weissbein, Huang, Ford, & Schmidt, 2011, p. 431). The level of support trainees receive on their return to the workplace could affect their motivation to use their newly

acquired skills and knowledge (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 100). Therefore, to maximise the benefits of learning, employees should know what is expected of them when they return to work and how the training will facilitate organisational growth; this will motivate them to learn during training and subsequently use their new competences on the job. An Ashridge Business School, (2010) study found trainees' characteristics to be the strongest predictor and facilitator of transfer of training.

Trainees with a positive attitude towards the content of the training feel more satisfied, more competent and better able to transfer learning to the job more than those with a negative attitude toward such content (Park & Wentling, 2007, p. 311). Leimbach & Marinka (2010) suggest that addressing learner readiness can increase the effectiveness of learning transfer by as much as 70%. A trainee's ability to transfer is a function of how motivated he/she was before and after the training programme. This can be influenced by the extent to which he/she perceives the training to be relevant to the job (Andrea & Mohamed, 2003).

Self-efficacy has been recognised as being very effective in motivating learning and training transfer in trainees (Broucker, 2009). Self-efficacy motivates trainees to persevere in the face of challenges (Sookhai & Budwarth, 2010, p. 260). It is associated with a sense of self confidence or personal power and a sense of purpose to embrace new ideas and adopt new approaches without fear (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 101). Weissbein, Huang, Ford and Schmidt (2011, p. 431) suggest that self-belief affects an individual's motivation to learn; this in turn, influences their motivation to transfer learning. Trainees' with a high level of confidence in their ability to use new skills will use much of what they learned in training at work. Factors that hinder training transfer can be overcome by self-efficacy (Holton III & Bates, 2008; Abdulkarim, Musaed, & Abdulla, 2009; Holton and Baldwin, 2007). Conscientiousness and self-efficacy have a significant direct effect on job performance; that is to say, trainees with high self-efficacy appear to transfer new knowledge on-the-job more easily than those with less self-efficacy (Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons, & Kavanagh, 2007; Tziner, Fisher, Tami & Weisberg, 2007; Davis, Fedor, Persons Herold, 2000, p. 864). Studies have found that self-efficacy and motivation to learn have a significant, direct influence on intention to transfer and directly predict the extent of training transfer (Abdulkarim, Musaed & Abdulla, 2009; Nga et al., 2010; Powell 2009). Valeda et al., (2007) and Brown & Morrissey (2004) established that transfer design, performance self-efficacy and performance feedback were significantly related to transfer of training. Mohamad (2003)

found that ability and learning principles have a direct and significant relationship with training transfer. However, the findings have not been consistent for all researchers; for instance McMahan (2000) found no association between achievement motivation and training transfer and Switzer, Nagy & Mullins's (2005) study suggests that self-efficacy may affect only pre-training motivation. Gaudine & Saks (2004) and Vancouver & Kendall (2006 cited in Sookhai & Budworth, 2010, p. 260) indicated that self-efficacy on its own is not sufficient to predict transfer of training.

#### **4.6.3. Motivation**

Training transfer depends on the extent to which employees or trainees are motivated to apply their newly acquired skills and knowledge on the job. The motivation of trainees prior to, during and after training is a vital factor for transfer of learning (Leberman, et al., 2006, p. 100). Transfer motivation can be regarded as the quest to use the knowledge and skills learned in training on-the-job and to fulfil personal ambitions. According to Holton III & Bates, (2008) and Holton III & Baldwin (2007) motivation to transfer is the extent to which employees are inspired to make use of the skills learned in training in their work. Employees can either be motivated or demotivated and it is assumed that the level of motivation or demotivation determines the extent to which employees/trainees will transfer the skills and knowledge learnt in training.

The motivation to transfer can be influenced by the extent to which employees feel they can perform their jobs and feel that the new skills and knowledge will enable them to perform their tasks more effectively. Performance-outcomes expectations are one of the motivating factors; this reflects the extent to which employees believe that using the new skills and knowledge they acquired in training will lead to reward or acknowledgment (Holton III & Bates, 2008). Joblbauer et al. (2011, p.48) found that motivation to transfer influenced employees' transfer rate in a situation of high positive consequence expectations. That is to say, the greater the perception that positive transfer will lead to greater rewards, the more likely workers will try to use acquired competencies in their everyday tasks. These findings are consistent with expectancy theory, which suggests that learning is likely to occur when the trainee believes that the content of the intervention is linked to a positive outcome. A trainee's belief that training will lead to better outcomes, such as promotion or financial reward will enhance the trainee's motivation to learn and achieve higher performance (Tziner

et al., 2007, p. 168). Therefore it is important for management to find ways to improve potential trainees' self-confidence or self-belief and motivation.

Motivating employees to transfer learning is essential to successful training interventions and aids transfer of skills on-the-job (Gegenfurtner, Veermans, Festner, & Gruber; 2009, Lim & Morris 2006, p.106; Liebermann & Hoffmann, 2008). Andrea and Mohamed's (2003) study amongst supervisors indicated that the perceived benefit of new skills to their job motivated them to apply them. Ng & Datmalchian (2011, p. 838) found that training benefits an organisation most when it is complemented by motivation policies. Mohamad, Yassine & Karima (2009) and Scaduto, Lindsay & Chiaburu (2008) established a positive relationship between transfer motivation and performance outcomes. However positive perceptions of the relevance (perceived content validity) of the training had the greatest effect on transfer motivation. That is to say, the more trainees have positive perceptions about training initiatives, the more they are motivated to transfer the new knowledge.

Openness to change on the part of individual employees prior to and after training is very important in transferring the knowledge acquired during training, (Abozed et al., 2010). Training and development has been recognised as an effort that enables employees to reach their maximum potential and subsequently receive rewards (Forsyth, 2001). Reinforcement theory can be employed to describe why some employees effectively transfer their learning on the job while others do not. In other words, some T&D interventions yield results, while others don't. Reinforcement theory emphasises that people are motivated to perform or not perform (positive/negative reinforcement) due to past outcomes of a similar exercise. Trainees will be willing to learn and transfer learning only if they trust that their efforts will lead to positive outcomes like acknowledgement and rewards; if not the opposite will be the case. The same is true of social learning theory which emphasises that behaviour that is rewarded tends to be repeated and is adopted by the observer. Skinner's theory posits that outcomes that are positive are repeated, while those behaviours that lead to negative outcomes are not repeated. If past T&D did not lead to improved performance, financial reward or promotion for those who took part, employees may be unwilling to take part in training intervention programmes or apply their new learning in their jobs. Even when they are willing to be trained, they may not be keen to transfer their learning on the job; hence, a lack of transfer of training. The extent to which the application and non-application of new skills is rewarded or punished in an organisation could influence their transfer. Therefore,

trainers need to establish what outcomes employees find most attractive or unattractive in order to be able to inspire them to learn new knowledge and transform their behaviours.

#### **4.6.4. Work Environment/Climate**

The workplace situation plays a key role in the transfer process because this is where employees will make use of their new learning. Work environment here refers to “a perceptual medium through which culture and other work environment factors influence job attitude and behaviour” (Bate & Khasawneh, 2005). It includes members’ perceptions and relationships that affect job performance in a given organisation (Hatala & Fleming, 2007). The three common obstacles to transfer are lack of reinforcement on the job by supervisors/managers, interference from the immediate work environment, e.g. unsupportive co-workers urging the trainee to revert to old work attitudes and a non-supportive organisational culture. Work environment factors have a significant influence on whether trainees will use the learned skills and knowledge once they return to the workplace. The organisational climate or work environment refers to those factors in the workplace that facilitate or hinder the use of skills and knowledge gained during training. A culture of continuous learning sustains skill transfer, which improves productivity because of the positive influence it has on individual motivation and behavioural change (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005).

The most important work environment factors in this context include supervisors/managers, co-workers or peer support and encouragement, personal outcomes (both negative and positive), and resistance to change. Transfer of training does not occur automatically; trainees and managers have to make effort for it to happen. If the socialisation during training does not match the workplace environment, obstacles will arise to transferring learning. There is therefore a need for a supportive environment for learning to be transferred. For example, trainees need support from their supervisor/manager’s and colleagues. The supervisor determines whether new learning can be implemented or not (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 106). Irrespective of how well a training initiative was designed and executed, it will not yield the desired transfer outcomes when the work environment does not inspire the use of targeted skills and knowledge. The organisational climate is very influential in determining whether new skills will be transferred to the work setting or not (Egan & Barlett, 2004). A good

working environment provides occasions to apply new skills and cues to remind employees about the skills learned (Liebermann, & Hoffmann, 2008).

The impact of T&D on employee and organisational performance depends, to a large degree, on what happens in the workplace after the training programme. Sibthorp, Furman, Paisley, Gookin, and Schumann (2011, p. 121) indicate that work environment factors like the supervisor and peer support are important in transfer of learning. Nikandrou et al. (2009) amongst others; established that the organisational environment influences training transfer. Supervisor's support comprises the clarification of performance expectations after training by the supervisor and "setting realistic goals based on the training" (Holton et al., 2008). It includes working closely with employees to solve any problems they encounter when they are applying learning on the job. Supervisor's support has been found to correlate positively with transfer of training to enhance employees' job performance or success (Govindarajulu, 2009). Supervisors should encourage subordinates to attend training and apply the skills learnt. Supervisors that signal that new skills should be applied as and when due, will invariably promote learning transfer. An unsupportive supervisor, on the other hand, can simply ignore or discourage the application of the new skills. Okereke and Igboke, 2011 found that a supervisor's positive support of the use of knowledge gained in training promotes the transfer of knowledge by up to 92%. On the other hand, a lack of an opportunity to transfer skills and knowledge has been blamed for employees not being able to use learning (Lim, 2006). Positive outcomes result when the attitudes of authorities like supervisors exert positive influence on the freedom of their subordinates to use their new skills for their job practices. When the supervisor is well-disposed towards training, he/she will encourage the use of new knowledge; however, if his/her attitude is negative, the chances are that he/she will not encourage his/her subordinates to apply the knowledge acquired on-the-job (Cromwell & Kolb, 2004). Supervisors are critical in supporting employee participation in training and ensuing that the skills learnt are applied on-the-job. Therefore, the effect of T&D on job performance will depend on the attitude of the supervisor towards the training content and the trainees themselves. Newman et al. (2011); Young, (2007); and Noe, Sears, & Fullenkamp (1990 cited in Young, 2007) supported the argument that the attitude of supervisors, opportunity to use skills and openness to change are essential factors that influence training transfer.

Furthermore, the supervisor's feedback, encouragement and involvement (Ismail, Sieng, & Abdullah, 2010; McSherry & Taylor, 1994) during and after training programmes (Ismail, Bongogoh, Gavin & Tudin, 2009) significantly add to transfer of training (Everett, 2010; Awoniyi et al., 2002; Abozed, Malaine & Saci, 2010; Saks and Belcourt, 2006). However, Van den Bossche, Segers & Jansen (2010, p. 90) confirmed that feedback's ability to influence positive transfer is a function of how appropriate it and when it takes place. It has also been suggested that managers' support is far more important in encouraging learning transfer than a well-crafted development plan (Machin & Forgy, 2003). On the other hand, a lack of supervisor's support hinders transfer of learning. Employees who are identified as more competent are given more tasks and receive more support from their supervisors. Consequently, they perform better than employees with less supportive supervisors. Moreover, employees will make an effort to use the skills and knowledge learnt during T&D in the workplace if they are aware that their supervisors will evaluate the impact of training on their performance after the training programme.

Extremely supportive work groups (either from a work team, supervisor or top management) not only perform better but perform more complex tasks; this partly depends on how well such support is maintained over time (Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; Scaduto, Lindsay, & Chiaburu, (2008). Brown & MaCracken (2009), Perryer & McShane (2008) and Lim & Johnson (2002) found lack of time and an unsupportive culture to be the most common barriers to transfer of learning. Peer support is another factor that has the potential to hinder or facilitate transfer of learning (Cromwell, & Kolb, 2004). Co-workers or peers' attitudes can likewise encourage or discourage the use of the new knowledge in the workplace. Van Den Bossche et al. (2010, p. 114) found that peer feedback and supervisor/manager feedback have similar effects on training transfer. Peer support or reinforcement of the use of new knowledge on-the-job greatly influences the extent to which skills are transferred or utilised in any organisation. Colleagues' support enhances training transfer through feedback, encouragement, sharing thoughts and guidance (Martin, 2010). Martin (2010) found that employees who received higher levels of support from their peers were able to apply their new knowledge and skills on-the-job to a greater extent than those who did not receive such support. Furthermore, peer support not only improves training transfer, but also alleviates the consequences of a negative organisational climate (Martin, 2010, p. 96).

The extent to which colleagues, work teams or managers offer constructive input, assistance, and feedback (performance coaching) to the trainee when he/she is using the learning to improve work performance will determine whether learning can be transferred on the job or not (Holton & Bate, 2008). The extent to which people are honest and genuine in encouraging one another to use their new competences will yield the desired outcomes and behaviours. Performance coaching encourages people to borrow ideas from successful, experienced people at the workplace who they trust. Constructive feedback from colleagues helps people to reflect on what has worked and what did not and what they should do differently. Constructive input allows an individual to review his/her effectiveness and build his/her self-awareness. Moreover, how well the organisational climate or environment engages the individual impacts on his/her desire to learn skills and his/her motivation to use the learning on the job. Van den Bossche, et al. (2010, p. 88) indicated that the quality and quantity of people providing feedback and its usefulness correlate to the degree of transfer learning in an organisation.

Resistance to change is one of the workplace environmental factors that influence the transfer of learning in an organisation. Resistances to change depends on the level of opposition to change, willingness to invest energy in change, and the level of support provided to employees who use the methods learned in training (Holtom III & Bates, 2008). Training initiatives often enhance employees' capabilities; this changes their expectations of themselves and the organisation. Therefore, the organisation needs to be prepared for such changes in expectations in order to realise employees' capabilities (Leberman, et al., 2006, p. 21). Personality traits such as rigidity may prompt a person to resist change in an organisation; this is also true for supervisors and managers. Employees or work teams who are highly dependent on their superiors or colleagues for performance feedback may be more hesitant to use their new skills than those who are less reliant on others for inspiration. They may not apply any of the new techniques or methods for doing their job unless their supervisors personally support the changes and indicate how these will improve performance and/or otherwise benefit the employee. Moreover, the more this dependence persists, the less likely it is that the employees will transfer their learning on-the-job. Employees who have not learned how to perform their work well and how to receive a good performance evaluation may be more unlikely to apply new work techniques; as a result, little training transfer will take place.

Another organisational factor that influences training transfer is positive personal outcomes. Positive personal outcomes consist of the prospect of career progression in the organisation, improved personal job satisfaction, becoming more productive, improved work effectiveness, and an increase in remuneration (Holton III & Bates, 2008). Employees attend training for many different reasons including expectations that training will positively affect their career. Employees who expect returns after training are likely to use their newly-acquired skills (Daffron & North, 2005 cited in Alawneh, 2008). However, the Ashridge Business School (2010) study found work environment to be a weak predictor and facilitator of transfer of training. As Bate and Khasawneh (2005) note, the workplace climate is not restricted to the work environment, but refers to how employees and employers respond to it.

#### **4.6.5. Ability**

Factors here that can hinder or improve transfer of training include the opportunity to use skills learned, personal capacity for transfer, perceived content validity and transfer design, according to Holton III et al. (2008). Personal capacity implies that employees, who are constantly heavily engaged, may not be in a best position to practice new ideas because of time pressures to get the job done (Clarke, 2002). Motivation to transfer learning is dependent on the availability of opportunities for trainees to apply new skills and knowledge to their jobs, while the major inhibiting factor is the lack of opportunity to apply such learning.

The degree to which a training intervention has been designed to relate learning to on-the-job performance by using the methods comparable to those used in the work environment will determine how much of the learning is transferred. Transfer of knowledge can only happen if the learner is able to connect relevant current learning with new situations (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 15). If a training programme is to prepare employees for the future workplace environment, the contents of the programme should be extensive so that trainees are able to adapt to any workplace problem. The training content should be formulated for use in identified situations in the future, so that the learner can use the new skills and knowledge to resolve workplace issues (Leberman et al., 2006, p. p. 102). Appropriate design and execution of T&D enhances transfer of knowledge. Training and development interventions must be designed in such a way that they have a lasting impact on the organisation and employees' attitudes and performance (Martin, 2010; Mahmoud, 2006). Employees' response

to training is an indication of the worth of the training design and the quality of the execution (Dorji, 2005).

Furthermore, the content of training and its implementation will determine how positive or negative the reaction will be. An understanding that the training contains relevant and satisfactory information is important for training transfer (Velada et al., 2007 cited in Chow, Finney & Woodford, 2010). For training to be effective it must be designed in such a way that it gives trainees the ability to improve their knowledge and skills that are relevant to their jobs (Chiou, Lee & Purnomo, 2010). The degree to which the new skills and knowledge are applicable to job performance will determine the rate of transfer of training. Integrating the skills, knowledge and abilities required in an employee's main job will improve the content validity of the training (Lehmann-Willenbrock, 2010 cited in Latif, 2012, p. 214). According to Leimbach & Maringka (2010, p.5), the design of the learning process impacts the degree to which the learning will be transferred to work performance. They added that training design can enhance transfer of learning by up to 37%. Trainees who presume that a training programme will lead to the development of skills and techniques directly related to their current jobs will be more likely or willing to learn and be motivated to transfer learning (Egan & Barlett, 2004). Mohamad (2003) found training design to have positive relationship with transfer of training. Employees are more likely to transfer learning on-the-job if they think that the training was designed to encourage transfer (Holton, 2005 cited in Chow, Finney & Woodford, 2010). A lack of a proper or an unsupportive design has been found to limit the ability of the workers to transfer their skills on-the-job (Kurtz, 2002, p. 427).

As transfer design is important in helping trainees transfer their new skills; organisations should design their training programmes in such a way that gives meaning to trainees' needs and motivates them to transfer learning (Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons & Kavanagh, 2007). All things being equal, the ability to transfer new skills on-the-job is dependent on how well the skill was taught so as to be able to positively influence behavioural change in the individual (Clarke, 2002). Kasim & Sharriffah (2011) pointed out that training design account for major factors that influence transfer of training. The lack of a direct relationship between learning and job requirements inhibits transfer of training (Lim, 2006). Consequently, transfer design needs to be taken into account when formulating training programmes (Yamnill & McLean, 2005). The important issues to bear in mind when designing an effective T&D programme include, whether the objective of the programme is

understood and openly communicated to employees, whether the skills to be acquired meet their needs and the tasks to be performed and whether employees will be involved in deciding the content of the T&D intervention and how. Other issues to consider include how employees will be encouraged to put what they have learnt into practice and how feedback will be communicated and adjustments made (Martin, 2010). A proper consideration of the above issues will enhance training transfer.

Opportunity to use learning was also found to influence training transfer in an organisation (Holton III & Bates, 2008). This involves an organisation providing employees with opportunities to use new competencies, the resources needed to use new skills and sufficient financial and human resources (Holton III & Bates, 2008). It is important that employees have the opportunity to use learning on-the-job, or learning will never be transferred. The lack of opportunities to use new skills and knowledge learned during training was identified as the strongest factor inhibiting the application of new competencies on the job (Clarke, 2002). Furthermore, Cromwell & Kolb (2004) found that lack of time was an important barrier to learning transfer. The above findings suggest that employees need resources and occasions to use their new competences on-the-job.

#### **4.7. Conclusion**

New T&D techniques have influenced the manner in which training is conducted. Successful training depends to some extent on the appropriateness of the training method used. Recurrent variations in technology and job design coupled with the increasing importance of learning to both staff and the organisation, have led to the transformation of T&D techniques. Different technologies, e.g. e-learning or computer-based learning, offer many opportunities and capabilities for enhancing employee T&D. Training and development can contribute to organisational effectiveness by decreasing staff turnover and turnover intentions both in the short and long term and motivate employees to contribute to the collective effort to achieve the overall goals of the organisation. Participating in training enhances employees' performance competences (knowledge, abilities and skills). Employee development is not simply an endeavour to enrich the quality of an employee's knowledge and skills, but a way of preparing him/her to undertake specific tasks to improve his/her job performance. It has been established that T&D is positively and considerably associated with job satisfaction and

that job satisfaction is also positively and significantly associated with workplace performance on most measures of performance. Training and development leads to more committed employees and committed employees are more likely to remain in the organisation. Training activities are confronted by numerous challenges, including lack of support from top management and an organisational culture that may effectively hinder any intended changes. Support from top management can positively affect training effectiveness. However, some organisations take to T&D merely to fulfil statutory requirements. The literature review has revealed that trainee characteristics and motivation, the work environment and ability factors promote training transfer in organisations. However, it is not always easy for an organisation to figure out exactly which factors are the most important for learning transfer. Nonetheless, training design and the work environment have been found to be the most consistent factors that are associated with learning transfer. The following chapter examines the research methodology and design adopted for this study.

## CHAPTER 5

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

#### 5.0. Introduction

The previous chapter discussed various T&D methods and their advantages and disadvantages. It focused on the impact of T&D transfer factors on learning transfer in an organisation and aimed to determine whether T&D programmes impact on employees' and organisational performance. The primary function of this study is the creation of knowledge on how T&D initiatives can contribute to employees' and organisational performance. This chapter discusses the methodological procedures employed to answer the research questions. The research problem is stated, the purpose and objectives of the study are highlighted, and the application of the research process to provide evidence for answering the research question is described. The research philosophy, approach, purpose, strategy and time-horizon are also defined. The sampling methods and instruments used to gather data are described and the subjects from whom information was gathered are also described. Ethical issues and the limitations of the research methodology are also outlined.

#### 5.1. The Research Problem

It remains debatable whether there is a link between T&D initiatives and organisational performance. Some have argued that the association between productivity and training is weak and hard to prove (Matilda, 2009). Molina and Ortega (2003 cited in Matilda, 2009) identified some negative impacts of training on firm performance. Some commentators argue that the negative impacts recorded may be because training was offered without an efficient approach, e.g. lack of alignment of training with the overall corporate strategy plan (Aragon-Sanchez et al., 2003; Huquea & Vyas, 2008). Notwithstanding its recognised positive impact, training is still not sufficiently supported by organisations; rather they see it as an expense (Obisi, 2011, p. 81). It has been recognised that many organisations respond to the need for T&D in a haphazard manner, which results in poorly planned training activities that negatively impact transfer of training (Taiwo, 2007; Obisi, 2011, p. 84; Okotoni and Erero, 2005, p. 1). Scholars have indicated that only about 10% of the skills and knowledge learned

in training is transferred to the job (Hussain, 2011, p.47). This a real problem for organisations in the sense that without learning transfer, organisations will never improve their performance levels, a major reason for undertaking training. Therefore the main problem statement for this study is:

## **5.2. Problem Statement**

The huge efforts committed to T&D interventions in public organisations in Nigeria and indeed around the world do not regularly lead to commensurate improvement in employees' and organisational performance, and proper learning transfer on the job due to lack of efficient management of T&D programmes.

## **5.3. Aim of the study**

The aim of this study was to provide a holistic view of T&D practices in a public organisation in Nigeria in order to make recommendations for future T&D interventions and formulate a framework for essential T&D practices for future use in higher education institutions, and public and private organisations. The study also aimed to investigate how effective the NRC has been in managing training transfer, the factors that influence transfer of learning in the organisation and to make recommendations for more effective management of T&D interventions in the future.

The following objectives were formulated for the effective evaluation of the impact of T&D initiatives on individual and organisational performance and the factors that influence T&D, as stated above.

## **5.4. Objectives of the Study**

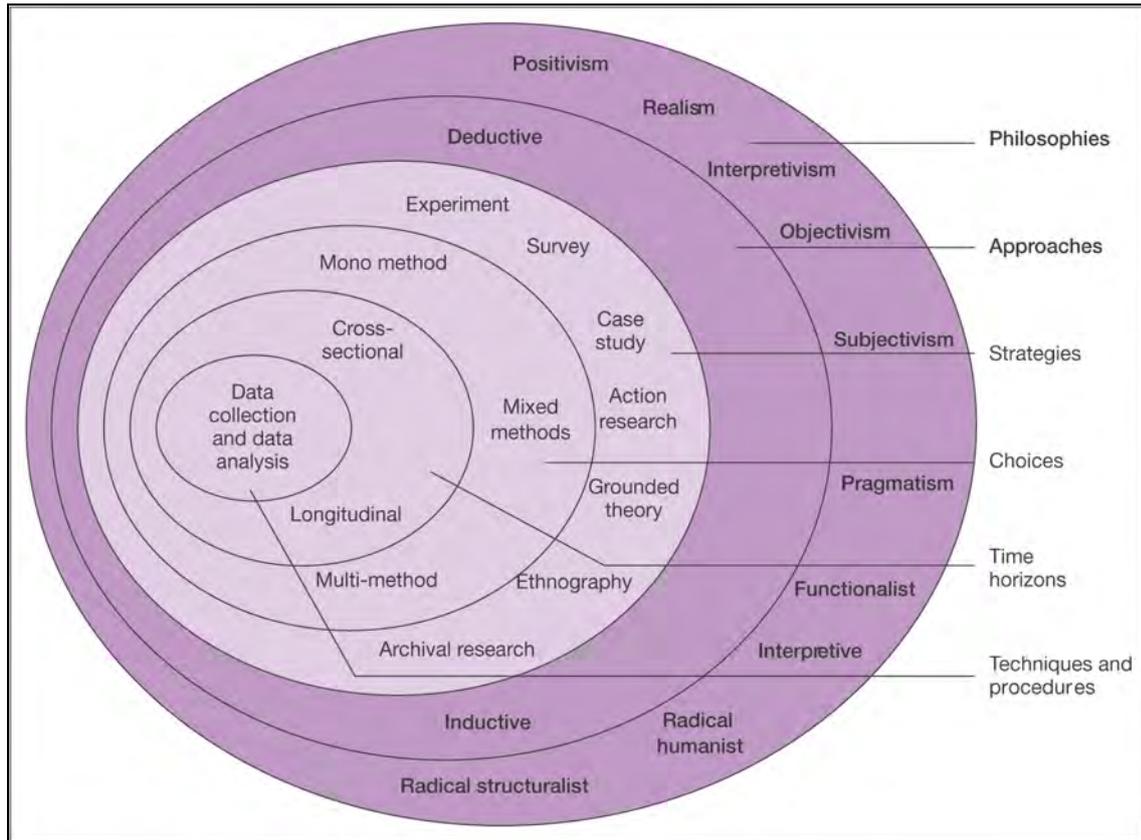
1. To investigate the nature of T&D programmes in the NRC (e.g. evaluation of TNA, objectives, T&D and type of training methods) in order to formulated a framework for the future study and execution of T&D.
2. To deliberate on the effectiveness of the T&D on all employees, both male and female in terms of a) (i) employees' knowledge, (ii) employees' skills, (iii) ability, (iv) morale at work, (iv) general morale, and (v) confidence, and b) the relationship between employees' performance competence (e.g. skills and knowledge) gained

from T&D on (i) employees' organisational commitment, (ii) turnover intention, (iii) job satisfaction, and (iv) job performance.

3. To explore the effectiveness of T&D on the employees based on positions and departments in the organisation.
4. To study the factors that influence the transfer of learning and analyse which of these is the highest predictor of training transfer on the job in order to make recommendations.
5. To investigate the effectiveness of T&D on overall individual and organisational performance in order to make recommendations for better future performance.
6. To develop a framework for essential practices for T&D for both public and private organisations in Nigeria and around the world and make recommendations which inform both practice and policy.
7. To make informed recommendations for future effective policy planning, implementation and practice of T&D in organisations and institution of higher learning.

### **5.5. Methodological Considerations**

According to Limpanitgul (2009) —methodology is a body of knowledge that enables researchers to explain and analyse methods - indicating their limitation and resources, identifying their presuppositions and consequences and relating their potentialities to research advances". In any research study one of the essential tasks is the selection of the specific research design to be used. Therefore, in order to answer the research question for this study, the most appropriate methodology was sought. The significance of research design is its role as an important link between the theory and the concept under discussion which informed the study and the observed data collected (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, cited in Limpanitgul, 2009). A suitable and simple framework for the research method and strategies required to address the research question for this study, were formulated through considering each layer of Saunders et al.'s (2007) research onion model. Each layer of Saunders et al.'s (2007) research onion are deliberated upon in order to elucidate why each element was selected, and how it aided in answering the research questions.



**Figure 5.1: Saunders et al.'s (2007) "Research Onion"**

It is difficult to choose a precise process where epistemology and the theoretical perspective fit into the actual detail of the selected research methods. However, Saunders et al.'s (2007) research onion process offered some solutions. Their model, which portrays the issues underlying the choice of data collection methods, was used to define the research approach of this study, as depicted in figure 5.2 below. The specific research philosophy, research approach, research strategies, time horizons and data collection methods, used for this study are indicated by circling them. Modern business research encompasses certain theoretical elements and backgrounds that help to shape and inform how the research is accompanied (Lancaster, 2005). Therefore, there is a need to examine the theoretical antecedents to management research practice which helped to shape this research.

## Research Onion for this Study

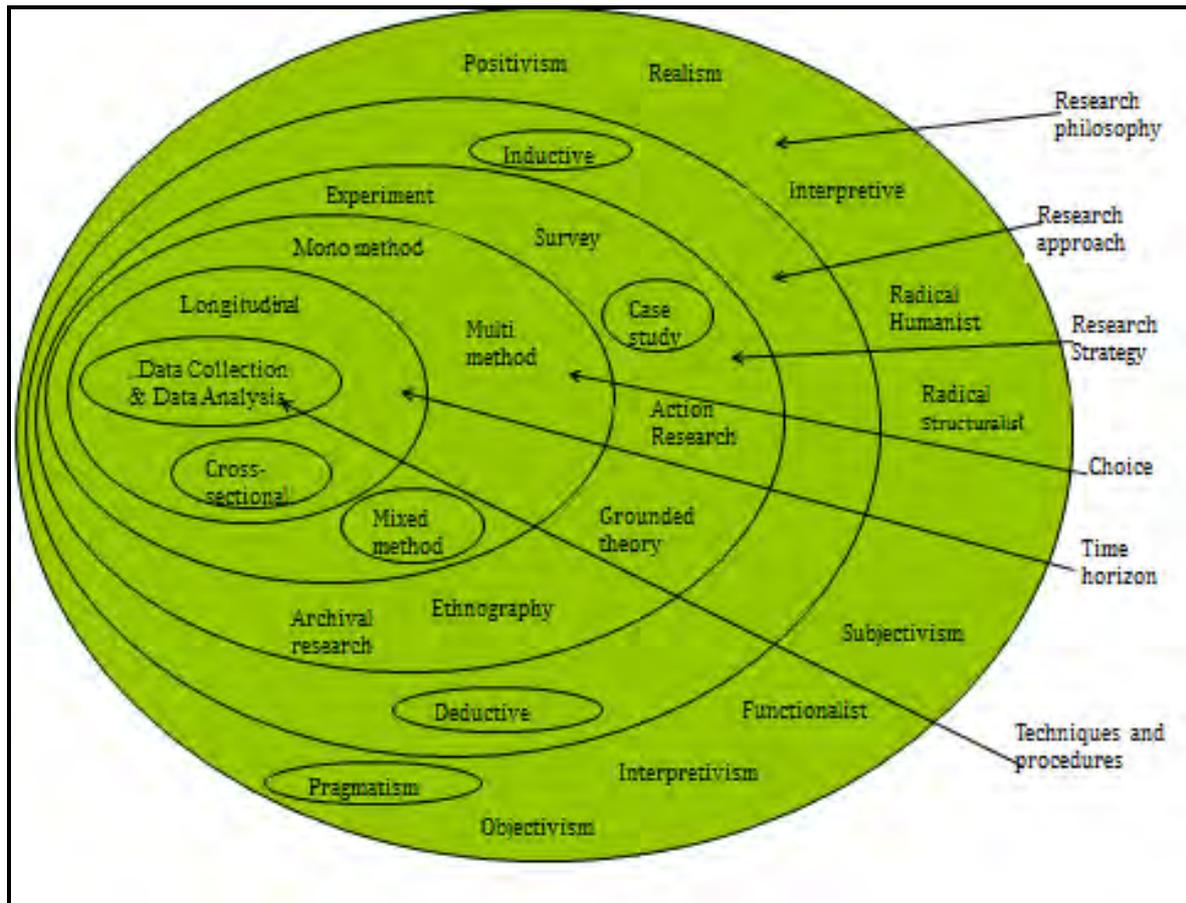


Figure 5.2.: Adapted from Saunders et al. (2007)

### 5.5.1. Research Philosophy

It is essential to consider the philosophy and nature of research in general and the types of research that can be undertaken before starting a research design (Scheyven & Story, 2003, p. 19). No research can take place without a philosophical underpinning; in other words no research can be successfully conducted without making certain philosophical choices (Scheyven & Story, 2003, p. 20). A researcher's failure to consider philosophical issues in a study, can seriously affect the worth of the research. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe (2003) stressed three important reasons to understand philosophical issues in research. The first is that it helps to clarify the research design required. Secondly, knowledge of philosophical issues helps the researcher to distinguish which design will work or not work. Finally, it helps the researcher to determine, identify, and even create, a design that may be outside his or her past experience" (p.27).

The outer layer of Saunders et al.'s (2007) research onion refers to the research philosophy. According to Limpanitgul (2009), there is a need to find ways of viewing the world in order to comprehend the truths around it, concepts and events. Gilbert (1993 cited in Lancaster, 2005, p. 21) posits that knowledge is built by gaining of knowledge of the world. According to Audi (1999, p. 563, cited in Plowright, 2012), ontology is described as a philosophical inquiry into the nature, constitution and structure of reality. The ontological viewpoint describes the crux of what the research is about. The ontological property of this study can be explained thus: peoples' views reflect their attitudes and their attitudes reflect on their performance.

Epistemology is concerned with knowledge and belief about the reality. It is concerned with how people arrive at their knowledge, and where this knowledge originates (Plowright, 2012). Epistemology is concerned with justifying the truth of the beliefs that one holds. It highlights the conditions that allow the investigator to decide what valid knowledge is and what assumptions have been made.

For the purposes of this study sources of knowledge that represent valid knowledge from an epistemological perspective are:

- Seeking people's perceptions of the phenomenon under study.
- Interacting individually with people in an effort to generate and validate knowledge.

### **5.5.2. Pragmatism**

The pragmatist epistemological worldview differs from positivist and post-positivist views of scientific discovering. Positivism highlights the "objective, law-like properties of a brute reality independent of observation; anti-positivism emphasis the creative role of active, subjective participation, none of whom owns a privileged claim of truth" (Pansiri, 2005). Pragmatism discards positivism on the grounds that no theory can satisfy its demands (objectivity, falsify-ability, the crucial experiment and so forth). It also discarded the "anti-positive because virtually any theory would satisfy them". Therefore, pragmatism is not committed to any system of philosophy and reality. Pragmatists aim to facilitate human problem-solving. They stress the importance of choosing explanations that produce the best

possible outcomes. They maintain that truth is what works, and, according to Powell (2001, p. 889 cited in Pansiri, 2005), posit “that a true proposition is one that facilitate paths of human discovering, and should be retained, deployed and improved only as long as it provide a profitable leading”. With regard to the method of inquiry, pragmatism embraces both quantitative and qualitative methods as advocated by positivism and anti-positivism, respectively. Pragmatists therefore support the use of mixed-methods of quantitative and qualitative data in a solitary study where data are collected concurrently or sequentially and are integrated at some stages of the research process (Creswell et al., 2003).

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) identify the following general characteristics of pragmatism:

- –Rejects traditional dualisms (e.g. subjectivism/objectivism; rationalism/empiricism, facts/values etc.)
- Has high regard for the reality of and influence of the inner world of human experience in action.
- Knowledge is viewed as both constructed and based on the reality of the world we experience and live in.
- Theories are viewed instrumentally (they become true and are true to different degrees based on how well they currently work; workability is judged especially on the criteria of predictability and applicability).
- Endorses eclecticism and pluralism (e.g., different, even conflicting, theories and perspectives can be useful; observation, experience and experiments are all useful ways to gain an understanding of people and the world).
- Human inquiry (i.e., what we do in our day-to-day lives as we interact with our environments) is viewed as being analogous to experimental and scientific inquiry. We all try things to see what works, what solves problems, and what helps us to survive. We obtain warranted evidence that provides us with answers that are ultimately tentative (i.e., inquiry provides the best answers we can currently muster), but, in the long run, use of this ‘scientific’ or evolutionary or practical epistemology moves us towards larger truths.
- Endorses a strong and practical empiricism as the path to determine what works.
- Views current truth, meaning, and knowledge as tentative and as changing over time. What we obtain on a daily basis in research should be viewed as provisional truths.

- Organisms are constantly adapting to new situations and environments. Our thinking follows a dynamic, homeostatic process of belief, doubt, inquiry, modified belief, new doubt, new inquiry, . . . in an infinite loop, where the person or researcher (and research community) constantly tries to improve upon past understandings in a way that fits and works in the world in which he or she operates. The present is always a new starting point". (Onwuegbuzie, 2004)

This study adopted a pragmatic stance in the sense that it aimed to establish employees' perceptions using a questionnaire as well as interviews to collect data from the Directors and the data were analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The findings of the entire population under study were incorporated in order to answer the research questions and seek ways to improve future T&D interventions in the organisation. The study seeks information on what works and what does not work in relation to the T&D interventions by examining the various known T&D transfer factors that influence learning transfer and which of these factors influences transfer of training on the job. The mixed method research foundation is based on the pragmatic philosophy suggested by Cameron, (2009, cited in Salehi, and Golafshani, 2010).

### **5.5.3. Research Approach**

Inductive (qualitative) and deductive (quantitative) approaches were used for this study, as certain research questions can best be analysed qualitatively and others quantitatively. The deductive method is a technique for applying theories in the real world in order to test and assess their validity. Deductive research involves the formulation of theory that is exposed to rigorous examination (Saunders et al., 2007). It is a set of methods to apply the concepts in the actual world so as to test and evaluate their legitimacy (Lancaster, 2005). The hypotheses tested in this study were formulated by accessing and evaluating the literature. The use of the deductive approach serves to improve the generality of the research. This approach was used because the researcher was interested in contributing to knowledge on how best to improve the effectiveness of T&D programmes to enhance employees' performance and improve training transfer on the job, in order to provide an effective T&D framework and make recommendations for future T&D interventions.

On the other hand, in inductive research the investigator aims to explain practical observation of the real world, which is based on personal experience (Lancaster, 2005). This approach

does not require the establishment of a-priori theories or hypotheses. Therefore, when the formulation of a theory is based on observations, an issue can be studied in many diverse ways (Lancaster, 2005, p. 26). Qualitative measurements can be outcome-oriented or activity-based. Outcome measures focus on how an organisation feels about a particular issue, for example, employees' perceived level of training performance outcome Garavan et al. (1999 cited in D'Netto, Bakas, & Bordia, 2008; Meldrum & Atkinson, 1998) suggest that to "prevail over the difficulties related to causality and exact measurement", respondents can be asked if they feel that the T&D they received contributed successfully to their job performance. This suggests that the data were measured subjectively. The disadvantage of subjective measures is that the results may not be comparable across organisations over time and will thus depend mainly on assumptions. Therefore, the reliability of the results will partly depend on the correctness of the assumptions regarding the impact of T&D on employees, as well as the subjective estimates of an organisation's performance. The inductive approach is best used for qualitative research, while the deductive approach is more suitable for quantitative studies; hence this study applied both approaches.

#### **5.5.4. Research Strategy (Case Study)**

A research strategy describes the general plan for how the researcher will go about answering the research question he/she has set (Saunders et al., 2007). The case study method emphasises the respondents' viewpoints as fundamental to the process; it can be an innovative substitute approach to description (Zucker, 2009). Case studies generally use many sources of data, making this a complex process; one or more cases may be included in a study and this can generate large amount of data for analysis (Moon, 2007; Soy, 1997). This study used a single case with multiple data collection methods. A case study can be used to expand an existing theory, create a new theory, disagree with or contest a theory, clarify a situation, or to explore a phenomenon (Soy, 1997). In this study, the researcher used an existing theory to clarify the situation or to explore the phenomenon under review, namely, whether T&D contributes to employee and organisational performance and whether the HRD and evaluation model developed by Holton 111 et al. (2008) can be effective in enhancing performance. A researcher can use a case study design depending on the type of research problem and the questions being asked (Rule & John, 2011). This study used the case study strategy to investigate the research questions and objectives. In case studies, the investigator conducts an in-depth investigation of a programme or activity (Andrade, 2009).

A case study may be seen as an investigation or comprehensive enquiry into a single case at a particular point in time (De Vos et al., 2006, p. 272). It is a powerful research methodology (Cooper & Schindlers, 2008) which allows an investigator to carefully examine the data within a particular setting. It provides in-depth information on individuals or a particular instance; when compared with the results of the previous studies, case studies allow for the investigation and understanding of complex issues (Rule & John, 2011, p. 7; Zainal, 2007). This case study allowed the researcher to investigate and understand a complex case in a particular setting (T&D and training transfer at the NRC). Using a mixed-method of quantitative and qualitative data, both the process and results of a phenomenon can be clarified through observation, reconstruction and analysis of the case under study (Tellis, 1997, cited in Zainal, 2007). A case study approach can apply an embedded design (multiple levels of analysis) in one study (Elsenhardt, 1987). For example, this study used qualitative and quantitative methods to analyse the data. It combines the qualitative data from interviews and observations with quantitative data from the questionnaires. Case studies employ data collection methods such as archives, interviews, questionnaire and observations. Yin (1984, p. 23, cited in Zainal, 2007) describes the case study research technique as an experiential investigation that examines an existing phenomenon in its real-life setting where the boundaries between the phenomenon and setting are not obvious in which numerous sources of proof are used (Moon, 2007). Furthermore, a case study uses observations to establish cause and effect in real life situations (Cohen et al., 2011). According to Cohen et al. (2011) because settings are different and change over time, a case study establishes the “real-life, complex dynamic and unfolding interactions of events, human relationships and other factors in a unique instances”. Investigators can utilise a single-case or multiple-case design depending on the problem the researcher is seeking to resolve (Zainal, 2007). In a case study, all data are collected to arrive at the best possible responses to the research questions.

Given the pragmatic position adopted by this study and the nature of the research questions, the case study methodology was considered the most appropriate because it allows for in-depth analysis of data on the said research problem. This study is a holistic descriptive case study of the NRC. The case study approach was adopted partly because it overcomes the problems of a large sample, for example, the lack of insufficient data for estimation. A major disadvantage of case studies is that their results may only be applicable to similar cases; it is difficult to apply them to society as a whole. However, the results of case studies can be

useful to other organisations confronted by the same issues (Johnson & Christensen, 2010). The power of case studies does not lie in their representativeness, but rather in what can be learned from that particular case or similar cases (Zucker, 2009). The generalisation of case study results is restricted to the context in which it took place (Zucker, 2009, p. 17). Although generalisation restrictions may discourage researchers from using case study methods, Yin (1984 cited in Zucker, 2009) maintains that theoretical generalisation is to the domain of case study what statistical generalisation is to experimental research. One method of overcoming this problem is to triangulate the research with two or more approaches in order to confirm the validity of the process.

#### **5.5.5. Reflexive Research data gathering**

Triangulation can be described as the combination of two or more methods of data collection when studying the same phenomenon (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher & Perez-Prado, 2003). The researcher engaged in a multiple method investigation, using a research survey, questionnaire and archival research.

The survey research for this study included interviews with the directors. During these interviews, the researcher continually paraphrased or rephrased the questions to allow the interviewee to participate fully in order to increase the validity of the information. Follow-up questions were formulated in order to seek more accurate information from the participants and for subsequent use. The interview component involved the use of an audio tape recorder and writing materials. The researcher was aware that interviewees might speak for the tape; in other words, they were unlikely to speak the truth (Bachman, 2008). Therefore, the researcher sought permission from the respondents to tape the interviews and explained that this was merely to capture valuable details and not for public consumption. The interviews were later transcribed. The texts were read a number of times; statements that seemed revealing about the phenomenon were highlighted. The selected marked phrase or sentences sought to capture the detailed meaning of these items. The transcription process assisted the researcher to immerse himself in the data and contemplate what the respondents were saying. The researcher read the written transcripts a number of times while listening to the corresponding audio tape to ensure it was written correctly and reach a better understanding of the content and respondents' experience. The interview questions were formulated using the outline of the interview topic.

The recorded information was coded according to emerging themes. Organisational outcomes were measured by counting words or phrase such as productive increase; make financial profit, and performance improvement. Others included customer service significantly improved, introduced new service, customers' complaints significantly reduced, intention to quit reduced, increase in organisational commitment, increase in employee retention and so forth. Employees' outcomes were measured by counting words or phrases like better job satisfaction, improved performance, increase in skills, knowledge, morale, job satisfaction increased, increase in employee commitment and so forth.

A qualitative technique involves open-ended, moderately unstructured questions in which the interviewer searched for in-depth information on the interviewee's insight and knowledge. The researcher examined the influence of T&D on employees and organisational outcomes through interviewing the directors of the NRC individually. The researcher engaged in prolonged, face-to-face interaction with the interviewees through one-on-one conversations in order to establish what NRC employees think and feel about the T&D initiative that was carried out in the organisation. The taped text can be reviewed and structured when it is printed out (Thomas, 2000). Furthermore, the researcher compared the themes for each interview and identified the overall themes that best described the employees before doing the final write up as suggested by Thomas (2000).

The interviewer took partial notes which he recorded in his logbook or journal while interviewing the directors; these were later written up in a more complete form for each interview on his computer. Constant note-taking by the interviewer during the interview may affect the quality of the interview and the level of attention and interest exhibited by the researcher (Bachman, 2008). The researcher used a jotter to briefly jot down valuable information which served as a memory jogger when writing the main interview notes afterwards. Original comments and text transcribed from the audiotapes were reconstructed from these notes. This enabled the researcher to remember a great deal of the interviewees' responses. Documentation is important as it helps to keep track of data as they increase in volume and the on-going conceptualisation of the text (Bachman, 2008). Quotes were clearly distinguished from rephrased words. The researcher recorded the interview proceeding in his logbook codes that indicated T&D outcomes, for example, employees' morale, competence,

job satisfaction, organisational commitment, employees' performance and overall organisational performance.

The researcher also recorded information on how well the T&D helped employees and organisational performance through the internal reports of the NRC for 2011 (see table 2.1 above). Sampson and Reudenbush (1999 cited in Bachman, 2008) examined the crime rate using data from police annals, and inhabitants' attitudes and conduct through a survey. This study demonstrates the importance of multiple methods and practices to record opinions. The in-depth interviews provided much greater confidence in the measurement of the influence of T&D on organisational and employees' outcomes than the researcher would have gained through employees' responses to survey questions. Researchers employing a qualitative method use intensive interviewing as it helps to develop a comprehensive picture of the interviewees' opinions and experience in their own words (Bachman, 2008). For instance, the respondents were actively encouraged by the researcher to elaborate on their responses. Intensive interviews have the potential to unravel true meaning that questions with a fixed format would surely miss.

Hand analysis was used for the analysis of the qualitative data for this study. Creswell (2012, p. 240) observes that hand analysis may be preferred by the researcher when the database is less than 500 pages of transcripts; it allows for files to be tracked effortlessly and makes it easy to find test passages. Hand analysis was used after the researcher unsuccessfully tried to learn and use QSR NVivo, computer assisted qualitative data analysis software.

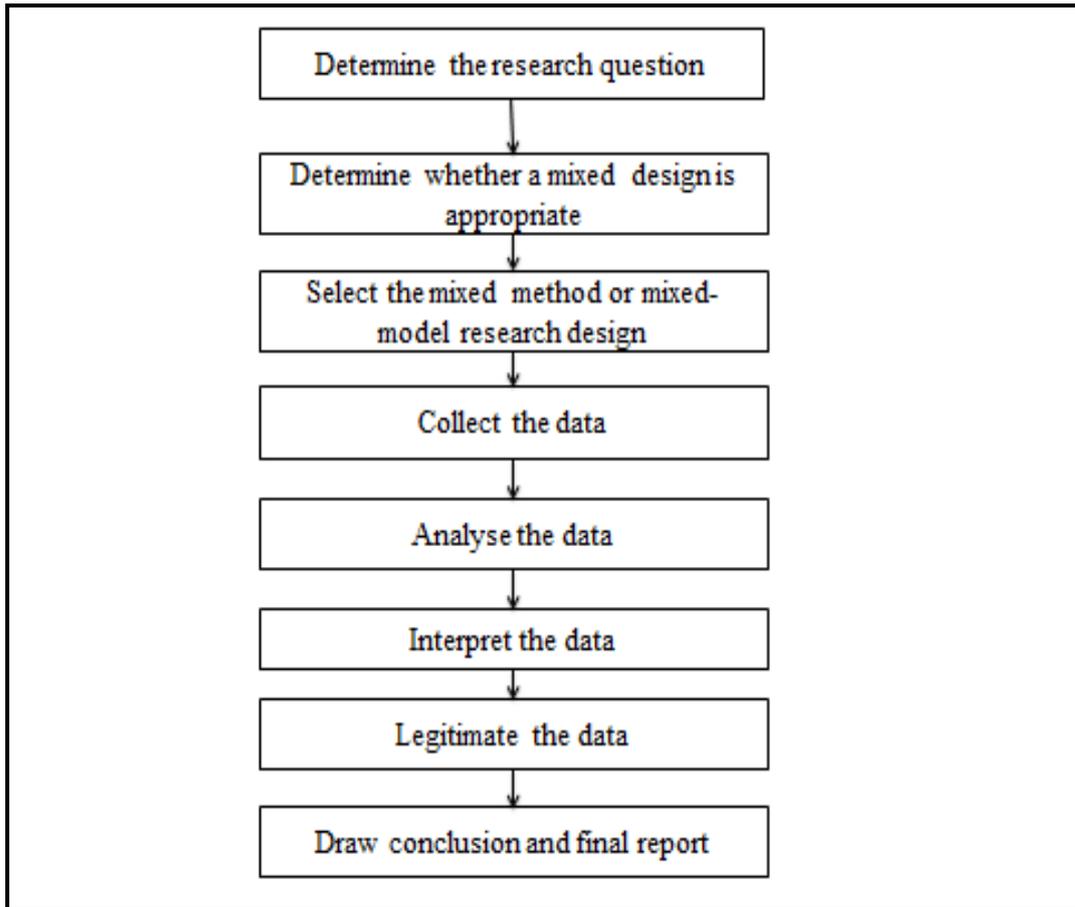
The researcher also made use of questionnaires to collect data from NRC employees. The questionnaire was distributed with the help of contact persons in Lagos. The collection of the questionnaire took about two months. A great deal of time was spent administering the questionnaire and seeking out those who might claim to have not received any training in recent times. A number of the questionnaires were returned uncompleted, prompting the researcher to distribute another batch of questionnaires to other selected employees.

#### **5.5.6. Research Choice (Triangulation)**

After extensive deliberation on the various methods of data collection, the researcher decided that triangulation was appropriate for this study, considering the pragmatic stand it took and

the theory it was seeking to prove or disprove. Triangulation can be described as the combination of two or more methods of data collection, when studying the same phenomenon (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher & Perez-Prado, 2003). Triangulation seeks to converge and corroborate findings from two or more methods that study the same phenomenon (Onwuegbuzie & Leech 2006). The fundamental principle of triangulation is that all methods have innate biases and shortcomings; the use of one technique to evaluate a given phenomenon will unavoidably produce biased and incomplete results (Plano Clark and Creswell, 2008, p. 123). The pragmatic school of thought –endorses eclecticism and pluralism (e.g., different, even conflicting, theories and perspectives can be useful; observation, experience and experiments are all useful ways to gain an understanding of people and the world)”. In this study the researcher sought to expand the breath and range of the investigation into T&D activities in the NRC through the use of different methods for each component. The researcher also sought to complement the findings of one method through seeking elaboration, enhancement and clarification of the results. A mixed method research study combines both qualitative and quantitative methods (Feilzer, 2010).

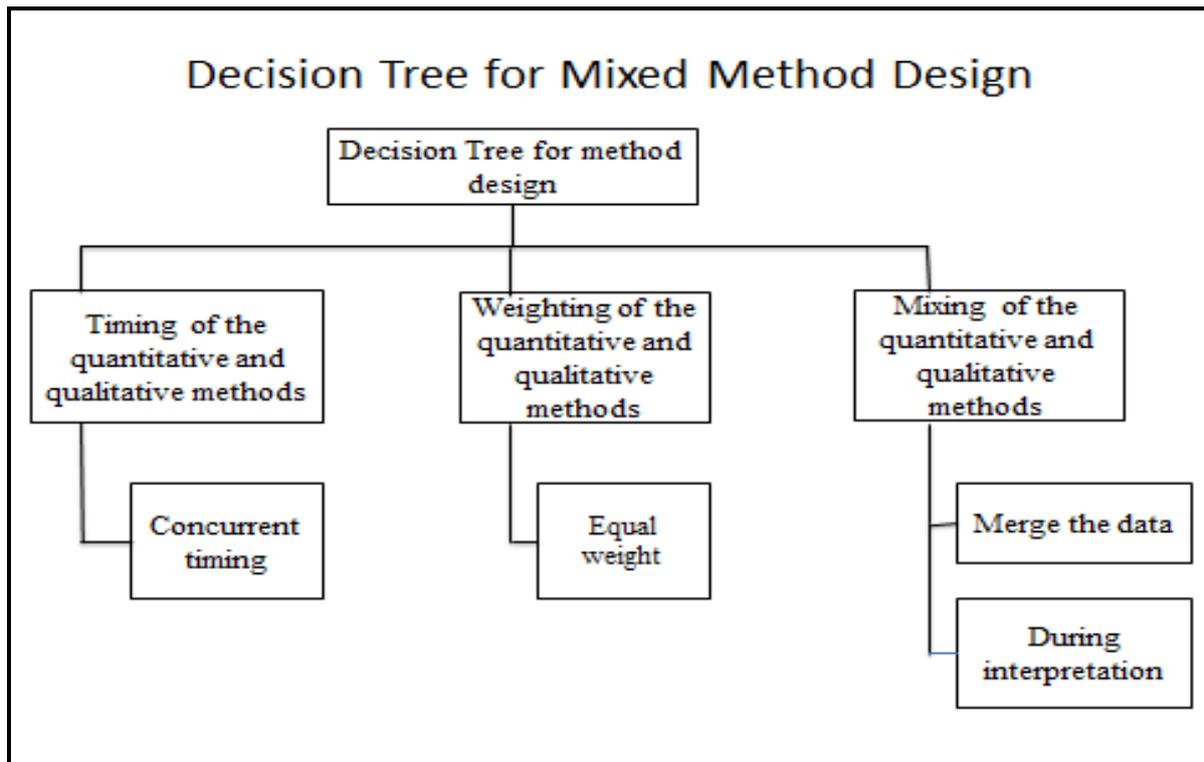
Mixed method research can be defined as a study where the researcher gathers and examines data, assimilates the findings, and reaches conclusions using both qualitative and quantitative methods (Tashakkori and Creswell (2007, cited in Plowright, 2012, p, 189; De Vos, Straydom, Fouche & Delpont, 2006, p. 361). Mixed method research is preferable when the phenomena under review have different layers, this can be addressed by using quantitative and qualitative methods to measure the different aspects. Comparisons can be made across subgroups of a sample that are within the same level of the sample in concurrent mixed sampling (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p. 239, cited in Cohen et al., 2011, p. 162). Both methods can be used concurrently or parallel to each other, such that the overall strength of the study is greater than if only one approach were used (Creswell et al., 2007). In the parallel method, data from one sample do not influence the collection of data from the other, and so on (Cohen et al., 2011). The researcher followed the mixed method research process proposed by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004).



**Figure: 5.3. Source: Adopted from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 239).**

The mixed method approach was the most appropriate for the present study, as the researcher aimed to establish different categories of employees' perceptions of the impact of T&D on employee and organisational performance using different research approaches. Structured and semi-structured interviews were used to solicit information from the Directors of the NRC to identify the outcomes of T&D interventions, while questionnaires and observation were used to obtain information from employees. The mixed method approach enabled the researcher to answer the research questions; this would have not been possible with a single research method. Moreover, some research questions could only be addressed by interviewing the Directors because certain information is not accessible to employees. At the same time, employees have access to certain information that the Directors are not aware of. Therefore, the combination of the data from the two approaches allowed for rich information to be collected to answer the research questions. The data collected were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively and the results were integrated.

### **Decision Tree for Mixed Method Design for this Study**



**Figure: 5.4.** Source: Adopted from Creswell, et al., 2003; Creswell and Plano Clark, (2007 cited in Doyle, Brady, & Byrne (2009)).

#### 5.5.6.1. Advantages of Mixed Methods

The foremost advantage of using mixed-methods rather than a mono-method is that it allows for triangulation (Saunders et al., 2007). The nature of this study requires that different techniques be used to collect data from different categories of employees. A mixed-method was used because it allowed the researcher the benefit of both quantitative and qualitative data. Furthermore, according to Creswell et al. (2007, cited in Doyle, Brady & Byrne, 2009), mixed method research is best used when research questions cannot be answered by the use of qualitative or quantitative techniques alone, and offers a superior range of tools to achieve the objectives of a study. It can also offer robust proof of conclusions through the merging and substantiation of findings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Data were collected through the use of different data collection methods which enhanced the validity of the research findings (Copper & Schindler, 2008, p, 186). This study adopted Harrison and Reilly's (2011) definition of mixed method study. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected concurrently. The data collection process was carried out concurrently; the quantitative stage of the study did not drive the qualitative stage of data collection. The

qualitative and quantitative results were analysed separately, then merged during discussions and report writing. Further data were collected from NRC brochures, annual reports, magazines and the company journal; this was combined with the data from the questionnaires and interviews. These multiple data resources enabled the researcher to “obtain multiple perspectives of a single organisation ..... at a point in time” (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

Furthermore, as suggested by De Vos et al. (2006, p. 362), the different results obtained from mixed methods led to an improved elucidation of the research problem. Mixed methods can help a researcher to answer a wide range of research questions since he/she is not limited to a particular method or approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Therefore, the use of more than one method will make up for the weakness of the other method/s and the validity of the research will be enhanced.

Triangulation enables the researcher to obtain broader, all-inclusive and background representations of the element/s under investigation (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008, p. 109). It also helped the researcher to discover distinctive variance which may have been neglected by the use of the mono-method (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008, p. 109).

#### **5.5.7. Time-horizon**

This study is a cross-sectional case study of the NRC. A cross-sectional research method enables the researcher to gather facts once, at a particular point in time (Chen & Hirschheim, 2004; Cohen et al., 2011). The data collection for this study took place over five months (November 2011 to March 2012). The distribution and collection of the questionnaire took about four to five months (November 2011 to February 2012) and the interviews took about three weeks (February to March 2013). Given the time constraints, a cross-sectional research design was chosen to provide information on how effective T&D initiatives are in improving employees' skills and knowledge and the organisational performance of the NRC. The study also investigated the effectiveness of training transfer factors on learning transfer on the job in the organisation within the period noted above. A longitudinal research design which involved the study of the same situation repeatedly over time was rejected for the present study due to time constraints.

One of the strengths of cross-sectional research is that there is a stronger likelihood that potential participants will take part in the study because the exercise only takes place once. This avoids the threat posed by the attrition commonly experienced in longitudinal research due to the death or withdrawal of a participant (Axinn & Pearce, 2006). The cross-sectional method can be time-consuming as the background details of each sample have to be collected each time. Furthermore, some respondents may not answer some questions, or consciously or unconsciously, give improper responses. The omission of one variable, later found to be indispensable, from a cross-sectional study can undermine the results significantly or cause outright disaster (Cohen et al., 2011). But such an error can easily be rectified in a cohort study. Therefore, care was taken to ensure that all information on which the sample is based is comprehensive.

### **5.5.8. Techniques and Procedures**

#### **5.5.8.1. Research Sampling**

Time and financial constraints render it almost impossible for a researcher to sample the entire population under study, especially when the population is large. According to Parasuraman et al. (2004, p. 356 cited in Limganitgul, 2009), sampling is a method whereby a fraction of a total number of units of interest is selected to enable the researcher to draw general conclusions about the whole body of units. Thereafter the researcher can draw ~~the~~ sample about the population to achieve the research objective” (Saunders et al., 2007). The present study used Churchill and Iacobucci’s (2002 and Wilson’s (2006, cited in Limganitgul, 2009) five step procedure to complete the sampling process.

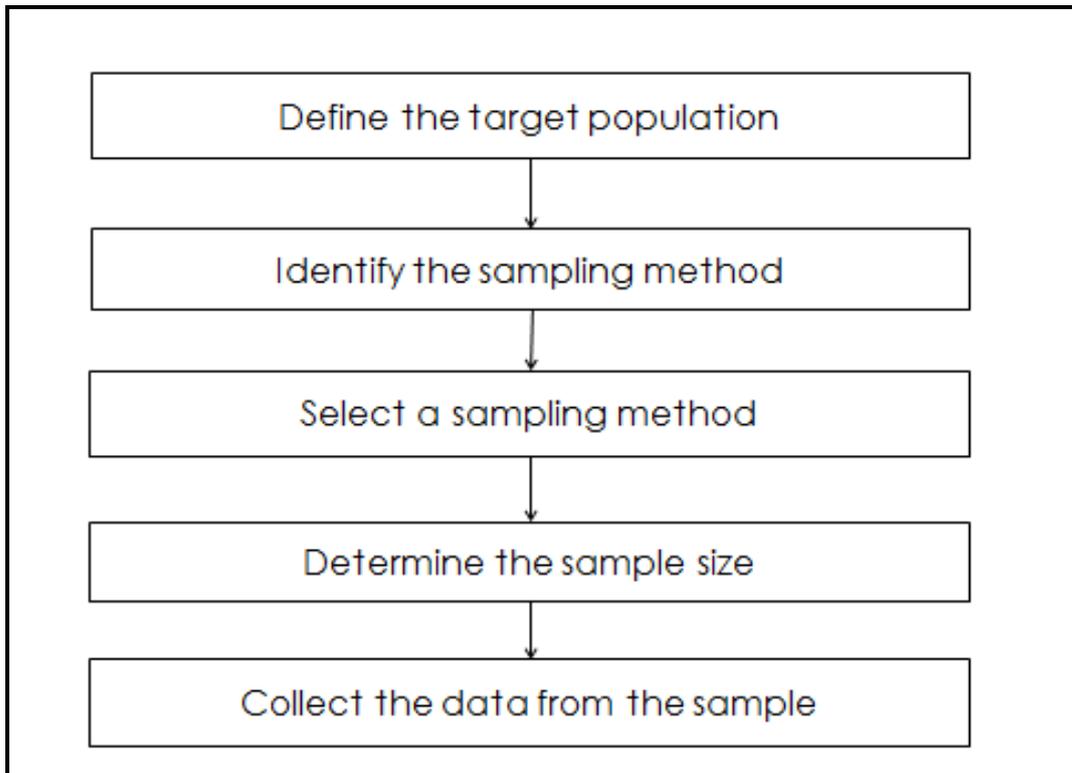
**Figure 5.1.: Five-step procedure for drawing sample**

Figure: 5.5. Source: Based on Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) and Wilson (2006, cited in Limganitgul, 2009).

#### **5.5.8.2. Target Population**

The term ‘target population’ is commonly used to refer to the group of people or entities to which the findings of the sample are to be generalized. The target population for this study was NRC employees in Lagos zone. The target population totalled 1,328 NRC employees, of which 878 are administrative and 450 are technical staff. Sixty per cent of the employees were men and 35% were women; the majority of the respondents were between the ages of 25 and 35. Eight hundred and eleven (811) are junior staff and 517 are senior staff. Therefore, the sample comprised 297 employees in order to obtain a 95% confidence level for this study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010, p. 295).

The biographical information requested and the respondents' characteristics are indicated in the table below.

Gender	Male	193
	Female	104
Age	18-25	62
	26-35	105
	36-45	68
	46-60	59
Period of Training		
	1-2 weeks	156
	3-4 weeks	93
	5-6 weeks	25
	7-12 weeks	6
	13+ weeks	17
Staff categories (dept.)		
	Administrative staff	181
	Technical staff	116
Staff grades		
	Senior	135
	Junior	162
Tenure of office		
	1-10 yrs.	147
	11-20 yrs.	76
	21+ yrs.	74

**Table 5.1 Respondents' Biographical Details**

Survey research strategies can be divided into four main process stages. These are: identifying an appropriate sampling frame, determining the sample size, choosing a sampling technique and making sure that sample is representative of the population (Sunders et al., 2007).

#### **5.5.8.3. Sampling Frame**

The sampling frame is the list of all NRC employees who had undergone T&D in the past year in Lagos state. The choice of the Lagos Zone of the NRC was based on the fact that it has the most comprehensive and detailed information on the multifaceted Corporation. Therefore, they were able to provide objective and accurate data important for the study. This list was provided by the Assistant Director of Personnel and Training, using their database. She also provided the lists of all the Directors who were interviewed. The sampling frame is the same as the target population explained in table 5.1 above because everybody in

this zone had attended a training programme. The study was able to achieve a 100% response rate because respondents were stratified into distinctive groups and were randomly selected. The number of respondents was manually generated using Morris's (2003) random number table portrayed in Saunders et al. (2007) and a similar table suggested by Johnson & Christensen (2012, p. 220). The 297 employees who were selected for the study were approached to participate prior to its commencement; thus only those who volunteered to participate were included and hence the 100% response rate.

#### **5.5.8.4. Stratified Random Sampling**

The stratified random sampling method was used for this study. As noted by Johnson & Christensen (2012) and Sekaran & Bougie (2010), stratified random sampling is a sampling method in which the total population is divided into different homogeneous subgroups and then studied separately, after which the results are put together. These subgroups, called strata, together comprise the whole population; the final subjects are randomly selected either proportionally or disproportionately depending on the size of the different strata and the sampling design preferred by the researcher. Stratified sampling can be used when the investigator knows the variables in the population that are critical to achieving representativeness (Burns & Grove, 2005). This technique is essential when the researcher want to study or evaluate and compare information from the different subgroups of the total population. In stratify random sampling, the units are first divided into disjointed groups called strata and the numbers of the elements in the population are determined (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Stratified sampling was regarded as the best sampling method for this study because one of its objectives was to compare the influence of T&D on junior and senior employees and employees in the technical and administrative departments, respectively. The number of respondents was manually generated using Morris's (2003) random number table as portrayed in Saunders et al. (2007) and a similar table suggested by Johnson and Christensen (2012, p. 220), after failing for several hours to generate the numbers electronically. The 297 employees who were selected were approached to participate in the study as was mentioned above.

The population was divided into mutually exclusive groups of junior and senior staff (where the employees' grades constituted the variable) and administrative and technical staff (where departments make up the variable), respectively. A simple random sample was drawn

disproportionately from each stratum. The participants were selected (based on their groups as noted above) for the sample by initially assigning each name a unique number. This provided a total of 297 respondents who had attended training programmes aimed at improving service quality and productivity in Lagos. However, 37 questionnaires were rejected for various reasons; these were mainly incomplete questionnaires and respondents who claimed to have not attended any training within the stipulated time frame.

#### 5.5.8.5. A random number table

An arbitrary number was assigned to each participant and a random number was created. A random number table is a set of digits (i.e., 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9) arranged randomly through rows and columns (Wilson, 2007). Participants were selected by picking any starting point through poking the table with eyes closed, as every part of the table is randomly arranged. However, the researcher avoided starting at the same spot each time. Then the researcher read down the columns from the arbitrary starting point, accepting any numbers in his range. Table 5.1 above further clarifies the distinctive groups under study. An example of a random table is presented below.

#### Random Digits

1	11111	11112	22222	22223	33333	33334	44444	44445		
	12345	67890	12345	67890	12345	67890	12345	67890	12345	67890
1	87257	58162	24097	35344	71626	30564	72241	92705	43468	85727
2	23930	38657	85479	73153	90003	52325	96113	67925	65441	50915
3	92791	40302	93701	04585	93430	21549	97164	21275	91216	00585
4	75686	79266	04769	21084	35890	06619	03696	67240	91886	74197
5	40199	50062	91876	91565	01998	47852	03455	61002	80048	33381
6	11267	63450	13644	54478	02530	64490	02883	46430	54683	48599
7	35623	41628	63210	66891	40550	90775	22745	24950	72072	89228
8	52029	38996	69052	01409	31408	97587	40417	72628	90887	59824
9	95190	12433	30130	31596	99671	71903	19495	15438	69008	.....

**Table 5.2 Adopted from Wilson, (2007)**

#### 5.5.8.6. Reasons for Stratified Random Sampling

Stratified sampling ensures that none of the subgroups is totally ignored. Stratification ensures that each unit from a particular stratum of the population has an equal chance of being selected, and it also reduces bias. Stratified random sampling is superior to simple

random sampling in the sense that it ensures that none of the subgroups under study, even the smallest group, is underrepresented. Other reasons for using stratified random sampling are discussed below.

Stratified random sampling is advantageous when the entire population under study varies, as in the present study (Babbie, 2010). A sample's statistical efficiency is increased by the use of stratified random sampling (Cooper & Schindler, 2008, p. 390). Moreover, this sampling method is useful when the researcher wants to assess the perceptions and characteristics of different work groups of people (Babbie, 2010). Stratification is very useful in identifying the impact of T&D on different groups of workers; the purpose was to ensure equitable representation of the different groups of civil servants in the NRC is achieved and to compare their responses.

It would be impossible to establish the dissimilarities within the parameters of the subgroups of the total population without the use of the stratified random sampling method (Sekaran & Bougie 2010, p. 272). Stratification helps to produce accurate information within a given sample size and accurately estimates the overall population total, by treating each stratum as a population in its own right. Stratification allows for comparison by ensuring that information from smaller strata of the population is included. For instance, in the present study, stratified random sampling ensured that all technical and administrative and senior and junior employees were appropriately represented.

Stratified random sampling is essential when different parts of the population may require different sampling procedure. Interviewers can be trained how to deal with a particular group of employees in a company and the results obtained from each stratum are of particular interest and can be evaluated separately. However, stratified sampling is also important for administrative purposes because it enables the researcher to distribute research assistants to different population groups in different locations.

Stratification provides greater statistical accuracy of the survey results (Fuller, 1993) than simple random sampling, because the variability within the subgroup is less significant than the variation when dealing with the whole population (Kitambara, 2011; Castillo, 2009). Moreover, stratification is indispensable when the population is heterogeneous and can easily be divided into subpopulation groups using known information about the population when

each is internally homogenous. The estimates obtained from each stratum parameter are combined to obtain accurate approximation for the whole population.

Stratified random sampling improves the precision of the estimate; it saves money, time and effort due to its ability to reduce the sample sizes to the smallest possible level. A researcher can use a smaller sample size to achieve the same degree of representation as a large sample size (Burn & Grove, 2005).

#### **5.5.8.7. Stratified Random Sampling's Advantages**

Shaughnessy et al. (2003, cited in Cohen et al., 2011) suggest that there is a likelihood of bias in a case study, if it relies on an individual's memory. They maintain that a case study may be ill-defined and subjective and may be prejudiced by the respondents. The main disadvantage of stratified random sampling is that it might take additional time because it requires more administrative work than simple random sampling. Furthermore, it cannot be used when the population size of the each subgroup or stratum is unknown and the researcher may not have the necessary access to the information that he/she needs (Fuller, 1993). Obtaining such information may be time-consuming. Sometimes there may not be a single list containing the entire population from which to select the sample; it can be time consuming to prepare such a list.

#### **5.5.8.8. Disproportionate Stratified Sampling**

In disproportionate sampling, each stratum is not properly represented so that the sample size drawn from the stratum is proportionate to the stratum's share of the total population. This study employs disproportionate sampling because there are large differences in sampling variances among the strata (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The decision to use disproportionate stratified sampling was also based on the fact that each distinctive group is large enough to secure acceptable confidence levels and error range approximations for a distinct strata according to Cooper & Schindler (2008, p. 392). Moreover, the study used disproportionate sampling because the research interest (comparing grades and departments) lies more in comparing groups than in making generalisations about the total population (Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 227). The table below stipulates the major stratified groups used for this study.

The employees were grouped along the lines of senior and junior staff, and administrative and technical groups, respectively and the participants were selected randomly. The process of random selection is explained on page 139 above.

Distinctive Groups	Total Number	Number Respondents
Senior employees	517	135
Junior employees	181	162
Administrative Staff	878	181
Technical Staff	450	116

**Table 5.3 showing disproportionate stratified sampling**

#### **5.5.8.9. Data Collection Instruments**

Whether the research is valid or reliable is a function of how well the questions were designed, how it was structured and the thoroughness of trial testing (Saunders et al., 2007). According to Saunders et al. (2006, p. 362), qualitative research data obtained from interviews alone may limit the generalizability of the findings. Therefore, the questionnaire was administered to corroborate the findings of the interviews in order to enhance the validity of the findings. The questionnaire was formulated to achieve the research objectives as well as to obtain further information. The employees were given a comprehensive questionnaire on their perceptions of the impact of T&D interventions on the employee and organisational performance. The questionnaire also aimed to determine the influence of training transfer factors on learning transfer in the organisation. This section provides an account of the content and structure of the questionnaire as well as the reasons for the choice of the questions. It also contains information on the pretesting and distribution of the questionnaires to the respondents. The content and structure of the interviews is also discussed.

#### **5.5.8.10. Questionnaire**

The study evaluated the impact of T&D on employee performance, using civil servants in the NRC based in Lagos State, Nigeria as a case study. A detailed questionnaire was administered to 297 NRC employees, stratified into different categories: senior and junior employees, and technical and administrative workers, respectively. The rationale was to

guarantee equitable representation of the employees in the study area and to elicit their opinions on the theme of the study. A standardised questionnaire with five point scale Likert type of questions was developed.

According to Saunders et al. (2007), a questionnaire is a data collection instrument in which the respondent is requested to answer a set of questions in a predetermined order. The questionnaire for this study sought to obtain NRC employees' perceptions of the influence of T&D and training transfer factor on employee and organisational. The questionnaire was designed specifically for NRC workers. Further data were gathered through in-depth interviews with the Directors. The questionnaire for the employees contained a blend of close and open-ended questions. It was designed to evaluate the nature of T&D programmes in the NRC and the relationship between T&D and performance. Furthermore, it sought to evaluate the factors that influence transfer of T&D in an organisation. Respondents were requested to evaluate the impact of their T&D over the past year (2011) in terms of turnover, turnover intention, labour productivity and profitability. Other areas included job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and so forth. The respondents were requested to choose their answers from a scale of five possible options, varying from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

An information sheet was attached to the questionnaire to enable the respondents to become familiar with the questions and topics; this invariably enhances the reliability of the qualitative data collected and equally preventing bias. The design of the survey questionnaire was assisted by the literature review. In the first phase of data collection, the researcher personally administered the questionnaire with the help of contact persons employed by the NRC. The questionnaires were given to workers who had attended training programmes in 2010/2011 financial year, in their offices in various departments and locations in Lagos State. The questionnaires sought information in a number of areas, including the type of training, the impact of T&D on individual outcomes, (example, job satisfaction, employee turnover intention, performance competences and so forth), organisational performance; the second section requested answers on factors believe to influence training transfer. The researcher collected the questionnaire personally with the assistance of the contact persons at a later date so that respondents could complete it in their own time. This method saves time and response rates are enhanced (De Vos et al., 2006). The disadvantage of hand-delivered questionnaires

is that only a limited number of respondents can be reached on one occasion. Furthermore, some respondents may misplace the questionnaire, requiring another copy to be provided.

Questionnaires are one of the best known and most widely used data collection methods for survey strategy. They are a competent way of collecting answers from a large sample before analysing them quantitatively. Questionnaires are best applied when attitudes and organisational practices are the subject of the study, and they enable the researcher to discover and explain variability in diverse, observable facts. The data obtained can equally be used to suggest possible associations between variables (Saunders et al., 2007, p. 356). Questionnaires are cost-effective, particularly for a large sample, as was the case in this study (Walonick, 1993, p. 1).

#### **5.5.8.11. Description of the Questionnaire**

Questions 15 to 19 were developed to ascertain the impact of T&D on NRC employees. Standardised questions with proven reliability were adapted to suit the present study, example, MSQ (1977). Minnesota questions on organisational commitment were modified and used as questions 20 to 37. These set out to establish the rate of the employees' organisational commitment.

Questions 38 to 43 were formulated to evaluate the impact of T&D on employees' skills, knowledge, and ability (performance competence). Questions 44 to 51 were formulated to evaluate the impact on job performance. Minnesota satisfaction questions (MSQ) were modified and used to measure job satisfaction in questions 52 to 59. The influence of T&D on customer services (questions 60 to 65) was also evaluated.

#### **Section B: Training Transfer**

The Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) measuring instrument was used for the second part of the study. It provides a thorough and extensive definition of the construct of the factors that influence transfer of training in the workplace. The LTSI is the only authenticated tool which diagnoses the factors affecting training transfer (Min, 2010). It can be used to investigate known potential transfer problems and their impact on employees' job performance after the training took place. The most current edition of the LTSI contains 52

items that are divided into four different subsections, namely: trainee characteristics scales, motivation scales, working environmental scales and ability scales. This new version of the LTSI, measures 16 factors that influence learning transfer in organisations. The factor definitions contained in the LTSI demonstrated construct validity based on factor analysis with a database of more than 8,000 respondents from 20 different countries in Europe and Asia representing a wide variety of industries, jobs, company types, and levels of employees (Holton III & Bates, 2008). This is the only authoritative validated measuring instrument of training transfer in the world and it is the first time it has been tested in any organisation in Nigeria, and, according to Dr Bates (one of the developers), only the third country in Africa (after South Africa and Rwanda) where it has been tested.

#### **5.5.8.12. Pilot Testing**

A pilot test is approach used to reveal any possible weakness or error in the design of a questionnaire and allows for any necessary modification (Copper & Schindler, 2008, p. 251). This exercise determines whether the instrument will work and which questions need to be reviewed (De Vos et al., 2006). It offers an opportunity to reduce vagueness in wording and possible misperceptions of some questions and make the questionnaire user-friendly so as to increase the quality of the data collected. According to Saunders et al. (2007) piloting provides an opportunity to prove the validity of the questionnaire. The information collected from the piloting phase enables the questionnaire to be improved before the proper study is carried out. Other important factors that are tested are the time taken to complete the questionnaire and the feasibility of the study. The main reason for piloting the questionnaire is to make sure that respondents do not experience problems in completing it.

Copper & Schindler (2008, p, 91) suggest that “respondents should be drawn from the target population and simulate the procedures and protocols that have been designated for the data collection”. They also suggest that the size of the pilot group should range from 25 to 100 respondents. Therefore, the pilot study involved a trial run of 25 colleagues who had undergone training in their various organisations. It was designed to investigate a number of issues, including the questionnaire’s effectiveness in obtaining the data required. The researcher personally distributed and collected the questionnaire and analysed the data using SPSS with the help of a statistician. After they had completed the questionnaire, the researcher requested feedback from these respondents. They were asked to assess the clarity

of the questionnaire's guidelines, the relevance of the specific questions and the overall outline of the questionnaire, as well as the length of time it took to complete and any other issues they wished to raise. The pilot testing and analysis of the data took about two weeks. Following the pilot study, some of the questions were either modified or removed as they were out of place or too ambiguous. Some questions were reworded to improve their clarity. The exercise was completed in August 2011, a few months before the actual survey.

#### **5.5.8.13. The Use of Documentation**

Secondary data were also collected through reviewing the organisation's internal, readily available material. This included internal company information, relevant trade publications, e.g. Railnews, (an internally published journal), the company's magazines, annual reports, and other organisational literature, financial reports, and management reports. Other sources of information included training and development text books, on-line data bases, and internationally-acclaimed academic journals. The data obtained from these documents formed part of the literature for this study.

#### **5.5.8.14. Interviews**

In a mixed study, the formulation of the research questions is more difficult than in single method investigations because it requires quantitative and qualitative research questions for the same study (Onwuegbuzie, 2006, p. 477). Research questions determine the research design to be used, including the size of the sample, sampling scheme, and instruments used, including data analysis techniques. Mixed research questions were used for this study (quantitative aspect); firstly comparative questions were asked to compare the outcomes of T&D on technical and administrative and senior junior employees, respectively in order to determine whether there were any differences. Relationship questions were also asked to establish whether there is any relationship between T&D and employees and organisational performance. The qualitative research questions for this study were open-ended, evolving and non-directional questions that sought to enable an understanding of T&D in a specific setting (Creswell, 2012), the NRC.

The research questions for this study were formulated based on past research and theories and the need to arrive at a decision through the data collected. Research questions play an

important role; for instance, they provide the outline for carrying out the study. The research questions for this study were rigorously scrutinised and some of the questions were partially reworded. Some questions were added or removed as a result of the secondary research findings. This also led to the reformulation of the aims and objectives of this study. The interview questions were formulated based on the secondary research findings and theories and the need to answer the research questions. The questions were designed by reviewing the interview questions used in previous studies and adapting them for this study. The questions were reviewed by experienced researchers in the field which included my supervisor, after which the final questions were formulated.

Both structured and semi-structured questions were used for the interviews; this allowed for in-depth insight into the nature of the management and outcomes of T&D interventions in the NRC. The study benefited from seeking information from employees experienced in the area of the study, by tapping into their knowledge or experiences (Copper & Schindler, 2008). Interviews enabled the researcher to obtain in-depth and comprehensive information about the success of the T&D initiatives in the organisation.

According to Jankowicz (2005 cited in Saunders, 2008), questionnaires are more useful if used in conjunction with in-depth interviews to understand the facts under review. This study combined two data collection methods, questionnaires and personal interviews. Semi-structured interviews were deemed appropriate as they enabled the researcher to probe and explore participants' ideas and perceptions of the main themes of the conceptual model and also provided an opportunity to explore emerging themes not initially considered for the study (Saunders et al., 2007).

The NRC management required a proposal and a copy of the interview questions a month before the actual interviews took place. This enhanced the reliability of the qualitative data collected and equally prevented bias, because it allowed them to become familiar with the questions and feel more at home with them. The participants signed a consent form in line with the ethical concerns of the study. The data were obtained by conducting a face to face interview with eight Directors. These included the Director General and seven Deputy Directors of different departments. The initial responses of the senior and junior employees were collected by means of extensive survey questionnaires; hence, they were not included in the interviews. The small number of people interviewed was due to the calibre of the

population group involved. There are never many Directors and Assistant Directors in an organisation and they are very difficult to get hold of for interviews, hence, the small size of the population. However, in qualitative research the investigator needs to participate enthusiastically in deliberating a specific topic. Creswell (2012) and Saunders et al. (2007, cited Abdullah, 2012, p. 115) argue that the qualitative approach therefore requires a small number (1-40) of respondents), as the ability of an investigator to provide an in-depth picture weakens with the addition of new interviewee. Furthermore, it is time consuming to obtain and analyse qualitative data, so the inclusion of additional individuals prolongs the process (Creswell, 2012).

Open-ended questions were used in most parts of the interview; this inspires interviewees to respond willingly to the questions. The researcher was watchful of body language when conducting the interviews. The interviews ran over a period of approximately a month due to the interviewees' busy schedules. Follow-up questions were used to probe further. The interviewees were asked introductory, open-ended questions on the key themes of the conceptual model, followed by exploratory questions which centred on the important areas of the study. The responses were recorded with the aid of tape recorder and were transcribed. In line with Creswell's (2012) suggestion, the researcher developed interview protocol that contained instructions for the process of the interview, the questions to be asked, and space to take notes for the responses from the interviewee. This serves as backup in case of machine malfunction. The interviews lasted from 45-60 minutes. The interviews were flexible; the researcher had the opportunity to probe or ask follow up questions; this makes this a more participatory process, but preserves the exact meaning of the questions asked (Kuter & Cemal, 2001).

The data were transcribed and analysed qualitatively. The presentation of the data followed the three steps advocated by Miles and Huberman (1994 cited in Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 370) for qualitative data analysis. These are, "data reduction, data display and the drawing of conclusions". Data reduction is the reduction of a large quantity of data to its parts. The researcher applied structural coding which is known question-based rather than theme-based according to MacQueen Milstein (1999 cited in Namey, Guest, Thairu & Johnson, 2007). The use of structural coding was necessary according to Miles and Huberman (1994 cited in Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 370 ) because the data were collected using structured and semi-structured interviews that have disconnected questions and probes that are repeated across

various records in a data set. Furthermore, the approach to the data analysis is partly theory-driven in the sense that the researcher wanted to measure specific hypotheses. As a result, some of the categories of analysis were pre-determined. Another important reason for adopting existing codes and categories is that the researcher can begin with and/or expand prevalent knowledge (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 374). For this study, the researcher developed a matrix to organise and arrange the qualitative data. A matrix is descriptive in nature and allows for the data to be arranged in themes (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Finally the results were merged with the result of the quantitative analysis in the discussion stage.

#### **5.5.8.15. Advantages and disadvantages of Interviews**

One-on-one interviews are ideal when interviewing participants who are not timid to speak, who are articulate and share their ideas comfortably like the Directors in this study (Creswell, 2012). Interviews offer researchers useful information when they cannot directly observe participants and they allow participants to describe detailed personal information (Creswell, 2012). However, interviews are not without disadvantages; for example, the information they provide is filtered through the views of the interviewer (only the interviewer's interpretation of the interviewees is recorded in the research report) (Creswell, 2012). The information obtained from the interviewees may be deceptive in the sense that they may only offer the information they want the investigator to hear. Furthermore, the presence of the interviewer may influence the interviewee's responses (Creswell, 2012).

#### **5.5.8.16. Chi-Square Analysis**

Chi-square Analysis is used when there is a need to test if there are similarities between two or more variables on some characteristics of interest. It allows a researcher to compare a collection of categorical data with some theoretically anticipated distribution (Mathbeans Project, 2012, p.2). Normally chi-square is used to compare if there is a relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The chi-square test is used for normal data (categorical) as was the case for this study. In this study Chi-square was conducted based on two-way tables of counts. Two-way tables of account are normally used when categorical data is concerned with more than one variable. These tables offer a base for statistical conclusions, where statistical tests query the association between the variables, depending on the data observed (DASL, 2013). The two-way table separates the respondents by grade and

department. The relationships between the dependent and independent variables, e.g. T&D and skill, knowledge, ability, confidence, morale, and employee performance were described by conducting chi-square tests based on two-way tables of counts. Chi-Square is very sensitive to the sample size; if the sample is big enough, even a very small relationship becomes significant (Oluwadiya, 2010, p. 64). The size of a study sample affects the power of chi-square; it has high power when the size of the sample is large and low power when the size is small; small differences can be identified in the selected ration (York, 2002). Statisticians have warned end users to avoid making conclusions when the numerical value of chi-square is small (Cohen et al., 2011). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 654), one of limitations of the Chi-square statistic is that it assumes that no more than 20% of the total number of cells contain fewer than five cases; violation of this assumption renders the result unreliable. Therefore it may not be realistic to calculate Chi-square statistics if only a small number is being used (Cohen et al., 2011). It has also been established that the standard chi-square goodness-of-fit test may not show that the underlying model is not linear (Mooijaart & Satorra, 2009, p. 443). This finding contradicts the belief that “if a proposed linear model fits the data well according to the chi-square goodness-of-fit test, then the underlying model is linear indeed” (Mooijaart & Satorra, 2009, p. 443).

#### **5.5.8.17. Mann-Whitney Tests**

This is a non-parametric test used to compare two population means that come from the same population or to test if two population means are equal or not (Choudhury, 2009). The test is usually conducted as an alternative to t-test if the assumption of normality or equality of variance is not met Pallant (2010, p. 227). For this study the researcher tested if there is a difference in the impact of T&D on employees based on their departments and staff grades; independent variables, including organisational commitments, turnover intention, job satisfaction, performance competence and job performance were analysed using the Mann-Whitney tests. This test was applied for this study because it does not assume that the difference between the samples is normally distributed or that the variances of the two populations are equal (Choudhury, 2009). However, the Mann Whitney test did not allow the researcher to clearly identify where the differences lie between the two groups. An additional test (e.g. cross tabulation) was therefore used to identify the difference (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 656).

#### **5.5.8.18. Pearson Coefficient of Correlation**

A correlation analysis was carried out in order to identify the interrelations of the variables. The Pearson coefficient of correlation is a measure of linear association between two variables (Pallant, 2010). It is used when a researcher wants to explore the strength of the relationship between two continuous variables (Pallant, 2010). Pearson coefficient correlation was applied to test the relationship between T&D and employees' job performance. It was used to determine if both variables are related, without inferring a cause-and-effect association (Choudhury, 2009). Furthermore, it is used to test if there is a linear relationship between two variables and can be used to determine the strength of the relationship. The problem with correlation is that it does not consider a third variable that may have influence on either of the variables being investigated (Choudhury, 2009). That is to say, correlation does not imply causation. Naturally, there are many factors that can simultaneously influence all social and natural phenomena. Moreover, a nonlinear relationship may exist between two variables that may be inadequately explained or, worse still, go unnoticed (Choudhury, 2009).

#### **5.5.8.19. Regression Analysis**

Regression is a statistical technique that is used to find out if causal relationships exist between variables (Pallant, 2010). A more erudite statistical technique, for instance, the structural equation model could have been a better option because, “it would allow the specification of a multi-equation model and would facilitate a better understanding of the relationships between the variables in the proposed chain” (Glaveli & Karassavidou (2011). However, according to Glaveli & Karassavidou (2011), a small sample size (a case study) prohibits the use of such methods. Multiple regression analysis is a test used for predicting the unknown value of a variable from the known value or more variables (Oluwadiya, 2010). It enables a researcher to predict the effect of two or more independent variables on a dependent variable. This test was conducted to evaluate the predictive power of the independent variables over the other independent variables. Multiple regression is useful for this study in the sense that it can enable the researcher to calculate their weighting of a range of variables on a dependent variable (Chen et al., 2011, p. 664). In this study multiply regression was used to evaluate the perceived effect that the independent variables e.g. performance competence, job satisfaction, turnover intention, employees' commitment, have on dependent the variable of employees' job performance as a result of the T&D received.

This approach enables the researcher to establish the unique contribution of each independent variable (Pallant, 2010, p 149). Multiple regression does not test if data are linear. However, it proceeds by assuming that the relationship variable is linear. The assumption of normality, linearity and equality of variance was determined by the use of plots, and scatterplots are also used for detecting outliers. As multiple regression is sensitive to outliers some of the extreme outliers found in this study were eliminated as was recommended by statisticians to avoid distorting the statistics (Pallant, 2010, p. 64; Oluwadiya, 2010, p. 102).

#### **5.5.8.20. Validity of the Results**

Different strategies were used to validate the result of the study. The strategies include peer review or debriefing. The research was supervised by three holders of PhDs who discussed the results with the researcher. The abstract of the research study was published in a PhD conference series (2013) which solicited feedback from fellow doctoral students and has been sent to an international journal for publication. Several measures of validity were considered for this study. Validity can be described as the degree to which an instrument measures what it desires to measure (Miller, no d).

Content validity relates to the extent to which the instrument completely measures the construct of interest (Epstein, Mooney, Ryser & Pierce 2004; Golafshani, 2003). In this study, the researcher is interested in evaluating the impact of T&D programmes on employees' and the organisation's performance and how effective the NRC has been in managing its learning transfer factors. The researcher made a concerted effort to ensure that the questions represent the domain of factors that influence training transfer and employees' and the organisation's performance. The development of a content valid instrument was achieved by means of a rational examination of the instrument by three experts in the field as recommended by Miller (n. d.). They checked the items for readability, clarity and comprehensiveness and agreed on those items that should be included in the final instrument. This exercise demonstrated content validity based on their level of agreement.

The researcher assessed the results obtained from the present study and other test results that measured the same constructs. There were high correlations between the results and previous results in the literature; evidence of convergent validity (Trochim 2008). Conly & Karabenick, (2006) suggest that "substantive evidence" emphasises the association between

data and theory or the internal relations between the items in an instrument. The question that arises is whether the facts produced by the instrument are consistent with the theory of the construct. According to Messick (1989, cited in Conly & Karabenick, 2006), if the result produced is consistent with the theories from which it was developed, there is evidence of construct validity. In this study, the measure of competences gained in T&D, the influence of T&D activities on employees' and the organisation's performance and the influence of transfer factors on learning transfer were consistent with previous studies. Thus the findings of this study show substantive evidence of construct validity.

When researchers claim that their measures or programmes have construct validity, they are saying that they understand how their constructs of the programmes and measures operate in theory, and can provide proof they behave in practice in the way they presumed they would (Trochim, 2008; Cooper & Schindler, 2001, p. 214; Michael, 2013). All the items tested in the study shows that all items are related to the same construct (T&D and employees' and organisational performance). In this study factor definitions contained in the LTSTI demonstrated construct validity based on factor analysis with a database of more than 8,000 respondents from 20 different countries in Europe and Asia representing a wide variety of industries, jobs, company types, and levels of employees (Holton III & Bates, 2008). This is the only authoritative validated measuring instrument of training transfer in the world and it is the first time it has been tested in any organisation in Nigeria, and, according to Dr Bates (one of the developers), only the third country in Africa (after South Africa and Rwanda) where it has been tested. Questions were developed to ascertain the impact of T&D on NRC employees. Standardised questions with proven reliability and validity were adapted to suit the present study, example, MSQ (1977) also based on factor analysis. In convergent validity, we examine the degree to which the operationalization is similar to (converges on) other operationalizations that it theoretically should be similar to" (Trochim 2008).

#### **5.5.8.21. Reliability of the Results**

The information sheet attached to the questionnaire enhanced the reliability of the qualitative data collected and equally prevented bias. The LSTI measuring instrument used for to gather data has been tested in many countries and found to be reliable, although it was the first time it was used in Nigerian organisation (Holton 111 & Bates, 2008). Moreover the Cronbach's

coefficient alpha scores obtained used to test the data collected by the question in Nigeria were .70 (internally consistent) and above for most measures, indicating the test is reliable (Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2007, p. 154). Other instruments used were tested and evaluated prior to the proper study and found to be reliable.

### **5.5.9. Methods of Data Analysis**

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to transform the data into an easily understandable form and to enable generalizations to be drawn. IBM SPSS Statistics version 21.0 (IBM SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois, USA) was used for the quantitative data analysis. A  $p$  value of  $<0.05$  was considered as statistically significant. Descriptive statistics provide simple summaries of the immediate data and inferential statistics were used to draw conclusions after the study. Descriptive statistics provide numerical summaries of the spread of the data; this study computed the mean, variance, alpha, and standard variation. Kessler, (2011) stipulate that “variance is a measure of deviation from the mean and standard deviation is just the square root of the variance”. The standard deviation is a measure of dispersion which enables researchers to understand where any given data value is placed in relation to the mean (Kessler, 2011). Cronbach’s alpha was computed to determine the reliability of the scale and item analysis was conducted to test the validity of the measuring scale. A Cronbach alpha with a value of 0.7 or higher indicates a high degree of inter correlation amongst the items and confirms that the items relate to a common construct (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009).

The presentation of the data followed three steps (Miles and Huberman, 1994 cited in Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 370). These are: “data reduction, data display and the drawing of conclusions”. Data reduction is the reduction of a large quantity of data down to the meaningful part/s. The study applied structural coding which is question-based rather than theme-based according to MacQueen Milstein (1999 cited in Namey, Guest, Thairu & Johnson, 2007). The use of structural coding was necessary because the data were collected using structured and semi-structured interviews that have disconnected questions and probes that are repeated across various records in a data set. Furthermore, the data analysis approach is partly theory-driven in the sense that the researcher was looking for specific hypotheses to measure. As a result, some of the analysis categories were predetermined. Another important reason for adopting existing codes and categories is to produce or enlarge existing knowledge

(Sekaran & Bougie, 2009, p. 374). For this study, a matrix was developed to organise and arrange the qualitative data. The matrix is descriptive in nature and allows for the arrangement of the data in themes. The use of percentages and frequencies enables an understanding of how often the respondents, in this case the Directors, mentioned that particular idea. Both qualitative and the quantitative data were integrated together during analysis and discussion.

#### **5.5.9.1. Hand Analysis**

Hand analysis was used for the analysis of the qualitative data for this study. Creswell (2012, p. 240) recommended that hand analysis may be preferred by the researcher when the data base is less than 500 pages of transcripts; it allows for files to be tracked effortlessly and makes it easy to find text passages. This method is also useful when a researcher is not sufficiently au fait with a qualitative computer software programme or if he/she wants to be familiar with the data and have a hands-on feel for it without making use software. Creswell (2012, p. 240). Creswell (2012) added that hand analysis may be favoured when the investigator has sufficient time to commit to it. The four reasons given by Creswell (2012) for using hand analysis apply to this study; hence hand analysis was used to analysis the data qualitatively, using a matrix or table of sources that enabled the researcher to organise the material.

#### **5.5.10. Ethical Considerations**

A researcher needs to carefully consider any ethical issues which are likely to arise during the course of the research before commencing the study (Scheyvens & Storey, 2003). Unethical practices that could have adverse effects on the respondents and the organisation were avoided from the commencement of the research project to the writing up of the results. The researcher adhered to the principles of the 2010 Market Research Society's code of conduct and those of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The researcher obtained the approval of the University's Ethics Committee to use the questionnaire before commencing data collection.

The researcher ensured that the participation of the respondents was based on voluntary, informed consent and was straightforward and honest in all his professional dealings with the respondents. Respondents were informed of the subject and purpose of the research study

beforehand. The informed consent form was given to them to sign after notifying them of their right to withdraw from the project at any stage if they so desired. They were also assured of their anonymity and of the confidentiality of all responses. The researcher informed all respondents of their right to ask questions or seek clarification where necessary at any time, throughout the research process. The researcher used fictitious names (for example, Director 1 or Director 2) in his report in an effort to prevent any possibility of identifying material from circulated information or the identity of the respondents. The needs of the individual participants were taken into account; respondents were given the questions weeks beforehand to answer at their convenience. An appointment was made with the interviewees weeks before the interview took place and they were informed of the purpose and subject of the interview. The researcher was aware of the possibility of indirect disclosure which may harm the interests of the interviewees (Easterby-Smith et al., 2003). Therefore, their responses were transcribed and save in the researcher's personal laptop, were protected by a password and will be deleted at a later stage. The researcher did his best to protect the reputation and integrity of the profession throughout the research period, by adhering to the principles noted above. A letter was obtained from the management of the NRC granting the researcher permission to conduct research in the organisation. This letter is appended to this thesis.

#### **5.5.11. Limitations of the Study**

The ideal population size would have been the total population of all the NRC workers nationwide who underwent training and development in 2010/2011. However, due to a number of constraints, the population size was limited to NRC employees working in Lagos State. Lagos State was chosen because it is the regional as well as national headquarters of the NRC and has the bulk of the Corporation's employees.

The result of this study should be generalised with caution; generally speaking, the results of a case study can only be generalised in the context in which the research was carried out. The use of a wider population would have strengthened the validity of the results. The results obtained from a case study may not have broader implications for other public organisations; in other words, the result may not be generalised to the wider population. The findings would have broader implications if other public organisations had been included in the survey. Due

to the nature of the study, the researcher could not conduct surveys in other public sector organisations; this is one of the recommendations for future research.

While an effort was made to control for other factors that may contribute to an increase in employee and organisational performance, it is not easy to differentiate the various causes of productivity improvement in an organisation; for instance an increase in performance both at organisational and individual levels can be attributed to different issues such as new capital equipment, new skills learned from T&D, an employee's health, education, an increase in core skills and experience. In a study like this, it is difficult to control for all these influential factors.

The results obtained were largely dependent on employees' perceptions; these are highly subjective and may not be generalised to a wider population. Rouna, Leimbach, Holton III & Bates (2002) indicated that trainees' reactions were not sufficient in evaluating the outcomes of T&D. In contrast, Wall et al. (2004 cited in Ng, & Dastmalchian 2011, p. 839) found that the results obtained through subjective measures of organisational performance closely resemble actual measures of performance. Dess & Robinson (1984 cited in Ng, & Dastmalchian 2011, p. 839) found that the –single item perception measure of performance was highly correlated with actual performance measures”.

The study has implied a causal relationship between T&D and organisational performance; the use of the cross-sectional methodology (as was the case in this study) does not allow researchers to make such a conclusion. Instead it can be concluded that organisations that trained their employees report better organisational performance (Saks & Burke, 2012, p. 125; Blau, Gibsib, Bentley and Chapman, 2011, p. 65). A longitudinal research method could have made stronger casual statements about these variables' associations.

## **5.6. Conclusion**

The research design is an important link between the theory and analysis that informed the study and the data collected (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, cited in Limpanitgul, 2009). The ontological property of this study can be explained thus: people's views reflect their attitudes and their attitudes reflect on their performance. Epistemology is concerned with knowledge and belief about reality; it is concerned with how people arrive at their knowledge, and about

how that knowledge originates. For the purposes of this study, sources of knowledge that represent valid knowledge from an epistemological objective are people's perceptions of the phenomenon under study. Interactions with individuals enabled the researcher to generate and validate knowledge. This study adopted a pragmatic view point which aimed at problem-solving, through choosing the explanations that produce the desired outcomes. A whole case study strategy was used for this study to investigate the research questions and objectives. A case study is a powerful research methodology which allows an investigator to carefully examine the data within a particular setting. A major disadvantage of case studies is that their results may only be applicable to similar cases; it is difficult to apply them to society as a whole. A concurrent mixed method of data collection was applied in this study as it delivers both quantitative and qualitative data. Different statistical tests were applied to determine the relationship between variable of interest. These include Chi-square, the Mann Whitney test, multiple regression and correlation. The Chi-square test let researchers to compare a group of categorical data with some theoretical projected distribution. It may not be realistic to calculate Chi-square statistics if only a small number is being used. It has also been established that the standard chi-square goodness-of-fit test may not show that the underlying model is not linear. One limitation of the Mann Whitney test is that it does not allow the researcher to identify clearly where the differences lie between the two groups. Therefore, the researcher required an additional test (example, cross tabulation) to identify the difference. The problem with correlation is that it does not consider a third variable that may influence either of the variables being investigated. The multiple regression technique does not test if data are linear. Nevertheless, it proceeds by assuming that the relationship variable is linear. The next chapter presents the results of the data analysis by means of tables and charts. The descriptive statistics portray the minimum, mean, standard deviation and alpha. The inferential statistics tests provide valuable information that promotes an understanding of the impacts of T&D on employees' competences and their performance outcomes, including perceived improvement in organisational performance.

## CHAPTER 6

### DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

#### 6.0. Introduction

The analysis started with the calculation of Cronbach's alpha to determine the reliability of the measuring instrument used for the study, which includes Turnover Intention, Performance Competence, Job Performance and Job Satisfaction. Questions with low values were eliminated and the Cronbach's values of most of the measuring instruments were above 0.7, indicating a high degree of inter correlation amongst the items and confirming that the items relate to a common construct. The mean score for the descriptive statistics ranges from 3.42 to 3.88, indicating that the T&D activities that took place in the NRC have positive outcomes for employees. Furthermore, the mean score for training transfer factors varies from 2.51 to 4.1, indicating that the transfer factors in the NRC were well managed.

Correlation analysis revealed that performance competence (e.g. skills and knowledge) obtained from training were more likely to enhance job performance for all employees. The Chi-Square test shows that T&D enhances the competency and job performance of all employees in equivalent proportion for both technical and administrative employees and junior and senior employees, respectively. Correlation analysis revealed that a significant number of LSTI factors were likely to enhance training transfer and on-the-job performance.

Each of the above-mentioned variables was measured by asking respondents to state their extent of agreement (on the Likert scale) with each of a number of statements. The questionnaire contained a mix of positively and negatively worded items, which usually indicates that the negatively worded items need to be reversed in order to avoid very low and/or incorrect Cronbach alpha values. Normally, all negatively worded items need to be reversed before a total score can be calculated for the scale; this guarantees that all items are scored in such a way that helps prevent bias (Pallant, 2011, p. 83). Therefore, during coding, all statements that have strong negative correlation were reversed-scored in this study. Thus disagreement with the statement was seen as a positive response. Consequently, the coding for the responses to these statements was changed so that a strongly disagree response has the

highest coding (5) and a strongly agree response the lowest coding (1), while in the coding for the positive statements, a strongly disagree response has the lowest coding (1) and the strongly agree response has the highest coding (5).

TUIT5 – I often thought of quitting the employment of NRC in recent times.

AFCO1 –I actually do not feel that the organization’s problems are my problems.

AFCO3 – I do not feel emotionally attached to NRC.

PERCO5 – I am not content with the level of my skills and knowledge development to perform well as an employee of NRC.

JOBPER5 – My past poor working relationship with other NRC employees have adversely affected my work environment.

JOBPER8 – I have previously been inundated with complaints regarding my performance as an NRC staff.

**Table 6.1 Variables Measured**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>No of statements</b>
Turnover Intention	3
Organisational Commitment	18
Performance Competence	6
Job Performance	6
Job Satisfaction	7

The Cronbach’s alpha calculation was carried out to determine the reliability of the measuring instruments used for this study. Cronbach’s alpha for Turnover Intention, Performance Competence, Job Performance and Job Satisfaction were obtained. The number of statements used for each of these variables is summarised in the table above and the Cronbach’s alpha values that were calculated are summarised in the table below. Some questions whose valuate were very low were eliminated. The Cronbach’s alphas for all the variables measured were above .7 and are therefore accepted as reliable measurements.

**Table 6.2a Cronbach's Alpha Values**

Variable	alpha
Turnover Intention	0.752*
Organisational Commitment	0.710*
Performance Competence	0.705*
Job Performance	0.716*
Job Satisfaction	0.714*

### 6.1. NRC Training Programmes Analysis

The first objective of this study was to analyse the nature of the T&D programmes in the NRC in order to formulate and implement more effective T&D programmes in the future. Appropriate themes were formulated and qualitative and quantitative analysis was conducted. For easy understanding of the rest of the analysis, the hypotheses formulated are recapped.

The information received was analysed in terms of different objectives and presented under the different themes. The results are presented using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Both the descriptive statistics and inferential statistics are discussed concurrently. The results are presented using tables and diagrams. The employees' responses are presented using quantitative analysis, while the responses from the directors were analysed using qualitative analysis and presented in chart format. The different methods used were the result of the fact that responses from the employees were solicited through the use of questionnaires, while in-depth interviews were used to solicit responses from the directors. A  $p$  value of  $<0.05$  was considered statistically significant. The dual nature of the study, i.e., the employees' perspectives and the directors' perspectives, enables an in-depth discussion of the information obtained and a better understanding of the different dimensions of these two groups.

### 6.2. Descriptive Statistics

The table of the descriptive statistics above shows minimum, maximum, means, standard deviations, and the reliabilities for all measures. All the variables were measured on a five-point scale, example, TUIT (turnover intention), (performance competence), JOBPER (job

performance), JOBSAT (job satisfaction) and organisational commitment. All the scores for the variables range from a minimum of 1.4 to a maximum of 5. The mean average score of all the variables measured ranges from 3.42088 TUIT (turnover intention) to 3.88364 PERCO (performance competence). This is an indication that the T&D activities that took place in the NRC have had positive outcomes for employees. The mean score of 3.42088 for turnover intention means that the majority of the employees may not be contemplating leaving the organisation. A Cronbach alpha value of 0.7 or higher indicates a high degree of inter correlation amongst the items and confirms that the items relate to a common construct. The alpha values for the five dependent variables were above .7 and are therefore acceptable.

**Table 6.2b Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive Statistics						
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Alpha
Turnover Intention	297	1.400	5.000	3.42088	.687216	0.752
Performance Competence	297	2.000	5.000	3.88364	.607014	0.705
Job Performance	297	2.125	5.000	3.80261	.504540	0.716
Job Satisfaction	297	1.750	5.000	3.62416	.631469	0.714
Organisational Commitment	297	2.300	4.583	3.49391	.454599	0.710
Valid N (list wise)	297					

### 6.2.1. Training and Development Participants

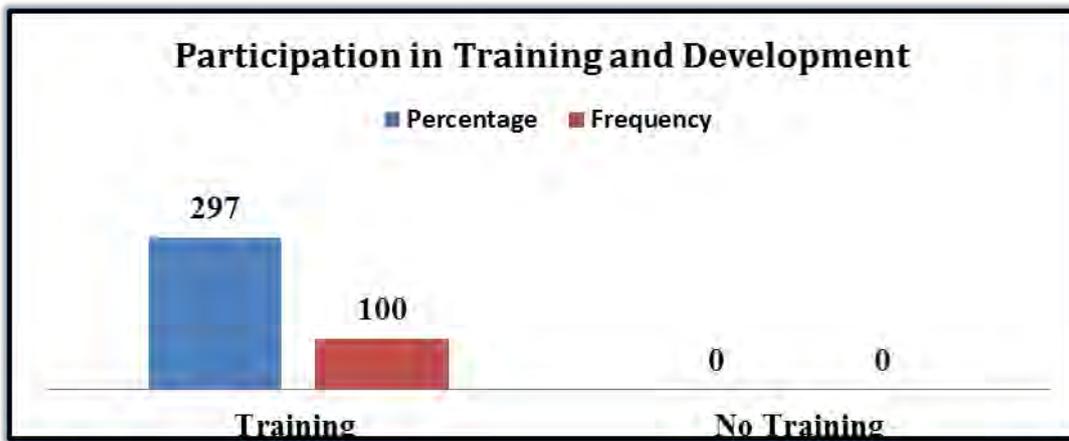
The profile of the employees that took part in T&D includes their ages, gender, tenure, departments, positions, and the period of the training. The analysis starts by presenting the sample representation by gender.

### 6.2.2. Number of Participants

The table below shows that the entire NRC workforce took part in the organisation's T&D programmes: the Directors stated that, "all our employees were offered the opportunity to participate in the training" and this was confirmed by the employees. This may be due to the fact that training had not taken place in the organisation for a very long time; hence everyone was involved.

**Table 6.3 Number of Participants****Directors' Response**

Number of Participants				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Example(s)
<i>How many employees took part in T&amp;D</i>	T&D was provided for the entire Nigerian Railway Corporation employees.	8 or	100%	"All our employees were offered the opportunity to participate in the training".

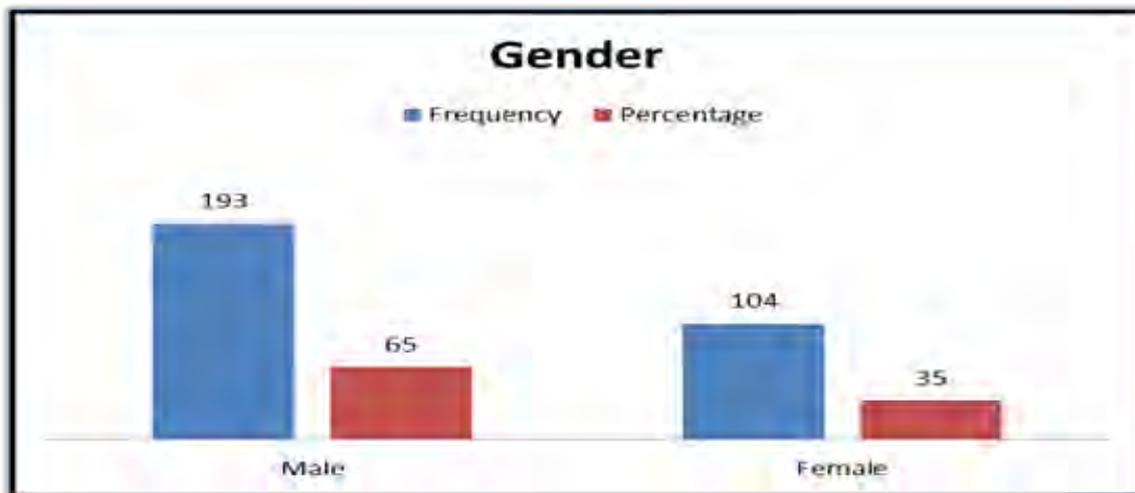
**Figure 6.1 Number of Participants**

### 6.2.3. Participation by Gender

The above table below indicates that 65% of the 297 respondents who took part in the training were male and 35% female. This result concurs with previous studies which indicate that more men undergo training than women. Royalty's (1996) in her preliminary analysis established that men were 25% more likely to undergo training.

**Table 6.4 Gender of the Respondents**

		Gender/Training	
		Training	Total
Gender	Male	Yes	
		193	193
		65.0%	65.0%
	Female		
		104	104
		35.0%	35.0%
Total		297	297
		100.0%	100.0%



**Figure 6.2 Gender**

**6.2.4. Participants' Age Categories**

Thirty six percent of the respondents fall into the age category 26 to 35 years, while 20.9% fell within the 18 to 25 years bracket and 23% were 36 to 45 years old. The age groups 45 to 55 and 56 to 60 years were minority groups (16.8% and 3%, respectively).

**Table 6.5 Respondents' Age Categories**

<b>Age/Training</b>				
Training			Total	
Yes				
Age	18-25	62	62	
		20.9%	20.9%	
	26-35	108	108	
		36.4%	36.4%	
	36-45	68	68	
		22.9%	22.9%	
	46-55	50	50	
		16.8%	16.8%	
	56-60	9	9	
		3.0%	3.0%	
	Total		297	297
			100.0%	100.0%

### 6.2.5. Participants' period of training

The table below indicates that 52.5% of the trainees who had received between one and two weeks of training were women. Thirty one percent of the respondents had received three to four weeks' training; the majority were men. A very low proportion of the trainees (8.4%) received five to six weeks of training, while only 2% and 5.7% of the employees trained for a period of seven to 12 weeks and 13 weeks, respectively.

**Table 6.6 Period of training**

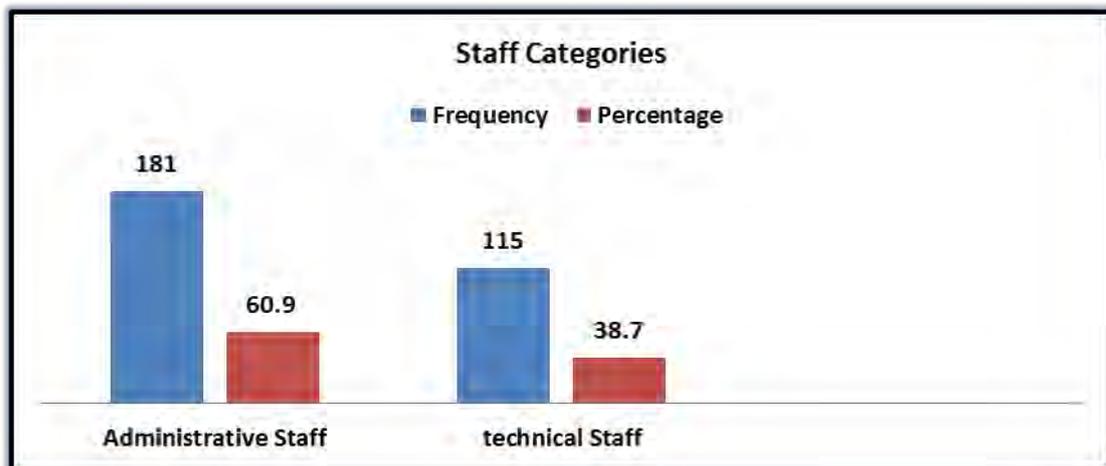
		Gender/Period of Training					Total
		Period of Training					
		1-2 weeks	3-4 weeks	5-6 weeks	7-12 weeks	13 weeks +	
Gender	Male	95	68	13	6	11	193
		49.2%	35.2%	6.7%	3.1%	5.7%	100%
	Female	61	25	12	0	6	104
		58.7%	24.0%	11.5%	0.0%	5.8%	100%
Total		156	93	25	6	17	297
		52.5%	31.3%	8.4%	2.0%	5.7%	100%

### 6.2.6. Respondents' Department

For easy assessment of the T&D system and its effect on employee performance, the total population of the respondents was divided among administrative and technical employees. About 61% of the respondents were in the administrative department while 39% worked in technical departments.

**Table 6.7 Respondents' Department**

		staff /Training	
		Training	Total
		Yes	
staff	Administrative staff	181	181
		60.9%	60.9%
	Technical staff	116	116
		100.0%	100.0%
Total		297	297
		39.1%	39.1%



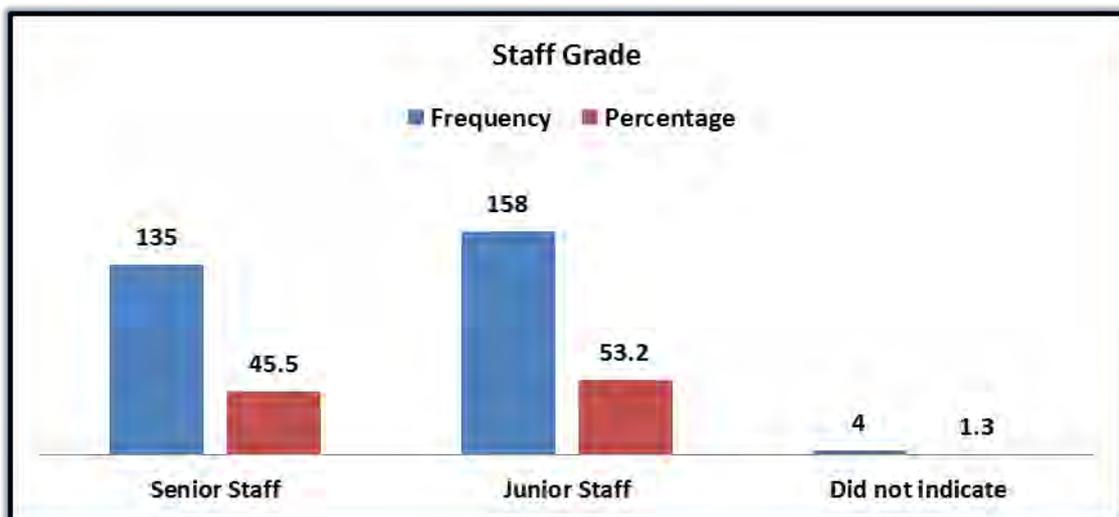
**Figure 6.3 Departmental Categories**

### 6.2.7. Respondents' Grades

For the same reason, the total population of the respondents was divided among senior and junior employees. The table above indicates that 45.5% of the respondents identified themselves as senior staff, while 53.2% classified themselves as junior staff; 1.3% did not indicate their grades.

**Table 6.8 Respondents' Grades**

Grade/Training			
		Training	
		Yes	Total
Grade	Senior	135	135
		45.5%	45.5%
	Junior	162	162
		54.5%	54.5%
Total		297	297
		100.0%	100.0%



**Figure 6.4 Staff grade**

### 6.2.8. Tenure of the Respondents

In order to determine how long the respondents had served the organisation, they were asked to indicate which of the tenure periods listed matched the number of years they had worked for the NRC. The table indicates that about 38% of those who took part in training had worked for the NRC for one to five years. About 25% of the respondents who took part in the training had worked for the NRC for at least 21 years or more. A further 18.9% had worked for 11-15 years, while 10.8% and 6.7% had worked for 16-20 years and 6 to 10 years, respectively.

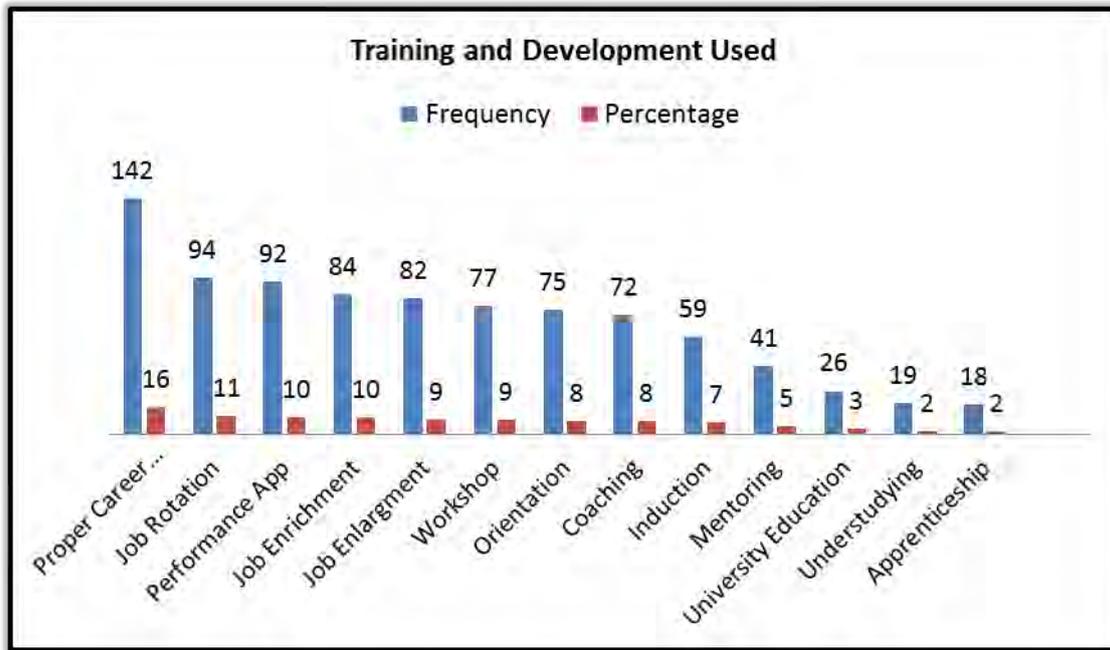
**Table 6.9 Tenure of the Respondents**

Tenure and Training			
		Training	Total
		Yes	
Tenure	1-5	115	115
		38.7%	38.7%
	6-10	32	32
		10.8%	10.8%
	11-15	56	56
		18.9%	18.9%
	16-20	20	20
		6.7%	6.7%
	21+	74	74
		24.9%	24.9%
Total		297	297
		100.0%	100.0%

### 6.2.9. Training Methods Applied

The table below shows the various methods employed during T&D exercises in the NRC, as identified by the respondents. Sixteen per cent of the respondents mentioned proper career management as one of the methods used for T&D programmes in the NRC. Eleven per cent of the respondents mentioned job rotation, 10% performance appraisals, approximately 10% mentioned job enrichment and 9% mentioned job enlargement. Other methods mentioned

include workshops (9%), orientation and coaching (8%, respectively), induction (7%) and mentoring (5%). Methods less frequently used include university education (3%) and understudying and apprenticeship (2%, respectively).



**Figure 6.5 Training Methods**

### 6.2.10. Training and Development Objectives

To determine the extent to which the T&D programme objectives were communicated to employees and how far they were achieved, the respondents were asked to list the NRC's main T&D objective. The Directors were also asked to state the main objectives of organising the training programmes; their responses are presented below.

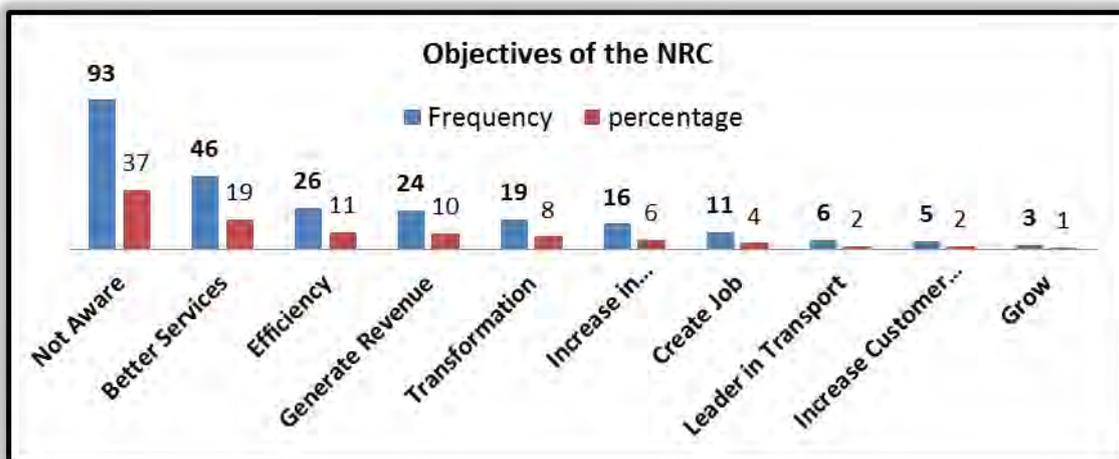
Approximately 85% of the Directors acknowledged that the main objective of the T&D intervention in the NRC was to enhance employees' performance, competencies and performance; —w engaged in the training to improve employees' skills, increase their job knowledge, overall confidence of the employees .....to improve their personal growth and productivity in the organisation and more importantly to rebrand the NRC to attract private investors ...” (Director 7). Seventy five per cent of the Directors cited improving the employees' knowledge and skills as one of the main reasons for organising T&D: —to enhance the employee's skills,...., we want to provide opportunity and broad structure for the

development of human resources' technical and behavioural skills in our organisation. That is why we provided them the opportunity to train so as to enhance their competencies, knowledge, skills and attitudes required to perform their functions..." (Director 5). Fifty per cent of the Directors cited achieving the organisation's strategic goals and objectives and improving efficiency, respectively, while 35.5% felt that training is important to improve employees' confidence and 25% felt that training enhanced competence. "Training and development equips employees with the competencies to enhance their performance, as well as to enhance their future career prospect" (Director 1).

On the other hand, the results obtained from employees indicate that about 37% of this group of respondents were not aware of the NRC's T&D objectives during this period. Nineteen percent of the respondents stated that the NRC's objective was to improve customer service, while 11% mentioned efficiency. Ten per cent of the respondents cited generation of revenue, 8% transformation, 6% improving productivity, and 4% cited job creation. Two per cent of the respondents felt that the NRC aspired to be a leader in the transportation sector, while 5% and 3% of the respondents cited increasing the customer base and growth, respectively as the NRC's objective. The Directors' and employees' differed considerably; an indication that the objectives were not effectively communicated to employees before the training programme took place. The result is consistent with a common problem often encountered by trainers: "Running a training programme that is not relevant to strategic organisational goals" (Sun & Rose, 2009). The proper determination of training objectives is very important for the survival of the project and should be based on the results of the environmental scanning and T&D needs analysis (Erasmus, Leadolff, Mda, & Nel, 2006).

**Table 6.10 Training and Development of Objectives****Directors' Responses**

Training and Development Objectives				
Category	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<i>Reason for T&amp;D</i>	To enhance the individual employee's performance	7	87.5%	–We engaged in the training to improve employees' skills, increase their job knowledge, overall confidence of the employees .....to improve their personal growth and productivity in the organisation and more importantly to rebrand the NRC to attract private investors...”.
	To improve confidence.	3	37.5%	–We engaged in the training to improve ..... overall confidence of the employees”
	Improve job efficiency.	4	50%	–We engaged in the training to improve employees' ... job knowledge, and efficiency.”
	Improve skills, and knowledge	6	75%	–To enhance the employee's skills, ... , we want to provide opportunity and broad structure for the development of human resources' technical and behavioural skills in our organisation”
	Improve competencies,	2	25%	–Training and development equips employees with the competencies to enhance their performance, as well as to enhance their future career prospect”
	Achieve the organisation's strategic objectives.	4	50%	–We train our employees to support the strategic plan and performance objectives of the government and management..
	Improve personal growth of the employees	2	25%	–We want to help the employees in attaining personal growth through training”.



## Figure 6.6 Objectives of the NRC

### 6.2.11. Training and Organisational Objectives

To determine the actual effectiveness of the T&D in achieving the organisation's objectives, employees were asked whether the T&D they had received in the NRC had helped their organisation to achieve its objectives during the 2011 financial year. A total of 87.5% of the Directors —w achieved our expectations, in the sense that our outputs have increased by over hundred per cent both for the number of passengers moved and the movement of freight” (Director 3 and 74.7% of the employees (33.1% of the senior and 41.1% of the junior staff) perceived that the T&D interventions helped the NRC to achieve its organisational objectives for that year, —employee training and development is important to Nigerian Railway success, we to provide every employee with the opportunity to learn new skills. If you want workforce who are well trained and able to learn new skills, you need to invest in their training and development initiatives. Training employees to optimise our human resources is our key strategic plan: our best resources are our employees and the more they trained and the better they can perform‘ (Director 5). While 18.9% of the employees (10.1% of the senior and 8.8% of the junior staff) felt that T&D partly helped the NRC to achieve its objectives. A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no significant association between perceived impact of T&D on organisational objective and position of the employee  $X^2(1, n=296) = 2.1, p = .33, \phi = .08$ . The result indicated that by far the majority of the employees (both senior and junior) agreed that the T&D has helped their organisation to achieve its objectives.

**Table 6.11a Training and Organisational Objectives  
Directors' Responses**

Effectiveness of the Training on employees				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<i>T&amp;D objectives met</i>	The objectives and aspiration of T&D were highly fulfilled.	7	87.5%	"We achieved our expectations, in the sense that our outputs have increased by over hundred per cent both for the number of passengers moved and the movement of freight".

**Table 6. 11b Organisational Objectives  
Employees' Responses**

T&D * Staff Grade				
		Grade		Total
		Senior	Junior	
Organisational Objectives	Yes	98	123	221
		44.3%	55.7%	100.0%
	No	7	12	19
		36.8%	63.2%	100.0%
	Almost	30	26	56
		53.6%	46.4%	100.0%
Total		135	161	296
		45.6%	54.4%	100.0%

### 6.3. Training Needs Analysis

It is important to note that in some of the tables below the number of the population was less than 297; this is the result of some respondents not completing the questionnaire. The missing values were thus excluded.

#### 6.3.1.1. Needs Analysis (Organisational level)

Training needs analysis is one the pre-training activities that can improve training effectiveness by creating positive perceptions about the training's value. One of the main

objectives of this study was to analyse the nature of the T&D system in the NRC; employees were therefore asked to indicate whether TNA was carried out prior to T&D interventions. The results indicate that 31% of the employees stated that T&D needs analysis was not conducted, an indication that they did not participate in such an exercise. Approximately 68%% of the employees stated that T&D needs analysis was conducted (table 9.19 in appendix). The responses of the employees did not corroborate the responses from the Directors. According to the Directors (Director 2) ~~the~~ needs analysis included all the different levels of needs of the employees and the organisation” (Director 4). The results suggest that the TNA was not comprehensively carried out. This concurs with previous findings in the literature which indicated that needs analysis were not always appropriately considered prior to the commencement of many training programmes (Sehindemi, 2010; Adamu, 2008). However, the results did not entirely corroborate past findings that the majority of the organisations in Nigeria do not normally conduct TNA at all levels before training takes place (Obisi, 2011; Akinfolarin & Alimi, 2011, p. 104). There is an indication that TNA did take place prior to training in the NRC. A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) however, indicates that there is no significant difference in opinions of male and female employees on TNA at organisational level  $X^2(1, n=296) = .00, p = .96. \phi = -.01$ . This indicates that both male and female employees agreed that the NRC conducted TNA prior to T&D programmes. However, the results indicated that not all employees took part in this exercise. Therefore, T&D programmes in the NRC may have missed the opportunity to obtain the information necessary for effective formulation and management of the T&D interventions. For the programmes to be effective in assisting the organisation its quest for competitiveness, growth and survival, all employees should be included in the TNA exercises.

**Table 6.12 Training Needs Analysis****Directors' Responses**

Training Needs Analysis				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<i>Training Needs analysis (TNA)</i>	There was TNA for different but not at all the levels.	8	100%	".....it was conducted among the employees from level 10 and above".
	Not all employees participated in TNA, only employees in level 10 and above.	1	12.5%	"Only employees at grade level 10 and above participated in the TNA".
	It include the different needs of the employees	7	87.5%	"The needs analysis included all the different levels of needs of the employees and the organisation".
Reasons for considering only employees at 10 and above for TNA	TNA was conducted in other to enable us recommend people for training	1	12.5%	"TNA helps in selecting employees for specialised training".

**Table 6.13a Needs Analysis/Organisational Level****Employees' Responses**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.031 <sup>a</sup>	1	.859		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.002	1	.963		
Likelihood Ratio	.031	1	.859		
Fisher's Exact Test				.896	.484
Linear-by-Linear Association	.031	1	.860		
N of Valid Cases	296				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 32.68.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 6.13b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.010	.859
	Cramer's V	.010	.859
N of Valid Cases		296	

### 6.3.1.2. Needs Analysis (Job level)

Employees were asked to indicate if the TNA considered all the different needs of the organisation. The crosstabulation indicated that 43% of the employees claimed that the TNA did not include an analysis of job requirements. This suggests that the job requirements of these employees were not taken into consideration before training programmes were formulated and executed (table 9.20 in appendix). A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no association between gender and TNA (job requirements)  $X^2(1, n=297) = 5.39, p = .06, \phi = .13$ . However, in contrast the Directors claimed that the TNA considered all the different needs of the employees. According to the Directors “the needs analysis included the different levels of needs of the employees and the organisation”. This inconsistency in the responses of the Directors and the employees may have been caused by the variation in the frequency of use for the Directors and the employees; ‘\_yes’ or ‘\_no’ questions were asked of the employees. The extent to which T&D activities can make an impact on performance or return on investment is predominantly dependent on whether the T&D programme is designed in such a way that the skills learnt can be applied to the current tasks requirements (Eramus, et al., 2006).

**Table 6.14a Training Analysis (Job Level)**

#### Employees’ Responses

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.085 <sup>a</sup>	2	.079
Likelihood Ratio	5.388	2	.068
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.340	1	.068
N of Valid Cases	297		
a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .35.			

**Table 6.14b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.131	.079
	Cramer's V	.131	.079
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.3.1.3. Needs Analysis (Personal level)

Employees were asked to indicate if the TNA considered needs at individual employee level. The crosstabulation indicated that 53% of the employees claimed that the TNA did not include an analysis of personal skills requirement (table 9.21 in appendix). This suggests that the majority of the employees' individual needs were not considered prior to the formulation and execution of training programmes. However, a Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no association between gender and TNA on individual skills need  $X^2(1, n=297) = 6.9, p = .09, \phi = .14$ . The employees' perceptions were not corroborated by the responses of the Directors who claimed that the TNA included all the different levels needs of the employees. According to the Directors "the needs analysis included the different levels of needs of the employees and the organisation" (Director 4), while Director 1 said it was said no; "no.... yes, but it was conducted among the employees from level 10 and above. This is to enable us to decide where to send them and what type training that they actually need". Training needs analysis serves as an important tool that provides the information necessary for providing effective training opportunities. A systemic needs analysis which considers T&D needs enables a proper description of employees' knowledge and skills. This result did not corroborate previous findings. It has been noted that the majority of organisations in Nigeria do not normally conduct TNA before training takes place (Obisi, 2011; Akinfolarin & Alimi, 2011, p. 104); especially those that make use of external consultants; however, in the NRC, this exercise has been carried out to a limited extent. While training is sometimes designed to meet individual needs, the impact such training may have on the business should be the first consideration.

**Table 6.15a Needs Analysis (Personal Level)**

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.263 <sup>a</sup>	3	.099
Likelihood Ratio	6.936	3	.074
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.501	1	.114
N of Valid Cases	297		
a. 4 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .35.			

**Table 6.15b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.145	.099
	Cramer's V	.145	.099
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.3.2. Training Programme Evaluation

Training and development initiatives were not evaluated during and after the programmes. All the Directors interviewed agreed that evaluation of the T&D did not take place: “no, we did not conduct an evaluation” (Director 8). The same was made by Director 6 “no evaluation was carried out”. This question was omitted from the questionnaire for the employees; hence there is not response from employees. The results obtained in this study validate past findings that organisations did not normally measure the impact of T&D interventions (Srimannarayana, 2011, p. 118). According to Brinkerhoff (2005), despite the fact that the T&D activities are important for an organisation’s survival, only a few systematically evaluate their impact on their employees and the organisation itself. The evaluation of T&D has gained much attention recently and the pressure to evaluate is increasing, partly because of the need for accountability or pressure to provide evidence of return on investment because of the huge expenses involved (Bjomberg, 2002; Dorji, 2005; Wilson, 2005; Eseryel, 2002). Furthermore, it has been suggested that some organisations may have offered training in the wrong areas because of a lack of evaluation and feedback on previous T&D interventions (Molina & Ortega, 2003). To this effect, conducting regular T&D evaluation as well as prior

to T&D intervention is necessary in order to align T&D with organisational strategic objectives.

**Table 6.16 Training Programme Evaluation**

**Directors' Responses**

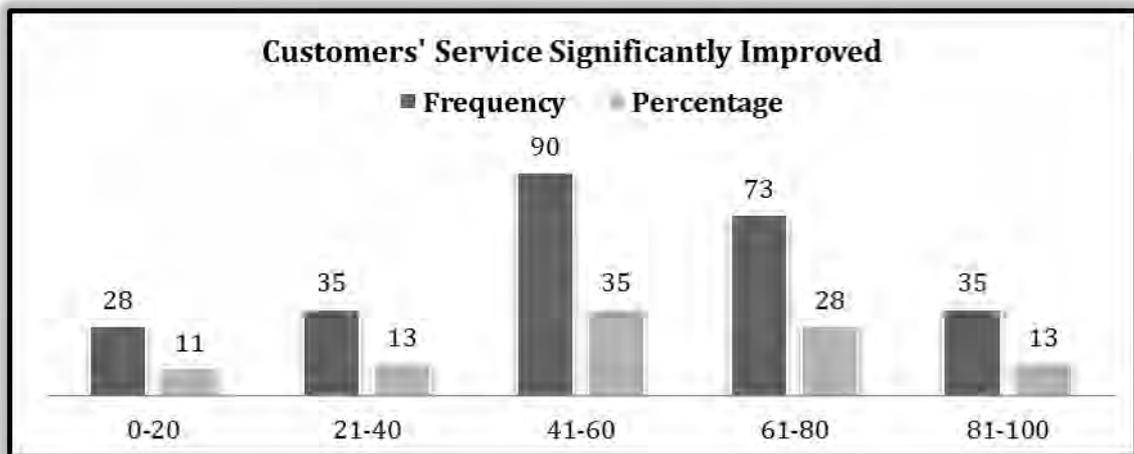
Evaluation of the Training				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<i>Evaluation of T&amp;D</i>	Evaluation was not conducted after the T&D.	8	100%	"No, we did not conduct an evaluation"

**6.3.3. Quality of Customer Service**

Customer service was found to have improved significantly. All the Directors felt that, "our customer service has improved over the last one year". They added that the NRC has introduced customer new services: "we recently introduced new train with air conditioned executive express, the first of its kind in Nigeria; second to only South Africa". This result suggests that there is a marked improvement in the NRC's customer service as a result of T&D exercise compared with the past. This result is an indication that T&D can improve customer service, which can lead to better performance outcomes. It suggests that a better-managed training programme creates high perceptions of value among employees and leads to higher levels of job satisfaction which enhances worker loyalty, generating value for the company. This value is redirected to customers in the form of improved service quality, and reciprocated to the organisation through higher customer satisfaction, leading to improved performance in terms of profit making (Glaveli, & Karassavidou, 2011).

**Table 6.17 Customer Service after T&D****Directors' Responses**

Effectiveness of the Training on Quality of Service				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<i>Customer service</i>	Customer service more than marginal change	7	87.5%	"I will not use the word marginal. As I said before there is a significant change for the better. We have received much less complaints from the customers in recently".
	Customer service has significantly improved.	8	100%	"Our customer service has improved over the last one year".
New service	NRC introduced new service in different routes.	8	100	"We recently introduced new train with air conditioned executive express, the first of its kind in Nigeria; second to only South Africa".

**Employees' Responses****Figure 6.7 Customer service****6.4. Training and Employees' Competencies**

In order to ascertain the effectiveness of T&D on employees' skills, knowledge and performance, both null and alternative hypotheses were formulated and tested and the results are analysed and presented.

### 6.4.1. Effects of T&D on Knowledge

#### Hypothesis Testing 1a (i)

H<sub>0</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the knowledge of the employees, both male and female.

H<sub>1</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is not effective in enhancing the knowledge of the employees, both male and female.

Note - the aim here is not to compare the impact of training on men and women; rather it is to examine how effective it was in impacting on the knowledge of the employees as a whole.

In order to ascertain the impact of training on the knowledge of the employees, they were asked to indicate 'yes' if the T&D programmes they participated in enhanced their capabilities, e.g. knowledge.

The result of the crosstabulation indicated that 96% of all the employees, both male and females, felt that T&D had helped them to improve their knowledge on the job (table 9.17 in appendix). A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no significant association between skills acquisition during training based on gender  $X^2 (1, n=297 = p = 1.000, \phi = .00$ . The result indicates that T&D programmes impacted on the male and female employees' knowledge equally. The null hypothesis which stated that the T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the knowledge of all employees is validated; therefore, it is accepted. The literature reveals that T&D interventions have led to improved knowledge and skills, confidence, self-efficacy and organisational satisfaction (Santos and Stuart, 2003). Training helps employees to become more competent, flexible, dynamic and adaptive to the needs of the organisation (Obisi, 2011). For instance, ergonomic training imparts knowledge and skills in the efficient use of office facilities which can improve work flow, employees' effectiveness and overall job performance (Robertson and Huang, 2006).

**Table 6.18a Training and Development and Knowledge**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.016 <sup>a</sup>	1	.901		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.016	1	.900		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.584
Linear-by-Linear Association	.016	1	.901		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.20.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 6.18b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.007	.901
	Cramer's V	.007	.901
N of Valid Cases		297	

#### 6.4.2. Effects of T&D on Skill

##### Hypothesis 1a (ii)

H<sub>0</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the skills of all the employees, both male and female.

H<sub>1</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is not effective in enhancing the skills of all the employees, both male and female.

Note - the aim here is not to compare the impact of training on men and women; rather it is to examine how effective it was in impacting on the skills of the employees as a whole.

The result of the crosstabulation suggests that 92% of all the employees, both male and female, acknowledge that T&D has helped them to improve their skills in the organisation (table 9.3 in appendix). However, a Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no significant association between skills acquisition during training and gender  $X^2(1, n=297) = p = 1.000$ , phi -.00. The result suggests that T&D impacted on both male and female employees at the same rate. The null hypothesis which stated that the T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the skills of the employees, both male and

female, is validated; therefore, it is accepted. This result validated the results of past studies which indicated that training enhances the skills of all employees. Costen & Salazar (2011) suggest that training directly influences workers' skills and impacts on their level of competence, while Taiwo (2007, p. 18) found an association between effective training and acquisition of the skills and knowledge needed for workers to perform well on-the-job.

**Table 6.19a Training and Employees' Skills**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.001 <sup>a</sup>	1	.980		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.001	1	.980		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.588
Linear-by-Linear Association	.001	1	.980		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.05.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 6.19b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.001	.980
	Cramer's V	.001	.980
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.4.3. Training and Employees' Ability

#### Hypothesis 1a (iii)

H<sub>0</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the ability of all the employees, both male and female.

H<sub>1</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is not effective in enhancing the ability of all the employees, both male and female.

Note - the aim here is not to compare the impact of training on men and women; rather, it is to examine how effective it was in impacting on the ability of the employees as a whole.

The result of a crosstabulation shows that 90% of all the employees (both male and female) indicated that their abilities were enhanced by the T&D programme implemented by the NRC (table 9.4 in appendix). Furthermore, a Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no significant association between the ability acquired during training and gender  $X^2(1, n=297 = p .88, \phi -.02$ . Therefore, the T&D interventions in the NRC were very effective in impacting positively on the ability of the employees, both male and female, at the same level. The null hypothesis which stated that the T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the ability of the employees, both male and female, is validated; therefore, it is accepted. In the Nigerian as well as the global economy, the knowledge, skills and abilities necessary to maintain competitive advantage need to be renewed (Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009, cited in Grossman & Salas, 2011, p. 103). This finding substantiates the findings of past studies. Workers' ability to control their working environment is enhanced through training (Robertson & Huang, 2006).

**Table 6.20a Training and Employees' Ability**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.120 <sup>a</sup>	1	.729		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.020	1	.888		
Likelihood Ratio	.119	1	.730		
Fisher's Exact Test				.838	.437
Linear-by-Linear Association	.120	1	.730		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.15.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 20b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.020	.729
	Cramer's V	.020	.729
N of Valid Cases		297	

#### 6.4.4. Training and Employees' Morale

##### **Hypothesis 1a (iv)**

H<sub>0</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the morale of all the employees, both male and female.

H<sub>1</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is not effective in enhancing the morale of all the employees, both male and female.

Note - the aim here is not to compare the impact of training on men and women; rather, it is to examine how effective it was in impacting on the morale of the employees as a whole.

The result of the crosstabulation indicates that 85% of the employees perceived that T&D initiatives improved their morale at workplace (table 9.4 in appendix). A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no significant association between gender and acquisition of morale during training  $X^2(1, n=297 = p .12, \text{phi} -.09$ . This means that the T&D interventions in the NRC impacted positively on morale at the same level among both male and female employees. The null hypothesis which stated that the T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the morale of the employees is validated; therefore, it is accepted. This result validates previous findings obtained in the field. For instance, Rosner's (1999) study established that T&D enhances the workers' morale and improves their skills and other studies also established that training enables employees to become better, more efficient, gain enhanced self-esteem, and raises their morale (Ryan, 2009; ILC, 2008; Forsyth, 2001).

**Table 6.21a Training and Employees' Morale**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.920 <sup>a</sup>	1	.088		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	2.359	1	.125		
Likelihood Ratio	2.827	1	.093		
Fisher's Exact Test				.119	.064
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.910	1	.088		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.06.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 9.21b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.099	.088
	Cramer's V	.099	.088
N of Valid Cases		297	

#### 6.4.5. Training and Employees' Confidence

##### Hypothesis 1a (v)

H<sub>0</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the confidence of all the employees, both male and female.

H<sub>0</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is not effective in enhancing the confidence of all the employees, both male and female.

Note - the aim here is not to compare the impact of training on men and women; rather it is to examine how effective it was in impacting on the confidence of the employees as a whole.

The result in the table above reveals that 91% of the employees perceived that T&D initiatives helped them increase their confidence in the workplace (table 9.5 in appendix). Nonetheless, a Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no significant association between male and females employees and enhancement of

employees confidence during training  $X^2$  (1, n=297 = p .86, phi -.02. The result therefore, suggests that T&D interventions in NRC impacted equally positively on the confidence of male and female employees. The null hypothesis which stated that the T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing employees' confidence is validated; therefore, it is accepted. When employees receive training they acquire skills and knowledge, which leads to reduced working hours and increased efficiency and confidence. This enables employees to do their jobs better, become more efficient, and gain enhanced self-esteem (Ryan, 2009; ILC, 2008; Forsyth, 2001). In recent times T&D has been connected to job proficiency, which can lead to enhance confidence (Leberman et al., 2006).

**Table 6.22a Training and Employees' Confidence**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.149 <sup>a</sup>	1	.700		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.029	1	.865		
Likelihood Ratio	.147	1	.702		
Fisher's Exact Test				.674	.426
Linear-by-Linear Association	.148	1	.700		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.10.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 22b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.022	.700
	Cramer's V	.022	.700
N of Valid Cases		297	

#### 6.4.6. Training and Employees' Performance

##### Hypothesis 1a (vi)

H<sub>0</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing overall employee performance, for both males and females.

H<sub>1</sub>: The T&D intervention in the NRC is not effective in enhancing overall employee performance, for both males and females.

Note - the aim here is not to compare the impact of training on men and women; rather, it is to examine how effective it was in impacting on employee performance as a whole.

The result of a crosstabulation suggests that 88.6% of the employees indicated that the T&D they received helped to enhance their job performance in the organisation (table 9.6 in appendix). Nevertheless, a Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity) indicated no significant association between gender and individual performance after T&D in the NRC  $X^2 (1, n=297) .37, = p .54, \phi -.05$ . The result therefore, suggests that T&D interventions in the NRC impacted equally positively on the overall performance of employees, both male and female. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that the T&D intervention in the NRC is effective in enhancing the job performance of the employees is validated; it is this accepted. This concurs with Senge (1999) and Becker's (1993) argument that training leads to the accumulation of knowledge, expertise and skills, and that these lead to improved job performance. Furthermore, Rosner's (1999) study established that T&D enhances worker morale, improves their skills and performance and helps them excel in their jobs. Akinwumi and Adeyanju (2011) established that the level of education and training teachers received in Nigeria had significant effect on their performance. Other studies have established that T&D increased productivity and performance (Khan, Khan & Khan 2011; Kyriakidou & Maroudas, 2010, p. 41).

**Table 6.23a Training and Employees' Performance**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.640 <sup>a</sup>	1	.424		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.371	1	.542		
Likelihood Ratio	.627	1	.428		
Fisher's Exact Test				.448	.268
Linear-by-Linear Association	.638	1	.424		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.91.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 9.23b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.046	.424
	Cramer's V	.046	.424
N of Valid Cases		297	

#### 6.4.7. Training and Employees' Commitment

##### Hypothesis 1b (i):

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant relationship between perceived performance competencies gained during training and the perceived impacts on employees' commitment.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant relationship between perceived performance competencies gained during training and the perceived impacts on employees' commitment.

Performance competence here represents the skills, knowledge and ability/capability the employees acquired during T&D. The employees were asked to mark the item that best reflected their perceptions of the T&D they received.

All the Directors perceived that employees' commitment to the organisation was reasonably high after the training: –employees' commitment is very high, the training served as a source of motivation. Training and development initiative helps to build positive perception and feelings about the organisation among the employees". Furthermore, the Pearson correlation produced a weak statistically significant positive association between performance competence and employees' commitment (.203, n=297, p<.001). The employees and the Directors responses are consistent with each other; an indication that the result is reliable. The result indicates that the more employees acquire new skills and knowledge, the more likely they are to be committed to the organisation. Therefore, the null hypothesis which posits that there is a significant relationship between perceived performance competences gained during training and the perceived impacts on employees' commitment is substantiated and is accepted. This is consistent with the findings of other studies in the field of T&D. Silberman & Philips, 2006; Brum, 2007; Klein, 2001; Smith, 2011; Owoyemi et al., 2011; and Brum, 2007, p. 2 established that training increase employee commitment. Employees' perceive the benefits they receive from training is an indication of the organisation's

commitment to them; they repay the organisation by exhibiting a higher level of commitment to the it.

**Table 6.24 Performance Competence and Commitment**

Correlations			
		Performance Competence	Employee Commitment
Performance Competence	Pearson Correlation	1	.203**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	285	282
Employee Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.203**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	282	293

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Table 6.25**

**Directors' Responses**

Effectiveness of the Training on Organisational Commitment				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<i>Employees' commitment</i>	T&D effectively improved employees' commitment.	8	100%	"Employees' commitment is very high, the training saves as a source of motivation. Training and development initiative helps to build positive perception and feelings about the organisation among the employees".

**6.4.8. Turnover Intention after Training**

**Hypothesis 1 (ii)**

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant relationship between perceived performance competencies gained during training and the perceived turnover intention.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant relationship between perceived performance competencies gained during training and the perceived turnover intention.

The result obtained from employees and their Directors suggest that T&D have the potential to effectively lower employees' intention to quit the organisation; 62.5% of the Directors agreed: ~~Interactions~~ interactions with the managers or employees indicate that none of them is thinking

of leaving the organisation, although you can never tell people's intention. It is difficult to read people's minds. Training and development has a way making people feel they belong and that they are valued ... encouraged to stay with the organisation". However, 25% of the Directors felt that the rate of low intention to quit could be attributed to the high unemployment rate in the country, rather than to T&D programmes alone. Furthermore, the result of the Pearson correlation suggests that there is a weak but significant positive correlation (.273,  $n=297$ ,  $p<.000$ ) between perceived turnover intention and performance competence. The result shows that the more employees received T&D, the less likely they are to think of leaving the organisation. The null hypothesis which states that there is a significant positive relationship between performance competence and perceived employees' turnover intention is demonstrated; it is therefore accepted.

**Table 6.26 Employees' Turnover Intention**

<b>Correlations</b>			
		Performance Competence	Turnover Intention
Performance Competence	Pearson Correlation	1	.273**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	285	281
Turnover Intention	Pearson Correlation	.273**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	281	292
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

**Table 6.27 Turnover Intention after T&D****Directors' Responses**

Effectiveness of the Training on Intention to Quit				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<i>Intention to leave</i>	T&D influenced intention to leave is very low.	5	62.5%	"Interactions with the managers or employees indicate that none of them is thinking of leaving the organisation, although you can never tell people's intention. It is difficult to read people's minds. Training and development has a way making people feel they belong and that they are valued ... encourage to stay with the organisation".
	Few employees may be thing of leaving.	1	25%	"My guess will be only very few may be thinking of leaving if at any, there is not job in the country."
	Difficult to say	1	12.5%	"The answer is the same as employees' turnover, I suppose. It is hard to tell".

**6.4.9. Employees' Turnover after Training**

All the respondents (100%) and information obtained from official documents suggested that employees' retention was very high. According to one of the Directors, –employees' retention in this establishment has been very high and this training and development initiatives have helped them in increasing retention even further. We operate in very competitive environment, the employees who are competent and who have the knowledge and capabilities to be effective and efficient were most welcomed in all companies, especially here, companies are trying to attract and retain these employees from competitors. These essential skills and capabilities are acquired through training". About 75% of the respondents testified that employees' turnover rate is lower for the entire NRC workforce compared to other sectors, except for those who are relieved of their duties for not being productive enough. –We have very low employees' turnover in recent time, except for those who are retiring and few who were relieved of their duties because they were no longer adding value to the organisation". However 25% of the respondents claimed that there was no difference in the rate of employees' turnover; –the turnover was more less the same, because we never had problem with employees' turnover in the past, except for those who were retired either

voluntarily or otherwise”. The result is consistent with past studies, for instance; it has been shown that employees who received fewer training opportunities than they should contemplate leaving the organisation (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006 cited in Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008). Pajo, Coetzer & Guenole’s (2010, p. 300) study suggested that employees who took part in T&D are less likely to quit the organisation. Every employee wants to remain in an organisation where they know their job well, and remain valuable and competitive; hence T&D increases intention to stay (Nduchiadi, 2011; Young, 2007).

**Table 6.28 Employees’ Turnover after T&D**

Effectiveness of the Training on Employees’ Turnover				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<i>Employees’ retention</i>	Retain rate was very high.	8	100%	“Employees’ retention in this establishment has been very high and this training and development initiatives have helped them in increasing it even further. We operate in very competitive environment, the employees who are competent and who have the knowledge and capabilities to be effective and efficient were most welcomed in all companies, especially here, companies are trying to attract and retain this type of employees from competitors. These essential skills and capabilities are acquired through training”.
	The high retention was partly because of high unemployed rate in Nigeria.	1	12.5%	“Training and development and other factors like unemployment in the country have positively influenced to our high employees’ retention”.
<i>Compare with other organisations</i>	Employees’ turnover rate is lower for the entire workforce for 2011 compare to 2010.	6	75%	“We have very low employees’ turnover in recent time, except for those who are retiring and few who were relieved of their duties because they were no longer adding value to the organisation”
	There is no difference between 2010 and 2011 in employees’ turnover.	2	25%	“The turnover was more less the same, because we never had problem with employees’ turnover in the past, except for those who were retired either voluntarily or otherwise”.

#### 6.4.10. Training and Job Satisfaction

##### Hypothesis 1b (iii)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant relationship between perceived performance competencies gained during training and the perceived impacts on employees' job satisfaction.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a no significant relationship between perceived performance competencies gained during training and the perceived impacts on employees' job satisfaction.

Pearson correlation was conducted to examine if there is any relationship between perceived performance competence (skills and knowledge) gained during training and employees' job satisfaction. The result suggests a weak but statistically significant positive correlation (.135, n=297, p<.02). Furthermore, 65% of the Directors suggested that T&D intervention can enhance job satisfaction among employees. –Our T&D initiative did not just affect productivity, quality, effectiveness, and commitment but also affects employees' job satisfaction". This result indicates that the more employees acquire performance competence, the more likely they will experience job satisfaction. Hence, the null hypothesis which posits that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived performance competencies gained during training and the perceived impacts on the employees' job satisfaction is verified and is accepted. This result is consistent with past studies. Glaveli and Karassavidou (2011, p. 2915) suggest that people who claimed high levels of perceived benefits from training, showed higher degrees of job satisfaction. Previous studies have found that respondents who participated in training demonstrated higher degrees of understanding of job requirements as well as job satisfaction (Georgesllis & Lange, 2007; Glaveli & Karassavidou 2011; Spears & Parker, 2002, p. 14).

While 35.5% of the respondents felt that job satisfaction had reduced in recent times, they did not attribute this to the failure of T&D programmes. –Not everyone is happy at the moment because of non-payment of salary for the past two months, so employees cannot be satisfied in this condition..." This is an indication that T&D alone is not sufficient to improve employees' job satisfaction. –Personal conversations indicated that people are more satisfied these days then prior to the training initiatives we had last year". This is an indication that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction can be caused by a number of factors.

**Table 6.29 Training and Job Satisfaction**

Correlations			
		Performance Competence	Job Satisfaction
Performance Competence	Pearson Correlation	1	.135*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.022
	N	285	284
Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.135*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	
	N	284	296

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Table 6.30 Training and Job Satisfaction****Directors' Responses**

Effectiveness of the Training on Job Satisfaction				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Job satisfaction improved very much.	5	62.5%	"Our T&D initiative did not just affect productivity, quality, effectiveness, and commitment but also affects employees' job satisfaction. Personal conversation has indicated that people are more satisfied these days then prior to the training initiatives we had last year".
	Job satisfaction was increased to some extent.	3	37.5%	"Not everyone is happy at the moment because of non-payment of salary for the past two months, so employees cannot be satisfied in this condition. Although the services they render is satisfactory".

**Result of Standard Multiple Regression**

Standard multiple regression analysis was carried out to establish how well performance competence, turnover intention, job satisfaction and employees commitment can predict job performance and also to determine which of the independent variables is the best predictor of job performance. The result of the standard regression analysis indicates that of the controlled variables, performance competence, turnover intention, job satisfaction and employees' commitment explained 22.5% of the variance in job performance. Of the four variables, performance competence made the largest unique contribution (beta = .41), while turnover

intention made the second largest unique significant contribution ( $\beta = 18, p < .005$ ). The result further showed that the four variables can only explain 22.5% of the increase in job performance. This mean that the T&D implemented in the NRC only contributed 22.5% to the increase in job performance. Therefore, 77.5% of the increase in performance cannot be explained by the present model; it can be explained by other factors in or outside the organisation.

**Table 6.31a Training and Job Performance**

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.474 <sup>a</sup>	.225	.214	.403638
a. Predictors: (Constant), JOBSAT, PERCO, TUIT, COMMITMT				
b. Dependent Variable: JOBPER				

**Table 6.31b**

ANOVA <sup>a</sup>						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	13.013	4	3.253	19.968	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	44.804	275	.163		
	Total	57.817	279			
a. Dependent Variable: JOBPER						
b. Predictors: (Constant), JOBSAT, PERCO, TUIT, COMMITMT						

**Table 6.31c**

Coefficients <sup>a</sup>								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.200	.246		8.938	.000	1.716	2.685
	COMMITMT	-.096	.063	-.096	-1.533	.126	-.220	.027
	TUIT	.122	.043	.175	2.851	.005	.038	.207
	PERCO	.347	.047	.407	7.334	.000	.254	.440
	JOBSAT	.047	.042	.065	1.126	.261	-.035	.130
a. Dependent Variable: JOBPER								

## 6.5. Training Effectiveness on Departments

The study set out to examine whether T&D influences the administrative/technical and senior and junior employees competencies and performance equally or differently using both the categorical and numerical variables. Chi-square tests and Mann-Whitney were used to compare the impact of the T&D programme on the administrative and technical workers and the junior and senior workers, respectively. For the categorical variables, the NRC employees were asked to indicate if the training and development they received in 2010/2011 helped them to improve their knowledge, skills, ability on-the-job, confidence, morale at work, and finally, their overall work performance.

### 6.5.1. Performance Competence (Departmental Levels)

#### **Hypothesis 2a (i)**

$H_0$ : There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the administrative and technical staff in terms of performance competence.

$H_1$ : There is a no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the administrative and technical staff in terms of performance competence.

The Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to establish whether there is a difference between the perceived performance competence level for the administrative and technical staff. The result suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the level of performance competence of the administrative ( $Md = 4.00$ ,  $n = 175$ ) and technical staff ( $Md = 4.00$ ,  $n = 110$ ),  $U = 9077.50$ ,  $z = -.813$ ,  $p = .416$ ) after the training programme. This result indicates that employees in both categories acquired performance competence proportionately. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which posits that there is no significant difference in the influence of T&D initiatives on the performance competence of administrative and technical staff is accepted. There are no comparable past studies in the field to validate the present result. However, the result is an indication that T&D initiatives were very efficient in enhancing the competencies of both categories of employees.

**Table 6.32a Performance competence**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Performance Competence
Mann-Whitney U	9077.500
Wilcoxon W	15182.500
Z	-.813
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.416
a. Grouping Variable: staff	

**Table 32b Performance competence**

Ranks				
	staff	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Performance Competence	Administrative staff	175	146.13	25572.50
	Technical staff	110	138.02	15182.50
	Total	285		

### 6.5.2. Job Satisfaction (Departmental Levels)

#### Hypothesis 2a (ii)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on job satisfaction of the administrative and technical staff respectively.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on job satisfaction of the administrative and technical staff respectively.

The result of the Mann-Whitney test suggest that there is no statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction levels of the administrative (Md = 3.63, n = 181), and technical staff (Md = 3.75, n = 115), U = 10036, z = -.520, p = .603). The result suggests that the impact of T&D on job satisfaction for technical and administrative workers did not vary considerably. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which postulates that there is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on job satisfaction of the two categories of employees was accepted. Again, there are no comparable past studies in the field to validate the present result. Nonetheless, the result is an indication that T&D initiatives were very efficient in enhancing the job satisfaction of both categories of employees.

**Table 6.33a Job Satisfaction (Departmental Levels)**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Job Satisfaction
Mann-Whitney U	10035.500
Wilcoxon W	26506.500
Z	-.520
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.603
a. Grouping Variable: staff	

**Table 6.33b Job Satisfaction (Departmental Levels)**

Ranks				
	staff	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Job Satisfaction	Administrative staff	181	146.44	26506.50
	Technical staff	115	151.73	17449.50
	Total	296		

### 6.5.3. Job Performance (Departments Levels)

#### Hypothesis 2a (iii)

$H_0$ : There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the administrative and technical staff's job performance.

$H_1$ : There is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the administrative and technical staff's job performance.

A Mann-Whitney U test was carried out to establish whether there is a difference in the perceived job performance of the administrative and technical staff of the organisation. The result suggests that T&D impacts on the job performance of administrative and technical workers in the same proportion (administrative staff ( $M_d = 3.41$ ,  $n = 177$ ) and technical staff ( $M_d = 3.88$ ,  $n = 112$ ),  $U = 9222$ ,  $z = -1.00$ ,  $p < .316$ ). The alternative hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the job performance of administrative and technical staff is authenticated; therefore, it is accepted.

**Table 6.34a**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Job Performance
Mann-Whitney U	9222.500
Wilcoxon W	24975.500
Z	-1.002
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.316

a. Grouping Variable: staff

**Table 6.34b**

Ranks				
	staff	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Job Performance	Administrative staff	177	141.10	24975.50
	Technical staff	112	151.16	16929.50
	Total	289		

#### 6.5.4. Turnover Intention (Departmental Levels)

##### Hypothesis 2a (iv)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the administrative and technical staff in terms of turnover intention.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the administrative and technical staff in terms of turnover intention.

The Mann-Whitney test shows that there is no statistically significant difference in the rate of turnover intention of the administrative staff (Md = 3.6, n = 179) and technical staff (Md = 3.4, n = 113), U = 9503, z = -.874. The result indicates that T&D initiatives influenced both categories of employees at a similar proportion. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the turnover intention of the administrative and technical staff is verified and it is accepted.

**Table 6.35a**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Intention to Quit
Mann-Whitney U	9503.000
Wilcoxon W	15944.000
Z	-.874
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.382
a. Grouping Variable: staff	

**Table 6.35b**

Ranks				
Staff	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	
Intention to Quit	Administrative staff	179	149.91	26834.00
	Technical staff	113	141.10	15944.00
	Total	292		

### 6.5.5. Employees' Commitment (Department Level)

Hypothesis 2a (v)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the administrative and technical employees' commitment.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the administrative and technical employees' commitment.

The result of the Mann-Whitney test shows that there is a statistically positive significant difference in the level of the administrative employees' commitment (Md = 3.41, n = 181) and the technical employees' commitment in NRC (Md = 3.52, n = 112), U = 8194, z = -.2757, p = .006. The result suggests that the T&D programmes executed in the NRC influence the commitment of the administrative and technical employees disproportionately. Further tests revealed that the mean score for technical staff of 164.34 is higher than the mean of the administrative staff of 136.27. The result therefore, suggests that the technical staff is likely to be more committed than their colleagues in administrative department as a result of the training they received. Consequently the null hypothesis which states that there is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the organisational commitment of the administrative and technical staff is accepted. The result may be related to where the two categories of employees received their training.

**Table 6.36a**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Employee Commitment
Mann-Whitney U	8193.500
Wilcoxon W	24664.500
Z	-2.757
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.006
a. Grouping Variable: staff	

**Table 6.36b**

Ranks				
staff	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	
Employee Commitment	Administrative staff	181	136.27	24664.50
	Technical staff	112	164.34	18406.50
	Total	293		

**Table 6.36c**

Report		
staff		Employees Commitment
Administrative staff	N	181
	Median	3.40800
Technical staff	N	112
	Median	3.52100
Total	N	293
	Median	3.45000

### 6.5.6. Performance Competence (Employees' Grades)

One of the major objectives of this study is to analyse whether there is a significant difference in the perceived effect of the T&D programmes on senior and junior employees respectively.

A Mann-Whitney test was carried out to measure this.

#### Hypothesis 2b (i)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference in the impact of T&D on the performance competence of senior and junior staff.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference in the impact of T&D on the performance competence of senior and junior staff.

The Mann-Whitney test was conducted to determine whether there is a difference in the perceived performance competence levels for the senior and junior staff. The result shows

that there is no statistically significant difference between the senior staff (Md = 4.00, n = 131) and the junior staff (Md = 3.83, n = 154),  $U = 8940$ ,  $z = -1.663$ ,  $p = .096$ ) in terms of performance competence acquired during training in the organisation. This result suggests that the proportion of the skills and knowledge (competencies) acquired by the senior and junior staff members are the same. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the junior and senior staff in terms of performance competence is accepted.

**Table 6.37a Performance Competence (Employees' Grades)**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Performance Competence
Mann-Whitney U	8940.500
Wilcoxon W	20875.500
Z	-1.663
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.096
a. Grouping Variable: Grade	

**Table 6.37b**

Ranks				
	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Performance Competence	Senior	131	151.75	19879.50
	Junior	154	135.56	20875.50
	Total	285		

### 6.5.7. Job Satisfaction (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2b (ii)

$H_0$ : There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the senior and junior staff's job satisfaction.

$H_1$ : There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the senior and junior staff's job satisfaction.

The result of the Mann-Whitney test indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction levels of the senior staff (Md = 3.63, n = 135), and junior staff (Md = 3.50, n = 161),  $U = 10763$ ,  $z = -.144$ ,  $p = .886$ ) after training in the organisation.

This means that the influence of T&D on the level of job satisfaction for senior and junior workers did not differ greatly. Both categories of staff enjoyed the same level of job satisfaction after the training. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the perceived influence of T&D on the job satisfaction of the junior and senior staff is accepted.

**Table 6.38a Job Satisfaction (Employees' Grades)**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Job Satisfaction
Mann-Whitney U	10762.500
Wilcoxon W	23803.500
Z	-.144
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.886
a. Grouping Variable: Grade	

**Table 6.38b**

Ranks				
	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Job Satisfaction	Senior	135	149.28	20152.50
	Junior	161	147.85	23803.50
	Total	296		

### 6.5.8. Job Performance (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2b (iii)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the senior and junior staff in terms of job performance.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the senior and junior staff in terms of job performance.

The result of the Mann-Whitney U test demonstrates that there is no statistically significant difference in the improvement of the levels job performance of the senior staff (Md = 3.88, n = 131) and junior staff (Md = 3.75, n = 158), U = 9564, z = -1.117, p = .277 after the T&D initiatives in the organisation. The result signifies that the impact of T&D on the job performance of the two categories of staff is proportionately the same. This suggests that there is no association between the influence of T&D on job performance and staff status. The alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the influence

of T&D on the job performance of the junior and senior staff is substantiated and it is accepted.

**Table 6.39a Job Performance (Employees' Grades)**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Job Performance
Mann-Whitney U	9564.000
Wilcoxon W	22125.000
Z	-1.117
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.264
a. Grouping Variable: Grade	

**Table 6.39b**

Ranks				
	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Job Performance	Senior	131	150.99	19780.00
	Junior	158	140.03	22125.00
	Total	289		

### 6.5.9. Turnover Intention (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2b (iv)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the senior and junior staff's turnover intention.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant difference in the influence of T&D on the senior and junior staff's turnover intention.

The result of Mann-Whitney test show that there is no statistical difference in the rate of turnover intention of the senior staff (Md = 3.6, n = 134) and junior staff (Md = 3.60, n = 158), U = 9810, z = -1.086, p = .967. The scores for senior and junior staff indicate that T&D has the same proportionate impact on both categories of employees' turnover intention. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the influence of T&D on the turnover intention of the junior and senior staff is accepted.

**Table 6.40a Turnover Intention (Employees' Grades)**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Turnover intention
Mann-Whitney U	9810.000
Wilcoxon W	22371.000
Z	-1.086
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.277
a. Grouping Variable: Grade	

**Table 6.40b**

Ranks				
	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Turnover intention	Senior	134	152.29	20407.00
	Junior	158	141.59	22371.00
	Total	292		

### 6.5.10. Commitment (Employees Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2b (v)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference in the influence of T&D on the senior and junior staff in terms of employee commitment.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no statistically significant difference in the influence of T&D on the senior and junior staff in terms of employee commitment.

The result of the Mann-Whitney test shows that there is no statistically significant difference in the level of the senior employees (Md = 3.45, n = 134) and the junior employees' organisational commitment (Md = 3.43, n = 159), U = 10624, z = -.041, p = .967. The result demonstrates that the impact of T&D initiatives on the organisational commitment of the senior and junior staff is proportionality the same. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which posits that there is no statistically significant difference in the influence of T&D on the organisational commitment of the senior and junior staff is substantiated; it is therefore accepted.

**Table 6.41a Commitment (Employees Grades)**

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	Employee Commitment
Mann-Whitney U	10623.500
Wilcoxon W	23343.500
Z	-.041
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.967
a. Grouping Variable: Grade	

**Table 6.41b**

Ranks				
	Grade	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Employee Commitment	Senior	134	147.22	19727.50
	Junior	159	146.81	23343.50
	Total	293		

### 6.5.11. Morale (Employees Departments)

#### Hypothesis 2c (i)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the morale of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the morale of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

The Chi-square test shows that there was no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D on the morale gained by the technical and administrative staff after training in the organisation  $X^2 (1, n=297) = .94, p = .147, \phi = .09$ . The result indicates that the impact of T&D initiatives on staff morale is proportionately the same for both the administrative and technical staff. Therefore, there is no association between the improvement in morale gained from T&D and the department in which employees work. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no statistically significant difference between the impact of T&D initiatives on the morale of the technical and administrative workers is accepted.

**Table 6.42a Morale (Employees' Departments)**

Chi-Square Tests					
Technical/administrative T&D/Morale	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.626 <sup>a</sup>	1	.105		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	2.107	1	.147		
Likelihood Ratio	2.728	1	.099		
Fisher's Exact Test				.129	.072
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.617	1	.106		
N of Valid Cases	297				

**Table 6.42b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.094	.105
	Cramer's V	.094	.105
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.12. Employees' Confidence (Employees' Departments)

#### Hypothesis 2c (ii)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D initiatives on the confidence on-the-job of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D initiatives on the confidence on-the-job of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

The result of the Chi-square suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the confidence gained as a result of participating in the T&D programme for the technical and administrative staff, respectively  $X^2 (1, n = 297) .07, .28, p = .783, \phi = .03$ . Therefore, the result showed that the rate of confidence gained from the T&D initiatives for the technical staff is proportionately the same as that for the administrative staff. That is to say, there is no association between staff departments and confidence gained as a result of T&D. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the impact of T&D on the confidence of the two categories of employees is validated and it is accepted.

**Table 6.43a Employees' Confidence (Employees' Departments)**

Chi-Square Tests					
Technical/administrative T&D/Confidence	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.236 <sup>a</sup>	1	.627		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.076	1	.783		
Likelihood Ratio	.239	1	.625		
Fisher's Exact Test				.679	.396
Linear-by-Linear Association	.235	1	.628		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.15.					

**Table 6.43b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.028	.627
	Cramer's V	.028	.627
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.13. Ability (Employees' Departments)

#### Hypothesis 2c (iii)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the ability of the technical and administrative staff.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the ability of the technical and administrative staff.

There was no statistically significant difference in the improvement of the ability/capability of the technical and administrative staff, respectively as a result of the T&D initiatives in the organisation  $X^2(1, n = 297) = .54, p = .464, \text{phi } .05$ . The result indicated that the perceived impact of T&D initiatives on the ability of the technical staff is not significantly proportionately different from that of the administrative staff. That is to say, there is no association between staff department and perceived morale gained from T&D. The alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the impact of

T&D on the ability of the technical and administrative workers respectively is authenticated; it is thus accepted.

**Table 6.44a Ability (Employees' Departments)**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.869 <sup>a</sup>	1	.351		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.536	1	.464		
Likelihood Ratio	.893	1	.345		
Fisher's Exact Test				.425	.234
Linear-by-Linear Association	.866	1	.352		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.33.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 6.44b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.054	.351
	Cramer's V	.054	.351
N of Valid Cases		297	

#### 6.5.14. Skills (Employees' Departments)

##### Hypothesis 2c (iv)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the skills of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the skills of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

The result presented in the table above shows that the Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity) indicates there was no statistically significant difference in the influence of

T&D initiatives on the skills of the technical and administrative staff respectively  $X^2(1, n = 297) = .04$ ,  $p = .83$ ,  $\phi = .03$ . The result showed that the ratio of the impact of T&D initiatives on the skills of the technical staff is not considerably different from the ratio of the administrative staff. There is no association between employees' departments and the skills gained in T&D. Consequently, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the impact of T&D on the skills of the technical and administrative workers is substantiated and it is accepted.

**Table 6.45 Skills (Employees' Departments)**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.191 <sup>a</sup>	1	.662		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.046	1	.830		
Likelihood Ratio	.194	1	.660		
Fisher's Exact Test				.825	.420
Linear-by-Linear Association	.191	1	.662		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.98.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 6.45b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.025	.662
	Cramer's V	.025	.662
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.15. Knowledge (Employees' Departments)

#### Hypothesis 2c (v)

$H_0$ : There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the knowledge of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the knowledge of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

The Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity) indicates that there was no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D on the knowledge gained by the technical and administrative staff respectively  $X^2$  (1 n = 297, p = .359, phi .07 as result of the T&D initiatives that took place in the organisation. The result showed that the ratio of the impact of T&D initiatives on the knowledge of the technical staff is not significantly different from the ratio of the administrative staff. This suggests that there is no association between staff department and knowledge gained in T&D. Thus, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the impact of T&D on the knowledge of the technical and administrative workers is substantiated; hence it is accepted.

**Table 6.46 Knowledge (Employees' Departments)**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.459 <sup>a</sup>	1	.227		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.841	1	.359		
Likelihood Ratio	1.564	1	.211		
Fisher's Exact Test				.262	.181
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.454	1	.228		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.08.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 6.46b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.070	.227
	Cramer's V	.070	.227
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.16. Overall Individual Performance (Department)

#### Hypothesis 2c (vi)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the overall individual performance of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the overall individual performance of the technical and administrative workers, respectively.

The result of the Chi-square for independence (with Yates Continuity) shows that there was no statistically significant difference in the perceived improvement of the overall individual performance of the technical and administrative staff, respectively as a result of the T&D received  $X^2(1, n = 297) = .44, p = .50, \phi = .05$ . The result indicated that the impact of T&D initiatives on the overall individual performance of the technical staff is not proportionately different from that of the administrative staff. Therefore, there is no association between staff department and overall employee performance gained as a result of T&D initiatives. The alternative hypothesis which states that there is no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D on the overall individual performance of the technical and administrative workers respectively is verified and it is accepted. The result is interesting as one might think that the overall effect of T&D on employee performance would differ according to their functions; as different groups may confront different situations which might call for different skills and knowledge.

**Table 6.47a Overall Individual Performance (Department)**

Chi-Square Tests					
Technical and administrative T&D/Performance	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.725 <sup>a</sup>	1	.394		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.442	1	.506		
Likelihood Ratio	.741	1	.389		
Fisher's Exact Test				.458	.255
Linear-by-Linear Association	.723	1	.395		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.28.					

**Table 6.47b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.049	.394
	Cramer's V	.049	.394
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.17. Morale (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2d (i)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the morale of junior and senior staff.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the morale of junior and senior staff.

The Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity) demonstrates that there was no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D on the morale gained by junior and senior staff as result of the T&D initiatives that took place in the organisation  $\chi^2 (1, n = 297), .2.7, p = .10, \phi = -.10$ . The result indicated that the ratio of the impact of T&D initiatives on the morale of the junior staff is not significantly different from that of the senior staff. Thus, there is no association between staff grade and morale gained through T&D initiatives. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference in the

impact of T&D on the morale of the junior and senior staff is authenticated; therefore, it is accepted.

**Table 6.48a Morale (Employees' Grades)**

Chi-Square Tests					
Junior/Senior T&D/Morale	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.263 <sup>a</sup>	1	.071		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	2.692	1	.101		
Likelihood Ratio	3.252	1	.071		
Fisher's Exact Test				.097	.051
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.252	1	.071		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.55.					

**Table 6.48b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.105	.071
	Cramer's V	.105	.071
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.18. Confidence (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2c (ii):

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the confidence of junior and senior staff.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the confidence of junior and senior staff.

The result of the Chi-square for independence (with Yates Continuity) suggests that there is no statistically significant difference between the junior and senior staff's  $X^2$  (1, n = 297) 1.2, p = .26, phi = -.07 confidence after attending the T&D programme. This difference in the levels of perceived confidence between these two categories of workers is small.

Consequently, there is no association between the workers' grades and the confidence gained from T&D programmes. The alternative hypothesis which states that there is no statistically significant difference between the impact of T&D on the confidence of junior and senior staff is confirmed; therefore, it is accepted.

**Table 6.49a Confidence (Employees' Grades)**

Chi-Square Tests					
Junior/Senior T&D/Confidence	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.721 <sup>a</sup>	1	.190		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	1.223	1	.269		
Likelihood Ratio	1.714	1	.190		
Fisher's Exact Test				.219	.135
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.715	1	.190		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.82.					

**Table 6.49b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.076	.190
	Cramer's V	.076	.190
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.19. Ability (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2c (iii)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between the impact of T&D on the ability of the junior and senior staff.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no statistically significant difference between the impact of T&D on the ability of the junior and senior staff.

The result of the Chi-Square test for independence (with Yates Continuity) indicates that there was no statistically significant difference in the improvement of the ability/capability of

the senior and junior staff respectively as a result of the T&D initiatives carried out in the NRC  $X^2 (1, n = 297) = 1.7, p = .19, \phi = -.08$ . The result suggests that the impact of T&D initiatives on the ability of the junior staff is proportionately the same as that of the senior staff. Therefore, the perceived impact of T&D initiatives on the ability of the employees is not based on grades. The alternative hypothesis which states that there is no statistically significant difference between the impact of T&D on the ability of the junior and senior staff is accepted.

**Table 6.50a Ability (Employees' Grades)**

Chi-Square Tests					
Junior/Senior T&D/Ability	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.247 <sup>a</sup>	1	.134		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	1.697	1	.193		
Likelihood Ratio	2.238	1	.135		
Fisher's Exact Test				.169	.097
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.239	1	.135		
N of Valid Cases	297				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.18.

**Table 6.50b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.087	.134
	Cramer's V	.087	.134
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.20. Skills (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2c (iv)

$H_0$ : There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the skills of the junior and senior workers, respectively.

$H_1$ : There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the skills of the junior and senior workers, respectively.

The result of the Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity) indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D initiatives on the skills of the

junior and senior staff respectively  $X^2 (1, n = 297) = 1.8, p = .18, \phi = -.09$ . This result suggests that the impact of T&D initiatives on the skills of the junior staff is not considerably proportionately different from the senior staff. Therefore, there is no association between staff grade and skills gained in T&D programmes. The alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the skills of the junior and senior workers respectively is accepted.

**Table 6.51a Skills (Employees' Grades)**

Chi-Square Tests					
Junior/Senior T&D/Skills	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.389 <sup>a</sup>	1	.122		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	1.763	1	.184		
Likelihood Ratio	2.384	1	.123		
Fisher's Exact Test				.133	.092
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.381	1	.123		
N of Valid Cases	297				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.45.

**Table 6.51b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.090	.122
	Cramer's V	.090	.122
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.21. Knowledge (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2c (v)

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the knowledge of the junior and senior staff, respectively.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the knowledge of the junior and senior staff, respectively.

The Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity) indicates that there was no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D on the knowledge gained by the junior and senior staff, respectively as result of the T&D initiatives that took place in the

NRC  $X^2$  (1, n = 297) = .82, p = .36, phi -.07. The result therefore, suggests that the impact of T&D initiatives on the knowledge of the junior staff is not proportionately significantly different from the senior staff. This also means that knowledge gained during T&D initiatives is not based on seniority. The alternative hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the knowledge of the junior and senior staff is accepted.

**Table 6.52a Knowledge (Employees' Grades)**

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.418 <sup>a</sup>	1	.234		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.821	1	.365		
Likelihood Ratio	1.416	1	.234		
Fisher's Exact Test				.265	.182
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.414	1	.234		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.91.					
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table					

**Table 6.52b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.069	.234
	Cramer's V	.069	.234
N of Valid Cases		297	

### 6.5.22. Overall Individual Performance (Employees' Grades)

#### Hypothesis 2c (vi)

$H_0$ : There is a significant difference between the impact of T&D on the overall individual performance of the junior and senior staff, respectively.

$H_1$ : There is no significant difference between the impact of T&D on the overall individual performance of the junior and senior staff, respectively.

The result of the Chi-square for independence (with Yates Continuity) indicates that there was no statistically significant difference in the perceived improvement of the overall individual performance of junior and senior staff respectively as a result of the T&D received  $X^2 (1, n = 297) = .00, p = .98, \phi = -.01$ . This indicates that the impact of T&D initiatives on the overall individual performance of the junior staff is not proportionately significantly different from that of the senior staff. Therefore, there is no association between staff grade and the general performance of the employees as result of the T&D programme. The null hypothesis was not substantiated; therefore, the alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) which states there is no statistically significant difference between the overall individual performance of the junior and senior employees as a result of the T&D programmes is accepted.

**Table 6.53a Overall Individual Performance (Employees' Grades)**

Chi-Square Tests					
Junior/Senior staff T&D/individual performance	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.040 <sup>a</sup>	1	.842		
Continuity Correction <sup>b</sup>	.000	1	.987		
Likelihood Ratio	.040	1	.842		
Fisher's Exact Test				.857	.492
Linear-by-Linear Association	.040	1	.842		
N of Valid Cases	297				
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.45.					

**Table 6.53b**

Symmetric Measures			
		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.012	.842
	Cramer's V	.012	.842
N of Valid Cases		297	

## 6.6. Training Transfer System - NRC

In order to make informed decisions and recommendations on the training transfer system of the NRC, both the descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used.

The table of the descriptive statistics below shows minimum, maximum, means, standard deviations, and reliabilities for all measures. All the variables were measured on a five-point scale. All the scores for the variables range from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5. The results show that the mean score on performance self-efficacy is high (4.11 on a five-point scale); an indication that the majority of the employees seriously believe that they are able to apply learning on-the-job and can overcome any hindrance in applying the learning. The mean score of 4.00 on motivation to transfer learning indicates that the majority of the respondents feel that they are highly motivated to utilise the skills and knowledge gained in training in work settings. Furthermore, the mean score of 4.00 on transfer effort-performance expectations indicates that the majority of the employees' strongly feel that changes in job performance will lead to desired outcomes, e.g. promotion. The mean score for transfer design is much higher than average (3.9); this shows that the majority of the respondents believe that the training was designed in such a way that it is linked to their job requirements. The mean score for perceived peer support is high (3.82), as is the mean score for perceived content validity (3.78). These two scores suggest that the majority of the respondents feel that they received fairly good support from their colleagues; they also believed that the content of the training reflected their job requirements. The mean score of 3.74 on perceived opportunity to use learning on the job is above average, an indication that the majority of the respondents believed that they were given the opportunity to use their learning on the job. Performance outcome expectations (3.63) is fairly above average; this also shows that many respondents believed that the application of skills and knowledge learned during training will lead to outcomes that they desired. The mean score for performance coaching of 3.47 was just above average, suggesting that many employees agreed that they received constructive input and feedback from people in their workplace. The mean score of 3.46 for supervisors' support shows that many of the employees received reinforcement when applying learning to the job. The mean score of 3.33 for learner readiness is just above average; this indicates that some of the employees believed that they were well prepared before participating in the training programme. The score for personal outcomes negative is 3.08, which is just about average. This indicates that some of the employees believe that no negative consequences will occur if they do not applying learning on the job. The mean score of 2.64 for resistance

to change shows that almost half of the employees perceive that prevailing group norms hinder them from using the skills and knowledge they acquired in training. Furthermore, the mean score of 2.51 for supervisors' opposition is average; this indicates that half of the employees perceived that they received opposition and no feedback from their supervisors when applying skills learned in training on-the-job. Similarly, the mean score of 2.51 on a five-point scale for personal capacity for transfer indicates that half of the employees feel that they lack the time, energy and mental space in their work lives to make the changes required to transfer learning to the job.

### 6.6.1. Training Transfer Descriptive Statistics

**Table 6.54 Training Transfer Factors**

	Descriptive Statistics					Variance	alpha
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation		
Performance self-efficacy	297	2.00	5.00	4.1122	.62250	.388	.70
Motivation to Transfer	297	1.67	5.00	4.0079	.64107	.411	.62
Transfer Effort Performance Expectations	297	1.33	5.00	4.0011	.74460	.554	.70
Transfer Design	297	1.67	5.00	3.9473	.72222	.522	.73
Peer Support	297	1.00	5.00	3.8238	.81004	.656	.84
Content Validity	297	1.33	5.00	3.7879	.68956	.475	.70
Opposition to Use Learning	297	1.67	5.00	3.7419	.64488	.416	.47
Performance outcome expectations	297	1.33	5.00	3.6364	.87176	.760	.69
Performance Coaching	297	1.00	5.00	3.4770	.88634	.786	.74
Personal Outcome positive	297	1.00	5.00	3.4714	1.02229	1.045	.83
Supervisor Support	295	1.00	5.00	3.4610	.77414	.599	.60
Learner Readiness	297	1.00	5.00	3.3345	.84029	.706	.57
Personal Outcome Negative	297	1.00	5.00	3.0842	.86474	.748	.65
Resist to Change	297	1.00	5.00	2.6420	.91991	.846	.69
Supervisor Opposition	297	1.00	5.00	2.5174	.95023	.903	.79
Personal Capacity	295	1.00	5.00	2.5141	.89873	.808	.72
Valid N (list wise)	295						

### 6.6.2. Ability Factors and Performance

The main objective here is to determine whether there is a relationship between the ability factors and job performance and which of the transfer factors is the highest predictor of job performance in the organisation.

### Hypothesis 3a

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between learning transfer factors (Ability factors e.g. (i) Opportunity to use learning, (ii) Personal capacity to transfer, (iii) Perceived content validity, and (iv) Transfer design) and perceived training transfer on the job performance.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between learning transfer factors (Ability factors e.g. (i) Opportunity to use learning, (ii) Personal capacity to transfer, (iii) Perceived content validity, and (iv) Transfer design) and perceived training transfer on the job performance.

The Pearson correlation for opportunity to use learning produced a small statistically significant relationship with perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=.182$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .02$ ). The result suggests that the more trainees are provided with the means and tasks on the job to allow them to use the skill taught in training, the more they will transfer their skills and knowledge on the job and therefore improve their job performance. The result validates Holton et al.'s (2008) assertion that the "extent to which trainees are provided with or obtain resources and tasks on the job enabling them to use the skills taught in training" will determine how much skills are transferred on the job. That is to say, the more these resources are provided, the more likely the employees/trainees will transfer their learning on the jobs. Therefore, the null hypothesis (3a i) is validated and it is accepted.

The Pearson correlation test result for personal capacity to transfer ( $r=-.249$ ,  $N=287$ ,  $p < .001$ ) produced a negative significant relationship with perceived training transfer on the job performance. This result suggests that the more energy and time employees spend in their working lives, the less likely it is they will transfer their new skills and knowledge on the job to increase job performance. This result supports the work of Holton et al. (2008) which posits that that "extent to which individual can transfer their new skills and knowledge on the job depends on the work load, schedule, personal energy, and stress-level". That is to say, employees' ability to improve on-the-job performance using the new skills learnt is a function of the extent to which the abovementioned issues are properly managed. Therefore, the null hypothesis (3a ii) is accepted.

The Pearson correlation test produced no statistically significant relationship between perceived content validity and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=.112$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .056$ ). The result did not suggest that the skills and knowledge taught in training

are similar to performance expectations; the more effectively an individual performs, the more the employee will transfer the new skills and knowledge on-the-job. Consequently, the result did not support Holton et al.'s (2008) assertion that the extent to which skills and knowledge taught are closer to performance expectations plus what the employee needed to perform more efficiently. The result therefore, indicates that the extent to which the trainees judge the training content to accurately reflect job requirements does not guarantee that the new skills and knowledge will be transferred on to the job performance. The alternative hypothesis (3a iii) is accepted.

The Pearson Correlation test result indicates that there is a moderate positive statistically significant relationship between transfer design and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.321$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The result suggests that the more training is designed to give trainees the aptitude to use their new skills and knowledge in their job performance the more likely they will use it. This supports Holton et al.'s (2008) finding that the degree to which training has been formulated to give employees the capability to transfer learning to their job performance, determines the extent to which skills are transferred on the job. Therefore, the null hypothesis (3a iv) is accepted.

**Table 6.55 Ability Factors and Performance**

<b>Correlations</b>						
<b>Ability Scales</b>						
		<b>Opposition to use Learning</b>	<b>Personal Capacity</b>	<b>Content Validity</b>	<b>Transfer Design</b>	<b>Job Performance</b>
Opposition to use Learning	Pearson Correlation	1	-.089	.369**	.506**	.185**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.128	.000	.000	.002
	N	297	295	297	297	289
Personal Capacity	Pearson Correlation	-.089	1	.046	-.066	-.249**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.128		.432	.259	.000
	N	295	295	295	295	287
Content Validity	Pearson Correlation	.369**	.046	1	.535**	.112
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.432		.000	.056
	N	297	295	297	297	289
Transfer Design	Pearson Correlation	.506**	-.066	.535**	1	.321**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.259	.000		.000
	N	297	295	297	297	289
Job Performance	Pearson Correlation	.185**	-.249**	.112	.321**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.056	.000	
	N	289	287	289	289	289

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The result of the standard multiple regression suggests that the model explains 16% of job performance. This result indicates that ability scales can only predict 16% of training transfer to job performance in the workplace. It further suggests that 84% of employees' ability to transfer their new skills and knowledge on the job performance can be explained by other variables. However, for the whole scale, transfer design makes the strongest significant unique contribution (beta = .31,  $p = .01$ ) to explaining the job performance, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for. Personal capacity for transfer makes the second strongest significant unique contribution (beta = -.22,  $p = .01$ ). The other variables (opportunity to use learning and content validity) make negligible contributions (beta = .02 and beta = .03 respectively). The result of this model corroborates the results of other studies where the transfer of learning was estimated to range between 10 and 15%.

**Table 6. 56a Ability Variables**

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.396 <sup>a</sup>	.157	.145	.417698
a. Predictors: (Constant), Transfer Design, Personal Capacity, Opportunity to use Learning, Content Validity				
b. Dependent Variable: Job Performance				

**Table 6. 56b Ability Variables****Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.348	.195		17.209	.000
	Opportunity to Use Learning	.016	.045	.023	.359	.720
	Personal Capacity	-.112	.028	-.222	-4.026	.000
	Content Validity	-.022	.043	-.034	-.518	.605
	Transfer Design	.197	.044	.314	4.504	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance						

**6.6.3. Motivation Factors and Performance**

The main objective here is to determine whether there is a relationship between the motivation to transfer factors and job performance and also to establish which of the factors, is the highest predictor of training transfer on the job performance.

**Hypothesis 3b**

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between learning transfer factors (motivation to transfer factors e.g. (3b i) Motivation to transfer, (3b ii) Transfer effort—performance expectations, (3b iii) Performance—outcomes expectations) and perceived training transfer on the job performance.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between learning transfer factors (motivation to transfer factors e.g. (3b i) Motivation to transfer, (3b ii) Transfer effort—performance expectations, (3b iii) Performance—outcomes expectations) and perceived training transfer on the job performance.

The Pearson correlation test was conducted to verify if there is a significant relationship between motivation to transfer and perceived training transfer on the job performance. The result produced a moderate statistically positive significant relationship ( $r=0.352$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .01$ ). This suggests that the more employees are motivated to utilise their new skills and knowledge in their work, the more likely they will use them. The result supports Holton et al. (2008) argument that the extent to which individuals is motivated to utilize learning in their work; determine how far the know skills and knowledge are transferred. –This includes the degree to which individuals feel better able to perform, plan to use new skills and knowledge, and believe new skills will help them to more effectively perform on-the-job”.

The Pearson correlation test for transfer effort-performance expectation and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.421$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .01$ ) produced a significant positive moderate association. The result suggests that the more employees felt that by using their new skills and knowledge learned in training will improve their job performance, the more likely they are to use them. Therefore, the result supports Holton et al. (2008), who posit that –the expectation that effort devoted to transferring learning will lead to changes in job performance”.

The Pearson correlation test result for performance-outcomes expectation ( $r=0.214$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and perceived training transfer on the job performance, produced a small significant positive correlation. The result demonstrates that employees who perceived that if they used their new skills and knowledge to change job performance they would receive rewards, were more likely to use their new competences on their job performance. The result supports the work of Holton et al. (2008) which indicates that improvement in job performance will lead to outcomes that are appreciated by employees. If employees believe that they will receive recognition for applying their new competences to their jobs and improve performance, they will be more inclined to use their new competencies; leading to improved job performance.

**Table 6.57 Motivation to Transfer**

Correlations					
Motivation Scales					
		Motivation To Transfer	Transfer Effort-Performance Expectation	Performance Outcomes Expectation	Job Performance
Motivation to Transfer	Pearson Correlation	1	.461**	.274**	.352**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	297	297	297	289
Transfer Effort-Performance Expectation	Pearson Correlation	.461**	1	.518**	.341**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	297	297	297	289
Performance Outcomes Expectation	Pearson Correlation	.274**	.518**	1	.214**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	297	297	297	289
Job Performance	Pearson Correlation	.352**	.341**	.214**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	289	289	289	289

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The result of the standard multiple regression shows that this model explains 17% of the job performance. This result indicates that motivation scales can only predict 17% of training transfer to job performance in the workplace. However, the motivation to transfer variable makes the strongest significant unique contribution (beta = .24,  $p = .01$ ) to explain job performance, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for. Transfer effort performance expectation makes the second strongest significant unique contribution (beta = .22,  $p = .001$ ). The third variable makes a negligible contribution (beta = .03,  $p = .61$ ). The result of this model is somewhat better than the results obtained in the literature where the transfer of learning on-the-job was estimated to range between 10 and 15%.

**Table 6.58a Motivation to Transfer**

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.407 <sup>a</sup>	.166	.157	.417977
a. Predictors: (Constant), Performance Outcome Expectation, Motivation to Transfer, Transfer Effort Performance Expectation				
b. Dependent Variable: JOBPER				

**Table 6.58b****Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.505	.179		14.011	.000
	Motivation to Transfer	.180	.045	.246	4.038	.000
	Transfer Effort Performance Exp.	.133	.043	.212	3.094	.002
	Performance Outcomes Expectation	.017	.033	.032	.507	.612
a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance						

**6.6.4. Trainees' Characteristics and Performance**

The main objective here is to discuss if there is a relationship between the trainees' characteristics factors and job performance and which of the transfer factors is the highest predictor of job performance in the organisation.

**Hypothesis 3c**

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between learning transfer factors (Trainee characteristics factors e.g. Learner readiness, Performance self-efficacy) and perceived training transfer on the job performance.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no statistical significant relationship between learning transfer factors (trainee characteristics factors e.g. (3c i) Learner readiness, and (3c ii) Performance self-efficacy) and perceived training transfer on the job performance.

The Pearson correlation test for learner readiness and perceived training transfer on the job performance produced a small statistically significant relationship ( $r=0.185$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .02$ ).

The result suggests that the more the trainees are prepared prior to training programmes, the more they will learn and use what they have learnt in their job performance. The null hypothesis is verified and it is therefore accepted. The result supports Holton et al.'s (2008) assertion that the degree to which an employee is equipped to participate in a training activity determines how much they will learn and how much of this learning they will apply on the job. Allowing employees the opportunity to understand what is expected of them throughout the training period and to agree on how training will relate to their work performance is very important for the success of the training programme in terms of enhancing competence and job performance.

The Pearson correlation test result indicates that there is moderate positive significant relationship between perceived self-efficacy and training transfer on the job ( $r=0.421$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .01$ ). This suggests that the more trainees believe that they can change their performance, the more they are able to apply their new skills and knowledge on the job. Therefore, the result supports Holton et al.'s (2008) observation that "an individual's general belief that they are able to change their performance when they want to" is likely to improve the application of new competencies to improve job performance. Employees who feel confident and self-assured about applying new competences to their jobs are more likely to apply learning on the job. However, other studies produced different results. Switzer, Nagy & Mullins's (2005) findings suggest that self-efficacy may affect only pre-training motivation. Gaudine & Saks (2004) and Vancouver & Kendall (2006 cited in Sookhai & Budworth, 2010, p. 260) indicated that self-efficacy is not sufficient on its own to predict transfer of training.

**Table 6.59 Trainees' Characteristics and Performance**

Correlations				
Trainees' Characteristics Scales				
		Learn Readiness	Performance Self-Efficacy	Job Performance
Learner Readiness	Pearson Correlation	1	.192**	-.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.953
	N	297	297	289
Performance Self-Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.192**	1	.421**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.000
	N	297	297	289
Job Performance	Pearson Correlation	-.003	.421**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.953	.000	
	N	289	289	289

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The result of the standard multiple regression means that the model explains 18% of the job performance. This result indicates that trainee characteristics scales can only predict 18% of training transfer to job performance in the workplace. The performance self-efficacy variable makes the strongest significant unique contribution (beta = .43,  $p = .01$ ) to explain job performance, when the variance explained by the other variable in the model is controlled for. The other variable learner readiness make a negligible contribution (beta = -.08,  $p = .11$ ). The result of this model is a little higher than the results obtained in the literature where the transfer of learning was estimated to range from 10 to 15%.

**Table 6.60a Trainees' Characteristics**

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.429 <sup>a</sup>	.184	.178	.412638
a. Predictors: (Constant), Performance Self-Efficacy, Learner Readiness				
b. Dependent Variable: Job Performance				

**Table 6.60b Trainees' Characteristics****Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.649	.178		14.903	.000
	Learner Readiness	-.047	.030	-.087	-1.591	.113
	Performance Self-Efficacy	.323	.040	.437	8.032	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance						

**6.6.5. Work Environment and Performance**

The main objective here is to determine whether there is a relationship between the work environment factors and job performance and which of the transfer factors is the highest predictor of job performance in the organisation.

**Hypothesis 3c**

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a statistically significant relationship between learning transfer factors (Work environment, e.g. (3c i) Supervisor support, (3c ii) Supervisor opposition, (3cii i) Peer support, (3c iv) Personal outcomes-positive, (3c v) Personal outcomes—negative, (3c vii) Performance coaching, (3c viii) Resistant to change) and perceived training transfer on the job performance.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between learning transfer factors (Work environment, e.g. (3c i) Supervisor support, (3c ii) Supervisor opposition, (3cii i) Peer support, (3c iv) Personal outcomes-positive, (3c v) Personal outcomes—negative, (3c vii)

Performance coaching, (3c viii) Resistant to change) and perceived training transfer on the job performance.

The result of Pearson correlation for supervisor support and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.001$ ,  $N=287$ ,  $p < .982$ ) shows that there is no statistically significant correlation between the two variables. This suggests that employees who receive the support of their supervisors are not more likely to transfer their new skills and knowledge on the job than those who did not enjoy such support. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (3c i) is accepted. The finding did not support Holton et al.'s (2008) work that posits that, "the extent to which managers support and reinforce the use of learning on-the-job" determines the degree to which trainees will transfer their learning on the job in an organisation.

The result of Pearson correlation for performance coaching and perceived training transfer on job performance ( $r=0.059$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .314$ ) did not produce a statistically significant relationship between the two variables. The finding shows that employees who receive constructive input, assistance and feedback are not likely to apply more of their learning than those who do not those receive such input. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (3 ii) is accepted. This contradicts Holton et al.'s (2008) assertion that formal and informal indicators from an organization about an individual's job performance will influence how much of his/her skills and knowledge are transferred to the job.

The Pearson correlation result for supervisor opposition and perceived training transfer on the job performance produced a small statistically negative significant relationship ( $r=-0.193$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The result suggests that the more supervisors oppose the use of the new skills and knowledge learned in training, the less likely are employees to use their new skills and knowledge. Therefore, the null hypothesis (3 iii) is accepted. The above result supports the work of Holton et al. (2008) which posits that the extent to which individuals perceive negative responses from managers when applying skills learned in training will determine the extent the skills and knowledge will be transferred. Therefore, the null hypothesis is supported and it is accepted.

The Pearson correlation test for peer support and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.045$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p < .441$ ) indicates there is no statistically significant relationship between peer support and job performance. The result illustrates that employees who enjoy

the support of their peers are not likely to apply more of their new competencies on the job than those who do not receive the support of their peers. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (3 iv) is accepted. This finding did not support Holton et al.'s (2008) argument that "the extent to which peers reinforce and support use of learning on-the-job" will determine the degree to which they will transfer their new skills and knowledge learned on the job.

The result of the Pearson correlation test indicates there is no statistically significant correlation between resistance to change and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r = .045$ ,  $n = 289$ ,  $p < .449$ ). The result suggests that the rate at which employees are encouraged or discouraged to use learning do not influence the transfer of learning on the job. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (3c v) is verified and it is accepted. The result did not support the work of Holton et al. (2008) which suggests that "the extent to which prevailing group norms are perceived by individuals to resist or discourage the use of skills and knowledge acquired in training" determines how the competences are transferred on the job.

The result of Pearson correlation for performance outcomes - positive and perceived training transfer on the job performance produced no statistically significant relationship ( $r = .045$ ,  $n = 289$ ,  $p < .467$ ). The finding suggests that the extent to which employees expect positive returns for using their new skills and knowledge on the job did not lead to more utilisation of the skills and knowledge learned in training on the job performance. In other words, the degree of reward for using new learning on the job does not lead to an increase in the application of the new skill to the job. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (3c vi) is verified and it is accepted. The result did not support the work of Holton et al. (2008) which suggests that "the degree to which applying training on the job leads to outcomes that are positive for the individual".

There is no statistically significant relationship between personal outcomes - negative and perceived job performance ( $r = -.100$ ,  $N = 289$ ,  $p < .090$ ). This also suggests that the degree to which employees think that not applying learning on the job will lead to negative outcomes does not influence the application of learning on the job. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (3c vii) is verified and it is accepted. The result did not support the work of Holton et al. (2008) which suggests that "the extent to which individuals believe that if they do not apply

new skills and knowledge learned in training ... will lead to outcomes that are negative” influences the application of new learning.

In order to determine the extent to which each learning transfer factor (LSTI) can predict learning transfer, and which is the best predictor of transfer of learning on the job, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted.

**Table 6.61 Work Environment**

Correlations									
Work Environment Scale									
		Sup Supp	Perf. Coach	Supp Oppos	Peer Supp.	Resist Chang	Perform Outcome Positive	Perf Outcme Neg	Job Perf.
Super Support	Pearson Correlation	1	.304**	.120*	.522**	.081	.491**	.342**	.001
	Sig. (2- tailed)		.000	.040	.000	.166	.000	.000	.982
	N	295	295	295	295	295	295	295	287
Perform. Coaching	Pearson Correlation	.304**	1	.261**	.404**	.308**	.215**	.145*	.059
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.314
	N	295	297	297	297	297	297	297	289
Super Opp.	Pearson Correlation	.120*	.261**	1	.025	.493**	.158**	.270**	-. .193**
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.040	.000		.665	.000	.006	.000	<b>.001</b>
	N	295	297	297	297	297	297	297	289
Peer Support	Pearson Correlation	.522**	.404**	.025	1	-.144*	.438**	.409**	.045
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.665		.013	.000	.000	.441
	N	295	297	297	297	297	297	297	289
Resist to Change	Pearson Correlation	.081	.308**	.493**	-.144*	1	.084	-.053	-.045
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.166	.000	.000	.013		.147	.366	.449
	N	295	297	297	297	297	297	297	289
Perform Outcomes Positive	Pearson Correlation	.491**	.215**	.158**	.438**	.084	1	.411**	.043
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.000	.006	.000	.147		.000	.467
	N	295	297	297	297	297	297	297	289
Perform Outcomes Negative	Pearson Correlation	.342**	.145*	.270**	.409**	-.053	.411**	1	-.100
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.012	.000	.000	.366	.000		.090
	N	295	297	297	297	297	297	297	289
JOBPER	Pearson Correlation	.001	.059	-. .193**	.045	-.045	.043	-.100	1
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.982	.314	.001	.441	.449	.467	.090	
	N	287	289	289	289	289	289	289	289

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The result of the standard multiple regression means that the model explains 6% of job performance. This result indicates that workplace environment scales can only predict 6% of training transfer to job performance in the workplace. The supervisor opposition variable makes the strongest significant unique contribution (beta = -.23, p = .001) to explain the

performance, when the variance explained by the other variables in the model is controlled for. The other variables make negligible contributions, with performance coaching (beta = .10,  $p = .15$ ). The result of this model is a little bit lower than the results obtained in the literature where the transfer of learning has been estimated to range between 10 and 15%.

**Table 6.62a Work Environment Variables**

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.252 <sup>a</sup>	.064	.040	.442582
a. Predictors: (Constant), Performance Outcomes Positive, Resistance to Change, Performance Coaching, Performance Outcomes Negative, Supervisor Support, Supervisor Opposition, Peer Support				
b. Dependent Variable: Job Performance				

**Table 6.62b**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.846	.172		22.407	.000
	Supervisor Support	-.018	.043	-.031	-.425	.671
	Performance Coaching	.052	.036	.100	1.431	.154
	Supervisor Opposition	-.112	.034	-.237	-3.307	.001
	Performance Outcomes Negative	-.040	.037	-.078	-1.100	.272
	Resist to Change	.023	.036	.047	.642	.521
	Peer Support	.021	.045	.037	.462	.645
	Performance Outcomes Positive	.035	.032	.080	1.113	.267
a. Dependent Variable: Job Performance						

### 6.6.6. LSTI and Job Performance

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of the control transfer measures (trainees characteristics, motivation, environment and ability scales) to predict the level of employees' job performance. Preliminary analysis was conducted to ensure no violation of the assumption or normality, linearity, and multicollinearity. Learning readiness and performance self-efficacy (trainee characteristics scales) were entered in step 1, explaining 18% in the variance in job performance. Performance outcome expectation, motivation to transfer, transfer effort and performance expectation (motivation scales) were in step 2 and explain 6% in the variance in the employees' job performance. Supervisor opposition, performance outcome negative, performance coaching, supervisor support, resistance to change, personal outcomes-positive, and peer support (work environment scales) were entered in step 3, explaining 4% of the variance in job performance. After entering content validity, personal capacity, transfer design and opportunity to use learning (ability scales) at step 4 explain 4% of the variance. The total variance explained by the model as whole was 33%,  $F(16, 270) = 8.11, p < .001$ . In the final model, only four of the control measures were statistically significant, with the motivation to transfer scale recording the highest beta value (beta = .24,  $p < .001$ ). Performance self-efficacy recorded the second highest beta value (beta = .22,  $p < .001$ ). Personal capacity had the third highest beta value (beta = .19,  $p < .027$ ) and transfer design has the fourth highest beta value (beta = .16,  $p < .005$ ). It is important to note that peer support is very close to reaching a statistically significant level (beta = .15,  $p < .051$ ).

**Table 6.63a Predictor of Job Performance**

Model Summary <sup>e</sup>									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.429 <sup>a</sup>	.184	.178	.412611	.184	32.062	2	284	.000
2	.498 <sup>b</sup>	.248	.234	.398294	.064	7.928	3	281	.000
3	.536 <sup>c</sup>	.287	.256	.392685	.039	2.155	7	274	.038
4	.570 <sup>d</sup>	.325	.285	.385034	.038	3.749	4	270	.005

Dependent Variable: Job Performance

**Table 6.63b**

ANOVA <sup>a</sup>						
	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10.917	2	5.458	32.062	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	48.350	284	.170		
	Total	59.267	286			
2	Regression	14.690	5	2.938	18.520	.000 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	44.577	281	.159		
	Total	59.267	286			
3	Regression	17.016	12	1.418	9.196	.000 <sup>d</sup>
	Residual	42.251	274	.154		
	Total	59.267	286			
4	Regression	19.239	16	1.202	8.111	.000 <sup>e</sup>
	Residual	40.028	270	.148		
	Total	59.267	286			

### 6.7. Performance Competence and Performance

#### Hypothesis 5a

H<sub>0</sub>: There is a significant relationship between the perceived skills and knowledge (performance competence) gained from T&D and perceived employees' job performance.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant relationship between the perceived skills and knowledge (performance competence) gained from T&D and perceived employees' job performance.

Pearson correlation was carried out to determine whether T&D can help to improve employees' job performance. The result obtained indicates a moderate association between T&D and employees' performance (.444, n=289, p<.000). The result suggests that an increase in the acquisition of skills and knowledge and capability in T&D lead to improvements in an employee's job performance. Put differently, the higher the levels of skills and knowledge gained from T&D, the higher the performance of the employees. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. The result was consistent with the results of past studies in the field. A study conducted by the Centre for Business Research (2003) indicated that three-quarters of the respondents felt that T&D improved labour productivity. About seventy-five per cent of the respondents in Cosh, Hughes, Bullock & Potton's (2003) study indicated that training had improved their labour productivity. Other studies including Farahbakhs (2010) and Colombano & Krkoska (2006) suggest that training leads to improved employee performance.

**Table 6.64a Performance Competence and Performance**

		Performance Competence	Job Performance
Performance Competence (T&D)	Pearson Correlation	1	.444**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	289	289
Job Performance	Pearson Correlation	.444**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	289	289

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Table 6.64b****Directors' Responses**

Effectiveness of the Training on Labour Productivity				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<b>Comparing Labour Productivity for 2010 and 2011</b>	Productivity NRC has grown a lot larger in 2011.	7	87.5%	"Productivity is a lot larger"
	Training increased the overall productivity of the employees.	1	12.5%	"The training definitely increased the efficiency and the effectiveness of the employees and the overall employees' productivity. The most important reason in training employees' is the improvement in their performance and enhancement of their capabilities".
<b>Comparing with other organisations</b>	Labour productivity of NRC remains at average compare to other organisations	4	50%	"We are competing at an average".
	Nigerian Railways is a lot below others.	2	25%	"No, we compare poorly to other organisations in the sector, having said that I must say we are improving, and soon we will soon be even with the others".

## 6.8. Overall Organisational Performance

### Hypothesis 5b

H<sub>0</sub>: There is significant relationship between overall individual performances and overall organisational performance.

H<sub>0</sub>: There no significant relationship between overall individual performances and overall organisational performance.

In order to analyse whether T&D interventions had any relationship with organisational performance in the NRC, Pearson correlation was carried out between the overall individual performance as a result of the T&D and the overall organisational performance. The overall individual and organisational performance were obtained by asking the respondents to state the extent to which T&D has helped them to improve their performance. The result obtained shows that there is moderate association between overall individual performance and overall organisational performance as a result of the T&D initiatives carried out in the organisation (.465, n = 297, P < .001). Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that there is a significant relationship between the improvement of overall employee job performance and overall organisational performance as a result of the T&D initiatives conducted in the organisation is accepted. Further information was gathered from the Directors to supplement the results obtained from the employees. Consistent with the result obtained from the employees, all the Directors confirmed that the T&D had improved overall organisational performance. –A training and development program has a way of helping to increase both employee morale and performance. Offering relevant training programs sends a message to your staff that professional development is a priority to your organization. Employees realise that training sessions cost the organization money and time, which increases the perceived value. Training employees to improve their skill will increase their efficiency and job performance. This is what is happening now in NRC”. This result indicates that the more overall individual employee performance increases as a result of T&D, the more overall organisational performance will improve. The result is consistent with other studies in the field. Senge (1999) argued that learning in organisations (through T&D) leads to knowledge acquisition, which leads to team knowledge sharing, greater motivation, social interaction, flexibility and more creativity; together, these lead to an increase in quality products, greater

work productivity, and profit. Well-trained employees improve the ability of the organisation to be creative and creativity increases production through efficiency and effectiveness.

Although the training increased the efficiency and effectiveness of the employees and overall employee productivity, all the respondents indicated that it was not enough to increase the organisation's profits. This response was corroborated by the NRC's annual financial report which shows, while there was marked improvement in the organisation's financial standing, there was no financial profit. This was attributed to huge financial investment by the federal government in efforts to revitalise the NRC: "no profit yet; we have not started making profit after the rehabilitation initiatives, we are still on the road to recovering, NRC is still subsidised by the federal government" The above response was made by all the Directors who were interviewed. Furthermore, 87.5% of the Directors felt that the NRC's financial performance is poor when compared with other organisations. Further information gathered from the financial reports verifies the results obtained from the Directors; although NRC had made considerable financial improvements in 2011, no financial profit was made. The information obtained from the employees was not incorporated into the analysis. It was considered unreliable since they were not sufficiently well-informed to give accurate information on the financial standing of the organisation, as financial reports had not been made public as at the time of data collection.

**Table 6.65 Overall Organisational performance**

<b>Correlations</b>			
		Overall individual Performance	Over Organisational Performance
Overall individual Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.465**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	297	297
Over Organisational Performance	Pearson Correlation	.465**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	297	297
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

**Table 6. 65b Directors' Responses**

Effectiveness of the Training on Overall Performance				
Categories	Definition of the categories	Percentage of the Respondents		Examples
<b>Overall Organisational Performance</b>	Overall performance improved very much.	8	100%	"A training and development program has a way of helping to increase both employee morale and performance. Offering relevant training programs sends a message to your staff that professional development is a priority to your organization. Employees realise that training sessions cost the organization money and time, which increases the perceived value. Training employees to improve their skill will increase their efficiency and job performance. This is what is happening now in NRC".
<b>Pre-tax profit</b>	There was no profit made in the financial year 2011.	8	100%	"No profit yet; we have not started making profit after the rehabilitation initiatives, we are still on the road to recovering, NRC is still subsidised by the federal government".
<b>Compare with other organisations</b>	Nigerian Railway is not competing favourably well with other organisations in the same sector.	7	87.5%	"Right now we compares poorly to air, road and sea sectors" "Still depend on the Federal government subsidy".

### 6.3. Framework for Training and Development

Objective 6: To develop a framework for essential practices for T&D in both public and private organisations in Nigeria and around the world and to make recommendations which inform both practice and policy.

In line with the objective stated above, an extensive secondary literature review was carried out which culminated in the new framework presented in Figure 6 below that shows essential practices for T&D for both public and private organisations in Nigeria and around the world.

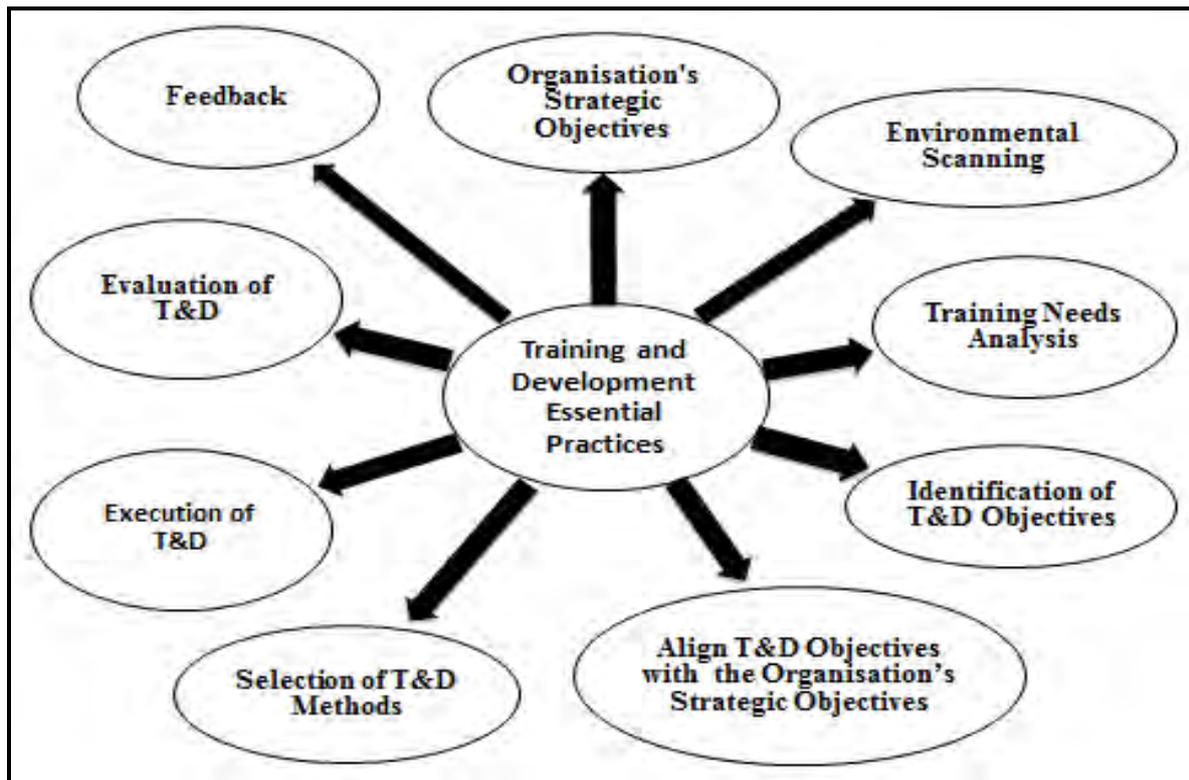


Figure 6

#### 6.4. Holton 111 1996 HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model

This study effectively tested the Holton (1996) HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model and Bates's (2008) Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) measuring model. Some sub-variables mentioned in this model were found to be effective in influencing training transfer. However some of the sub-variables tested did not support Holton 111's (1996) arguments. Suggestions will be made as to why some of the variables did not support Holton's (1996) assertions.

#### 6.5. Conclusion

There is ample evidence to suggest that T&D interventions in the NRC contributed effectively to all employees' skills, knowledge, confidence and morale, irrespective of department or positions in the organisation. The findings of the study concur with previous research findings which indicated that T&D impacted on employees' skills and knowledge. The quantitative and qualitative data analysis provided more insight into the state of T&D in the NRC and the perceived effects of T&D on employees and the organisation, respectively.

The T&D interventions in the NRC were found to have a positive impact on employee and organisational performances, which supported previous findings in the literature. Training and development was also found to have improved employees' job satisfaction, reduced turnover intention, increased commitment to the organisation, and improved employee retention. However, T&D in the NRC did not improve the organisational bottom-line. Transfer design, personal capacity, opposition to use learning, motivation to transfer, learner readiness, performance self-efficacy, transfer effort and supervisor opposition were found to have a statistically significant influence on transfer of learning in the organisation. However, the model explained only 33% of transfer of learning in the NRC. Although small, this percentage is well above the findings of the previous studies, which indicated that transfer rate is about 10 to 15%. The next chapter presents the discussion of the results of the study.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

#### **7.0. Introduction**

Experts in the field of T&D and the literature have identified the different factors that impact on motivation to transfer and transfer effectiveness. This study builds on the available information and the Holton III 1996 training and measuring model to gain a deeper understanding of the NRC's training transfer system and its effectiveness in influencing transfer. The primary focus was the factors that influence training transfer and how they have helped in transferring skills and knowledge on the job performance. The study established that, overall, ability, motivation, work environment and learner characteristics can influence transfer of learning on the job performance. Secondly, the study aimed to provide a holistic view of T&D practices in a public organisation in Nigeria and the NRC employees' and Directors' perceptions of how effective they have been in impacting skills and knowledge and influencing performance in order to make recommendations for future implementation of T&D interventions. The aim of this study was to provide a holistic view of T&D practices in a public organisation in Nigeria in order to make recommendations for future T&D interventions and formulate a framework for essential practices for T&D for future use in higher learning institutions, and public and private organisations. The results confirmed that T&D can positively impact trainees' performance competence, which leads to increased employee commitment, job performance and job satisfaction, and reduces employee turnover intention. However, the effect of T&D on performance ranges from small to moderate; which indicates that it may have been overestimated in previous studies. Importantly, the study highlighted that the influence of learning transfer factors is contextual or organisation specific.

#### **7.1. Discussion of Training Programme**

##### **7.1.1. Employee Participants**

All the respondents (employees and Directors) pointed out that the entire NRC workforce had participated in the T&D initiatives organised by the organisation. Director 1 mentioned that —every one of them participated in the training, except for those who were not yet employed at that particular period. We ensure that all employees have access to the training and development required to help NRC accomplish its mission and goals”. This was due to the fact that the federal government wants to revamp the entire NRC structure. The organisation has not conducted training for a very long time due to persistent neglect on the part of the government. Under normal circumstances, those who need it and are willing to participate would receive training. Training transfer factors cited by Holton et al. (2008) include learner readiness and performance self-efficacy. For a learner to learn and be able to transfer learning on the job, he/she must be prepared to learn and have confidence that he/she will be able to use the learning even in a difficult working environment. Learning should be voluntary; forcing people to participate in training will not produce positive results.

### **7.1.2. Gender of those Participating in Training**

The findings showed that the majority of the employees (65%) who participated in training are men; also majority of the director interviewed were men. Although there have been no recent studies to support this finding, Royalty’s (1996) preliminary analysis established that men undergo more training than women; men were said to receive approximately 25% more training than women. Furthermore, the adult literacy rate in Nigeria stood at 59.4% for women and 74.4% for men in 2005 (Adeniran, (2007). The findings of the present study suggest that this trend is continuing in public organisations. Furthermore, the result is an indication that the current recruitment and training of civil servants in Nigeria favours men. However, there may be other reasons for this result, e.g., women taking early retirement to care for their families. According to Okegbola (2013), —it is believed that women/men are critical development actors and can be powerful catalysts for change”; it is therefore important that both genders have equal employment opportunities and be allowed to develop their potential free from constraints.

### **7.1.3. Age of Participants**

It has been recognised that individuals from all backgrounds, in terms of gender, age and levels of education, experience personal and professional development which is transferred to the workplace (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 70). The participants were not evenly distributed across age groups; the majority were 18 to 55 years old, while only 3% of the employees were aged 56 to 60 years. This could be due to employees having taken early retirement as a result of the NRC's decades of inactivity and subsequent financial difficulties. Furthermore, it could be attributed to the fact that some employees retired because they had completed the years of service stipulated in the civil service rules and regulations. Employees who have served for 35 years but not yet reached the age of 60 are required to retire. However, the ages of the interviewees were unfortunately not determined; this was omitted from the questionnaire in error.

#### **7.1.4. Training Methods used**

One of the objectives of the study was to determine the type of T&D method/s used in the NRC. The findings indicate that the majority of the respondents mentioned career management (142 or 16%), 94 employees (11%) mentioned job rotation, and 19 or 2% cited understudying. Eighteen or 2% mentioned apprenticeship. These responses indicate that the NRC used a wide variety of methods in their T&D initiatives. This is essential because different needs call for different methods of resolving them. Moreover, in order for the organisation to meet contemporary and future challenges, T&D requires a range of learning activities that use different methods to improve employees' skills, knowledge and performance. The results of this study are in line with the opinion of experts in the field of T&D that there is no one best method of training staff; hence any method/s that suits the needs of the organisation can be applied. Furthermore, Olaniyan & Ojo (2009) pointed out that training can be conducted using different approaches or a combination of different approaches. According to Thorne & Mackey (2001), there is a vast array of T&D methods but all depend on the needs and circumstances that warrant training. Conducting training by using new technologies and adjusting to innovative training methods, for instance computer aided training, and audio/visual tools are more effective. Combined with conventional methods, e.g. lectures, conferences, and workshops, these current techniques offer an effective means for conducting training in organisations (Niazi, 2011).

### 7.1.5. Achievement of Organisational Objectives

To investigate the effectiveness of T&D in helping the organisation achieve its goals and objectives, employees were asked whether the T&D initiatives were effective in achieving the organisation's goals and objectives. Two hundred and twenty one (74.7% of the employees) responded that the training really assisted the organization in achieving its objectives. Only 56 or 18.9% of the employees did not feel that the objectives were fulfilled and about 6.4% said it almost accomplished its objectives. Seven of the eight Directors (87.5%) corroborated the employees' perceptions and affirmed that the objectives of the organisation were highly fulfilled. "We achieved our expectations, in the sense that our output has increased by over hundred per cent both for the number of passenger moved and the movement of freight" (see table 2.1). There is therefore ample evidence to conclude then that there is a significant difference between those who said 'yes' and those who answered 'no' to this question. As far as the management and the employees are concerned, the planning and execution of the T&D was a resounding success. These responses can be further authenticated by examining the number of passengers moved by the NRC in 2010 and 2011; in 2010 the number of passengers and freight moved was 1,514,215 and 142,247, respectively. In 2011 the number of passengers and freight carried were 3,493,443 and 341,396, respectively (NRC, 2012, see table 2.1). This correlates with the Kalaiselvan & Naachimuthu's (2011) findings which indicate that if T&D is acknowledged as strategic approach, it becomes a powerful tool for achieving company objectives. A successful T&D initiative helps the organisation to reflect on the skills, knowledge and attitudes essential for the achievement of its organisational goals and competitive advantage. Therefore, T&D must be aligned with the organisational strategic objectives in order to help management achieve these objectives (D'Natto et al., 2008).

### 7.1.6. Achievement of T&D Objectives

All the directors were aware of the aims and objectives of T&D and the extent to which these were met. Some of the T&D objectives mentioned were, "to enhance the employee's skills, improve their job knowledge; we want to provide opportunity and broad structure for the development of human resources' technical and behavioural skills in our organisation. And finally and the most important, we train to improve performance of our employees" (Director 2). Another Director commented that "we understand that training has a way of indirectly

helping employees to achieve the organisational goals as well as their individual goals. We want to help the employees in attaining personal growth through training. We want to achieve optimum utilisation of our human resources through training and development initiatives” (Director 3). He also said that ~~we~~ achieved our expectation, in the sense that our output has increased by over 100% both for the number of passenger moved and the movement of freight. In other words efficiency has increased we recorded fewer accidents and less human errors this year 2011 than previous years” (Director 3). The responses obtained from employees were not as decisive as those of the directors.

Furthermore, the results obtained indicated that 93 or 37% of the NRC employees did not know the organisation’s T&D objectives for the 2010/2011 financial year. This implies that many of the trainees did not know how training initiatives would impact on their performance or benefit the organisation; a recipe for project failure. What the organisation set out to achieve (the objectives) denotes the benefits of training programmes to the organisation. Objectives state what the employees should learn and do after a training activity. Furthermore, the T&D strategic objectives should contribute directly towards the organisation’s business goals and objectives (Niazi, 2011). However, some organisations send their staff on training programmes without properly identifying the training objectives and without establishing what the employees should achieve when they return. Despite the positive outcomes of the NRC training programmes, a lot more could have been achieved if all employees were better informed of what the programme was about.

#### **7.1.7. Training Needs Analysis**

Whether or not T&D will succeed in its intent and purposes depends on successful TNA. Training and development need analysis is very important for the achievement of the objectives of the T&D initiatives and those of the organisation. Before developing training opportunities for employees, it is important to clearly identify who the target participants are and their needs; the training process should be sufficiently flexible to cater for the diverse needs of all the participants. About 54% of the respondents confirmed that TNA was not conducted at all levels. One affirmed that they did conduct TNA ~~yes~~ we did; these are all the different files from the departments and their records. If we don’t conduct training needs analysis how can we know which employee to be trained and what they are to be trained for” (Director 4). However, almost all the Directors agreed that the NRC conducted TNA at all

levels of employees (87.5%). One of the directors stated that only employees at grade ten and above took part in the TNA, —a... yes, but it was conducted among the employees from level 10 and above. This is to enable us to decide where to send them and what type training that they actually need” (Director 1). The only conclusion one can draw from these responses is that TNA did take place, but not at all levels of the organisation. There is ample evidence to suggest that some employees in some departments were left out of the exercise.

These findings support Sehindemi (2010) and Adamu’s (2008) observation that many organisations do not have enough information about what should be included in or excluded from their training programme. In this case, there is a likelihood that some vital information might have been left out, as more than half of the employees did not participate in the TNA. To ensure that the entire workforce is equipped with the necessary competencies to perform their jobs, their needs should be considered when planning training in order to contribute towards the growth and success of the organisation. Through performing TNA, the organisation is able to determine the skills needed and the right type of training to ensure that employees gain these skills. Lack of proper TNA not only contributes to a lack of application of the skills learnt but also has the potential to waste resources and time. As Capps & Capps (2005) observe, a lack of proper needs analysis leads to some organisations spending huge amounts of money on training more employees than they actually need to or on training the wrong employees.

Financial and administrative implications arise in relation to the manner in which the NRC’s T&D programmes were planned and managed. Valuable information was overlooked, as many employees did not participate in the TNA. The NRC may therefore have spent a large sum of money training employees who actually do not need training or on training people to acquire skills that may not be applicable to their current jobs. In-depth identification and analysis of the training needs of the organisation at all levels is essential in order to achieve the strategic objectives of the organisation. Improper identification of T&D needs may jeopardise the realisation of the key objectives of the organisation. Needs analysis is necessary for all levels of needs as symptoms of a problem frequently manifest at different levels of an organisation. Needs analysis identifies gaps in results so that suitable techniques may be selected for meeting the needs of the organisation.

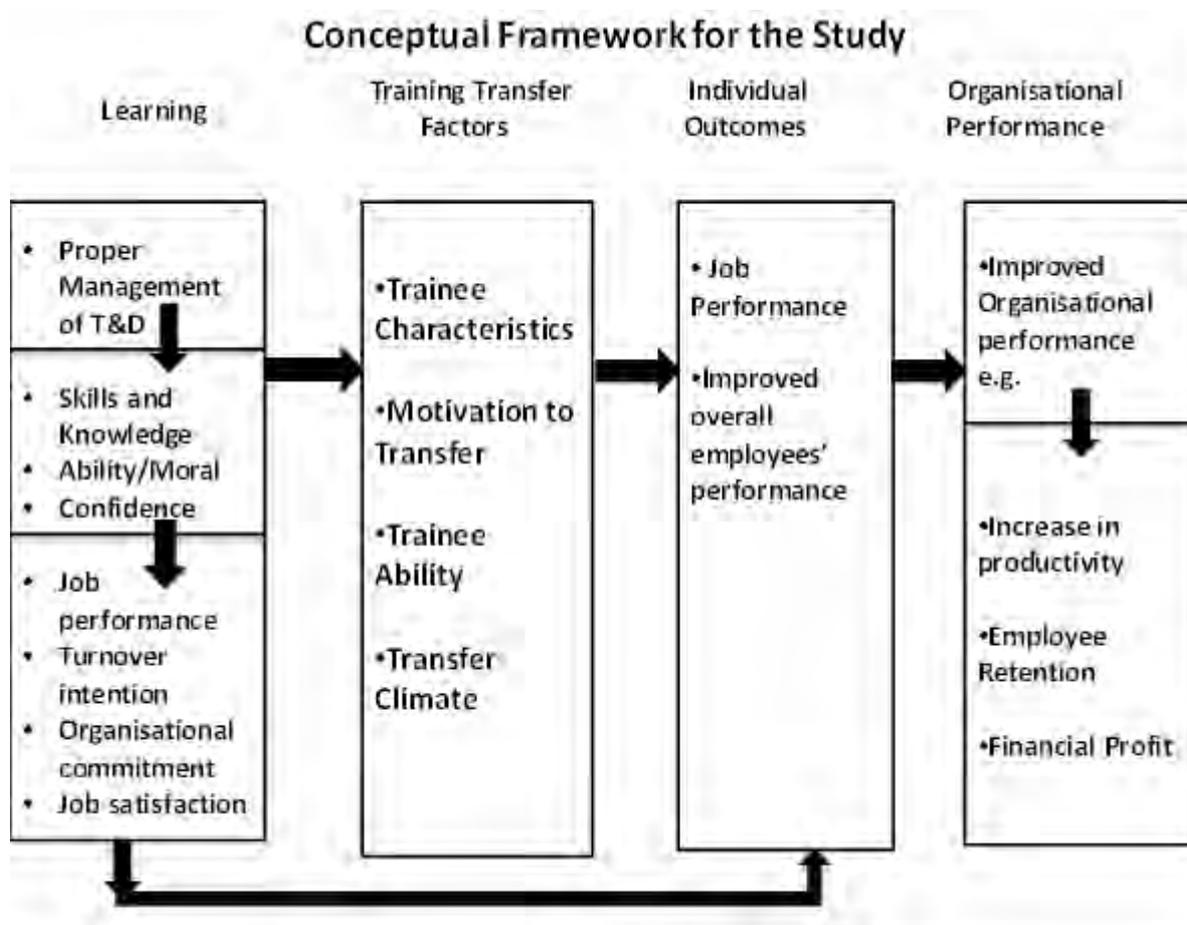
### 7.1.8. Training Initiatives Programme Evaluation

The responses regarding the evaluation of the NRC's T&D revealed similar trends to those in the literature. All the directors acknowledged that the organisation did not evaluate the effects of the training on employees and the organisation; all said virtually the same thing, "...we did not conduct any evaluation" (Director 7). This correlates with the findings of Brinkerhoff's (2005) study, which indicated that regardless of the fact that T&D activities are important for an organisation's survival, only a few systematically evaluate the impact of training on their employees and the organisation. Sofu (2007, cited in Hussain, 2011, p 48) indicated that only 11% of organisations measure the impact of training on employees' and organisational performance. Srimannarayana (2011, p. 118) reiterated that organisations do not normally measure the impact of T&D interventions. According to Cyert and March (1963, cited in Jordan & Audia, 2012, p. 211) the behavioural theory of the firm posits that decision makers only make an effort to evaluate or detect impediments to performance and improve them when they fall short of the expected standard. This may account for the fact that there was no evaluation in this case, as the Directors confirmed that the T&D activities executed by them exceeded all expectations. Effective T&D requires knowledge of whether the results obtained met the required results for individual employees as well as the entire organisation.

It is important that even successful training programmes are evaluated and outcomes made known to employees as this enables management to recognise high-performing employees; this will help to reduce employees' turnover intention (Leberman et al., 2006, p. 68). There is also a need for a continuous evaluation of a programme to ensure that the strategy is on course in achieving the desired objectives. A training and development intervention is not complete until the programme's success or failure has been evaluated and established, even when a similar programme has produced results in the past for the organisation concerned or other organisations (Bernatek & Heil, 2011). Furthermore, evaluation enables organisations to defend the financial investment in training and allows the training department to improve training courses and make better decisions (Grohmann & Kauffeld, 2013, p 137). This study highlighted yet again that organisations do not usually measure the effectiveness of their T&D programmes.

## 7.2. Training and Employees' and Organisational Outcomes

The tests and results obtained from this study were adapted from the work of was based partly on the Holton (1996) HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model and Holton III & Bates's (2008) Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) Measuring model. As well as the author's secondary research findings. The Holton et al. (1996) model was modified through an extensive secondary literature review by the author. The results confirm the assertions of Holton 111 (1996). However, not all the variables mentioned by the Holton 111 (1996) model were found to influence training transfer. Nevertheless, overall T&D was confirmed to be effective in increasing employees' competences and job performance; which may lead to improved organisational performance.



### 7.2.1. Trainings' Impact on knowledge

The results obtained for this study suggest that 96% of the employees, both male and female, felt that T&D helped them to improve their knowledge on the job. The majority of the directors confirmed the claim made the employees: “we engaged in the training to increase employees’ knowledge, skills and efficiency, increase job satisfaction, and improve the employees’ perception about the organisation. Also we believe that training improves quality of service we render to our customers, reduce stress and encourage team work and encourage performance” (Director 8). It has long been pointed out that the main aim of T&D is to acquire knowledge that improves workers’ performance (Indradevi, 2010). Furthermore, Taiwo (2007, p. 18) found an association between effective training and acquisition of the skills and knowledge needed for workers to perform well on-the-job. Training helps employees to become competent, flexible, dynamic and adaptive to the needs of the organisation (Obisi, 2011). For instance, ergonomic training imparts knowledge and skills in the efficient use of office facilities which can improve work flow, employees’ effectiveness and overall job performance (Robertson & Huang, 2006). The contribution of this study in this respect is that it has validated previous findings that training is important in enhancing employees’ knowledge.

### **7.2.2. Training and Employees’ Skills**

The majority of the employees (92%), both men and women acknowledged that T&D has helped them to improve their skills. The majority of the directors also felt that T&D helped employees to improve their skills: “the exercise was a success; employees have spoken highly of the exercise and express their willingness to participate in the future training initiatives and claimed that the exercise has impacted positively on their knowledge and skills” (Director 3). The main objective of any T&D objective is to improve employees’ skills and knowledge; therefore, the results suggest that the NRC programmes were very successful in achieving this main objective. This finding concurs with the findings of previous studies; for example, Santos & Stuart, (2003) indicated that one of the benefits of T&D for individuals is to improved knowledge and skills. Costen & Salazar (2011) suggested that training directly influenced workers’ skills and impacted on their level of competence, while Taiwo (2007, p. 18) found an association between effective training and the acquisition of skills and knowledge needed for workers to perform well on-the-job. Training employees is an important undertaking, especially when organisations adopt new strategic options requiring different types of skills, competitive abilities and working techniques. Furthermore,

a properly planned and executed training programme should enable employees to have a range of skills that could potentially enrich the organisation. This result should, however, be interpreted with caution as the NRC management noted that the organisation had not conducted T&D for more than five years; it is therefore not surprising that everyone said that the exercise helped to increase their skills and knowledge.

### **7.2.3. Training and Employees' Ability**

The results indicated that 96% of the employees (both male and female) claimed that the T&D they participated in helped them to improve their ability on the job. A Director (2) stated that T&D was executed ~~to~~ to enhance the employee's skills, improve their job knowledge; we want to provide opportunity and broad structure for the development of human resources' technical and behavioural skills in our organisation. And finally and the most important, we train to improve performance of our employees". Asked his views on the recently concluded T&D initiatives, he said that these met all the expectations stated above: "the initiative was successful, it met all our expectations, employees are happy actually" (Director 2). This suggests that these employees perceived that T&D helped them to improve their ability to do their jobs effectively. This result is in line with past findings; for instance, Adile (2009) and Jacobs and Washington, (2003) posit that T&D is an activity to help workers build individual skills, knowledge and abilities, which will eventually help them to make a substantial contribution to organisational performance. This finding also substantiated the findings of other studies; for example, employees' ability to control their working environment was found to be enhanced through training (Robertson & Huang, 2006). If training does not enhance employees' capabilities, it has failed. The aim is always for the employee to be more efficient than before he/she was trained. Training and development programmes should empower employees to maximise their potential in many areas, while enhancing their ability to deal with daily work problems.

### **7.2.4. Perceived impact of training on morale**

The results indicate that 85% of the employees perceived that T&D initiatives improved their morale at work. Training and development initiatives were successful in increasing employee morale: "commitment is very high" (Director 5). A successful programme is likely to improve employees' morale as it enables them to face the changing demands of the

workplace, especially in an organisation where training has not taken place for a long time as was the case with the NRC. Improved employee morale boosts the performance of the organisation and employees. This section of the study confirms and reinforces the findings of previous studies, e.g. Okotoni & Erero (2005, P.1) that T&D programmes enhance the optimal utilisation of employees by improving their morale and career progression. Others studies validated by this result include Rosner's (1999), who established that T&D enhances workers' morale and improves their skills. Ryan (2009) the ILC (2008); and Forsyth (2001) found that training enables employees to become more efficient and enhances their morale and self-esteem.

### **7.2.5. Impact of Training on Confidence**

Ninety one per cent of the employees (both male and female) agreed that the T&D offered to them helped them to increase their confidence to carry out their jobs. This was confirmed by Director 4: "the training has helped us; we have now more coherent employees, ready to put in their best". However, a Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no significant association between male and females employees and confidence acquisition during training  $X^2(1, n=297) = p .86, \phi -.02$ . The major reason for the increase in confidence was that the employees believed that they were valued by their employer and that the free training offered to them showed trust on the part of the management. The increase in skills and knowledge as a result of the training can also instil confidence in the minds of employees, which may enable them to handle difficult tasks better and make fewer mistakes. Training has being found to lead to job proficiency which can lead to enhanced confidence (Leberman et al., 2006).

### **7.2.6. Overall Employee Performance**

The directors were asked to indicate whether the T&D initiatives improved employee performance. Many responded positively: "we have achieved a lot in improving our employees' performance through this training exercise. The greatest value in an organisation is to increase productivity without increasing impute proportionately. The best way of doing this is through training and development. We believe that training will play an important role in the competitiveness, because it reduces waste of time and resources" (Director 7). A crosstabulation also demonstrated that the majority of the respondents (88.8%) believed that

T&D in the NRC has helped them improve their overall individual performance. Nevertheless, a Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity) indicated no significant association between gender and individual performance after T&D in NRC  $X^2(1, n=297) .37, = p .54, \phi -.05$ . The aim of the study was not to compare the effect of training based on gender but to investigate the effect on overall employee performance. Senge (1999) and Becker (1993) argued that training leads to the accumulation of knowledge, expertise and skills and these lead to improved job performance. Other reasons include the fact that employees who took part in the training believed that if they worked hard using their new skills and knowledge, this would pay off in terms of performance enhancement and recommendations; therefore, they are more likely to work hard to achieve improved performance than those who did not participate in training. Training and development enhances an organisation's chances of being knowledge intensive and at the same time enables employees to take up their new jobs or tasks efficiently (Karthikeyan, Karthi, & Graf, 2010; Hasnat, 2011). By way of example, ergonomic training imparts knowledge and skills in the efficient use of office facilities which can improve work flow, employees' effectiveness and overall job performance (Robertson & Huang, 2006). Akinwumi & Adeyanju (2011) established that the level of education and training teachers received in Nigeria had a significant effect on their performance. Other studies have established that T&D leads to increased productivity and performance (Khan, Khan & Khan 2011; Kyriakidou & Maroudas, 2010, p. 41). To be ahead of other organisations, T&D plans must include innovation; this is possible when training encompasses a wide range of training actions. Consequently, effective T&D will become part of organisational strategy and it must be aligned with business objectives and organisational performance.

Standard multiple regression analysis was carried out to establish how well performance competence, turnover intention, job satisfaction and employee commitment can predict job performance and to determine which of the independent variables is the best predictor of job performance. The result of the standard regression analysis indicates that of the controlled variables, performance competence, turnover intention, job satisfaction and employees' commitment explained 23% of the variance in job performance. Of the four variables, performance competence, as was expected, makes the largest unique contribution (beta = .41), while turnover intention made the second largest unique significant contribution (beta = .18,  $p < .005$ ). The four variables can only explain 23% of the increase in job performance. Therefore, 77% of the cause of the increase in performance cannot be explained by the

present model. This finding suggests that other factors also influence organisational performance. This suggests that employees' competences (skills and knowledge etc.) gained from training are more likely to contribute to employees' job performance than job satisfaction, organisational commitment and a reduction in turnover intention.

### **7.2.7. Training and Employees' Commitment**

Training and development was successful in improving employee commitment. The directors indicated that, "the employees' commitment is very high now; the training serves as a source of motivation Training and development initiative helps to build positive perceptions and feelings about the organisation among the employees" (Director 1). Pearson correlation produced a weak statistically significant positive association between performance competence and employees' commitment (.203,  $n=297$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The finding suggests that employees who claimed to have acquired competencies through T&D are more likely to be committed to the organisation than those who claimed otherwise. This result is an indication that employees' commitment may be enhanced by giving them the opportunity to participate in regular T&D exercises. The finding of this study corroborated those of Bulut and Culha (2010) who found that training positively impacted on employee commitment. Sunyoung & Hea (2008) showed that HRD programmes like on-the-job training, mentoring, coaching and self-development significantly influence organisational commitment. The result can be explained thus: employees' commitment can be boosted when T&D is offered at no cost to them. Such an exercise instils a sense of belonging in the individual. A further explanation is that when employees perceive T&D as an incentive, they have "a greater sense of debt to the organization" and commit themselves to the organisation where they have career prospects (Silberman & Philips, 2006; Brum, 2007; Klein, 2001; Smith, 2011). When employees receive appropriate T&D, they feel valued by their employers (Shelton, 2001, p. 44). Employees are happy to work for and identify with an organisation that is prepared to invest money in their career advancement (Wilson, 2000 cited in Shelton, 2001). Furthermore, the association between T&D and employees' commitment is that better trained employees are more competent and relish the opportunity to take control of their jobs; hence, they are more committed (Owoyemi et al., 2011, Brum, 2007, p. 2). This supports the social exchange theory which posits that individuals are likely to support issues that they stand to gain from. However this study made the major discovery that training on its own is unlikely to make a large contribution to enhancing employees' commitment.

### **7.2.8. Turnover Intention after Training**

The result of the Pearson correlation shows that there is weak but statistically significant positive correlation (.273,  $n=297$ ,  $p < .001$ ) between performance competencies and turnover intention. Furthermore the results of the interviews show that T&D has the potential to reduce employees' intention to leave the organisation. This demonstrates that employees who perceived an increase in their competence based on the T&D programme offered to them are less likely to leave the organisation than those who do not receive training. Again, this finding substantiated those of Nickels (2009) and Adenigi (2010) who claimed that T&D has the potential to decrease staff turnover and turnover intention both in the short and the long run. Shelton (2001) and Williams & Arnett (2008) found that training enabled organisations to attract and retain skilled workers. Likewise, Shelton, 2001 and Wagner (2000 cited in Shelton, 2001) indicated that the rate of employee retention is higher in organisations that are keen to train their employees. It has been found that employees who received fewer training opportunities than they were supposed to, contemplate leaving the organisation (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2006 cited in Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008). Furthermore, Pajo, Coetzer & Guenole (2010, p. 300) suggest that employees who take part in T&D are less likely to quit the organisation. The above findings strongly suggest that T&D programmes induce employees' commitment to the organisation. It therefore makes sense that employers who need to increase their employee retention rate should consider T&D an essential option. However, a new finding of this study is that T&D may have little effect in reducing employees' intention to leave their organisation, an indication that other incentives or innovative programmes need to be considered alongside T&D to reduce employee attrition.

### **7.2.9. Employees' Turnover after Training**

All the respondents stated that the employee turnover rate in the NRC was very low. Seventy five per cent of the respondents felt that the turnover rate of NRC employees was very low compared with other organisations. The majority of the directors stated that the T&D helped to reduce the staff turnover rate: —w have very low employees' turnover in recent times, except for those who are retiring and few who were relieved of their duties because they were no longer adding value to the organisation” (Director 2). Twenty five percent of the respondents felt that there had been no change in the employee turnover rate over the past

year: “The turnover was more or less the same, because we never had problem with employees’ turnover in the past, except for those who retired either voluntarily or otherwise” (Director 3). This finding authenticates those of previous recent studies, e.g., Flaherty (2007) and Acton & Golden (2002) found that participation in tuition reimbursement training exercises increases employee retention. Blenkner & Rose’s (2006) study demonstrated that inadequate initial training, poor orientation to the job and lack of on-going training were among the major factors contributing to high employee turnover. Furthermore, Korpi & Mertens (2003) indicated that the turnover rate of those who did not receive any training is up to 15% higher than those who received vocational training. Molina, & Ortega (2003) established that additional training was effective in helping organisations reduce both voluntary and involuntary turnover. A retail outlet was able to increase retention through implementing a carefully designed training plan (Shoesmith, 2008). A survey by the American Management Association (AMA) among 302 human resource executives confirmed that some development issues were effective in enhancing employee retention (Smith, 2011).

The results suggest that untrained employees are more likely to experience anxiety regarding their competence levels, lack job satisfaction and may therefore render poor quality performance to the organisation; therefore, they are more likely to leave the organisation out of frustration. However, this finding should be interpreted with caution. The low turnover rate can be attributed to the “interaction of both demand- and supply-side constraint on workers mobility” (Campbell, Coff, & Kryscynski, 2012). Furthermore, organisation-specific human capital (employees’ skills, knowledge and abilities) that has little applicability outside the organisation can discourage employees from moving from one organisation to another. In the case of the NRC, because of the nature of the organisation, employees may not be able to find employment outside the organisation. Furthermore, the very low turnover experienced by the NRC could be attributed to the high unemployment rate in Nigeria; employees cannot leave their present jobs if there are no visible employment opportunities elsewhere in the country. This study has highlighted the fact that, for whatever reason, training can be effective in reducing the rate of employee turnover; this concurs with the literature on training.

#### **7.2.10. Training and Job satisfaction**

Not all the directors were happy with the level of job satisfaction in the organisation after the T&D initiatives, with about 35% noting that, “not everyone is happy at the moment because of non-payment of salary for the past two months, so employees cannot be satisfied in this condition, although the services they render is satisfactory” (Director 3). Pearson correlation was conducted to investigate if there is any relationship between the perceived performance competence (skills and knowledge) gained during training and job satisfaction. This produced a small but statistically significant positive correlation (.135,  $n=297$ ,  $p<.022$ ). The majority of the Directors’ responses also confirmed that employee job satisfaction has improved in recent times since the training initiatives. “Our T&D initiative did not just affect productivity, quality, effectiveness, and commitment but also affects employees’ job satisfaction. Personal conversation has indicated that people are more satisfied these days than prior to the training initiatives we had last year”. This result demonstrates that employees who claimed that they had improved their performance competence based on the T&D initiatives they participated in are more likely to experience job satisfaction in their organisations. Previous studies have established that T&D is positively and considerably associated with job satisfaction (Felsteda, Gallieb, Greenc, & Zhoud, 2010, p. 1678; Schmidt, 2007; America 2001; Donald, 2009). It has also been confirmed that employees who participate in training demonstrate higher degrees of understanding of the job requirements and this can result in job satisfaction (Georgesllis & Lange, 2007; Glaveli and Karassavidou, 2011; and Spears & Parker, 2002, p. 14). On the other hand, it has been found that employee dissatisfaction was partly due to “their ... inability to get the training they wanted” (Melymuka, 2000 cited in Schmidt, 2007). A survey of 271 network professionals found that even perceived opportunity to learn new skills was sufficient to improve job satisfaction (Blum & Kaplan, 2000 cited in Schmidt, 2007). Glaveli and Karassavidou (2011, p. 2915) suggested that people who claimed high levels of perceived benefits received from training, showed higher degrees of job satisfaction. This result demonstrates that employers who intend to increase their employees’ job satisfaction must enhance their competence through constant T&D initiatives. Training can contribute to job satisfaction in the sense that when an employee receives training, he/she acquires competencies that allow him/her to become more efficient and efficiency can lead to reduced working hours and thus enhanced job satisfaction. Training leads to performance improvement and an increase in job performance can lead to job satisfaction; both are mutually reinforcing. Thus, management can improve employees’ job satisfaction by increasing the rate of T&D activities that impact positively on employees’ general skills acquisition (Jamshed, Halepota, & Irani, 2010; Jones, Jones, Latreille, & Sloane, 2008).

However, T&D are more likely to make only a small contribution to job satisfaction; an important finding of the present study is that other factors in the organisation can contribute to employees' job satisfaction. This is in contrast to previous studies that found that training had a considerable influence on job satisfaction (Felsteada, Gallieb, Greenc, & Zhoud, 2010, p. 1678; Schmidt, 2007; America, 2001; Donald, 2009). Therefore, the influence of training on job satisfaction may have been exaggerated in the past.

#### **7.2.11. Training and Customer Service**

All the Directors agreed that customer service had improved after the T&D initiatives took place. -Our customers' service has improved over the last one year". This is because training leads to an increase in operational efficiency, which results in fewer accidents and less time being wasted on administration (Cosh et al., 2003). Both the NRC Directors and employees felt that there had been a marked improvement in an organisation not previously known for the quality of its service. However, the findings of this study negate the findings of recent studies. In most parts of the world, rail transport is facing the challenge of providing more efficient services to serve the needs of the economy and meet society's expectations of improved mobility (Corsini, 2004, p.7). The above responses may have be influenced by the fact that the NRC has been neglected for so long and thus became so inefficient that any progress is welcomed and celebrated with great enthusiasm by management and employees alike. However, the findings of this study suggest that a better managed training programme creates increased perceptions of value among employees and leads to higher levels of job satisfaction. This enhances worker loyalty, generating value for the company. This value is redirected to customers, by way of better quality service, and reciprocated to the organisation through higher levels of customer satisfaction, leading to improved performance in terms of profit making (Glaveli, & Karassavidou, 2011). This study has thrown more light on the importance of the effect of training on the quality of customer service, an area that has not received much attention in the past.

### **7.3. Effects of Training**

### **7.3.1. Performance Competence (Departments)**

The Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to determine whether there was a difference in employees' level of perceived performance competence acquired during T&D based on the departments (administrative and technical). The result revealed no statistical significant difference in the performance competence of administrative (Md = 4.00, n = 175) and technical staff (Md = 4.00, n = 110),  $U = 9077.50$ ,  $z = -.813$ ,  $p = .416$ . This signifies that the level of performance competence impacted proportionally on the two categories of staff; the impact of training is not based on employees' departments. Common sense would suggest that employees in the technical department would gain more as their training was more practical than their administrative colleagues. The only explanation for this result is that the T&D content was designed in such a way that its content was relevant to both administrative and technical employees. This could not be validated as no comparative study such as this one has been conducted in the past.

### **7.3.2. Job Satisfaction (Departmental Level)**

The Mann-Whitney test found that there was no statistically significant difference in the job satisfaction levels of the administrative (Md = 3.63, n = 181), and technical staff (Md = 3.75, n = 115),  $U = 10036$ ,  $z = -.520$ ,  $p = .603$ . The result suggests that T&D may impact on employees' job satisfaction at the same rate irrespective of the employees' department. Again, there are no comparable past studies in the field to validate the present result. Nonetheless, the result is an indication that T&D initiatives can be very efficient in enhancing job satisfaction among all categories of employees. This finding corroborated the earlier finding that the majority of employees confirmed that T&D initiatives had impacted positively on their job satisfaction.

### **7.3.3. Job Performance (Departmental Level)**

The study found no significant difference in the perceived job performance levels of the administrative and technical staff of the organisation based on the T&D they participated in; administrative staff (Md = 3.41, n = 177) and technical staff (Md = 3.88, n = 112),  $U = 9222$ ,  $z = -1.00$ ,  $p < .316$ ). Again, the results suggest that there is no difference in the influence of T&D initiatives on the job performance levels of both the administrative and technical

employees of the NRC. The result suggests that when T&D objectives are properly formulated, this may lead to improved job performance irrespective of the employees' department. Lockers & Latham's (1990) goal setting theory argued that a consciously set goal that is clear and challenging can lead to an increase in performance; no distinctions were made between different types of employees.

#### **7.3.4. Turnover Intention (Departmental Level)**

The rate of turnover intention for the administrative staff ( $Md = 3.6$ ,  $n = 179$ ) and technical staff ( $Md = 3.4$ ,  $n = 113$ ),  $U = 9503$ ,  $z = -.874$  was proportionately the same. The result demonstrates that the administrative and technical workers did not differ in their perceptions of the influence of T&D on their turnover intention. This supports Pajo, Coetzer & Guenole's (2010, p. 300) finding that employees who took part in T&D programmes were less likely to quit, although they did not compare the effects at departmental level. All employees would like to remain in an organisation where they will know their job well, feel valued and are competitive (irrespective of department), hence, the increase in intention to stay (Nduchiadi, 2011; Young, 2007). This result is important for the NRC as "reduction in employees' turnover leads to a reduction in recruitment and advertising costs for the department" (Platt, 2008, p.55) and the organisation in general. Generally this section of the study contributed to the literature in the sense that no known study has considered the impact of training initiatives at departmental levels based on the functions of the employees.

#### **7.3.5. Employees' commitment (Departmental Level)**

The result of the Mann-Whitney test indicates that there is a statistically significant difference in the level of employees' commitment arising from T&D according to their department (administrative employees  $Md = 3.41$ ,  $n = 181$  and technical employees  $Md = 3.52$ ,  $n = 112$ ),  $U = 8194$ ,  $z = -.2757$ ,  $p = .006$ ). The mean score for technical staff of 164.34 is higher than the mean score of the administrative staff of 136.27. This suggests that the technical employees are more likely to perceive that training results in increased organisational commitment than their colleagues in the administrative department. The major reason for this difference could be the fact that more of the technical staff had their training abroad, while all the administrative staff training took place in Nigeria. Training abroad implies spending more money and probably more time; hence it produces more commitment.

Moreover, a lot of importance is placed on overseas training in Nigerian society as a whole. The higher levels of commitment shown by technical staff may be interpreted as a way of showing their gratitude for the higher investment in their career than their colleagues in the administrative department who were trained locally.

The points made in the above paragraph support the social exchange theory which posits that individuals are likely to support issues that they stand to gain from. Similarly, social exchange theory posits that people enter into a relationship with the aim of making the best use of the benefits they will obtain. Employees are happy to work for and identify with an organisation that invests in their career advancement. Thus, “existing research suggests that T&D provision is taken as a sign by employees that their organization desires to enter into a social exchange with them” (Newman et al., 2011). Furthermore, according to Malhotra, et al. (2007 cited in Newman, Thanacoody and Hui 2011), individuals increase their organisational commitment, if the organisation meets their expectations in relation to fulfilment of their various individual needs. This study has successfully thrown more light on the assertions of social exchange theory; employees in the technical department of NRC indeed see training as entering into social exchange with their organisation, and thus they show more commitment than their colleagues in the administrative department.

### **7.3.6. Performance Competence (Employee Grade)**

The Mann-Whitney test produced no significant difference in the perceived performance competence levels for the senior staff (Md = 4.00, n = 131) and the junior staff (Md = 3.83, n = 154),  $U = 8940$ ,  $z = -1.663$ ,  $p = .096$ ) acquired during training. This suggests that the skills and knowledge or competencies acquired by the senior and junior staff members are likely to be proportionately the same. The result negates a similar study by Clombo & Stanca (2008), which pointed out that training has a small but positive impact on clerks (administrative employees), but a significant and negative impact on executive employees. They posit that competencies for productivity-enhancing skills for white collar workers are generally acquired through advanced education, while on-the-job training is sufficient to impact knowledge and skills to blue collar workers.

### **7.3.7. Job satisfaction (Employee Grade)**

The result of the Mann-Whitney test suggests that junior and senior employees did not differ in their perceptions of job satisfaction level based on the T&D they received (senior Md = 3.63, n = 135 and junior staff Md = 3.50, n = 161,  $U = 10763$ ,  $z = -.144$ ,  $p = .886$ ). This suggests that the influence of T&D on the level of job satisfaction of senior and junior workers did not differ significantly. Both categories of staff are likely to enjoy the same level of job satisfaction after training. This is a novel finding that no previous study was able to validate. Job satisfaction will naturally apply to all employees of every department. Since the same principles applied for all employees irrespective of grade or position, job satisfaction comes about as a result of improved skills and knowledge and subsequent improvement.

### **7.3.8. Job Performance (Employee Grade)**

The Mann-Whitney U test shows that there is no statistically significant difference in the improvement of the level of job performance of the senior staff (Md = 3.88, n = 131) and junior staff (Md = 3.75, n = 158),  $U = 9564$ ,  $z = -1.117$ ,  $p = .277$  after the T&D. This result signifies that the perceived job performance of the senior employees is not likely to differ from that of the junior employees. This is an indication that there is no association between the influence of T&D on job performance and staff status. The possible explanation for the result is that the NRC employees have not received training for some years; any training will likely make a deep impression on them; hence the perceptions of improved job performance of employees irrespective of level of seniority. Again this is a novel finding that no previous study was able to validate. Job performance comes about as a result of improved skills and knowledge and subsequent improvement in job performance, irrespective of the employees' position or grade.

### **7.3.9. Turnover Intention (Employee Grade)**

The Mann-Whitney test shows that there is no statistically significant difference in the rate of turnover intention of the senior staff (Md = 3.6, n = 134) and junior staff (Md = 3.60, n = 158),  $U = 9810$ ,  $z = -1.086$ ,  $p = .967$ . The result is an indication that the senior and junior staff did not differ in their level of turnover intention after the training programme. Put differently, the result suggests that perceived turnover intention for senior employees is likely to be the same as that of junior workers. Again the result should be interpreted with caution as the unemployment rate in Nigeria is very high and is of concern to everyone. Although

junior employees seem to have a tendency to leave an organisation at any possible chance of a better offer, this has not been the case in the NRC. Every employee has a tendency to stay in an organisation where he/she has a prospect of enhancing his/her career and this is why it is important that employees undergo training on a regular basis.

### **7.3.10. Employees' Commitment (Employee Grade)**

The result of the Mann-Whitney test did not produce a statistically significant difference in the organisational commitment of senior employees (Md = 3.45, n = 134) and junior employees (Md = 3.43, n = 159),  $U = 10624$ ,  $z = -.041$ ,  $p = .967$ . This finding did not substantiate the results of past studies which tend to suggest that young employees view T&D as very important. These studies argue that junior or young employees seek opportunities to grow, advance their career and make tangible contributions to the growth of their organisation (Oloyede, 2005 cited in Shadare, 2010). Furthermore, Natarajan and Dinesh's (2011) study of 220 employees in India indicated that workers trained at younger age and for a longer period show more commitment than their senior colleagues. According to Brum (2007, p.7), training that succeeds in achieving mutual exchange between individuals will encourage employees' commitment to the organisation regardless of whether they hold junior or senior positions. This finding that employees (junior and senior and presumably young and old) can benefit from training in equal proportions is novel and is not consistent with the findings of previous studies.

### **7.3.11. Training and Morale (Departments)**

A Chi-square test was carried out to determine if there is a difference in the impact of T&D on the morale of technical and administrative staff, respectively. The test produced no statistical significant difference  $X^2 (1, n=297) = .94$ ,  $p = .147$ ,  $\phi = .09$ . The result demonstrates that the impact of T&D programmes on the morale of the technical staff is not significantly different from its impact on the morale of the administrative staff. There is no association between department and morale gained through T&D. The only explanation for the lack of difference is that T&D in itself is a morale booster which can influence any one irrespective of the employee's functional position. This is especially true in Nigeria, where many organisations still do not support T&D sufficiently, while some carry it out in an ad-hoc fashion (Akinyele, 2007). Therefore, any attempt to offer a training opportunity is

welcomed and appreciated by all. The results of this study have shown that employee morale can be improved through training. All employees want to feel valued and training and retraining is the key.

### **7.3.12. Training and Confidence (Departments)**

The result of the Chi-square suggests that there is no statistically significant difference between the confidence gained during the T&D of the technical and administrative staff respectively  $X^2 (1, n = 297, .28, p = .783, \text{phi} = .03$ . Therefore, the result suggests that impact of T&D initiatives on the confidence of the technical staff is likely to be proportionately the same as that of administrative employees. This is an indication that T&D can improve employees' confidence on the job irrespective of their department. There was no previous study to corroborate this finding. Training and development helps to boost personal development and confidence (Laing, 2009); this is the case regardless of the department where the employee works.

### **7.3.13. Training and Ability (Departments)**

There was no statistically significant difference in the improvement of the ability of the technical and administrative staff, respectively as a result of T&D initiatives in the organisation  $X^2 (1, n = 297, .54, p = .464, \text{phi} .05$ . The result is an indication that the perceived impact of T&D initiatives on the ability of the technical and administrative staff is likely to be the same. The T&D programmes must have been organised in such a way that they have the same impacts on ability for all the participants irrespective of their department. Again, there is no previous study to authenticate this finding.

### **7.3.14. Training and Skills (Departments)**

The result of the Chi-square test suggests that there is no statistically significant difference in the influence of T&D initiatives on the skills of the technical and administrative staff, respectively  $X^2 (1, n = 297, p = .83, \text{phi} = .025$ . The result showed that the ratio of the impact of T&D initiatives on the skills of the technical staff is not likely to be significantly different from the ratio of the administrative staff. Furthermore, it has been suggested that training generally influences workers' skills and impacts on their level of competence (Costen &

Salazar, 2011). Training is very important for employees in all departments; as a result, the slightest opportunity is taken seriously and the effects are acquisition of skills for all participants. Unfortunately, no previous studies were available to compare the results according to different departments.

### **7.3.15. Training and knowledge (Departments)**

The Chi-square test suggests that there was no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D on the knowledge gained by the technical and administrative staff, respectively  $X^2$  (1,  $n = 297$ ,  $p = .473$ ,  $\phi$  .). The result showed that the ratio of the impact of T&D initiatives on the knowledge of the technical staff is not significantly different from the ratio of the administrative staff. This result suggests that T&D can impact on both categories of employees in the same proportion irrespective of department. This finding is not surprising as it has been noted that employees are more likely to gain new competencies because of the length of time it took to organise training in the NRC; many employees in all departments are likely to gain one or two new skills and knowledge.

### **7.3.16. Overall individual performance (Department)**

The result of the Chi-square shows that there was no statistically significant difference in the perceived improvement of the overall individual performance of the technical and administrative staff, respectively as a result of the T&D received  $X^2$  (1,  $n = 297$ ,  $.49$ ,  $p = .50$ ,  $\phi = .04$ ). The result indicated that the impact of T&D initiatives on the overall individual performance of the technical staff is not proportionately different from that of the administrative staff. The objective of T&D programmes is to ensure that employees can execute their jobs efficiently; in turn, this will improve overall organisational performance irrespective of department. The issue of reciprocity comes to mind here; employees work hard for an organisation that helps them. Generally, companies that train their employees record better performance than those that do not (Brum, 2007). This result suggests that the NRC's T&D initiatives were successful in improving overall individual employee's performance in both departments.

### **7.3.17. Morale (Employees' Grades)**

The Chi-square test shows that there was no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D on the morale gained by the NRC junior and senior employees as result of the T&D initiatives  $X^2 (1, n = 297, .10, p = .10, \phi = .10$ . The result establishes that the ratio of the impact of T&D initiatives on the morale of the junior staff is not significantly different from that of the senior staff. Thus, there is no association between staff grade and morale gained from T&D initiatives. The junior and senior staff benefitted equally from the organisation's T&D initiatives. This result indicates that training and retraining leads to an increase in morale regardless of staff status. Moreover, as younger employees enter the labour market under-skilled and it has been shown that senior employees are "interested in learning new tasks", offering training opportunities will improve morale among both groups of workers equally (McIntosh, 2001, p.6).

### **7.3.18. Confidence (Employees' Grades)**

The result of the Chi-square test suggests that there is no statistically significant difference between the confidence gained during T&D among junior and senior staff, respectively  $X^2 (1, n = 297, .76, p = .269, \phi = .07$ . This result shows that the difference in the levels of perceived confidence between these two categories of workers is minimal. Therefore, there is no association between staff grade and confidence gained in T&D initiatives. Training therefore boosts the confidence of both senior and junior employees equally. This is a good sign when compared with Owojori & Popoola's (2008) finding that organisations do not pay much attention to the T&D of their employees, an attitude that likely contributed to the lack of confidence and morale among both senior and junior employees.

### **7.3.19. Ability (Employees' Grades)**

The result indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the improvement of the ability of the senior and junior staff, respectively as a result of the T&D initiatives in the organisation  $X^2 (1, n = 297) = 87, p = .193, \phi = .08$ . The result revealed that the difference in the impact of T&D initiatives on the ability of the junior and senior staff is statistically minimal. This finding suggests that T&D programmes are likely to benefit both categories of workers. The result did not support Owojori and Popoola's (2009) study, which found that organisations have a half-hearted attitude towards T&D of employees which has led to a consistent decline in employees' ability to deal with work-related challenges.

Although the present study is organisation specific, it has revealed that T&D can improve the ability of all categories of employees in almost equal proportions.

### **7.3.20. Skills (Employees' Grades)**

The result of the Chi-square test indicated that there is no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D initiatives on the skills of the junior and senior staff, respectively  $X^2 (1, n = 297) = 90, p = .189, \phi = .09$ . Again, this result suggests that the impact of T&D initiatives on the skills of the junior staff is not significantly different from that of their senior colleagues. Therefore, T&D may likely influence the skills of employees of different status or in different grades in almost equal proportions. This suggests that the T&D helped to improve the skills of both junior and senior employees without one group been disadvantaged for one reason or another. Common sense suggests that junior workers who are generally younger than their senior colleagues will benefit more in terms of gaining skills. This is one of the major revelations of this study.

### **7.3.21. Knowledge (Employees' Grades)**

The Chi-square test suggests that there was no statistically significant difference in the impact of T&D on the knowledge gained by the NRC junior and senior staff  $X^2 (1, n = 297) = .87, p = .226, \phi = .08$ . The result suggests that T&D initiatives may likely improve the knowledge of junior and senior staff with minimal differences. That is to say, the extent of the impact of T&D on the knowledge of junior staff is not significantly different from that of senior staff members. Generally, this study has revealed that employees of all age groups, status and departments can benefit from training; it found no distinction between the rate of influence as has been suggested by some commentators, especially in the case of senior and junior workers.

### **7.3.22. Overall Performance (Employees' Grades)**

The result of the Chi-square test produced no statistically significant difference in the perceived improvement of the overall individual performance of senior and junior staff, respectively as a result of the T&D received  $X^2 (1, n = 297) = .987, p = .842, \phi = .01$ . The result suggests that perceptions of overall individual performance based on the impact of T&D initiatives for junior staff are likely to be proportionately the same as those of senior

staff. Therefore, there is no association between an improvement in the overall individual performance of employees based on T&D and their grades. There was no available literature to authenticate this novel finding.

#### **7.4. Training Transfer System - NRC**

The main purpose of this section is to discuss the transfer system in the NRC and to analyse which of the factors can influence or hinder transfer of learning in an organisation in order to make recommendations for effective future learning transfer in the organisation.

#### **7.5. Discussions of Training Transfer - NRC**

The perceived strengths of the NRC's transfer system were encouraging; although some areas remain that may act as barriers to transfer of learning; these need to be addressed by management.

#### **7.6. Ability Factors**

The perceived strengths of the ability factors in the NRC's transfer system should be encouraged, but there are still some areas that may be barriers to transfer of learning. The opportunity to use learning mean score (3.74) for a five point scale is above average, which shows that majority of the employees indicated that they had the opportunity to use their learning on the job. This indicates that many of the employees perceived that the organisation provided them with adequate resources and tasks on the job to help them to use the knowledge taught in training. Transfer cannot take effect when employees lack these basic requirements. Opportunity to use learning can effectively hinder or promote transfer of training on the job. If employees have little or no opportunity to use learning, little transfer will occur. Thus, this factor can be regarded as weak catalyst because the score should be higher to allow employees more chances to apply their new skills and knowledge.

Personal capacity for transfer score is low (2.51); this indicates that the majority of employees were very busy and didn't have the time and energy to make the changes required to transfer learning on the job. If employees are tired and have no time to utilise their new skills and knowledge, there is a likelihood that learning transfer will not occur. This factor is

definitely a barrier to training transfer in the NRC; the score needs to be a lot higher to enable transfer of learning to take place.

The score on perceived content validity (3.79) is somewhat high and indicates that the majority of the employees perceived that the content of the training programme fit their jobs requirements. This factor can be regarded as a weak catalyst in the sense that the score should be higher; a lower score indicates that the content of the training does not fit the job requirements, thus, training transfer of learning may not occur. This is evident in a situation where authorities or training managers have not been as closely involved in the training design as they ought to have been. It could lead to a situation where new skills and knowledge acquired during training do not fit the job. Obviously, transfer of learning can only be achieved if employees perceive that the content of the training clearly fits their jobs. The finding does not support the findings available in the literature, which point out that education and training systems in Nigeria produce skills which do not respond to or match the demands of the country's labour market (Idialu & Idialu, 2012, p. 57). Okotoni & Erero (2005) and Yakubu & Kamba, (2011, p. 45) assert that manpower T&D in the Nigerian public service has not yielded the desired results. This study has highlighted another important discovery in that, in contrast with the findings of other studies, the majority of the NRC employees indicated that what they learnt in training is relevant to their work requirements and that they had the opportunity to use their learning on the job. Therefore, the nation-wide call for renewal of employees' in-service T&D to increase capacity building (Enukora, 2003) may be beginning to take shape.

### **7.7. Motivation Factors**

The perceived strengths of the motivation factor in the NRC transfer system were encouraging as many of its factors are regarded as catalysts for transfer of learning. The mean score of (4.01) for motivation to transfer suggests that the majority of the employees felt that they were highly motivated to utilise their new skills in their jobs. Therefore, they can use their skills and knowledge to enhance their performance. When employees are motivated, it is likely that they will utilise their new skills and knowledge more than those who are not. In other words, transfer of learning will not occur if employees feel discouraged to utilise

learning. This factor (motivation) can be regarded as a catalyst for the organisation as the majority of the employees seem to be motivated to use their learning on the job.

The mean score for transfer effort-performance expectations (4.0) on a five point scale suggests that most employees believed that if they put effort into using their new skills and knowledge on the job, this will lead to improved performance. This perception is usually enhanced by employees' past experience when individuals' efforts to utilise learning made a difference in their performance. Moreover, they believe that by applying their new skills to their work will lead to future productivity improvement and effectiveness. This factor can definitely be regarded as a catalyst in the sense that the high expectations of transfer performance outcomes will lead to a better training transfer rate in the organisation.

The performance outcomes expectation score (3.64) is just above average, which indicates that a fair number of the employees perceived that a reward would come their way if they used the new skills and knowledge on the job. This may also mean that the organisation may or may not associate its reward scheme with transfer of learning. When learners or employees perceive that they can obtain benefits from using their new skills and knowledge, they are more likely to make a proper effort to use them in the work place. This result is an exception to the rule in the sense that most civil servants are not rewarded according their performance; their rewards are basically dependent on promotion which is normally based on the number of years of service and not on merit. Nevertheless, this factor is a weak catalyst in the sense that the score should be above 4.0 for more effective transfer to occur.

However, in general, motivation as a factor is well managed in the NRC in comparison with what occurs in other Nigerian organisations where trainees seem to suffer boredom and frustration during training due to lack of motivation (Adamu, 2008). Many Nigerians leave the country in search of greener pastures in Europe and America (Idialu and Idialu, 2012, 56) because they are ill-motivated. The brain drain epidemic is the result of the Nigerian government's failure to meet the needs and aspirations of its highly educated and skilled professional and technical manpower. Employees are not rewarded for performance and their worth; hence, the brain drain. This study has therefore, highlighted the need to understand that there are still employees in government-owned organisations in Nigeria that are motivated to learn and to perform.

### **7.8. Trainee Characteristics Factors**

The perceived strengths of the trainee characteristic factors in the NRC transfer system were encouraging, except for learner readiness which is fairly low and may be a barrier to transfer of learning. The average mean score (4.11) of performance self-efficacy indicates that the majority of employees feel confident and are self-assured in applying what they learned in training in their jobs and thus improving their performance. If employees are not confident that they are able to transfer learning, they will not be motivated to do so. This factor can therefore be regarded as a catalyst for learning transfer in the organisation.

The learner readiness score (3.33) is fairly low, which suggest that that some employees were not very involved in the design of the programme. Their opinions were not sought prior to or after the training, which suggests that employees did not make much input before participating in the training initiatives. This signifies that they did not know what to expect during training and do not know how training relates to their job performance. In such circumstances, little learning will occur and consequently, there will be little motivation to transfer learning. This factor can be regarded as a weak catalyst; the score needs to be above 4.0 for meaningful transfer of knowledge to take place. The scores for trainee characteristics as a factor are important in the sense that trainee learner readiness can effectively increase learning transfer by as much as 70%, according to Leimbach & Maringka (2010). A trainee's self-belief affects their motivation to learn and this in turn will lead to motivation to transfer learning (Weissbein et al., 2011, p. 431). Many Nigerian organisations do not have enough information about what should be included in or excluded from in training programmes that are usually designed by public institutions outside of the organisation conducting the training (Sehindemi, 2010; Adamu, 2008). A common complaint among trainees is that they were not proper prepared for the training (Holton et al., 2003); when this happens, it becomes very difficult for learning to occur. Therefore, it is important to note that it is not always the case for all organisations; this study has made the important finding that in some organisations such as the NRC, many employees are well prepared and are self-assured that they will use their learning on the job.

### 7.9. Work Environment Factors

The perceived strengths in work environment factors need to be worked on as many of its factors are weak catalysts or even barriers to learning transfer. The score on transfer design (3.9) is high, which suggests that most of the employees perceived that the training programme was designed in such a way that it gave employees the ability to apply learning to their tasks. Put differently, the training was designed in such a way that the examples, methods, exercises and activities demonstrated how to use the new skills and knowledge on the job. This factor can therefore be regarded as a catalyst for transfer. The application of new competencies on the job is a function of how closely the examples, methods, exercises and activities used during the training are similar to those employees use in the workplace. Although this factor is a catalyst, its rating needs to be higher. This study has made an important discovery that is contrary to what is found in the literature, where it was suggested that out-dated syllabi, teaching equipment, teaching methods, and assessment methods have led to the inefficiencies in the Nigerian education system and to skills shortages (Bukar, & Mwajim, 2012, p. 249; Duze, 2010, p.119). The majority of the employees felt that the methods, exercises and activities used during training were similar to the ones they use in the workplace.

Peer support also was rated high (3.8) by the employees, many of whom indicated that they received support and encouragement from their colleagues to use their new skills and knowledge. This factor can be regarded as a catalyst (although the score should be higher) because peer support has been rated one of the factors that influence transfer of training in an organisation. Employees in an organisation where colleagues are antagonistic about using new learning can be discouraged from using their new capabilities acquired during training on the job.

The performance coaching score (3.48) is just above average, indicating that a good number of employees felt they received productive feedback from managers and their work team when they applied their new skills. Performance coaching, whether formal or informal, has the potential to influence employees to use their new skills. Positive contributions from the work team can rejuvenate and reinvigorate an individual to use his/her learning to improve job performance. When this happens, the chances are that the skills and knowledge learned can be properly utilised. This factor can be regarded as a weak catalyst; the score should be

much higher than 3.48. The fairly low score may be due to the fact that government work environments are more departmental-based; employees are managed by their HODs and there is not much team work.

The performance outcomes positive score (3.47) is just above average, which also indicates that a good number of the employees perceive that positive rewards will come their way if they use the new skills and knowledge gained during training on their job. This indicates that the organisational reward scheme may not have been strongly associated with employees applying their new skill on their job to improve performance. As noted earlier, rewards in government- owned organisations are usually determined by years of service, rather than on merit or by utilising one's exceptional skills or talents. Where this is the norm, employees may not be enthusiastic to use their skills and little transfer will take place. This factor can be regarded as a weak catalyst; the score needs to be a lot higher to allow more effective transfer of knowledge in the organisation.

Supervisor support is also rated just about average (3.46), which indicates that a number of employees perceived that their supervisor clarified performance expectations after training and also identified opportunities to apply new learning and set realistic goals based on the training. The supervisors also assisted in rectifying problems encountered when applying the new knowledge and skills and provided feedback when the employees adequately applied their new abilities. Successful learning transfer depends greatly on the attitude of the supervisor. If a supervisor is proactive and supportive, employees will be able to use their new abilities. On the other hand, if the supervisor is unsupportive the initial enthusiasm the employees came back with from the training disappears. Thus, little or no transfer will occur. This is a very important factor in the sense that the supervisor works constantly with the employees; he/she therefore has significant influence on whether or not employees utilise the skills and knowledge they learned during training. This factor can be regarded as a very weak catalyst; the score needs to be above 4.0 for meaningful transfer of knowledge to take place.

The performance outcome-negative of (3.08) is about average, suggesting that many of the employees do not perceive that there will be any negative consequences if they do not use their training on their job. Like performance outcome-positive, the mean score indicates that the organisational reward scheme may not be associated with training transfer; employees do

not think that any punishment will come their way if they do not use their new skills and knowledge in the workplace. As noted earlier this relates to the reward system adopted by government-owned organisations that is based on length of service. If this is the norm, many employees may not be enthusiastic about using their skills; thus little transfer will take place. Therefore, this is factor can be regarded as a hindrance; the score needs to be above 4.0 for meaningful transfer of knowledge to take place.

The means score for resistance to change (2.64) is high; it needs to be very low to allow transfer to occur. The score suggests that a good number of the employees do not want change to happen. This factor is a barrier to transfer of learning. The willingness of work teams or groups to devote their energy to making change happen and the degree of support provided to those who use the techniques learned in training will determine whether transfer of training occurs or not. The more energy individuals or teams devote to change and support one another, the more likely it is that the new skills and knowledge will be transferred on the job.

The perception score on supervisor opposition (2.51) is high; this score should be very low to allow transfer of learning to occur. This indicates that half of the employees have experienced opposition from their managers or supervisor when using new skills and knowledge acquired from training. It also indicates that their supervisors did not offer help in identifying opportunities to use the capabilities learned during training and did not provide feedback when employees successfully apply learning on-the-job. This factor will definitely affect transfer of learning negatively in the organisation if not corrected. It is a barrier to transfer of learning in the NRC. When a supervisor refuses to encourage the use of new skills and knowledge, employees' enthusiasm to use learning weakens; thus, little skills and knowledge will be transferred. This study has illustrated that supervisor and peer support in the NRC could be improved.

This finding of this study therefore support past work in the field that attributed the serious capacity gaps in the civil service to delays in establishing systematic T&D programmes, the lack of training needs identification and a lack of commitment to update employees' skills (Goke, 2006, p. 9). Furthermore, some organisations only half-heartedly embrace T&D, implementing it only on a very small scale when absolutely necessary (Akanji & Bankole, 2007). It is important to point out that the lack of adequate emphasis on employee

development in Nigerian organisations in both the public and private sectors was a result of a lack of understanding of the concept (Omodia, 2009). This finding supports Okoh's (2002) assertion that some organisations in Nigeria engaged in training simply to comply with statutory requirements (Dumas, Hanchanes & Royaume du Maroc, 2010, p. 585).

In summary, the responses of the employees regarding the state of learning transfer factors demonstrated hope for the NRC. The performance self-efficacy, motivation to transfer, transfer effort performance expectation and transfer design mean scores are very high. This is good news for the organisation. The transfer design, peer support, perceived content validity and opportunity to use learning are also reasonably strong. However, personal capacity, and supervisor support are weak and supervisor opposition is high; this needs to be very low if learning transfer is to take place. Resistance to change is high and needs to be low, and learner readiness is not very strong. The administration of this instrument some months after training served as a diagnosis of what really happened in the organisation and will help to indicate the state of the learning transfer system in the NRC and areas that need to be fixed. By administering the instrument, management will be able to identify potential barriers and take action to rectify them before future training takes place.

### **7.9.1. Training Transfer and Performance**

### **7.9.2. Ability Factors and Performance**

Ability factors which comprise of opportunity to use, personal capacity, and content validity were discussed to determine which of the sub-factors can influence training transfer and which of them is the highest predictor of transfer on the job performance in the organisation in order to make recommendations for future effective management of T&D initiatives in the organisation.

The result of Pearson correlation on opportunity to use learning and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.185$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p<.002$ ) indicates there is a significant positive weak correlation for the two variables. This implies that the more employees are given the opportunity to use their newly acquired competencies, the more they are likely to apply them on the job. This result supports the Holton et al. (1996, cited in Holton III, 2003) model which posit that employees' ability to transfer their new learning on the job depends on

the extent to which they are given the opportunity to use the learning on the job, for instance by providing them with resources like equipment, and material. This finding also substantiated Clark's (2002) finding that learning can be partially transferred if employees are given the opportunity to use their new skills on the job. On the other hand, a lack of opportunity to transfer skills and knowledge has been blamed for employees not being able to use learning in the workplace (Lim, 2006). Competencies, whether new or old, are meant to be applied in performance of one's duties in the work place; when that does not occur, the skills and knowledge are wasted or remain dormant in the person who possesses them.

The result of Pearson correlation found a weak negative significant relationship between personal capacity to transfer and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r = -0.249$ ,  $N = 295$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This signifies that the more the employees felt that they lacked the time, energy and mental space in their work to make the changes required to transfer learning on the job, the less likely they were to transfer learning on the job (Holton et al., (2008). Workload and high stress levels may inhibit the application of new learning on-the-job; for instance, if the work load is heavy, stress levels will be high; consequently, less learning is likely to be transferred on the job. Clark's (2002) showed that employees who are consistently heavily engaged are not likely to be in a position to put new knowledge and skills into practice due to time pressures and high levels of stress.

The result of the Pearson correlation shows no statistical significant relationship between content validity and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r = 0.112$ ,  $N = 289$ ,  $p < .056$ ). This indicates that the perceptions that training content accurately reflects employees' job requirements may not proportionately influence the actual transfer of learning on the job. This result did not support the study by Andrea & Mohamed (2003) which suggests that the extent to which trainees judge the content of training to reflect their job requirements will determine the degree to which they will use their training on the job. Park and Wentling (2007, p. 311) found that trainees with positive attitudes towards training content feel more satisfied, and more competent to transfer learning to job performance than others who have a negative attitude to training content. Furthermore, Velada et al.'s (2007) cited in Chow, Finney and Woodford (2010) finding that the understanding that training content is relevant and satisfactory is important for training transfer was not supported. It is surprising, however, that there is no correlation between the two variables; one would expect that for skills and knowledge learned during training to be used in the work situation, the

topic and materials used in training should reflect those used in the real work situation. However, the result is an indication that not all training transfer factors are relevant in all situations; this is another major revelation of this study. Furthermore, content validity alone may not be enough to induce learning transfer in an organisation.

Pearson correlation produced a weak positive correlation between transfer design and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.321$ ,  $N=295$ ,  $p<.001$ ). This signifies that employees who perceived that the training was designed to give them the ability to transfer learning on the job are more likely to use their new acquired competences to improve their job performance than those who did not. This result supports the assertion that the extent to which training has been designed to give trainees the ability to transfer learning on the job influences training transfer (Holton et al., 2008). Furthermore, Grossman & Salas (2011) posit that one of the strongest factors that influence transfer of learning is training design, while Valeda, et al. (2007) and Brown & Morrissey's (2004) findings also suggested that transfer design was significantly related to transfer of training on the job. Kasim & Sharriffah (2011) indicated that training design accounts for the major factors that influence transfer of training; while Mohamad (2003) found training design to have a positive relationship with transfer of training. Employees are more likely to transfer learning on-the-job if they think that the training was designed to encourage transfer (Holton, 2005, cited in Chow, Finney & Woodford, 2010). That is, employees or trainees can only make use of their newly acquired competence if the training is designed in such a way that what is learned can be useful in the workplace; if not, the T&D exercise becomes a waste of resources.

Standard multiple regression was conducted to determine how far ability factors can predict training transfer on the job performance and which of the factors is the highest predictor of job performance. The result suggests that the model explains 16% of job performance. Thus, ability factors as a whole can only predict 16% of training transfer to job performance in the workplace. Therefore, 84% of job performance in the NRC can be explained by other variables. However, for the whole scale, transfer design makes the strongest significant unique contribution ( $\beta = .31$ ,  $p = .01$ ) to explaining job performance, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for. Personal capacity for transfer makes the second strongest significant unique contribution ( $\beta = -.22$ ,  $p = .01$ ). The other variables (opportunity to use learning and content validity) make negligible contributions ( $\beta = .02$  and  $\beta = .03$  respectively). The results of this model corroborate the findings of

the literature where the transfer of learning has been estimated to range between 10 and 15%. It is important to note that the result does not suggest that the two variables, opportunity to use learning and content validity, are irrelevant in transfer of learning in general; this may seem to be the case in the NRC but these factors may be strong predictors in other organisations. This result is an indication that ability as a training transfer factor can be effective in influencing transfer of learning in an organisation.

### **7.9.3. Motivation Factors and Performance**

The Pearson correlation test equally found a moderate significant positive association between motivation to transfer and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.352$ ,  $N=195$ ,  $p<.001$ ). This result implies that the more employees are encouraged to transfer skills and knowledge on the job, the more they are likely to apply their new skills to their work. Holton III (1996, cited in Holton III, 2003) posits that the extent to which employees will use their new learning on the job is a function of how well they were motivated in the organisation to use their new skills and knowledge learned during training. Studies by Gegenfurtner, Veermans, Festner, & Gruber (2009); Lim & Morris (2006, p.106); and Liebermann & Hoffmann (2008) all found that motivation to transfer learning is very essential for the success of training interventions and aids transfer of new skills to job performance. Scaduto, Lindsay & Chiaburu (2008) indicate that there is a positive relationship between transfer motivation and the performance outcomes of a company, while Ng & Datmalchian (2011, p. 838) found that training best benefits an organisation when it is complemented by motivation policies. Success in training and other business exercises depend on motivation; how well an individual is motivated to do something will determine how successful the person will be. The more an individual is motivated, the better he/she becomes in that project.

There was a moderate positive significant relationship between transfer effort-performance expectation and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.341$ ,  $N=295$ ,  $P<.001$ ). This result also suggests that the more employees trust that if they use their new learning they will increase their job performance, the more they are likely to transfer learning on the job. Goal-setting is one of the motivational theories which help to clarify the understanding of the relationship between consciously set goals, intentions and job performance. –A goal is a behavioural intention that channels efforts in a certain direction through the setting of, and striving for a specific standard of proficiency of behaviour within a specified time limit”

(Gyatso, 2007). This posits that an individual puts more effort into T&D with the goal of gaining more skills and knowledge to enable him/her to become more efficient in the workplace and improve job performance. This also supports the work of Holton III (1996), which posits that employees are likely to transfer learning on the job if they believe that applying skills and knowledge learned in training will improve their job performance and effectiveness. This finding also supports the study by Andrea & Mohamed (2003) amongst supervisors which indicated that the perceived benefit of the new skills to their jobs motivated them to use them in their job performance. The expectation is that if one uses one's new competence on the job, this will lead to an improvement in performance, which will invariably lead to rewards or recommendations that the individual use the new competences and thus increase job performance.

Pearson correlation produced a small significant positive relationship between performance outcome expectation and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.214$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The result indicates that the more the employees' believe that if they apply learning on the job, the more they are likely to use their new knowledge and skills on the job. The result supports the assertion of Holton's (1996) model which posits that if individuals believe that applying skills and knowledge learned in training will improve their performance, they will be more likely to apply them. The result equally supports Andrea & Mohamed's (2003) findings amongst supervisors which indicated that the perceived benefit of the new skills to their jobs motivated them to apply them. Furthermore, the result supports reinforcement theory which emphasises that people are motivated to perform or not to perform (negative reinforcement) because of past outcomes that resulted from a similar exercise. Furthermore, positive behaviour that attracts positive consequences tends to be repeated, but behaviour which attracts negative consequences tends not to be repeated. Trainees will be willing to learn and transfer learning only if they trust that the use of their new skills will lead to positive outcomes. Therefore, the increase in job performance (especially when they are rewarded for it) will act as positive reinforcement. Furthermore, "theoretical expectancy-value theories suggest that individuals, who have high expectancies, or anticipation about an outcome, will behave differently than individuals with low expectancies job performance" (Jorgenson et al., 1973 cited in Cook 2008). These employees believe that if they work hard their hard work will be rewarded; as a result they are likely to use their competencies to achieve higher job performance. Therefore, creating awareness of how T&D initiatives will

benefit the employees and the organisation is a key to improved learning transfer and job performance.

Standard multiple regression was conducted to determine how far motivation to transfer factors can predict training transfer on the job performance and which of the factors is the highest predictor of job performance. The result of the standard multiple regression means that this model explains 17% of the job performance. This result also indicates that motivation to transfer variables can only predict 17% of training transfer to job performance in the NRC. However, the motivation to transfer variable makes the strongest significant unique contribution (beta = .24,  $p = .01$ ) to explaining job performance, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for. Transfer effort performance expectation makes the second strongest significant unique contribution (beta = .22,  $p = .001$ ). The third variable makes a negligible contribution (beta = .03,  $p = .61$ ). The result of this model is a bit better than the results obtained in the literature, where the transfer of learning has been estimated to range between 10 and 15%. While the result is still on the low side, it does portray the fact that motivation to transfer as a transfer factor is or can be effective in influencing learning transfer in an organisation.

#### **7.9.4. Trainee Characteristics and Performance**

Trainee characteristics transfer factors include learner readiness and performance self-efficacy; these factors are known to predict job performance in an organisation. The result of Pearson correlation produced a moderate relationship between performance self-efficacy and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=.421$ ,  $N=289$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The result implies that employees who feel confident and self-assured about their ability to apply their new competencies in their jobs and can overcome obstacles that hinder them from using their new knowledge and skills are more likely to be motivated to learn and apply learning on the job than those who have less performance self-efficacy (Holton et al., 2008). This result supports the findings of other studies that self-efficacy had a significant influence on job performance (Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons, & Kavanagh, 2007; Tziner, Fisher, Tami & Weisberg, 2007; Davis, Fedor, Persons & Herold, 2000, p. 864). That implies that trainees with higher self-efficacy are likely to be more motivated to learn and transfer the new knowledge on-the-job more than those with less self-efficacy. Furthermore, Weissbein et al. (2011, p. 431) propose that self-belief affects an individual's motivation to learn and this in

turn influences the motivation to transfer learning on the job which can lead to improved job performance. The main explanation for the result is that employees who are efficacious in relation to their ability to perform well in T&D will have a positive attitude towards training, learning and its usefulness. They are more likely to see themselves as capable of obtaining the rewards that may come about as a result of successfully applying news learned skills to increase job performance. On the other hand, employees with low self-efficacy may learn less and are therefore less likely to cope with difficult demands and setbacks in difficult circumstances; hence their inability to improve their job performance.

The Pearson correlation test found no significant relationship between learner readiness and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $-r.003$ ,  $n=289$ ,  $p < .953$ ), indicating that even if employees are well-prepared prior to T&D, this does not lead to a commensurate increase in the rate of transfer of learning on the job. The finding negates the assertion of Holton's (1996) model which posits that the degree to which individual has the opportunity to provide input prior to training and understood how training is related to job development and work performance will determine the extent to which the trainee is motivated to transfer skills and knowledge on the job. However, learner readiness is a secondary variable, according to Holton III (1996, cited in Holton III, 2003) which acts mainly on motivation to transfer learning; this may have influenced the result. This result also negates the findings of previous studies that a trainee's readiness to change his/her overriding attitudes and behaviours will enhance his/her ability to transfer training on the job (Valeda et al., 2007). Furthermore, the finding of Wilson's (2009) study which suggests that addressing learner readiness can increase the effectiveness of learning transfer by as much as 70% was not supported by the current study. Brum (2007, p.10) pointed out that trainees who received accurate information prior to training reported superior performance compared with those who did not receive any information regarding the training process; this finding was also not supported in this study. This has revealed the important finding that training transfer factors are company specific; a factor that is effective in one organisation may not be effective in another, as the results of previous studies seem to suggest.

The result of the standard multiple regression suggests that the model explains 18% of the job performance. This result signifies that trainee characteristics variables can only predict 18% of training transfer to job performance in the workplace. The performance self-efficacy variable makes the strongest significant unique contribution ( $\beta = .43$ ,  $p = .01$ ) to

explaining the job performance, when the variance explained by the other variables in the model is controlled for. Learner readiness makes a negligible contribution (beta = -.08,  $p = .11$ ). The result of this model is a little higher than the results obtained in the literature where the transfer of learning has been estimated to range between 10 and 15%. The result is an indication that learner characteristics can influence learning transfer in an organisation.

#### **7.9.5. Work Environment and Performance**

The work environment transfer factors include supervisor support, supervisor opposition, peer support, personal outcomes-positive, personal outcomes-negative, performance coaching, and resistance to change. The main objective here is to discuss the extent to which these factors can predict job performance and to determine the factor that is the highest predictor of job performance in the NRC.

The Pearson correlation test produced no statistically significant relationship between supervisor support and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r = .001$ ,  $N = 289$ ,  $P > .982$ ). The result does not suggest that the extent of supervisors' support determines the degree to which training is transferred on the job. It is surprising that there is no relationship between supervisors' support and transfer of learning as it is known in the field that supportive supervisors/managers positively influence learning transfer and that if the supervisor is unsupportive, the employee's initial enthusiasm sparked by the training subsides. Thus, little or no transfer will occur. This factor is judged to be a very important factor in the sense that the supervisor is always working with the employees; he/she has a significant influence on employees utilising the skills and knowledge they learned during training. However, the result did not support Holton III's (1996, cited in 2003) model which suggests that the degree to which employees will transfer learning on the job will depend on the extent of managers' support that reinforces the use of the new skills on the job. Govindarajulu (2009) found that supervisors' support correlated positively with transfer of training to enhance employees' job performance; this was not supported by the present study. Also not supported by this study was the work of Okereke & Igboke (2011), which found that supervisors' positive support of the use of knowledge gained in T&D promoted the transfer of knowledge by up to 92%. Furthermore, the result did not support the findings of many other studies, including Ismail et al. (2010); Ismaila et al. (2009); Everett, (2010); Awoniyi et al. (2002); Abozed et al. (2010); Saks & Belcourt (2006) that all found that supervisor's

feedback, encouragement and involvement during and after training programmes significantly added to transfer of training on the job. It is important to note that the effectiveness of transfer factors in influencing learning transfer is contextual; therefore the result needs to be interpreted with caution. However, the result may suggest a situation where supervisors may not have a close relationship with employees in areas related to training and development.

Pearson correlation produced no statistically significant relationship between performance coaching and job performance ( $r=0.059$ ,  $n=289$ ,  $p = .314$ ). This result demonstrates that there is no relationship between the extent to which employees transfer training on the job and the extent to which they receive helpful contributions, assistance and feedback from individuals in their workplace when putting the new skills learned from training into practice or trying to increase work performance, according to Holton's (1996) model. Furthermore, the result did not support the work of Ismail, Sieng, & Abdullah (2010) which suggests that a supervisor's feedback, encouragement and involvement can significantly add to learning transfer which obviously improves job performance. Although not many studies have been conducted on this factor, it has been suggested that performance coaching can influence individual employees to use their learning or not. Constructive input, assistance, and feedback from people in the work environment (peers, employees, colleagues, managers, etc.) in applying employees' new abilities or attempting to improve work performance can positively influence transfer. However, when employees do not receive constructive input, assistance and feedback from the people they are working with or for, it is expected that little transfer will take place.

Supervisor opposition was found to have a small negative significant correlation with perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=-.193$ ,  $n=295$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The result signifies that the more the employees are opposed (by their supervisors/managers) in using their new skills and knowledge learned in training, the less likely they are to apply their new skills and knowledge on the job. Employees whose supervisors oppose them using their learning are less likely to use their knowledge than those who receive no opposition from their supervisor. According to Holton (1996), the extent to which a supervisor opposes the use of new skills and knowledge will determine the degree to which the new competencies will be transferred; this assertion is supported by this study. This finding did not come as surprise; if a supervisor or manager is well-disposed towards training, he/she will likewise

encourage the use of the new knowledge; however, if his/her attitude is negative, the chances are that he/she will not encourage his/her subordinates to apply the knowledge acquired on-the-job (Cromwell & Kolb, 2004). The organisational climate which the supervisor and the team are a major part of is one of the most influential factors in determining whether new skills will be transferred to the workplace or not according to Egan & Barlett (2004). That is to say, employees with unsupportive supervisors are not likely to apply the skills and knowledge gained during training in their job (Switzer, Nagy & Mullins, 2005).

The Pearson correlation test between resistance to change and perceived training transfer on the job performance did not produce any statistically significant relationship ( $r = -0.045$ ,  $n = 289$ ,  $p = .449$ ). The finding did not indicate that the extent of resistance to change by the supervisor or colleagues does not determine the extent of the new competence applied on the job; there is therefore no association between the two variables. Put differently, the level of unwillingness on the part of the work team to accept change and/or encourage change may not affect the level of learning transfer on the job. Therefore, this finding did not support Holton's (1996) model which suggests that the higher the resistance to applying learning on the job, the lower the transfer of learning on the job. The result also negates Bate and Khasawneh's (2005) finding that group norms can influence job attitudes. The result may suggest that there is no dominant group norm in the civil service that will influence transfer of learning in the workplace.

The Pearson correlation test found no significant relationship between peer support and employees' perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r = 0.045$ ,  $n = 297$ ,  $p = .441$ ); suggesting that the rate of transfer of training on the job is not influenced by peers' attitudes towards the use of the new skills in the workplace. As a government organisation, peer influence may not be very effective in the NRC, as people are mainly accountable to their HODs and teamwork is less common. Again, the result did not support the Holton (1996) model, which proclaimed that "the extent to which peers mutually identify and implement opportunities to apply skills and knowledge learned in training, encourage the expected application of the new know skills, display patience with difficulties associated with applying new skills or demonstrate appreciation for the use of the new skills will determine the extent the employees will use of learning on-the-job". The finding of this study negates the work of Cromwell & Kolb (2004), which found peer support to have the potential to facilitate transfer

of learning. Martin (2010) also found that peer support enhances training transfer through feedback, encouragement, sharing of thoughts and guidance.

The Pearson correlation result established that there is no statistically significant correlation between performance outcomes-positive and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=0.043$ ,  $n=289$ ,  $p = .467$ ). The result signifies that the extent to which employees feel that applying training on the job will lead to positive outcomes may not encourage higher transfer of training on the job. This result contradicts Holton's (1996) model, which suggests that the more people think that applying learning on the job will lead to positive outcomes, the more likely they are to apply learning transfer on the job to improve job performance. The present study also negates the finding of Andrea and Mohamed's (2003) study amongst supervisors which indicated that the perceived benefit of the new skills to their jobs motivated them to apply their competencies to their jobs. Furthermore, Jodlbauer, Selenko, Batinic and Stiglbauer (2011, p. 48) found that even a dissatisfied employee is motivated to transfer when he/she expects a positive reward or acknowledgement as a consequence of transfer. This is another revelation of this study; this finding contracts those of previous studies in the field.

The Pearson correlation test produced no statistically significant relationship between personal outcomes-negative and perceived training transfer on the job performance ( $r=-0.100$ ,  $n=289$ ,  $p = .090$ ). This finding means that the extent to which employees' believe that not applying their new skills on the job will not lead to reprimands; penalties, peer resentment etc. may not influence their level of application of new skills to the job. Put differently, the degree to which individuals think that by not applying training on the job will lead to something negative does not influence their rate of application of new learning more than those who think otherwise (Holton, 19996). Furthermore, this finding could suggest that there was no link between T&D in the NRC and the reward scheme; in other word, the reward system is not based on the extent to which employees apply their new learning on the job.

Standard multiple regression was used to determine the extent to which the work environment as a model will predict training transfer on the job performance. The result of the standard multiple regression suggests that the model explains 6% of job performance. This result indicates that the workplace environment scales can only predict 6% of training transfer to job performance in the workplace. The supervisor opposition variable makes the

strongest significant unique contribution ( $\beta = -.23$ ,  $p = .001$ ) to explaining the job performance, when the variance explained by the other variables in the model is controlled for. The other variables make negligible contributions, with performance coaching making the second highest unique contribution ( $\beta = .10$ ,  $p = .15$ ). The result of this model is lower than the results obtained in the literature where the transfer of learning has been estimated to range between 10 and 15%. The result suggests that 96% of job performance can be predicted by other variables not considered in this model.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to assess the ability of the control transfer measures (trainee characteristics, motivation, environment and ability scales) to predict the level of employees' job performance. The total variance explained by the model as a whole was 33%,  $F(16, 270) = 8.11$ ,  $p < .001$ . In the final model, the variables as whole collectively explained a significant amount of the job performance variance for the employees; only four of the control measures were statistically significant, with the motivation to transfer scale recording the highest beta value ( $\beta = .24$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Performance self-efficacy recorded the second highest beta value ( $\beta = .22$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Personal capacity had the third highest beta value ( $\beta = .19$ ,  $p < .027$ ) and transfer design had the fourth highest beta value ( $\beta = .16$ ,  $p < .005$ ). It is important to note that peer support is very close to reaching statistical significance ( $\beta = .15$ ,  $p < .051$ ). This result supported the work of Holton (1996) which suggests that motivation, environment, ability and the secondary influence, individual characteristics can influence motivation to transfer learning on the job. The result also indicated that LTSI factors can predict 33% of the total perceived employees' training transfer on the job. Further research is required to determine other factors that may influence employees' learning transfer performance in the NRC.

It is equally important to note that the transfer rate for this study is not bad compared with previous studies, where the transfer rate stood around 10% (Abdullah, & Suring, 2011, p. 335; Fitzpatrick, 2001; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Kontoghioghes, 2004; Coates, 2007, Cronwell & Kolb, 2004, cited in Perryer, & McShane, 2008). However, Leimbach (2010, p. 83) found that the effect of training can be improved by up to 186% if all of the learning transfer methods are effectively applied. Only a few factors in this study significantly influenced training transfer in the organisation; this indicates that the effectiveness of training transfer systems may differ according to organisational type and types of training; this assertion was supported by the work of van Zolinge & Gulen (2007). In other words, this study has

highlighted the need to understand that the influence of transfer of learning factors on job performance is likely to be company specific as only four factors out of 16 made a significant unique contribution to predicting the influence of training on job performance. This study also found that training transfer factors can influence training transfer to a greater extent than was found in some previous studies, where transfer of training was estimated to be around 10 to 155% as against the finding of this study of 33%. It is important to note that the moderate 33% predicted in this study demonstrates that others factors might be important in enhancing learning transfer outside the antecedents linked to Holton's (1996) LTSI measuring scale model using Holton III and Bate's (2008) measuring scale.

## **7.10. Training and Performance**

### **7.10.1. Training and Employees' Performance**

Pearson correlation was carried out to determine if there is a relationship between T&D (performance competence) and the job performance of NRC employees irrespective of their department or position. The result of Pearson correlation suggests that there is a moderate statistically significant positive association between perceived performance competence and perceived job performance (.444,  $n=297$ ,  $p<.000$ ). The result therefore suggests that an increase in the acquisition of the skills and knowledge acquired during T&D can lead to an increase in an employee's overall job performance. Therefore, the more capabilities employees acquire through training, the more likely they are to improve their job performance. The finding supports one of the motivation theories (the social exchange theory) which posits that people enter into a relationship with the aim of making the best use of the benefits they will obtain. The result can be explained thus: employees may be motivated to use their learning to increase production as way of rewarding the organisation for their investment in their training. Therefore, an organisation that aims to increasing staff job performance should implement T&D on a regular basis. This finding also supports Senge's (1999) argument that learning in organisations (through T&D) leads to knowledge acquisition, which leads to team knowledge sharing, greater motivation, social interaction, flexibility, and more creativity; when put together, these lead to an increase in productivity. Furthermore, Farahbakhs's (2010) study indicated that the job performance of employees in public organisations after training was higher than it was before training. Training and development was discovered to have a positive influence on the performance of civil servants

in Abia state, Nigeria. Approximately 50% of those who had had any kind of training or manpower development acknowledged having better job performance compared with 21.2% of those who did not receive any form of T&D (Okereke & Igboke, 2011). This study has therefore shown that training is likely to moderately influence the overall job performance of employees in any organisation.

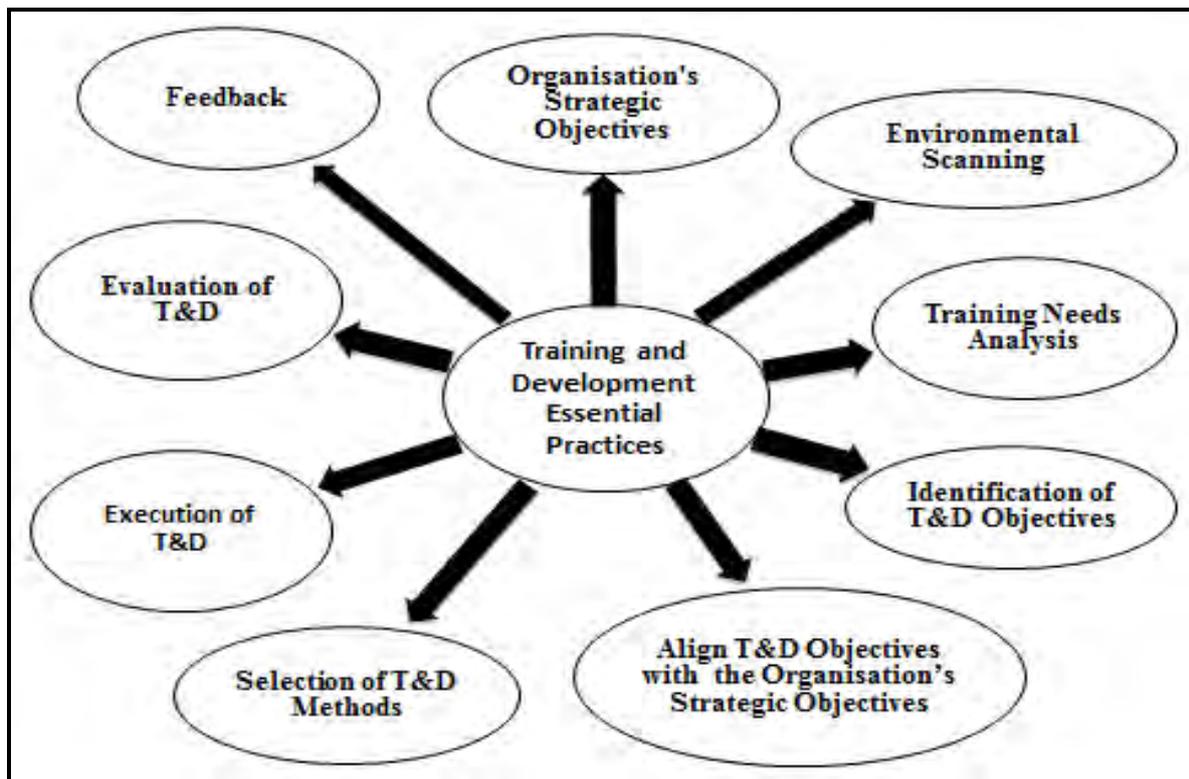
### **7.10.2. Training and Organisational Performance**

Pearson correlation was used to determine whether or not there a relationship between overall employees' performance and perceived organisational performance. The test indicates that there is a moderate statistically significant positive relationship between overall individual performance as a result of the T&D initiatives and overall organisational performance (.465,  $n = 297$ ,  $P < .001$ ). This result also suggests that as overall individual performance increases, so does overall organisational performance. The result also corroborated the Directors' favourable perceptions of the effect of T&D on labour productivity. A high percentage (87.7%) of the Directors and 17.8% of the employees acknowledged that labour productivity in the organisation improved as a result of the T&D initiatives organised by management. A further 50% of the employees stated that the labour productivity improved a little after the exercise. The responses corroborated recent findings that T&D is progressively connected to job proficiency. The connection between T&D and performance was long been substantiated by Holton et al.'s (2000) study and can be traced to Becker's (1993) classic study whose fundamental assumption was that education and training bring about increased learning and increased learning brings about increased productivity. Other studies have shown that training has enhanced organisations' ability to achieve a high level of performance and foster a circle of better performance outcomes (Ayarkwa, Adinyira & Osei-Asibey, 2012, p. 234; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2008; Galanou & Pripora, 2009; ILC, 2008; Karthikeyan, Karthi, & Graf, 2010; Bourga, Stoltzfusa, McManusb, & Fry, 2010). However, William et al. (2003 cited in Leberman, 2006, p.3) indicated that the impact of training on performance is minimal throughout the world and the findings of Percival, Cozzarin & Formanek (2013) supported the same argument.

The findings on the NRC's T&D initiative are welcome news for the organisation. Only recently have the federal government and NRC management taken up the challenge to transform the marooned corporation to its former glory, by trying to provide efficient services

to cargo owners and improved safety and operational performance to numerous commuters (NRC, 2011). The NRC has experienced a long term decrease in its ability to compete due to its poor, old and dilapidated rail routes. More importantly, the drastically-reduced and ill-motivated workforce has resulted in a significant loss of customers (Esan, 2010). This study has also shown that training can moderately improve not only individual employee's performance, but is likely to improve overall organisational performance. However, it has illustrated that the extent of the impact of training on performance has been exaggerated in the past. A novel finding of this study is that training moderately influenced performance. This contrasts with previous studies, where the rate of impact of training on performance was either too high or too low.

### 7.11. Framework for Training and Development



One of the major objectives of this study was to develop a framework for essential practices for T&D for both public and private organisations in Nigeria and around the world and to make recommendations which inform both practice and policy for the formulation and implementation of more effective T&D programmes in the future. Another objective was to answer the research question on whether a new framework for essential practices for T&D

can be formulated to enhance the planning and implementation of T&D in organisations. A new framework for T&D was developed with the aid of an extensive review of the secondary literature. Existing and emerging themes were identified and incorporated into the new T&D framework. There is a need to develop a new framework that is more strategic or proactive in nature. This was lacking in the T&D frameworks presented in the literature.

### **7.12. Holton 111 1996 HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model**

The purpose of this study was to assess the factors that may have significant influence on the transfer of training at the NRC. Based on the Holton (1996) HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model of Bates et al.'s (2008) Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) measuring model, the researcher assessed the factors that showed significant influence on learning transfer. As noted earlier, this study effectively tested the Holton (1996) HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model using the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) measuring scale, and found it to be very effective in measuring and analysing the factors influencing learning transfer at the NRC. However, some of the factors tested did not support Holton 111's (1996) arguments, as was evident in the findings of a similar study by Grossman & Salas (2011). The results of the multiple regression analysis proved that, generally, the model was a very effective instrument for assessing the factors influencing the transfer of learning in an organisation.

### **7.13. Conclusion**

In terms of the findings relating to the T&D intervention and the employees' and organisational outcomes, one important implication arising out of this study is that the relationship between T&D and employees' performance has been exaggerated in the past. The correlation analyses of the various measures of the relationship have shown that T&D may contribute to moderate increases in organisational and employees' performance. Therefore, an improvement in employees' and organisational performance in the NRC is likely to depend on factors other than T&D activities, for instance, the introduction of new technology. The NRC's recent improvement in performance may be the result of many factors other than T&D, e.g. the purchase of new locomotive engines may have contributed in no small measure to the increase in performance as this resulted in an increase in the movement of passengers and freight in 2011 (table 2.1). Therefore, previous assumptions

regarding T&D's contribution to employees' and organisational performance may have been exaggerated.

The findings of this study clearly provide support for the use of T&D to improve individual and organisational performance. The empirical findings indicate that T&D was effective in improving individual and organisational performance. There is ample evidence to show that the NRC omitted some essential practices for effective T&D, example, TNA was not carried out at all levels and evaluation and feedback were also not considered. The empirical findings support the use of the Holton III (1996) model of training transfer as a means of improving transfer of learning on the job. However, they suggest that the influence of training transfer factors on the job may be contextual. The NRC's training transfer system was found to be effectively managed and can be used for the future management of training transfer in the organisation. The next chapter will highlight the main findings of the study; provide practical recommendations, assess the study's contribution to knowledge and provide ideas for future research.

## CHAPTER 8

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 8.0. Introduction

The main objectives of this study were to analyse the nature of T&D programmes in the NRC (example, evaluation of TNA, objectives, T&D and type of training methods); as well as to consider if the implementation of T&D leads to improved employees' competences, example, employees skills, ability, confidence, job performance, turnover intention, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and organisational productivity in order to make recommendations for future training implementation. A major objective of this study was to formulate a framework for essential practices for T&D. The primary objective was to study the factors that influence the transfer of learning in the organisation and to determine the factors that made the most unique significant contribution to training transfer on the job. The nature of the NRC training programme was analysed through interviews with its Directors and administering questionnaires to employees; the results obtained were analysed concurrently. The information obtained was used to formulate the recommendations and conclusions set out in this chapter. Pearson correlation and Mann Whitney tests were carried out to obtain the information regarding the impact of T&D on various groups of employees and the information gathered was compared across groups. The LTSI measuring instrument was very effective in measuring the effects of various training transfer factors on the job, while standard regression analysis enabled the researcher to determine the unique contribution of each variable.

This study contributes to the further validation and improvement of the LTSI model (measuring instrument) which will be used for future study and measurement in the field of T&D in Nigeria and indeed, the world. A framework for essential practices for T&D was presented which was formulated from the findings of an extensive literature review. This will be essential for future T&D process formulation and implementation. Therefore, the findings of this study will serve as a pedagogical tool for a wider future study in the field of T&D in Nigerian institutions of higher learning and Training Institutes example, the Railway Training Institute and elsewhere in Africa and indeed, the world.

The research methods and statistical analysis utilised in this study were appropriate and the results yielded were tested for validity using different strategies. To avoid biases and limitation the study used triangulation methods, using both qualitative and quantitative approaches to draw inferences. The mixed method was important because the phenomena under review have different layers; therefore, mixed methods enabled comparisons to be made across subgroups of employees example, employees/Directors, technical/administrative and senior and junior employees. The research methods and statistical analysis used allowed for in-depth information to be obtained from both employees and the Directors which enabled the researcher to reach informed conclusions and make recommendations for the future formulation and execution of T&D programmes in the NRC and in other organisations in Nigeria and beyond. These as also enabled the researcher to determine the limitations of the study and suggest effective ways of implementing effective and efficient future T&D programmes as well as possible future research.

### **8.1.1. Conclusion 1 Employee Participation**

The trend in participation in T&D in the NRC inclined toward involving everyone in the programme irrespective of the desires of the individual or the organisation. Unless otherwise stated in the company T&D policy, or when government policy demands that employers provide mandatory training for the entire workforce for a particular reason; T&D programmes are always implemented based on need. Training and development can be made compulsory only when it is used as a tool to impart information on occupational health and safety, unlawful workplace discrimination and harassment prevention and response (North Caroline State University, p. 1). Under normal circumstances, T&D should be based on the needs of individual employees, and task and organisational requirements.

#### **8.1.1.1. Conclusion 2 Gender Participation**

The majority of the employees who participated in the training initiatives were men; an indication that men were favoured over women, although this may be attributed to the NRC's employment practices. However, this seems to be the norm in some organisations in Nigeria where the majority of employees who go for training are men. This trend needs to be corrected.

#### **8.1.1.2. Conclusion 3 Participants' Age**

The participants were not evenly distributed among the age groups; there were more younger employees. This might be due to the fact that older employees took early retirement as a result of the poor state of the NRC at the time.

#### **8.1.2. Conclusion 4 Training Methods**

Various T&D methods were applied in the training programmes. This is necessary at times because different training needs call for different methods. Moreover, in order for the organisation to respond to contemporary and future challenges, T&D interventions need to embrace a wide range of learning methods in order to improve performance. There is no single best method of training staff; hence any method/s that solves the needs of the organisation can be applied.

#### **8.1.3. Conclusion 5 Organisational Objectives**

The T&D interventions in the NRC were very effective in achieving the organisation's set objectives for executing the projects. All the indicators point to the fact that the T&D initiatives were very successful, e.g. employees' competencies were improved, customers' complaints decreased and the overall performance of the employees and the organisation was enhanced.

#### **8.1.4. Conclusion 6 Training Objectives**

The majority of the employees did not seem to know the organisation's objectives for the 2010/2011 financial year. There was no consensus on this issue. Thirty seven per cent of the employees claimed that they did not know the objectives, an indication that no proper planning was undertaken to ensure that employees are aware of the connection between training and its role in helping to achieve the organisational objectives. The responses provided by the employees varied greatly from better services, to efficiency, generating revenue, transformation and increasing customer services.

There was no proper alignment of the T&D objectives with the organisation's strategic objectives. Aligning T&D objectives with the organisational objectives is important for the successful management of any T&D initiative, as both employees and their supervisors/managers may become more committed to ensuring that what was learned in T&D is transferred on the job.

There was no official T&D policy available anywhere in the organisation's available literature. The T&D intervention seems not to have been strategically planned; it was simply based on the immediate needs of the organisation.

#### **8.1.5. Conclusion 7 Needs Analysis**

Training needs analysis was not carried at all levels in the NRC, only some employees at certain grade levels and in some departments took part in the exercise. This raises the question of how effective TNA is identifying the T&D needs of the organisation and the ability of the training programme to have a lasting effect on the organisation's long term survival. Some information necessary to determine the needs of the organisation may have been omitted due to the fact that some people were left out of the planning processes. Moreover, some skills learned may not be applicable or compatible with the job at hand.

#### **8.1.6. Conclusion 8 Training Evaluation**

A training and development intervention is not complete until the outcome is established. The T&D intervention for this study was not evaluated; this indicates that the impact of the programmes may never be established. Therefore, the effectiveness of the T&D programme was not determined, and it was never established whether or not the desired standard had been met. This is equally an indication that feedback did not take place; letting employees know how well they perform is fundamental to the smooth running of future T&D interventions. Moreover, establishing the impact of T&D on employees and the organisation is important for redefining the programme for future implementation.

## **8.2. Training and Employees' Competencies**

### **8.2.1. Conclusion 9 Employees' Competencies**

Training and development initiatives were very successful in impacting the skills, knowledge, confidence, new abilities, morale and the overall individual performance of the entire workforce, irrespective of the gender, grade or department of the employees that participated in the exercise. The T&D programmes were successful in addressing the needs of individual employees as well as those of the NRC.

### **8.2.2. Conclusion 10 Employees' Commitment**

The T&D programme was found to have a positive influence on employees' organisational engagement or commitment. This is an indication that the more T&D employees receive, the more likely they are to be committed to the organisation; which also suggests that the less T&D they receive, the less likely they are to be committed to the organisation.

However, the empirical evidence illustrated that employees in the technical department showed more commitment than the administrative staff (the mean score for technical staff of 164.34 is higher than the mean of the administrative employees of 136.27). This difference in commitment was attributed to the fact that more of the technical staff had their training abroad, while all the administrative staff's training took place in Nigeria. Therefore, the higher the level of organisational investment in employees' development, the more committed employees will in return be to the organisation.

### **8.2.3. Conclusion 11 Turnover Intention**

The T&D initiative was found to have the potential to positively influence employees' turnover intention rates in the organisation. This is an indication that regular T&D programmes can help the NRC to effectively reduce its employees' intention to quit the organisation.

#### **8.2.4. Conclusion 12 Employees' Turnover**

The T&D programmes were helpful in retaining almost the entire NRC workforce for the period under review. Although, the high retention rate was partly attributed to the high unemployment rate in the country which made it almost impossible for employees to move from one job to another, T&D is still an effective strategic option for employee retention.

#### **8.2.5. Conclusion 13 Job Satisfaction**

There is ample evidence to conclude that employees' job satisfaction was enhanced and can be further enhanced through the constant implementation of T&D programmes in the NRC and other organisations. Employees who participate in training are therefore more likely to experience job satisfaction than those who do not.

#### **8.2.6. Conclusion 14 Customer Service**

Customer service was found to be positively influenced by the NRC's T&D initiatives. The majority of the employees and the Directors confirmed that customer service improved to some extent after the training exercise. This indicates that well-managed T&D initiatives can create high perceptions of value among employees, which leads to higher levels of job satisfaction; in turn, this enhances worker loyalty, generating value for the company. This value is redirected to customers, by way of better quality service. However, there is still room for improvement as some employees still think that a lot needs to be done. This is a cause for concern as the survival of any organisation is a function of the quality and quantity of the services that it is able to render to its customers. A solid customer base is the bedrock on which any organisation need to be built in order to survive.

### **8.3. Training Effectiveness Positions/Departments**

#### **8.3.1. Conclusion 15 Training Effectiveness (Departments)**

Training and development initiatives were very successful in impacting on employees' performance competencies, job satisfaction, job performance, turnover intention, and commitment, irrespective of the departments in which these employees worked.

The training programmes were also very effective in enhancing employees' morale, confidence, ability, skills, knowledge, and overall individual performance, once again irrespective of their department (technical or administration).

#### **8.3.2. Conclusion 16 Training Effectiveness (Position)**

The T&D initiatives were very successful in impacting on employees' performance competencies, job satisfaction, job performance, turnover intention, and commitment irrespective of their position in the organisation.

Furthermore, the training programmes were very effective in enhancing the morale, confidence, ability, skills, knowledge, and overall individual performance of junior and senior employees to the same extent.

### **8.4. Training Transfer System - NRC**

#### **8.4.1. Conclusion 17 Strong Catalysts**

The overall perceived strengths of the NRC's transfer system were encouraging; many of the transfer factors are catalysts for learning transfer. The empirical evidence suggests that employees feel confident and are self-assured in applying their learned skills and knowledge on the job. They were equally well motivated to transfer learning and they believed that if they put their new skills into practice, this would improve their job performance. Therefore, performance self-efficacy, motivation to transfer, and transfer effort performance-effort are strong catalysts for the organisation.

#### **8.4.2. Conclusion 18 Transfer Catalysts**

Transfer design, peer support, perceived content validity, and opportunity to use learning were fairly well managed, and are thus regarded as catalysts for training transfer. There were indications that training was designed so that employees could apply the learning; many peers were supportive and encouraged each other to use learning and the content was designed to fit employees' job requirements.

#### **8.4.3. Conclusion 19 Weak Catalysts**

Many of the employees had the opportunity to use their skills and knowledge on the job. A fair number perceived that they would be rewarded if they did so and acknowledged that they received feedback from their managers and their work team when they applied their new skills on the job. They also received support from their supervisors. Many employees acknowledged that their supervisors clarify performance expectations after the training. They (supervisors/managers) set realistic goals based on the training and provided feedback when employees adequately applied their new abilities. Some employees were adequately prepared for the training encounter and their opinions were sought prior to training. Therefore, the opportunity to use learning, performance outcomes expectations, performance coaching, performance outcomes positive, supervisors' support and learner readiness were only somewhat good and can therefore be regarded as weak catalysts for transfer of learning in NRC.

#### **8.4.4. Conclusion 20 Transfer-Hindrance**

The NRC reward scheme may not have been aligned with training transfer; thus, employees do not think that any punishment will come their way if they do not use their new skills and knowledge on the job. This means that they might not be motivated to use their new competencies in performing their jobs. Performance outcomes-negative in the NRC can be regarded as a hindrance to learning transfer. Many of the employees experienced opposition from their supervisors when they used their new skills and knowledge and some supervisors did not provide feedback when the employees successfully applying learning on the job. Many employees do not want to devote their energy to making change happen and do not provide support for other employees who want to do so. They are so busy with work that they

do not have the energy and time to make the required changes or to transfer their new skills and knowledge. Such a situation may contribute to less learning been transferred to the job. Therefore, personal capacity for transfer, supervisor opposition, resistance to change, and performance outcome negative are definitely barriers to training transfer in the NRC and have the potential to hinder transfer of learning in the organisation.

There is ample empirical evidence to demonstrate that trainee characteristics, motivation to transfer, organisational environment and ability all contributed significantly to training transfer in the organisation; predicting about 33% of training transfer on the job. Motivation to transfer made the highest unique contribution to training transfer, followed by performance self-efficacy, personal capacity and transfer design. This result demonstrates the important of motivating employees prior to any T&D initiatives so as to facilitate transfer of learning on the job; if skills and knowledge are not transferred on the job T&D programmes would be fruitless activities.

#### **8.4.5. Conclusion 21 Ability and Performance**

Ability training transfer variables of opportunity to use learning performance, personal capacity to transfer, and transfer design showed a positive correlation to perceived training transfer on the job performance in the NRC, an indication that these two variables can be effective in enhancing training transfer in the organisation. Furthermore Ability variables as a whole predicted 16% of job transfer in the NRC with transfer design and personal capacity to transfer making the first and second most significant unique contribution to explain job performance. Therefore, Ability as a transfer factor can be very effective in enhancing employees' job performance in any organisation.

#### **8.4.6. Conclusion 22 Motivation and Performance**

Motivation to transfer factors of transfer effort-performance expectation, motivation to transfer, transfer effort-performance expectation, and performance outcome expectation had significant correlation with perceived training transfer on the job performance. Therefore, the above mentioned transfer variables can be effective in enhancing or transferring employees' new skills and knowledge on the job performance in the organisation. Motivation to transfer and transfer effort expectations made the first and second most unique significant

contributions to transfer on the job. The model as whole can predict 17% of job performance in the NRC; this implies that motivation as transfer factor can be used to enhance employees' job performance.

#### **8.4.7. Conclusion 23 Trainee Characteristics and Performance**

In terms of trainee characteristics variables, performance self-efficacy has a moderate significant relationship with perceived training transfer on the job performance and trainee characteristics as a model can predict 18% of training transfer on the job. This finding signifies that trainees' characteristics can be effective in enhancing employees' job performance.

#### **8.4.8. Conclusion 24 Work Environment and Performance**

Supervisor opposition has a negative significant positive association with perceived training transfer on the job performance, an indication that supervisor opposition can hinder learning transfer if it very prevalent in an organisation. Work environment as a model predicted only 6% of learning transfer on the job and supervisor support is the only variable that made a significant unique contribution to learning transfer on the job. However, work environment has been proven to be effective in enhancing training transfer on the job, irrespective how small the prediction is.

The four variables of transfer factors, trainee characteristics, motivation, work environment and ability scales as a model predicted 33% of training transfer on the job, the only four measures to make a statistically significant unique contribution, with the motivation to transfer scale recording the highest beta value ( $\beta = .24, p < .001$ ). Performance self-efficacy recorded the second highest beta value ( $\beta = .22, p < .001$ ). Personal capacity had the third highest beta value ( $\beta = .19, p < .027$ ) and the transfer design had the fourth highest beta value ( $\beta = .16, p < .005$ ). It is important to note that peer support is very close to reaching statistical significance ( $\beta = .15, p < .051$ ). Therefore the four main variables of training transfer can be effective in enhancing transfer of training on the job.

#### **8.4.9. Conclusion 25 Holton (1996) HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model**

As noted previously, this study effectively tested the Holton (1996) HRD Evaluation Research and Measurement Model & Bates et al.'s (2008) Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) measuring model, and found it to be very effective in measuring and analysing the variables influencing learning transfer in an organisation. Furthermore, the Holton (1996) model has been effectively tested and verified as a possible model for successful implementation of T&D in Nigeria. The results indicated a positive correlation or relationship between most of the LTSI variables and job performance. This result does indicate, however, that not all LTSI variables are applicable to all situations or to all organisations.

#### **8.4.10. Conclusion 26 Training and Job Performance**

The NRC T&D initiatives can be very effective in improving employees' overall performance. Training and development can also be effective in improving overall organisational performance, especially labour productivity. Training and development did not do enough to positively affect profit making in the NRC according to the evidence provided by the Directors and the employees. However, the organisation has made a concerted effort through T&D to improve its financial position. Over the years, the NRC has experienced several financial challenges and has depended on the federal government for assistance; the recent T&D intervention may not be enough to solve all the financial problems. Moreover, the financial results cannot be seen to signify the failure of the T&D programme, but could be seen as a sign that a lot more work needs to be done to rid this moribund organisation of its financial difficulties which have lasted for decades. Instead T&D can be an effective strategic option for an organisation that wants to improve its employees' and organisational performance.

#### **8.4.11. Conclusion 27 Nigerian Training Institutes**

The Nigerian Training Institutes and Vocational and Technical Education are unable to react to shifting labour market demands because of their supply-driven orientation. This leaves many qualified people without jobs and many job vacancies are not filled due to the shortage

of qualified people to perform them. The shortage of skills in Nigeria is not about numbers; it is about quality and appropriateness.

#### **8.4.12. Conclusion 28 Nigerian Manpower Development**

The abovementioned problems are compounded by the long-time neglect of the higher institutions' curricula, infrastructural facilities and the acute shortage of academic staff. There is strong evidence that there is no collaboration between the employers of labour and the skills providers. Hence, there is mismatch between the skills that are produced and the actual skills required. The Nigerian government has recently taken steps to address this issue.

There are acute shortages of academics in all Nigerian tertiary institutions, including institutions for vocational education. These deficiencies have contributed to poor quality education, the deferment of graduations, cultism and indiscipline in the Nigerian tertiary sector.

#### **8.4.13. Conclusion 29 Training Institutes**

The NRC Training Institute and other T&D institutions' curricula, instructional equipment, teaching methods, and evaluation techniques are out-dated, which leads to deficiencies in their educational programmes. This hinders these institutions from producing graduates with high quality skills and knowledge.

#### **8.4.14. Conclusion 30 Consultation**

Government authorities do not consult with private institutions to monitor labour market requirements. They do not include the private sector in the formulation and development of the national training programme, accreditation, testing and certification in order to improve system-wide external efficiency. These problems are partly responsible for the skills gap experienced in Nigerian organisations.

#### **8.4.15. Conclusion 31 Training and Taxation**

The present Industrial Training Fund scheme in Nigeria does very little to induce employers to send their employees for training; this trend is applicable in both public and private sector

organisations. The recent trend to refund part of the training expenditure to the organisation is not sufficient to encourage employers to send employees for T&D. Many organisations and their employees find ways of taking advantage of the system to enrich themselves.

#### **8.4.16. Conclusion 32 E-learning**

The emergence of information technology in education and training has enormous implications for education curriculum planning and implementation. There is virtually no training *via* the use of the computer or any computer-aided learning in the NRC at present, a common trend in Nigerian organisations as a result of poor infrastructural facilities and the irregular power supply. Therefore, employees have no opportunity to participate in an online training group even on topics that are of strategic importance to the NRC.

### **8.5. Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study and the conclusions presented above, the following recommendations are put forward:

#### **8.5.1. Recommendation 1 Employee Participation**

The tendency to include everyone in the NRC's T&D programme irrespective of individual wishes should be reconsidered. For more effective utilisation of the knowledge and skills acquired through T&D activities, future participation in T&D programmes should be based on the needs of the individual and the organisation. The selection of employees for T&D should primarily be based on merit, via an objective appraisal of all eligible employees. This is required to avoid unnecessary expenditure of time and scarce resources on individuals who may not need the service. Training all employees at the same time may also not be sustainable; once again, valuable resources might be wasted on training employees who may not actually need training. This can lead to boredom and lack of seriousness on the part of employees and frustration on the part of the trainers.

It is important for the organisation to train only one of group of employees at a time to enable constant refresher courses for those who have already completed their training. This will enable informal mentoring and transfer of learning, as employees who have already

completed their training may assist those undergoing training; this promotes the stability of associations established during the training programme.

#### **8.5.2. Recommendation 2 Gender Participation**

The recruitment and training of women in the NRC should be accelerated to balance the inequality that exists in the organisation. Women can contribute greatly to the development of the still-struggling organisation.

#### **8.5.3. Recommendation 3 Age Participation**

I strongly suggest that employees of all ages should participate in training.

#### **8.5.4. Recommendation 4 Training Methods**

There are indications that different T&D methods were applied for different training interventions in the NRC. There is no one best method of training staff; hence any method/s that is best for a particular T&D programme can be applied. However, a combination of two methods can have far reaching positive effects in meeting the needs of a particular organisation. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that training managers use combinations of appropriate methods where appropriate for more positive T&D outcomes.

#### **8.5.5. Recommendation 5 Organisational Objectives**

Many employees were unaware of the organisational objectives for the 2010/2011 financial year and as a result could not make the connection between T&D and the organisational objectives. This can impact negatively on T&D's effect on individual and organisational performance. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that awareness be created of the importance of T&D programmes to the achievement of organisational objectives. This would motivate employees to take T&D programmes seriously and encourage learning transfer in the organisation.

### **8.5.6. Recommendation 6 Training Objectives**

In order to achieve the maximum benefit of investing in T&D programmes the organisation should endeavour to appropriately communicate the main objective of the training programmes to the entire staff, irrespective of departments or positions prior to training. This will enhance learning and subsequent transfer of training on the job.

### **8.5.7. Recommendation 7 Alignment of Training Objective**

Training and development in the NRC should be seen as a key element in their strategic planning process. Training objectives should be aligned with the strategic objectives of the organisation to ensure continuous and sustainable performance as well as productivity improvements and efficient and cost-effective service. Training and development should be conducted in a systematic and organised manner that reflects the NRC's business strategy. An ad hoc or haphazard approach should be discouraged.

### **8.5.8. Recommendation 8 Training Policy**

The NRC should develop policy guidelines for training and development. A T&D policy serves as a guide for the effective management of training. Training and development programmes should be strategically planned based on the immediate and future needs of the organisation.

### **8.5.9. Recommendation 9 Needs Analysis**

It is strongly recommended that the T&D needs analysis exercise should include every employee irrespective of seniority or department. Top management should ensure that any future T&D initiatives are based on proper needs analysis at all levels. This will enable an in-depth identification of all the needs of the organisation for the more effective formulation of T&D objectives. A successful T&D activity is a function of the comprehensive identification and formulation of its objectives. Identifying and linking the resources needed for T&D initiatives will enable the organisation to achieve better performance and accomplish its objectives.

All the levels of the organisation should be involved in the planning stages, in order to make sure that everyone is aware of the programme, its objectives and its anticipated impact on the workplace.

#### **8.5.10. Recommendation 10 Training Evaluation**

A T&D intervention is not complete until the outcome is established. Evaluation and measurement of the effectiveness of the T&D programme should be incorporated into the T&D plan and should be followed. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that the NRC and other organisations evaluate their T&D programmes on a regular basis, at least once or twice a year and that outcomes be established and documented for future reference. Furthermore, management should ensure that successful completion of training is acknowledged in performance evaluation and where appropriate rewarded in kind or in cash.

#### **8.5.11. Recommendations 11 Customer Service**

Customers are the bedrock on which organisations are built. Therefore, serious efforts need to be made to improve customer service in the organisation in order to retain old and attract potential customers. NRC management should introduce innovative programmes to promote and improve customer service, e.g. better and more efficient ways of selling tickets. As a matter of urgency, they should explore innovative ways to attend to customers' needs; e.g. establishing efficient way of handling customers' luggage and keeping to schedules on a regular basis.

#### **8.5.12. Recommendation 12 Training Effectiveness**

This study has illustrated that T&D can improve organisational engagement; job satisfaction, employees' competencies and reduce employees' intention to quit the organisation. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that the NRC continue to implement training programmes on a regular basis at least annually to deserving workers. T&D should not be a once-off exercise.

### **8.5.13. Recommendation 13 Employees' Competencies**

The results of this study suggest that T&D initiatives were successful in impacting skills, knowledge, confidence, new abilities and morale across the entire NRC workforce, irrespective of grade or department. However, technical employees were found to be more committed to the organisation than administrative staff members; this result was attributed to the organisation spending more money on training technical employees abroad, where it was assumed they acquired superior skills to those trained locally; hence they were more committed. It is therefore recommended that the NRC train its employees in an environment where they have access to state-of-the-art equipment in order to enable them to acquire superior skills and knowledge so as to induce them to be more appreciative of the effort the organisation has put into their training and thus, become more committed to the organisation as a reciprocity for the investment in their T&D.

### **8.5.14. Recommendation 14 Training and Profit**

The poor financial results for 2011/2012 cannot be interpreted as a failure of the T&D programme, but could be seen as a sign that a lot more work needs to be done to rid this moribund organisation of its financial difficulties which have lasted for decades. In order to respond to the challenges facing the NRC, training programmes need to be combined with other innovative exercises, example, a campaign to create awareness that NRC intends to take back its position as a leader in the transport business; a number one carrier of goods and passengers in Nigeria.

### **8.5.15. Recommendation 15 Strong Transfer Catalysts**

Three transfer factors of performance self-efficacy, motivation to transfer, and transfer effort performance-effort were found to be the strongest catalysts for learning transfer in the NRC. It is therefore recommended that efforts should be made to at least maintain the high ratings of these factors in order to enhance learning transfer both at present and in the future.

#### **8.5.16. Recommendation 16 Weak Transfer Catalysts**

Transfer design, peer support, training contents, and opportunity to use learning were fairly well managed and are thus regarded as weak catalysts. Employees need to share and support each other more in order to make the NRC a learning organisation. The organisation needs to link its T&D to performance so as to encourage transfer of learning. More attention also needs to be paid to future training content and transfer design in order to improve the applicability of skills and knowledge learned in training on-the-job. Furthermore, awareness should be created among employees of the need to support one another in applying their new learning on the job.

#### **8.5.17. Recommendation 17 Weak Catalysts**

Opportunity to use learning, performance outcomes expectation, performance coaching, performance outcomes-positive, supervisors' support and learner readiness were considered somewhat well-managed in the NRC. However, many employees don't feel that they will be punished if they don't apply their new skills and knowledge on the job. Consequently, it is recommended that NRC link its T&D to their reward scheme so as to encourage transfer of learning among employees and their supervisors. Many of the supervisors did not clarify performance expectations after the training and did not set realistic goals based on the training the employees received. Furthermore, they did not provide feedback when employees adequately applied their new abilities. There were also indications that many of the employees were not adequately prepared for the training encounter and their opinions were not sought prior to training. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that supervisors' promotion should be tied to how far they push employees to use their new skills and knowledge acquired during training on the job. The extent to which the supervisors encourage employees to use their skills can be ascertained by evaluation of the employees' perceptions of the support they receive from their supervisors.

#### **8.5.18. Recommendation 18 Transfer Hindrance**

Performance outcomes-negative is a real hindrance to learning transfer in NRC. The results of this study indicate that employees do not see any punishment coming to them if they do not apply their new skills on the job. This implies that employees may not be motivated to

use their new competencies learned in training on the job. It is also recommended that the NRC link its reward scheme to the degree to which employees apply or transfer their new skills and knowledge on the job. This implies that employees' rewards or promotion should be based on how far they apply their new skills on the job to improve performance. Most employees claimed that they encountered opposition from their supervisors when they use their new skills and knowledge in the organisation and that supervisors do not provide feedback when they successfully applying learning on the job. Furthermore, prevailing group norms hinder them from using the skills and knowledge acquired in training. Hence, it is recommended that a seminar should be organised to sensitise the supervisors and the employees to the need to support one another to transfer their new skills on the job and to explain that by so doing, the organisational aims and objectives will be achieved. The mean score for personal capacity to transfer is low, indicating that employees do not have the time and space in their work lives to make the required changes to use their new competencies. Many employees are too busy with their work to find the energy and time to make the required changes to transfer their new skills and knowledge. Therefore, it is recommended that NRC streamline its employees' work schedule to allow them the time and energy to put their new learning into practice on the job. It is also strongly recommend that a survey be conducted to find out why employees experience stress and lack the energy, mental space and drive or determination to use their learning on the job. Jobs should be designed in such a manner that employees have the opportunity to use their new skills and knowledge acquired during training.

#### **8.5.19. Recommendation 19 Effectiveness of LSTI**

This result of this study suggests that not all LSTI learning transfer variables are applicable to all situations and to all organisations. In the case of the NRC the following variables: performance self-efficacy, motivation to transfer, transfer effort-performance expectations, transfer design, peer support and content validity were found to have a significant positive relationship with learning transfer on the job. Consequently, it is recommended that the NRC and other organisations pay more attention to the training transfer variables that work best for them in order to enhance training transfer.

Although the four main sub-sections of the LSTI measuring factors made a significant contribution to transfer of training on the job (trainee characteristics, motivation to transfer,

organisational environment and ability) they predicted only 33% of training transfer in the organisation. Therefore, it is recommended that further research be conducted to determine other factors in the organisation that may promote training transfer in the NRC. Motivation to transfer made the biggest unique contribution to training transfer; it is recommended that employees should be motivated further to induce them to transfer what they have learned to their jobs.

#### **8.5.20. Recommendation 20 Impact of Training**

The T&D interventions conducted by the NRC were perceived to have moderately improved employees' job performance and overall organisational performance. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that the NRC and indeed other organisations implement T&D on a continuous basis for sustainable performance improvement and growth.

T&D implementation only predicted 23% of job performance. This implies that 77% of the improvement in job performance was caused by other factors not considered in this study. This suggests that training alone is not sufficient to improve employees' job performance. Top management should consider applying human resource development bundles as an avenue to increase organisational and individual performance. However, it is also recommended that further research be carried out to determine other specific factors that can contribute to higher job performance for the growth and survival of the organisation. In order to increase the benefit of training, other human resource management practices that encourage employees to utilise their learning (the motivation bundle) should be adopted.

#### **8.5.21. Recommendation 21 Nigerian Training Institutes**

Nigerian Training Institutes and Vocational and Technical institutions are unable to react to shifting labour market requirements because of their supply-driven orientation. It is therefore, strongly recommended that all tertiary institutions, including training institutes and vocational and technical colleges' curricula be demand-driven. This would enable them to train sufficient, effective individuals capable of meeting the organisational demands for skilled professionals for sustainable competitive advantage.

### **8.5.22. Recommendation 22 Nigerian Manpower Development**

The acute shortage of academic personnel in Nigerian Training Institutions (including the NRC Training Institute) and other institutions of higher learning in the country should be given urgent priority. It is strongly recommended that there be collaboration between the employers of labour and the skills providers in the country. This will enable the government to bridge the gap between what is produced and what is needed. Government should induce these institutions to hire more competent staff to manage these institutions. This will help to solve problems like poor quality education, deferment of graduations, cultism and indiscipline in Nigerian higher education institutions.

### **8.5.23. Recommendation 23 Training Institutes**

The NRC Training Institute and indeed other development institutions' curricula, instructional equipment, teaching methods, and evaluation techniques should be updated in order to produce high quality graduates. This will help to bridge the gap between the skills and knowledge acquired by college and university graduates and employers' requirements. Government should focus on policies that enhance education and development through increasing its financial allocation to manpower T&D in the country. Furthermore, it is strongly recommended that successive Nigerian governments give top priority to education and training through increasing the proportion of total government expenditure and Gross Domestic Product on educating and training employees. This will enable educational and training institutions to provide facilities to improve the quality of graduates' skills and knowledge.

### **8.5.24. Recommendation 24 Training Consultation**

Government authorities should consult with private institutions where necessary to monitor labour market requirements and include the private sector in the formulation and development of training, accreditation, testing and certification to improve system-wide external efficiency. Government should also consult regularly with organisations' HR managers and their external HR developers (consultants) in relation to policy formulation and implementation in order to enhance employees' skills and knowledge acquisition and utilisation within public and private sector organisations.

### **8.5.25. Recommendation 25 Training and Taxation**

The Nigerian government should set up system of taxation that treats expenditure on training in the same way as other costs of production. More specifically, the full cost of training and allowances to workers for training should be charged against taxation in the year it takes place. Government should offer an extra 10-25% deduction of training expenditure from the profits of organisations that are subject to corporate taxation. This should exist alongside the current Industrial Training Fund scheme in Nigeria. This will stimulate employee training in both public and private organisations. The recent trend to refund part of the training expenditure to the organisation is not sufficient to encourage training and development in organisations in Nigeria.

### **8.5.26. Recommendation 26 E-learning**

E-learning as a method of training is not being in use in the NRC as result of the lack of modern infrastructure in the country and the unreliable power supply. However, the NRC should encourage learning via computers; employees could participate in online group training on topics that are of strategic importance or which are believed be of critical importance to achieve the organisational business strategy. The emergence of information technology in education and training has enormous implications for planning and implementation of the education curriculum. The NRC training schools and other training institutes' curricula need to embrace ICT in order to produce better quality graduates.

## **8.6. Contribution to Knowledge**

Nigeria is only the third country in Africa where the LTSI transfer measuring instrument, the only authenticated training transfer measuring instrument in the world, has been used to collect data; therefore, this study contributes to the further validation and improvement of this model (measuring instrument) which will be used for future study in the field of T&D.

The framework for essential practices for T&D was formulated based on the findings of this study and can be effective for future formulation, implementation and evaluation of T&D by academics, organisations, policy decision makers and for the further development of an

effective model for the study of T&D. In other words, this study contributed to knowledge by presenting an enhanced framework which will be useful for researchers in the field of T&D programmes in Nigerian public and private organisations. Therefore, the finding of this study will serve as a pedagogical tool for a wider future study in the field of T&D in Nigerian institutions of higher learning and Training Institutes e.g. the Railway Training Institute and elsewhere in Africa and indeed, the world.

The context in which the study was conducted is unique in that previous studies were carried out in the developed and emerging economies of Asia. Furthermore, previous studies of T&D were largely undertaken in industrial sectors; the present study focused on the NRC, which operates in the transport sector. The findings of this study thus provide new insight into the practice of T&D in the industrial as well as the service sector in African economies, especially Nigeria and South Africa.

### **8.7. Future Research Possibilities**

The present study was carried out in the NRC and was restricted to NRC employees. Therefore, future research should be conducted to include a survey of other public organisations in Nigeria that will provide more accurate data on the effects of T&D on individual and organisational performance outcomes.

The LTSI transfer measuring instrument used for this study could also be used in other organisations in Nigeria in order to obtain a more authenticated training transfer measuring instrument.

Further research involving Nigerian public organisations should adopt a holistic approach by including other human resources development bundles; this will provide broad knowledge about human resource development and organisational performance. This assertion has been substantiated in past studies of human resource bundles as a practice which found that training contributed negligibly to employees' and organisational performance in Europe.

Furthermore, a longitudinal research study is needed in order to make stronger causal statements about these variables' relationships. The cross-sectional design does not allow for any causal statements to be made.

A future study could also consider a more objective measurement of the influence of T&D interventions on employees' and organisational performance as against the subjective or perceptual measure used for this study.

Finally, the framework presented in this study could be tested in order to provide a more authentic training and development model for a future study of T&D in Nigeria.

### **8.8. Significance of the study**

The outcomes of this study will be of immense assistance to future researchers and academics alike who seek fresh knowledge in the field of human resource development in African in general and Nigeria in particular.

The information gathered for this study highlighted the strengths as well as the deficiencies in the formulation and implementation of T&D initiatives in the NRC; the results will therefore enhance the planning, formulation and execution of future T&D programmes for the long-term sustainability of the NRC and other organisations in Nigeria.

This study is very important because it is among the few in Nigeria that have carried out an in-depth study of the effect of T&D initiatives and training transfer factors on employees' and organisational performance. Furthermore, there is a paucity of research on the transfer of learning in Nigerian public or private organisations.

The study is ground-breaking in the sense that no complex and all-inclusive empirical study of T&D has been conducted in a Nigerian organisation that includes the relationship between T&D programmes and the organisational and individual outcomes and training transfer factors and job performance. Past studies presented scattered information. This claim is substantiated by the extensive literature review conducted by the researcher; an eight page summary of the findings can be accessed in the appendix to this document. This study therefore provides new insight into the study of T&D by providing an in-depth analysis of T&D in a Nigerian public sector organisation.

Applying the results of this study to the wider T&D literature will strengthen our understanding of the importance of T&D to employees' and organisational performance; the importance of the training transfer factors used in this study and transfer of training on the job in organisations.

The study has succeeded in filling the gap in the literature by adding value to the on-going debate on whether or not T&D contributes to organisational performance by successfully establishing the impact of T&D and training transfer on job performance in a typical government organisation.

The study has major implications for training and development practice in Nigeria. There is an urgent need to improve employees' performance by upgrading their skills to meet the needs of organisations, prepare them for efficient practice and improve transfer of training and for continuous re-training to prevent a further decline in productivity among Nigerian employees.

Joblessness arising from unemployable graduates from Nigerian universities/polytechnics breeds social vices among the youth which need to be prevented by effective training.

### **8.9. Conclusion**

Current trends in the business world indicate that constant and complex technological innovations, economic development, a dynamic business environment, and changing market demands have created the need for employees to continuously update their skills and knowledge. Globalisation has created the need to attract and maintain motivated, skilled and satisfied employees; this requires that organisations constantly train their employees. Training and development programmes have been found to influence trainees' skills, ability and knowledge and enable them to become more competent, flexible, dynamic and adaptive to the needs of the organisation. The finding of this study imply that T&D may be effective in reducing turnover intention, and increasing job performance, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, performance competence and productivity. Giving employees the opportunity to learn new skills improves job satisfaction and increase the quality of customer service. Consequently, organisations are encouraged to train and develop their employees in order to increase their sustainability for competitive advantage.

The Nigerian government has made concerted efforts to improve the competency levels of the nation's labour force, by establishing a number of training institutions and schemes to encourage manpower development in the country. However, many admirable policies that were carefully formulated have not been successfully implemented. The huge efforts committed to T&D interventions in public organisations in Nigeria and indeed around the world do not always lead to commensurate improvement in employees' and organisational performance.

Until recently, the NRC's customer base and profitability were drastically reduced due to competition from road, sea and air transport. This moribund organisation was recently revitalised through T&D initiatives to mobilise and motivate employees and to attract international and local investors. Nigerian public policy on skills formation highlighted the need for increased productivity and performance as an important survival strategy for both public and private organisations. The government embarked on capacity building to update the skills of civil servants, by repositioning the existing training institutions. Unfortunately, these efforts have not yielded the expected outcomes, as there are still mismatches between the skills that are produced and the actual skills needed in existing Nigerian organisations.

Recurrent variations in technology and job design, along with the increasing importance of learning to both employees and organisations, have led to the transformation of T&D methods. Technology as a method of training (e.g. e-learning or computer based learning) offers many opportunities and capabilities for enhancing employees' T&D.

The training transfer system in the NRC is relatively strong for most of the transfer factors except for personal outcomes-negative, supervisors' support, personal capacity, and resistance to change which may constitute barriers to learning transfer. Furthermore, motivation to transfer, performance self-efficacy, transfer design, and personal capacity were discovered to have a moderately significant influence on learning transfer on the job.

The T&D interventions in the NRC were very effective in impacting employees' skills and knowledge. However, the influence of T&D on employees' job performance was found to be moderate, indicating that other factors can impact on employees' job performance. The overall results of this study indicate that proper management and implementation of T&D and

training transfer systems can significantly improve employees' and organisational performance. Therefore, any organisation wishing to be productive should make T&D part of its strategic business plan. Training and development play a major role in improving organisational performance. The NRC needs to seek additional human resource approaches and practices that can improve employees' performance. Training and development unaccompanied by other practices may have a limited impact on employees' skills and knowledge and subsequent job performance. Organisations need to strategically and methodically develop human resource bundles that are designed to achieve the desired organisational performance.

## 9.0. References

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## Appendix

### 10.0. Appendix 1 Training and Organisational Performance

The table below depicts the summary of the previous studies done on the relationship between T&D and organisational and employees' performance in Nigeria and internationally among the companies in different organizational sectors.

**Table 9. 1 Training and Organisational Performance**

<b>Author/s</b>	<b>No of Participants</b>	<b>Sector/s</b>	<b>Bases for Performance Measure</b>	<b>Findings</b>
Okereke & Igboke (2011)	300	Public organizations' (employees)	Job Performance	Participants acknowledge that T&D contributed to high job performance in their organizations.
Owoyemi, Oyelere, Elegbede, & Gbajumo-Sheriff (2011)	250	Financial organisations' (employees and management staff).	Employees' commitment	The study revealed a positive significant relationship between training and employees' commitment.
Taiwo, (2007)	70	Public organizations' (employees)	Job performance, Behaviours, Attitude, Skills, Knowledge and Achievement of goal.	The result indicated that training helps employees to acquire new skills and knowledge and positive behaviour. It also enables the organizations to achieve its set objectives.
Ukenna, Ijeoma, Anionwu, & Olise, (2010)	25	Private business (business owner)	Organisational performance	Training was found to impacts firms performance.

The table below depicts the summary of the most recent studies on the influence of T&D on the individuals and organizational outcomes in various organizational sectors in other parts of the world.

**Table 9.2. Training and Organisational Performance**

Author/s	Number of Participants	Sector/s	Bases for Performance Measure	Findings
Goodman, (2012)				
Thong & Quang (2011)	196 (firms)	Manufacturing and non-manufacturing organizations.	Sales and Productivity	Training helps to influence positively on sales and productivity, but had no impact on non-manufacturing organizations.
Newman, Thanacoody & Hui (2011)	437	Service Sector (employees)	Organisation's Commitment & Turnover intentions	Training was effective in enhancing organisational commitment.  Commitment consequently negatively influences turnover intention among employees.
Hameed & Waheed (2011).		Public organisations' (employees)	Employees' performance	The study found a direct relationship between employees' development and employee performance.
Costen & Salazar (2011)	641	Hospitality Industry (employees)	Job Satisfaction, Loyalty & Intention to stay	Participants accepted that opportunities to engage in T&D enhance overall employees' job satisfaction. Make them become more loyal and increases their desire to remain with the organization.
Glaveli & Karassavido (2011).	611	Banking sector (employees and customers)	Organisational Performance	Training was found to relate to job satisfaction, loyalty and sense of value and profitability.
Akhtar, Ali, Sadaqat, & Hafeez, (2011)	100	Banking Sector (employees)	Motivation and Job Involvement	T&D was associated to positive impact on both motivation and job involvements among the employees.
Sarwar, Azhar, Akhtar, (2011)		All sectors (A Meta-Analysis)	Team work	The results of the studies proved that training influenced employees' social relation network (working as a team).
Liao, Mo, &	100 (Top	Public	Performance and	Training expenditures were

Grant, J. (2011).	hundred companies)	companies (employees)	Firm market value	positively related to operating performance and improved firm's market value.
Liao, Rice, & Martin, (2011).	444 (firms)	Manufacturing (employees & managers)	Organisational Performance	The result of the study indicates no direct link between training and performance.
Jayawarna, Macpherson, Wilson, (2007).	198 (companies).	Manufacturing SMEs	Performance	The result shows that formal training has influence on firm turnover growth but for informal training.
Bulut & Osman, (2010).	298	Service sector (employees)	Organisational Commitment	Study revealed that training positively influenced employees' commitment to their organizations.
Lear (2010)		Public organisations	Interpersonal/ Technical skills & performance	Training led to improved interpersonal and technical skills and organizational performance.  But training on basic supervisory management leadership development was not found effective in improving organisational performance.
Karthikeyan, Karthi, & Graf, (2010).	512	Banking Sector (employees and managers)	Overall effectiveness and growth of the organisations.	The result obtained from the study indicated that training contributes to overall effectiveness and organisational growth.
Kuvaas & Dysvik (2010)	331	Telecommunication (employees)	Affective Commitment and Turnover intention.	It was established that training partially but positively influenced employees' commitment, and negatively influenced turnover intentions.
Indradevi, (2010)	100	IT industry (employees)	Organisational Performance	It was substantiated that training improved employees' capabilities and subsequent overall organisational performance.
Soltani & Liao (2010)		Organisation of all sectors (employees & managers)	Organisational performance	The study did not show enough evidence to associate the contribution of training programme and overall performance both at the individuals and organizational levels.
Jamshed et al. (2010)	110	Public sector organizations (employees)	Job satisfaction	The study proved that training contributed to job satisfaction & loyalty to the organizations.

Dumas & Hanchane (2010)	644 (firm)	Public organisations	Performance	Training increased the organisations' competitive advantage and performance.
Donald (2009)			Job satisfaction & Loyalty	T&D contributed to job satisfaction & employees' loyalty.
Franklin de la Rosa, Munoz; Perdomo & Lane (2009).		Public organization (employees).	Overall Performance	The study found training to be very effective in improving overall organizational performance.
Kuvaas & Dysvik (2009)	862	Public organisations (employees)	Work Performance	Employees' development contributed to positive work effort.
Manasa & Nivadita (2009)	100	Financial Institution (middle & lower managers)	Organisational Performance	Over 90% of the respondents felt that training helps them to improve their job performance.
Khalil; Ismail; Suandi & Silong (2009)	290 employees	Extension agents (officials)	Organisational Performance	The respondents felt that T&D has helped in improving organizational performance.
Hutchings, et al. (2009)	310	Public organisations (employees)	Job Performance,  Job effectiveness, technical ability, teamwork, job confidence & motivation.	Training did not help in improving employees' performance problem.  Though training made positive impact on employees' technical ability, team effectiveness, job confidence, and motivation.
Mohanad, Lo, La (2009)		Public organisations (employees)	Organisational performance & productivity	Training contributed to increased organisational performance and productivity.
Nickels (2009)		Public organisations (employees)	Job satisfaction & employees' loyalty	T&D leads to improved job satisfaction & loyalty to the firms.
Vertmic, (2009)		Public organisations (employees)	Individual development	T&D significantly helped in the development of the individual employees.
Ng et al. (2009)		Public organisations (employees)	Organisational performance & productivity	Training was found to increase performance.
Abbas & Yagoob (2009)		Public organisations (employees)	Attitude, commitment & Trust	T&D intervention improved organizational commitment and trust according to respondents.
Danvila del Valle; Castillo, & Rodriguez-Darte (2009)	40 Companies	Service Companies (employees)	Organisation Performance	The training initiatives enhanced employees' overall job performance.

Chi, Wu, & Lin, (2008).	816 (SMEs)	SMEs (employees)	SMEs' Performance	The implementation of training does influence performance for SME firms.
Latreille & Sloane (2008)		Public organisations (employees)	Job satisfaction & Loyalty	Training contributed to improve job satisfaction & loyalty.
Dysvik, & Kuvaas (2008).	343	Service organisations (employees)	Work performance, citizenship behavior, & Turnover intention	Perceived Training opportunities were found to have influenced employees' outcome and motivation.
Rowold (2008)	100	Call Centres (employees)	Job performance, involvement & job satisfaction	The result of the T&D showed a positive relationship to job performance, job involvement and job satisfaction.
Thang & Buyens (2008)	196	Manufacturing and non – manufacturing organisations (employees)	Firm performance	Training & firms' strategy were found to increase sales and productivity in the firms.
Sunyyoung, Hea & Sung (2008)	12,534	Public organization (Employees)	Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment	Training was influential in improving organizational commitment and job satisfaction of the workers.
Williams & Arnett (2008)	200	Public Organisations (employees)	Job Performance, attraction, retention & bottom line	Organisations that engaged in T&D were found to have retained more of their skilled workers than those who did not.  T&D significantly helped to improve job and bottom line.
Jones et al. (2008)	22,500	Involved all British organizations with 5 or more workers. (employees)	Job satisfaction, workplace performance.	The implementation of T&D led to improved job satisfaction and organisational performance.
Tharenou, Saks & Moore (2007)		Public organisations (employees)	Organisational performance & productivity	There was a positive relationship between training expenditure and organizational performance.
Schmidt (2007)		Public organisations (employees)	Job satisfaction & Loyalty	The execution of T&D led to improved job satisfaction & firm loyalty significantly.
Hansson (2007)	5, 824 organisations	Private-sector organisations	Profitability	There was an association between training intensity and profitability.
Georgellis, &	2000	Public	Job satisfaction	The result of this study showed

Lange (2007)		organisations (employees)		there was a link between training and job satisfaction.
Sahinidis & Bouris (2007)	134	Public organizations (employees and lower managers)	Job satisfaction, Motivation and Commitment	There was a positive significant relationship between perceived training effectiveness and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and motivation.
Birdi, Patterson & Wood (2007)	368 (Firms)	Profit and non-profit organisations (employees)	Productivity	Training improved productivity in both non-profit and profit organizations.
Dearden, Reed & Reenen (2006)	968	Public organisations (employees)	Productivity	Work related training was proved to have increased the organisational productivity.
Mabey & Ramirez (2005)	179 (European firms)	Public organisations (employees)		
Buckly & Caple (2004)		Public organization (employees)	Job performance	The result of the study no impact of training on employees' job performance.
Know & Walker (2004)		Public organization (employees)	Organisational Productivity	The result of the study indicated that T&D improved performance.
Kauanui, Su Dang & Ashley-Cotlear (2004)	200 (firms)		Organisational Performance	T&D interventions were able to increased overall organizational performance.
Morin & Renaud (2004).	1484	Financial Institutions (employees)	Employees' Performance	The study revealed a positive impact of training on individual's job performance.
Dang & Ashley-Cotlesur (2004)			Organisational performance	T&D significantly improved organisational performance.
Molina & Ortegaz (2003)	405	Public organizations' (Senior executives)	Performance	The result proved that training leads to organizational and employees' positive outcomes, e.g. employee satisfaction, customer loyalty and overall increase in company value.
Guest, Michie, Conway & Sheenhan (2003)		Public organisations (employees)	Corporate performance	Training did not have any effect on corporate performance.
Aragon-Sanchez, Barba-Aragon Sanz-Valle (2003)	457 (SMEs)	Public organisations (employees)	SMEs	On-the-job- training was found to increase productivity.

Zwick (2003)		Public organisations (employees)	Organisational Performance & productivity	Training improved overall organisation's performance
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Table T&amp;D and Performance

### 10.1. Appendix 2 Tables of Variables

Table 9.3 Training and Development knowledge

Gender * Knowledge Crosstabulation					
			T&D on Knowledge		Total
			Yes	No	
Gender	Male	Count	185	8	193
		% within Gender	95.9%	4.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	62.3%	2.7%	65.0%
	Female	Count	100	4	104
		% within Gender	96.2%	3.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	33.7%	1.3%	35.0%
Total		Count	285	12	297
		% within Gender	96.0%	4.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	96.0%	4.0%	100.0%

Table 9.3 Training and Development and Skill

Gender * SKILL Crosstabulation					
			T&D on Skills		Total
			Yes	No	
Gender	Male	Count	178	15	193
		% within Gender	92.2%	7.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	59.9%	5.1%	65.0%
	Female	Count	96	8	104
		% within Gender	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	32.3%	2.7%	35.0%
Total		Count	274	23	297
		% within Gender	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%

**Table 9.4 Training and development and Ability**

<b>Gender * ABILITY Crosstabulation</b>					
			T&D on ABILITY		Total
			Yes	No	
Gender	Male	Count	175	18	193
		% within Gender	90.7%	9.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	58.9%	6.1%	65.0%
	Female	Count	93	11	104
		% within Gender	89.4%	10.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	31.3%	3.7%	35.0%
Total		Count	268	29	297
		% within Gender	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

**Table 9.4 Training and Employee Morale**

<b>Gender * MORAL Crosstabulation</b>					
			T&D on MORAL		Total
			Yes	No	
Gender	Male	Count	170	23	193
		% within Gender	88.1%	11.9%	100.0%
		% of Total	57.2%	7.7%	65.0%
	Female	Count	84	20	104
		% within Gender	80.8%	19.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	28.3%	6.7%	35.0%
Total		Count	254	43	297
		% within Gender	85.5%	14.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	85.5%	14.5%	100.0%

**Table 9.5 Training and Employees Confidence**

<b>Gender * Confidence Crosstabulation</b>					
			T&D on Confidence		Total
			Yes	No	
Gender	Male	Count	177	16	193
		% within Gender	91.7%	8.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	59.6%	5.4%	65.0%
	Female	Count	94	10	104
		% within Gender	90.4%	9.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	31.6%	3.4%	35.0%
Total		Count	271	26	297
		% within Gender	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%

**Table 9.6 Training and Performance (Gender)**

<b>Gender * TDPERFORM Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDPERFORM		Total
			Yes	No	
Gender	Male	Count	173	20	193
		% within Gender	89.6%	10.4%	100.0%
		% within TDPERFORM	65.8%	58.8%	65.0%
		% of Total	58.2%	6.7%	65.0%
	Female	Count	90	14	104
		% within Gender	86.5%	13.5%	100.0%
		% within TDPERFORM	34.2%	41.2%	35.0%
		% of Total	30.3%	4.7%	35.0%
Total		Count	263	34	297
		% within Gender	88.6%	11.4%	100.0%
		% within TDPERFORM	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	88.6%	11.4%	100.0%

**Table 9:7 Training and Morale (Department)**

<b>staff * TDMORAL Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDMORAL		Total
			Yes	No	
staff	Admisnistrative staff	Count	150	31	181
		% within staff	82.9%	17.1%	100.0%
		% within TDMORAL	59.1%	72.1%	60.9%
		% of Total	50.5%	10.4%	60.9%
	Technical staff	Count	104	12	116
		% within staff	89.7%	10.3%	100.0%
		% within TDMORAL	40.9%	27.9%	39.1%
		% of Total	35.0%	4.0%	39.1%
Total		Count	254	43	297
		% within staff	85.5%	14.5%	100.0%
		% within TDMORAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	85.5%	14.5%	100.0%

**Table 9.8 Training and Confidence (Department)**

<b>staff * TDCONFID Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDCONFID		Total
			Yes	No	
staff	Admisnistrative staff	Count	164	17	181
		% within staff	90.6%	9.4%	100.0%
		% within TDCONFID	60.5%	65.4%	60.9%
		% of Total	55.2%	5.7%	60.9%
	Technical staff	Count	107	9	116
		% within staff	92.2%	7.8%	100.0%
		% within TDCONFID	39.5%	34.6%	39.1%
		% of Total	36.0%	3.0%	39.1%
Total	Count	271	26	297	
	% within staff	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%	
	% within TDCONFID	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%	

**Table 9.9 Training and Ability (Department)**

<b>staff * TDABILITY Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDABILITY		Total
			Yes	No	
staff	Admisnistrative staff	Count	161	20	181
		% within staff	89.0%	11.0%	100.0%
		% within TDABILITY	60.1%	69.0%	60.9%
		% of Total	54.2%	6.7%	60.9%
	Technical staff	Count	107	9	116
		% within staff	92.2%	7.8%	100.0%
		% within TDABILITY	39.9%	31.0%	39.1%
		% of Total	36.0%	3.0%	39.1%
Total	Count	268	29	297	
	% within staff	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%	
	% within TDABILITY	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%	

**Table 9.10 Training and Skills (Department)**

<b>staff * TDSKILL Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDSKILL		Total
			Yes	No	
staff	Admisnistrative staff	Count	166	15	181
		% within staff	91.7%	8.3%	100.0%
		% within TDSKILL	60.6%	65.2%	60.9%
		% of Total	55.9%	5.1%	60.9%
	Technical staff	Count	108	8	116
		% within staff	93.1%	6.9%	100.0%
		% within TDSKILL	39.4%	34.8%	39.1%
		% of Total	36.4%	2.7%	39.1%
Total	Count	274	23	297	
	% within staff	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%	
	% within TDSKILL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%	

**Table 9.11 Training and Knowledge (Department)**

<b>staff * Knowledge Crosstabulation</b>					
			T&D KNOWL		Total
			Yes	No	
staff	Administrative staff	Count	171	10	181
		% within staff	94.5%	5.5%	100.0%
		% within TDKNOWL	60.2%	76.9%	60.9%
		% of Total	57.6%	3.4%	60.9%
	Technical staff	Count	113	3	116
		% within staff	97.4%	2.6%	100.0%
		% within TDKNOWL	39.8%	23.1%	39.1%
		% of Total	38.0%	1.0%	39.1%
Total	Count	284	13	297	
	% within staff	95.6%	4.4%	100.0%	
	% within TDKNOWL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	95.6%	4.4%	100.0%	

**Table 9.12 Training and Performance (Department)**

<b>staff * T&amp;D Performance Crosstabulation</b>					
			T& D PERFORM		Total
			Yes	No	
staff	Admisnistrative staff	Count	158	23	181
		% within staff	87.3%	12.7%	100.0%
		% within TDPERFORM	60.1%	67.6%	60.9%
		% of Total	53.2%	7.7%	60.9%
	Technical staff	Count	105	11	116
		% within staff	90.5%	9.5%	100.0%
		% within TDPERFORM	39.9%	32.4%	39.1%
		% of Total	35.4%	3.7%	39.1%
Total	Count	263	34	297	
	% within staff	88.6%	11.4%	100.0%	
	% within TDPERFORM	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	88.6%	11.4%	100.0%	

**Table 9.13 Training and Morale (Grades)**

<b>Grade * T&amp;D MORAL Crosstabulation</b>					
			T&D MORAL		Total
			Yes	No	
Grade	Senior	Count	110	25	135
		% within Grade	81.5%	18.5%	100.0%
		% within TDMORAL	43.3%	58.1%	45.5%
		% of Total	37.0%	8.4%	45.5%
	Junior	Count	144	18	162
		% within Grade	88.9%	11.1%	100.0%
		% within TDMORAL	56.7%	41.9%	54.5%
		% of Total	48.5%	6.1%	54.5%
Total	Count	254	43	297	
	% within Grade	85.5%	14.5%	100.0%	
	% within TDMORAL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	85.5%	14.5%	100.0%	

**Table 9.14 Training and Confidence (Grades)**

<b>Grade * TDCONFID Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDCONFID		Total
			Yes	No	
Grade	Senior	Count	120	15	135
		% within Grade	88.9%	11.1%	100.0%
		% within TDCONFID	44.3%	57.7%	45.5%
		% of Total	40.4%	5.1%	45.5%
	Junior	Count	151	11	162
		% within Grade	93.2%	6.8%	100.0%
		% within TDCONFID	55.7%	42.3%	54.5%
		% of Total	50.8%	3.7%	54.5%
Total		Count	271	26	297
		% within Grade	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%
		% within TDCONFID	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	91.2%	8.8%	100.0%

**Table 9.15 Training and Ability (Grades)**

<b>Grade * TDABILITY Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDABILITY		Total
			Yes	No	
Grade	Senior	Count	118	17	135
		% within Grade	87.4%	12.6%	100.0%
		% within TDABILITY	44.0%	58.6%	45.5%
		% of Total	39.7%	5.7%	45.5%
	Junior	Count	150	12	162
		% within Grade	92.6%	7.4%	100.0%
		% within TDABILITY	56.0%	41.4%	54.5%
		% of Total	50.5%	4.0%	54.5%
Total		Count	268	29	297
		% within Grade	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%
		% within TDABILITY	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	90.2%	9.8%	100.0%

**Table 9.16 Training and Skill (Grades)**

<b>Grade * TDSKILL Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDSKILL		Total
			Yes	No	
Grade	Senior	Count	121	14	135
		% within Grade	89.6%	10.4%	100.0%
		% within TDSKILL	44.2%	60.9%	45.5%
		% of Total	40.7%	4.7%	45.5%
	Junior	Count	153	9	162
		% within Grade	94.4%	5.6%	100.0%
		% within TDSKILL	55.8%	39.1%	54.5%
		% of Total	51.5%	3.0%	54.5%
Total		Count	274	23	297
		% within Grade	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%
		% within TDSKILL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	92.3%	7.7%	100.0%

**Table 9.17 Training and Knowledge (Grades)**

<b>Grade * TDKNOWL Crosstabulation</b>					
			TDKNOWL		Total
			Yes	No	
Grade	Senior	Count	127	8	135
		% within Grade	94.1%	5.9%	100.0%
		% within TDKNOWL	44.7%	61.5%	45.5%
		% of Total	42.8%	2.7%	45.5%
	Junior	Count	157	5	162
		% within Grade	96.9%	3.1%	100.0%
		% within TDKNOWL	55.3%	38.5%	54.5%
		% of Total	52.9%	1.7%	54.5%
Total		Count	284	13	297
		% within Grade	95.6%	4.4%	100.0%
		% within TDKNOWL	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	95.6%	4.4%	100.0%

**Table 9.18 Training and Individual Performance**

<b>Grade * TDPERFORM Crosstabulation</b>						
			TDPERFORM		Total	
			Yes	No		
Grade	Senior	Count	119	16	135	
		% within Grade	88.1%	11.9%	100.0%	
		% within TDPERFORM	45.2%	47.1%	45.5%	
		% of Total	40.1%	5.4%	45.5%	
	Junior	Count	144	18	162	
		% within Grade	88.9%	11.1%	100.0%	
		% within TDPERFORM	54.8%	52.9%	54.5%	
		% of Total	48.5%	6.1%	54.5%	
	Total		Count	263	34	297
			% within Grade	88.6%	11.4%	100.0%
			% within TDPERFORM	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
			% of Total	88.6%	11.4%	100.0%

**Table 9.19 Needs Analysis (Organisational Level)****Employees' Response**

<b>Gender * TNA Crosstabulation</b>						
			TNA		Total	
			Yes	No		
Gender	Male	Count	131	61	192	
		% within Gender	68.2%	31.8%	100.0%	
		% of Total	44.3%	20.6%	64.9%	
	Female	Count	72	32	104	
		% within Gender	69.2%	30.8%	100.0%	
		% of Total	24.3%	10.8%	35.1%	
	Total		Count	203	93	296
			% within Gender	68.6%	31.4%	100.0%
			% of Total	68.6%	31.4%	100.0%

**Table 9. 20 Training Analysis (Job Level)**

Employees' Response

<b>Gender * TNA JOB Crosstabulation</b>						
			Training Needs at Job Level			Total
			Yes	No	4	
Gender	Male	Count	117	75	1	193
		% within Gender	60.6%	38.9%	0.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	39.4%	25.3%	0.3%	65.0%
	Female	Count	50	54	0	104
		% within Gender	48.1%	51.9%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	16.8%	18.2%	0.0%	35.0%
Total		Count	167	129	1	297
		% within Gender	56.2%	43.4%	0.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	56.2%	43.4%	0.3%	100.0%

**Table 9.21 TNA at Individual Level**

<b>Gender * TNAPER Crosstabulation</b>							
			TNAPER				Total
			Yes	No	4	5	
Gender	Male	Count	98	93	1	1	193
		% within Gender	50.8%	48.2%	0.5%	0.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	33.0%	31.3%	0.3%	0.3%	65.0%
	Female	Count	39	65	0	0	104
		% within Gender	37.5%	62.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	13.1%	21.9%	0.0%	0.0%	35.0%
Total		Count	137	158	1	1	297
		% within Gender	46.1%	53.2%	0.3%	0.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	46.1%	53.2%	0.3%	0.3%	100.0%

**Table 9.22 Ability Scales**

		Correlations				
		Job Perf.	Opposition to Use	Personal Capacity	Content Validity	Transfer Design
Pearson Correlation	JOBPER	1.000	.185	-.249	.129	.324
	Opposition to use learning	.185	1.000	-.086	.353	.492
	Personal Capacity	-.249	-.086	1.000	.046	-.072
	Content Validity	.129	.353	.046	1.000	.524
	Transfer Design	.324	.492	-.072	.524	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Job performance	.	.001	.000	.015	.000
	Opposition to use learning	.001	.	.072	.000	.000
	Personal Capacity	.000	.072	.	.217	.111
	Content Validity	.015	.000	.217	.	.000
	Transfer Design	.000	.000	.111	.000	.
N	JOBPER	287	287	287	287	287
	Opposition to use learning	287	287	287	287	287
	Personal Capacity	287	287	287	287	287
	Content Validity	287	287	287	287	287
	Transfer Design	287	287	287	287	287

Standard Multiple Regression

**Table 9.23 Motivation Scale**

		Correlations			
		Job Perf	Motivation To Transfer	Transfer Effort Performance Expectation	Performance Outcomes Expectations
Pearson Correlation	JOBPER	1.000	.352	.341	.214
	Motivation to Transfer	.352	1.000	.455	.284
	Transfer Effort Performance Expect.	.341	.455	1.000	.526
	Performance Outcomes Exp.	.214	.284	.526	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	JOBPER	.	.000	.000	.000
	Motivation to Transfer	.000	.	.000	.000
	Transfer Effort Performance Exp.	.000	.000	.	.000
	Performance Outcomes Exp.	.000	.000	.000	.
N	JOBPER	289	289	289	289
	Motivation to Transfer	289	289	289	289
	Transfer Effort Performance Expect.	289	289	289	289
	Performance Outcomes Expectation	289	289	289	289

Standard Multiple Regression

**Table 9.24 Learner Characteristics**

<b>Correlations</b>				
		<b>Job Perf.</b>	<b>Learner Readiness</b>	<b>Performance Self-Efficacy</b>
Pearson Correlation	JOBPER	1.000	-.003	.421
	Learn Readiness	-.003	1.000	.190
	Performance Self-Efficacy	.421	.190	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Job Performance	.	.477	.000
	Learn Readiness	.477	.	.001
	Performance Self-Efficacy	.000	.001	.
N	JOBPER	289	289	289
	Learner Readiness	289	289	289
	Performance Self-Efficacy	289	289	289

Standard Multiple Regression

**Table 9.25 Workplace Environment Scale**

		<b>Correlations</b>							
		JOBP ER	Sup Support	Perf Coaching	Sup Opposition	Per Outcome Negative	Resist to Change	Peer Support	Perf. Outcomes Positive
Pearson Correlation	JOBPER	1.00 0	.001	.062	-.197	-.095	-.035	.049	.038
	Sup Support	.001	1.000	.300	.141	.342	.083	.518	.492
	Perf. Coaching	.062	.300	1.000	.278	.145	.306	.403	.244
	Sup. Opposition	-.197	.141	.278	1.000	.282	.490	.040	.167
	Pers. Outcomes Neg.	-.095	.342	.145	.282	1.000	-.058	.410	.415
	Resist Change	-.035	.083	.306	.490	-.058	1.000	-.151	.091
	Peer f. Support	.049	.518	.403	.040	.410	-.151	1.000	.448
	Perf. Outcomes Positive	.038	.492	.244	.167	.415	.091	.448	1.000
Sig. (1- tailed)	JOBPER	.	.491	.146	.000	.054	.279	.205	.261
	Sup. Support	.491	.	.000	.008	.000	.082	.000	.000
	Perf. Coaching	.146	.000	.	.000	.007	.000	.000	.000
	Sup Opposition	.000	.008	.000	.	.000	.000	.249	.002
	Perf. Outcome Negative	.054	.000	.007	.000	.	.163	.000	.000
	Resist Change	.279	.082	.000	.000	.163	.	.005	.061
	Peer Support	.205	.000	.000	.249	.000	.005	.	.000
	Perf. Outcomes Positive	.261	.000	.000	.002	.000	.061	.000	.
N	JOBPER	287	287	287	287	287	287	287	287
	Sup Support	287	287	287	287	287	287	287	287
	Perf. Coaching	287	287	287	287	287	287	287	287
	Sup. Opposition	287	287	287	287	287	287	287	287
	Pers Outcomes Negative	287	287	287	287	287	287	287	287
	Resistance to Change	287	287	287	287	287	287	287	287
	Peer Support	287	287	287	287	287	287	287	287
	Perf. Outcomes Positive	287	287	287	287	287	287	287	287

Standard Multiple Regression

**Table 9.26 Overall organisational performances****Employees' Response**

<b>Crosstabulation</b>								
			<b>Overall organisational performances</b>					<b>Total</b>
			<b>A lot smaller</b>	<b>A little smaller</b>	<b>No diff</b>	<b>A little larger</b>	<b>A lot larger</b>	
<b>Gender</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Count</b>	2	10	26	102	53	193
		<b>% within Gender</b>	1.0%	5.2%	13.5%	52.8%	27.5%	100%
		<b>% of Total</b>	0.7%	3.4%	8.8%	34.3%	17.8%	65%
	<b>Female</b>	<b>Count</b>	1	4	18	53	28	104
		<b>% within Gender</b>	1.0%	3.8%	17.3%	51.0%	26.9%	100%
		<b>% of Total</b>	0.3%	1.3%	6.1%	17.8%	9.4%	35%
<b>Total</b>		<b>Count</b>	3	14	44	155	81	297
		<b>% within Gender</b>	1.0%	4.7%	14.8%	52.2%	27.3%	100%
		<b>% of Total</b>	1.0%	4.7%	14.8%	52.2%	27.3%	100%

## 10.2. Appendix 3 Questionnaire

### Section A

Please answer the questions 1-10 by circling the appropriate letter in each of the questions below as it apply to you.

1. Gender: (a) Male (b) Female.
2. How old are you? (a) 18-25 (b) 26-35 (c) 36-45 (d) 46-55, (e) 56-60.
3. Do you belong to (a) Administrative Staff or (b) Technical staff?
4. What is your grade as an employee of the NRC? (a) Senior staff (b) Junior staff.
5. For how long have you been working for NRC? (a) 1 - 5yrs (b) 6 – 10yrs (c) 11 – 15yrs (d) 16 – 20yrs (e) 21yrs +
6. As an employee of NRC have you had any form of training and development in the last one year? (a) Yes (b) No
7. If yes in 6 above, for how long? (a) 1-2 weeks (b) 3-4 weeks (c) 1-6 weeks (d) 7-12 weeks, (e) 13+ weeks.
8. What was NRC objective for the year ended? **Please indicate**.....
9. Do you think that training and development you have had has helped your organisation (NRC) in achieving its objectives? (a). Yes (b). No. (c). Almost.
10. Please indicate where appropriate, **you can indicate more than one answer**: The training and development that you received in NRC has helped you in improving your:
  - i. Knowledge on the job - (a) Yes (b) No
  - ii. Skill - (a) Yes (b) No
  - iii. Ability - (a) Yes (b) No
  - iv. Confidence at work – (a) Yes (b) No
  - v. Moral at work – (a) Yes (b) No
  - vi. overall performance (a) Yes (b) No
11. What method of training and development were used to facilitate the programme please indicate? **You can indicate more than one answer.**
  - Proper career management

- Induction
- Job Enlargement
- Job Enrichment
- On the Job Training
- Coaching
- Mentoring
- Performance Appraisal
- Understudying
- periodic deployment or Job rotation
- Orientation
- Lecture (university education)
- workshop
- Job rotation
- Apprenticeship
- Internship
- Others

12. Did your organisation (NRC) conduct training needs analysis before training was carried out?

(a) Yes (b) No

13. If the answer to the question number 12 above is NO please go to next question if YES at what level/s of training needs analysis was conducted, please answer the question by circle YES or NO below:

(a) Organisational level: (a) yes (b) No

(b) Job level: (a) yes (b) No

(c) Personal level: (a) yes (b) No

(d) At all levels above

**Please circle one of the following numbers (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) to the right of each item that most closely reflect your opinion.**

14. In terms of the following measures, how much larger or smaller do you think NRC business is today as a result of the T&D it has provided its staff in the last one year?

1. A lot smaller
2. A little smaller
3. No 3. difference
4. A little larger,
5. 5. A lot larger

a	Labour productivity	1	2	3	4	5
b	Pre-tax profit margin	1	2	3	4	5
d	Overall individual performance	1	2	3	4	5
e	Overall organisational performance	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle one of the following numbers (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) to the right of each item that most closely reflect your opinion after the training and development you received recently; please note that there is no right or wrong answer.

1 - Strongly disagree    2 - Disagree    3 - Neither agrees nor disagrees  
4 - Agree    5 - Strongly agree

### **Turnover Intention**

15	I have basically decided to stay with NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
16	At the moment I have no plans of leaving Nigerian Railway Corporation (NRC) and work for another organisation in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I have made up my mind to stay in NRC to develop my career for a long time.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I think I have a better future working with any another organisation other than the NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I often thought of quitting the employment of NRC in recent times.	1	2	3	4	5

### **Affective commitment**

20	I actually do not feel that this organisation's problems are my problems.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I feel as part of one big family in NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I do not feel emotionally attached to NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I do have a strong sense of belonging as a staff of NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I am more confident and desire to work for the NRC more than I did about two or three years ago.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Right now I am are positive about my future with the NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I feel proud to be working with and for the NRC	1	2	3	4	5
27	As an employee of NRC I feel proud talking about corporation with people who are not members.	1	2	3	4	5

### **Continuance Commitment**

28	Too much in my future plans would be interrupted if I am decided I wanted to leave NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
29	I feel like I have too few options to consider leaving NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
30	The main grave costs of my leaving the NRC would be the dearth of accessible options for me.	1	2	3	4	5

31	If I had not already put in so much of my life into working with NRC, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
32	It may be very difficult for me to leave NRC at this point in time even if I so desire to quit.	1	2	3	4	5

### **Normative Commitment**

33	Employees of should continually be dedicated to their organisation.					
34	It is wrong employees to be moving from one organisation to another as I am concern.					
35	Things are bad now compare to when employees are committed to one organisation for a long time.					
36	I think aspiring to be the organisation's man/woman is the right thing to do.					
37	Even if I am offered better job in another organisation I will not leave NRC.					

### **Performance Competence (Skills/knowledge,/ability/capability)**

38	One of my joys is that I have mastered the skills necessary to performance well in your current job.	1	2	3	4	5
39	I am confident of my ability to carry out my main tasks in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I am capable of performing my various job requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
41	The T&D you received prepared you well for your current job.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I am not content with the level of my skills and knowledge development to perform well as an employee of NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
43	My ability to succeed at my work is generally good as a NRC employee.	1	2	3	4	5

### **Job Performance**

44	I can accomplish my task better now than in the previous years.	1	2	3	4	5
45	The objectives with which I was appointed as NRC worker have satisfactorily been fulfilled.	1	2	3	4	5
46	My ability to performance better at work has generally been enhanced.	1	2	3	4	5
47	In general, my work performance has increased in recent times.	1	2	3	4	5
48	My past poor working relationship with other NRC employees have adversely affected my work environment.	1	2	3	4	5
49	Training and development programmes I received have helped me performed my job much better in my organisation (NRC).	1	2	3	4	5
50	As an employee of NRC I would say my performance in the last one year of my service was encouraging.	1	2	3	4	5
51	I have previously been inundated with complaints regarding my performance as a NRC staff.	1	2	3	4	5

**Job Satisfaction**

52	I am pleased with the feeling of accomplishment I got from my job.	1	2	3	4	5
53	Generally I am content with the chances I have to do things differently from time to time in NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
54	I am happy with the chance to work alone in NRC.	1	2	3	4	5
55	I seldom get bored doing my job as a NRC employee.	1	2	3	4	5
56	In NRC I get sufficient opportunity to implement my skills in your job area.	1	2	3	4	5
57	In general I will rate my work incentive in NRC as very good.	1	2	3	4	5
58	Generally speaking I am able to communicate with any work related issues with NRC authorities.	1	2	3	4	5
59	I am always passionate about my job as NRC employee.	1	2	3	4	5

I am interested to know how NRC **customer services** in the last financial year were largely unchanged or significantly improved then previous years; state in percentage?

60	Service remain unchanged in the last 1 year	%
61	Only marginal changed in the last 1 year	%
62	Significantly improved in the last one year	%
63	New service introduced within the last 1 year	%
64	Customers complaint remain unchanged	%
65	Customers complaint significantly improved in the last one year	%

**Section B**

<b>Training Transfer</b>
--------------------------

Please circle one of the following numbers (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) to the right of each item that most closely reflect your opinion about training you received in the last one year. Please note that there is no right or wrong answers.

**1 - Strongly disagree    2 - Disagree    3 - Neither agree nor disagree  
4 - Agree    5 - Strongly agree**

**For the following items, please think about THIS SPECIFIC TRAINING PROGRAM (the last training programme):**

1.	Prior to this training, I knew how the program was supposed to affect my performance.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	This training will increase my personal productivity.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	When I leave this training, I can't wait to get back to work to try what I learned.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I believe this training will help me do my current job better.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Successfully using this training will help me get a salary increase.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	If I use this training I am more likely to be rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am likely to receive some recognition if I use my newly learned skills on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Before this training, I had a good understanding of how it would fit my job-related development.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I knew what to expect from this training before it began.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I don't have time to try to use this training on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Trying to use this training takes too much energy away from my other work.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Employees in this organization will be penalized for not using what they have learned in this training.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I was able to try out this training on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	There is too much happening at work right now for me to try to use this training.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	If I do not use new techniques taught in this training I will be reprimanded.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	If I do not utilize this training I will be cautioned about it.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	The resources needed to use what I learned in this training were available to me.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	My colleagues appreciated my using the new skills I learned in the training.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	My colleagues encouraged me to use the skills I have learned in the training	1	2	3	4	5
20.	At work, my colleagues expected me to use what I learned in the training.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	My supervisor met with me regularly to work on problems I am having in trying to use the training.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	My supervisor met with me to discuss ways to apply learning on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	My supervisor opposes the use of techniques I learned in the training.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	My supervisor thinks I am being less effective when I use the techniques taught in training.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	My supervisor criticized the training when I got back to the job.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	My supervisor helped me set realistic goals for job performance based on my training.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	The instructional aids (equipment, illustrations, etc.) used in this training are very similar to real things I use on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	The methods used in this training are very similar to how we do it on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I like the way this training seems so much like my job.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	It is clear to me that the people conducting this training understand	1	2	3	4	5

	how I will use what I learn.				
31.	The trainer(s) used lots of examples that showed me how I could use my learning on the job.	1	2	3	4 5
32.	The way the trainer(s) taught the material made me feel more confident I could apply it in my job.	1	2	3	4 5
33.	I got the opportunities to use this training on my job.	1	2	3	4 5
33a.	There are systems in place that will reward me when I apply this new learning on the job.	1	2	3	4 5
33b.	In this organization, there are incentives for me to apply this training on the job.	1	2	3	4 5
33c.	The knowledge and skills taught in this training are the same as those required by my job.	1	2	3	4 5
33d.	The content of this training matches my job requirements.	1	2	3	4 5
	<p><b><i>Please turn to the next page</i></b>  <b><i>Please complete questions 38 - 52 below.</i></b>  <b><i>Note that these items have new instructions</i></b>  <b><i>Please read them carefully</i></b></p>				
	<p><b>1 - Strongly disagree    2 - Disagree    3 - Neither agree nor disagree</b>  <b>4 - Agree    5 - Strongly agree</b></p>				
	<p><b>For the following items, please <u>THINK ABOUT TRAINING IN GENERAL</u> in your organization.</b></p>				
38.	My job performance improves when I use new things that I have learned.	1	2	3	4 5
39.	The harder I work at learning, the better I do my job.	1	2	3	4 5
40.	For the most part, the people who get rewarded around here are the ones that do something to deserve it.	1	2	3	4 5
41.	When I do things to improve my performance, good things happen to me.	1	2	3	4 5
42.	The more training I apply on my job, the better I do my job.	1	2	3	4 5
43.	My job is ideal for someone who likes to get rewarded when they do something really good.	1	2	3	4 5
44.	Experienced employees in my group ridicule others when they use techniques they learn in training.	1	2	3	4 5
45.	People in my group are not willing to put in the effort to change the way things are done.	1	2	3	4 5
46.	My workgroup is reluctant to try new ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4 5
47.	People often make suggestions about how I can improve my job performance.	1	2	3	4 5
48.	I get a lot of advice from others about how to do my job better.	1	2	3	4 5
49.	I never doubt my ability to use newly learned skills on the job.	1	2	3	4 5
50.	I am sure I can overcome obstacles on the job that hinder my use of new skills or knowledge.	1	2	3	4 5
51.	At work, I feel very confident using what I learned in training even in the face of difficult or taxing situations.	1	2	3	4 5
52.	People often tell me things to help me improve my job performance.	1	2	3	4 5
	<b><i>Thank you for your time!!!</i></b>				

## Section C

### Interview Questionnaire

1. Did NRC provide T&D for the employee in the last one year?
2. What are the major reasons why NRC decided to embark on T&D?
3. What are your views of the T&D received by the employees of NRC?
4. What proportion of the employees had T&D over the last 12 months?
5. To what extent would you say that T&D provided by NRC has met its objectives?
6. Did NRC conduct training needs analysis before the actual training took place?
7. If the answer to question number 6 is yes, at what level/s training needs analysis were carried?
8. Have NRC conducted any evaluation of the outcome T&D before?
9. If the answer in question 8 above is yes, when was it conducted?

**The following questions ask about business performance such as productivity and profit.**

I am interested in having following information for the financial year (2011) for which you have data?

10. In terms of the following measures, how much larger or smaller do you think NRC business is today as a result of the T&D it has provided in 2011?
1. A lot smaller
  2. A little smaller
  3. No difference
  4. A little larger
  5. A lot larger

a	Labour productivity	1	2	3	4	5
b	Pre-tax profit margin	1	2	3	4	5

11. How is 2011 compared to 2010 in terms of the following:

Employees turnover rate	1	2	3	4	5
Total workforce, including working directors	1	2	3	4	5

12. I am interested to know how NRC customer services in the last financial year were largely unchanged or significantly improved and then previous years. State in percentage?

		%
	Service remain unchanged in the last 1 year	
	Only marginal changed in the last 1 year	%
	Significantly improved in the last one year	%
	New service introduced within the last 1 year	%
	Customers complaint remain unchanged	%
	Customers complaint significantly improved in the last one year	%

13. In each of the following areas, I'd like to know how NRC business is currently performing compared with other businesses in the sector.

(1) A lot below average----- (5) a lot better than average (N) No comparison possible (R) Relevant data not available.

Financial Performance	1	2	3	4	5	N	R
Labour Productivity	1	2	3	4	5	N	R
Quality of service	1	2	3	4	5	N	R
Employee turnover rate	1	2	3	4	5	N	R

14. I am also interested to know in your opinion about the extent did T&D in NRC has influenced:

- (a) Employee turnover intention
- (b) Employees commitment
- (c) Job satisfaction,
- (d) Employee retention,
- (e) Improve performance (both at individual and organisational level).

### 10.3. Appendix 4 Letters



## NIGERIAN RAILWAY CORPORATION

*Managing Director's Office*

*P.M.B. 1037, Ebute-Metta, Lagos, Nigeria*

Fax: (01) 7940041 ☎: (01) 7747320, 5853187, 5853193

**REF: NO. NRL.69/Vol. 1/195**

26<sup>th</sup> August, 2011

Mr. Johnson Nwokeiwu  
University of Kwazulu-Natal  
South Africa.

Dear Sir,

**RE- PERMISSION TO USE NIGERIAN RAILWAY CORPORATION AS CASE STUDY  
FOR PHD STUDY**

Your letter of 25<sup>th</sup> August, 2011 on the above subject refers.

I am directed to inform you that approval has been given to enable you conduct research on Nigerian Railway Corporation as a case study for your thesis in PHD

  
F. T. AYANKUNLE  
for: MANAGING DIRECTOR

## 10.4. Appendix 5 Ethical Clearance Letter



Research Office, Govan Mbeki Centre  
Westville Campus  
Private Bag x54001  
DURBAN, 4000  
Tel No: +27 31 260 8350  
Fax No: +27 31 260 4609  
[snymanm@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:snymanm@ukzn.ac.za)

18 October 2011

Br J Nwokeiwu (991238211)  
School of Management

Dear Br Nwokeiwu

**PROTOCOL REFERENCE NUMBER: HSS/0916/011D**

**PROJECT TITLE: Training, Development and Performance in a Public Corporation: A case study of the Nigerian Railway Corporation**

In response to your application dated 14 September 2011, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.  
**PLEASE NOTE:** Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

.....  
**Professor Steven Collings (Chair)**  
**HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

cc. Supervisor – Dr M Phiri  
cc. Mrs. C Haddon



Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville