ENHANCING THE TRAINING PROCESS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR OF THE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO TRAINING NEEDS ASSESSMENT, OBJECTIVE DEVELOPMENT, TRAINEES SELECTION AND EVALUATION

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DEDICATION

To my mother and father

My lord: Bestow on them thy mercy even as they cherished me in childhood

Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to describe and investigate the barriers from both an academic and practical perspective, towards vocational training process in particular training needs assessment (TNA), training objective development, trainee selection methodologies, and programme evaluation. These are examined within the context of the public sector of the United Arab Emirates, in the form of the government agencies (recipients) and the training programme provider, namely the Institute of Administrative Development (IAD). This is augmented by, and integrated with a comparative study employing contemporary available research materials relating to the research world wide.

Field research involved conducting an extensive programme of questionnaire and interview studies. The researcher delivered questionnaires to three groups: trainees who graduated from IAD after two months of training; the immediate supervisors of trainees; and the training officers. Of the 349 trainee questionnaires distributed, 174 were collected, of which 170 were used in the final analysis. A total of 109 questionnaires were distributed to the trainees' immediate supervisors, 67 replies were collected. Twenty four training officer questionnaires were collected, covering 15 ministries out of the 21. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 8 out of 9 staff members of the Institute of Administrative

Development. A descriptive statistical analysis approach has been adopted which is in keeping with the nature of the study.

Based on the findings of the above studies, the principal conclusions that have been derived from this research reveal the following:

- a lack of effort was put into identifying the trainees' needs prior to attending programmes, by both the government agencies and the IAD;
- limited TNA methodologies were employed which do not produce reliable results;
- training programme objectives were not determined according to the trainees development requirements;
- there were no formalised criteria for selecting trainees to attend the programmes provided by IAD;
- no effort was made by the ministries and IAD to evaluate the relevancy and adequacy of training programmes to job performance within the work place.

The critical factors inhibiting the adoption of training needs assessment (TNA), training objective development, trainee selection methodologies, and effective programme evaluation were as follow:

- training personnel's lack of, or limited, skills in programme design;
- lack of resources including training personnel, and insufficient training budget;

• socio-cultural values, such as personal ties within the organisation, which tend to influence the way trainees are selected to attend programmes, and how they were appraised within their organisations;

• in general, a lack of awareness of the importance of training process.

The comparative findings indicate that some European public sectors put more effort into conducting TNA and programme evaluation than the UAE. In the Arab context, it was found that Oman's government agencies have made more attempts to evaluate programme effectiveness than the UAE. The study also indicates that the Jordanian public sector adopts a wider range of methods for TNA than the UAE. The way training programme objectives are developed by IADTS is similar to that of the Bangladesh government training institutes.

In the final chapter valuable recommendations are made which should assist decision makers and practitioners to achieve more successful implementation of TNA, training objective development, trainee selection methodologies, and programme evaluation.

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Chapter One

Introduction to the Study

1.1 Introduction:

The principal objectives of this study are to investigate the practice of and barriers to training needs assessment (TNA), objective training programme development, trainees selection methods, and evaluation, within the context of the public sector of the United Arab Emirates. In particular the training programme provider, namely is the Institute of Administrative Development (IAD), and the government agencies/ministries who are the users.

The purpose of this chapter is to acquaint the reader with the general outlook of the study, and therefore this chapter is comprised of the following sections:

1.2: Rationale of the Study

1.3: Objective

1.4: Main Research Methodology

1.5: Significance of the Study

1.6: Organisation of the Research

1.2 Rationale of the Study:

Taylor et al (1998) and Fitchew (1998) suggest that decision about providing training for employees should be based on the determination of employees training need within the organisation. Zemke (1998) argues that needs assessment is vital to determine and decide the best way to close the gap between the existing employees performance and the way it should be.

Similarly, Campell (1997) indicates that the purpose of occupational training is to provide individuals with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to improve the job performance. To effectively and efficiently accomplish this purpose, occupational training institutes are required to be aware of and responsive to the work force requirements.

There are various methods of training needs assessment (TNA) such as questionnaires, interviews, performance appraisal, critical incidents, etc., as suggested by More and Dutton (1976); Ferdinand (1988); Stewart (1991); Craig (1994); Bee and Bee (1994); Bartram and Gibson (1995).

One can raise the question of whether these methods provide the trainer with accurate, valid, and reliable data. From a behavioural standpoint, interviews, as compared to survey questionnaires, are inherently more intrusive into the individual's 'space', and respondents may, for example, display a level of discomfort when presented with a particular question which, in their opinion, may have a negative impact on their position (McClelland, 1994). Therefore, when doing TNA, training professionals should combine several different methods of data collection to get a wide sampling of opinions, and be sure to confirm information with more than one source before drawing any conclusions (Chase, 1998).

In addition, Anderson (1994) has pointed out that training needs assessment is seldom planned, and many training programmes are based on personnel wants rather than identified needs. When actually performed, needs analysis is often based on trial and error, or conducted in a fairly ad hoc manner. Trainers seem to lack a theoretical basis for what they are doing and often fail to integrate training activities into the wider organisational context. Daley (1996) suggests that the best way to ensure that training 'takes' is to relate it to the organisational goals and the performance demands.

Buckly and Caple (1995) indicate that by effectively identifying training needs, a blueprint emerges which provides the means by which pertinent objectives and successful criteria can be developed. These objectives provide the input for the design of the training programme as well as the measures of success that will be used to evaluate the programme's adequacy. Similarly, Davies (1998) suggests that training objectives should flow from the TNA and should specify the key knowledge, skills, or attitude that the trainers want the trainees to be able to demonstrate at the end of the programme.

Nadler and Nadler (1994) argue that the designer should never determine objectives in a vacuum. It is relatively simple for a designer to work alone in writing objectives, but this heightens the possibility of producing training objectives irrelevant to the trainees' job performance. Thus, the content of training objectives should be linked as closely as possible to the trainees' real task or job (Patrick, 1992). When the objectives of the training programme do not reflect true needs it is unlikely to be successful (Sanderson, 1995).

Tracey (1984) indicates that to be effective and efficient training of any type must be provided only to employees who have been screened and selected for suitability to ensure that the right people are enrolled in a training programme; otherwise training and development resources will be wasted. Moon (1997) argues that too often the approach adopted relies on '*what course do you fancy going on'*. From this perspective, training may be regarded as a reward for good performance rather than as a response to needs. Similarly, Jones (1997) suggests that wasteful training occurs when individuals are sent to 'off-the-shelf' courses which are not pertinent to the job and often too theoretical.

The 'concept' of training evaluation has received widespread recognition as beneficial, but its actual practice is the least well conducted aspect of all training activities. Although hundreds of articles, books, and seminars have been devoted to the subject of training evaluation, it remains misunderstood, neglected, or misused (Sim, 1993). If this is the case, one can raise the question of why the evaluation of training is under-developed. Kirkpatrick (1994) argues that a holistic approach should be adopted, which consists of four important levels representing a sequence of approaches to the evaluation of a training programme. The first level is that of *'reaction'* which measures the trainees' satisfaction with the course. The second is *'learning'* which involves measuring the trainees' knowledge. Third is the *'behaviour'* level evaluation which answers the question of whether the participants have applied what they have learned from the training programme. Finally, there is the *'result'* evaluation, which is the most difficult of all levels of evaluation, as it attempts to determine what final results occurred by attending a training programme.

Kirkpatrick (1994) argues that some trainers are keen to bypass reaction and learning evaluation in order to measure behavioural change. This can be dangerous. For example, if no changes in behaviour have occurred, one can conclude that the programme has been ineffective and should be stopped. Such a conclusion may not be precise. This is because the reaction evaluations of trainees' may have been favourable and training objectives may have been achieved, but the work place has prevented the trainees from applying what they have learned.

Various research projects and reports have been conducted and published by Meignieze et al. (1961); Tracy (1984); Warr et al (1974); Russ-eft and Zenger (1985); Barkdoll and Sporn (1989); Sims (1993); and Lewis and Thornhill (1994); Sanderson (1995); Bedingham (1997); Zemke (1998). All of which have identified various obstacles to training evaluation. These obstacles can be summarised in the following manner:

1. insufficient planning;
2. inadequate interpretation of data;
3. inappropriate use of evaluation outcomes;
4. resources (e.g. lack of training personnel and time consuming);
5. lack of rewards associated with evaluation;
6. lack of skills and knowledge in carrying out evaluation;
7. methodological problems.

Furthermore, Swanson and Falkman (1997) indicate that most new trainers are not graduate of programmes specifically designed to train them, and their preparation to deliver training is often by trial and error.

Validating, investigating and overcoming such obstacles will form a major aspect of this research.

1.3 Research Objectives:

In spite of the importance of and the obstacles to the TNA, training objective development, trainees selection methods, and evaluation, shown in the literature, there has been little research about those issues in the Arab world public sector. Also, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, which is substantiated by the literature review, there has been little or no comparative research conducted between the public sectors of developing countries (e.g., Arabic countries), and those of developed countries (e.g. Europeans countries) public sectors, with regard to the evaluation of training process. Accordingly, there are three important questions that needs to be investigated concerning the objective of the current study:

1. What approaches are used in assessing training needs, developing training programme objectives, selecting trainees, and evaluating programmes?
2. What are the barriers that affect the best practice regarding the above?
3. How do the results of this study compare with other research findings?

The first question is concerned with describing the actual practice of TNA, training programme objective development, trainees selection methods, and evaluation. Thus, the following aspects are probed:

A. the methods used by IAD and government organisations to collect data on training needs and programme evaluations;

B. IADTS approaches for training programme objective development;

C. the methods of trainees selections adopted by IAD and government organisations;

D. the approaches of training evaluation;

E. the purpose of data evaluation as perceived by IAD and government organisations.

The second question aims to explore related barriers in the context of IAD and government agencies'. The following related issues are examined:

A. the extent to which the methods of TNA (e.g. job description, performance appraisal) produce a reliable data about employee training needs;

B. the extent to which the methods of programme evaluation (e.g. questionnaire) produce reliable data about the programme effectiveness

C. the competence of IADTS, and training officers of the government agencies;

E. resources (e.g. personnel, finance);

F. the implication of social factors (e.g. personnel ties) on performance appraisal and in attending training programme.

The final question is concerned with comparing the similarities and differences of result of the current study with those related studies conducted elsewhere.

1.4 Main Research Methodology:

To accomplish the objectives of this study it was decided to adopt the following research strategy:

1. Self-administered questionnaires were personally distributed and collected from the following respondents:

A. 170 questionnaires were completed by trainees who attended IAD programmes, (349 were distributed).

B. 67 questionnaires were completed by trainees immediate supervisors, (109 were distributed).

C. 24 questionnaires were completed by training officers, representing the 21 UAE ministries.

2. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 8 of the 9 training staff employed by IAD, (hereafter denoted by IADTS).

1.5 Significance of the Study:

This study is significant for two particular reasons:

1.5.1 Academic Insight:

1. This study supports continuing efforts to bridge the gap between academic knowledge, and the practical understanding of the key feature of training process in the public sector of the Arab world.

2. As far as the researcher is aware, this study is the first to compare and contrast approaches to the training process adopted by developing and developed countries.

1.5.2 Policy Development (UAE):

1. This research informs the policy-makers of the current practice of TNA, training programme objectives development, trainees selection methods and evaluation. It also, helps them to reform the current policies to improve the quality of training delivery.

2. Having identified and analysed the current status of the training process, with the reference to the best practice and emergent academic research, this study will recommend whether, or not, policy and procedures require modification.

3. Based on the above, the study will enlighten both IAD and government agencies with regard to effective training programme design. Any

recommendations will of course need to take account of the socio-cultural factors at play within the UAE.

1.6 Organisation of the Research:

This research study consists of six important chapters:

This chapter serves as an introduction to the topic and has explained the rationale, objectives, and methodology which is employed in order to evaluate the training process. The significance and the organisation of the of the research has been noted.

Chapter two provides a general background to the United Arab Emirates. It consists of a brief description of the geography and climate, the characteristics of population, the economy, the public sector, and the educational system. It also, presents an overview of the Institute of Administration Development (IAD), including a description of its structure, and principal activities.

Chapter three introduces the conceptual framework of this study. It examines various definitions of training, differences between training, education and development, and is followed by an examination of various training models. Training needs assessment is discussed in detailed, as is objective training programme development, the trainees selection; and programme evaluations. The practical barriers to all above issues are fully discussed.

The research methodology is presented in Chapter four. It discusses the concept of research design and data collection. Also, the strategy adopted in this study is presented and justified. The reliability and validity of the data collections is discussed. A description about the research participants is presented, followed by a review of the limitations and obstacles encountered in conducting the current study.

Chapter five presents the data analysis and associated discussions relating to the training process. In particular, issues relating to the effectiveness of current practices associated with TNA; training programme objective development; the trainees selection; and programme evaluations.

The final chapter presents the main research findings. It begins with the summary of the key findings, followed by recommendations on strategies for improving the development of TNA, objectives training programme formulation, selection of trainees methods, and programme evaluation. Finally, possible areas for further research are suggested.

Chapter Two

United Arab Emirates Background

2.1 Introduction:

This chapter is designed to acquaint the reader with the country under investigation and to inform the research topic. It is divided into the following sections:

2.2 Formation of UAE

2.3 Geography and Climate

2.4 Population

2.5 Economy

2.6 Public Sector

2.7 Education

2.8 Training: Institute of Administrative Development

2.9: Summary

2.2 Formation of UAE:

The United Arab Emirates is a developing country (Kemp, and Yousef, 1995). It became independent as a federal state on 2 Dec.,1972, as a result of two distinct events. One was the agreement of the government of the United Kingdom and the rulers of the seven emirates (formally known as the Trucial States or Trucial Oman) to bring to an end the treaty of relationship that had existed between them since the beginning of the 20th century. The other event was the agreement between the rulers of six of the emirates: Abu-Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm-Alqaiwain and Fujairah, to establish a federation to be known as the United Arab Emirates. The seventh emirate, Ras-Alkhaimah joined the federation on 10 February 1972 (Al-Abed, 1997).

2.3 Geography and Climate:

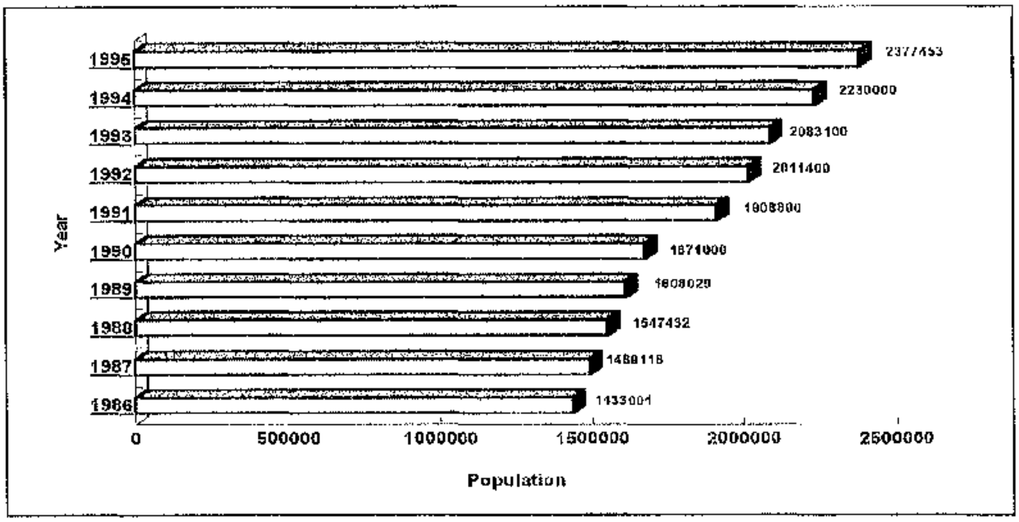
The UAE occupies the south-east corner of the Arabian peninsula, bounded to the north and north-west by the Arabian Gulf and Gulf of Oman, to the South-west by Saudi Arabia, and to the west by Qatar (Kemp, and Yousef, 1995). The UAE has a total area of approximately 84,000 square kilometres (Al-Sadik, 1997).

The weather in UAE in summer is characterised by temperatures reaching 48 degrees Centigrade during the day and dropping to a humid 24 degrees through the night. This harsh climate makes life and work difficult without air-conditioning. The weather in winter, on the other hand, is usually pleasant with temperatures reaching about 30 Centigrade during the day and dropping to about 8 Centigrade during the night. Rains are less frequent with an average annual rainfall of not more than 6.5 cm (Ghanem, 1992).

2.4 Population:

Before the discovery of oil, the UAE aggregate population was low. According to the first census carried out in 1968 the total population of UAE was 180,226 (Al.Hadad, 1987). However a more recent census reveals that the population of UAE has grown tremendously. Figure 2.1 shows that the total number of UAE population in 1995 was 2,377,453. This means that the aggregate population has risen by over 13 times since 1968.

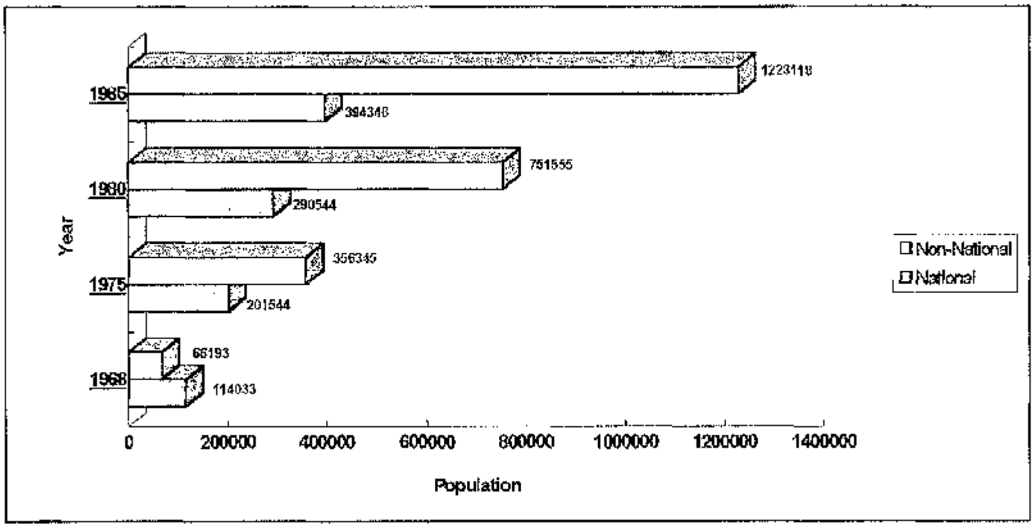
Figure 2.1: UAE Population from 1986-1995



Source: Structured by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

The most important factor which has contributed to the growth of the population was the huge influx of immigrants occurring during the 1970s and 1980s. Figure 2.2 shows that in 1968 nationals accounted for 63 percent, whereas non-national, accounted for nearly 38 percent of the total population. However, it is noticeable that the aggregate population of non-national had increased significantly compared to nationals in the period from 1975 to 1985. For example, in 1985 non-nationals represent nearly 76 percent of the total population.

Figure 2.2: UAE National Versus Non-National Population (1968-1985)



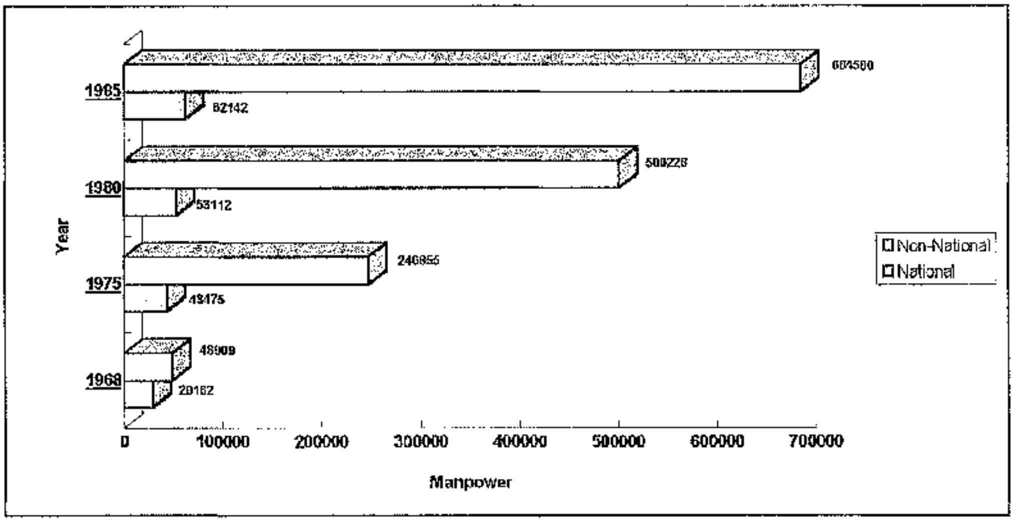
Source: Adopted From Al-Hadad, 1987, p.17.

The increasing number of non-nationals was inevitable, due to the desire of the UAE government for rapid economic development; the presence of an abundance of surplus wealth from oil revenues; and the small size of the local populations. These factors have resulted in the importation of foreign professional, technical, and clerical workers, and even of common labourers (Magnus, 1980).

Also, the establishment and the expansion of government organisations in the early seventies prompted job vacancies, and there were not enough qualified local nationals available in the market to fill the them. Figure 2.3 indicates that non-nationals constitute approximately

63 percent of the total manpower for the year of 1968 compared to nationals at 37 percent. Furthermore, the 1985 census revealed that the number of non-nationals has increased to 91.7 percent of the total manpower compared to national 8.3 percent.

Figure 2.3: National Versus Non-National Manpower



Source:Adopted From Al.Hadad, 1987, p.17.

Another reason behind the population growth is related to advanced health provision. The death rate decreased from 7.3 per 1000 in 1975 to 2.06 per 1000 in 1994 (Shihab, 1997).

2.5 Economy:

The development of the economy of the UAE can be classified into the pre-oil and post-oil eras. The pre-oil period covers the time span before the oil resources became known, and the post-oil era when the receipts from petroleum began to occur along with the expansion of the market industries.

2.5.1 Pre-oil Era:

The geography of the UAE, the bare nature of the land, and the lack of rain meant that UAE inhabitants traditionally had a hard struggle against nature. To earn a living from a barren environment was difficult. The main resource upon which the economy was based in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries concentrated on the sea, which supported pearl-diving, fishing, and trading activities (Rumaihi,1980, Ghanem, 1992). However, the pearl industry collapsed as a result of the world economic depression in the late 1920s and 1930s, and the introduction of Japanese cultured pearls into the international. (Hawley, 1970, Zahlan, 1980, Taryam, 1987). There were also some basic industries such as ship building, dried fish, dried dates, handicrafts and the like (Kemp, and Yousef, 1995).

2.5.2 Post-oil Era

The discovery of oil in 1958 marks the beginning of the emergence of the modern UAE. During the sixties and seventies the UAE was just an oil-producing country, dependent on a single source of income. The oil sector played an important contribution to the development of the physical and social infrastructure of the country (Ghanem, 1992)., Today the economy has been diversified through other sources, so much so in fact that the UAE non-oil exports and re-exports have increased from 150 millions of dollars in 1971 to 13.5 billion of dollars in 1994 (Yearbook, 1995).

2.6 The Government Machinery:

Prior to the 1950s no government services or departments existed, and the communication network was at the most primitive level (Hay et al, 1959). The rulers administered society's affairs, such as solving disputes among the tribes through the consultation of Qadhi (religious judge) (Hawely, 1970). The ruler's bodyguard, *mutarizyya,* was the only force responsible for the maintenance of internal security, where as the British government was responsible for external defence and foreign affairs (Taryam, 1987).

In the 1950s to 1960s period, the development of the government machinery of the UAE began in the state of Dubai, earlier than that of any of the other states, when a Dubai Municipal Council was founded in 1957 on the advice of an Iraqi local government expert. The objectives of the Municipal Department were to take responsibility for the administration of the town and to administer the development plan which was commissioned by the ruler and prepared by a British expert. Water and postal departments were established in 1961, and a Dubai police force was set up in 1956 under the command of British officers. In contrast to Dubai, Abu-Dhabi was slower in developing its governmental machinery because the ruler, Sheikh Shakhbut bin Sultan, was committed to the traditional Arab way of life and was too apprehensive of modernisation to see the need for rapid development. However, when Sheikh Zaid became ruler and Sheikh Shakhbut deposed in 1966, the pace of administrative progress was greatly quickened. Various departments were established with the help of British experts and qualified Arab personnel. Departments set up comprised of Education, Health, Water, Development and Public Works, Customs, Agriculture, Municipalities, Justice, Electricity, Labour, Information and Tourism, Posts, Telecommunications, Civil Service Aviation and Petroleum Affairs, Defence, and the Police Force (Hawely, 1970).

In 1971 federal political machinery was established to deal with three important functions in the country's executive, legislative, and judicial sectors (Taryam,1987 and Al-Abed,1997). The Constitution of the UAE describes in detail the legal functions of each federal organisation[1]. Figure 2.4 shows the structure of the federal government and the relationships among them. The five government bodies as follows:

[1] The Constitution of UAE was formulated provisionally on July 18, 1971, and was made permanent in 1996 (Peck, 1997).

2.6.1: The Federal Supreme Council (FSC):

The FSC - sometimes referred to as the Supreme Council represents the highest political authority and has both executive and legislative power. It sets general policy in all matters involving defence, foreign policy, and education.

The FSC consists of the seven rulers of the Emirates and elects from among its members the President and Vice President of the country every five years. Each ruler has a single vote although procedural issues are decided by a simple majority vote. The President has the power to exercise absolute authority in the UAE political system. The president appoints the Prime Minister with the approval of the FSC, and selects the Deputy Prime Minister. With the approval of the Council Ministers, he appoints senior government officials and diplomatic representatives. Since Sheikh Zayed was elected in 1971, he has been the UAE's only president so far. Membership in the FCS is established on the wholly traditional basis of leadership of the tribes that dominate each emirate, sacrificing institutional for paternalistic, authoritarian rule. (Peack, 1997).

2.6.2: The President of The Union and His Deputy (PUD):

The second level power is exercised by the PUD who carry out legislative executive power. They are both elected by the FSC for a period of five years subject to renewal. Their main activities are chairing and convening the meetings of the FCS and the Federal Council of the

Minister, signing, approving, and supervising issues pertaining to federal laws, decrees and decisions through the FSM. The President appoints all senior civilian and military officials and signs the credentials of the diplomatic representative abroad.

2.6.3: The Federal Council of the Minister (FCM):

The Council of the Minister combines executive and legislative functions. Most laws are initiated in the Council, which also establishes the regulations necessary to implement federal laws. Also, the Council prepares the federal budget, supervises the implementation of all federal laws, decrees, regulations, supreme court decisions, and international treaties made. FCM comprises of the Prime Minister, two deputy Prime Ministers, and a number of ministers who are in charge of the following ministries: Education; Health; Information; Interior; Electricity and Water; Public Work and Housing; Agriculture and Fisheries; Transportation; Foreign Affairs; Justice; Labour and Social Affair; Finance and Industry; Cabinet Affairs; Planning; Economy and Commerce; Islamic Affairs; Supreme Council Affairs; Youth and Sport; and Higher Education.

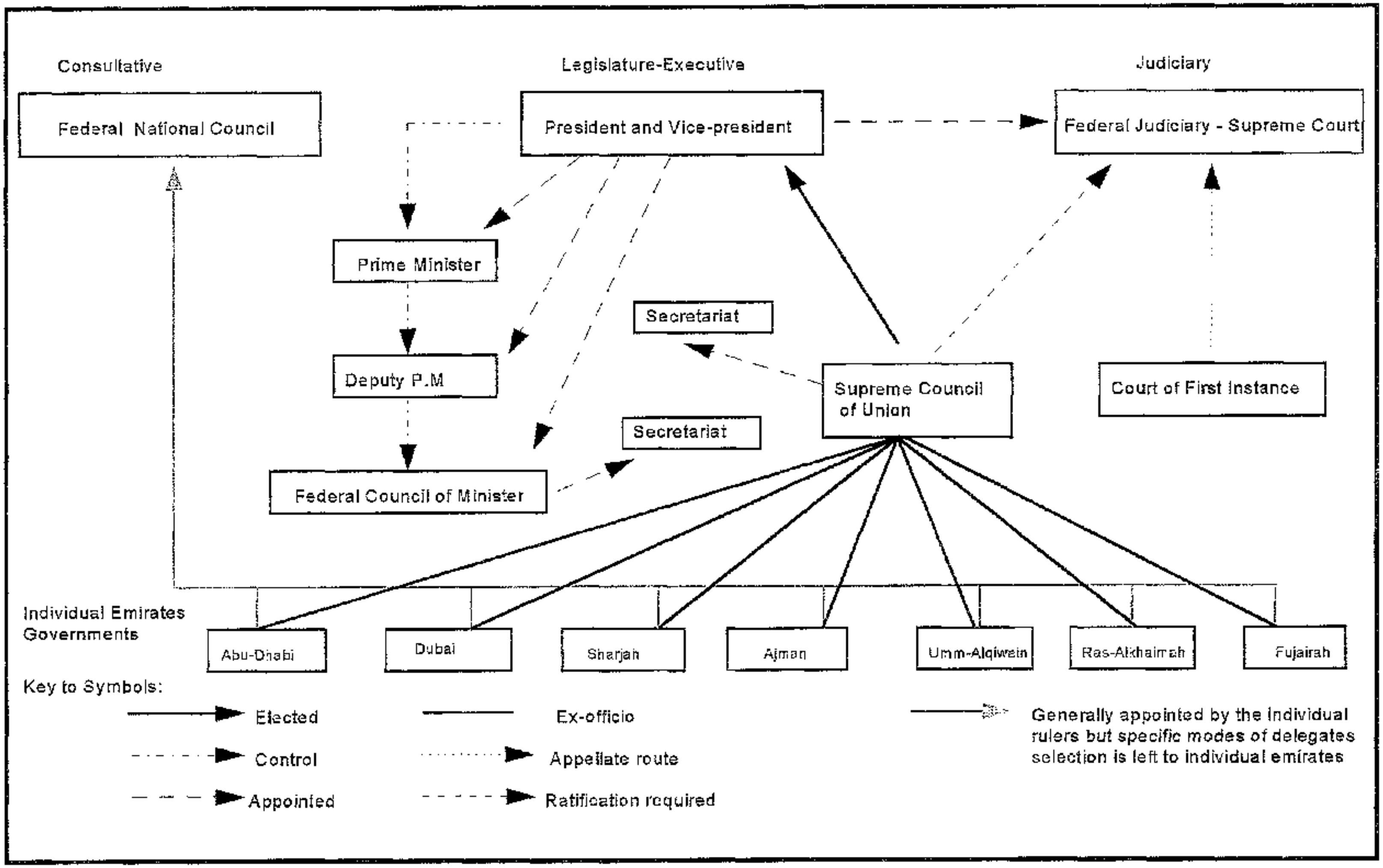
2.6.4: The Federal National Council (FNC):

This consists of 40 members from the seven emirates. All the members are appointed by the ruler of each emirate. Abu Dhabi and Dubai are entitled to eight seats each, Sharjah and Ras-Alkhaimah have six seats each, while Ajman, Umm Alqwain, and Fujairah each have four seats. The distribution of seats is influenced by the Emirates' size which include population and lands, and finally the contribution of each emirates to the union budget. The delegates serve a two year term of office renewable without limit. The FNC's main responsibility is legislative, yet resembles a consultative role which involves debating all federal draft laws which are either approved, rejected, or amended, before they are presented to the President and FSC.

2.6.5: The Federal Judiciary (FJ):

The FJ consists of the supreme court and a number of federal courts of First Instance. The principal activities of the Supreme Court are adjudication of disputes between the emirates and federal government; between individual emirates; the determination of federal or state law; and the adjudication of crimes against the state, such as those affecting its security. The Court's of First Instance have jurisdiction over matters that include commercial and civil service disputes among individuals (Khalifa, 1979, Taryam, 1987, Al Abed, 1997).

Figure 2.4: UAE Federal Government Structure



Source: Adopted from Anthony, 1975. Cited in Khalifa, 1979,p.52.

2.6.6 Employment in The Federal Organisations:

The Department of Federal Personnel deals with recruitment for all ministries (Fawzi, 1988). However, the policy of appointment in the civil service was criticised by the United Nations (1980), which reported that unsuitable employees were being appointed to the wrong job and positions. It was found that newly graduated UAE nationals were being appointed to high positions without appropriate experience to carry out the job responsibility effectively. This resulted in UAE nationals relying on expatriates to carry out their job duties.

Moreover, article No. 13 of the civil service law indicates that a job vacancy must be advertised with the required qualification and the employment conditions presented. However, Jakkah's (1993) study shows that out of 312 respondents working in the civil service, only 7 respondents indicated that they had been recruited through an advertisement, whereas the majority of respondents indicated that they had been recruited through the Department of Federal Personnel. And he concluded that employees were often appointed to a job which had never been advertised.

2.6.7 Grading system:

Employees in the federal government grading system fall into four categories. Each of them accommodate various grades (see figure 2.5). The categories are:

A) Top Management: this category comprises of the private grade, which includes minister, deputy minister, and deputy ministerial assistant; also the first echelon post which accommodates two grades, the first being the highest (1/1) and the second being the lowest (1/2).

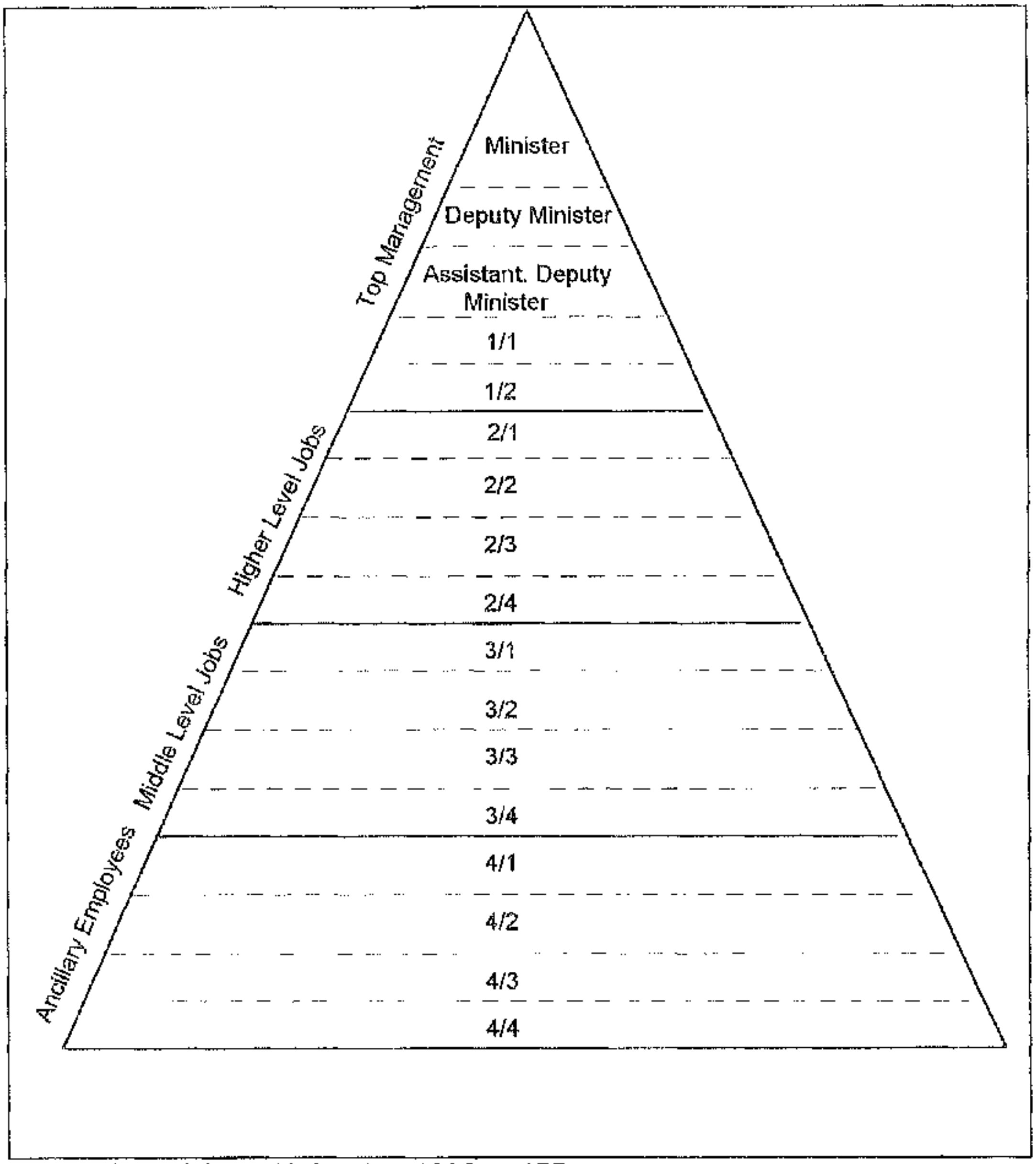
B) Higher: this denotes a second echelon post which consists of four grades (2/1, 2/2, 2/3, 2/4). The employees in this category are senior executives and hold the job title of head of unit or department directors.

C) Middle: employees in this grade class are clerical staff and secretarial. They fall in to the post of third echelon with four grades (3/1, 3/2, 3/3, 3/4).

D) Ancillary: this category consists of the fourth echelon post is divided into four grades (4/1, 4/2, 4/3, 4/4). Personnel in this post are usually janitors, porters, drivers, etc.

Recruitment for top management posts requires the approval of the FCM and a decree from the President of the UAE, whereas other posts only require approval from the Minister and the Personnel Department (Fawzi, 1988).

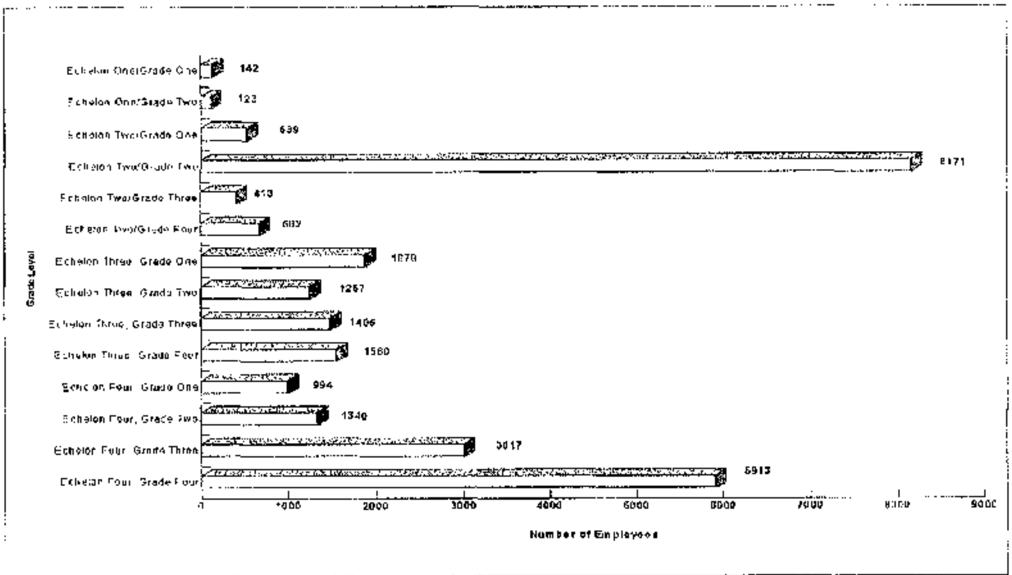
Figure 2.5: Civil Service Grade Pyramid Classification



Source: Adopted from Al-Jassim, 1990, p.177.

Figure 2.6 shows the total number of employees in each post. The number of employees who reside in echelon two and grade two (2/2) is disproportionally high compared with lower grades. The reason behind the over-staffing at this level is that civil service employment policy guarantees a UAE national university graduate initial appointment at the post of 2/2, without taking into consideration either the real needs of the administration or the individual specialisation (Jakka, 1993).

Figure 2.6: Grade Distribution



Source: Prepared by the author based on data from Computer Section, Federal Personnel Departmental (1998).

Al-Jassim (1990) indicated that over-staffing in the UAE civil service on grade 2/2 is related to the policy of Emiratisation during the 1970s to accelerate national employees' promotion, which led to placing young nationals in senior positions. However, expatriate employees considered this policy a threat to their livelihood and felt discriminated against with the new local appointees. For example the UAE nationals were appointed on a higher grade and salary than the expatriates in spite of their job similarities (Al- Khayat, 1989). Similarly, Husni and Al-Qudsi's (1986) analysis of the Kuwait labour market indicated that the variation in employee wages between nationals and expatriates acts as a disincentive and affects the productivity of expatriates negatively.

The problem of over-staffing in grade 2/2 suggests that there is numerical imbalance resulting in more supervisors than subordinates. This, in turn, could create a duplication of authority and the type of the responsibility among grade 2/2 employees.

Another reason may relate to the over-staffing in the public sector generally. As indicated by Ozgediz (1983), one of the major reasons for the growth in public service employment in developing countries is the desire for the government to enhance tribal, ethnic, or regional representation, or to use employment as a tool for overcoming unemployment. Similarly Al-Jassim (1990) indicated that the government of UAE:

> prefers to retain redundant employees rather than face the social and political conflicts which might arise, both from the people and also from the rulers of the emirates (p.172).

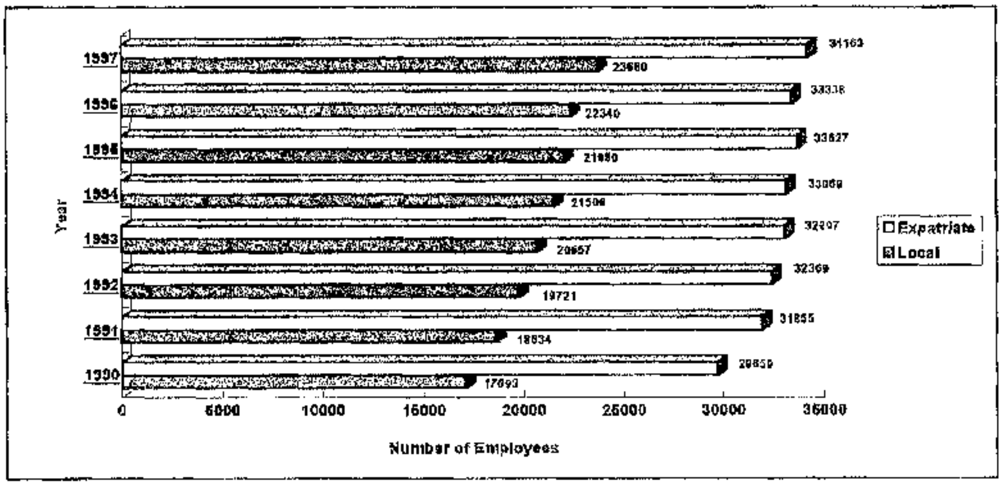
Also, UAE national graduates prefer to work for the public sector rather than the private sector because of such incentives as retirement benefits; higher salaries; life time job guarantees; promotion prospects; training; shorter working hours; and the fact that UAE nationals have priority over non-nationals in government employment (Ghanem, 1992).

Jakka (1993) pointed out that the private sector prefers foreign workers because they are more experienced and less expensive than UAE nationals. Also, he further indicated that UAE nationals prefer not to work in banking because it is against the teachings of Islam.

2.6.8 Manpower: Local Versus Expatriate:

Figure 2.7 traces the growth of federal government employment and its distribution amongst UAE nationals and non-nationals from 1990-1997. It indicates that the number of employees working in federal organisations has increased over this period. The statistical figures show that in 1990, UAE nationals represented 37 percent (17093), whereas non nationals constituted 63 percent (29659) of the total manpower (46752).

Figure 2.7: Local Versus Expatriate



Source: Prepared by the author based on data from Computer section, Federal Personnel Department, 1998.

However, in 1997 UAE nationals represented 41 percent, whereas their counterparts 59 percent, which clearly indicates that the proportion of UAE nationals has increased by 4 percent over non nationals during the period of 1990-97. This reflects the government policy toward reducing heavy reliance on an expatriate labour force. Nevertheless, the

UAE government organisation productivity still relies heavily on expatriate skills and experience.

2.6.9 Distribution of Employees By Agencies:

Table 2.1 indicates that the Ministry of Education employs the majority of civil service staff (60.1 percent). Also, within this ministry, it is noticeable that the proportion of female nationals is higher than male nationals by 70 percent. This is due to the increasing number of females graduating with the degree of education from the UAE university. Cultural factors encourage females to enter a teaching career, in which they need not be mix with men, and in which teaching children is regarded as an extension of the mother's duties (Ghanem, 1992).

The Ministry of Health is placed second, comprising of 22.5 percent of the total staff working in all agencies. UAE nationals represent 25.8 percent of the total staff working in this Ministry. This is due to the fact that UAE nationals lack scientific qualification and experience in the area of health and medicine. Al-Jassem (1990) pointed out that in the UAE:

> Medicine and Pharmacy is a sector in the public force which shows a peculiar shortage of nationals and so tending to depend on non national personnel (p.123)

The lowest percentage of employees working among the agencies is in the Ministry of Supreme Council Affairs which comprises of 0.02 percent of the total number of employees working in all agencies.

Table 2.1: Distribution of Employees by Agencies for October / 1996

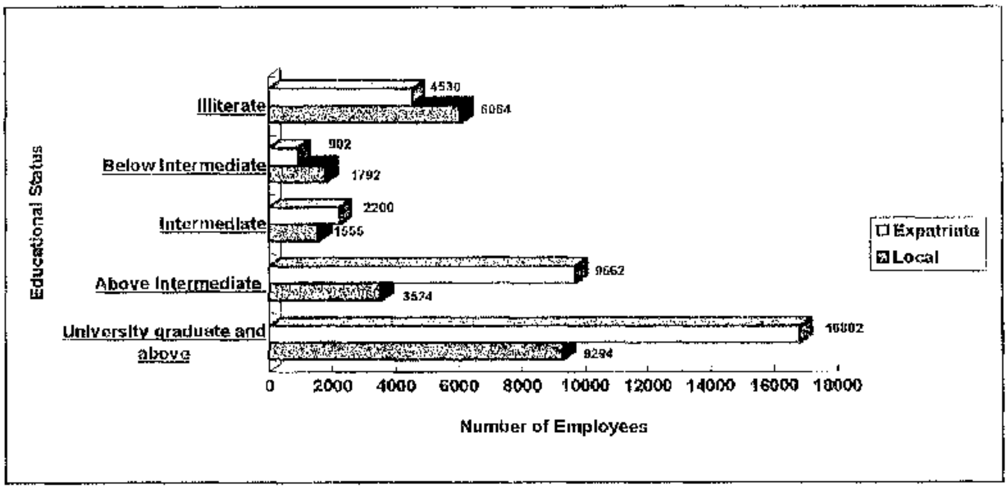
Nationality	Local			Expatriate		
Sex / Ministry	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Education	4228	9731	13959	11504	8025	19529
Health	2049	1175	3224	4737	4554	9291
Information	272	69	341	307	31	338
Interior	78	17	95	264	10	274
Electricity and Water	812	34	846	1618	10	1628
Public work and Housing	330	67	397	125	2	127
Agriculture and Fisheries	835	13	848	258	1	259
Transportation	60	8	68	69	6	75
Foreign Affair	116	36	152	113	13	126
Justice	313	25	338	361	29	390
Labour and Social Affairs	610	377	987	218	53	271
Finance and Industry	184	77	261	244	25	269
Cabinet Affairs	85	35	120	116	26	142
Planning	61	12	73	80	10	90
Economy and Commerce	90	24	114	54	8	62
Petroleum and Mineral	20	7	27	25	5	30
Ministers Assembly	59	1	60	18	1	19
Islamic Affairs	219	7	226	121	0	121
Supreme Council Affairs	5	1	6	6	1	7
Protocol	68	1	69	230	33	233
Youth and Sport	99	8	107	36	1	37
Higher Education	8	14	22	20	0	20
Total	10601	11739	22340	20524	12814	33338

Source: Computer department, Federal Personnel Department, 1998.

2.6.10 Employees Educational Standards:

Figure 2.8 shows that the employees' educational status falls into five categories, namely: university graduate and above; above intermediate; intermediate; below intermediate; and illiterate. The statistical figures reveal that the proportion of employees with a university degree represents the highest ratio, with 46 percent of the total manpower, followed by intermediate and above with 23 percent. Generally speaking, expatriates are more highly qualified educationally than UAE nationals.

Figure 2.8: Educational Status of Federal Government Manpower (1997)



Source: Prepared by the author based on data from Computer Section, Federal Personnel Department, 1998.

2.6.11 Personal Ties and Connections:

Muna (1980) indicated that the use of family and friendship is widespread, important, and necessary in doing business in the Arab World. She further mentioned that:

> There is a powerful incentive to use personal (family and friendship) ties instead of institution or formal channels in getting

> things done. This is partly due to the inefficiency, and some times the absence, on institutional systems and procedures; and partly due to the importance of family and friendship ties which are usually more powerful than institutional rule and procedures (p.74-75).

Alshammari (1994) argues that the concept of friendship in the Arab culture goes beyond its concept in western cultures, as it is uncommon for an Arab to reject a request to do a favour from a friend. Jakka's (1993) study shows that UAE civil servants place high priority on personal ties and the obligation to help a relative. He further indicated that when an employee applies for a job in the civil service, those employees who have personal influence in the civil service are recruited sooner than those who do not, in which case usually she or he has to wait up to one year to be employed. Also, promotion to top positions depends on the employees' connection and influence. In the United Arab Emirates as in all Gulf states political affiliation, tribal traditions and family statues play significant role in recruitment to all positions of power and leadership. Minister may select the relative of another minister, hoping in that way to strengthen ties between ministries and to put the other ministries under an obligation to do him a similar favour at a later date.

2.7 Education:

Governments in developing countries recognise the need for an educated population. An educated and skilled labour force is one of the preconditions to ensuring the achievement of national development objectives (Gould, 1993). In the UAE, education is considered to be a key element in developing the important skill levels required for growth and modernisation (Shihab, 1997). The UAE public educational system has passed through two important phases. The first phase is termed traditional and the second modern education.

2.7.1 Traditional Education:

Prior to the 1950s, education was religiously based. Mostly, pupils were sent to a religious centre or house to be taught the Koran and the basics of writing and reading by "Al-Muttawa or Al-katateeb"[2] . The first quranic school called Al-Ahmadiyya was opened in December 1938, attended by nearly 200 students (Taryam, 1987). No government supervision, control or financial support was provided to the centre; this is due to the fact that there were no set curricula assigned by the government at that time (AL-Khayate,1988).

2.7.2 Modern Education:

Mitchell et al. (1980) point out that the establishment of modern education in the UAE began in the early 1950s, when the first school, established in Sharjah, was built by Britain and staffed by Kuwaiti teachers. The Kuwaiti and Qatar governments played an essential role in

[2] Is a person who teaches the "Koran" and some basics of reading and writing.

the early development of education in the UAE. Both governments built schools in Ajman, Umm Al-Qaiwain and elsewhere. For example, the Qatar government built the following schools: Al-Uruba secondary school for boys in Sharjah; Al-Khansa and Khawla primary schools for girls in Dubai; Ammar bin Yaser primary school for boys in Ajman; Ahmed bin Majid secondary school for boys in Ras-Alkhaimah (Mohammed and Abu-Hashem, 1992). Teachers came from Bahrain, Qatar, and Egypt, as well as Kuwait (Taryam, 1987).

With the establishment of the federation, the most vital service given top priority was education. In 1972, a number of laws and regulations in the UAE constitution were passed to guarantee a competent education system. For example, federal law no.1, 1972, states that education is fundamental to the improvement of society, and shall be compulsory for all at elementary level and free at all levels (Taryam, 1987). The announcement of this law resulted from the conference held in 1970 in Marrakech, Morocco and supervised by the United Nations Education Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) which recommended that:

> Arab states whose legislation does not include an explicit provision for compulsory education should enact such a provision and that all Arab States should commit themselves to the implementation of their legislative provisions concerning compulsory education at the earliest possible date (Phillips, 1975, p.41).

The UAE government provides two important types of education to the public which can be classified as pre-university and university level.

2.7.2.1 Pre- University Education:

This type of education is subdivided into the following levels:

2.7.2.1.1 General Education:

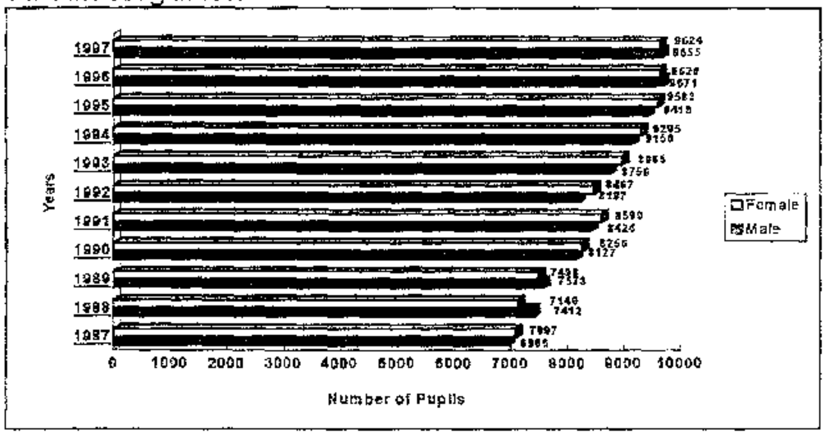
General education was established in the early 1970s, and is structured in four advancing educational ladders, namely kindergarten (for 4 - 5 years old), elementary (6 -11 years), intermediate (12 - 14 years); and secondary (15 -17 years). During the last two years of secondary education, students choose their area of specialisation in either the sciences or arts (Shihab, 1997).

Figure 2.9 presents the growth of the number of students attending general education from 1987 to 1997. Figure 2.9.A indicates that the number of pupils attending kindergarten has increased by 38 percent for males and 36 percent for females. Figure 2.9.B shows that the number of students attending elementary institutions has increased by 24 percent. On the other hand Figure 2.9.C reveals that the number of students attending intermediate institutions has dramatically increased more than 100 percent for both males and females. Similarly, the number of student attending secondary institution has increased more than one hundred percent for both males and females (see Figure 2.9.D).

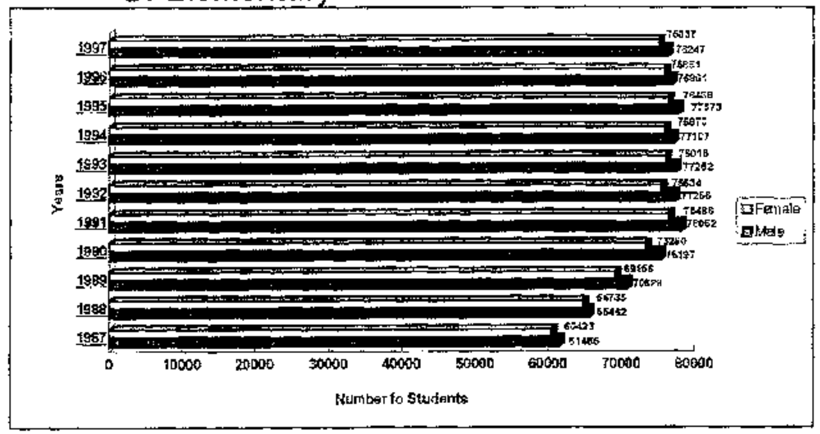
It is noticeable that for 1987 to 1997 the total number of females graduating with secondary education is growing steadily each year, more than the figure for males. For example, Figure 2.9.D shows the total number of females graduated in 1997 is 14.4 percent higher than the total for males. The reason behind this discrepancy is attributed to males leaving the secondary education and either joining the military, or the police force.

Figure 2.9 : General Education Graduates, 1987-1997

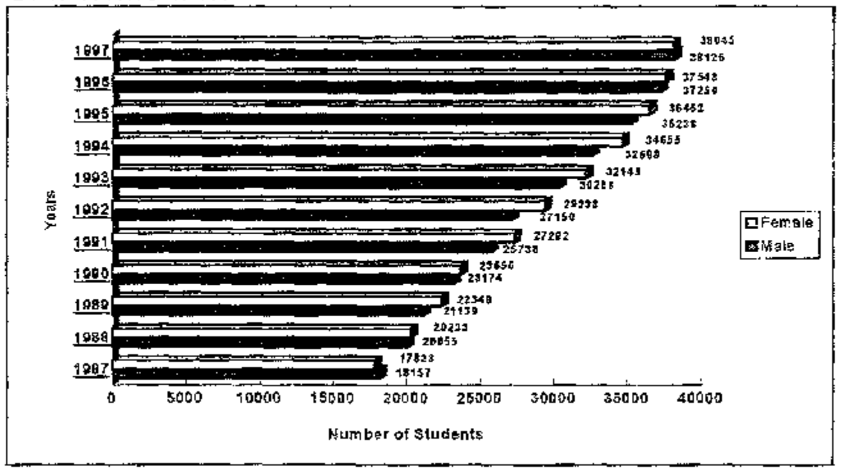
A. Kindergarten



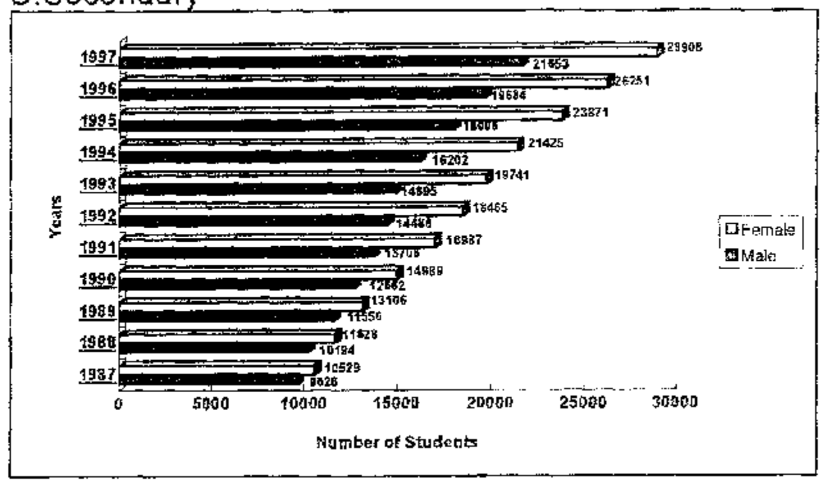
B. Elementary



C. Intermediate



D.Secondary

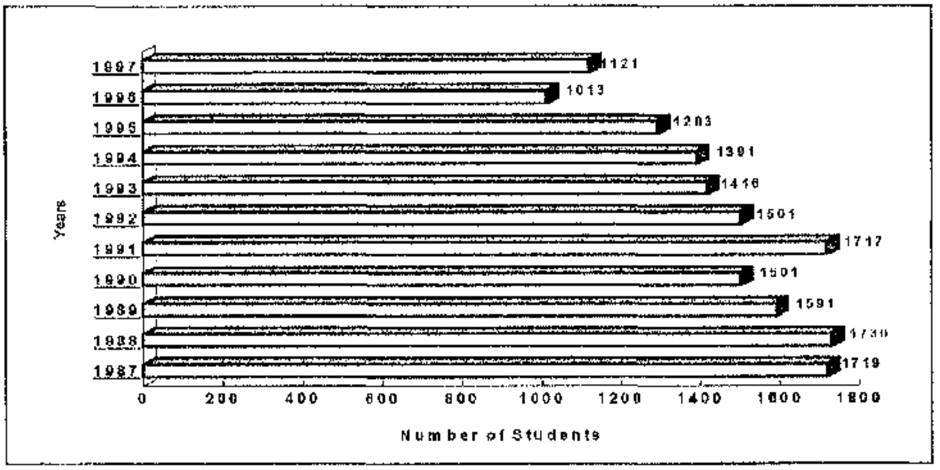


Source: Constructed by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

2.7.2.1.2 Religious Education:

This type of education concentrates more on Islamic studies, although other subjects are taught, such as science and art. Religious education is only provided to males. Figure 2.10 shows the total number of students attending religious education, from 1987-1997. The highest number of students enrolled was in the year of 1991 whereas the lowest was in 1996.

Figure 2.10: Religious Education Graduate, 1987-1997



Source: Prepared by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998

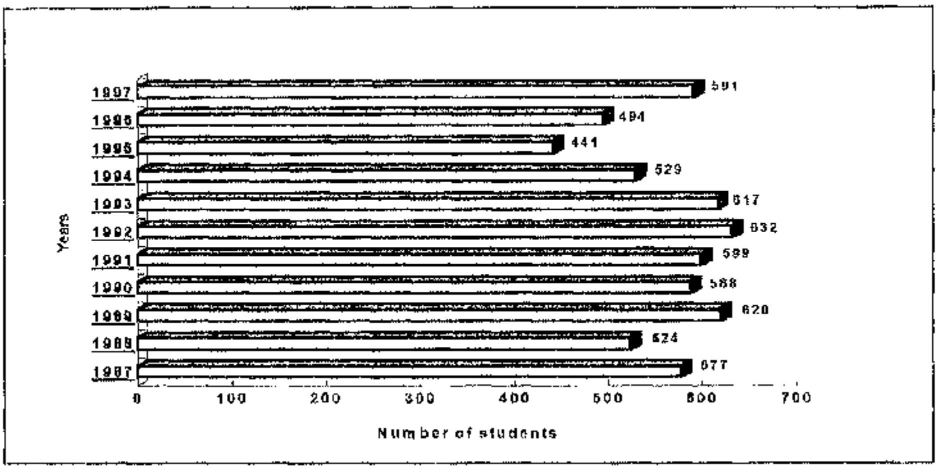
2.7.2.1.3 Vocational Education:

Vocational education in the UAE is only provided to males, and can be subdivided into the following types:

1. Industrial Education:

The purpose of this type of education is to teach students various skills such as welding, carpentry, mechanical, and general science, over three years. There are three technical schools in UAE located in Dubai, Sharjah, and Ras-Alkhaimah. Figure 2.11 shows how the number of students has fluctuated during the years 1987-97.

Figure 2.11: Student Enrolment in Industrial Education (1987-1997)

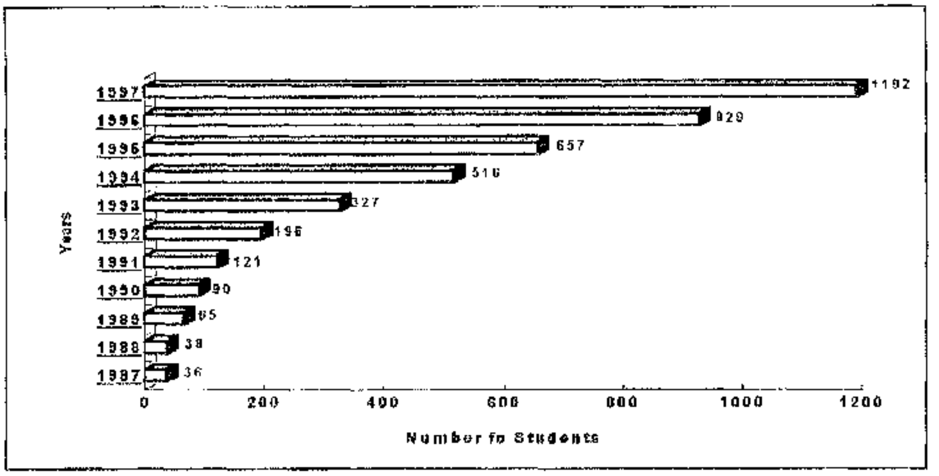


Source: Designed by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

2. Commercial Education:

The objective of commercial education is to teach students who have finished the preparatory education, economics; secretarial skills; and accountancy skills, again over three years. There are two commercial schools which are situated in Dubai and Ras-Alkhaimah. Figure 2.12 indicates that student graduates increased 32 times since 1987.

Figure 2.12 Commercial Education Graduates, 1987-1997

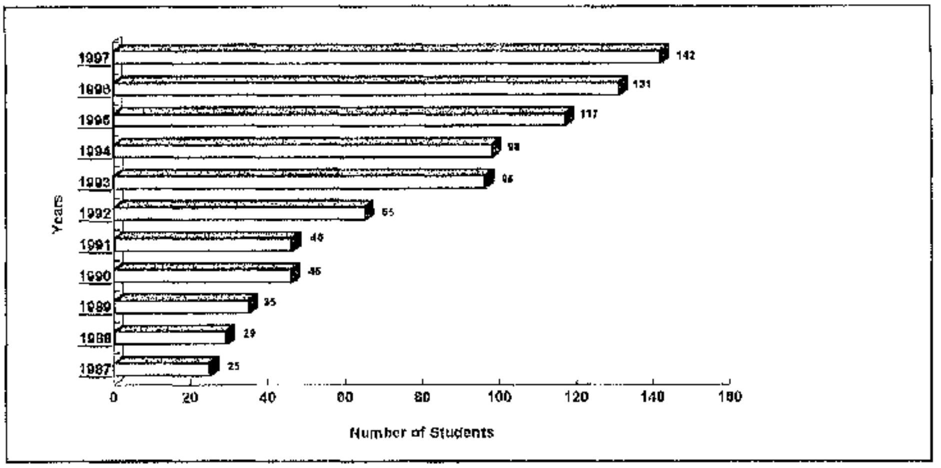


Source: Prepared by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

3. Agricultural Education:

The objective of an agricultural education is to provide students who finish preparatory education with various studies such as agricultural engineering and economics, plant protection, and the development of agriculture products etc., which take three years. There are two agriculture schools which are located in Al-Ain and Ras-Alkhaimah. Figure 2.13 shows that the number of student has risen 5.7 times since 1987.

Figure 2.13 Agriculture Education Graduates, 1987-1997



Source: Structured by the author based on Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

The previous figures on students' enrolment of both general and vocational education reveal that the number of students enrolled in vocational education is very small compared to general education. The reason behind the differences is a vocational graduate students have less opportunity of employment in the government organisations than general education graduates (AL-Khayate, 1988). Society devalues technical education which is regarded as low-status education (Al-Misnad, 1985). Also the UAE national feels that manual work is socially inferior (Taryam, 1987). Another reason may relate to the fact that the system of education has developed with insufficient reference to the types of manpower needed, especially vocational. To confirm this argument, Jakka's study (1993) shows that out of 309 respondents working in the civil service only 7 respondents had a vocational education, whereas the rest had a general education. Furthermore Al-Jassim (1990) indicates that the surplus of arts graduates with qualifications often not relevant to the work force requirement, as well as shortages in the scientific field, both which reflect the absence of appropriate general economic development planning. He further comments that as the UAE is facing fast development and change. Therefore, it is important that education systems respond to the need of development and to the technological revolution which is taking place throughout the developing countries.

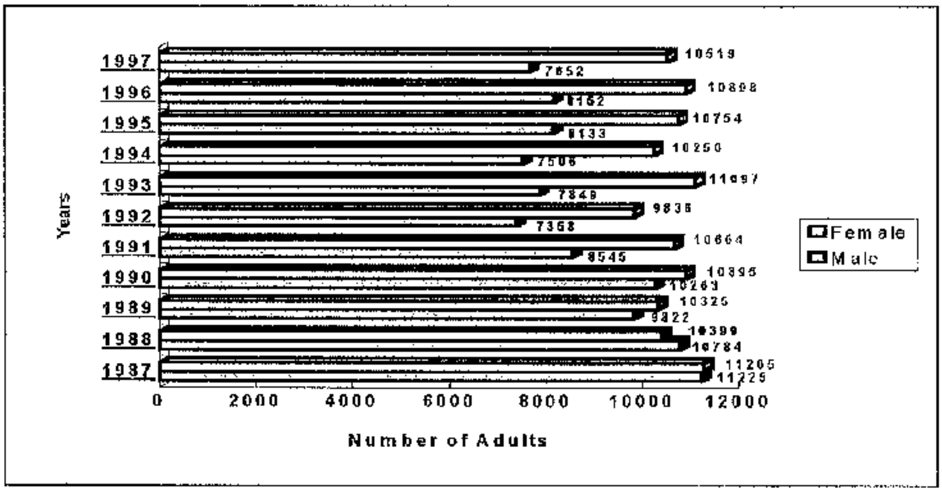
On the other hand, in Jamaica, for example, vocational schools are considered prestigious institutions, preparing individuals to enter the labour market or university after completing instruction (UNDP,1989)* .

2.7.2.1.4 Adult Education:

The opportunity of education is not only provided to those of school age, but also to older individuals including illiterates. Classes are provided in the evening. Figure 2.14 shows the total number of students of both sexes attending adult education during 1987-1997.

* The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is the world's largest grant development co-operation organisation. It provides assistance in agriculture, education, employment, fisheries, industry, science and technology and other sectors.

Figure 2.14: Adult Education Graduates 1987-97

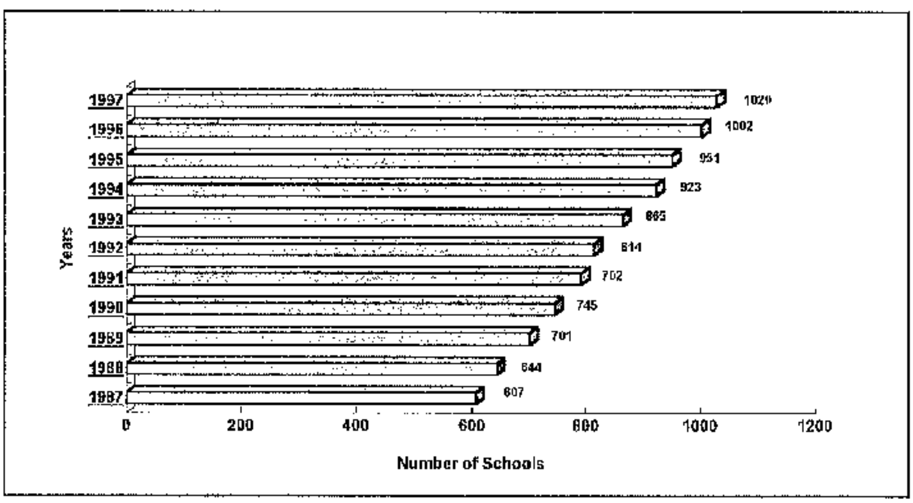


Source: Designed by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

2.7.2.1.5 Number of Pre-University Schools

Figure 2.15 shows that the number of schools has increased over the years of 1987 to 1997. This rapid growth of schools is due to the increasing number of students enrolled in general education, and the spreading of education to people who live in rural and remote areas such as Bedouin's'.

Figure 2.15: Number of Schools (1987-97)

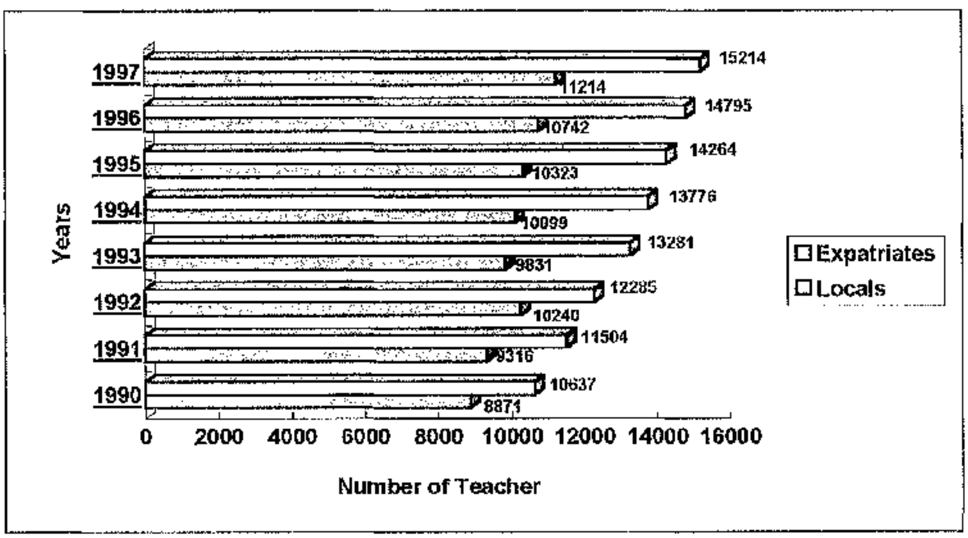


Source: Structured by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

2.7.2.1.6 General Education Teachers

It can be seen from Figure 2.16 that the number of both expatriate and citizen teachers has been growing through 1990-97. This can be attributed to the growing number of students and schools constructed in various geographical areas of the country. However, it is noticeable that the delivery of education in UAE depends on expatriates; for example, in 1997, expatriates made up 58 percent of the total number of teachers. Taryam (1987) indicated that one of the obstacles facing education in the UAE is the unavailability of adequate numbers of nationals who can work in the teaching profession. This has rendered dependence on other Arab countries for teaching personnel.

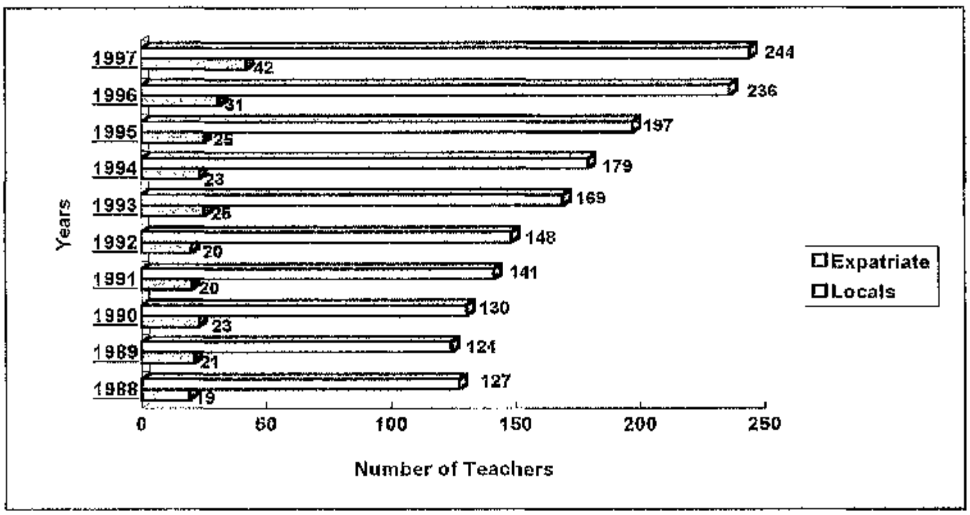
Figure 2.16: Local versus Expatriate General Education Teachers (1987-97)



Source: Designed by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

Figure 2.17 indicates the a lack of UAE national teachers in the field of vocational education, which may be attributed to UAE locals' indisposition towards teaching vocational subjects, and the lack of status associated with vocational education.

Figure 2.17: Number of vocational Teachers in Relation to Nationality (1987-97)



Source: Prepared by the author based on data from Statistical Department Ministry of Planning, 1998.

2.7.2.2 University Level Education:

Education at the university level began in 1977 when the UAE university was established. Prior to that, students were sent abroad to continue their university education, with a full scholarship which to cover a monthly salary, medical insurance, and a yearly return plane ticket. University education can be classified as follows:

2.7.2.2.1 Under-graduate Degree:

Table 2.2 shows the number of students who graduated with under-graduate degrees according to gender and faculty. The statistical figures in the table indicates that females represent 63 percent of the total number of students graduated from all faculties. Furthermore, the highest number of students graduated from the faculty of social science with the total of 4980 students, which represents 29.1 percent of the total number of students graduated from all other faculties. It is also, noticeable that females tend to favour the faculties of education and social sciences more than males.

It is worth mentioning that there are other institutions which provide university level education, such as Sharjah University; American University of Sharjah; New College of Technology; and Ajman University. However, the UAE university is considered to the oldest university, and has the highest student enrolment within the UAE.

Table: 2.2 Number of UAE University Graduates according to Gender and Faculty 1981-1997

Faculty	Soc. Sci		Science		Edu		Bus&EC		Law		Agric		Engin.		Med.		Total	
Sex / Year	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1981	74	82	34	36	42	56	107	20	21	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	278	194
1982	59	95	31	39	48	36	114	40	38	3	–	–	–	–	–	–	290	213
1983	80	101	26	54	46	79	112	50	40	7	–	–	–	–	–	–	304	291
1984	116	214	33	72	40	86	109	56	57	14	6	–	–	–	–	–	361	442
1985	133	171	50	66	37	64	132	69	64	21	12	–	17	–	–	–	445	391
1986	172	295	37	59	35	80	142	118	71	29	12	–	32	11	–	–	501	592
1987	157	283	42	60	25	91	142	126	74	6	17	–	35	22	–	–	492	588
1988	163	310	28	64	42	107	101	77	57	14	7	–	20	14	–	–	418	486
1989	165	334	26	90	20	150	152	127	58	18	21	–	27	16	–	–	469	735
1990	134	203	40	87	20	140	159	135	36	6	6	–	19	9	–	–	414	580
1991	87	139	28	99	30	326	149	147	36	8	18	2	28	15	–	–	376	836
1992	85	127	32	96	59	450	152	160	28	6	14	9	36	27	–	–	406	857
1993	88	157	24	63	44	429	117	155	25	13	24	19	46	27	9	19	377	902
1994	110	186	21	89	46	418	101	89	19	3	17	21	32	23	1	1	347	830
1995	68	167	21	98	38	388	83	103	10	8	16	20	42	32	5	21	283	834
1996	28	149	27	101	32	432	69	107	29	7	18	23	39	26	5	17	247	862
1997	47	201	53	169	19	543	77	115	21	11	21	40	54	41	12	15	304	1135
Total	1766	3214	553	1359	623	3875	2018	1694	684	174	209	134	427	263	32	73	6312	10786

Source: Adopted from UAE university Publication: Graduates in Numbers, pp.12-13, 1998.

2.7.2.2.2 Post graduate Degree

The UAE university also provides a postgraduate degree only in limited fields which are in Gulf Studies, Social Care, Education, Management Education and Supervision, Vocational School Administration, and Environment Science. Table 2.3 shows the number of graduates with postgraduate degrees according to gender and major. The table reveals that the highest number of students graduated with the degree of diploma in vocational school administration, followed by education.

Table 2.3: Number of Post Degree Graduates According to Gender and Majors.

Degree	Diploma										Master		Total	
Major	Gulf Studies		Social Care		Education		Management and Educational Supervision		Vocational School Administ.		Environ. Science			
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1981	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-
1982	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-			-	-
1983	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-			-	-
1984	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-			-	-
1985	7	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-			7	-
1986	8	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-			8	-
1987	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-			-	-
1988	-	-	-	-	4	10	6	3	-	-			9	13
1989	-	-	3	4	1	7	7	-	-	-			11	11
1990	-	-	-	6	-	5	1	10	-	-			1	21
1991	-	-	7	6	-	16	-	8	-	-			7	30
1992	-	-	-	3	10	6	-	1	-	-			10	10
1993	-	-	-	-	2		-	1	16	-	1	1	19	2
1994	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	4	-	5	2	9	2
1995	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	13	32	5	5	18	37
1996	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	6	5	6	2	12	7
1997	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	14	6	6	1	20	7
Total	15	-	10	19	17	44	13	23	53	43	23	11	131	140

Source: Adopted from UAE university Publication: Graduates in Numbers, pp.32-33, 1998.

One of the reasons behind the increasing number of female graduates is that males prefer to engage in commercial business rather that continue the university education (Ghubash,1997). Also, as suggested by Tilak (1993) women's demand for schooling may be directly associated to their perceptions about their employment opportunities and future learning.

Gould (1993) indicates that in the developing countries, the proportion of females attending educational institutions is affected by the national income of the countries. This means that the poorer the country the lower the proportion of females enrolled. He further pointed out that as the countries grow richer, they can afford to offer more places to girls in school.

In summary, the reasons behind the increasing numbers of students enrolled in UAE educational institutions may be related to Gould's (1993) suggestions that, in developing countries, the growth of student enrolment is affected by the following factors:

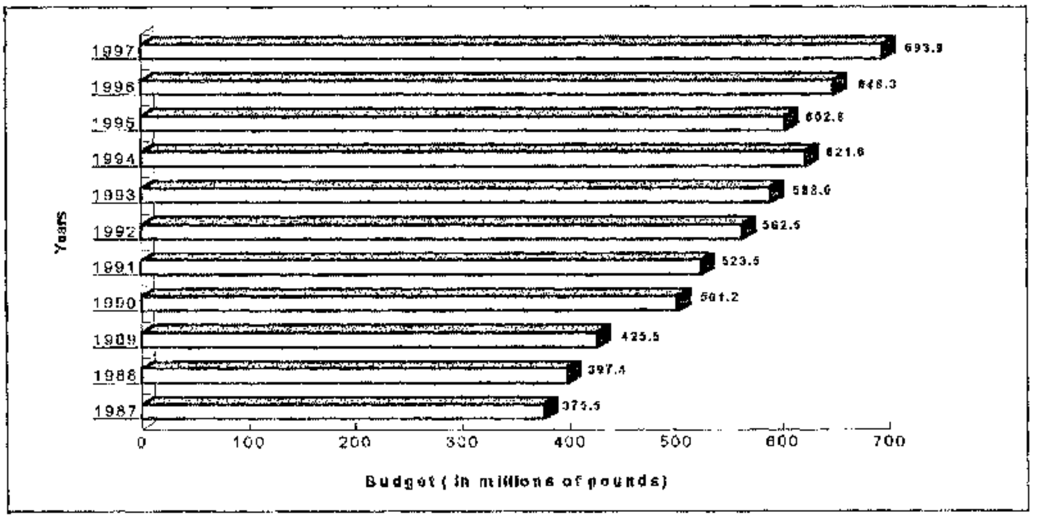
- The necessity for an educated population to cope with increasingly complex technology, society and economy.
- The achievement of independence from colonial power, and political pressure to indigenize the labour force by replacing foreign.
- Educational attainment is the principle criterion or requirement used to enter the civil service.

• The individual's level of education is the most important criterion for his or her lifestyle and a prime mechanism for social mobility through its link to career opportunities.

2.7.2.3 Education Budget:

Public education is a direct charge on UAE government expenditure. Figure 2.18 shows that the total amount of money invested in the educational sector has been increasing in real terms from 1987-1997 and the education budget has nearly doubled (85 percent) since 1987. The increasing budget on education is attributed in large part to the expansion in schooling.

Figure 2.18: Education Budget 1987-97



Source: Designed by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

Table 2.4 compares the government expenditure and education budget through the years 1987-97. It is noticeable that in 1987, the education budget comprised 15.08 percent of the total government expenditure, whereas in 1997 the education budget represents 21.36 percent of total government expenditure.

Table 2.4: Government Expenditure versus Education Budgets (In millions of pounds)

Years	Federal Expenditure	Education Budget	Percentage
1987	2489.10	375.5	15.08
1988	2354.46	397.4	16.88
1989	2404.82	425.5	17.67
1990	2577.67	501.2	19.44
1991	2722.85	523.5	19.22
1992	2780.53	562.5	20.22
1993	2751.25	588.6	21.40
1994	2847.32	621.6	21.83
1995	3180.53	602.8	18.95
1996	3047.32	648.3	21.27
1997	3247.67	693.9	21.36

Source: Structured by the author based on data from Statistical Department, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

2.8 Training: Institute of Administrative Development:

The commitment of the UAE government in developing its employees in the public sector, and increasing the effectiveness of government organisation, officially began in 1981 when the Institute of Administrative Development (IAD) was established under federal law No. 3, as an autonomous body entrusted with the following objectives:

1- To support administrative development in the state through developing the standard of civil servants' performance.

2- To develop the administrative apparatus system and procedures.

3- To study administrative problems and give advice on appropriate solutions

4- To initiate the circulation and exchange of administrative and managerial literature locally and internationally (Hunoon, 1988).

2.8.1 Organisational Structure of the IAD :

The IAD is headed by a management board chaired by the president of the Civil Service Commission and six other members:

1. Deputy of Planning Ministry
2. Deputy of Finance and Industry
3. Deputy Education Ministry
4. General Secretary of the United Arab Emirates University
5. General Manager of Federal Personnel Department
6. General Director of IAD (Article no. 5, IAD Annual Plan, 1997).

The Management board is the only authority that deals with and discharges with IAD affairs. The responsibilities of the management board are as follow:

- Setting up the general policy of IAD, and supervising it.
- Approving of general planning that leads to accomplishment of the IAD objectives.
- Laying down the rules, principles, and regulations pertaining to the employees' appointment, promotion, transfer, vacation leaves,

secondment, delegation, determining the salary and incentives, punishment, termination of service, and other related personnel affair principles.

- To appoint and discharge employees within the top management grade in accordance with the IAD general director's of IAD recommendation.
- Establishing the principles of incentives for who participates from outside in IAD activities
- Encouraging and promoting Administrative research and provide rewards to achieve this end.
- Confirming the IAD budget plan and end of year closing budget.
- Approving the IAD yearly plan activities, (management board can delegate some of its authority to the IAD general director).
- Agreeing on the donations, wills, and scholarships related to the IAD objectives (Article No. 6, IAD Annual Plan, 1997). There are three department which constitute training, research and consultancy, and administration and financial affairs (Hunoon,1988).

2.8.2 IAD Activities:

To accomplish these comprehensive and ambitious objectives as stated earlier, the IAD has been authorised to carry out certain specified functions which are described in article No. 4 of IAD rules. The scope of these functions are described briefly as follows:

2.8.2.1. Training :

Training forms the core of the IAD service. There are four important responsibilities with respect to training activities:

1- Provide preliminary administrative and managerial training programmes to UAE nationals who have not joined the public sector. It is also possible to enrol private sector employees.

2- Provide in-service training programmes for government employees.

3- Organise seminars for senior officials in the public and private sectors.

4- Provide educational and training scholarships related to all aspects of administration.

2.8.2.2. Research and Consultancy:

The consultation and research activities constitute a vital role of the IAD in adopting appropriate solutions for problems encountered with job performance, simplifying work procedures and contributing suggestions and recommendations to solve the obstacles facing governmental organisations. The IAD has dedicated much of its effort and time to render these services to various governmental organisations. Article No.4 of the IAD rules indicates that there are five important tasks which should be carried out in relation to research and consultancies which are:

1- Initiate and supervise research in the field of administration and related aspects.

2- Conduct administrative research in co-operation with the client government agencies.

3- Encourage research of both a practical and theoretical nature in the field of public administration.

4- Provide administrative consultation to the government agencies at their request.

5- Provide opportunities to the government agencies to contribute to their administrative reforms.

2.8.2.3 Distributing Administrative Literature:

The IAD places a significant importance on enriching and developing administrative knowledge among employees. Toward this end, article No.4 of IAD laws identifies three important relevant tasks:

1. To establish a library that specialises in administration science.

2. To set up a governmental documentation centre that can be classified and available to the researcher.

3. To strengthening the relationships and exchange of administrative information between other related institutions outside the country.

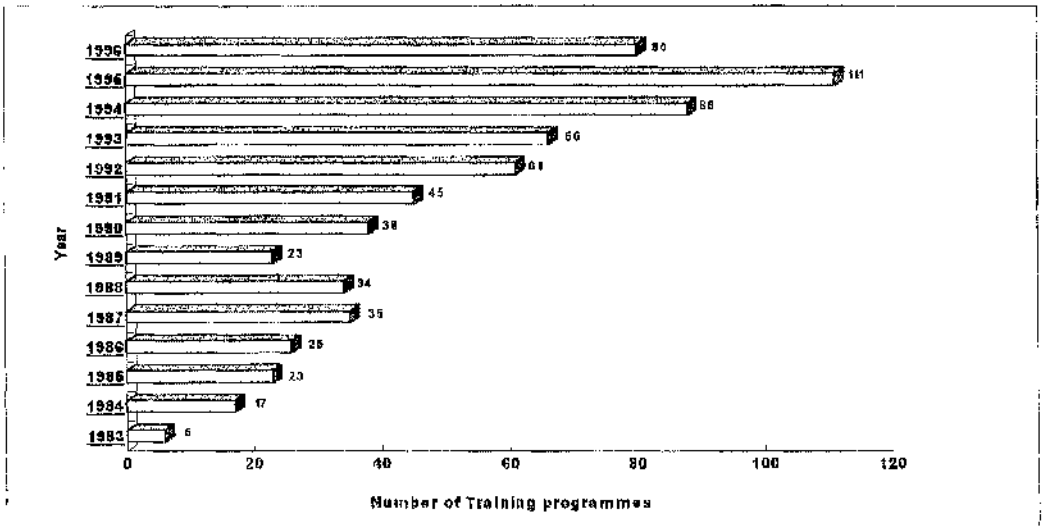
2.8.3 IAD Achievement:

This section presents IAD achievement activities over the year. It focuses on the total number of programmes, and participants, which are later broken down according to their managerial level. Also, it shows the sum of seminars undertaken. It is followed by a presentation of the aggregate number of consultancies and research projects carried out.

2.8.3.1 Number of Training Programmes:

From 1983 until 1996 the IAD has conducted 663 training programmes for various organisations. Figure 2.19 shows the number of training programmes conducted by the IAD since its establishment. It is noticeable that the highest number of training programmes conducted was in 1995, which represents 17 percent of the total programme conducted through out the years of 1983-96. This may be attributed to the demands of training by the government agencies in response to increasing numbers of 'graduates' employees.

Figure 2.19: Number of Training Programmes

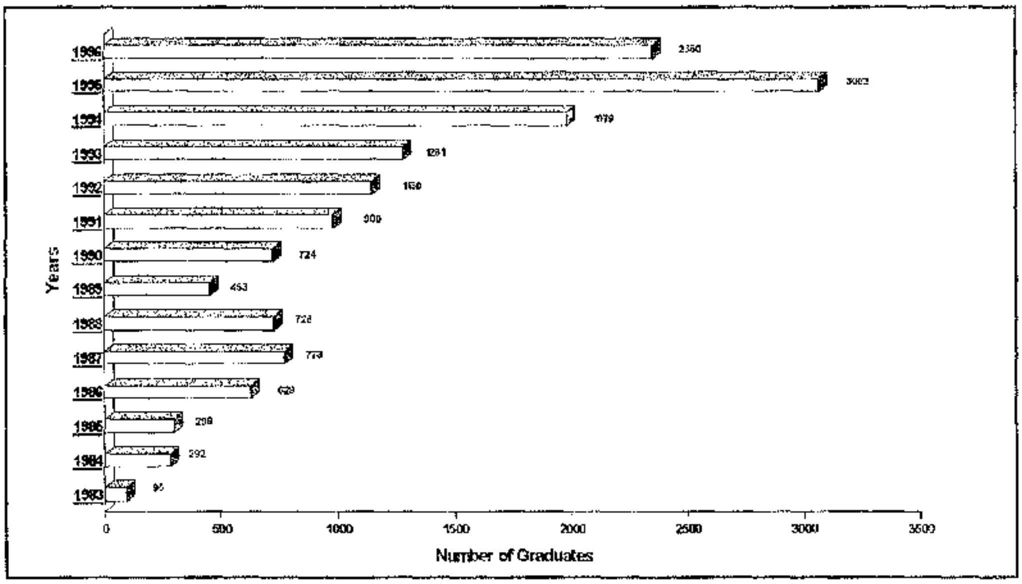


Source: Constructed by the author based on IAD (1994) reports in ten years (1983-1993), and Annual Reports for the year of 1994,95,96,97.

2.8.3.2 Number of Participants:

Figure 2.20 reveals that the total number of participants who attended an IAD training program between 1983 and 1996 was 14783. It is noticeable that the highest number of participants who graduated was in 1995 with the a total of 3062, which represents 21 percent of the total number of participants through the period. This is due to the increasing number of graduate appointments in the public sector and the number of training programmes implemented.

Figure 2.20: Number of Graduates



Source: Prepared by the author based on IAD (1994) reports in ten years (1983-1993), and Annual Reports for the year of 1994,95,96,97.

It seems that the IAD has fulfilled quantitatively its responsibilities in training public servants. However, one can raise questions on the qualitative aspects of those training programmes. According to an evaluation conducted in 1994 of IAD training programmes, most of the courses conducted by the IAD have been theoretically oriented. Some trainees felt that courses, or lectures, simply 'repeated' what they had studied/learned at the university, and that the duration of the training courses were short (Ebrahim, 1994).

2.8.3.3 Graduates' According to Grade Level:

Table 2.4 reveals that in 1984 most trainees were in higher level posts. Since then the total number of trainees has increased from 63 percent in 1984 to 78.5 percent in 1990. However, the number of trainees who hold top management post has decreased. For example, in 1985 there were 16.7 percent top management trainees has attended training programmes held by IAD. Since then the number has decreased by 1990 to zero.

Table 2.4: Total Graduates From Training Programmes of IAD According to the graduates grade in percentage

Grade / Year	Top Management	Higher Level Job	Middle Level Jobs	Ancillary Employees
1984	12.2	63	24.5	.3
1985	16.7	56	27	.3
1986	14	59.5	26	.5
1987	12.3	60	22.4	.3
1988	2	70	25.8	2.2
1989	1	72	26	1
1990	-	78.5	20.7	8

Source: Adopted from Al-Hamady. 1993,p.23

Al-Deen (1989) indicates several important reasons why senior Arab managers do not attend the training events:

• attending may be regarded as an admission that they are incompetent, and lack the knowledge and skills required of them to perform their activities.

• managers are reluctant to attend because it keeps them away from their job for relatively long periods of time.

• recruitment and promotion of Arab managers is. not based on merit, but rather on loyalty to superiors; political affiliations; and on tribal, kinship and personnel connections; and little significance was attached to training.

2.8.3.4 Number of Seminars:

The IAD gives great consideration to seminars to allow opportunities to top management (such as deputy and assistant deputy of government organisations to discuss the problems encountered in the work environment, and to find the appropriate solution toward improving the quality of work performance. Table 2.5 shows the number of seminars conducted by the IAD and the participants. It is obvious that that the highest number of seminars conducted was in 1995, with a total of 519 participants. However, the attendance of senior officials tends to be limited, and usually they send their subordinates to represent them.

Table 2.5: Total Number of seminars by IAD

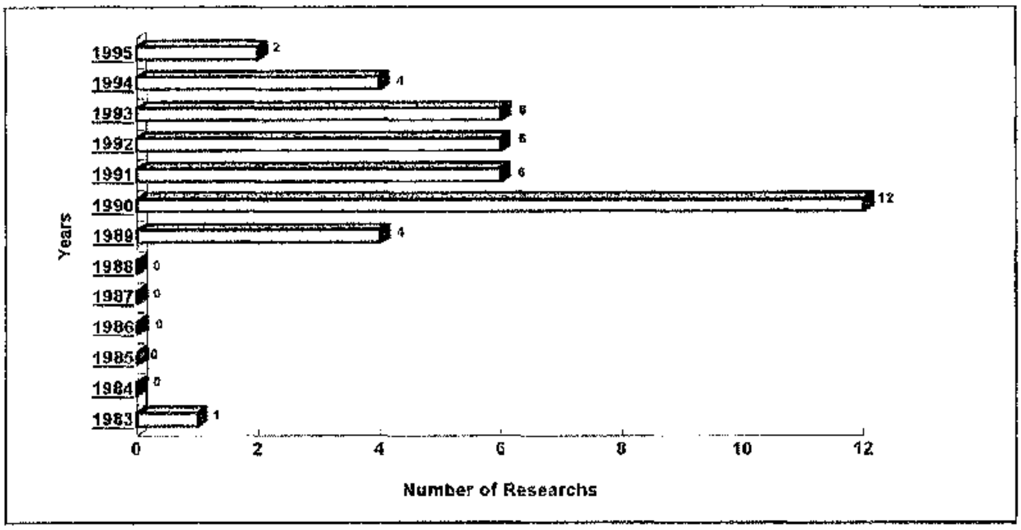
Years	No. of Seminars	Number of Participants
1983	2	64
1984	1	83
1985	4	101
1986	5	122
1987	3	131
1988	4	254
1989	0	0
1990	1	369
1991	4	378
1992	1	45
1993	2	58
1994	6	NA
1995	8	519

Source: Structured by the author based on IAD Ten Years Report, 1994, IAD Annual Reports, 1995, 1996.
NA:Not available

2.8.3.5 Number of Research Projects

Figure 2.21 shows the number of research projects conducted by IADTS from 1983-1995. It indicates the highest number of research projects was conducted in the year of 1990 with the total of 12 projects. However, it is evident from the figure that there was an absence of research by IADTS between the years of 1984 to 1988, which clearly shows they did not meet IAD objectives.

Figure: 2.21 Number of Research Projects

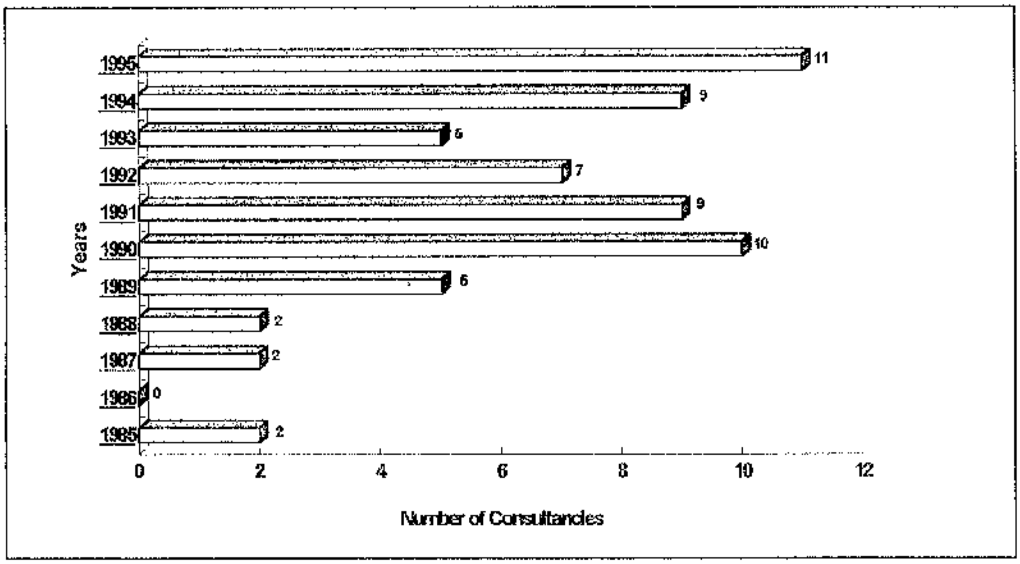


Source: Prepared by the author based on IAD Annual Reports (1994; 1995; 1996)

2.8.3.6 Number of Consultancies:

Figure 2.22 shows the number of consultancies conducted by IADTS from the year of 1985 to 95. It is noticeable that the highest number of consultancies conducted during this period is in 1990 with a total of 11 consultancy projects. The scope of the consultancy projects mainly focuses on preparing and designing the organisational structure of the public sectors. For example, in 1995 IADTS conducted 7 out of 11 consultancies on redesigning the organisational structures of 7 governmental institutions (IAD, 1996).

Figure 2.22: Number of Consultancies



Source: Constructed by the author based on IAD reports (1994, 1995, 1996)

2.8.3.7 International Co-operation:

In this regard, the IAD participates in various international conferences and seminars, so as to exchange knowledge and experience with similar organisations and to cope with the recent developments in the field of administration. The IAD participants are usually represented by the Chairman of the Board and the General Director. Table 2.6 shows an example of several international activities in which IAD participated in 1995.

Table 2.6: IAD International Co-operation in 1995

Title	Place
The Arab Administration Forum Between the Reality and Expectation	Egypt
The Arab Organisation of Administration Development Forum with the Institute of Economic Development in World Bank	Austria
The most Effective Ten Habits of the Directors	Egypt
The Distinctive and Effectiveness Meeting of the Leadership	Egypt
International Institute of Public Administration and Schools Meeting	Belgium
The First Arab Forum of Public Relations	Egypt
The extra Session of the Executive Council and the 33rd Ordinary Session of the Arab Administrative Development	Egypt
Meeting of Directors of Schools and Institute of Arab Administrative Development.	Tunisia

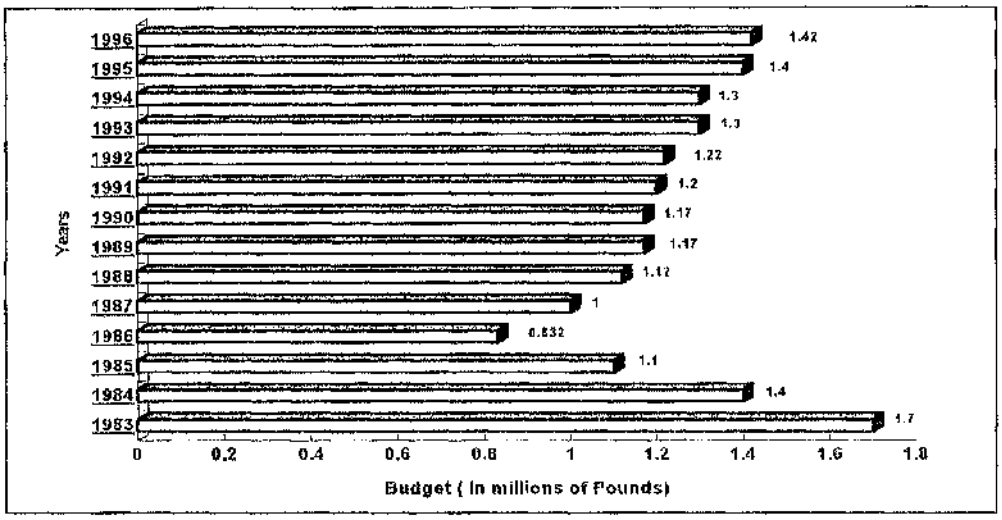
Source: Adapted from IAD Annual Report, 1996.

The IAD hosts a series of academic lectures, with speakers from local, Gulf, Arab, and International institutions, and organises international conferences within the country. For example, the IAD organised an international conference on Human Resources Development in Dubai from 26-27 Nov.1991 (IAD Ten years Report, 1994).

2.8.4 IAD Budget:

Figure 2.23 shows that the highest amount of funds allocated from the national budget to the IAD was in 1983 with the total of 1.7 million pounds. However, there was a budget cut between 1984-86, followed by a steady increased with slight fluctuations. The statistical figures also reveal that the IAD budget increased by 42 percent from 1987 to 1996.

Figure 2.23: IAD Budget



Source: Prepared by the author based on Al-Hamay (1993), IAD Personnel Department, 1998

Table 2.7 shows the percentage of funds allocated to the IAD budget in relation to the total government expenditure. This reveals that the highest percentage of funds allocated to the IAD was in 1989, whereas the lowest was in 1987.

Table: 2.7 Government Expenditures versus IAD Budget (1987-96)

Years	Government Expenditure	IAD Budget	Percentage
1987	2489.10	1	.040
1988	2354.46	1.12	.047
1989	2404.82	1.17	.049
1990	2577.67	1.17	.045
1991	2722.85	1.2	.044
1992	2780.53	1.22	.043
1993	2751.25	1.3	.047
1994	2847.32	1.3	.046
1995	3180.53	1.4	.044
1996	3047.32	1.42	.046

Source: Structured by the author based on Ministry of Planning, Statistical Department, 1998, Al-Hamay, 1993, IAD Personnel Department, 1998.

Al- Hamady (1993) states that the amount of budget that the IAD receives from the government is considered to be the lowest compared with other institutes in the Gulf region. As a result the IAD is unable to achieve all its objectives. For example, the IAD needs more appropriate training classrooms, because the current classrooms were not initially built for the purpose of training, originally those training rooms were offices which were converted to training classrooms. The number of training staff is very limited compared to the number of programmes offered. According to Kanawaty (1992) the number of consultancies exceeds the capability of IAD training staff. For example, in 1992 there were 7 consultancy projects which were requested from government agencies; eight training staff members were assigned to finish these. At the same time, the staff carried out other responsibilities such as lecturing and research. According to this, one can say that the workload of training staff responsibilities other than training may affect the quality and quantity of allocated time on training. Trainers For example may need time to prepare their lectures before attending the training programmes.

2.9 Summary:

This Chapter has endeavoured to provide a socio-economic description of the UAE in general, and the public sector in particular. It began with formation of UAE followed by its geography and population. The general features of the economy was examined both prior to and after the discovery of oil. A brief historical review of the governmental machinery was also included.

The characteristics of the public sector were discussed in detail, The profiles and composition of the manpower in the public sector were explored, followed by a brief examination of socio-cultural issues within the public sector.

The education system was explored historically to the present day including discussion of the types of education provided by the government, its structure, and the number of students graduating from the educational institutions. Other issues were also examined, such as the profile of teachers and the education budget.

Training in the public sector with reference to the IAD was explored, with reference to the main purpose of IAD establishment and its structure. Then, examination was made of IAD activities and its achievement through the years, which has involved training, research, consultancy, and distributing administrative literature. Furthermore, the characteristics of trainees who have attended IAD programs in relation to their grade was highlighted. The IAD budget was investigated in relation to total government expenditure.

The outcome of this chapter suggests that after 27 years of independence, the UAE public sectors still rely on expatriate skills and knowledge to insure managerial effectiveness. The UAE government strategy to 'localise' the public sector in the 1970s had the effect of replacing expatriates with nationals without taking the responsibility for training them. This statement can be correlated with Kubr and Wallace (1983) comment that localisation policy means replacing people of one nationality with those of another. It means preparing new employees for future responsibilities through education, training, selection and on-the-job guidance. He further argues that developing countries have adopted this policy by filling vacant management positions with individuals from varying educational backgrounds, mostly with individuals lacking experience, and few have enjoyed the advantage of learning from superior expatriates because few expatriates were keen to pass on their experience to locals.

The above reinforces the need for continued, high quality, training associated activities directed towards nationals within the public sector. This need is greatest with the middle civil service grades where graduates are 'guaranteed' positions, with or with out relevant experience. it is imperative that training reflects both organisational and individual needs. it must be relevant, planned and implemented effectively. Thus, the great need for research in this area.

The importance of training in the public sector has been witnessed in the early 1980s when IAD was established to take the responsibility of training for the public sector employees. However, it has been observed earlier that the quality of training programmes provided were criticised by trainees, for being theoretical and repetitive of what they had been taught in the university. Moreover, it was reported that IAD lack training staff and monetary funds from the government, and that only a limited number of high official attended training programs provided by IAD.

It is easy to state commitment to education and training, but require resolve and resources to insure success. Quality delivery of relevant programmes requires managerial and training inputs from both parties concerned. This research will assist in developing the aforementioned.

The situation with the UAE public sector, in particular regarding the development of human resource, is further complicated by cultural factors. A system of 'preferment' based on 'personal' associations and status, mitigates against professional and effective staff development. It is hoped that this research will assist in breaking down such barriers.

Also, it seems that there is a lack of research to find out the reasons behind those criticism over training effectiveness in the UAE public sector from the point of view of both recipient, which is the public sector, and the provider IAD. Furthermore there is a noticeable lack of research describing how training programmes are implemented, such statement can be shared by Attiyyah (1992) that most studies are impressionistic and provide few insights on how Arab institutes actually conduct their functions and design training program for their clients. Therefore, this research attempts to investigate and gain understanding of training programme design and its barriers in the public sector of the Arab world, particularly in the UAE.

The next chapter will present and examine in detail the literature review regarding training in the public sector with special emphasise on training process, and identifies the factors that have an effect on the training process. The chapter begins with various definitions of training.

Chapter Three

Related Literature and Research

3.1 Introduction:

The objective of this chapter is to present the literature and studies related to the thesis, which aims at describing and investigating related barriers to the subjects of; training needs assessment (TNA), training programme objective development, procedures of trainee selection, and training programme evaluation. Therefore, this chapter is comprised of the following sections:

3.2 Presents several definitions of training in various contexts, and discusses the differences between training, education, and development. It explains the meaning of a systematic approach to training and provided with various models of training. The aim was to explore the nature of these concepts and to address the important elements of training programme design.

3.3 Investigates the processes and issues associated with TNA. It discusses concepts, as well as approaches, stakeholders and skills involved, data collection methods and the practice of TNA around the world.

3.4 Examines the process of formulating training objectives.

3.5 Describes the procedures and issues associated with trainee selection.

3.6 Focuses on the process of training programme evaluation. It discusses definitions followed by an illustration of the nature of evaluation which includes, prior consideration, purposes, criteria's, stack holder involved, time, methods and the status of training evaluation around the world. Hence, the barriers are discussed within each topic as indicated earlier.

3.7 Summary

3.2 Concept of Training; Education and Development:

Lawrie (1990) argues that human resource professionals do not differentiate between training, education, and development. This lack of definition may result in efforts that are not properly conceptualised, delivered, and evaluated. This could be why human resource professionals either lack focus, are pulled into many dimensions, or have difficulty evaluating development efforts.

There is, however, considerable debate within the human resource development literature relating to the distinction, if any, which exists between these three activities. This question is of some significance because it is arguable that the extent to which an organisation's human resource specialist views them as synonymous or distinct will significantly influence the way in which these activities are approached and managed (Garavan, 1997). Therefore, it is reasonable to examine various definitions of training; education and development in relation to this study, and to make a comparison between those terms.

3.2.1 Training:

In the "Handbook of Training in the Public Service", the United Nations (1966) defines training as:

> the reciprocal process of teaching and learning a body of knowledge and the related methods of work. It is an activity in which a relatively small group of persons, acting as instructors, impart to the larger mass of civil servants knowledge which is believed to be useful in the work of the latter; and at the same time the instructors assist the larger body of the civil servant to perfect skills which are useful in their work (P. 15).

Reilly (1979) defines training as:

> The development of a person's knowledge, skills, and attitudes for a vocational purpose (p.22).

Goldstein (1993) defines training as:

> the systematic acquisition of skill, rules, concepts or attitudes that result in improved performance in another environment (p.3)

Buckly and Caple (1995) confirm the definition of training as :

> Planned and systematic effort to modify or develop knowledge/skill/attitude through learning experience, to achieve effective performance in activity or activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to enable an individual to acquire abilities in order that he or she can perform adequately a given task or job (p.13).

Bell and Margolis (1989) argue that training has many meanings. Its interpretation is best appreciated through examining its goals. Some training provides individuals with the skills they need to relate to other people. Other training delivers an assortment of competencies and values required to practice in a profession. They referred to training with different goals as different types of training. They have classified four types of training:

1. Administrative training which focuses on the knowledge of procedures, policies and rules required to improve the flow and co-ordination of work. This includes, the process of setting work objectives and goals, personnel policies, the steps for implementing succession planning, the procedures for reporting financial data to the controller, the rules of governing the use of computers, etc.

2. Professional-technical training focuses on the specific knowledge and skills that practising professionals need in order to execute their professional responsibilities in such areas as accounting, law, real estate, insurance, finance or banking.

3. Mechanical-technical training focuses on the knowledge of how things work- how to build them, fix them and maintain them. This kind of training frequently focuses on manual skills; that is, those requiring accurate hand-eye co-ordination, such as, teaching an operator to use or repair a particular machine.

4. Interpersonal training focuses on the large array of skills required for working with, through and for others, which might include such skills as

disciplining, interviewing job applicants, effectively resolving conflicts, leading staff meetings, or counselling an employee on a difficult assignment.

Whatever the definition and meaning of training, it seems that there is agreement between the writers about training as a process, with its aims both of imparting knowledge and skills, and changing the attitudes of an individual. Therefore training is concerned with the theories or principles of learning and skill acquisition. However, previous definitions of training suggest that learning has to be manifested in improved performance of some task. Such definitions may be too restrictive because they specify that such improved performance is in an on-the-job situation which is not always the case. Thus training could be developed to improve the performance of a sports person or a disabled individual, neither of which involve an occupational context. Therefore the need for training is pervasive and is not restricted to specific contexts of society. Patrick (1992) concluded that:

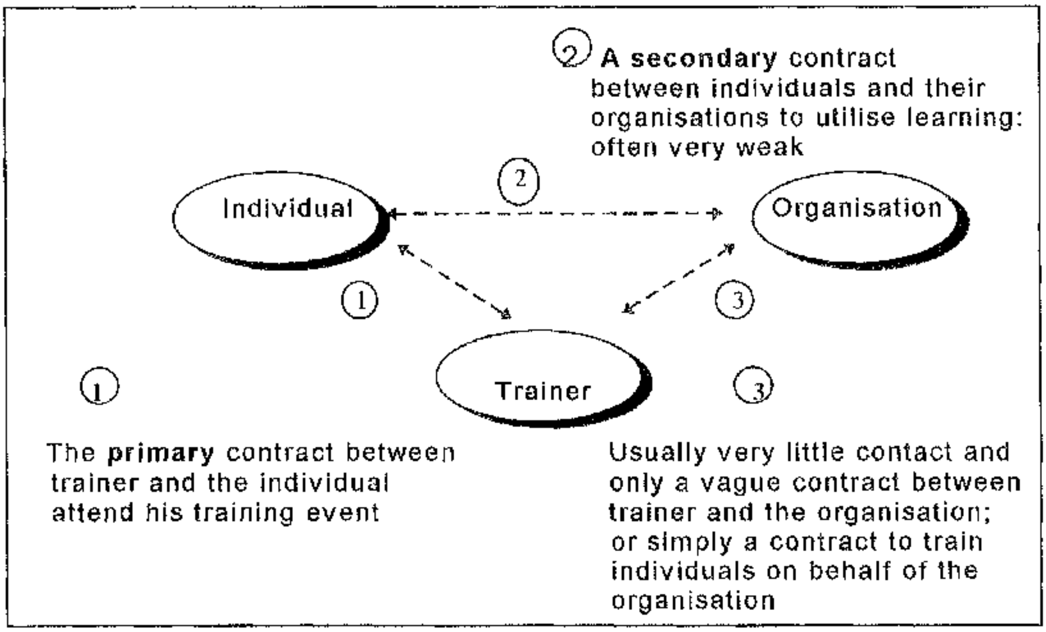
> Training takes place in all contexts of society. It embraces tasks which require perceptual-motor, cognitive, management/supervisory and social skills. Training is not only relevant to those in "normal" employment but also young and old persons; women at home; and special groups of the population such as the disabled or long-term unemployed (p.8).

Previous definitions of training have omitted an important element that may affect the training provision, namely the involvement of different participants in the process of training. The participants mainly include supervisors, managers, trainers, and sometimes subordinates of the manager. Training is not simply a matter of providing skill; it requires a considerable provider and recipient commitment to the learning needs as well as to ensure that training is relevant to the trainees' job, as indicated by Rae (1992) :

> At some stage, preferably in the earliest stages in the training cycle, a determined effort must be made by somebody- trainer, line manager, personnel expert or external consultant- to identify what the training needs of the job or jobs in question might involve (p.193).

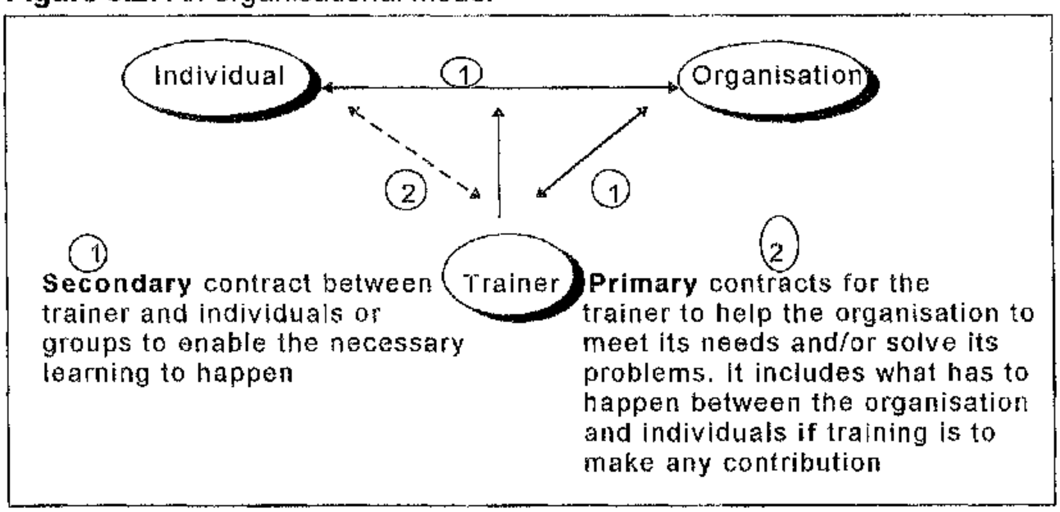
Jones (1991) states that if trainers are to become more interventionist within organisations, and to make a more direct and significant contribution, then a number of changes are necessary. Those changes can be interpreted according to his two models, education and organisational that show the level of an individual's and a trainer's involvement in the training process. He went further to say that training in the United Kingdom, and the functions of trainers, have been based on an educational model (see Figure 3.1). The key to such a model is the strong primary contract between the trainer and individual trainees. It is left to the trainee to make subsidiary contract with his or her organisation to apply the new skills acquired, just as the educational system leaves it largely to individuals to apply their education within society. Thus, a transfer and application problem is created by the nature of the methods of training. The problem can be solved by changing the underlying model, by making the trainer intervene more into the organisation itself (see Figure 3.2). This will embrace how learning is going to be applied and utilised, and what else has to happen in support of the training (Jones, 1991). The shift from educational model to organisational one leads to changes in the emphasis of the trainer activities, and in order to carry out those activities skills may be required. For example the trainer may require new skills in how to diagnose an organisation's needs and translating those into learning requirements and evaluating them.

Figure 3.1: The Education Model



Source Jones, 1991,p. 379

Figure 3.2: An organisational Model



Source : Jones, 1991, p.380

Furthermore, Jones (1991) developed a framework, or a taxonomy, of training interventions so that individual trainers may identify and learn how to make a more significant contribution to their organisation's functioning. The activities can be grouped in an eight-point taxonomy which are:

1. Helping to diagnose the needs (Diagnosing): It involves activities which help to diagnose precisely what is required and what part training can play in bringing about what is required. It is concerned with organisational needs, goals and problems, and not with training activities.

2. Determining the specific contribution of training (Translating): This is a key link for a trainer and demands a "translation" of organisational needs and objectives into learning needs and objectives; it is probably one of the most important activities in enabling training to make a real contribution and intervention.

3. Designing learning strategies and methods (Designing): the skilled trainer will bring about a great deal of the required learning through his contact with managers and their staff in helping them diagnose what is required. Nevertheless an important part of his expertise is also to design training programmes to enable learning to happen effectively.

4. Developing and organising training resources (Resourcing): Trainer roles in developing managers, supervisors, and others to train their own staff involves him/her in some critical intervention strategies; in this area of activity his/her ability to influence the allocation of resources will be

measured by the resource he attracts. The need to be in the organisation's network of decision-making will guide him/her in maintaining close contact with key managers, especially those in charge of finance.

5. Bringing about the acquisition of learning (Implementing): At this stage the trainers mainly concentrate on the acquisition of new skills and knowledge by the participants.

6. Enabling the learning to be applied and developed (Enabling): When training is conducted away from the organisation the trainer will need to give a great deal of attention to helping employees apply what they have learned in their job context. However, many trainers see this as outside their responsibilities, and many managers would have it so.

7. Catalysing support action (Catalysing):

Trainers can act as catalysts by influencing the on-going development within the organisation. However, in order for the trainer to stimulate improvements, he or she is dependent upon good relations with the management and the ability to influence others.

8. Evaluating organisational results (Evaluating): Effective intervention activity concentrates on evaluating the whole of training intervention against the diagnosed need; often it involves the managers themselves in evaluating results and assessing what has been learned and applied.

In this respect, training is a learning process, in which learning opportunities are purposefully structured and planned by the trainers, managers, and trainees. The aim of this process is to develop individual knowledge, skills, and attitude that have been defined by the trainee's supervisor and trainer for an individual's effective performance. Sim (1993) states that:

> Planning agency training is choosing a course of action and deciding in advance what is to be done, in what sequence, when, and how. Because planning training establishes the backdrop for the subsequent training activities, it is the primary function for the management of training in any government agency (p.41).

The planned process of training consists of four important stages: training needs assessment; design of training; training implementation; and training evaluation. These four phases of a training development scheme can be expressed as a systematic approach to training. Hence in a later section, the meaning of a systematic approach of training is discussed more closely and linked to various models of training.

3.2.2 Training and Education:

Training and education have been distinguished by various writers such as Anderson (1993), Peterson (1994), Reid and Barrington (1994), Buckly and Caple (1995), and Garavan (1997). Table 3.1 provides a summary of differences between training and education.

Education is usually thought of as being broader in scope than training; its purpose is to develop the individual. Generally speaking, education is frequently considered to be a formal education in a school, college or university, whereas training is usually more vocationally oriented and occurs in a work situation. Training has more immediate utilitarian purpose than education.

Moreover, training and education differ in the degree to which their objective can be specified in behavioural terms, in that training objectives specify the work behaviour required of a trainee at the end of his training. The difference between training and education can also be found in terms of the time that is required to achieve their objectives. A training objective can normally be reached in a relatively short period of time, while often many years are needed to accomplished educational objectives.

Table 3.1: Distinction Between Education and Training

Education	Training
Formal process	Generally informal
Institutional setting	Non institutional setting
Outcomes usually specified in more generalised objectives	Outcomes can be specified as behavioural objectives
Generalised design	Applied design
Long term process	Short term process
Oriented to the person	Oriented to the job
Tend to be organic form of learning	Tends to be a mechanistic form of learning
Theoretical and conceptual work often emphasised	Little emphasis on the theoretical or conceptual
Open to a wide range of people	Sharply-delineated target population
Provides foundation for various unspecified behaviours	Specific behaviours set as outcomes
Professionally-accredited instructors	Mostly non-professional instructors
May or may not involve some direct application " some day"	Intended for direct application immediately or relatively soon

Source: Peterson, 1994, p.83

Finally, there is a difference in the learning content of training and educational programmes. As we have seen from various definitions training provides the trainee with knowledge and skills that are needed to carry out specific work tasks, and most of the material to be learned, such as details of work methods, techniques and procedures are derived from within the organisation. However, educational programmes consist of theoretical and conceptual material which is derived from various sources and disciplines.

In relation to the previous table Peterson asserts that the instructor may provide either training or education, and some training could take place in an institutional setting, whereas some education programmes could occur near a work setting. Also, some training programmes might have an educational element, and some education programmes may contain training elements. The principle issues here is to work on developing a "feel" for which is which.

As Goldestein (1974) suggested:

> Training and education should be recognized as part of the same instructional process. Each of these disiplines has similar problems related to the specification of objectives, design of the environment, and evaluation of the instructional process (p.4).

Mumford (1989) argues that the distinction between training and education has lost its meaning, because training centres do not only focus on issues that are related to organisation needs, but often see themselves as educating employees for their 'total life'. Similarly, education centres have taken on responsibility for training employees to achieve the specific needs of their particular organisation. However, there is a continuing failure of many business schools and management training institutions to define and implement their offerings in terms of what employees(managers) actually do.

Hackett (1997) argues that the distinction between training and education has become blurred as a result of changes in both, because part of the educational system has become much more vocationally oriented such as the general national vocational qualifications. And the need for constant learning and continuous enhancement in approaches of working within organisation has caused many to encourage employees to 'learn to learn' under a much more broadly based approach to training.

It is desirable to distinguish between training and education in order to determine the outcome of a particular training programme. In developing human resources, it is important to determine whether the primary goal is to prepare a person for a clearly identified role or whether it is to provide that individual with a broad basis of knowledge and skills which will be of use in the future. Training and education are not mutually exclusive; a training course may include educational elements and vice versa. However, the effectiveness of any course will depend on the extent to which the designers have been clear about the ultimate objectives. As indicated by Nadler and Nadler (1994) the design of education programmes differs significantly from the design of training programmes. Unfortunately, that distinction is not made often enough and training programmes fail because they really are education programmes.

3.2.3 Training and Development:

Fitzgerald (1992) suggests that understanding the distinction between training and development will help us to understand the process that characterise training and development and the way in which they affect the short and long-term success of the organisation. He pointed out that development looks beyond today. It takes a more long-term focus perhaps one to three years. On the other hand, training is a short term focus such as a year or less. Also, development differs from training in that it does not occur during a class. It is after the class that real development occurs.

Hackett (1997) points out that historical differences between training and development are less relevant than they were. Development used to be reserved for managers or those with management potential. Management development programmes sought to provide individuals with the knowledge and skills they might need later in their career at higher levels in the organisation. However, the flattening of the structure in many organisations has meant a sharp reduction in the number of rungs on the career ladder. Those roles that remain tend to be broader and require a wider range of skills than they once did. This has led many more individuals now needed the chance to develop and grow.

Warren (1979) identifies the interrelationships between training and development in the context of management according to several important criteria. The first regards *purpose and scope*, suggesting that training provides specific knowledge, skills, or attitudes required by the organisation to accomplish its goals, whereas management development provides individuals prepared to achieve more complex tasks in a specific position or function. Second, *the problem approach* criterion indicates that management development is concerned with solving the problems of existing conditions through reinforcing or adding to the present knowledge, skills, or attitudes of individuals within the organisation. Training, on the other hand, deals with problems that are caused by substandard conditions or the absence of desired conditions caused by lack of knowledge, skills or unacceptable attitudes showed by individuals or the group. Third, *the point of view* suggests that training provides qualified individuals to meet specific job requirements, whereas management development supplies qualified individuals to achieve organisational goals. The fourth criterion of *selection and evaluation* confirms that the participants are chosen for training because they lack knowledge, skills, or attitudes required to meet the job requirement, whereas participants are selected for management development because their performance shows a potential for further responsibilities. Training participants are judged only on that area of their job performance within the scope of the training programme, whereas management development participants are evaluated in terms of their total job performance and contribution to organisational goals. The final criterion, *identification of need*, indicates that training needs are based on present and anticipated task requirements, whereas management development needs are based on planned human resource requirements to meet organisational goals.

We can see that the process of training, education, and development are not sequential or hierarchical; rather they are inter-linked, interdependent, and they reinforce each other to improve skills, knowledge, and to change attitudes in order to achieve some organisational objectives. To support this statement Garavan (1997) pointed out that training, education, and development are concerned with learning, and development appears to be the primary process to which training and education contribute. In turn, this contribution enhances both individual potential and organisation. Educational activities are often viewed as a prerequisite for a job because they certify individual ability and suitability. This suitability to the organisation may be further improved by training.

3.2.4 Meaning of Systematic Approach to Training:

Buckly and Caple (1995) differentiate between the terms "system" and "systematic". The first describes training as a sub-system, involving other sub-systems in the organisation which enable the observer to get a broader view of the training function within the system and the organisation as a whole, and the various factors that may have an influence on training operations. On the other hand, the term "systematic" can be described as a logical relationship between the sequential stages in the process of assessing training needs, design, delivery, and evaluation. The emphasis on logical and sequential action makes it more appropriate to describe this process as systematic.

There is no suggestion that the use of a systematic approach to training can solve all kinds of organisational and personnel problems. However, according to Goldstein (1993), the systematic approach provides a model that specifies vital elements and their interactions, and can be a valuable tool in scrutinising the training programme and the training system of a country. By applying systems concepts one can conceptualise, classify, and examine the different types of training programmes. The use of a systematic approach can also provide a credible framework within which one can evaluate training and to see whether or not training is relevantly designed and effectively implemented.

Taylor (1991) indicates three important justifications for adopting a systematic model of training:

1.The training model has been developed as a means to professionalise training activities and therefore establishes the credibility of trainers and the training function.

2.The model has been used as a theoretical model attempting to explain and predict training activities.

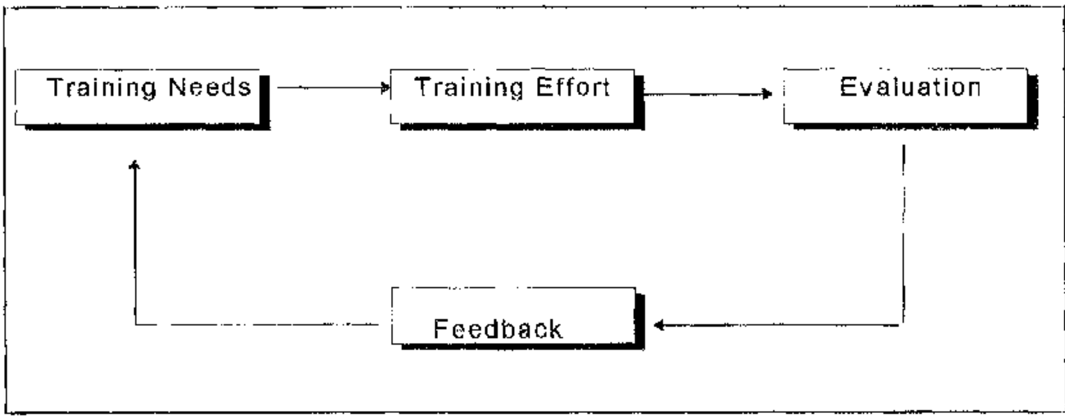
3.A training model can be used as a route map for planning and control.

The following section demonstrates and examines several important training models to describe the training process, and to address the requirement of designing a training programme.

3.3 Training Models:

A review of training literature reveals several important training models. Adrione (1970) suggests that the Cybernetic System is the most popular concept used in the field of training. The Cybernetic System (see Figure 3.3) assumes that training as an organisational activity is operated through feedback. Training needs are assessed by accumulation of relevant data and evaluation of prior training. Training efforts are designed to be consistent with training needs, and then evaluation is conducted to produce the feedback loop that generates the process.

Figure 3.3: Cybernetic Model

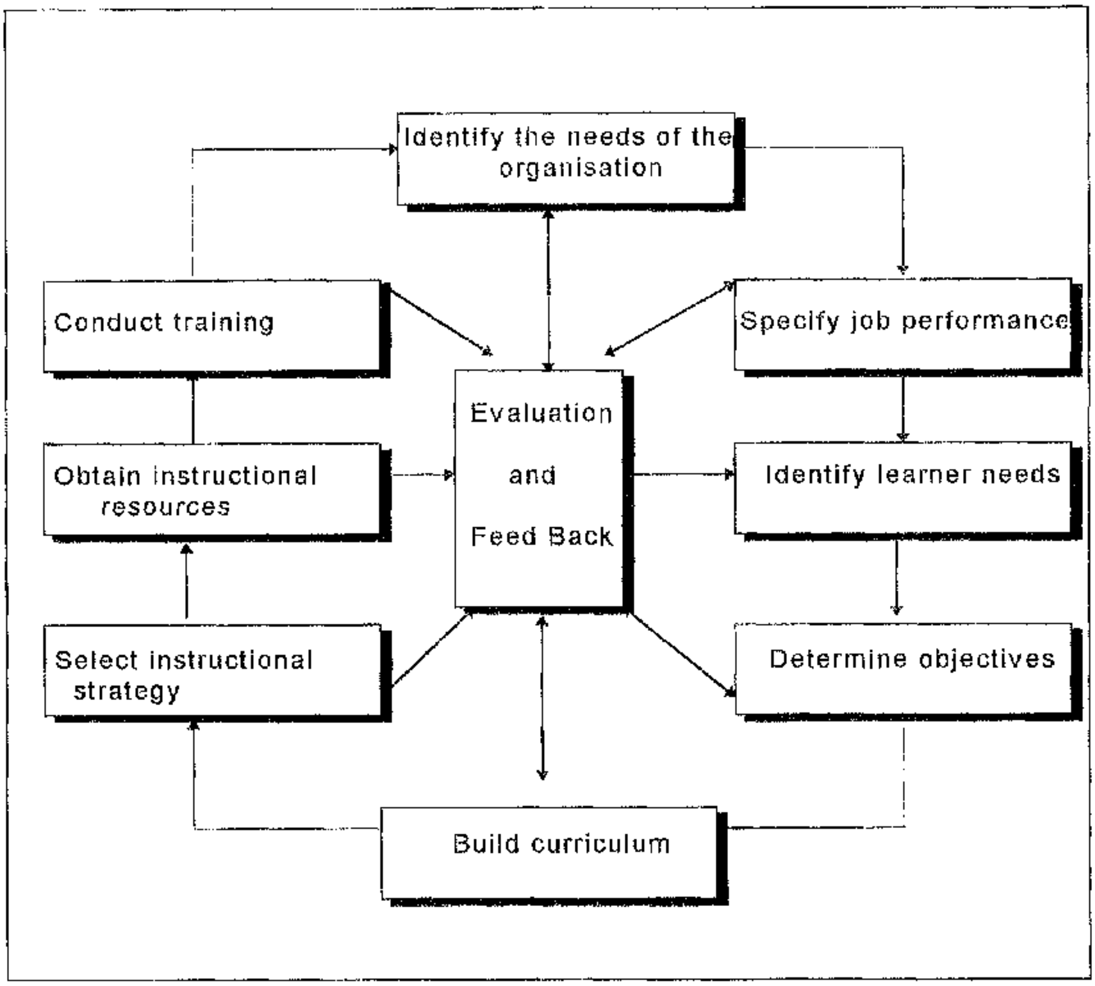


Source: Adrione (1970),p.75.

In addition to the Cybernetic model, Nadler and Nadler (1994) outline a training model called the Critical Event Model (CEM). CEM is based on the same assumptions as the open model, recognising that jobs and people are very complex and that it is not possible to identify or anticipate all the relevant variables when a training programme is being designed. CEM takes into consideration the fact that the training process can be influenced by a variety of environmental variables that may affect the whole process and the outcome.

The significant implication of CEM is that training needs cannot be assessed only in the first step of the process. The model has to be flexible enough to reassess training needs during the next step. CEM includes a sequence of eight steps. In addition, the evaluation and feedback function exists at the core of the model and can enter the loop as needed (see figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4: CEM Model

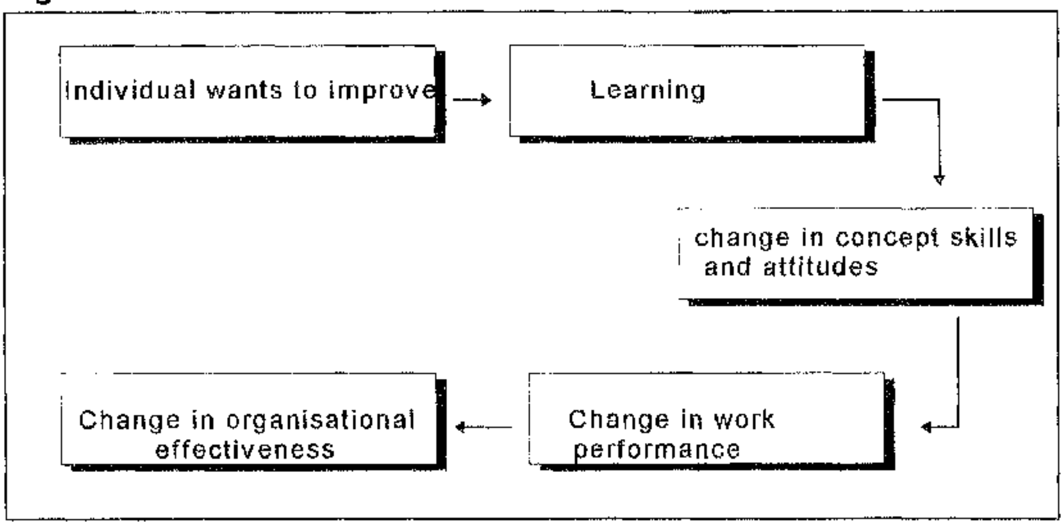


Source: Nadler and Nadler (1994),p.15

CEM has two distinctive features. Although training needs are the basis for all sequential steps in the training, one cannot begin identifying training needs until two important steps have been taken: first identifying the needs of the organisation, and second specifying job performance. This is because identification of training needs must reflect the actual problem or need of the job or employee. Unlike the Cybernetic model, which assigns the evaluation step as the final step in the process, CEM has built the evaluation and feedback steps into each event in the training process. The trainer and the trainees can stop and receive evaluation and feedback at any point in the process. This provides the instant correction or modification needed to accomplish the objectives.

Brambly (1991) outlines several types of training models. The Individual Training Model (see figure 3.5), which is an ancient model based on Socratic discourse, includes some hand-eye skills learned by method of demonstration, followed by practice, followed by further demonstration.

Figure 3.5: Individual Model

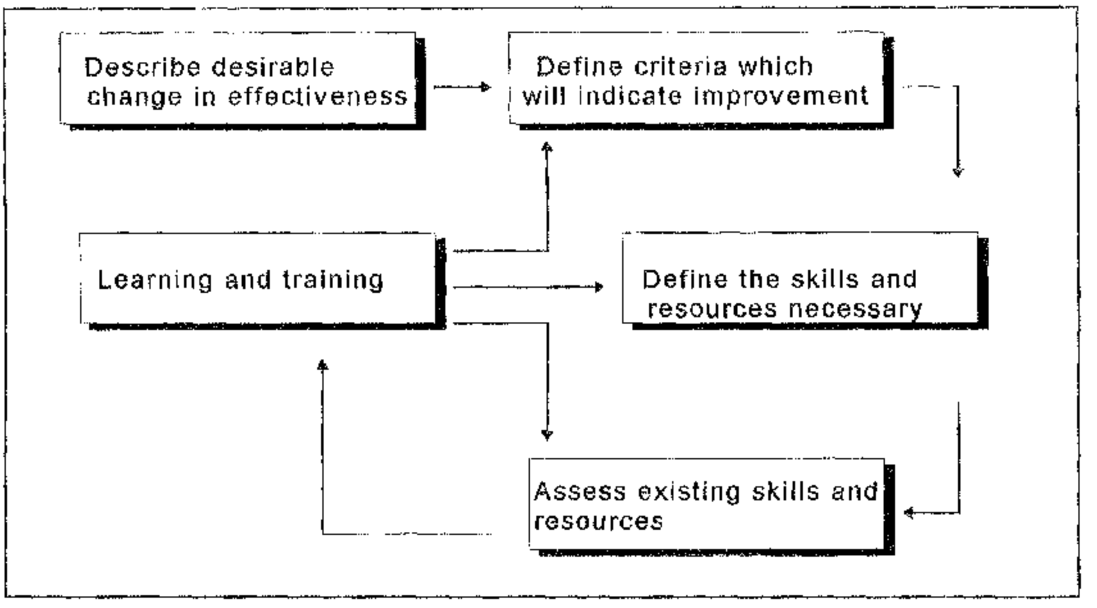


Source: Bramely (1991) p.3.

In attempting to evaluate training based on this model, it can sometimes be difficult to identify changes in work performance. In most types of technical training, where the equipment used in training is very similar to that in the work place, the changes in skill levels accomplished during training will usually transfer quite easily to the job. The model is also being used for other forms of training, such as management and supervisory training. In most supervisory and management training, the work situation does not look like that simulated in the training, and the changes achieved in the training programme are not necessarily reflected in the changes achieved in work performance. In addition, an organisation will have objectives, priorities, policies, structure, and accepted ways of doing things. Such factors will have some affect in shaping the behaviour of the trainees upon their return to the organisation.

The Increased Effectiveness Model (Figure 3.6) begins with a specified desired level of change in effectiveness. The second phase is to define criteria by which progress towards the more desirable state can be measured; in other words, "How do we know we are getting there?" In defining the resources necessary, aspects of the job situation other than the skills of the people involved will be considered, and it may be that changing some of these will achieve the desired improvement without training. If training is thought to be necessary, it is conducted, and the extent to which any learning is useful will be monitored by changes in job performance. This model is suitable for the type of work where individuals have some direction in their work.

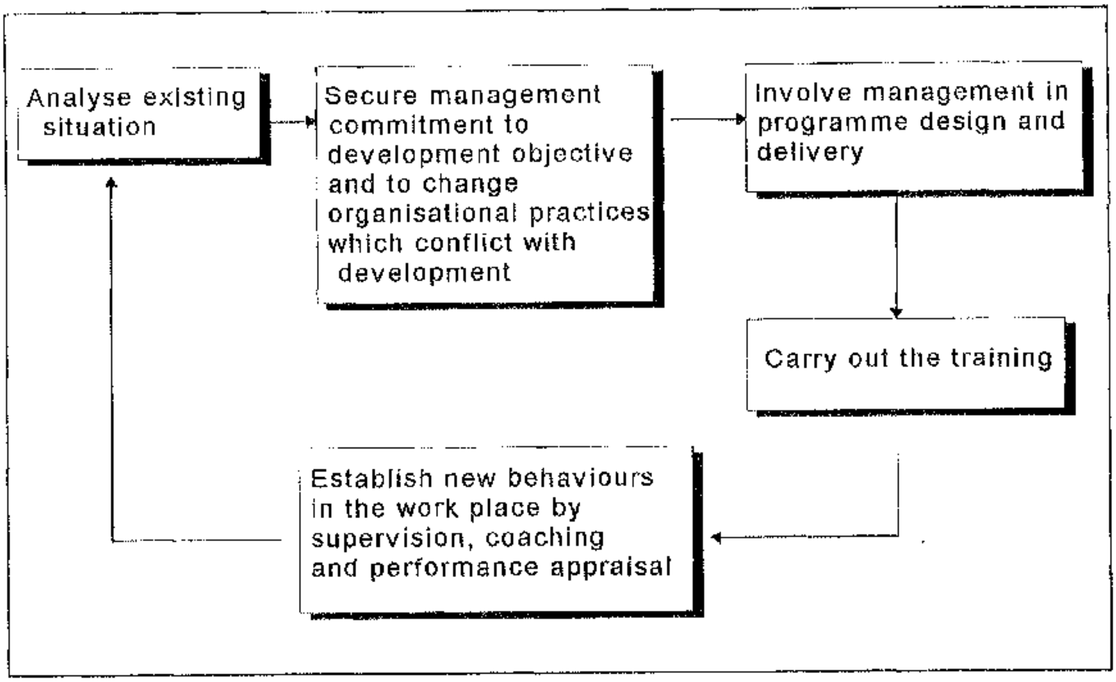
Figure 3.6: Increased Effectiveness Model



Source: Bramely (1991) P.5.

Training as outlined in the Organisational Change Model (Figure 3.7), is profoundly different from the Individual Training Model, with the emphasis on management involvement in the training stages and their commitment to change organisational structure or practices in order to facilitate new behaviour.

Figure 3.7: Organisational Change Model



Source: Bramely, 1990, p.7

As we have seen, according to the previous models of training, the first step in the training process is to determine training needs because needs assessment influences the direction and the evaluation of training. McClelland (1993) suggests that the main intent of training needs assessment is to investigate and identify potential problem areas with regard to human performance and skill development. However, Carolan (1993) pointed out a lot of training fails because needs are not accurately identified. That happens when management bases its training decisions on feelings instead of facts. Therefore, the following section discusses the issues surrounding training needs assessment (TNA).

3.3 Training Needs Assessment (TNA):

It is generally recognised that the first important phase in planning and developing a training programme is to determine the needs for such a programme within an organisation; however, too many organisations conduct training in a haphazard manner, and too often a vast amount of money is spent on the "fad of the year" programme. Thus, resources are wasted on needless programmes, and employees become both frustrated and resistant to future training efforts. In order to be effective and worthwhile, training should concentrate on the needs of the organisation and individual (Goldstein, 1993; Sims, 1993; Troba, 1995).

Moore and Dutton, 1978; Anderson, 1994 indicated that training needs assessment (TNA) is a function recognised as an integral part of any well-designed training programme by practitioners and academics. To utilise most effectively money and resources, one must first determine exactly the location, scope, and magnitude of the training need, because there is no justification for expenditure on programmes that do not increase the effectiveness and the efficiency of the work force. However, TNA is seldom carefully developed and many programmes are based on personal wants rather than identified needs.

Boydell and Leary (1996) suggested that TNA, if done properly, provides the basis on which all other training activities can be considered. Although requiring careful thought and analysis, it is a process that needs to be carried out with sensitivity. Ill-directed and inadequately-focused training does not serve the purposes of the trainers, learners, or the organisation. This section explains the concept of TNA, defines the level of training needs that can be carried out, and discusses the tools which are used to collect data about training needs.

3.3.1 Definition of TNA:

It is generally agreed that the 'training need' can be defined as the discrepancy between the actual performance and the desired or standard performance (Moor and Dutton, 1976; Tharenou 1991; Wright and Geroy 1992; Anderson 1993; Shapiro, 1995,). Consequently, identifying employee training needs answers questions regarding: what the employees do; how they perform their jobs; and what skills and knowledge are required to accomplish their task within the context of ongoing organisational goals and strategies.

Thus, a training needs can arise when an individual is under performing due to lack of knowledge or of skills deficiency, or when a person is expected to perform tasks sometime in the future for which he lacks the required knowledge or skills (Newby, 1992). The sources of individual performance discrepancy may also be external factors, such as, an unfavourable environment or faulty equipment (Herbert and Doverspike, 1990).

Boydell (1990), separates the identification of present and future needs and defines the difference as follows:

Present training needs:

> exist when a barrier exists which is hindering the achievement of objectives and which may be removed by training. Such needs are thus caused by faults, and may be identified by looking for corresponding symptoms (p.8).

Future training needs:

> exist when training can remove a future barrier to the achievement of objectives or when, by removal of such a barrier, even more desirable objectives will be met (p.13).

It can be explained that present needs relate to current objectives, such as training in competencies, or deal with immediate changes in the organisation and individual performance, whereas future needs relate to longer term objectives, such as training for a future job, or deal with some planned future change. The distinction between present and future training needs has its relevance in assisting priorities and in planning the timing of training (Bee and Bee, 1994).

Peterson (1994) argues that the term TNA is used differently among training practitioners. Some assert that TNA concentrates only on the task of analysing the training needs which have already been identified. Others adopt the term to cover the identification process and the analysis. Misunderstanding of the term TNA can leave room for confusion. Therefore, Peterson provides three separate definitions in relation to TNA as follows:

.Training needs: is a need for human performance improvement that can be best met by training of some kind.

.Training needs identification: is the process required to detect and specify training needs at the individual or organisational levels.

.Training needs analysis: is the process of examining training needs to determine how best they might actually be met (p.14).

Similarly, Hill (1998) suggested that the term of training needs analysis describes the gaps of individual knowledge and skills which can be met through training courses.

The above definitions suggest that TNA involves specifying the deficiencies of individual performance to find out how those discrepancies may be best met by training or other methods. There would be little sense in training someone to perform a job successfully without knowing his or her needs for training.

Ferdinand (1988) concluded that TNA is a process that can be used by organisations to determine what its employees will have to do differently or more effectively in order to achieve its objective, and to specify the appropriate training they needed to become more effective.

Peterson (1994) argues that the principle rule in identifying and analysing training needs is to keep in mind that training is not necessarily the answer to performance problems in the work place. However, many managers automatically turn to training when they have individual performance problems, and they believe that a good training programme will solve these problems. When that does not work, they look for another training programme; yet the real problem could be a systemic one not attributable to training. This may suggest that, when training is seized on too quickly as an organisational solution, it can become part of the problem, rather than part of the solution. For this reason care is needed when dealing with various government-sponsored training programmes.

Nowack (1991) differentiates between "training wants" and "true training needs". " True training needs" exist when specific job tasks are important and an employees' proficiency in them is low, whereas "training wants" may arise when employees want training in specific areas which are not related to their job, or inconsistent with organisational objectives. Reilly (1987) argues that the 'want' of trainers should be taken into consideration because the desires of trainers are bound to effect the choice of training programme provided. Trainers are likely to be effective in the areas in which they are competent and interested which will negate the whole purpose of TNA.

Moreover, Wessman (1975) and Tharenou (1991) argue that defining the training needs at managerial level can be a complex process, because many training and development specialists face a difficulty in defining what constitutes effective managerial behaviour, lack of understanding of how the organisational climate interacts with managerial performance, and in selecting accurate tools with which to diagnose training needs. Similarly, Stewart (1991) argues that description of management functions offers little help to managers looking for guidance on how to be more effective. She continues by commenting that those functions are described as a very general concept and are not exclusively managerial. Boyatzis (1982) insisted that training the managers should involve far more than teaching them about the functions of management.

3.3.2 Classification / Approaches of Training needs:

There is a great deal of misunderstanding and confusion over the exact meaning of training needs. This is mainly due to a lack of agreement on the level into which training needs falls (Boydlle, 1990).

Training needs assessment can be classified into three important levels: organisational, occupational/departmental/group, and individual (Boydell, 1990; Bramely, 1991; Sim, 1993; Reid and Barrington, 1994; Buckly and Caple, 1995; Boydell and Leary, 1996; Truelove, 1997).

• Training needs at the organisational level: this determines where training is most needed and in which department, or section, it can and should be used. It involves the examination of the organisation's short and long-term objectives to insure that the training effort was directly targeted at the strategic needs of the organisation.

- Training needs at occupational level: this determines what standard of skills, knowledge, and attitude is required for a particular occupation.
- Training needs at individual level: this focuses on determining who needs training and in what; i.e. discovering deficiencies in particular skills, knowledge, and attitudes on the part of individual.

Another approach of thinking about training needs is to classify them into maintenance and development needs. Maintenance needs are those needs that should be met in order for the organisation, occupational/group, and individual to maintain current performance, whereas development needs are those concerned with the promotion of new learning.

Another way of distinguishing types of training needs is to consider proactive and reactive approaches. Proactive TNA is concerned with anticipating needs before they arise; reactive TNA is responding to problems after they have arisen (Truelove, 1997). The way in which the concept of maintenance/development and reactive/proactive interact is shown in the following table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Interaction of concepts of training needs

	Maintenance	Development
Reactive	Correcting job performance failure	Helping people cope with new work
Proactive	Avoiding job performance failure	Helping people to prepare for future roles

Source: Truelove, 1997, p. 7

Similarly, Boydle and Leary (1996) differentiate three types of training needs. First, there is *implementing*, which bridges the gap between the present and desired performance; second is *improving*, which focuses on doing things better; finally, *innovating* concentrates on doing new and better things. Hackett (1997) produces a table which summarises the benefit of the three types of needs in relation to the organisation, group, and individual see table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Organisational, group and individual needs at the three level of performance

Area of need / level of benefit	Organisational	Group	Individual
Implementing- doing things well	Meeting current organisational objectives	working together to meet existing targets and standards	Being competent at the level of existing requirements
Improving- doing things better	setting higher objectives and reaching them	continued improvement teams	Having and using systematic improvement skills
Innovating- doing new and better things	changing objectives and strategies	working across boundaries to create new relationships with new products and services	Being able to work differently and more creative

Source: Hackett, 1997,p. 36

The previous section has introduced several ways of thinking about training needs. The stakeholders involved in the TNA process will now be considered.

3.3.3 Stakeholder Involved in TNA:

Leigh (1996) indicated that a number of people are likely to be involved in identifying training needs of an organisation and of an individual. It is not only the trainers who are involved in this process: personnel managers, line managers, supervisors and job holders are also likely to have a part to play.

Nadler (1982) states that :

> There is a specific reason for seeking the person, or people, who have the responsibility related to the need. They are the ones who must agree that there is a human performance problem, and they are the people who will be looking for results at the end of the learning programme. These people should be involved early in the design process, and at various stages they will have to make decisions about the design process (p.28).

Peterson (1994) pointed out that in some cases TNA might be carried out by the organisation in its own training department. In other cases external consultants might be engaged. Internal people may have the advantage of familiarity with organisational deficiencies, whereas external consultants need extensive access to organisational data in order to explore the source of performance deficiency. Similarly, Reilly (1987) point out that local consultants understand the environment and know their way around the system and have the contacts. Whereas the external consultant is generally in a more neutral position; he or she may not be sensitive to local realities and are more likely to import solutions from elsewhere.

Boydell and Leary (1996) assert that learners/trainees should be involved in the TNA process whenever possible; surprisingly however, they are often left out. There are various reasons for involving learners: they hold much data about what is going on, and they are likely to give a much higher level of commitment to any programmes or changes. Line managers need to take part in the TNA process because they are a source of information on training needs, and play a key part in both encouraging individuals and in creating the right conditions and resources for them to receive feedback and engage in subsequent learning activities. Senior managers or strategic decision-makers provide the overall direction, mission, vision, and strategy within which the TNA is being carried out. Peterson (1994) suggests that effective TNA should have positive co-operation from the top decision-makers; otherwise it will lack authority, and it might be seriously flawed through the provision of inadequate or inaccurate data on training needs.

Nevertheless, it is a human being who is trained and not an organisation. Yet the perceived needs of an individual may be different from those of an organisation, because there can be considerable differences between what a person wants from training and what a person needs to make him or her useful to the organisation. Also, there may be differences between the individual's perception of their training needs and that of the supervisor. An individual's assessment of his or her training needs is usually influenced by personal desire, which may have little to do with training and perception of needs. The trainer must recognise these distortions, attempt to minimise their influence, and use them as inducements without unduly compromising the quality of the training (Reilly and Clarke,1990).

> Man is a *Homo Discriminator* who senses (sees, hears, feels) only what he wants or needs to perceive. This bias behaviour favours maturation of those abilities that comes easily, making these manifest while leaving dormant or even atrophying those which require more (initial) effort (Juch, 1983, p.12).

Does this mean we should ignore the trainee's perception of the type of training they require in order to improve their performance? According to Boydel (1990), the *learner-centred approach,* where the trainees are encouraged to identify their own needs, with the help of the trainer, is becoming more common. This approach makes training more relevant and meaningful to the trainees, and thus commitment and motivation are greater as a result of this perceived relevance.

Nadler (1994) argues that some designers hesitate to go directly to the employees on the job, anticipating that an employee will behave defensively and will not share relevant data. Also, the majority of training clients and supervisors are very poor at describing the level of performance desired of employees considered for training (Wooldridge, 1988).

Boydel (1990) argues that the first problem the training designer encounters is persuading management that training is their responsibility. The designer may encounter attitudes such as: '*Don't bother me with details; I am only interested in results*' . Moreover, Newby (1992) points out that managers have little interest in, or understanding of, training, and see their role as limited to making nominations for courses. This state of affairs is compounded by trainers who sell a menu of courses based on little or no diagnosis of needs. Course brochures are written for trainers rather than for recipients of training and therefore courses are described in trainer jargon. Under such circumstances, the evaluation of training by management becomes difficult with managers unable to know what to look for in terms of results.

Goldstein (1993) indicated that many training programmes are doomed to failure because trainers are more interested in carrying out the training programme than identifying training needs for their organisation. Furthermore, specialist training functions are often directed by managers who hold relatively low level positions in the organisation, or whose expertise does not give them credibility in the eyes of those whose support they need (Harrison, 1995).

3.3.4 Reasons for Conducting TNA:

Sims (1993) suggested several basic reasons for conducting TNA. First, training can be expensive. Good training justifies its expense, yet improper training can increase cost with no benefits. Secondly, training which is not of sufficient quality to meet the needs of the organisation and its members can be damaging. For example, employees who undertake training and yet remain under-trained for the tasks their jobs require can become discouraged and discontented. Over - trained employees can become discouraged due to boredom with an unchallenging job or because of frustration with lack of promotion opportunities (Sim, 1993).

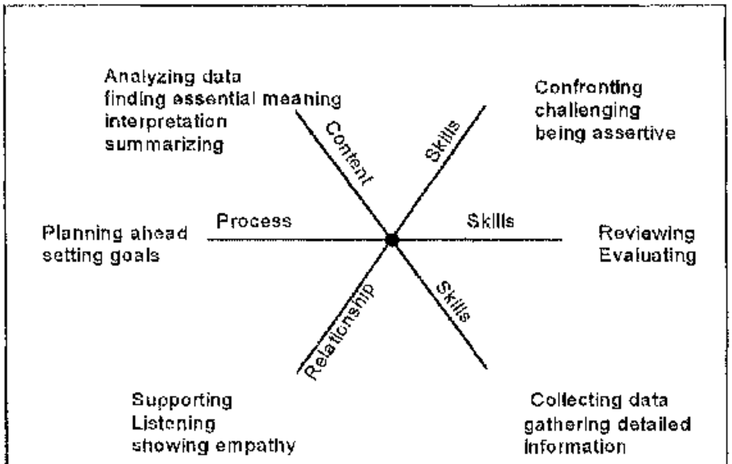
TNA provides a perspective on individual training needs, giving a guideline as to where investment in training should be made to meet present and future needs, and whether or not training is the appropriate solution to reducing individual performance deficiency (Mager and Pipe, 1990). TNA provides a blue - print which describes the objectives to be accomplished by the trainees upon completion of the training programme. These objectives provide input for the design of the training programme as well as for the measures of success that will be used to evaluate the programme effectiveness (Goldestein, 1993).

The choice and type of management programme depends on a thorough TNA, which identifies the organisational requirements in terms of manpower planning. Chansarkar and Roy (1992) conducted a study in seven firms of different size - small, medium and large - who participated in management development programmes. Their findings showed that only three out of seven firms had conducted systematic needs analysis. Those who conducted a needs analysis adopted courses specifically developed to meet the organisation's requirements, had well-defined selection criteria for participants, and used an on-going monitoring process. On the other hand, in the firms which did not undertake a systematic needs analysis, the management development programmes were not suited for their requirements, the content and the selection of programmes were mis-matched, and participants were trained with inappropriate programmes.

3.3.5 Skills Involved in TNA:

Boydell and Leary (1996) identify three sets of skills that are involved in TNA, which they call "the cluster" of skills involved, as shown in Figure 3.8.

Figure 3.8: The skills " Star Cluster"



Source: Boydell and Leary, 1996, p.58.

- Process skills: are about setting goals, making plans, and deciding how to carry out the TNA process. They involve thinking about the scope, purpose, and time-scale of the exercise; deciding who to involve, and how; and getting resources, such as computing, to Analyse information about TNA, and deciding feedback strategies such as written reports, or oral reports, or a combination of both.
- Relationship skills: TNA often involves supporting skills, such as listening and showing empathy (i.e. showing an understanding of how others feel), which consist of building and maintaining a helpful relationship with an individual or a group whose needs are being identified. At times there will be a need to be confronting or challenging in order to obtain information on TNA.
- Content skills: have to do with deciding what information to collect, finding sources, obtaining and recording the information, and then analysing.

In addition, during the TNA process it is useful to keep in mind some of the key points involved with human motivation. It is not at all uncommon for an individual to know how to do a particular job and yet not actually do it due to the motivational factors at work. When motivational factors are disregarded in the stage of TNA, trainers may run a risk of producing a "training for frustration" (Peterson, 1994).

Goldestein (1993) pointed out that since the objective of the needs assessment process is to obtain accurate, valid, and reliable data, it is crucial to develop a method of collecting needs assessment in a manner that least biases the quality and accuracy of data. Thus, attention on the methodology for gathering needs assessment is important.

3.3.6 Methods of Data Collection on TNA

This section reviews several important methods that can be used as a means of gathering data on training needs, and presents various samples of research and professional literature which address issues associated with the methods of TNA. Such information will allow us to determine how TNA is carried out in industry and the government sector, and to what extent the methods of TNA generate effective information.

3.3.6.1 Performance Appraisal:

Performance appraisal lies at the heart of training and development, and much of the data about individual performance discrepancy can be obtained through performance appraisal; such data can be described as training needs (Harrison, 1995). Performance appraisal is necessary since it forms the rationale for key decisions regarding selection for training programmes (Schneier and Beaty, 1979). It also provides an opportunity for employees to help identify their own training needs in relation to their current job (Hackett, 1997). Performance appraisal can be defined as:

> Making judgements regarding how well something is going. In most organisations the process of "performance appraisal" is applied to making judgement about how someone is doing their job, usually through a formal and planned annual system (Hope and Pickles, 1995, p.5).

The above definition emphasises that performance appraisal is all about making judgements regarding how employees are performing their job. This suggests that criteria should be established in order to decide whether the employees are performing their tasks according to the required standard. Stewart (1991) points out two types of criteria that most appraisal systems adopt in appraising employee performance; these are *personality* and *performance* measures. He argues that personality measures are difficult to apply reliably because they depend heavily on personal relationships (loyalty) rather than employees' performance (accuracy, clarity, analytical ability). If the employee is judged deficient on personality measures, there may be little ability to change his or her performance.

Performance measurement consists of two types of rating scales which are usually printed on the appraisal form and held to apply to all employees. But there is a disadvantage that not all scales could be equally applicable to all employees and employees may not share similar standards in the use of the scales. Employees who are poor performers in the wrong job are difficult for the appraisal system to detect. This may lead employees to be sent to a training programme that does not reflect their training needs. Therefore, the intention to use performance appraisal for TNA should be specified before the appraisal system has been developed and implemented (Herbert and Doverspike, 1990). As noted by Schneier and Beatty (1979), in order for a performance appraisal method to be useful for TNA, the format should specify deficiencies in behavioural terms and identify environmental deterrents to desired performance levels.

Performance appraisal also suffer from being informal and ad-hoc approaches. Figure 3.9 describes the ways of carrying out performance appraisal in an organisation.

Figure 3.9: Where, when and how appraisal takes place

	FORMAL		
	Appraisal happens in planned meetings on an individual or group basis. it may be called: . supervision . performance appraisal . staff review . critical incident analysis	Appraisal happens in unplanned discussions on individual or group basis where the assessment or feedback is agreed at the time - usually as the result of unforseen crises or problems but away from the point of service delivery	
PLANNED			AD-HOC
	Agreement in advance is reached between individuals or members of a group to give feedback and constructive criticism whilst doing their work. Appraisal is a continuous process of assessment and feedback to a person or a team. It may be recorded and reviewed regularly.	Appraisal is tacitly given while individuals are working. people give feedback and receive feedback, criticim, advice, etc. It happens often but it is unplanned. It arises as circumstances allow.	
	INFORMAL		

Source: Hope and Pickels, 1995,p.5

Herbert and Doverspike (1990) go on to say that only a small percentage of companies and government organisations list training needs analysis as a vital function of their appraisal system, and, that this function ranks very low among the purposes for adopting such appraisal. This may suggest that few government and private organisations truly perform TNA. They also found that while there were many recommendations about how performance appraisal should be conducted, there was little literature concerning how performance appraisal data should be used for needs analysis, and whether or not it is empirically successful. This may be the reason why trainers have traditionally limited the use of performance appraisal to obtain data on training needs (Mcafee, 1982).

Burns (1996) argues that no matter what approaches an employer uses to measure employees performance rating scales; rankings; checklists; forced distribution of a fixed percentage of a good rating; and essays- it is always difficult to be confident that the outcome of appraisal truly reflects actual employee performance. Many supervisors unconsciously tend to give higher rating to employees who are demographically similar to themselves.

Alan (1992) points out that performance appraisal systems are sometimes criticised for measuring, or, evaluating the wrong job behaviours or for focusing on employees' personal characteristics rather than job performance. In some cases, standards for evaluating employee performance are not related to the duties required of job incumbents, or the standards reflect relatively minor duties rather than critical ones. Also, the standards may not keep up with changes in jobs, and employees may be appraised on the basis of standards that are no longer relevant.

Blanchard (1994) points out that there are two problems associated with the way most people's performance is managed. First, people rarely get feedback on results; they never know how well they are doing unless they make a mistake. Second, a performance review exists, but nobody knows how to do it so that everyone gets a high rating. For example, supervisors may not know how to conduct an interview, may not prepare adequately for it, or may lack confidence (Allan, 1992).

Cyr (1993) indicated that a supervisor's written comments on an appraisal should be a clear and precise analysis of the causes behind job performance strengths and weaknesses. Generalisations may result in a review that takes employees' weaknesses out of context. As indicated by Hahn (1994), the more 'specifically' supervisors can describe the job performed by employees, the more 'specifically' they can tailor their review to reflect the level that individual employees have mastered.

Guinn and Corona (1991) suggest that the skills required to carry out effective performance appraisals go beyond filling out a form. The real skills needed are those that enable the manager to provide specific behavioural feedback regarding the employee's performance.

A further suggestion is provided by Longenecker and Nykodyme's (1996) who indicate that the ability of a supervisor to appraise his or her subordinates is critical to a successful performance appraisal. Performance appraisal training should focus on helping managers develop specific skills, such as goal setting, communication performance standards, observing subordinate performance, coaching and providing feedback, completing the rating form, and conducting the appraisal review. Managers should be rewarded in their appraisal for effectively evaluating their subordinates.

Thomas and Maybey (1994) argue that line mangers regard performance appraisal with scepticism in the knowledge that they have often received no training in appraisal techniques, and that they rarely have sufficient time in which to carry them out or in which to provide effective feedback to individuals; in addition, many line managers dislike discussing poor performance with subordinates, particularly when there appears to be no solution to the problem

A 1996 survey conducted by Smith, et al., included a sample of 250 managers in the mid-western USA who are members of the Society for Human Resource Management, which aims at investigating their performance appraisal practices. The result showed that the majority of managers conducted appraisal on a yearly basis (62.87 percent) with 3.59 percent carrying out appraisal on a quarterly basis. The most common method used to conduct performance appraisal was the narrative essay format (33.9 percent) where the managers list a specific employee's strengths and weaknesses with concrete suggestions for future development. It was found that most respondents use performance appraisal data for a salary decision (27.88 percent), with 24.38 percent using it for training needs. Smith et al., suggest that although the yearly performance appraisal is common, such long intervals are not always optimal when considering the purpose and use of the performance ratings. For example, employee development programmes, identification of individual strengths and weaknesses, and performance feedback, are better suited to shorter intervals.

Furthermore, McAfee (1982) suggests that, in the past, training directors have prevented the use of performance appraisal data due to biases, such as difficulties in obtaining data, and the irregularity of its collection. Girard (1988) argues that a yearly performance appraisal is too long to wait for praise, and too late to correct performance deficiencies. That means the task of identifying an employee's strengths and weaknesses becomes a monumental one, and is usually based upon memory rather than upon specific achievement-oriented benchmarks (Falcone, 1995). Therefore, human resource practitioners should more frequently review and evaluate the effectiveness of their performance appraisal practice, especially in terms of their impact on employee development (Smith, et all., 1996).

A study conducted by Robert (1995) focuses on municipal governments' performance appraisal system practices based upon the responses of 240 personnel professionals in the United States. The results suggest that the outcome of performance appraisal is to a large extent ineffective in providing reliable information on the training requirements. This is due to the fact that managers do not understand appraisal system requirements; produce incomplete or inaccurate appraisal forms; and that managers undermine the appraisal process by giving satisfactory ratings regardless of performance. Another problem is that there is not necessarily a link between performance and training.

Algabbani's (1989) study confirms that the performance appraisal in the public sector of the Saudi Arabia does not provide a reliable data on the employees training needs due to its design, and most of the managers will not appraise their employees honestly and accurately.

Painter (1994) points out that a continuous employee performance appraisal documentation is probably the most difficult to conduct, and most supervisors find routine performance documentation time-consuming. On the other hand, maintaining a continuous record of observed and reported incidents of employee performance is crucial in building a complete, fair and useful appraisal.

Bee and Bee (1994) suggest that to make the best use of the performance appraisal system, the training professional should think about the following issues:

•The ability of the appraisal system to produce accurate and relevant information on the assessment of performance.

•The extent to which the design of performance appraisal forms encourage the effective identification of training needs.

•The role of the training professional in the performance appraisal system, e.g. discussing the appraisal findings of employees with their managers to develop jointly the performance needs, and the best approach for accomplishing them.

Not all organisations have a formal procedure, or form, for appraising performance, and it is even more frustrating when there are performance appraisals which are kept secret and confidential. Moreover, most performance appraisals are not designed to indicate individual training and education needs (Nadler and Nadler, 1994).

According to Snell and Wexley (1985), the performance appraisal system is limited by the fact that it can only pinpoint the manager who is not performing well. It cannot provide data to the manager about the causes of employee performance deficiencies. Therefore, managers are forced to make their own 'inferences' about the causes of employee performance deficiencies. From this, one can raise a question concerning the ability of managers to produce the right 'inferences' on the causes of their employees' performance deficiencies, which may reflect on the needs of training required by the employee. For example, a manager may assume that employee performance deficiencies stem from a lack of effort; yet the employees may not have the proper skills to perform the job effectively.

In addition, appraisal-related research indicates that many of the difficulties associated with conducting effective appraisal arise from confusion over objectives. Appraisal schemes can be designed to achieve various objectives, explicit or not, that in practice turn out to be in conflict with each other. The objectives of an appraisal scheme may be to:

- provide data for succession and resource planning;
- provide a basis for improved communication between the boss and subordinate;
- identify and recording performance weaknesses;
- provide a basis for analysis of performance and identification of required standards and improvements;
- identify employee potential;
- provide mutual feedback between the boss and subordinate;

- provide a basis for training and career counselling;
- provide a basis for salary decision-making.

In addition to the confusion over the objectivity of appraisal schemes, neither managers nor subordinates recognise the advantages of performance appraisal. The appraisal scheme tends to be maintained by personnel employees and not by managers. Managers find it difficult to switch from reviewing performance to talking about training and development; they give these issues far too little attention, due time limitations. Moreover, the failure of appraisal schemes can be due to the lack of required skill when conducting an appraisal. The outcome of appraisal can be tenuous if the appraisal form is designed with unhelpful headings (Mumford, 1989).

Mavis (1994) points out four important reasons why experienced managers are so reluctant to carry out a performance review:

- avoid conflict--real and perceived;
- they do not want to take responsibilities for their judgements;
- they are more certain of their judgement than their facts;
- they are afraid that if they begin providing clear, serious feedback, they also receive candid feedback on their own performance.

Harrison (1995) indicates the most common problems in carrying out performance appraisal: the manager is not convinced of the needs for appraisals and has neither the incentive, nor the skills, to carry them out effectively.

Swan (1991) suggests that common errors are made in the development and use of appraisal schemes. These include inadequately defined standards of performance; unclear performance documentation; reliance on gut feeling; and inadequate time for discussion.

Herbert and Doverspike (1990) provide various important cautions regarding the use of performance appraisal:

1. the enormous cost and complexity when considered at the organisation level;
2. the ability of manager to make a correct judgement is questionable given evidence of rating errors and biases;
3. the need to ensure that behaviour rating systems should include all areas of required performance that can be identified;
4. the need to clarify the intention to use performance appraisal information for TNA, it must be specified before the system is developed and implemented;
5. manager and training professionals must be able to match deficiencies identified to specific remedial activities.

3.3.6.2 Job Learning Analysis:

When designing a training programme in relation to particular jobs or tasks, it is necessary to identify the kind and levels of skills, knowledge and attitudes required for effective performance. This data can be obtained through a process called job training analysis, which identifies the purpose of the job and its elements, and specifies what should be learnt in order for there to be effective work performance. This enables the trainer to design training programmes and materials for the required training needs (Reid and Barrington, 1997).

However, Wellens (1970) indicated that job analysis as a means of determining training needs is most effective at the lower organisational levels, and is most difficult at the supervisory and managerial level, because the nature of supervisors' and managers' jobs or tasks is changing, which means that they cannot be prescribed accurately, therefore their job description usually tend to be written in general terms. However, analysing all aspect of the job can be costly and time consuming (Buckly and Caple, 1995). Therefore certain criteria need to be established before a trainer undertakes job analysis, as suggested by Kenney and Reid (1986) among them are;

- whether or not the tasks are unknown to trainees, they are difficult to learn and the cost of failure or error are unacceptable in reference to expenditure of money, time and human effort.
- resource availability in carrying out job analysis.

- the training programme will be used frequently as a result of the job analysis.
- management understand and accept the needs of job analysis.

3.3.6.3 Job Descriptions:

Employees Job descriptions can be an important source of information regarding the task performed by the employees; however, this will require checking to ensure that the job description documents are up to date and accurate (Harrison, 1995). Job descriptions enable the trainer to see features of the problem in a wider context and therefore to get a better picture of the training requirement for the individual (Buckly and Caple, 1995).

However, Nadler and Nadler (1994) indicates that some designers go to the job description as their primary source, and then get trapped in the past. For the most part, a job description does not tell what is expected of job performance at present, but rather what was expected when the job description was written. In some organisations, the job descriptions are written in very broad and general terms, and tend to be static in nature, failing to account for the changes in the scope or technology of the job (Wessman, 1975). Similarly, Peterson (1994) indicates that most organisations do not have well laid-out listings of job performance objectives, and even if they do, the job descriptions are usually out of date. To support this argument empirically Al gabbani's

(1989) study revealed that there is a lack of complete and up-to- date job description guides in the civil service of Saudi Arabia.

3.3.6.4 Self-Report Questionnaire:

An alternative to the previous methods as a means of gathering data is the self-completed questionnaire. Employees are asked fairly straightforwardly what training they think they need. The way of putting the question varies from providing a list of courses to tick to providing a list of skills to tick; sometime employees are given a blank sheet of paper. The deficiencies of this approach are that the employees may not know their own training needs; may not know about the courses on offer; and they may regard the questionnaire as just another piece of paper to be filled in, leaving it in their in-tray, or filling it negligently (Stewart, 1991).

Wessman (1975) argues that both subordinates and their supervisors are required to be involved in completing the questionnaire separately. The supervisors rate, or specify, training needs for their subordinates, whereas subordinates indicate the type of training they need in order to perform their job effectively. The discrepancy which emerges can be useful in clarifying what is actually expected of the subordinates, as well as what training development they may need. The advantages of this approach are to get upper management involvement in the TNA process, and to think more clearly about the criteria they are using in evaluating their subordinates' performance. To support Wessman's argument, a study conducted by Tharenou (1991) investigated the differences in managers' self perception of training needs and their supervisors through a self reported questionnaire. The results of the study indicated that supervisors perceived a greater training need for their subordinates than did their subordinates. It was suggested that it is not advisable to place sole emphasis on TNA by a self-report questionnaire because subordinates underestimate their own needs when self-rating survey items; other methods such as group interview with subordinates is recommended when a self-report is used.

Reay (1994) suggested that the questionnaire can be developed by the designer/ training practitioners. The designer may question the person who performs the task. The questionnaire may be conducted when the job cannot be observed. The questionnaire should be simple and related directly to the job that the employee is performing.

> Identifying training needs is all about asking the right questions and then making sense of the answers. The right questions are those which will provide the basic information the training department needs to enable employees to meet the business needs (Reay,1994,p.9).

Algabbani's (1989) study shows that training personnel in the government agencies of Saudi Arabia lack the capability to construct an effective questionnaire that would generate data on training requirements. And this approach requires a great deal of effort and expertise.

Nadler and Nadler (1994) argue that, if the employee has a low level of literacy, the questionnaire can be a frustrating experience. On the other hand, a highly literate employee may react negatively to a forced choice questionnaire and prefer an open-ended type of questionnaire. In addition, too often those who design questionnaire go on " a fishing expedition", i.e. as long as time is being spent on the questionnaire, what other information can be obtained? This weakens the focus of the questionnaire, takes extra time, and raises doubts in the mind of the employee as to the purpose of the questionnaire. In practice, a serious limitation of the questionnaire is that a carefully constructed questionnaire might elicit valid data about attitudes, but yet cannot assess skill behaviour.

The pre-judgement of outcome can be the principal disadvantage of adopting a survey questionnaire. That is, if you do not have an answer, you do not have the question. Therefore, the questions that are designed to generate data about skills, knowledge, and ability and requirements of the client, reflect the concerns of the designer more than the concerns of the client. The pre-judgement problem can be solved mainly by designing a questionnaire that consists of open questions which bring about spontaneous views about needs. However, the interpretation and analysis of this kind of questionnaire can be time - consuming and may require personnel (Craig,1994).

Bee and Bee (1994) suggested that the major advantages of this approach are that it is relatively inexpensive and quick to carry out, providing the means to survey a large number of respondents in a short period of time. When it is completed anonymously it can provide the opportunity for the expression of facts and opinions about the individual performance deficiencies without fears or embarrassment. The disadvantages are that designing this type of questionnaire requires a lot of time and expertise. Also, questionnaires often suffer from low response rates, and may require considerable effort to ensure a high response. Filling out the questionnaire requires the individuals having sufficient knowledge about their present and future jobs in order to provide suggestions for training. An individual's priorities for training may be different from their organisation's and manager's.

3.3.7 The Practice of TNA Conducted Elsewhere:

This section is devoted to investigating and presenting various research and studies in relation to the exercise of TNA in various countries, so one can get an idea of how TNA is conducted in reality and what has been found to be the obstacles that affect the carrying out TNA.

A recent study conducted by Gray et al (1997) which involved 140 state government agencies in the United State of America shows that only 13 percent of the respondents identify training needs for 80 percent or more of their training programme. The primary method used to gather data about employee training needs is through employee survey/questionnaire (39 percent). It was found that 44 percent of the respondents believe TNA methods used by agencies occasionally produce clear, relevant, specific data on performance discrepancies.

State agency respondents expressed concern that the data gathered on TNA may not reflect the actual need of either individuals or the organisation, and the results of training may not result in the sought-after employee improvement. It was suggested by Gray et all (1997) that, in order to improve data-gathering methods of TNA, employee and supervisor involvement in the process would enrich the quality of data collection. Other suggestions included were more management support, larger budgets and more staff.

In the European context, the result of the Larsen (1994) study in relation to training needs assessment in the public sectors of 12 Europeans countries including Germany (D); Denmark (DK); Spain (E); France (F); Finland (FIN); Ireland (IRL); Norway (N); Netherlands (NL); Portugal (P); Sweden (S); Turkey (T); and the United Kingdom (UK), indicate that the Netherlands came the first in systematically assessing training needs, followed by France and Spain (see table 3.4). Of those that did analyse training needs, the most commonly used methods of need analysis is in most countries is line management request. See table 3.5 (a, b, c, d) for other methods used among those countries.

Table 3.4: Europeans country which systematically analyse employee training needs

	D	DK	E	F	FIN	IRL	N	NL	P	S	T	UK
Yes	51	50	80	88	77	58	65	100	62	77	56	74
No	49	47	20	10	21	40	32	0	38	19	25	25

Adopted: Larsen (1994)

Table 3.5: Methods of training needs analyses by European countries:

A. Training needs analysed through projected business/service plan

	D	DK	E	F	FIN	IRL	N	NL	P	S	T	UK
Always	25	16	22	38	26	16	32	0	17	21	50	20
Often	30	34	11	34	39	23	33	0	46	49	50	27
Sometimes	37	38	33	17	24	29	35	100	37	29	0	46
Never	7	12	33	12	10	29	0	0	0	1	0	7

Adopted from: Adapted: Larsen (1994)

B. Training needs analysed though training audits

	D	DK	E	F	FIN	IRL	N	NL	P	S	T	UK
Always	33	23	0	13	31	0	4	50	57	0	78	12
Often	37	45	29	10	47	41	13	50	43	2	11	33
Sometimes	21	32	0	37	22	47	53	0	0	26	11	48
Never	8	0	71	40	0	12	29	0	0	17	0	7

Adopted from Larsen (1994)

* Tables don't add to 100 - error in original source

Germany (D); Denmark (DK); Spain (E); France (F); Finland (FIN); Ireland (IRL); Norway (N); Netherlands (NL); Portugal (P); Sweden (S); Turkey (T); United Kingdom (UK)

C. Training needs analysed through training *line* management request

	D	DK	E	F	FIN	IRL	N	NL	P	S	T	UK
Always	33	20	46	66	42	29	26	50	14	30	80	31
Often	51	59	31	26	42	49	65	0	57	56	20	51
Sometimes	16	20	15	8	13	20	9	50	29	14	0	18
Never	0	0	8	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Adopted from: Larsen (1994)

D. Training needs analysed through performance appraisal

	D	DK	E	F	FIN	IRL	N	NL	P	S	T	UK
Always	40	13	11	25	7	14	26	0	0	29	0	37
often	26	43	33	33	34	50	37	0	40	45	67	33
Sometimes	23	36	44	30	56	27	28	0	40	25	33	25
Never	11	9	11	12	2	9	9	0	20	0	0	5

Adopted from: Larsen (1994)

E. Training needs analysed through employees request

	D	DK	E	F	FIN	IRL	N	NL	P	S	T	UK
Always	11	21	0	49	29	9	6	0	0	9	44	15
often	17	65	39	42	36	57	56	0	29	58	33	46
Sometimes	65	14	46	10	36	35	38	100	71	32	22	39
Never	7	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0

Adopted from: Larsen (1994)
Germany (D); Denmark (DK); Spain (E); France (F); Finland (FIN); Ireland (IRL); Norway (N); Netherlands (NL); Portugal (P); Sweden (S); Turkey (T); United Kingdom (UK)

A study of training institutions in Bangladesh was carried out by Waheeduzzaman (1988) which indicates that trainers in Bangladesh public training institutions do not identify training needs. The Bangladesh government are responsible for identifying needs both at individual and organisational levels. Training institutions were mainly responsible for conducting training programmes. The study showed that 43 percent of Bangladesh government organisations conduct TNA. whereas 57 percent do not. The methods used to collect data on TNA was based on the supervisors' assumptions and intuitions; there was no evidence that needs were assessed in relation to the task to be performed after training, nor to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be performed on the job by trainees. Another finding of Waheeduzzaman's study reveals that training institutions suffered from shortages of professionally competent trainers. This is due to lack of sufficient finance; a 'poor' reward package; inadequate training; and to the absence of career planning and development for trainers and promotion prospects.

Durra (1991) investigated the practice of training needs identification in the context of Jordanian government sectors based on a sample of 57 training officers. The results indicate that 75 percent of them conducted. Which, in the main, focused on the occupational levels (34.8 percent) of TNA (see table 3.6).

Table 3.6: Level of TNA conducted In Jordan

Level	Percent
Organisational	15.2
Occupational	34.8
Individual	26.1
Organisational and occupational	4.3
Occupational and individual	15.2
Organisational occupational, and individual	5.3
Total	100

Source: Durra, 1991, p.45

Table 3.7 shows 62.5 percent of training officers use 'observational' methods to collect data about training needs. This is due to the fact that the training officers come from the Ministry of Social Development in which they spend a lot of their time on field visits.

Table 3.7: Methods of data collection of training needs of Jordan by percentage

Methods	Yes	No	Total
Observation	62.5	37.5	100
Interview	50	50	100
By-laws and regulations*	25	75	100
Reports and records	6.3	93.8	100
Evaluation of previous training programmes	27.1	72.9	100
Questionnaire	35.4	64.6	100
Tests	39.6	60.4	100

* Means all legal documents used by client organisations, which may help in identifying training needs

In addition, Durra (1991) found that only 10 percent of training officers conducted training, the majority do administrative work. Around 31 percent of them had only one year of experience in training, and 20 percent had only high school certificates or diplomas (two years after high school).

Al-Faleh (1987) points out that the absence of competent local training institutions and the lack of qualified staff in Jordan imposes a constraint on the development of management capabilities. The capacity of management education and training programmes has never reached a size commensurate with the country's' real needs. This is because the real needs have neither been fully recognised nor made explicit by top management. The result is that training programmes meet only 25 percent of the identified needs.

The research of Hayes and Pulparampil (1989) investigated the importance of TNA in relation to the relevancy of training programmes to the trainees' needs in the context of India. Their research indicated that the main factors limiting the relevance of training programmes as perceived by the trainers of the Indian Institute of Management, were a lack of research into the needs of client organisations; a lack of consultations with trainee supervisors; and a lack of competence among trainers.

Jaaffar's (1990) study revealed that 62 percent of Omani public administration institute trainers do not participate in identifying training needs of the public sectors. The reason for lack of trainer participation in the TNA process is due to the bureaucratic complexities, and that government departments are less committed to training. The performance appraisal process is carried out as a matter of formality; thus, it provides no basis for detecting employee performance deficiency. Some of government departments have no precise job descriptions to indicate what precisely a trainee is expected to accomplish. Also, due to lack of sufficient qualified trainers, trainers find themselves carrying out activities other than training, such as consultation, research, and publication. Jaaffar also investigated the methods of TNA conducted within the government agencies. The results indicated that the majority of the training personnel officers (82 percent) collect data on training needs through department contacts. The major constraint in conducting TNA by training personnel officers was insufficient or inadequate staff.

The Abdalla and Al-Homoud (1995) study shows that all Kuwaiti government sectors have no specific practices or procedures for determining training needs. The organisations, however, rely on several indirect sources of information, among them are the following; trainees' direct supervisors (96 percent); changes in work methods (76 percent); trainees themselves (79 percent); performance appraisal results (62 percent); and promotion decisions (59 percent). Abdalla and Al-Homoud argue that the self-assessment information provided by trainees may not be highly reliable. Mainly due to feelings of scepticism among a large number of managers on the effectiveness of management development programmes.

Atiyyah (1991) pointed out that one of the critical factors that impedes the success of training programme design by Saudi Arabian Institute of Public Administration is that the majority of trainers lack of information on the training needs of the civil service. The Algabbani (1989) study revealed various factors that influence the process of TNA in Saudi Arabia government agencies. They are as follows:

- lack of fully staffed training personnel who are committed, and who specialise in the area of training programme design;
- absence of open communication between the training institute and government training personnel;
- failure to convince the senior management of the value of training;
- lack of training budget;
- inadequate information system;
- failure of client organisations to realise the importance of identifying needs.

In addition, various sources of publications, reports by United Nations, and researchers have described a number of problems experienced by training institutions in developing countries. Among those problems as indicated by Willoughby (1985) are:

- failure to identify real needs for training;
- lack of competent training staff;
- existing institutions are fragile and need to enhance the quality of their operations;
- emphasis on quantity of programmes and participants at the expense of research and consultancy;
- lack of appropriate local training materials;
- low status of training as a career;
- lack of organisational support on pre- and post training;
- misplaced faith in training to solve non-training problems;
- training institutions, often caught in governmental bureaucratic system, lack the necessary autonomy;
- training institutions provide a repetitive courses without improving its content;
- failure to evaluate outcomes of training.

3.4 Developing Training Objectives:

Bee and Bee, (1994) indicate that training objectives are sometimes referred to as learning objectives; both terms can be used interchangeably. Training objectives are a description of the performance, or behaviour, that trainees should demonstrate at the end of the training programme.

The objectives provide direct input to training programme design and help specify the criterion that will be used to evaluate the performance, such as, the trainees knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquisition. Well-written training objectives help determine the methods and content of training by focusing on the areas of employee performance that require change, help clarify what is to be expected of both the training staff and participants, and prevent teaching too much or too little. (Patrick, 1992; Goldstein, 1993; Sims, 1993; Buckley and Caple, 1995).

Leigh (1996) describes how to 'write' training objectives. The objectives should have three main components which are the performance that trainees are expected to display at the end of the training programme, the condition under which they will perform, and the standards which they are expected to reach.

The source of information for developing a training objective should be generated through the TNA process (Buckly and Caple, 1995). Therefore, the designer must know the needs of the individual and the organisation in order to establish training objectives. The designer should never determine objectives in a vacuum. It is easier to work alone, this increases the possibility of producing objectives irrelevant to the trainees' job performance (Nadler and Nadler, 1994). Thus, the content of training objectives should be linked as closely as possible to the trainees' real task or job (Patrick, 1992). When the objectives do not reflect the need, then the training is unlikely to be successful (Sanderson, 1995).

Buckly and Caple (1995) pointed out that it is worthwhile to invest time in writing objectives; however, some trainers have difficulty in composing objectives. One problem is the excessive amount of time spent in trying to find the appropriate 'words' to describe the type of behaviour the trainee has to demonstrate. Another difficulty is attempting to decide and express how performance should be identified and measured. They concluded that writing objectives is not always easy, but trainers who have tried to train without using objectives are more likely to admit they cannot design, or evaluate, training they deliver without knowing what to accomplish.

Watson (1988) indicated that the process of formulating training objectives tends to be foreign to many people and most people do not have the skills in formulating the training objectives. So, very often, people argue that it is difficult to know what people should learn; therefore the exercise of preparing a list of objectives is meaningless. Sanderson (1995) argues that formulating a training objective for an open-ended job, such as management, can be complex because it is difficult to formulate a precise standard or statement of desired behaviour.

The results of Waheeduzzaman's (1988) study indicated that the training programme objectives in Bangladesh's training institutions are largely developed on the basis of experiences, assumptions, intuitions, and previous course syllabi. The study also confirms that training objectives were not determined on the basis of training needs identification, which resulted in no criteria being established in order to evaluate effectiveness. 54 percent of trainees felt that the training programmes had met their training needs very little or not at all. Also, the majority of trainers did not feel that the course syllabi for the training programme was relevant to the programme participants.

It is clear that the process of TNA pinpoints where a change in individual performance is required. Learning objectives indicate what an individual will be able to do differently as a result of training. Therefore, training programme designers should translate identified needs into clear learning objectives. The following section identifies the principles and describes the procedures to follow in selecting trainees for the various types of training and development programmes.

3.5 Trainees' Selection Methods

Tracey (1984) argues that to be effective and efficient, training of any type, must be provided only to employees who have been screened and selected for suitability to ensure that the right people are enrolled, otherwise; training and development resources will be wasted. According to Jones (1997), training can become irrelevant when people are sent to 'off-the-shelf' courses, external or internal, which are not pertinent to the job and are often too theoretical. Moon (1997) argues that the approach of asking *"what course do you fancy going on"*, leads to under emphasis on training to meet the needs of the current job.

Tracey, (1984) indicated that there are various prerequisites that should be considered before a trainee is admitted to a programme. Prerequisites includes determining the knowledge, skills, and experience required for successful completion. Prerequisites must be derived from an analysis of the objectives and content of a training programme, because without a clear view of what a training programme attempts to achieve, it is impossible to describe, with any degree of precision, the knowledge and experience required for successful participation in the learning experience. Various elements to be considered in setting the 'prerequisites', among them are:

•Administrative: they ensure compliance with enterprise rules, regulations and policies. They consist of status requirements such as employees experience, length of service with the organisation, and grade level.

• Physical: This includes qualifications that will ensure adequate physical capability to engage in the activities of the job, for which the employee is to be trained.

• Educational: includes the minimum level of formal education and prior training of employees.

Furthermore, Tracey suggested that the best source of information for employee selection is their immediate supervisors, because it is their responsibility to ensure adequate performance. Another information source is the application form, which should be completed by the trainee before attending training programmes. The application forms should be designed to supply data that will aid in reaching a decision to admit the employee to the programme.

In addition, nomination for attendance should reflect consideration of various factors, among them as following:

• The extent to which the employee needs training.

• The employee potential for advancement.

• The degree to which the employee desires training.

• The effort the employee has made toward self-improvement.

• The extent to which the employee's knowledge, skill, attitudes, or performance are likely to be improved by the training.

• The degree to which the organisation expects to benefit from the employees, new or improved, knowledge and skills (Tracy, 1984, and Sim 1993).

The United Nations (1966) assert that the selection of personnel for training cannot be separated from priorities, or from the availability of individuals for training. On some occasions, the persons admitted to training are those who volunteer to undertake training. This approach of selection leads to no necessary correlation between the desire for training and the actual needs for it. As indicated by Reily and Clark (1990) that individuals may want training for various reasons, for example to promote their personal career or to have opportunities to obtain further qualifications. Moreover, training may be seen as a means of making contacts, and exploring alternative job opportunities. Such desires are natural and inevitable, but they may run counter to the needs of organisations by enticing people to inappropriate types of training and enabling them to move out of the organisation. Also, people seek training to escape from excessive responsibilities, or from a job beyond their capability, or as an opportunity for a holiday. These desires naturally influence the type of training and it is the job of trainers with the collaboration of trainee supervisors to recognise and counter such desires.

Newby (1992) points out that training may be made compulsory for various reasons, which are; safety requirements, lack of skills across the whole organisation or within occupational group and it is important to bring every one up to a minimum level of competence, and where training has been specified in the contract of employment.

Harrison (1995) indicated that mistakes in selection for a learning event are often made by externally provided courses, because when places are hard to fill the temptation is strong to accept nominees, or applicants, whose needs or abilities do not match the course profile. The is the more successful the selection process, the less training is required and vice versa (Patrick, 1992).

Moreover, trainers usually does not have the authority in the selection process. However, trainers should not be expected to accept, without question, all the individuals nominated by management, because there is no use in attempting to train individuals who appear to be quite incapable of absorbing the training (United Nations, 1966).

Waheeduzzman's (1988) study confirms that training institutions in Bangladesh are not involved in the process of selecting. The concerned Ministries were responsible, which resulted that some of the participants had no precise idea why they were selected.

In Saudi Arabia it was found that the two most common methods adopted by government agencies for selecting are; supervisor recommendation (40.7 percent) and the employees desire to attend the programme (44.0 percent) (Bukhary-Haddad, 1986). Furthermore, the Al gabbani (1989) study shows that most employees in the public sector of Saudi Arabia get nominated to training programmes that do not match their job and needs. This is due to the nominators' lack of understanding of their employees' needs and the nature of the Institute of Public Administration training; most employees do not know that training must be based on needs; and managers use training to give the employees a break from the job.

The Al-Rubaian (1991) study shows that all middle management employees of the Kuwait government were admitted to programmes regardless of educational background, or their experience. This resulted in having trainees with different educational backgrounds demonstrating different reactions to the knowledge presented in the programmes. Some trainees were far more well versed in decision-making skills than others. Trainees who did not have a management background were often eager to obtain new knowledge about the decision-making process, while trainees with management backgrounds wished that the trainer would move on to the more advanced knowledge. Steffey (1993) argues that when the trainees are not homogenous in term the levels of background knowledge the trainers have to work 'extra hard' to ensure all trainees are catching on, while the class remains on the schedule.

Reilly and Clark (1990) experienced that in developing countries decision-making was made on the basis of the relationship between the organisation and individuals, with scant attention paid to needs. Thus, few trainees are selected on the basis of their needs; bureaucratic politics and patronage play an important role (Ozgediz, 1983). Similarly, Salem (1985) suggested that when there is incomplete knowledge of the characteristics of trainees, the criteria of admissions are often ambiguous. Therefore, personnel may be selected with no priority need and no possibility of benefiting from the programme.

Furthermore, Reilly and Clark (1990) pointed out that for many short courses institutes are happy to admit every applicant they receive, especially when fee income is involved, without considering the pre-requisite of the programme in terms of educational level. However, it is a risky policy as the value of the programme may be diminished by the inclusion of even a few candidates who are unable to benefit or cope with the work involved during the programme. Reilly and Clark suggested that in some cases selection tests may be appropriate in order to assess the suitability of the candidates to undertake the programme.

Similarly Newby (1992) argues the effect of training for the sake of training without regard to organisational priority could lead to the selection of programmes which are not relevant to the trainee's performance. This may be common in organisations who adopt an unqualified philosophy of ' we believe in personal development'.

3.6 Training Programme Evaluation:

Evaluation is all too often looked upon as a marginal activity to be carried out at the end of the training programme. It should be viewed as a core training function, and to be considered at the time of programme design, undertaken throughout the programme and continued within the trainees' work place (Cellich, 1994). In government, evaluation is often carried out under such activities as "auditing" , "inspection", "management analysis", "monitoring", "planning", "policy analysis", "programme analysis" and "research" (Wholey et al, 1989).

3.6.1 Definition of Training Evaluation:

Training evaluation has been defined by many researchers, but from different perspectives. This section reviews some of these definitions. Anderson (1993) provides a meaning of evaluation as:

> Determining the value of something. In turn, value means worth or usefulness (p.166).

Reeves (1993) sees evaluation as:

> The process of finding out how a course or any other training exercise has affected the organization (p.1).

The previous definitions are too generic. To evaluate a training programme there is a need to obtain data and analysis, and then to make a correct decision about the outcome of a programme. Therefore, evaluation of training involves data-gathering and decision-making. Further definitions of evaluation are suggested by the following researchers:

Rosenberg (1987) looks at evaluation as:

> The collection and analysis of data, the goal of which is to provide useful information for decision-making (p.60).

Harrison (1992) understands evaluation as:

> the total value of a learning event, not just whether and how far it has achieved its learning objectives. It thereby puts the event in its wider context, and provides information essential to future planning (p.373).

Similarly Goldstein (1993) defines evaluation as

> The systematic collection of descriptive and judgmental information necessary to make effective training decisions related to the selection, a adoption, value, and modification of various instructional activities (p.147).

And Patrick's (1992) definition of evaluation is:

> Any attempt to obtain information concerning the effect or value of training in order to make decisions about any aspect of the training program, the person that have been trained and the organisations (local, national or international) responsible for providing the training (p.515)

In light of the previous definitions, evaluation is concerned with validating a learning event, that is, checking whether learning objectives have been accomplished. But this is not the end, for evaluation is an on-going process that attempts to gather data, or feedback, on the effectiveness of a training programme and to assess the value of training in the light of that data. Failure to do so would distort the feedback process and would result in a misleading subjective, rather than rational, decision about effectiveness (Goldstein, 1993). This could be the reason behind the weakness of linkage between evaluation function and the decision-making process in programme planning and delivery (Comtois, 1974).

Evaluation must provide data which helps decision-makers to answer the questions about the nature and consequences of the programme, and to minimise the uncertainty of decision-making about training programme effectiveness (Edwards, 1981). Moreover, if programme evaluation is to be successful, it should be a co-operative working alliance between trainers, trainees and line management, otherwise, everyone in the evaluation process is likely to arrive at different answers about various parts of the training and development programme (Kimber, 1970).

Furthermore, in order to make judgements about effectiveness one must establish measurement or criteria of success, because without measurement there is no assurance that training and development efforts have really accomplished their objectives. Thus, evaluation based on measurement has the advantage of eliminating the probability of conflict between evaluators, providing substantial feedback about what the programme has accomplished, and allowing positive comparison between pre-and post-problem status (Laird, 1985).

It may be important to mention that sometimes the phrase "validation of training" is used in the context of training programme evaluation. The word validation comes from the Latin "validus" meaning to be strong. In other words, in the training context, a course is valid if its content is strong and if it appropriately reflects the programme objectives (Reeves, 1993). Sanderson (1995) goes further in the distinction between internal and external validation:

> Internal validation: is a series of tests and measurements designed to ascertain whether a training programme has met the specified behavioural objectives

whereas;

> External validation:is the process of deciding whether the objectives of a training programme are realistically based on an accurate initial identification of training needs (p.114-115).

It is notable that internal validation is concerned with the verification that certain learning outcomes have been achieved by training. In other words, did the trainees learn what they were taught? On the other hand, external validation tries to find out if the trainees have applied what they have learned from the training programme to their workplace (Buckly and Caple, 1995).

3.6.2 Nature of Training Programme Evaluation:

Training programme evaluation is essential to the success of any learning event. It ensures control of the events during its delivery, validations of its outcomes by comparing the actual against the intended result, and analysis of data important to future planning (Harrison, 1992). Therefore, the aim of this section is to underlie key issues in the task of training programme evaluation.

3.6.2.1 Prior consideration of training programme evaluation:

Newby (1992) raises the question, "How much evaluation do we need?". Evaluation requires expenditure of energy and time; therefore, it is useful to question whether, or not, everything needs evaluating. And if an evaluation is to be an investment rather than a cost, then one must consider:

- *Importance*: can be judged against the consequences of failing to measure training effectiveness.
- *Frequency*: concerned with the future development of the training programme as evaluation information is used to modify it.
- *Cost*: refers to the cost of training activities compared to the cost of evaluation.
- *Impact*: concerned with the possibility of the evaluation project acting as a catalyst for change.

Goldstein (1993) argues that the choice of criteria when evaluating a training programme is complex, because a measure of training programme success does not mean that it is reliable, or free, from biases. Thus, the following issues of criterion evaluation need to be considered:

a) Relevance:

Chosen assessment criteria need to be relevant. Components such as skill, knowledge, and abilities which are to be imparted by trainees must be assessed against the practical necessities of the subsequent job to be performed.

b) Deficiency:

Deficiency is the degree to which skills, knowledge, and abilities of employees that are identified during TNA are not represented in the actual criteria.

c) Contamination:

Criteria contamination results from factors outside the training participant's control. For example biases may result in trainees not being permitted to transfer the skills they have learned due to operational constraints within the organisation.

d) Reliability:

Reliability is concerned with the consistency of the criteria measurement. A low reliability of criteria occurs when there is little agreement between performance raters. Therefore, there is a need for clarification on whose objectives are to be met and whose criteria are to be met.

Moreover, Tannenbaum and Woods (1992) highlight several organisational factors that should be considered when determining training programme evaluation strategy. Table 3.8 exhibits several important factors and several 'sample' questions that need to be asked when conducting training programme evaluation.

Table 3.8 Factors that can influence evaluation strategy

Factor	Sample questions
• Change potential	Is it possible to change or drop the course?
• Importance/Criticality	What are the implications of erroneous conclusion?
• Scale	How large is the training programme? How many trainees will participate?
• Purpose and nature of the training	What is the purpose(s) and Objective(s) of the training?
• Organisational Culture	Do decision makers usually include numerical evidence in their presentation?
• Expertise	Do we have the capabilities to design and analyse a complex evaluation study?
• Cost	How much investment is there in the training programme?
• Time frame	When is the information needed?

Source: Tannenbaum and Woods, 1992, p.71

It is evident that if the training programme cannot be modified or dropped, it makes no sense to invest time and effort evaluating it. Moreover, all training efforts are not of equal importance to the organisation. Some programmes are of strategic importance to the organisation. Therefore, the success or failure of such programmes has an impact on the effectiveness of the organisation. When determining an evaluation strategy, an important question which needs to be asked is "What are the implications of erroneous conclusions?".

The implications of erroneous conclusions are more serious for a highly critical programme; this suggests the need to adopt at least an intermediate design to evaluate training effectiveness. The scale of training effort has an influence over the evaluation strategy. That is, if the training programme is on-going, then evaluation assumes great importance. Such, circumstances a reaction evaluation strategy, by itself, will not provide the information required to determine the outcome. Also, multiple classes and larger sample sizes increase the feasibility of carrying out large-scale evaluations and applying more sophisticated designs and analysis.

The purpose of the training can affect the type of criteria that should be collected. For example, training designed to change behaviours calls for assessment of capability. Training designed to provide trainees with specific knowledge lends itself to adopt learning measures. Moreover, each organisation has its own cultural norms or expectations about evaluation. That is, in some organisations cost justification and follow-up evaluation is a way of life, whereas other organisations prize 'fast results'. Therefore, evaluation in these organisations is less important and may be discouraged. However, in those organisations which have a strong orientation toward evaluation, it is important to use evaluation designs that will generate defensible, quantitative indicators of learning, behaviour, and results. In addition, expertise is require to carry out a programme evaluation and analysis.

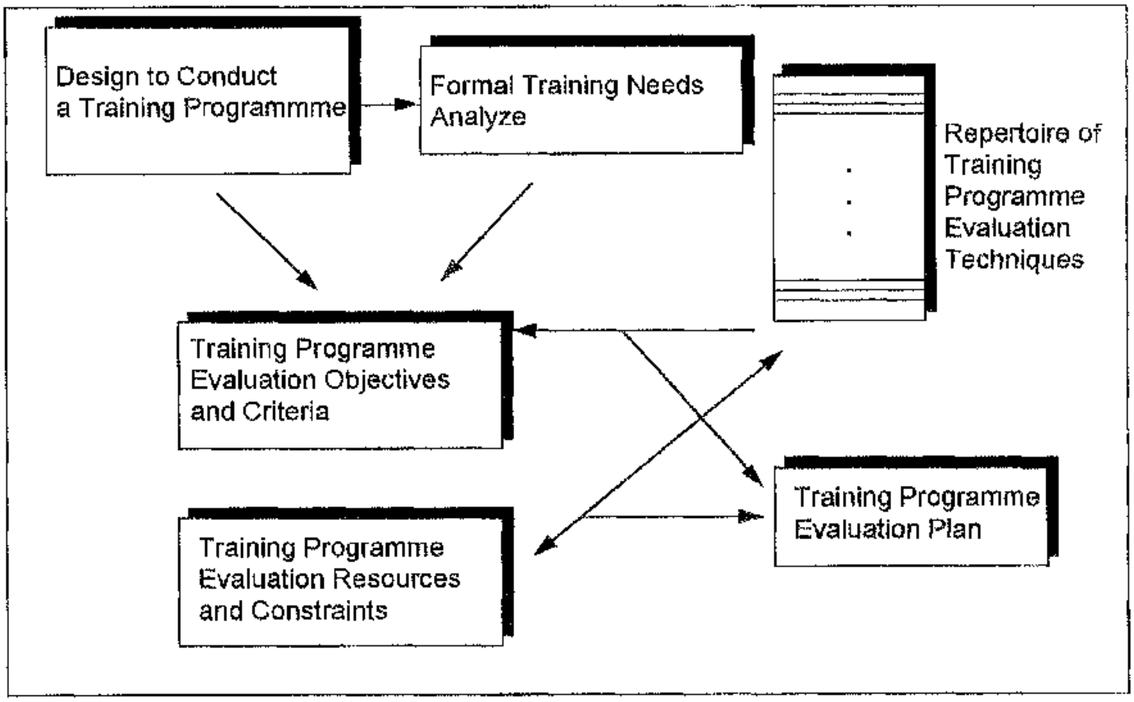
Newly (1992) suggests that the trainers need to be capable of summarising and analysing the data that has been collected in relation to their programme delivery. The next stage is reporting the evaluation in a format that encourages people to read it and to act upon its conclusions. A suggested framework for the evaluation report is as follows:

1. Content table, followed by general introductory preface
2. Summary of the main conclusion and recommendation
3. Summary of the main element of evaluation, i.e who the client is, what evaluation criteria are important for the client, what evaluation techniques have been used
4. Conclusion and remarks

Table 3.8 also suggests that expensive training programmes will be evaluated more thoroughly; this is not always the case. When managers approve a million dollars training programme, there is a personal risk involved in conducting evaluation, especially when the evaluation shows that the programme is not working effectively, which could reflect badly on the person who is responsible for the training. Finally, it is important for the evaluator to know when information is required so that they design their evaluation accordingly (Tannenbaum, and Woods, 1992).

Figure 3.10 summarises various considerations for developing evaluation of training programmes which must include some formal diagnosis of an organisation training needs. This diagnosis must specify the objectives, criteria, resources and constraints of programme evaluation that will be faced in planning and implementing the evaluation process.

Figure 3.10: Considerations in developing a training programme evaluation plan



Source: Sim, 1993,p.139

Furthermore, a prior consideration of evaluation provides the training personnel with various important advantages:

1. The ability to identify relevant audiences interested in training evaluation and to ensure that evaluation data addresses their interest and information needs.

2. The ability to reduce any disruptive effects on the training programme.

3. The ability to establish a research design that allows valid conclusions about the effectiveness of programmes.

4. The ability to identify the material, and human resources required for evaluation.

5. The ability to change the training programme based on feedback attained through on-going evaluation (Sim, 1993).

Harrison (1995) points out that before carrying out the task of evaluation, five important questions must be answered in order to execute such evaluation effectively. Those questions are:

1- Why is evaluation to be done?

2- What will be evaluated?

3- How will evaluation be done?

4- Who will do the evaluation?

5- When is evaluation to be done?

Thus, the following section attempts to answer and discuss the above questions, which may provide both an overview on the nature of evaluation in the context of training, and its limitations. In addition, other studies will be reviewed with respect to the above questions.

3.6.2.2 Why must evaluation be done?:

Karten (1990) indicates that regardless of the format and timing of the evaluation, the resulting data is worth little unless training managers review it and take it into account in planning future programmes. But, it is common for evaluation to be scanned quickly and dropped into a drawer.

There has been various reasons for training evaluation suggested by a number of authors including Kimber (1970), Warr et al (1974); Newby (1992); Forsyth (1992); Sims (1993); Sanderson (1995); Harrison (1995); Mann and Roberston (1996); Thorne and Machray (1998). Nonetheless, Bramely (1996) categorises the purpose of training evaluation into three important groups

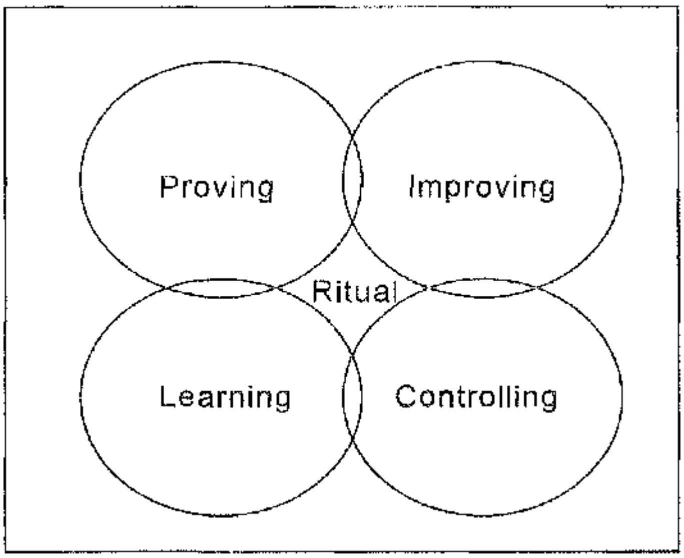
1) Feedback: provides information of the quality of the design and implementation of training activities to the participants and parties involved in the training.

2) Control: provides data on how well training policy and practice reflect organisational purposes, and whether training is an appropriate solution to the problem.

3) Intervention :Evaluation can be used as an intervention strategy which can be used to redefine the sharing responsibilities of the learning between all parties involved, including trainers, trainees and the trainees' supervisors. Debating evaluation issues with managers can lead them to re-appraise their responsibility for insuring that learning is transferred, and that their selection for training is appropriate.

Easterby-Smith (1994) suggests four general purposes of evaluation as shown in figure 3.11.

Figure 3.11: Four general purposes of evaluation



Source: Easterby- Smith, 1994, p: 15

The first purpose is *proving*, which aims at demonstrating that something has happened as a result of training which can be linked to judgement about the value of the activity: whether the right thing was done , whether it was well done, whether it was worth the cost and so on. The second purpose is *improving* which attempts to insure that either the current, or future programmes become better than they are at the present. The third purpose is *learning* which aims to recognise that evaluation is an integral part of the learning process. Finally, *controlling* which involves using evaluation information to ensure that trainers are performing to standards, or the training department are meeting the target.

Sanderson(1995) provides a comprehensive list of reasons for the evaluation of the training programme:

- To decide whether the objectives of training are achieved
- To ascertain whether the objectives of training were the accurate ones
- To upgrade the present and future programmes
- To improve trainers' performance
- To establish the cost-effectiveness or cost-benefit of programmes. (Are the programmes producing the outcome which they intended? Are the programmes producing the planned results with minimum waste of resources?)
- To establish the contribution of the training function
- To determine un-met training needs
- To ensure that a closer integration of training aims and organisational objectives

The result of Brandenburge's (1982) study in the U.S.A shows that the most important functions which the trainers consider in evaluation to serve are: to improve the training programme, to provide feedback to programme planners or management, to gain knowledge of employees' skill levels, and to provide feedback to programme participants. A more recent similar study conducted in the U.S.A by Erthal (1993) indicates that trainers always use evaluation results for programme improvement[1]

[1] Programme improvement includes: improving training programme design; training programme delivery, training programme instructional materials, providing information to the trainer, and planning for future training.

(89.4 percent), and programme status[2] (71 percent) and occasionally for comparison[3] purposes (69.3 percent).

3.6.2.3 Criteria of evaluation: What to evaluate?:

The popular model of assessing the effectiveness of training is that developed by Kirkpatrick (1994, 1996), which breaks down assessment into four levels : reaction, learning, behaviour, and result. Each of these levels of training evaluation has its own value. But, the mistake that many people make is to assume that the result of one level of evaluation determines the effectiveness of the total training programme development (Krein and Weldon,1994). Therefore the following section describes and examines Kirkpatrick's model of evaluation, beginning with the reaction level.

3.6.2.3.1: Reaction (level 1) :

This type of evaluation forms only one part of the picture. Which measures the participant's opinion and attitude toward the materials, facilities, methods, content, duration of the training programme, and the trainer. In addition, it does not provide objective assessment of whether training objectives have been accomplished, nor what the gain in learning has been, nor how job performance has been affected (Newby, 1992 and Bee and Bee,1994). It is important to recognise that reaction

[2] Programme status includes: continuing, modifying, or eliminating current training programme.

[3] Comparison includes: comparing evaluation results with other organisations and supplying management with evaluation results.

measures may not be related to learning and the trainees' performance on the job. It is possible for trainees to enjoy the training but not to produce the desired outcomes (Goldstein, 1993). Also, when trainees' are suspicious about whether the data they provide can be used in checking their abilities for promotion reviews, they tend to withhold their opinion about the training programme (Warr et al,1974). The advantage of this level of evaluation is that it requires very little time and effort, and it provides trainees with the feeling that they have some input into subsequent training (Tannenbaum, and Woods, 1992).

3.6.2.3.2 Learning (level 2):

This level of training evaluation refers to the evaluation of trainees' skills, knowledge, and attitude learned during the training programme, and to what extent the training objectives have been achieved. Evaluating the trainees' skills and knowledge against learning objectives can be inaccurate. If an individual scores well on an evaluation, it suggests that learning objectives have been achieved successfully. However, this individual may have entered the course with a higher level of skills, and knowledge, and mastery than that of other trainees' (Serey,1991). This is in agreement with Bramely and Kiston (1994) that measuring training at level 2 is problematic. In order to assess skills and knowledge which were gained from the training, it is important to adopt reliable tests and to measure skills and knowledge of trainees before as well as after. However, the design of reliable measuring instruments is difficult and the necessary skills are often not available in small training departments.

3.6.2.3.3 Job behaviour (level 3):

Job behaviour level evaluation goes one step further in evaluating the outcome of training than the learning level of evaluation, which measures the change in the employees' job performance as a result of training. That is, job behaviour evaluation assess whether the skills, knowledge, and attitude learned in the training programme have been successfully applied into the trainees' work place. However, few efforts are made to evaluate performance changes on the trainees' job, to discover whether the programmes are achieving the desired results, or to discover when evaluation can give clues to modifications to enable the programme to work (Goldstein, 1993). Moreover, Hearn (1988) argues that the evaluation of training without transferring the training to the job is intuitively lacking in validity, like "counting one's chickens before they hatch". However Kimber (1970) argues that training involves change, and few people willingly accept change. Since evaluation attempts to measure the degree of change, it implies a direct or indirect threat to the position, status and opportunities of the one who is being assessed.

Evaluation may demonstrate that training is positive at the learning level but fails at the job behaviour level because the trainees managers may not encourage or even permit the application of certain skills or techniques. As indicated by Patrick (1992):

> Satisfactory levels of performance at the end of training do not guarantee that positive transfer will occur to performance of the job or task in the real world situation. Much training takes place in an occupational context, and it is important that training results in positive transfer in performance of the job or task in the work situation. Unfortunately, assessment of this form of transfer is frequently missing from training evaluation study (p. 82).

Behaviour level of evaluation is considered to be the most difficult, and the least often done, because many other factors besides training may have had an impact on job performance. This is true in management and supervisory training, where the organisational climate, the impact of other individuals, and individual personality decide on behaviours and outcomes (Sanderson, 1995). It is widely recognised that evaluating management training involves a greater difficulty than the evaluation of training for physical tasks covering a limited number of correct procedures. As Stewart (1976) has put it:

> Managerial work is varied and complex, and yet we know too little about the nature of managerial jobs to be able select and train managers satisfactorily, or evaluate their jobs. Most of all we are ignorant about the difference between jobs (Brewster, 1980, p.285).

As the Central Training Council (1969) report put it:

> The effectiveness of management training at managerial levels is difficult to assess and often impossible to measure. But unless the attempt is made, useful lessons may go unlearnt, the planning of future programmes may suffer and valuable resource in term of managerial time and effort may be wasted (Quoted from Brewster, 1980, p.284).

In order to reduce the complexity of evaluating management training programmes, it is necessary to determine what is important to management development programmes, because management skills cover a broad spectrum (Endres and Kleiner, 1990).

Furthermore, Sanderson (1995) indicates that trainers need to be confident that the trainees' improvement is due to training. One way of doing this is by comparing the trained group with other groups which have not experienced the training activities gained by the trained group. The control group should have similar jobs, skill, experience, abilities, and demographic characteristics. Newby (1992) points out that in a work situation, control groups are seldom practical, because it is not easy to prevent contamination of a control group's existing standards of knowledge or skill through leakage of data by individuals in the trained group. If the control group is located at a different site from the trainees, then there is the problem that the group is unlikely to be similar in character to the trained group. Also, control groups are not suitable where learning relates to totally new subject areas and no meaningful comparison can be made with untrained subjects. More importantly, the relationship between training and productivity measures can be tenuous. That is, other factors such as the economy, technological advances and competition may be the main factors behind the observed changes. Also, trainees may disappear after training to remote locations or to different organisations making access difficult and evaluation costly (Patrick, 1992).

3.6.3.2.4 Result (level 4):

The fourth level of training programme evaluation according to Kirkpatrick's model is concerned with measuring the impact of training on the whole organisation's performance or departments. Bee and Bee (1994) see result level evaluation as difficult, because many factors other than training can intervene and influence the result. For example, sales can be influenced by economic conditions, output may be influenced by a change in machinery, and staff retention rates may be influenced by labour market conditions. In addition, identifying the effects of training on managers performance, by measuring the whole organisation or unit performance can be difficult when training is not directed at all to the employees in the department. Moreover, Shelton and Alliger (1993) suggest that organisations shy away from level 4 evaluations, because collecting and interpreting the data are more difficult and time consuming than surveying trainees. This could be the reason of why evaluation data frequently does not provide a complete picture and full understanding of training programme outcome (Watson, 1988). Bramely and Kitson (1994) pointed out that the problems of evaluating training at level 3 and 4 are not well understood because not enough of this kind of evaluation is being done.

From the previous levels of evaluation one can raise several important issues. In order to evaluate the outcome of training criteria, the standard of performing a job needs to be established. That means the performance gap of the trainees needs to be clarified through TNA. Therefore, it is crucial that TNA is carried out properly to insure the intermediate level evaluation is straightforward.

3.6.2.4 Who should evaluate:

Training programmes can be evaluated from various perspectives:

- Trainees can provide insightful data concerning the elements and conduct of training activities.
- Trainers can provide useful data on the adequacy, development, utilisation of materials and equipment, environmental setting, and the content and the sequence of training curricula.
- The training evaluation team may include the trainer or trainer supervisor, and any individual who is not directly involved in the training development and yet may have a broad vision on the positive and negative parts of training.
- The training manager, as a person who is in charge of the training, can provide a professional appraisal of the components of the training programme and their interaction.
- Line supervisors can provide valuable data concerning both the adequacy of training programme objectives, content, and methods in relation to the type of work for which the participant trainees will be

prepared; and the result of training as far as job performance is concerned (Tracey, 1984; Laired, 1985; Smith and Piper, 1990 Garavaglia,1993).

Chowdhry (1986) pointed out that training institutions should remain in touch with trainees when they return to their work place. The reason behind this is mainly to find out to what extent:

- the training has helped the trainees perform their jobs better
- the training institution has benefited from the trainee having contributed better service
- feedback has helped the training institutions to improve:

a) knowledge base

b) imparting of skills

c) use of methods

d) use of aids, and

e) development of the training infrastructure.

On the other hand, Harrison (1995) argues that trainers, line managers, personnel staff, top management and external consultants will all bring their own opinion to the outcome of programme evaluation and none can be free of biases. Therefore the following factors need to be considered when choosing the evaluator:

1. *Objectivity:* How objective are they likely to be, in relation to the learning event? What, if any, connection have they had with its design,

running and outcomes? Are they likely to cover up any weaknesses or strengths in the event or exaggerate them?

2. *Expertise:* How skilled are they likely to be? Have they done any evaluation before?

3. *Interpersonal skills*: What sort of relationship do they have with those whose views they need to obtain.

4. *Credibility*: How credible are the evaluators likely to be with people in the organisation?. Which is largely depend on the evaluator objectivity, expertise and interpersonal skills.

5. *Cost*: What will be the cost of hiring the evaluator and will the fee be worth the end result?

Kimber (1970) suggests that if evaluation is to be successful, it must be co-operative, a working alliance between trainers, trainees, and line management. For turning training requirement into standards requires collaboration. It is the client's standards that trainers are attempting to meet; therefore, their involvement is critical (Dixon, 1996).

Wynne and Clutterbuck (1991) argue that training should always be the responsibility of the line manager, but experience indicates that many are reluctant to accept this as part of their responsibility and are only too willing to pass it on to the trainer. The outcome of this argument may suggest that when it comes to evaluation of training programmes, line managers may depend on the training department and training providers to evaluate the training that their subordinates receive. Thus, it can be said that line managers may not be able to know exactly whether their subordinates have benefited from the training they have received.

Furthermore, Rae (1986) claims that on many occasions trainees comment that the only reaction they had from their manager on their return to their work from training (if at all) was:

> Oh, have you been away? I thought I hadn't seen you around; Oh yes, you've been on that course. Did you enjoy it? Oh, by the way I want you to drop every thing and do this report by tomorrow (p.136).

Moreover, some people prefer not to involve themselves with evaluating the impact of training, because they faithfully accept that training is worthwhile. Neglecting to evaluate the effectiveness of a training programme demonstrates that individuals are unconcerned with the quality of their work (Watson, 1988).

Since evaluation attempts to measure the degree of change, it suggests a direct, or indirect, threat to the position and opportunity of every individual who is being assessed (Kimber, 1970). Thus, evaluation data must be presented in a way that makes it useful rather than threatening. However, it is generally unrealistic to assume that the training product can be evaluated without also judging the trainer responsible. This may account for much of the defensiveness among trainers and the persons who are responsible for the programme when faced with proposals for evaluation (Newby, 1992, and Tannenbaum and Woods, 1992).

In addition, Sloman (1994) indicates that rigorous evaluation is not carried out by the trainer because: it is time consuming; line managers are not always interested and hence do not always co-operate; evaluation techniques require considerable skills. Similarly Grove and Ostroff (1990) identify four important barriers that discourage the continuous improvement of training through training evaluation:

- senior management often does not require evaluation
- majority senior-level training managers do not have the skills and knowledge of how to conduct training programme evaluation
- senior-level training managers do not know what to evaluate
- evaluation is perceived to be costly.

In order to design training programmes effectively, Kerrigan and Luke (1987) indicate that the trainer should have the following qualification:

1. technical expertise in training as well as management skills;
2. experience in government or the private sector;
3. a master degree, with the Ph.D. preferred;
4. the ability to conduct consultancies and action research for the government sector.

3.6.2.5. When to evaluate:

There are various choices for timing of training programme evaluation. Evaluation should always be carried out before and after the learning event. It may also be needed during the learning event; some time after; and in the longer term (Harrison, 1992).

3.6.3 Methods of Training Evaluation:

Newby (1992) suggests various techniques for evaluation. The trainer can employ a number of methods separately or in combination. Those methods are: questionnaires, interviews, critical incident analysis, repertory grid, action planning, reactionaries, written test, practice test, behavioural analysis, and cost-benefit analysis. However, the choice of which methods to use is determined by the answer to the five basic questions: why, what, how, who and when (Harrison,1992). For example, to assess the ability to do a technical task, a practical test is likely to be appropriate. To assess interpersonal skills, observation of behaviour may be appropriate. Also, in order to carry out those techniques of evaluation effectively, the evaluator is required to have skills and knowledge and resources available to conduct evaluation. Acceptability to the subjects (trainees) should be taken into consideration while carrying out evaluation. The evaluator is required to take account of the subject's literacy, verbal facility, command of language, and their ability to think in behavioural terms. For example, sometimes a questionnaire has to change into an interview due to illiteracy amongst respondents.

Another consideration is the acceptability of evaluation techniques to the organisation (Harrison, 1992, and Newby, 1992).

Since there are quite a number of training programme evaluation methods, it seems important to review and explain the methods that are of interest to this study.

3.6.3.1 Group review:

This is the most widely used method of evaluating a training course. At the end of the course, the trainees are brought together in order to hear them state verbally their views regarding various aspects of training. However, even though good relationships may have been established between the trainees and trainer, it is most unlikely that the suggestions and comments will be completely forthright and comprehensive. The main advantage of this method is that evaluation feedback from the group is immediate. Yet there are several disadvantages to this approach. When the training programme ends, trainees may be eager to leave, and as a result, may not put much effort into the activity. Also, there is a danger that a vocal minority might exert an undue influence over the majority, and full views may not be expressed. An approach to avoid such a disadvantage is to divide the full group of trainees into smaller group and ask each group to provide their evaluation of the programme (Rae, 1986).

3.6.3.2 Questionnaire:

Bee and Bee (1994) indicate that most of reaction evaluation is done by questionnaires (known as the "Happy Sheet") which are given to the trainees at the end of the training session, when there is usually not enough time to complete the questionnaire, because the trainees are eager to depart, or because they are tired, or are affected by group views; and they may be too aware of the presence of the trainer, and thus inhibited to respond honestly. They suggest that reaction evaluation should start from the time trainees begin their training. Therefore, provision needs to be made to collect data from the beginning of the training programme rather than leaving it to the end. This can be done by developing a form of assessing the reaction of trainees on a periodic basis. Furthermore, Sanderson (1995) states that:

> one of the problems with reaction evaluation is that participants often over use the average or middle position and tend to give positive answers when they feel quite differently. Motives can vary from the desire not to upset a pleasant but ineffective tutor to avoidance of an inquest if they are critical. Some of these problems may be reduced by careful design of questionnaires and guaranteeing anonymity (p.130).

Questionnaires can be taken after trainees have returned to work and have had time to apply what is learned. But this has drawbacks because the response rate is likely to be low (Smith, 1990).

In addition, Patrick (1992) indicated that trainees may disperse to distant locations this may cause tracing difficulties. Also, evaluation is not an activity which is integrated into the process of training and development as it should be. It occurs when evaluation is carried out by a person not involved in training, which means that it is not planned to occur in the right time and the evaluator may not be aware of the training needs and objectives. Unfortunately, persons who are responsible for organising and developing training lack the incentive to find out the extent to which a training programme is effective.

Many additional factors influence the trainees' response. For example the "halo" effect occurs when a trainee judges a course in terms of general feeling. For example, participants often have a tendency to highly rate trainers who are colourful and entertaining or who reinforce what they already believe, regardless of how educational or non educational the message may be. Also, some trainers are skilled performers. They have the class "eating out of their hands" and receive good feedback regardless of how good the course is. The trainees are judging the course in terms of how they feel about the trainer. The halo effect also works in a negative direction. Trainees might give a course poor feedback because they had a bad experience on a previous course or because they had problems with accommodation (Watson, 1988, and Bas, 1988). Despite these weaknesses, trainee feedback is important. Trainee perception is one of the essential factors that determines course credibility and reputation (Wills, 1994).

Dawson (1995) argues that course evaluation sheets are used by trainers of many organisation and institutions however it is not held in a high esteem. Because, the same sheets used through an immensely varied programme over a number of years, without updating and tailor them to particular course.

3.6.3.3 Written test:

Employing written tests which assess knowledge can play an important role as they provide: feedback to trainees during learning events; measurement of learning gained over time; feedback to trainers on whether or not learning was assimilated; and a certification of competence. However, tests are sometimes objected to on the grounds that the trainees resent them, because of negative memories of school examinations. Furthermore, the process of evaluation depends on the prevailing climate of the organisation and on the quality of the relationship between trainers, trainees, and line manager. If a test is seen as punitive then any form of performance evaluation is likely to be resisted. Tests which assess only trivial aspects of the subject discredit the evaluation. Therefore tests need to be well designed so that the knowledge of all important aspect of the subject is comprehensively assessed directly related to training objectives and hence to job tasks (Newby, 1992, Dixon, 1996). Endres and Kleiner (1990) suggest that pre- and post-tests are important when evaluating training effectiveness. Without a benchmark comparison, the measurement of knowledge at the end of the course will not show how much has been obtained from the training experience.

3.6.3.4 Interview:

Trainers sometimes find it useful to interview former trainees to assess the effectiveness of the training they have received. The important benefit of interview-based evaluation is that a trainer can gain a great deal of information through a mixture of closed and open questions, designed to probe in detail the trainee's responses regarding the training programme. This method, however, is time-consuming and costly (Wynne, and Clutterbuck, 1991). Furthermore, Newby (1992) argues that most commonly shortage of time, or lack of relevant experience, will steer evaluators away from the interview.

3.6.4 The Practice of Training Programme Evaluation Conducted Elsewhere:

This section aims to investigate and describe evaluation approaches adopted by countries. Most importantly it investigates the barriers to evaluation.

Loo (1991) found that Canadian organisations, both public and private, use a variety of evaluation techniques in assessing effectiveness (see table 3.9). The most frequently used method is the end-course evaluation by training participants (80 percent). The least frequently used methods are the formal, comprehensive evaluation of management training programmes.

Table 3.9: Methods of programme by percent in Canada

Evaluation methods	Percentage
End-course evaluations by participants	80
Follow-up evaluation of on-the-job performance	40
Evaluate subsequent change in performance appraisal	26
Conduct formal programme evaluation	22

Source: Loo 1991,p.68

The Larsen (1994) study in relation to the practice of training evaluation in the public sectors of 12 Europeans countries which are (Germany (D); Denmark (DK); Spain (E); France (F); Finland (FIN); Ireland (IRL); Norway (N); Netherlands (NL); Portugal (P); Sweden (S); Turkey (T); and United Kingdom (UK)), indicate the UK place more emphasis on evaluating effectiveness (see table 3.10). Table 3.11 shows the methods adopted by personnel managers in evaluating the training programme in those countries. It is notable that only Turkey and Spain use tests more than 60 percent. Formal evaluation immediately after training which was much more popular; however, it trailed off considerably some months after training. So far, informal feedback prevails as the most popular choice.

Table 3.10: Percentage of the European public organisation who monitor the effectiveness of training

	D	DK	E	F	FIN	IRL	N	NL	P	S	T	UK
Yes	50	28	75	62	76	75	57	0	54	54	63	80
No	37	66	19	31	23	18	22	100	46	34	25	16
Don't know	6	4	0	5	2	5	5	0	0	7	0	2

Adapted from Larsen, 1994

Table 3.11: Methods of training evaluation by percent in the European countries public sector

Methods / Countries	Tests	Formal evaluation immediately after training	Formal evaluation some months after training	Informal feedback from line managers	Informal feedback from trainees
D	51	58	32	88	90
DK	35	70	54	97	100
E	63	86	20	100	100
F	38	93	71	86	92
FIN	15	75	24	81	87
IRL	33	77	50	100	100
N	30	68	22	92	94
NL	0	0	100	100	99
P	0	86	50	100	100
S	27	86	32	94	95
T	75	100	100	67	67
UK	28	90	70	96	98

Adopted: Larsen, 1994

*Germany (D), Denmark (DK), Spain (E), France (F), Finland (FIN), Ireland (IRL), Norway (N), Netherlands (NL), Portugal (P), Sweden (S), Turkey (T), United Kingdom (UK)

It is clear from the previous table that UK public organisations rated the highest in terms of their willingness to conduct evaluations. Nonetheless, Sloman (1994) argues that rigorous evaluation is not undertaken by the trainer in the United Kingdom because of the following reasons: it is time consuming; line managers are not always interested and thus do not always co-operate; there are many practical problems determining an appropriate evaluation method; and many evaluation methods are based on the fact-finding interview, which require considerable skills.

In the United State of America a study was conducted by Erthal (1993) to investigate the practice and barriers of training evaluation within public and private sectors. It was found that trainers highly depend on the reaction level of evaluation (81.6 percent), whereas the least adopted methods are organisation record (70.2 percent) (see table 3.12).

Table 3.12: Methods used to evaluate training programmes in the U.S.A by percent

Methods	Always use	Occasionally use	Never use
Reaction[1]	81.6	18.4	0.0
Impact[2]	23.7	68.4	7.9
Organisation record[3]	3.6	26.3	70.2
Tests[4]	3.5	72.8	23.7

Source: Erthal, 1993, p.53

[1] Reaction includes: reaction to training and perceived usefulness of training.

[2] Impact includes: training impact on organisational goals, profits, performance on the job, and comparing customers' complaints before and after training.

[3] Organisation record include: comparing turnover, and absenteeism records before and after training.

[4] Tests include: using a pre-test, post test, and using both a pre-test and post test.

Table 3.13 shows that the most important barriers to evaluation, as perceived by trainers, are a lack of standards; insufficient personnel and the difficulty of effectively measuring evaluation.

Table 3.13: Perceived barriers to effective evaluation of training programme by means and standard deviation in the U.S.A

Barriers	Mean[1]	Standard Deviation
Lack of standards	2.202	.884
Lack of personnel	2.228	.893
Evaluation is hard to measure	2.307	.932
Difficult to isolate behaviour	2.465	.894
Staff lack expertise	2.465	.923
Hard to gain management support	2.675	1.093
Lack of funds	2.746	1.063
Not enough time	2.781	.938
Unsure what to evaluate	2.982	.841
Lack of equipment	3.009	1.216
Evaluation is not required	3.035	.995
Objectives not measurable	3.061	.885
Result will have little impact	3.114	.929
Objectives not established	3.175	.854

Source: Erthal, 1993, p.59

Note: 1= strongly agree; 2=Agree; 3= Disagree; 4= Strongly disagree; 5= No opinion or does not apply

Other recent study conducted in the USA by Gray et al (1997), which involved 140 state government agencies reveals that 47 percent of them do not evaluate employee performance after training. Which

[1] Means of 2.500 and above indicate that respondent disagree with the perceived barriers statement. Means of 2.499 and below indicated that respondents agree with the perceived barriers statement

indicates the inability of those agencies to determine the value of training programmes in term of individual and organisational outcomes. Table 3.14 details the study.

Table 3.14: Time of post-training performance evaluation by percentage in the USA

Time	Percentage
At the completion of training	29
1 to 3 months after training	13
4 to 6 months after training	8
7 or more months after training	3
Employee performance generally not assessed following training	47

Source: Gray et all, 1997, p.197

Sims (1993) highlights various important pitfalls associated with training evaluation in the public sector, among the pitfalls are: the failure to train for evaluation, and to make clear to all concerned of the purpose of the evaluation programme; and the uses to which it will be put. Also the results of training evaluation can be of little value to decision-makers.

The Jaffar (1990) study shows that the majority of training officers of the Omani government agencies (80 percent), evaluate training programmes by consulting the trainees immediate supervisors. Furthermore, among the difficulties pointed out by the training officers are: measuring performance improvement (25 percent); assessing behavioural changes over short intervals (21 percent); vagueness or absence of job description (21 percent); vagueness of organisational goals (5 percent) and non existence of training units (3 percent). Furthermore, the Jaffar study shows various obstacles encountered in the training activities in the government organisation among them are; non availability of qualified training staff; insufficient training resources; and lack of training-related incentive.

Abdalla and Al-Homoud (1995) indicated that 90 percent of the Kuwaity's government organisations have no specific follow-up for evaluating the effectiveness of management development programmes. They argued that the need for rigorous evaluation in the Arab organisations is a pragmatic one and training programmes are funded on the presumption of effectiveness with little evidence to support this assumption.

Reily and Clark (1990) Identified some problems associated with training evaluation in developing countries, among them are: trainees, employers and providers feel threatened by the outcome of evaluation, long term follow up is costly, difficulty to locate people who have moved to other jobs or, may have changed their job since the training programme, and lack of trainer's competence.

3.7 Summary:

This chapter has provided a general overview of training by considering definitions and scope. Developing an understanding of the training process; and providing critical and comparative insight.

TNA is considered to be the first step in designing a training programme. Various authors have proposed that TNA is definable under three levels: organisational, occupational/departmental and individual. The most disturbing aspect of the literature and various studies conducted around the world is lack of attention paid to TNA. As a result, training programmes tend to be less relevant to the trainees, job performance and organisational goals, indicating that trainees attend inadequate training programmes and show continued performance deficiency.

Training institutions do not play an important role in defining the needs of their clients because they depend on their clients to identify their own needs for training; consequently, the trainers lack data about trainees performance deficiency.

The reliability of the methods used in gathering data on needs depend on the extent to which sufficient information on the true need for training is produced. Therefore, trainers should be aware of the weaknesses of the methods used to collect data on needs. One of the benefits of conducting TNA is developing training objectives that should be related to the trainees performance deficiencies.

The sources of data for developing a training objective can be gathered from the TNA process. However, the chapter shows that trainers depend on their experience and previous syllabus, which suggests that the objectives of the training programme may not reflect the trainees' training needs.

In addition, the literature review indicates that the careful selection of trainees with pre-establishes prerequisites is crucial, to ensure that the right people are enrolled in a training programme.

The practice of training evaluation is underdeveloped. Among the reasons are inadequate planning and design; improper interpretation of the outcome; budget constraints; technical ability; and ethical considerations. Evaluation of training programmes must involve some form of TNA which specifies training programme objectives, evaluation criteria, resources and constraints that may be encountered in planning and implementing training evaluation. Furthermore, the attitudes of the organisation toward training play a crucial role in determining the outcomes.

The literature review clearly indicates the importance, both researchers and funding agencies, place on 'training'. In developing countries, but also elsewhere, one must surely assure that training reflect the needs of the 'end user'. However, with regard to this research study, we must note that no evidence of research into this topic was discovered relating to the UAE's. In addition, the literature review emphasises the need to ensure effective design, delivery and evaluation of training in economies such as the UAE. Furthermore, the literature provides little insight into 'training process' within Arabic public sector and does not fully addresses comparative issues.

This research study aims to explore the status, barriers and future of training within the UAE. To this end, extensive field research was required. The following chapter presents the adopted research methodology.

Chapter Four

Research Methodology and Design

4.1 Introduction:

Research into the current status of training process within the UAE is required to ensure that the countries economies, and social development objectives are not compromised by a lack of appropriately skilled civil servants.

To accomplished the above one must determine what is happening now; how appropriate are current practices; can they be improved; and what barriers may exist to the promotion of best practice. In particular, TNA; objectives; selection and evaluation will be investigated. This chapter present a research methodology designed to produce the answers.

This chapter consists of the following sections:

4.2: Identifies various types of research design used in social science.

4.3: Discusses data collection methods

4.4: Describes the research strategy of the present study

4.5: Highlights the profile of the sample involved in the study

4.6: Presents the limitations of the study

4.7: Summary.

4.2 Research design:

In order to achieve the research objectives and to answer the research question indicated in chapter one, an appropriate research design and methodology must be selected and implemented. Research design is defined as:

> the "blueprint" that enables the investigator to come up with solutions to these problems and guides him or her in the various stages of the research (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996, p.99).

Ragin (1994) defines research design as:

> a plan for collecting and analyzing evidence that will make it possible for the investigator to answer whatever questions he or she has posed (p.26)

Oppenheim (1992) provides a comprehensive definition of research design, which indicate it is:

> the basic plan or strategy of the research, and the logic behind it, which will make it possible and valid to draw more general conclusions from it (p.6).

The literature reveals various types of research design; however, it is recognised that the most common approaches in the social sciences are action research, case studies, experiment and surveys (Blaxter et al. 1996). It is worth mentioning that no single design is necessarily better than another, because the suitability of a given design depends on the nature of the research question (Nation, 1997). These are briefly discussed individually below.

4.2.1 Action Research:

Blaxter et al. (1996) define action research as "the study of social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it" (p.63). They suggest that the purpose of action research is to feed practical judgement in real situations, and the validity of the theories or hypothesis it produces depends not so much on scientific tests of truth, as on their benefit in helping people to act more intelligently and skilfully. Furthermore, action research is well suited to the needs of individuals conducting research in their job places, and who have a focus on enhancing aspects of both their own and their colleagues' practices.

4.2.2 Case Study Research:

A case study is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 1994, p.13). It usually involves in-depth research in particular groups such as organisations, institutions, and associations (Bulmer, 1993). Whitley (1996) indicated that case study can be used for a number of purposes. One purpose is descriptive, which provides a detailed description of the events that take place in a situation. Other case studies are explanatory, which involve testing theories and models as explanation of events. Finally, evaluation case studies which, are the most commonly used in psychology, assess the effectiveness of clinical or other intervention. The main disadvantage with case studies is that they provide little basis for scientific generalisation (Yin, 1994).

4.2.3 Experimental Research:

The experimental design is usually linked with research in the biological and physical sciences (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996), and in psychology (Blaxter et al.,1996). Here the researcher intervention manipulates some independent variables or explanatory variables and then observes how dependent variables influence the subjects being studies (e.g., people) (Cooper, and Emory,1995).

Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) argue that experiment is less widely used by social scientists than natural scientists due to its rigid structure which often cannot be applied to social science research. They further suggest that the advantage of this method is that the experiment enables the researchers to exert a great deal of control over extrinsic and intrinsic variables, whereas the disadvantage is that the external validity is weak, as it is difficult for researchers to replicate real-life social situations. And researchers tend to depend on volunteer or self - selected subjects for their sample, which could result in the sample not being representative of the population of interest.

4.2.4 Survey Research:

Survey research can be defined as " the process of collecting data by asking questions and recording people's answer" (Whitley, 1996, p.417). May (1997) points out that the use of surveys is considered to be a central part of social research, as they provide a rapid and relatively cheaper way of discovering the characteristics and opinions of the population at large. He further indicates that surveys are one of the most frequently used methods of governments and academic researchers in universities, usually conducted through questionnaires and interviews.

Babbie (1990) and Robson (1993) indicate that surveys are well appropriate to descriptive studies where the purpose of making a descriptive assertion about some population is to discover the distribution of certain traits or attributes. They further added that surveys can also be used to explore aspects of a situation, or to search for an explanation and provide information for testing.

Kerlinger (1986), Robson (1993), Brownell (1995) indicated the advantage and disadvantages of survey research, summarised on Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Advantages and Disadvantages of Survey

Advantages	Disadvantages
Data can be obtained from a large population	Demands time and money
Regarded as simple approach to the study of attitudes, values, beliefs and motives	Respondents may not report their opinions, or attitudes accurately, as they may feel their answer are not kept anonymous.
Well structured surveys have high amounts of data standardisation	Data are influenced by the respondents characteristics, such as memory, knowledge, experience; and motivation
Survey may be used to gather generalisable data from almost any human population	

4.3 Research Methods:

The research method is concerned with the methods or techniques used for data generation and collection when carrying out research (Oppenheim, 1992). There are various choices of data collections methods in the social sciences, which normally involve questionnaires, interviews, Archival records and observation (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). The first three methods are reviewed below, because they are to be adopted for this study.

4.3.1 Questionnaire:

One of the most widely used methods of data collection in social research (Blaxter, 1996). Babbie (1990), and Whitley (1996) define questionnaires as a list of questions constructed to elicit information of respondents attitudes, opinion, and beliefs on a particular topic. They further suggest that questionnaires can be self - administered to the sample of population, either in face to face interviews, by telephone, or by post. Also, questionnaires can be delivered by hand to each respondent and collected later (Saunders et al., 1997).

Oppenheim (1992), Brownell (1995), Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), have suggested the advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire, summarised on Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Advantages and Disadvantages of the Questionnaire

Advantages	Disadvantage
Low cost	Low response rate
Respondents have time to think about the answer	Unsuitable for respondents with language difficulties and poor literacy
Greater anonymity for respondents	Require experience and knowledge to design a questionnaire
Permit wide geographic contact	Don't offer researchers the opportunity to probe for additional data or to clarify answers
Avoids the potential bias introduced by the interviewer	

4.3.2 Interviews:

Whitely (1996) classified interviews into three types: unstructured, semi-structured, or structured, according to the extent to which the questions, and the order in which they are asked, are planned in advance of data collection. An unstructured interview is described as a normal conversation where the questions emerge from the context of the situation. In a semi-structured interview specific topics and issues are specified by the interviewer; however, there is no specified order in which the topics should be covered. A structured interview is considered to be the most systematic format of interviews. Here specific questions are asked in a specific order. The pros and cons of the interview have been pointed out by various writers such as Hakim (1987), Oppenheim (1992), Cohen and Manion (1995), as summarised in the following Table 4.3

Table 4.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Interviews

Advantages	Disadvantages
Provide depth and detail of data that can be secured	Costly
Allow the interviewers to modify and to improve the quality of data received	Time consuming, especially if the study covers a wide geographical area
Interviewers can note conditions of the interview, probe with additional questions, and collect supplementary data through observation.	Results of interviews can be affected by interviewers who change the question asked, which biases the result.
Provides a security that the correct respondent is replying to the questions	

4.3.3 Archives:

Whitely (1996) indicates that archives means "records or document that describe the characteristics of individuals, groups, or organisations" (p.384). The data are collected from various sources such as actuarial records, electoral and judicial records, government documents, the mass media, and private records such as autobiographies (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996).

The documentary sources depends on whether the researcher granted access to an organisation's records, which will require the researcher to seek permission from the gatekeeper within the organisation (Saundera et al, 1997). The main advantage of this method is the low cost of data generation (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996).

4.4 The Research strategy for the present study:

The previous sections reviewed the types of research design and methods, along with their pros and cons. This section explains the research strategy and methods employed in this study. However, it is worth mentioning that the type of research design should be selected in relation to the nature of the questions to be addressed, the extent of existing knowledge of the previous research, and the resources and time available (Hakim, 1987). Similarly, Nations (1997) pointed out that no single design is better than another, because the suitability of a given design depends upon the nature of the research questions being asked.

4.4.1 Survey:

As mentioned earlier, the objective of this study is to describe and identify factors that affect the training process within the context of UAE public sector with the emphasise on TNA, trainees' selection, training objectives and evaluation. It was found that survey research design was most appropriate for this particular study for the following reasons:

1.To assist the researcher to cover a large number of respondents of this study, who consist of trainees, supervisors, training officers, and IADTS.

2. To allow the researcher to compare the result of the current study with other related studies, such as Waheeduzzaman (1988), Jaaffar (1990), Durra (1991), Erthal (1993), Larsen (1994), Abdalla and Al-Homoud (1995).

3. Survey research is widely used in social science research.

In sum, the researcher has adopted this method of research design because it was found to be the most appropriate method in getting research questions to be answered, and objectives to be achieved of this study as economically as possible.

4.4.2 Participants of the Study:

One of the most important questions that researchers face are those dealing with research participants (Whitely, 1996; Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). This section describes the strategies that were used in choosing the participants of the study.

In our case, the literature review and various studies such as Waheeduzzaman (1988), Jaaffar (1990), Durra (1991), Erthal (1993), provided the researcher with an important indication on the type of participants that should be involved in this study. They involve the trainees, trainees' immediate supervisors, training personnel officers in the ministries, and finally the Institute of Administrative Development Training Staff (IADTS). It is also important to mention that IAD was chosen because it is the only government training agency who design programmes for the civil service, specifically administrative and managerial programmes.

To answer the research questions and to accomplish the objectives of the study, the researcher has selected government trainees who have attended off-the-job training programmes provided by IAD two months after graduation for the year of 1996. It was hoped that in this way the participants would more easily be able to memorised and provide meaningful data. Also, it would be inconceivable to include all government employees who went to a training programme provided by IAD, since it would require manpower, monetary resources, and time to reach the whole trainees in the public sector.

Leedy (1993) argues that the larger the sample the better, is not helpful to a researcher who has a practical decision to make with respect to a specific research situation. Similarly, Whitely (1996) points out the determination of the sample size for a survey research depends on the purpose of the research. The following section discusses the data collection methodology and sample size.

4.4.3 Data Collection Methods

In considering data collection methods, the researcher is seeking to find an economical but accurate path to collect data that will fit the conceptual framework underlying the research. Thus four important methods of data collection were used in this study: questionnaires; semi-structured interviews; library research; and document study.

4.4.3.1 Questionnaire:

Three sets of questionnaires were distributed, one for the trainees, a second for their direct supervisors, and a third to the ministry training personnel officers. The researcher delivered the questionnaires by hand to their respective places of work and left them alone to complete the questionnaires, which were then picked up on a subsequent occasion. This method of data collection ensures a high response rate (Oppenheim, 1992). Also, a fourth set of questionnaire were employed to interview the IADTS.

May (1997) suggested that the nature of the research questions, the type of the population, and resources will determine the type of the questionnaires to be used. Therefore, ample care was taken when planning and designing the questionnaire for each group. During the design and the formulation of the various questions contained in the questionnaires, the researcher constantly kept in mind that these questions should reflect the objectives, and research questions of the study. The main advantage of doing this is that the research can be more focused, not waste time on irrelevant areas, and simplify the analysis at a later stage.

Furthermore, ordinal and nominal scales were used in the design of the questionnaires, because they were appropriate and reflected good practice within social science research (Babbie, 1990). There are two forms of question design used in the survey: open and closed. The purpose of open questions is to lead the trainees, supervisors, training officers to state their own views to related questions. Closed ended questions were used, where the respondents selects the answer or answers that best represent their view or situation. A covering letter was attached to all questionnaires indicating the purpose of the study, and asserting the anonymity of responses, which would not be used for any purpose other than this study.

4.4.3.1.1 Trainees' questionnaire:

The researcher delivered by hand 349 questionnaires to the trainees at their work places; out of 349 questionnaires 174 were collected, of which 170 proved to be valid, and 4 were disregarded due to the incompletions. Which make the response rate is 48.71 percent. The total number of training programmes represented by the trainees in the survey twenty, varying in objectives and duration. the sample of programmes were selected to provide trainees who should be contactable within two months of graduation (in order to coincide with the field research). All participants were contacted.

The questionnaire is divided into four sections. The first section addresses the demographical data of the trainees, while the second part focuses on the TNA. The latter is to investigate the trainees' opinion on whether their training needs were identified prior to attending the programme; to ascertain the extent to which the training programme related to their needs, and whether they faced difficulty in applying what they had learned from the programme to their job situations; and to explore the importance of TNA by examining whether there is a relationship between the identification of trainees' training needs prior to attending the training programme and the simplicity of training transfer into the trainees' work place. Furthermore, trainees were provided with various statements regarding the methods of TNA. The objective was to investigate to what extent the methods of TNA can generate reliable data about the trainees' training needs.

The third section focuses on the procedures of trainees' selection within their host organisation, and the factors that subsequently played an important part in bringing the trainees to the training programme. Finally, the fourth section concentrates on the training programme evaluation. It attempts to investigate the methods of evaluation employed within the programme and to explore perception in relation to factors that affect evaluation.

4.4.3.1.2 Trainees' immediate supervisor questionnaire:

A total of 109 questionnaires were distributed to the trainees' supervisors, out of which 67 were obtained, making the response rate 61.4 percent, (all supervisors were contacted). The questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first section seeks to identify the profile of the supervisors. The next section investigates the respondents' opinions regarding various issues in relation to the practice and barriers of training needs identification. For example, the respondents were provided with various statements encouraging them to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement about the barriers of training needs identification. The third section of the questionnaire focuses on the evaluation methods employed by the respondents, and their perceptions of various factors that affect the training programme evaluation.

4.4.3.1.3 Training officers' questionnaire:

The researcher distributed the questionnaire to the entire training officers. The researcher managed to collect 24 questionnaires covering 15 ministries out of 21. The questionnaire is classified into four sections. The first section addresses the respondents' personal data, while the second section seeks to answer questions pertaining to the existing practice and barriers of training needs identification. In the third section, the methods of programme evaluation employed was investigated. The fourth section focuses on whether training staff officers received training in the area of training design. It also aims to explore the areas in which they may need training when conducting TNA and evaluation.

4.4.3.2 IADTS Interview:

Semi-structured interviews were conducted by a questionnaire with 8 out of 9 IADTS at their job sights. The time of the interviews was estimated to range between 30-40 minutes. All interviews were held after the IADTS had finished their lectures, at 1:30 p.m. The researcher had tried to conduct the interviews in the morning, but could not manage because the lectures start in the morning and IADTS were busy with last-minute lecture preparation. Also, some of the IADTS had morning appointments with government agencies to provide consultation and returned to their offices by 1:00 or 1:30 p.m. Therefore, it was suitable to interview them at that time. In terms of tracing IADTS, the researcher had no problem because all IADTS offices were located in two training centres, Abu-Dhabi and Dubai.

The first part of the interview asks for biographical data, while the second part explores the practice of TNA and identifies the barriers. The third section investigates IADTS opinion regarding the approach of programme objective determination, in order to explore the source of data that has been used to develop the objective of the programme. The fourth section identifies whether IADTS participate in selecting the participants for their programme, and investigates their opinions regarding the trainees homogeneity in relation to their educational background, grades, and experience. Section five investigates the techniques of evaluations employed, the purpose of data gathered from evaluation, and the obstacles of programme evaluation as perceived by IADTS. The last section aims to explore whether they have received training in the area of training design, and to indicate the areas in which they may need training when conducting TNA and training.

4.3.3 Library research:

Library, or desk work research on the subject area of the study is essential. It provides the researcher with invaluable background information related to the topics and assists in framing research questions and methodology.

The researcher initiated some library research from Glasgow, Strathclyde, and Manchester universities. Data was collected from a wide array of publications including books, journals, seminar papers, and World bank publications on training in the public sector. Moreover the researcher has acquired another means of accessing vast amounts of data through an electronic storage system known as CD- ROM from Glasgow University (CD stands for "compact disc" and Rom for "read-only memory").

4.3.4 Document study:

Relevant documents were studied to provide base-line data for the subsequent development of the survey questionnaires and interview schedules. Also, the documents were used to verify the information obtained through the use of surveys and questionnaires. As indicated by Hedrick et al. (1993), documentary evidence may provide the basis for data collection and allow the researcher to track what happened, when it happened, and who was involved. Therefore, documents and forms on training identification and evaluation produced by IADTS were examined. For example, the study of course evaluation reports of various training programmes had helped the researcher in spotting the approach, criteria, and method of training evaluation used by IAD and the trainees' organisations. The analysis of the documents, such as the brochure of the training programme provided information about how training objectives are formulated by IADTS. Various reports conducted by IAD were examined to indicate statistical resources in relation to the number of trainees attended and programmes provided. A civil commission report was also looked at to explore the grade system in the civil service and the number of employees in each grade level. The performance appraisal formats of trainees' organisations were examined in order to find out to what extent the format can provide data about trainees' training needs. The analysis of documents had offered some rich detail and a useful link to the objectives of the study.

4.3.5 Reliability and Validity:

In order to assess the reliability and validity of the questionnaire a pilot study was conducted to all four questionnaires (in the United Arab Emirates). In the light of the pre-test, some modifications were made in some items of the questionnaire regarding the wording and the structure of the questions. Bell (1991) stresses that careful piloting is necessary to ensure that all questions mean the same to all respondents. Since the respondents are non-English speaking it was thought it would be time-saving to run the pilot study in the United Arab Emirates (where the research proper will be conducted) rather than in the United Kingdom.

Newby (1992) points out at least two groups with whom the researcher should check the questions' accuracy: subject experts, and people who are similar to those who will be asked to complete the questionnaire. Moreover, he has suggested several important justifications in piloting the questionnaire as follows:

. To ensure comprehension of the questions by the respondents

. To identify the difficulty of questions

. To record any further ideas the respondent may have on the subject not brought out by the questions.

Therefore, the questionnaires were evaluated by the researcher's supervisor, and Professor Arthur Francis (Director of Research) in Glasgow, and by colleagues who have experience on the field of training in the public sector. The pre-test of the questionnaire was also directed to trainees, supervisors, IADTS, and training officers. Most of their comments centred on the language of the questions, and some changes were introduced before finalising the questionnaire. Furthermore, the four sets of the questionnaires were written in English and translated by the researcher, and then evaluated by professional teachers in both Arabic and English.

4.5 Sample Characteristics/Profiles:

This section mainly describes and acquaints the reader with the background about the sample involved in the study, which begins with trainees.

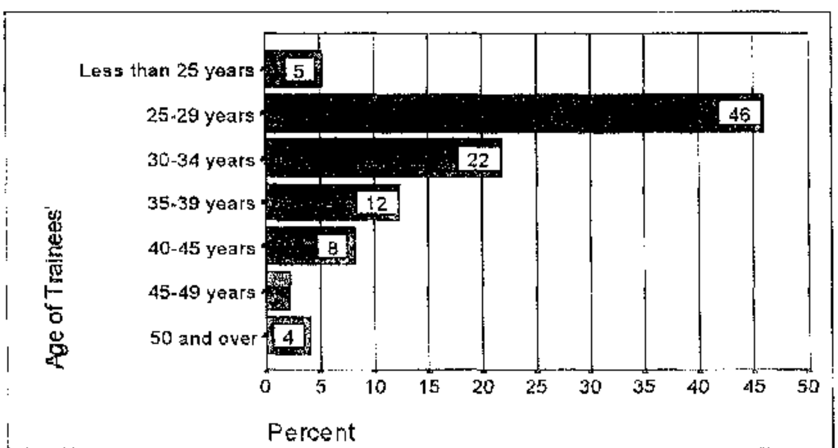
4.5.1 Trainees

1. Age:

As shown in figure 4.1, 5 percent of trainees fall within the age group of less than 25 years, whereas the majority of respondents (46 percent) were within the age range of 25-29 years. 22 percent of trainees fall in the age group of 30-34 years while 12 percent were within the age range of 35-

39 years. 8 percent of trainees were within the age group of 40-45 years, whereas the lowest rate of trainees (2 percent) were located in the category age 45-49 years, and 4 percent were within 50 years and over. This may suggest that there is an increasing number of young public servants attending an IAD training programmes to further their professional qualifications. It could be that the decision makers in the public sector tend to concentrate their efforts on training the young civil servants in order to improve their level of performance and to be prepared for future responsibility. This is supported by Turnham (1993) who claims that the developing countries are in the midst of sustained expansion in the labour force mainly due to an increased number of births and lower infant and child mortality. The age categories 45-49 and 50-over may receive less opportunity for training, and reliance on training the younger civil servants, may lead to the skills of older workers becoming less relevant to their job requirement.

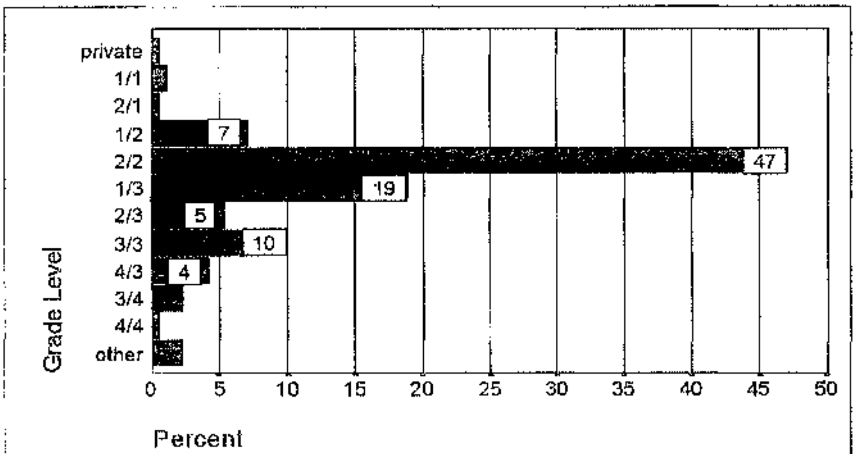
Figure 4.1: Trainees Age



2. Grade level

Figure 4.2 displays twelve types of trainees' grade in descending order within the context of the United Arab Emirates civil service grading system. Only 0.6 percent of trainees were located in the private ranking category, considered to be one of the most senior levels in the grading hierarchy. Within the next two high ranking grades (1/1, 2/1), there was a total of 2 percent of trainees.

Figure 4.2: Trainees' Grade Level



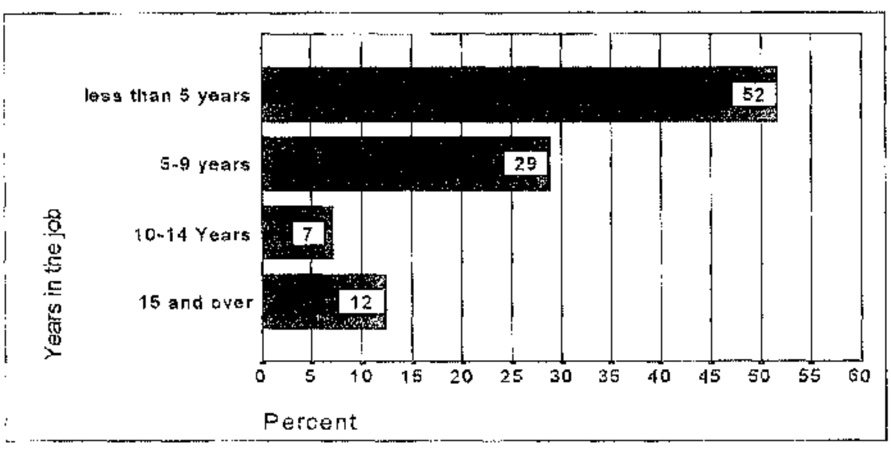
Following the same order, a total of 54 percent of trainees fell under the grade levels of 1/2, and 2/2 regarded as a higher job category. Within the following four types of grades (1/3, 2/3, 3/3, 4/3), classified as middle level jobs, there was a total of 38 percent of trainees. Within the last two grades (3/4, and 4/4) which are the lowest grades in the grading system hierarchy, the ancillary staff category, there was a total of 3 percent of trainees. Finally, another 2 per cent of trainees were associated with a different grading system not within the civil service structure although still in the public sector, as those trainees came from the Ministries of Defence, and the Interior.

According to the previous table, the highest number of trainees who attended training programmes by IAD hold the grade of 2/2 (grade two of ring two). This suggest that those trainees receive more training than the trainees located within other grades, and this is due to over-staffing in the government organisation in this grade. The lowest number of trainees attending the training programmes held the private grade (a total of 0.6 percent). This could be due to the fact, as indicated by Al-Adeen(1989), that in the Arab world, for a manager attending a training programme may be regarded as an admission that they are incompetent or lack the knowledge and skills required for optimum performance. This may further suggest that when the time comes for TNA, those trainees with a managerial grade may try to hide the deficiencies. Or it can be inferred that a manager tends to hold the view that experience is the best teacher rather than going to a training programme. According to Conant's (1996) study findings regarding the manager's view of management education and training in the Wisconsin state government in the United States, 80 percent of managers viewed experience as a "very important" contributor to their knowledge and skills. Therefore, this may suggest that it might be useless to conduct TNA. Or the problem may lie in the lack of facilities and IADTS to handle the training of senior personnel (Mutahaba, 1986).

3. Years in the present job:

The length of service of trainees in their present job who participated in the training programmes ranged from less than five years to fifteen years and over. By looking at Figure 4.3 shows that the highest number of trainees (52 percent) who attended training programmes had been in their current job for less than five years, reflecting a tendency adopted by the public sector to concentrate their training efforts on their most recent employees. This may confirm that the skills and knowledge to be mastered by a recent employee may not be acquired through in-house training.

Figure 4.3: Trainees' Years in Their Current Job

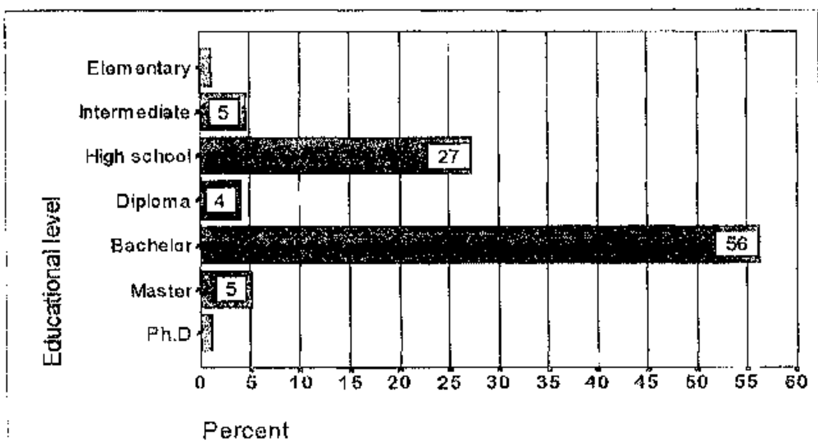


The second highest group of trainees (29 percent) had been in their current job between 5-10 years. Only 7 percent of trainees had held their current job for between 11-15 years; this represents the lowest number of trainees among the categories. Finally, 12 percent of trainees had been in their current job for fifteen years and over. This may suggest those trainees have not been promoted between those years. Moreover, the number of years spent in the current job may be used as an indicator of experience in doing the job. It may be that trainees at this time will be able to pinpoint the area in which they may require training.

4. Educational level:

The level of formal education of the trainees who participated in the study ranged from trainees with less than a high school education to those with Ph.D. degrees (see Figure 4.4). This shows that the most cited level of education was at the university degree level, with 56 percent of the trainees having a bachelor degree, followed by 27 percent with a high school education. This confirm that there is a greater number of civil servant employees with a bachelor degree rather than with any other degree.

Figure 4.4: Trainees' Educational Level

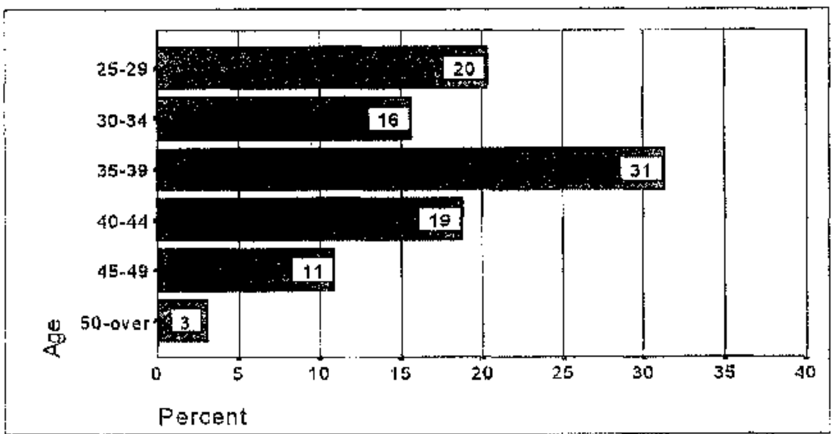


4.5.2 Supervisors:

1. Age:

Figure 4.5 shows that there is a fluctuation in the age group distribution of trainees' supervisors. Although there is a slightly higher representation for the age group 35-39 years, age distribution tends to be low from the age 45 year onward.

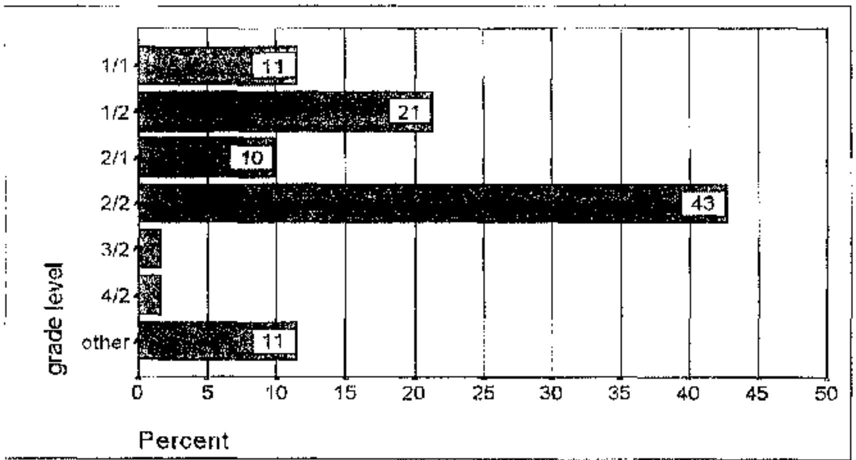
Figure 4.5: Supervisor Age



2. Grade level:

Figure 4.6 shows that grade level 2/2 dominated the distribution of trainees' supervisors (43 percent), followed by grade 1/2 (21 per cent). Apart from grades 3/2 and 4/2, other grades had equal distribution. Grade 2/2 in the UAE civil service is classified as a head of section; therefore it can be concluded that a head of section is a supervisory post.

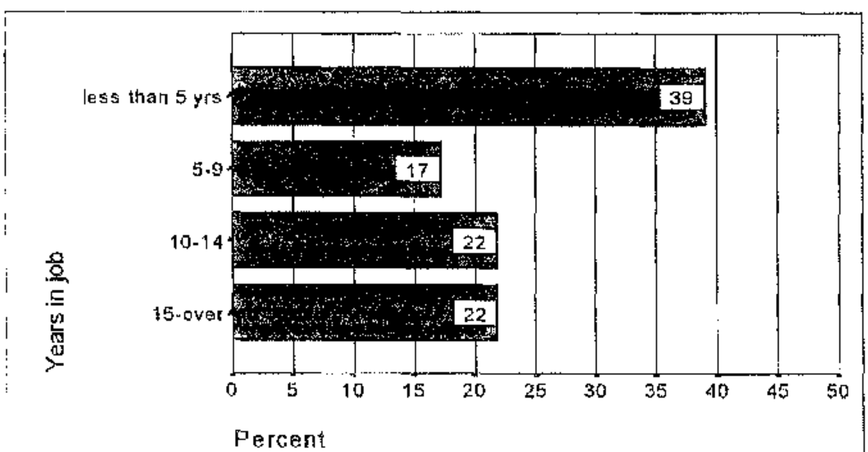
Figure 4.6: Supervisor Grade Level



3. Years in current job:

The present data indicates that more supervisors (39 percent) have spent less than 5 years in their current job. The proportion of supervisors spending five years and more in one continuous job is lower. This can be explained by the fact that some change their job either through promotion, or by leaving the organisation.

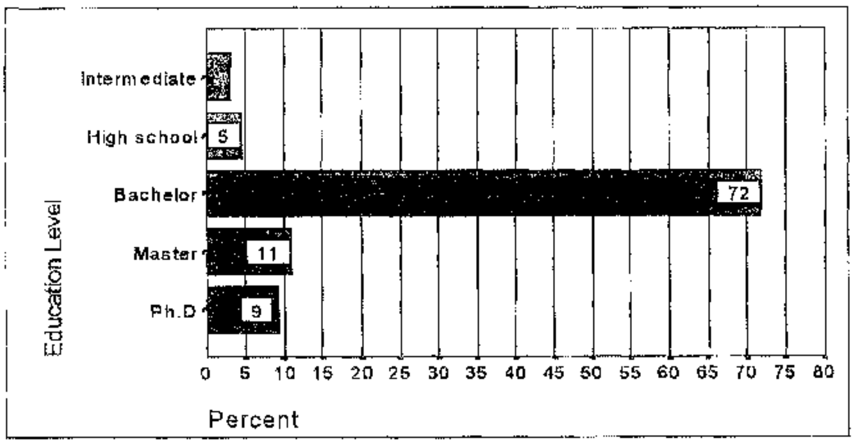
Figure 4.7 Supervisors Years in Their Current Job



4. Education level:

Figure 4.8 shows that a bachelor degree is the dominant qualification (72 percent) possessed by supervisors, with 20 percent holding postgraduate degrees . This may suggest that in order to qualify for a supervisory job, the minimum qualification is that of bachelor degree.

Figure 4.8 Supervisor Level of Education

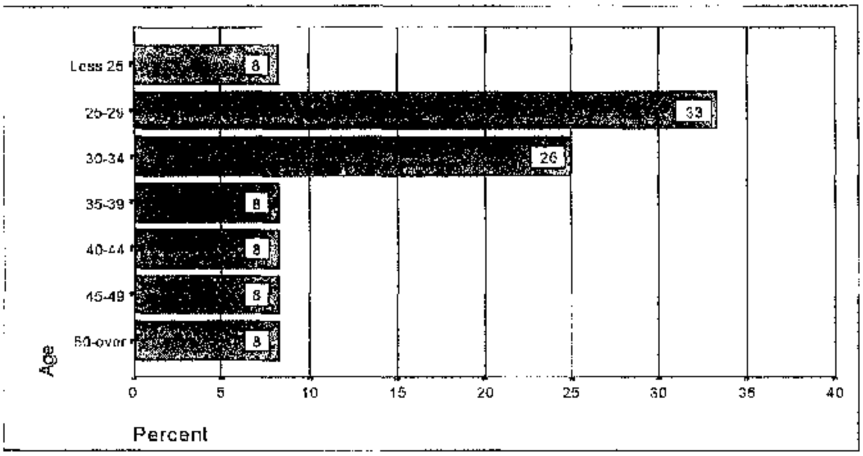


4.5.3 Training Personnel Officers:

1. Age:

It can be seen from Figure 4.9 that the popular age group for training officers is between 25-34 years (58 percent), with equal proportions for the other categories. This trend is consistent with the previous Figure, that bachelor degree holders dominate the picture, which represents the age group soon after graduation.

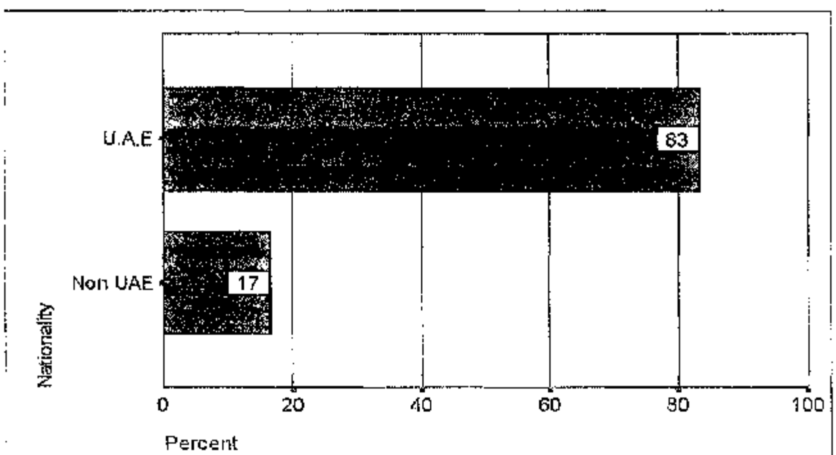
Figure 4.9: Training officers Age



2. Nationality:

Figure 4.10 shows that the majority of the training officers are UAE nationals which constitute 83 percent, whereas only 17 percent are non national.

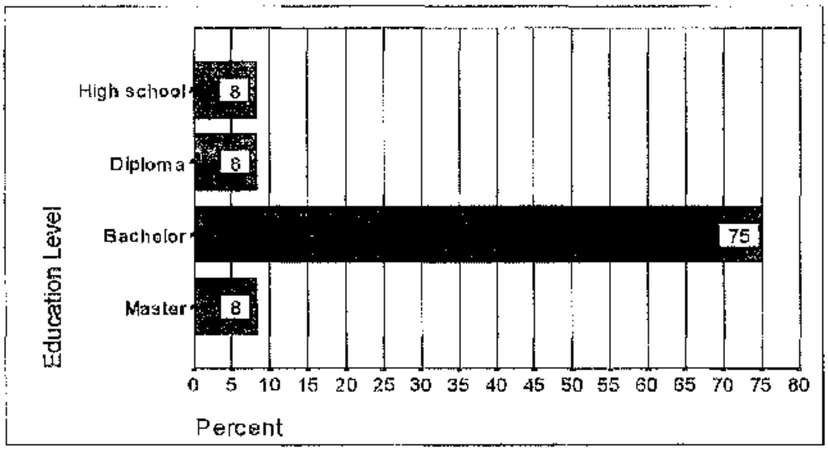
Figure 4.10 Training Officer Nationality



3. Educational Level:

Figure 4.11 shows that the dominant qualification among the respondents is bachelor degree (75 percent). This indicate that the ministries prefer those with a university degree when recruiting training officers

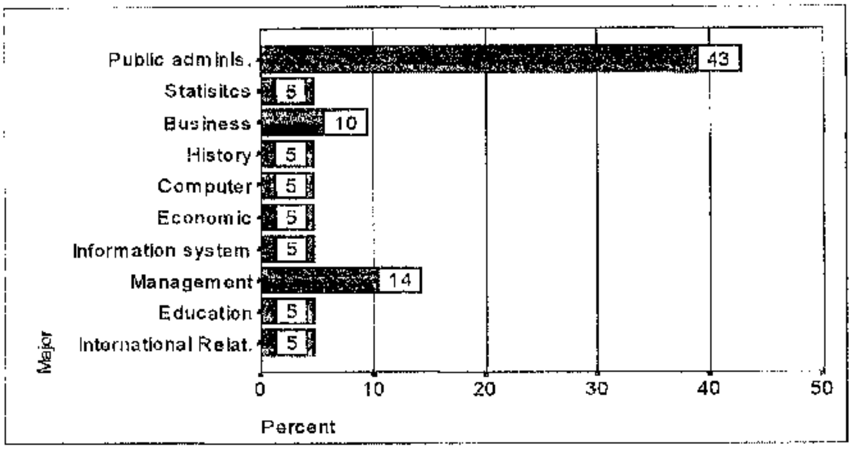
Figure 4.11 Training Officers Level Of Education



4. Field of Specialisation:

The statistical figures in Figure 4.12 indicate that the majority of training officers' academic specialisation is in the area of public administration (43 percent), followed by management (14 percent).

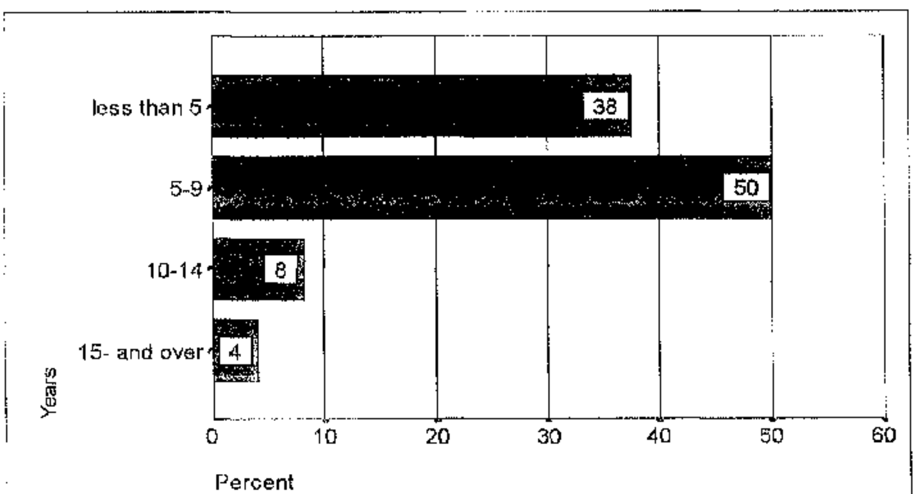
Figure 4.12: Training Officers Field of Specialisation



5. Years at present job:

Figure 4.13 shows that the overwhelming majority of training officers (88 percent) have held their job for up to 9 years, whereas few carry on beyond 9 years.

Figure 4.13 Training Officers Years in Present Job



The previous figure may highlight the fact that after 9 years, training officers change their profession. Or it may be due to the low salary levels in the public sector which lead to a search for secondary employment. this is in agreement with Kerrigan and Luke (1987) that most developing countries lack appropriate policies and procedures for keeping salaries in line with the cost of living.

6.Experience:

Table 4.4 shows that 50 percent of the training officers had no experience before taking the post of training. The rest had various experience ranging from personnel directors to teachers. This may indicate that decision makers within the ministries don't take into account past experience of new recruits in the field of training.

Table 4.4: Training officers Experience

Experience	percent
none	50.0
Personnel director	16.7
Public relation	4.2
Statistician	4.2
Director of ministerial office	4.2
Finance and administration	16.7
Teacher	4.2
Total	100.0

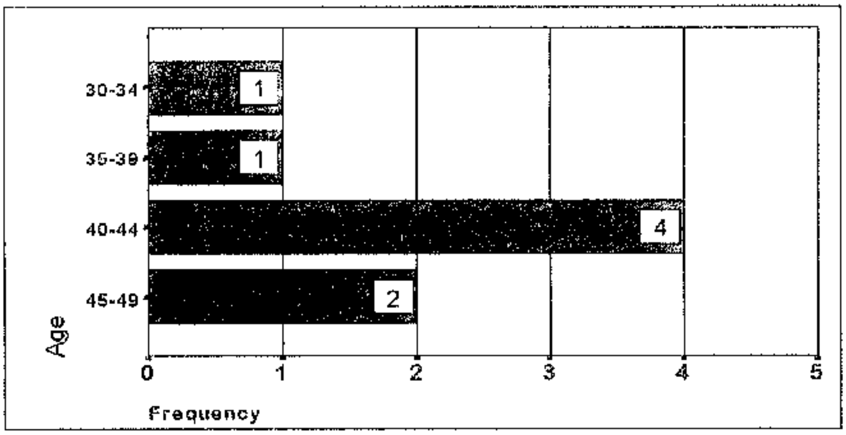
4.5.4 IADTS:

1. Age

Figure 4.14 summarises IADTS age distribution with a total of 8 training staff. The data in this table revealed that the IADTS ages ranged from 30 to 49 years old. The most common age category falls between the

40-44 years with a total of 4 training staff. The lowest age distribution among the IADTS was found under the age of 30-39 years old. It would appear that trainers over 40 years old are preferred to the younger age group, probably due to a preference for previous experience.

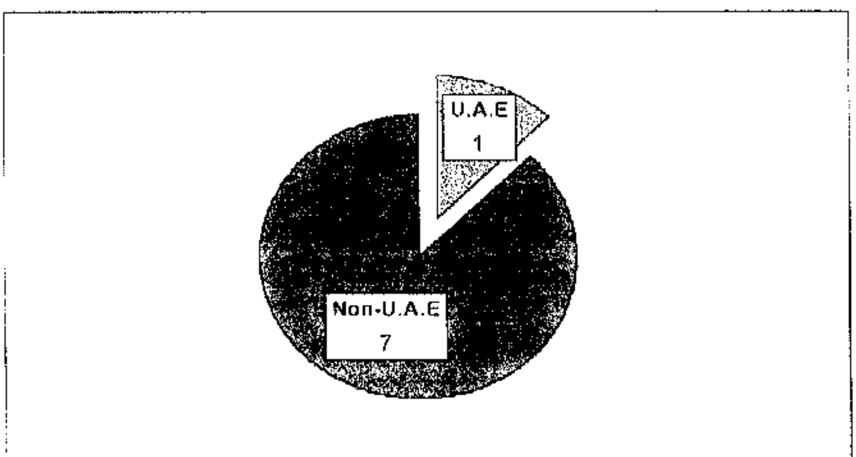
Figure 4.14: IADTS Age



2. Nationality:

The data in figure 4.15 shows there were seven non-UAE and only one UAE national who made up the total cadre of IADTS.

Figure 4.15: IADTS Nationality

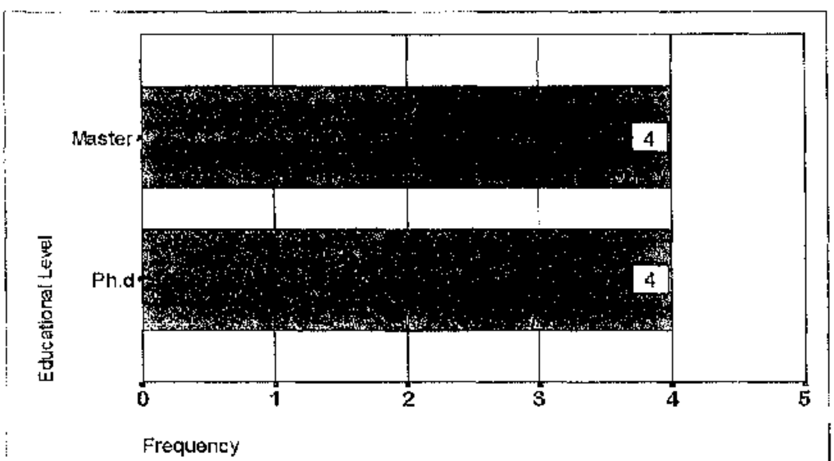


The previous figure indicate that IAD relies on foreign expertise for its operations which is due to lack of local nationals available with the required experience and skills to carry out IAD work operations in the field of training, research, and consultation. This is in agreement with Attiyah(1990;1991) that all Arab training institutes face difficulties in attracting and retaining qualified and experienced trainers. Trainers are in short supply especially in oil-rich Gulf countries; as a result they resort to recruiting foreign trainers from other Arab countries.

3. Educational Level:

Figure 4.16 depicts that a postgraduate qualification is required by IAD when they recruit new members of the training staff. Despite the Masters and Ph.D graduates being equally represented in the IAD, the fact remains that Ph.D graduates are preferred and therefore are highly recommended.

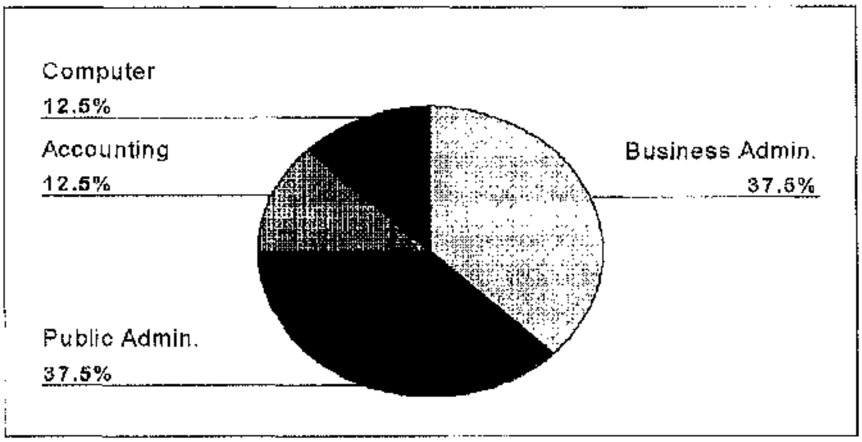
Figure 4.16: IADTS Educational Level



4. Field of specialisation:

The data in figure 4.17 shows that IADTS fall into four types of academic fields of specialisation: one in computing science: one in accounting, three in public administration, and three in business administration. The academic field specialisation of IADTS may reflect the type of training courses provided to the public sector.

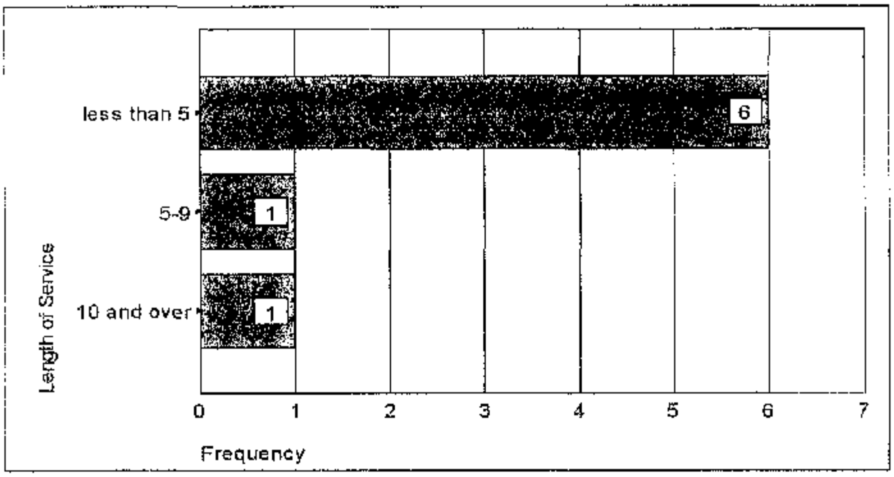
Figure 4.17: IADTS' Field Specialisation



5. Length of service:

Figure 4.18 shows that the overwhelming majority of IADTS were restricted to a work term at IAD of between 1-4 years. It seems that there has been a high turnover of IADTS since the establishment of IAD, except for one member of staff who has recorded more than 10 years of service. This is principally due to the fact that he is a UAE national.

Figure 4.18: IADTS Length of Service



6. Experience:

The question of experience was addressed to cast light upon past IADTS involvement in the training profession prior to joining IADTS. The result of the interview, summarised in Table 4.5, shows that there was one member of IADTS (no.8) who lacked the experience before joining IAD. The reason was that he was a new graduate and a UAE national. The latter reason weighs in his favour because UAE nationals enjoy preferential treatment in their job search.

Table 4.5: IADTS Experience

Trainers / Experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Lecturer	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Consultant	✓				✓	✓	✓	
Computer engineers		✓						
Management researcher				✓				
Trainer			✓	✓		✓	✓	

It is clear most IADTS seemed to possess an acceptable level of qualifications and experience, which suggests that IAD decision makers take into consideration expatriate status when selecting them to be a member of IADTS. This is because the effectiveness of a training programme is significantly influenced by the skills of the trainers (Fowler, 1993).

4.6 Limitation of the study:

This section outlines the main difficulties faced by the researcher while conducting the study.

1. The study was restricted to trainees who graduated from IAD prior to the field work of two months for the year of 1996 (March-August), thus, eliminating other trainees whom graduated prior 1996.

2. The limited duration of the study, time available during the field work, and cost limitations did not allow the researcher to cover all trainees who received training by IAD.

3. Lack of publications and studies on the practice of training programme design in the public sector. Although there is extensive literature which provides data on TNA and training evaluation, little material exists related to training in the public sector (Gray et al, 1997).

4. The real challenge was administering the questionnaires to the trainees who had returned to their jobs in such different parts of the city and country as Abu-Dhabi, Al Ain, Dubai, and Ajman. The researcher had to drive two to three hours to reach the work places/government agencies of the trainees, supervisors and training personnel.

5. Workplace time pressures were a constraint that required patience and planning. Many trainees, supervisors, and a few training officers were not co-operative, and did not keep their promise to finish the questionnaires by the second visit because of lack of time or because they simply forgot. Such circumstances forced the researcher to be persistent, and visit their job sites more often in order to collect the maximum number of questionnaires.

6. The timing of the field work was critical, specially during the months of May and August, when the majority of the civil servants take their vacation or annual leave. This had forced the researcher to wait for some of the trainees, supervisors and training officers to return to their job.

Despite the difficulty that the researcher faced in collecting the questionnaires, surprisingly some of the questionnaires were actually completed by the second visit, this was due largely to some of the supervisors being a high school friends of the researcher. Personal contact therefore was beneficial. This is in agreement with Muna (1980), and Al-faleh (1987) who state that in the Arab world social and personal contact appears to be more effective in obtaining access to the organisation and getting things done. Occasionally the researcher also made telephone calls to the respondents in order to make sure that the questionnaires were completed before driving a long distance.

4.7 Summary:

This chapter has provided a comprehensive analysis of research methodology involved in this study, involving an overview of the major types of research designs a available in the social sciences and an examination of their limitations. Data collection methods and their advantages and disadvantages were discussed. The appropriate methods of research design and data collection methods believed to accomplish the objective of the study were followed. The general features of the samples involved in the study were then discussed. Finally, the limitations of the over all study were presented.

The significant response rate will add value and credence in resulting analysis and findings. In addition, by studying the 'demographic' profiles of the respondents, it becomes clear that the literature review, in particular those sections dealing with Arab culture and developing countries, is accurate. Lastly, if the employment trends and practices continue, the UAE must act quickly to avoid on over dependence on expatriate staff.

The following chapter presents the data analysis and discussion.

Chapter Five

Data Analysis and Discussion

5.1 Introduction:

This chapter presents the findings and data analysis based on the research methodology outlined previously, in a manner which reflects the objectives of this study. Also, it attempts to interrelate the findings with the literature review and compares the results with similar studies conducted elsewhere.

This chapter is divided into the following sections:

5.2: Explores the opinions of trainees, supervisors, ministry training personnel officers and IADTS, in order to establish current practice and identify barriers to TNA.

5.3: Investigates the procedures followed for formulating training programme objectives in the light of IADTS responses.

5.4: Identifies the selection methods and procedures adopted as perceived by trainees and IADTS.

5.5: Examines the practice of training programme evaluation and associated barriers as reported by trainees, supervisors, training personnel officers and IADTS.

5.6: Investigates various elements in relation to the competence of training personnel officers and IADTS.

5.7: Summary.

5.2 Analysis of the Practice and Barriers to TNA:

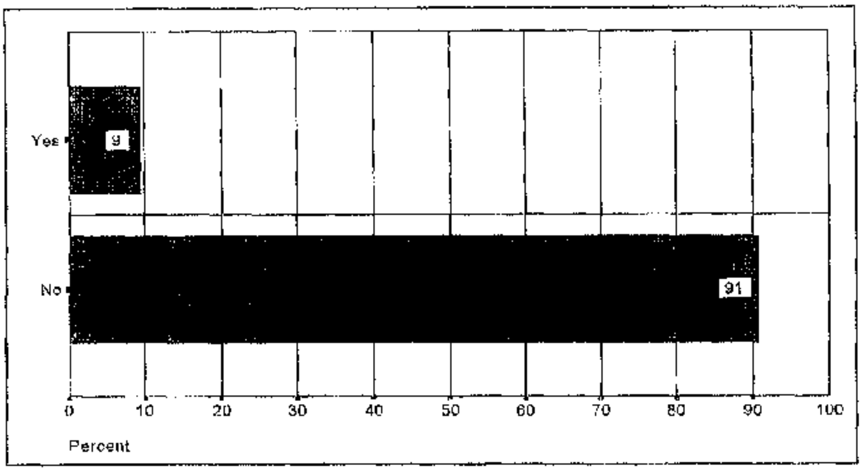
Understanding employee training needs is important. It ensures effective use of resources, and provides the answer as to whether training is the appropriate solution for employee performance deficiencies (Guthrie and Schwoerer, 1994; Brookes, 1995). Therefore, this section focuses on investigating the practice of TNA and identifying the barriers to it from the perspective of trainees, supervisors, and training personnel officers.

5.2.1 Trainees' Response:

5.2.1.1 The effort of discussing training needs:

The results in Figure 5.1 show that trainees reported that few supervisors discussed training needs with the them, reflecting a significant neglect on the part of the vast majority of supervisors. This may have engendered a situation whereby trainees could be selected without any reference to their needs. Hence selection procedures for attendance at the programme are examined in section 5.4.

Figure 5.1: Trainees response in discussing training needs with their supervisors



According to the finding of the above figure, it could be argued that the majority of trainees were left alone to assess their training needs without the supervisors involvement. However, trainees' assessment of his or her training needs is usually influenced by personal desires, which may be bias and not wholly related to enhancing job performance.

Moreover, 47 percent of trainees reflected that:

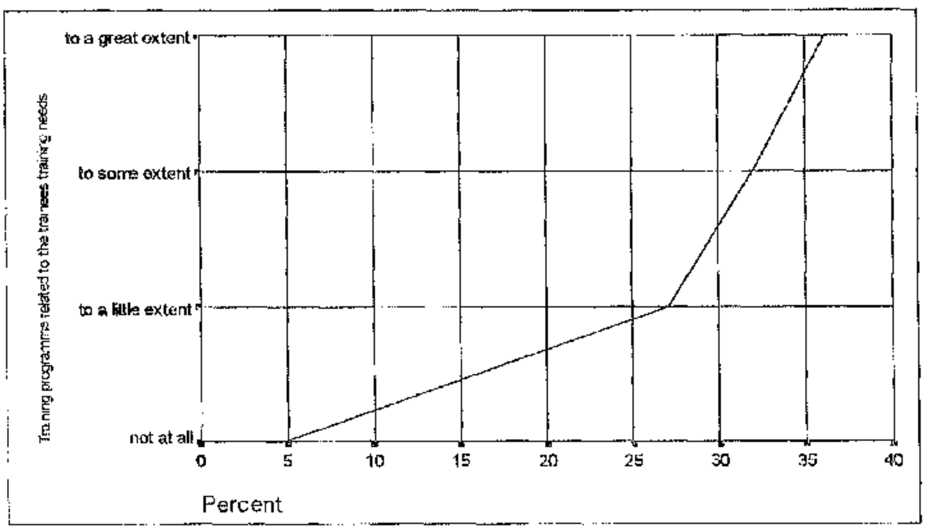
> We don't have to identify and discuss our training needs. What we do is look at the training brochure that IAD provides and then choose the appropriate programme.

The importance of discussing training needs was investigated, through examining the relationship between the extent to which training programmes related to the actual needs, and the effort given to establishing them. Also, the relationship between the relevancy of training programmes to the trainees needs, and the simplicity of training transfer were examined. Those issues are discussed below in the following subsections

5.2.1.2 The relevancy of programmes to trainees needs

To follow this up, trainees were asked to indicate to what extent the training programme content was related to their training needs. Figure 5.2 displays the results of trainees' opinion on whether the training they undertook was in fact related. The results show that a limited proportion of trainees (36 percent) thought it was relevant, while 5 percent of them reported that the training programme was not at all related to their training needs. An overall conclusion can be made, which suggests that a training programme is only, at best, related to the needs.

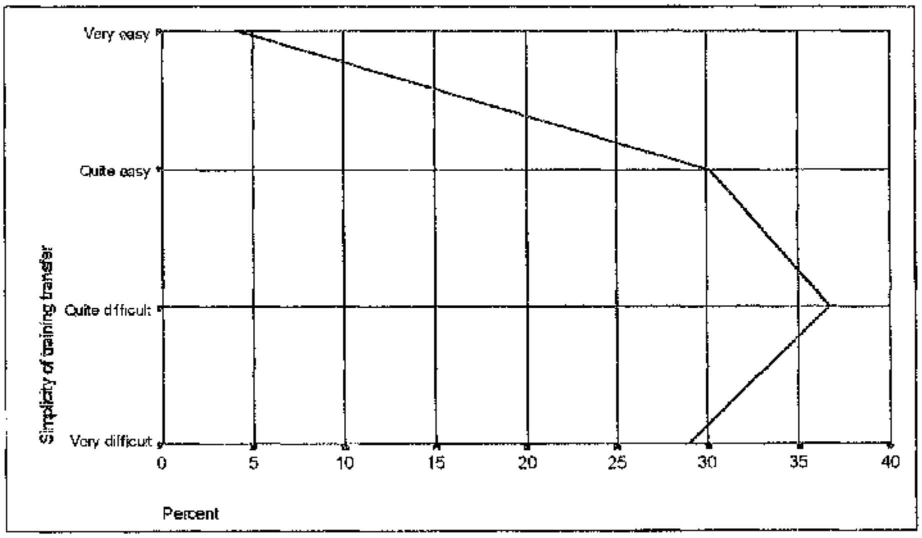
Figure 5.2: Opinion of trainees on the relevancy of the programme



5.2.1.3 The simplicity of training transfer:

Trainees were asked to indicate how easy it was for them to apply what was learned in the programme to their job situation. Figure 5.3 shows that 67 percent of trainees felt it was very, or quite, difficult to apply the learning.

Figure 5.3: Opinions of trainees on the simplicity of training transfer



The results from the previous figures (5.2 and 5.3) suggest that the subjects taught during the programme are 'theory' oriented and may not reflect the trainees' job performance, or requirements. This is due to the fact that the majority of the trainees' needs were not discussed with their supervisors before attending the programme. This is in agreement with Carolan (1993) who indicates that much training fails because needs are not identified accurately. Another possibility is that the training objectives and programme content were not determined on the basis of a trainees' needs assessment. The way in which training objectives are developed is examined in section 5.3.

5.2.1.4 The relationship between the simplicity of training transfer and the effort of discussing trainees' needs

The relationship was examined between the ease of applying training to the trainees' job situation and whether there was a discussion on areas of training required. A weak positive correlation was found (Spearman correlation coefficient is 0.1545 significant at 0.022). This indicates that when supervisors and trainees discussed needs prior to the programme, trainees were better able to apply what they learned within the work place.

5.2.1.5 The relationship between the extent of the training programme related to trainees needs and the simplicity of training transfer:

A weak positive correlation was found (Spearman correlation coefficient is 0.1627 significant at 0.018) when examining whether there is a relationship between trainees' responses in relation to the extent to which the training programme was related to their needs, and the ease of applying what was learned to the job situation. This indicates that the more a training programme is related to trainees' needs, the easier it is for the trainees to apply what they learned in their work place. Also, it should be noted that other factors may prevent trainees applying new skills and knowledge. For example supervisors may hinder development by demonstrating a lack of support or by showing resistance to new ideas.

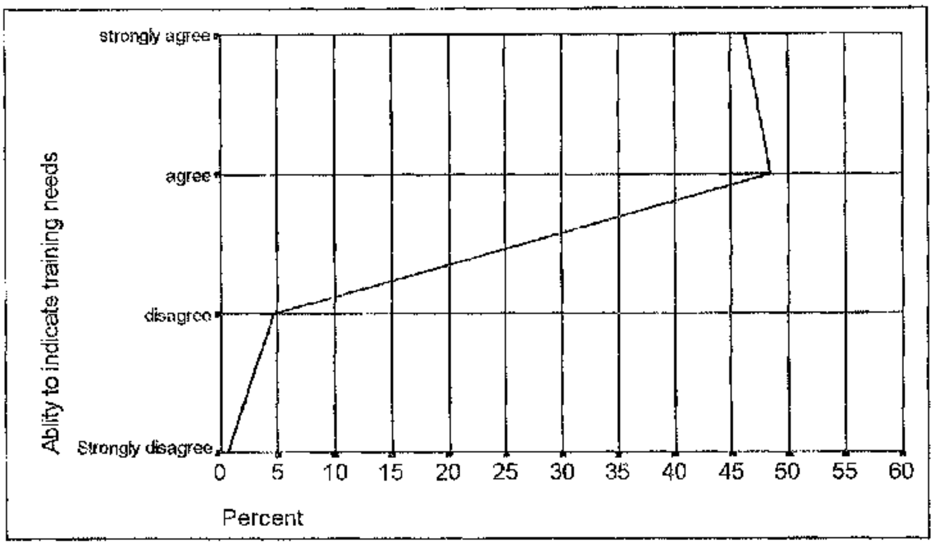
5.2.1.6 Perception of TNA methods:

This section investigates the response of trainees in relation to the extent to which the methods of TNA are effective in producing data regarding their needs.

5.2.1.6.1 Self report questionnaire:

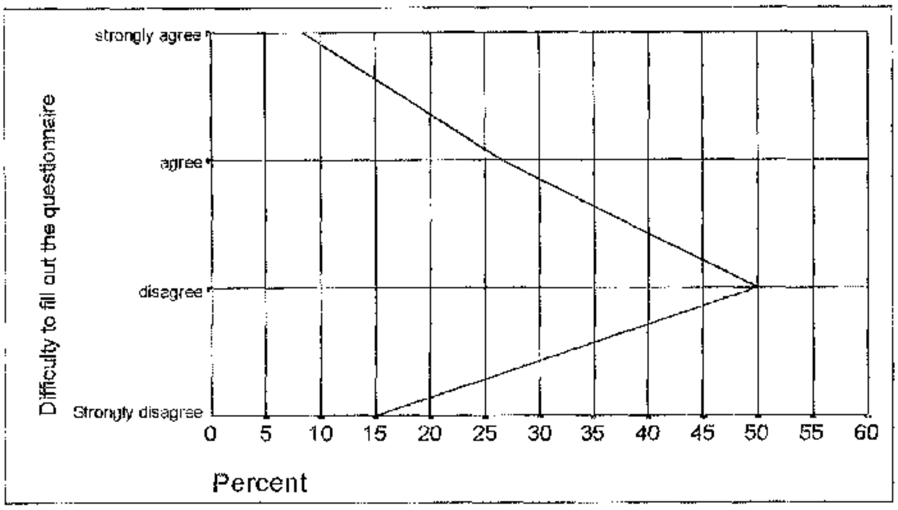
It was suggested in the literature review that a questionnaire can be an important tool for gathering data about training needs. However, trainees may not know their own needs which makes it difficult for them to fill out the questionnaire. Therefore, trainees were asked whether they were able to identify the areas in which they thought they needed training. The majority of trainees (95 percent) agreed they could (see figure 5.4). This result reflects that trainees are aware of the areas where they require improvement.

Figure 5.4: Trainees opinions on their ability to indicate their training needs



Also, a questionnaire can be a frustrating experience for those employees with a low literacy level due to technical words used in the questionnaire format. The result in figure 5.5 shows that the majority of the trainees (65 percent) would not feel that completing a questionnaire would be difficult for them. The reason behind this finding, which is inconsistent with the literature review, is that the majority of the trainees hold a university degree (see research methodology chapter on the characteristics of the sample).

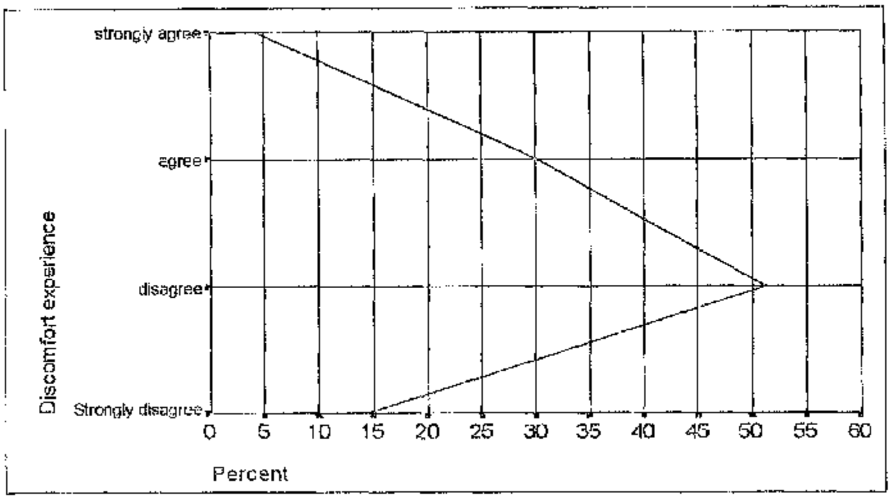
Figure 5.5: Trainees opinion on the difficulty to complete questionnaire



5.2.1.6.2 Interview:

One of the other methods of identifying training needs of employees includes one-to-one interviews between trainees and the training programme provider. Interviews can be structured or unstructured. However, as indicated in the literature, the respondent may feel uncomfortable when presented with a particular question, which may have a negative effect on their job position. In relation to this, trainees were asked to indicate their level of agreement about whether they feel uncomfortable when discussing their performance deficiency with IADTS. Figure 5.6 shows that the majority of trainees (66 percent) responded that they would not experience discomfort.

Figure 5.6: Trainees opinions on the discomfort experience of interviews

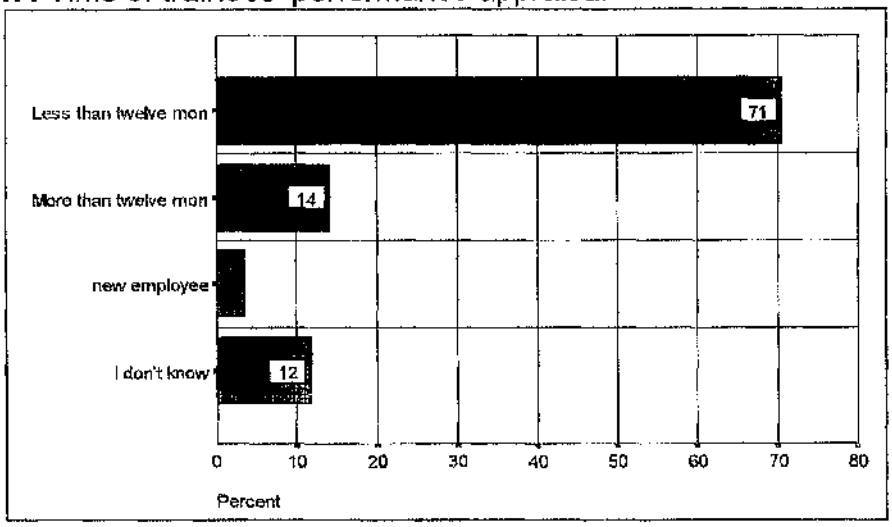


This result contradicts the past literature (Nadler and Nadler, 1994), and suggests that IADTS and training officers in fact will not be confronted with hostile and negative attitude when asking the trainees about their performance deficiency.

5.2.1.6.3 Performance Appraisal:

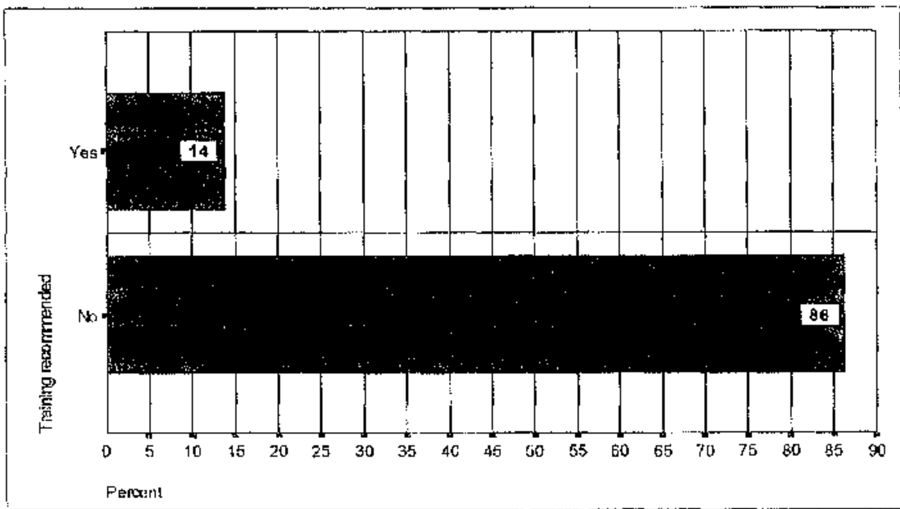
As noted in the literature review, performance appraisals can be used as a tool to identify the area of training required for the employees; therefore, trainees were asked to indicate the last time they were appraised. Figure 5.7 shows that 71 percent of trainees had their performance appraised less than twelve months previously, and 14 percent of trainees had their performance appraised more than one year before. Finally, 3 percent of trainees indicated they had just started their job in the last six months. By combining the results of those trainees who indicated they were appraised less than twelve months before with those appraised more than twelve months it can be said that 85 percent of trainees had their performance appraised.

Figure 5.7: Time of trainees' performance appraisal



However, as indicated in the past literature, a yearly performance appraisal is not sufficient and may not aid in rectifying performance problems. Also, when the time comes to complete the appraisal form, the supervisors depend on their memory to rate their subordinates' performance. This is in line with Falcone (1995) who stated that the task of identifying any employee's strengths, weaknesses and key contributions becomes a monumental task, which usually depends on memory and feelings, rather than specific achievement-oriented benchmarks. As mentioned earlier by Schneier and Beaty (1979), the performance appraisal is important since it forms the rationale for making the decision as to whether or not an employee requires training. Trainees were asked whether training was recommended on the occasion of their last appraisal. Figure 5.8 shows that the large majority of trainees (86 percent) recorded that training was not recommended at that time.

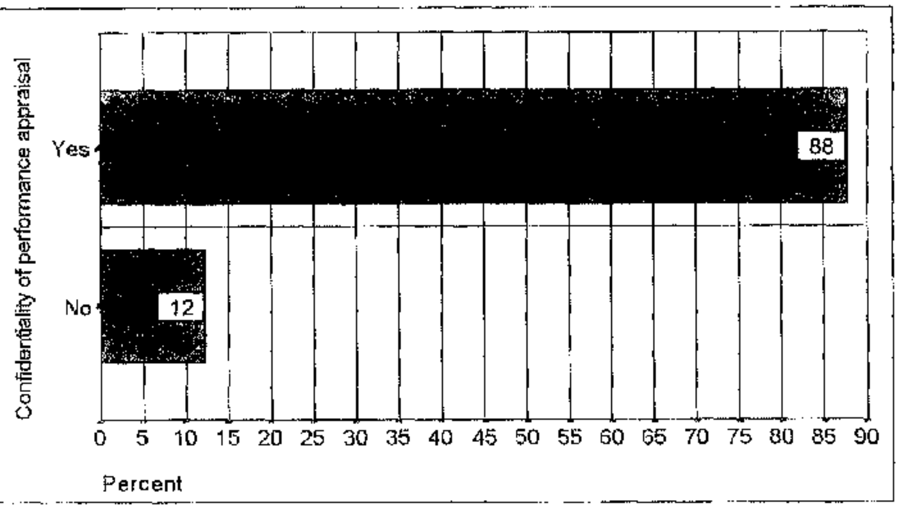
Figure 5.8: Proportion of trainees recommended for training on their last appraisal



This seems to indicate that employees may not receive feedback about the standard of their performance or about their supervisor's expectations or recommendations regarding performance improvement. Another possibility as indicated by Robert (1995) is that there is not necessarily a link between performance appraisal and training.

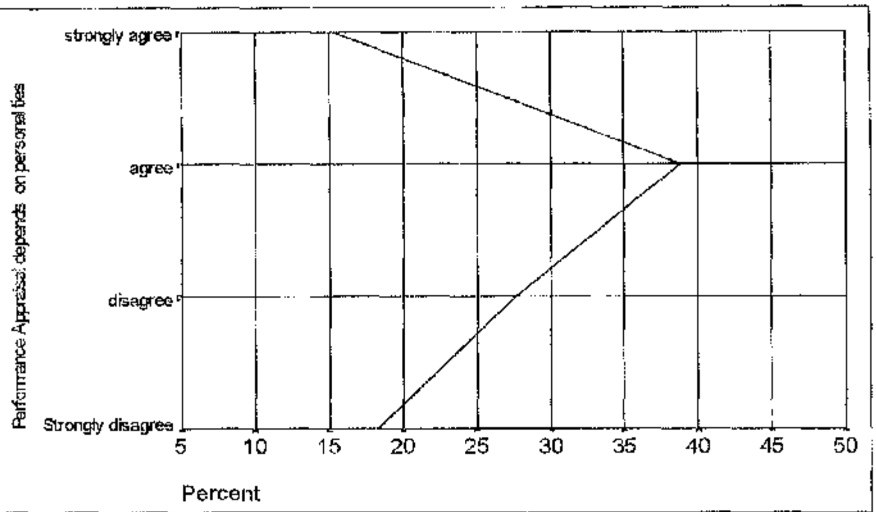
As for the confidentiality of data access on trainees' performance appraisals. Figure 5.9 shows that the majority of trainees (88 percent) believe their performance appraisal was kept confidential. This can cause difficulty for the IADTS and training personnel officers in reviewing the performance appraisal documents in order to suggest the type of training required for an employee. This result is supported by past literature.

Figure 5.9: Confidentiality of trainees' performance data



As indicated in the literature review, one of the most important aspects of appraising an employee is whether the procedure for appraisal is affected by social ties between employees and officials. The results in Figure 5.10 confirms that 54 percent of the trainees agreed that performance appraisal is affected by social ties with an official in their organisation.

Figure 5.10: Opinions of trainees on social ties and performance appraisal

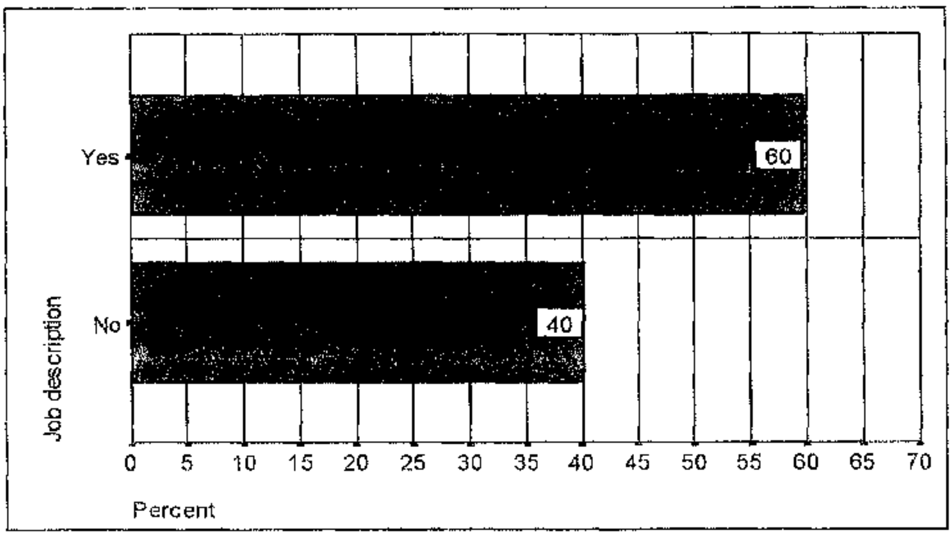


This suggests that employees can be given a good performance evaluation mark by their supervisors without any reference to their job performance. The result of the evaluation is distorted by the closeness of the personal relationships between the supervisors and the trainees. Therefore, the result of the appraisal does not provide reliable data about the trainees training needs. This result is consistent with past literature (McAfee, 1982; Algabbani, 1989; and Burns 1996).

5.2.1.6.4 Job description

Job descriptions can be an important source of providing information about the tasks and responsibilities involved in performing the job. Reviewing a job description document can assist IADTS and training personnel officers in identifying the type of skills and knowledge required for an employee to perform their job satisfactorily. IADTS and training personnel officers would thus be able to obtain a better understanding of the training requirement for the employees. Thus trainees were asked to indicate whether or not they have a job description. The results shown in Figure 5.11 shows that 40 percent responded in the negative. In these cases it would be difficult for IADTS and training personnel officers to define the skills required to do the job and the type of training programme required according to the trainees' job description.

Figure 5.11: Trainees who have been provided with a job description



Those who recorded that they have a job description (60 percent) were asked to indicate whether their current 'performance' was related to their job description (see figure 5.12).

Figure 5.12: Opinions of trainees about their job description in relation to what they do

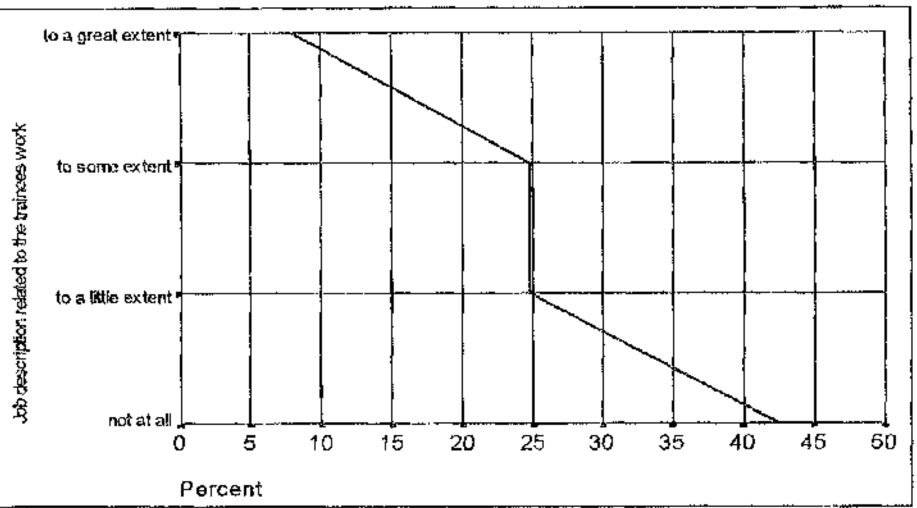


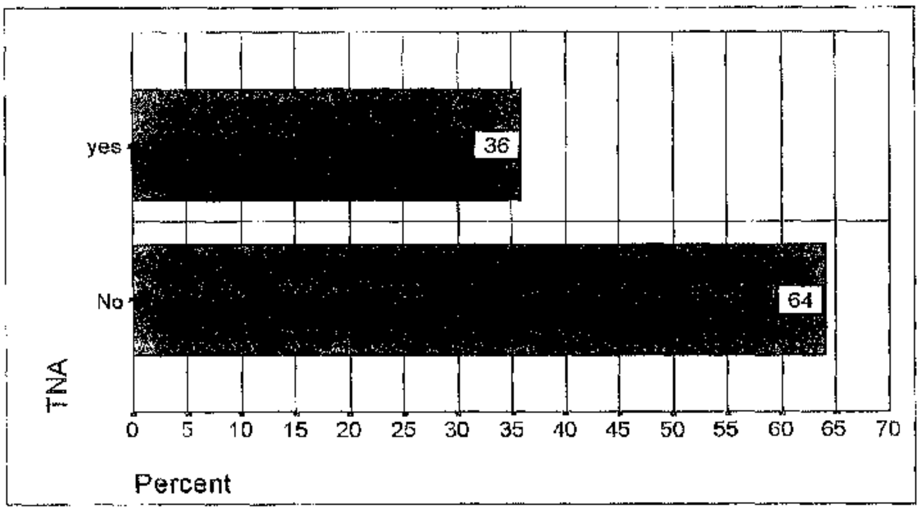
Figure 5.12 indicates that a high percentage of trainees (68 percent) with job description that is not at all related to what they do in their organisation. This would confirm that an employees' job description document can be a misleading source of data for IADTS and training personnel officers as an indication of employee responsibilities. It may be that the existing job description of trainees is out of date or incomplete. This is in line with Reilly and Clark (1990), who suggest that job descriptions in many organisations, especially in some developing countries, often do not exist, are out of date, are too superficial, or describe idealised hope rather than a realistic job. Therefore, IADTS and trainer officers may be required to search for other methods of data collection on the employees' task performance, such as interviews with the supervisors and employees themselves.

5.2.2 Supervisor Response:

5.2.2.1 Effort of discussing training needs:

The distribution analysis presented in Figure 5.13 shows that the majority of supervisors (64 percent) did not identify, or discuss, the area of training needed for their employees before sending them to a programme. One reason may be that supervisors do not regard training as their responsibility. Furthermore, when it comes to the decision to send an employee to a training programme, the supervisors probably may send the good performer who does not need the programme and neglect the poor performer.

Figure 5.13 Supervisors' Participation in TNA



5.2.2.2 Methods of TNA conducted by supervisors:

The respondent supervisors who conducted the TNA outlined the methods by which TNA were identified (Table 5.1). It was found that the daily observation by the supervisor was the most common method (56.5 percent) followed by use of performance appraisal (26.1 percent).

Table 5.1: Supervisors' response on methods of TNA

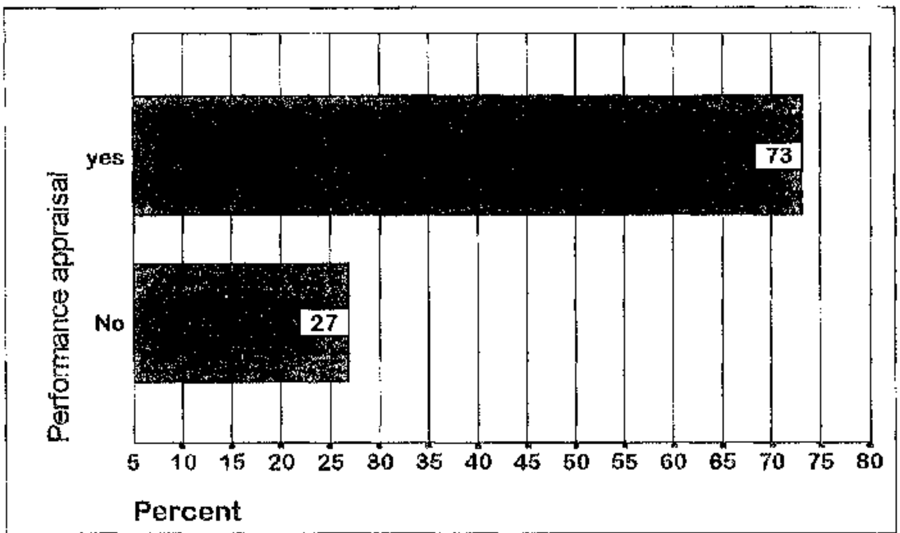
	Frequency	Percent
Through training programme brochure	1	4.3
Result of the previous performance appraisal	6	26.1
Daily observation	13	56.5
Employee's own choice of the programme they desire to attend	3	13.0
Total	23	100.0

According to the above table, the findings show that daily observation was most frequently used among supervisors. This may indicates that those supervisors are working closely with their employees, and are likely to be an important source for IADTS and training officers to pinpoint the latest performance deficiency of the supervisor's subordinates.

5.2.2.3 Analysis of Performance appraisal procedures

It was suggested in past literature that performance appraisal is considered to be one of the sources for trainers from which to collect data on the status of the job performance of employees and thus to identify training needs. Therefore, supervisors were asked to indicate if they have a procedure for appraising their subordinates' performance. Figure 5.14 shows that 73 percent of supervisors do practice performance appraisal, whereas 27 percent do not. Of the latter, performance appraisal may not have been allocated as one of their responsibilities, making it difficult for their employees to know how to rectify their mistakes. This suggests that it is useless for IADTS and training officers to interview the supervisors because they probably would be unable to pinpoint the area of the training that their subordinates may require.

Figure: 5.14 Response of supervisors to performance appraisal



Those who do appraise their subordinates' performance were requested to indicate the methods they used. Table 5.2 shows that 91.3 percent used the performance appraisal format, whereas only 8.7 percent of supervisors adopted the method of observation and performance appraisal format.

Table 5.2: Method of performance appraisal by supervisors

Methods	Frequency	Percent
Performance appraisal format	42	91.3
Observation and performance appraisal format	4	8.7
Total	46	100.0

It seems that there is a heavy reliance on the format in evaluating employee performance. This is consistent with Smith et al. (1996) study. Yet, it seems that the outcome of format as an appraisal method tends to be insufficient for providing the latest data on training needs of employees' for IADTS and training personnel officers. This is due to the time elapsed prior to attending programme (see Figure 5.7). Also, the format often prevents rather than fosters open discussion and communication between supervisors and their subordinates (Campbell and Garfinkel, 1996).

Further examination was carried out to establish whether the performance appraisal format can be a helpful source for trainers to detect employees performance deficiency. When examining a copy of a performance appraisal collected by the researcher from the Civil Service Department Head Office, nine important criteria were found to have been used to evaluate employees' performance in the Ministries. These criteria were translated from Arabic to English by the author. These were as follows:

1. Knowledge of job duties and ability to perform these duties
2. Productivity and quality of job performance.
3. Self-development and innovation
4. Taking responsibility and ability to confront job problems
5. Following job regulations and carrying out job instructions
6. Behaviour, conduct or manner, and physical appearance
7. Implementing supervisor job instruction with respect
8. Human relationships
9. Time-keeping

These criteria are applied to all grade levels in the Ministries, and employees are graded according to scales. The first two criteria are scaled from 0-15, whereas the others are scaled from 0-10; then the total is added together to provide the overall performance evaluation, as follows:

1. less than 49 (weak)
2. 50 to 69 (acceptable)
3. 70 to 84 (good)
4. 85 to 100 (excellent)

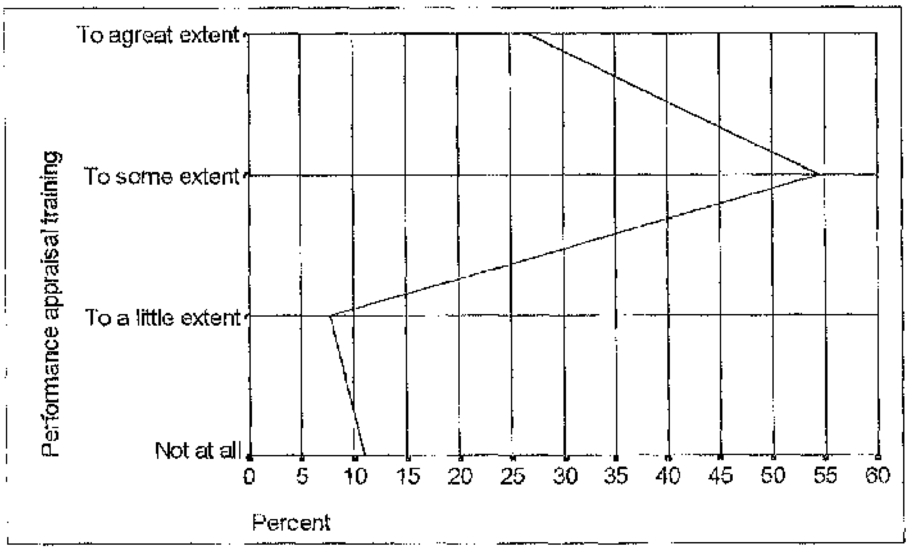
It could be said that the nine criteria or standards used to measure employee performance seem to be general, and they may not be related to the employee job performance. A point of example is the first criterion.

This confirms that job activity is not specified, and an evaluation of the general areas of knowledge of job duties and ability to perform these duties may be over-generalised. Therefore a misleading conclusion can easily arise from the employee performance appraisal. This is in agreement with Allan (1992). In some cases, standards for evaluating employee performance are not related to the duties required of job incumbents; in others, the standards reflect relatively minor, incidental, or unimportant job duties, not critical ones. Also the standards may not keep up with changes in jobs, and employees may be appraised on the standards that are no longer relevant.

Moreover, the performance appraisal document only indicates who is not performing well, and does not indicate why the employee is not performing to the expected standard to do the job successfully. Therefore, IADTS and training officers will be forced to make their own inferences about the reason for an employees' performance deficiency. 'Inferencing' may provide little guidance for identifying the specific area of training required to solve the employees' performance deficiencies, and may lead to selection of the wrong training programme.

Another area investigated in this study is whether supervisors require training in the area of performance appraisal practice. Blanchard, (1994); Guinn and Corona (1991) indicate that the capability of supervisors to appraise his or her subordinate is critical to successful performance appraisal and can influence the reliability of the data collected. Therefore, supervisors were asked to indicate the extent to which they thought they would need training to improve their skills and knowledge. Figure 5.15 shows that a great majority (82 per cent) of supervisors are aware of their needs for further training to a great or to some extent to improve their skills and knowledge. This is consistent with past literature, and may indicates that the written comments by supervisors on appraisal are not precise enough to provide data on the causes behind job performance strengths and weaknesses.

Figure 5.15: Supervisors' perceptions on the needs of training



To support the previous findings, supervisors were also asked to indicate the difficulties they face when conducting performance appraisals. Table 5.3 shows that the highest proportion of supervisors

(26.6 percent) indicated that they face difficulties in discussing their subordinates' performance problems, in developing improvement plans, and in reaching agreement on the main issues. This may suggest that supervisors are reluctant to create resentment in subordinates with whom they are working, or it could be that supervisors hesitate to provide unfavourable appraisals showing their subordinates' performance deficiencies, as these may negatively reflect the supervisors' capability to develop their subordinates . Also, it may be that supervisors lack the ability and confidence to conduct an interview to discuss the area of their subordinates' performance deficiencies. This suggests that supervisors may not be able to communicate either the major aspects for which their subordinates are accountable in the coming period, or the improvements which are needed.

Table 5.3: Supervisor's perception of the difficulty in conducting performance appraisals

Item	Frequency	Percent
Discussing performance problems	7	10.9
Developing improvement plans	12	18.8
Reaching agreement on main issues	6	9.4
Discussing performance problems and developing improvement plans	5	7.8
Discussing performance problems and reaching agreement on main issues	4	6.3
Developing improvement plans and reaching agreement on main issues	2	3.1
Discussing performance problems, developing improvement plans, and reaching agreement on main issues	17	26.6
None	11	17.2
Total	64	100.0

5.2.2.4 Perceived barriers to TNA:

Table 5.4 shows that supervisors' perception regarding the various barriers that may be encountered when conducting TNA. The main feature is that supervisors agree that the employee performance appraisal document was not designed to indicate their training needs. This is consistent with past research. The second most important aspect on which supervisors agree is that trainees display a level of discomfort when presented with particular questions which may disclose their performance deficiencies, since these may have a negative impact on their position.

This result is inconsistent with the previous finding of trainees' responses (see Figure 5.4) in relation to their willingness to indicate the areas of their job performance weaknesses. This may indicate that supervisors lack skills in showing empathy and in building helpful relationships with their employees whose training needs have to be identified.

Table 5.4: Supervisors' perception of various barriers to TNA

Item	Mean	Std Dev
Performance appraisal document of employees is not designed to indicate their training needs	2.17	.67
Trainees display a level of discomfort when presented with particular questions that disclose their performance deficiency, since these may have a negative impact on their position at work	2.32	.61
Trainees are unable to describe their training needs	2.41	.55
No time to identify training needs	2.51	.78
There is no written job description of my subordinates	2.51	.64
Top management only interested in result	2.59	.55
Lack of finance	2.71	.75

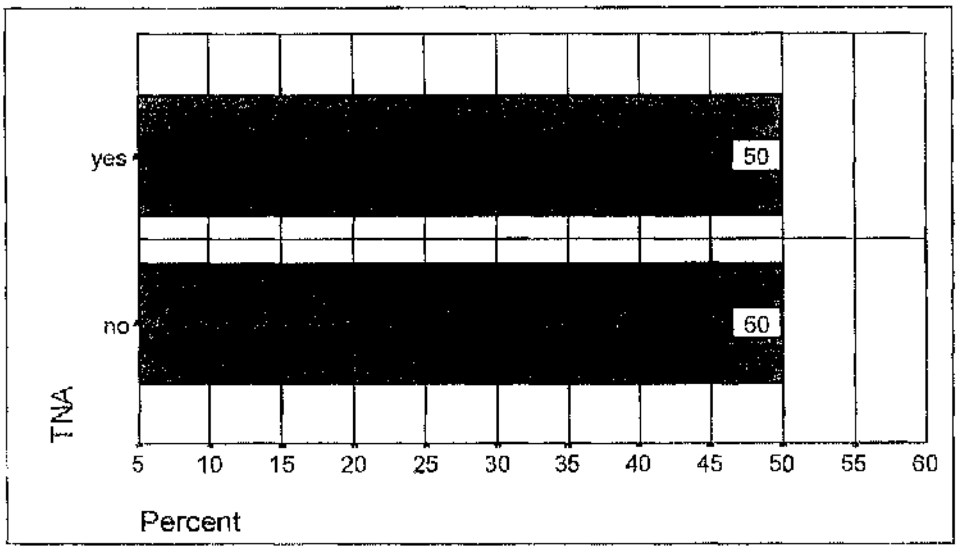
Note: 1=strongly agree; 2=agree; 3=disagree; 4=strongly disagree

5.2.3 Training Personnel Officers' Response:

5.2.3.1 Effort of conducting TNA:

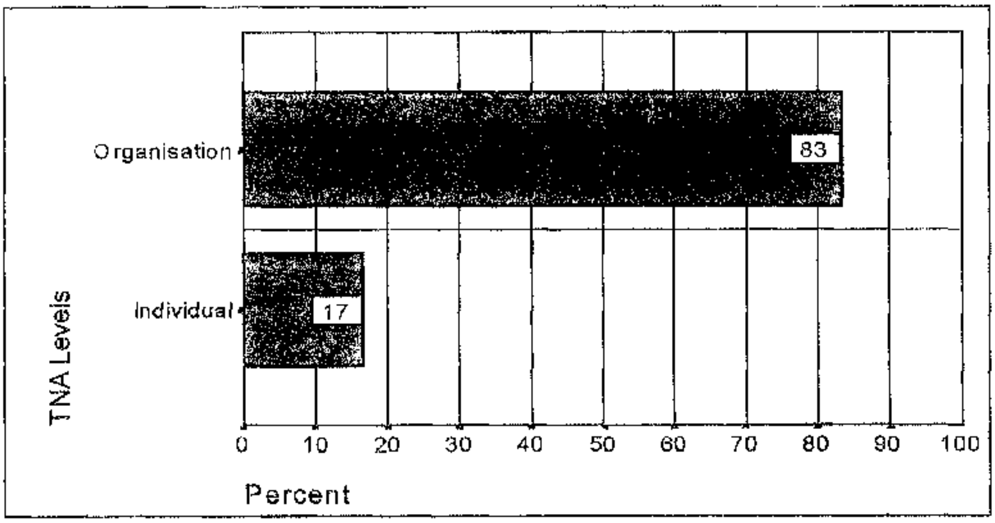
Peterson (1994) indicated that in some cases the training needs analysis process might be carried out by the organisation's own training department. Therefore training officers were asked to indicate whether, or not, they analyse needs in their respective ministries. Figure 5.16 shows that TNA is not receiving the appropriate attention. Although 50 percent of the respondents indicated that they do carry out TNA, there were just as many who ignored this activity. Half of the respondents then may be unable to locate the problems associated with the organisation and employees.

Figure 5.16: Training personnel officers' response to TNA



Training officers were also asked to indicate at what level they conduct TNA. Figure 5.17 shows that the majority of training officers (83 percent) carry out training needs at the organisational level, whereas the remaining identify the needs at the individual level. This is a clear depiction of the trend among training officers in focusing TNA in accordance with departmental requirements, and hence no recognition of the occupational initiative was made. Furthermore, the figure highlights the fact that TNA has been ignored at the occupational level.

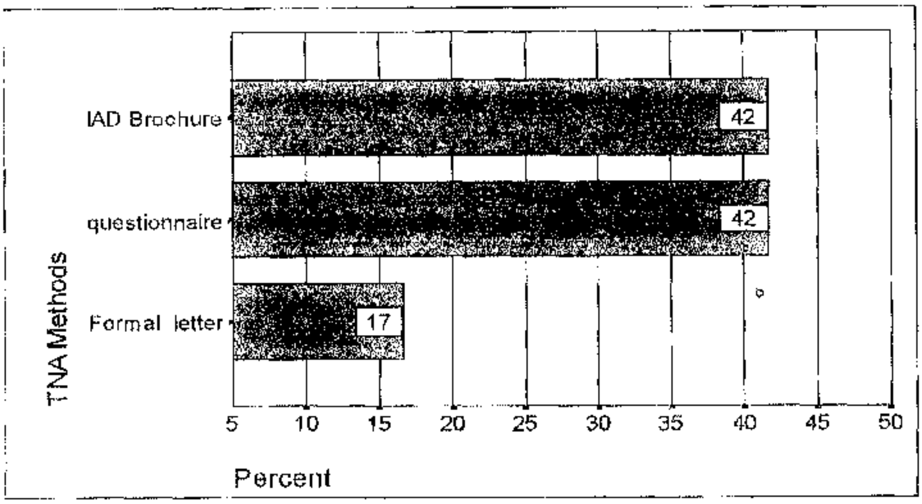
Figure 5.17 Training officer's response to level of TNA



5.2.3.2 Methods of TNA

Respondents were asked to indicate the methods employed for collecting data on training needs. The least used method was the 'formal letter' sent to heads of departments across the organisation. What is apparent, however, from Figure 5.18 is that IAD brochure and questionnaire methods received equal attention (42 percent each). The problem with these approaches is that the department heads may not know the employees' training needs, may regard the questionnaire as just another piece of paper to be filled in, or may fill it in apathetically (Stewart, 1991).

Figure 5.18: Methods of data collection on TNA used by training officers



It is clear from the above Figure that training officers depend on the IAD brochure to pinpoint the areas of training need for their employees. This result is consistent with the trainees' earlier response in relation to TNA. But it could suggest that the content of the training programmes may not relate to the needs of their employees, because those programmes in the IAD brochure were not based on identifying the employees' needs. And it is also likely that programme brochures were written for 'IADTS' rather than for government agencies.

5.2.3.3 Perceived barriers to TNA:

Furthermore, respondents were asked to indicate the barriers that they believe influence the task of TNA. Table 5.5 reveals the results. According to Table 5.5, the most prominent obstacle to TNA is the failure in the design of the performance appraisal format to indicate training needs (87.5 percent). This suggests that the appraisal document is not a reliable source for the training officers and IADTS in gathering data about employee training needs.

Table 5.5: Training officers' response to barriers of TNA

Item	Agree%	Disagree %
No time for training needs identification	29.9	70.8
Trainees can't tell the area they need training in	54.2	48.8
Top management interested only in results of training	54.2	45.8
Lack of computer to process data on training needs	54.2	45.8
Employees don't have a job description	54.2	45.8
Lack of personnel to conduct training needs	54.2	45.8
Performance appraisal of employees are kept confidential	58.3	40.7
Trainees feel uncomfortable when presented with questions that disclose their performance deficiency that may have a negative impact on their position	66.7	33.3
Supervisors' lack of skill and knowledge in conducting training needs	66.7	33.3
Performance appraisal format is not designed to indicate their training needs	87.5	12.5

Lack of skills and knowledge on the part of supervisors in conducting TNA received 66.7 percent. This could be the reason for the previous finding that trainees supervisors' did not participate in analysing their employees' training needs (see figure 5.13).

66.7 percent of training officers agreed that trainees feel uncomfortable when presented with questions that disclose their performance deficiency and that may have a negative impact on their position. This result is inconsistent with the trainees' response which shows their willingness to discuss needs. This discrepancy may be due to the fact that training personnel did not have experience in questioning the trainees in relation to their performance status in order to ascertain whether the trainees feel uncomfortable.

Moreover, the findings of table 5.5 clearly indicate that senior management is not aware of the importance of TNA, which leads to training personnel officers not paying attention to organisational training requirements. Public sectors either are not recruiting enough training personnel to participate in training needs identification or they are putting less emphasis on training as an important function to improve the performance of employees.

Also, the majority of training officers have commented that there is little support from 'management' in conducting TNA. This agrees with Sleezer (1993) that decision-makers can affect needs identification by their expectations, and by the amount of support for the training they offer. Such decision-makers can influence the determination of needs by failing to provide enough resources .

5.2.3.4 Comparative Analysis:

One can compare Durra's (1991) investigation into the practice of TNA in the context of Jordanian government sectors based on fifty-seven training unit officers. Durra's results are different from this studies in that the Jordanian training officers assess training needs at more levels than their counterparts in the UAE (see Table 5.6).

Table 5.6: Level of needs identification conducted In Jordan and UAE by percentage

Level	Country	
	Jordan	UAE
Organisational	15.2	83.0
Occupational	34.8	0.0
Individual	26.1	17.0
Organisational and occupational	4.3	0.0
Occupational and individual	15.2	0.0
Organisational and occupational, and individual	5.3	0.0
Total	100	100

The comparison suggests that TNA in the Jordanian context is carried out more extensively than the UAE. This may be partly attributed to the higher number of training officers employed by the government agencies in Jordan compared to the UAE, and partly to the higher emphasis placed by the Jordanian government on the value of training.

In addition, when comparing the methods used to collect data about training needs between Jordan and UAE (see Table 5.7), it was found that the Jordanian training officers adopt a wider ranging methodology. This may confirm that the Jordanian government officials are better informed then their UAE counterparts.

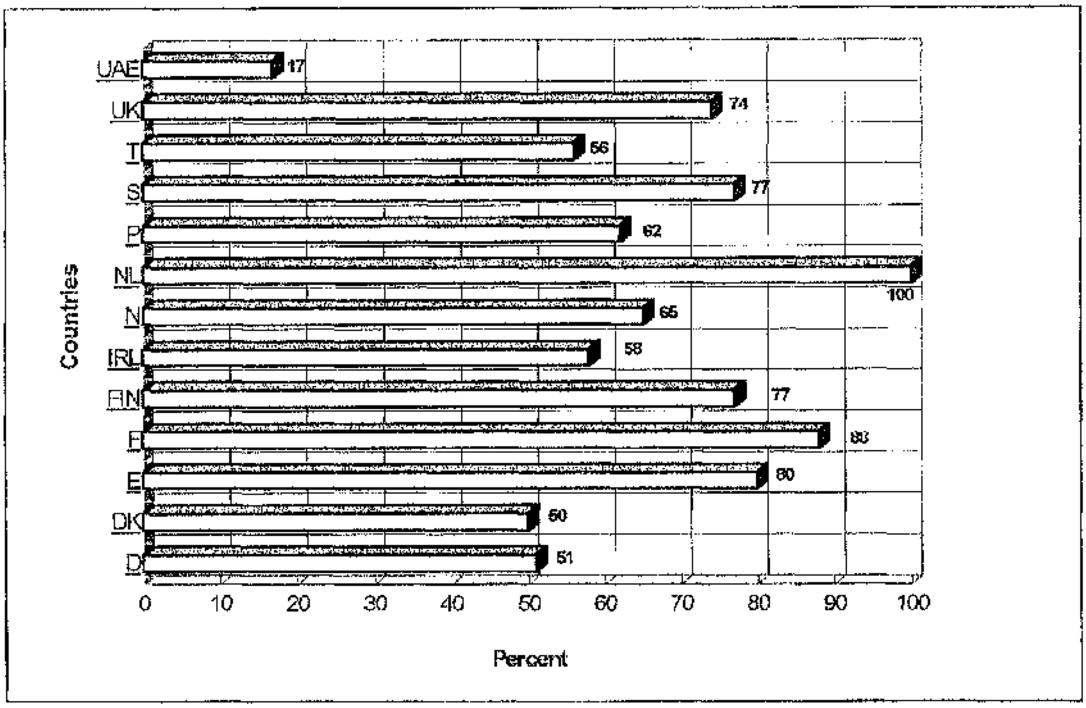
Table 5.7: Methods of data collection of training needs of Jordan and UAE by percentage

Methods	Jordan	UAE
Observation	62.5	0.0
Interview	50	0.0
Questionnaire	35.4	41.7
Test	39.6	0.0
Others:		
Brochure of training provided	N.A.*	41.7
Letter corresponding to all departments in agency	N.A.	16.6

*N.A.: not available.

Comparing the results of UAE and Western European public organisations, Figure 5.19 shows that a higher percentage of personnel managers in Europe claim to assess employees' training needs compared to the UAE. This may reflect the fact that personnel managers in European countries, and their organisations, place training and development high on the agenda, compared to the UAE.

Figure 5.19: Comparison between UAE and European countries on employees' training needs assessment.



* Germany (D), Denmark (DK), Spain (E), France (F), Finland (FIN), Ireland (IRL), Norway (N), Netherlands (NL), Portugal (P), Sweden (S), Turkey (T), United Kingdom (UK)

When comparing the result of the Gray et al. (1997) USA study with the UAE, it was found that the UAE government agencies put more effort on employees' TNA than the USA. The prime method used to collect data on employees' TNA in the USA is a survey by employees, whereas in the U.A.E, it is a questionnaires filled out by department heads and based on IAD brochures.

However, Jaffar's (1990) study shows that training officers of Omani public sector reflect the U.A.E experience. Similar methods of employees'

TNA are employed. In Kuwait's government, however, organisations are highly dependent on supervisors for data on employees TNA.

5.2.4 IADTS Response:

5.2.4.1 Effort of conducting TNA

Mcardle (1996) argues that engaging trainers' in the work of TNA lies at the heart of the decision-making process for selecting and designing effective training programmes. The quality of their work in finding real training needs and then ensuring that those needs are dealt with productively is crucial to 'quality training' in the organisation. Thus, IADTS were asked to indicate whether they investigate the trainees training requirements prior to the programme design. The result of the interview shows that none of the IADTS participate in identifying the needs of their participants.

5.2.4.2 Methods of TNA

Furthermore, IADTS indicated that they rely on their own brochure to ensure relevance of training. Every year between the months of May and June IAD send a list of possible training programmes to the majority of public sector organisations. Then the officials simply tick those training programmes they think are needed and would benefit their participants. This information is then sent back to IAD management officials to be approved.

IADTS commented further that they used to conduct an interview to collect data regarding the training needs of the organisations. That is, a team from IADTS and a training manager visited most of the ministries and met with under-secretaries to discuss the work problems in their organisations. This could have provided IADTS with a clear picture on the type of training programmes that were required. However, even though this is no longer done, it may have suffered the perception of the organisational deficiencies as seen by under-secretaries, being different from that of their employees. As has been highlighted by Reilly and Clark (1990), the perceptions of the organisations' problems as seen by top managers is often very different from that of their immediate subordinates, and their views, in turn, are likely to differ from those at the bottom.

The other approach used by IADTS for conducting training needs identification is through seminars. That is, IADTS organise one to two day seminars for all management development units, or training personnel, from the public sector. The purpose of these seminars is to discuss and disclose the areas of training need ,and the type of programme needed to overcome participants' performance deficiency.

On the basis of the interview with IADTS it can be concluded that IADTS do not effectively identify the trainees' needs prior to formulating their programmes. It seems therefore, that IADTS are mainly responsible for delivering training programmes, rather than providing training solutions. This finding is consistent with Willoughby (1985); Waheeduzzaman (1988), and Attiyyah (1991), and may suggest the reason why content of the training programme does not reflect job performance and training needs. Such a conclusion is supported by Garavglia (1993); training is more likely to occur when identical elements appear in two different situations. For instructional designers, that means that tasks taught in training should closely match the tasks people do in their jobs.

It is important to mention here that IADTS responses to TNA barriers are reported in a later section. This is in order to simplify then presentation of results.

5.3 Analysis of the approach of training Objectives developed by IADTS:

As noted in the literature review, the training needs of participants should be identified prior to the formulation of the training objectives, so that the data obtained from the training needs identification can be used when formulating training objectives. These objectives provide the input for programme and evaluation. When IADTS were asked to describe the data sources used to formulate training objectives, all staff responded that it was based on their experience, and on the previous syllabus. This result is consistent with Waheeduzzaman's study (1988). This may show that the criteria that IADTS adopt to measure their programme effectiveness may not be related to participants' training needs. Therefore, the questions which are asked to measure participants' learning may not be related to participants' knowledge and abilities to perform their job. Also, it is clear that the supervisors of participants' were not involved with IADTS during the determination of programme objectives, which means that supervisors are likely to be unfamiliar with the programme content and objectives. Therefore they might not be committed to supporting and reinforcing the new learning. This is in line with Montante's (1996) analysis, all too often training objectives are not set, are poorly defined, or are not in a form that facilitates downstream measurement and/or evaluation.

Moreover, Sheal (1994) points out that the objective of a programme should state what the learner is expected to be able to do after training; it should describe the important conditions under which the performance is to occur; and finally it should provide a description of how well the learner must perform. In this connection a closer investigation of training programme brochures was conducted to examine the forms of objective formulation/statements. It was found that under the heading of training objectives neither the behaviour nor the conditions under which behaviour will be exhibited, were indicated. This may suggest that the programme objectives developed by IADTS may lead to the participants not knowing how well they should perform. Furthermore, IADTS did not conduct TNA of the participants. This makes it difficult for IADTS to produce performance standards and to measure effectiveness, so that relevant objectives for the learning event can be established.

5.4 Analysis of Trainees' Selection Methods:

Tracey (1984) pointed out that in order to be effective and efficient, training of any kind should be provided only to employees who have been selected for suitability; otherwise training resources will be wasted. Therefore, trainees and IADTS were asked various questions regarding the procedures used to select participants.

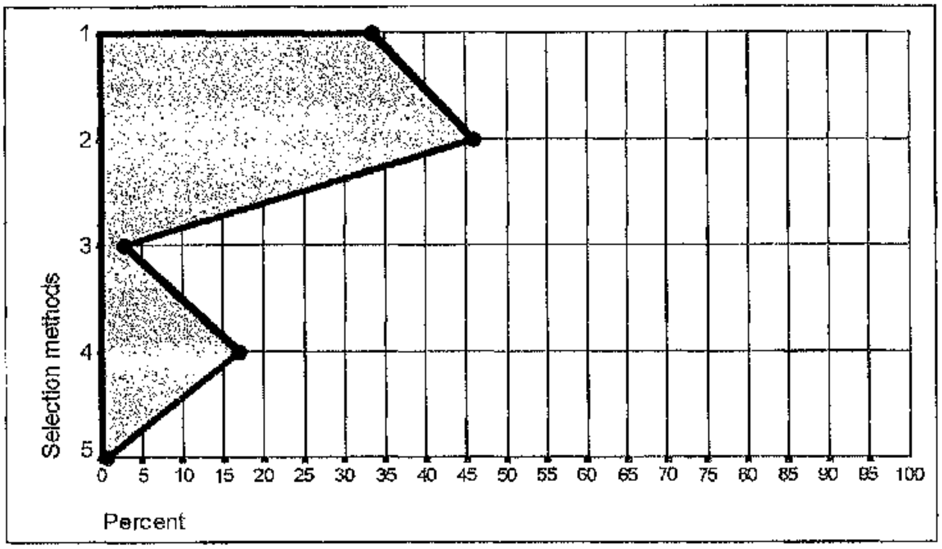
5.4.1 Trainees' Response

5.4.1.1 Methods of trainee selection within their organisations:

Trainees were asked to indicate the selection methods used. Figure 5.20 shows that the majority of trainees (45 per cent) attended the course because of their own personal desire, followed by supervisor's recommendation (35.5 percent). The method which combined both ranked third (17.1 per cent). This indicates that trainees' personal desire was the most adopted method, which may lead to employees choosing the wrong programme that could have less value to themselves or their organisation.

Because trainees may attend a training programme as a means of contact with other employees in the training programme; to escape from excessive job responsibilities; or as an opportunity for a 'holiday'. This result is consistent with past literature.

Figure 5.20: Trainees selection methods



1= Supervisor recommendation
2= Personal desire
3= Replaced for someone else
4= Supervisor recommendation & personal desire
5= Personal desire & replaced for someone else

5.4.1.2 The effect of social ties on selection:

Nydell(1987) and Al-faleh, (1987) point out that in Arab culture it is unusual for an Arab to turn down, openly, a request from a friend, and an individual depends on family and friendship ties for getting things done within both an organisation and society in general. Thus, trainees were asked to indicate their level of agreement on whether their social ties with their supervisor and top management helped them to attend the programme.

The results in Figures 5.21 reveal that 25 percent of trainees agree with the statement "my personnel ties with top management helped me to attend the programme".

Figure 5.21: Trainees response to their personal tie with top management

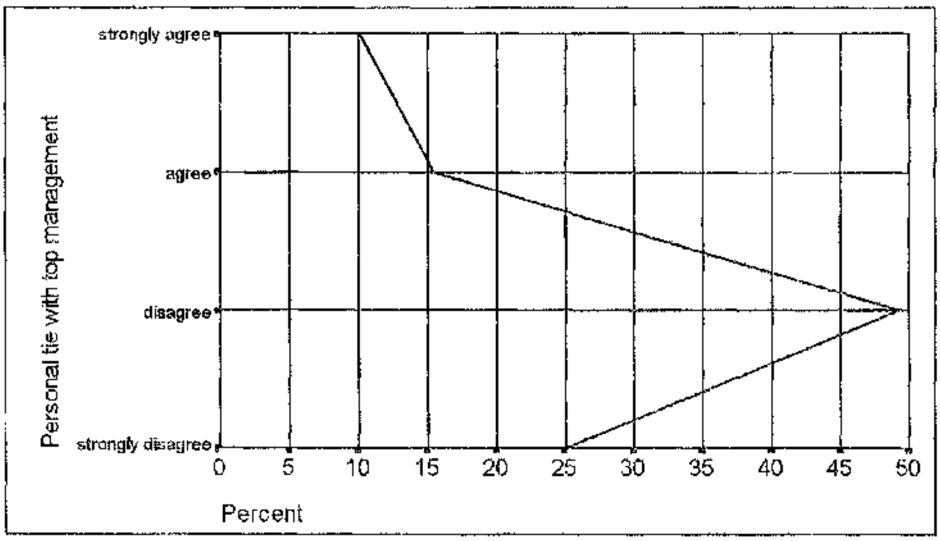
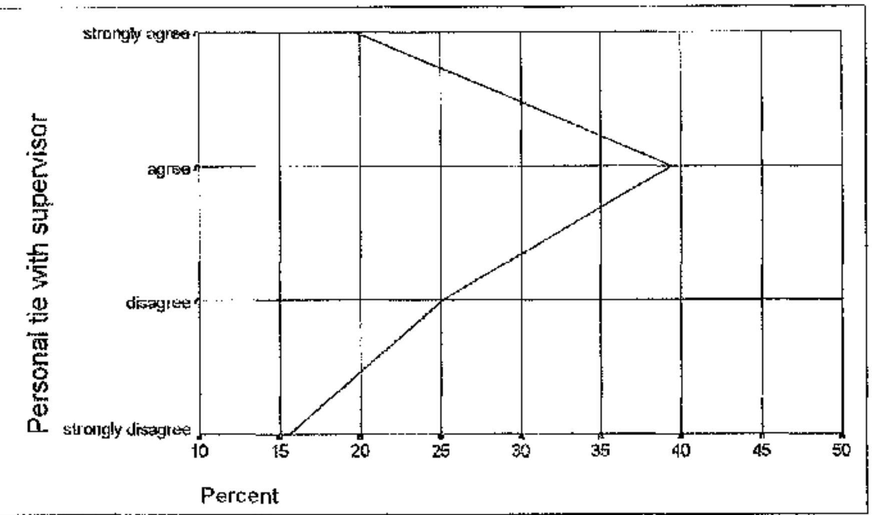


Figure 5.22 reveals that 60 percent of trainees agreed with the statement that "my personal ties with my supervisor helped me to attend the programme". The latter result suggests that trainees may attend the training programme without relevancy to their training needs.

Figure 5.22: Trainees responses to their personal tie with supervisor



5.4.1.3 The relationship between the purpose of attending the programme and the selection procedures

The findings of the earlier section suggested only a limited number of trainees indicated that they had discussed the area of training needed before attending the programme. At this stage it was felt important to investigate the trainees' perception behind attending the programme, and to find out whether there is an association between the purpose of attending the programme and the selection approaches that were used by trainees' organisations. As indicated by Tracy (1984) and Sim (1993) the decision to attend a training programme should reflect; the extent to which the employees need training; the employees potential for advancement; and the extent to which the employee's knowledge, skill, attitudes, or performance are likely to be improved by the training.

Table 5.8: Trainees' perception of reason for attending a training programme

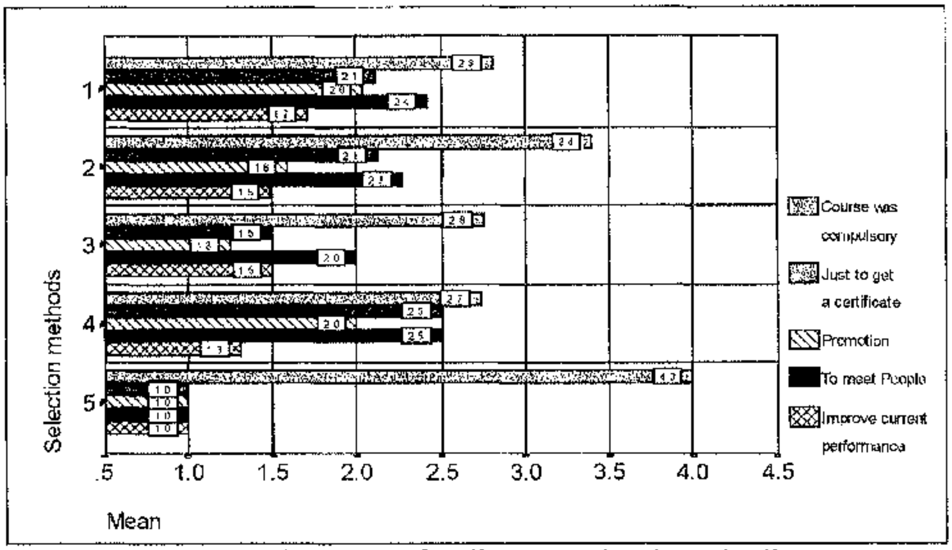
Reasons	Mean	Std. Dev
To improve my performance in current job	1.52	.66
To obtain certificate	2.14	.83
To meet people	2.33	.81
To acquire new knowledge & skills for promotion	2.35	.91
Course was compulsory	3.10	.86

Note: 1= strongly agree; 2= agree 3= disagree; 4= strongly disagree

The findings in the above Table 5.8 indicate that trainees generally disagree with the statement "the course was compulsory" (mean of 3.10). One can only assume that most of the trainees were not forced to attend the training programme. This suggestion supports Parry (1991) who indicated that it is not appropriate to force employees to attend the training programmes which teach them what they may already know.

There was strong agreement among the trainees who stated the reason for attending was "to improve my performance in my current job" (mean of 1.52) which shows that those trainees may not possess the skills and knowledge needed to be competent to do the job. Also, a high proportion of trainees strongly agree with the statements "To meet people" (mean of 2.33); and "to obtain certificate" (mean of 2.14). This suggests that those trainees place important value on those purposes. Further examination was carried out to indicate whether there is a relationship between the methods for selecting trainees to attend the training programmes and the purpose of attending the programmes. In doing that, a stacked bar chart was drawn to show the association (see figure 5.23).

Figure 5.23: Association between selection methods and the purpose of attending the programme



1= strongly agree; 2= agree; 3= disagree; 4= strongly disagree

Selection methods:
1= Supervisor recommendation
2= Personal desire
3= Replaced for someone else
4= Supervisor recommendation and personal desire
5= Personal desire and replaced for someone else

The findings suggest that there is no correspondence between the course being compulsory and the selections methods. On the other hand, it was found that there is a relationship between the selection methods and the four purposes to attend the programme, namely, to get a certificate, for promotion, to meet people, and to improve current performance. The results clearly indicate that if there is a compulsory training course policy in the trainees' organisation, then the selection methods could have no influence on the purpose to attend the programme. Therefore, the selection of personnel for training cannot be isolated from decisions as to priorities, or as to availability of persons for training. It is not always a matter of selecting the persons who are most in need of training, or who will absorb the most information. The most important consideration is that selection should focus upon the persons who, at the time, hold the positions in which improvements in performance is most needed (United Nations, 1966).

5.4.2 IADTS Response:

5.4.2.1 IADTS Participation in the selection of trainees:

IADTS were requested to state their opinion on whether they take any part in selecting the participants to attend the programme. All IADTS confirmed that they do not take any part in selecting participants to attend training, and that the training director of IAD alone is responsible for selection. They also stated that the procedure used to select trainees is mainly through the application form sent to all ministries two weeks before the programmes commence. And applicants are accepted regardless of their educational standards and experience, because IAD depends on the government organisations to select . This finding is consistent with both Al-Rubaian's (1991) study and the Waheeduzzman (1988) study.

5.4.2.2 General observation of the characteristics of trainees:

IADTS were also asked to make general observations pertaining to participants' characteristics in the classroom in relation to their educational background, grades, and experience. All IADTS stated that participants who have attended the courses before tend to differ on the previous criteria. This may confirm that the characteristics of participants' have been disregarded before entering the programme, which may be due to the fact that IADTS did not participate in identifying the participants' training needs nor their selection. This could indicate that participants may differ in their learning ability, which in turn could have a direct influence on training preparation. Participants may find it difficult to comprehend course content as their qualifications and their level of experience do not match the requirements. This is in agreement with Patrick (1992) who points out that training interacts with both personnel selection and of ergonomics. Participants' selection should take place on the basis of the relevance of either abilities/aptitudes or of their previous experience of the task(s) to be taught. In either case such selection information will influence training decisions. The scope or content of training will be different for a new recruit, in contrast to a person who has mastered some but not all of the tasks. This may suggest that participants with a good background of learning will be relatively quicker and more efficient than of those who lack such qualities. The following section examines the practice of training programme evaluation.

5.5 Analysis of the Practice and Barriers of Programme Evaluation:

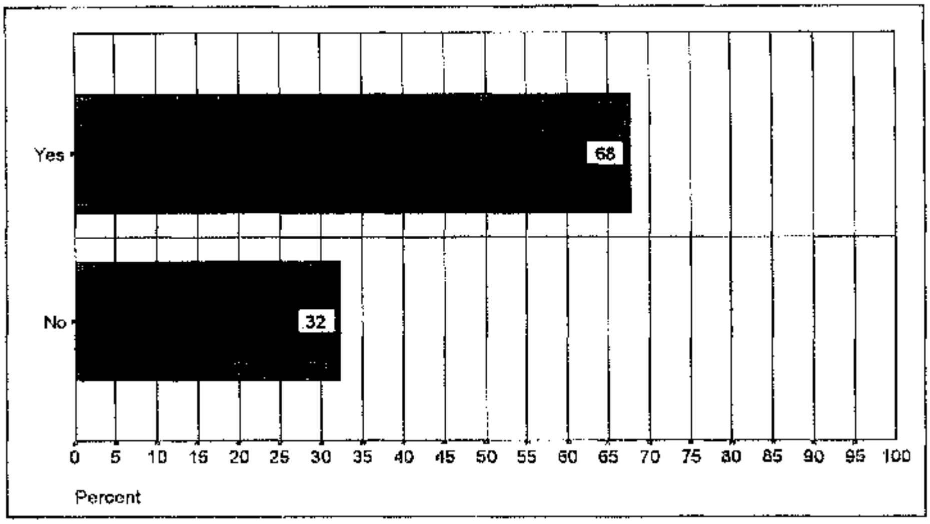
As mentioned in the literature review chapter, one of the most critical aspects of the training process is the evaluation. It is at this stage that the effectiveness of training is determined. A famous model of evaluation is Kirkpatrick's, which includes four stages: a) trainees' reaction to training; b) knowledge, skills and abilities required; c) behaviour change as a result of training; and d) the result of training to organisational objectives. In this respect this section examines Kirkpatrick's model and identifies the barriers based on the response of trainees, supervisors, training personnel officers, and IADTS response.

5.5.1 Trainees Response:

5.5.1.1 Trainees effort in evaluation:

Trainees were asked to indicate whether they had participated in programme evaluation. Figure 5.24 reveals that 68 percent did so, whereas 32 percent did not. One possible reason for trainees failing to evaluate may be that they were eager to depart as soon as the programme concluded.

Figure 5.24: Opinion of trainees on evaluating IAD programme

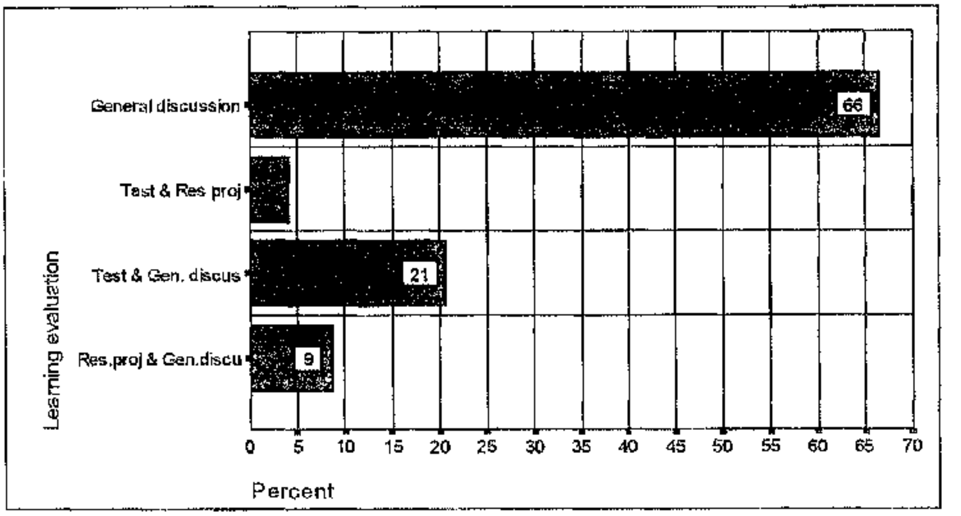


5.5.1.2 Methods of evaluation:

Those who evaluated the programme were requested to indicate what method was adopted. The data revealed that the method most widely used at the reaction level was the questionnaire, which can be expressed, as suggested in the literature review, as a "happy sheet" questionnaire. The "happy sheet" questionnaire is given to all trainees on the first day of the programme and should be given back to the training programme co-ordinator at the end of the training programme. It measures trainees' opinions and attitudes towards the methods of training adopted by IADTS, the content, the duration of the course, and the performance of trainers on a daily basis.

The happy sheet questionnaire provides limited data on effectiveness. Trainees were also asked to indicate the methods used to evaluate their learning. Figure 5.25 displays the methods of trainees' learning evaluation conducted by IADTS.

Figure 5.25: Trainees' response to evaluation of their learning



It was found that the most common approach used to evaluate trainees' learning is general discussion, i.e. group review, which takes place at the end of the training, whereas the least used methods were written test and research projects. The reason behind not adopting the test and research project methods could be that trainees resent them because of negative memories of school examinations (Newby, 1992). Moreover, there may be no connection between passing the test and the trainees' real performance in their work situation for which the training is designed.

Furthermore, IADTS' heavy reliance on group review to evaluate the trainees' learning as a result of training can be flawed, because the outcome of group discussion may not produce a true measure of whether trainees have gained any knowledge from the programme they undertook. Trainees may be prevented from receiving feedback on how their knowledge or skills are developing. Moreover, though there might be a good relationship established between the trainees and IADTS, it may be unlikely the comments will be completely forthright (Rae, 1992).

Trainees were asked further to indicate whether IADTS evaluated the training received by them. All trainees recorded that IADTS did not evaluate their transfer of learning to their job situation. This result is consistent with past literature (Sanderson, 1995). The finding suggests that IADTS finish running their programmes with no real knowledge of how the trainees have improved as a result of training. Therefore, this may result in IADTS having a lack of information on their training effectiveness, which may contribute to a lack of belief in the ability of training to improve employee performance. Also, it may be difficult for IADTS to modify their programme delivery. The following section looks at the obstacles of training evaluation according to trainees' responses.

5.5.1.3 Perceived barriers:

Trainees were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with a list of perceived obstacles to effective evaluation, as shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Trainees' perceived barriers to evaluation

Barriers	Mean	Std Dev
Evaluation is threatening because it discloses IAD performance deficiency	1.99	.54
My rating of training I receive is influenced by previous training programmes I have attended	2.20	.76
I always rate positively when a trainer makes a lot of jokes during the lecture	2.12	.83
I always rate positively when there are a lot of break times during the programme	2.38	.78
Evaluating my learning at the end of a training programme has little value to my supervisor	2.69	.82
I always rate positively when trainers reinforce what I believe regardless of how educational or non-educational the message may be	2.78	.85
Evaluating my learning has little value to me	3.45	.72

1= strongly agree; 2= agree; 3=disagree; 4= strongly disagree

The results on Table 5.9 show that there are three important barriers. First, a good proportion of trainees agree that evaluation is considered as a threat by IADTS, because it could disclose their performance deficiency (mean of 1.99). This could suggest that trainees attempt to provide a good rating in order not to upset their relationship with their training staff. The result of this finding is supported by

Sanderson (1995), who indicates that the problem of the reaction evaluation is that participants often overuse the average or middle position and tend to give positive answers when they in fact feel quite differently. Motives can vary from not wanting to upset a pleasant but ineffective tutor to avoidance of inquest.

The way training is evaluated is affected by the previous training experience that trainees have received (mean of 2.20). This may suggest that if they had a negative experience with the previous programmes attended, they would rate the following programme negatively, and vice versa. This result is in agreement with past literature (Watson, 1988).

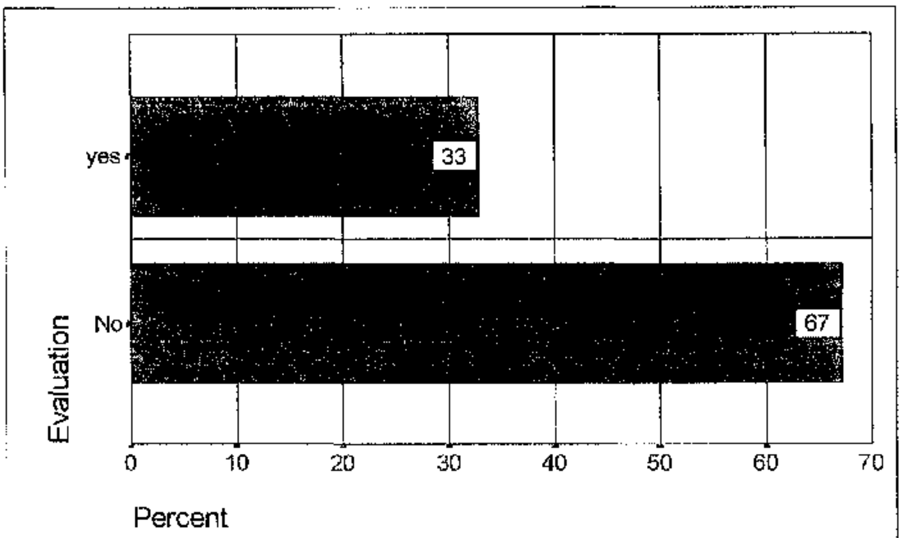
The finding reveals that some trainees would give a good rating to those training programmes which provide a lot of breaks during the programme (mean 2.38). This in turn may suggest that trainees provide a high marking in their evaluation of the programme attended due to the IADTS characteristics, with no relation to the training programme delivery, or that trainers have lost track of the programme objectives. As stated by Swanson (1996), when the trainer becomes the focus of assessment, overwhelming the programme's content, then 'personality' can influence results. It can therefore be inferred that trainees' evaluation on the training programmes attended on the whole may not yield accurate data about their reaction toward the programme.

5.5.2 Supervisor Response:

5.5.2.1 Effort of evaluation:

Figure 5.26 shows that the attempts by supervisors to evaluate the training programme offered to their employees were carried out by only 33 percent.

Figure 5.26: Supervisors' response to evaluation effort



The finding of the previous figure suggest that there is a lack of effort or a failure on the part of supervisors, to find the outcome of the training programme. One possible reason is that supervisors may be reluctant to take on the evaluation as part of their responsibility (Waynne and Clutterbuck, 1991).

5.5.2.2 Methods:

Those who evaluated training were asked to indicate the methods that were used. Table 5.10 shows that written reports by trainees who underwent the training programme were the most widely used method of evaluation. Oral reports and supervisor's personnel observation were the least adopted methods.

Table 5.10: Supervisor's response to methods of evaluation

Item	Frequency	Percent
Written report	15	75.0
Oral report	3	15.0
Observation	2	10.0
Total	20	100

5.5.2.3 Perceived barriers:

Furthermore, supervisors were asked to record their level of agreement in relation to various barriers that affect training evaluation. Table 5.11 shows that the strongest barriers as perceived by supervisors are the difficulty in obtaining support for training evaluation, followed by the failure of trainees to express their views sincerely and the lack of training personnel.

The difficulty in measuring the outcome of training, the lack of a computer, the lack of time, and training evaluation results being considered of little value to top managers, have similar effects on training evaluation. Other barriers mentioned have a weaker effect.

Table 5.11: Supervisors perceived barriers to evaluation

Item	Mean	Std Dev
It is difficult to get the support for training evaluation	2.23	.53
True views or feelings of trainees regarding their assessment of the programme are not expressed	2.26	.54
Evaluation of training is difficult to measure	2.35	.65
No time for training evaluation	2.40	.69
Training evaluation results are of a little value to top management	2.49	.80
Training evaluation is threatening because it could disclose IADTS performance deficiencies	2.53	.59
Training evaluation is threatening because it could disclose training officers' performance deficiencies	2.58	.59

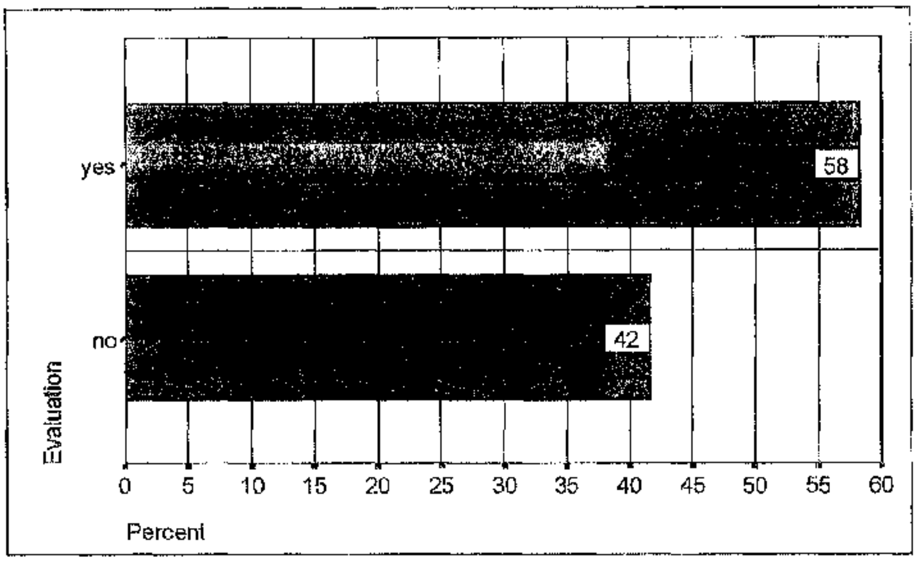
Note: 1=strongly agree; 2=agree; 3=disagree; 4=strongly disagree

5.5.3 Training Personnel Officers Response:

5.5.3.1 Effort of evaluation:

Figure 5.27 shows that 58 percent of training officers indicated that they do evaluate the training programme offered to their employees. From these results it may not be easy to claim that they have responded to the training requirement of their employees, for it could be that training personnel are hesitant to undertake evaluation efforts that might appear to invalidate their work (Bunker and Cohen, 1978).

Figure 5.27: Training personnel officers response to training evaluation



5.5.3.2 Methods:

Those who evaluate training programmes were asked to pinpoint the methods adopted in evaluating the training programme. These methods are listed in Table 5.12. These methods are: questionnaire (35 percent), report (that is, the training participant provides a full report on the usefulness of the training programme they have received (21.1 percent)), and discussion (with the training program participants when they return to their work place) (64.3 percent). It appears that discussion is the most favoured method employed. A plausible explanation is that it may be the easiest and most direct method of communication.

Table 5.12: Training officers methods of training evaluation

Methods	Yes	No	Total
Questionnaire	35.7	64.3	100.0
Report	21.4	78.6	100.0
Discussion	64.3	35.7	100.0

5.5.3.3 Purpose of evaluation:

Table 5.13 shows that the purpose of training evaluation results is restricted to obtaining feedback on the effectiveness of the programme and to providing data to top management on the effectiveness of the training programme, the former being the most important. But these two purposes of evaluation are in and of themselves incomplete because it ignores the evaluation of the participants' learning transfer.

Table 5.13: Purpose of training evaluation

Purpose	Yes	No	Total
To obtain feedback on the overall effectiveness of the programme	42.9	57.1	100.0
To give data on training programme effectiveness to top management	28.6	71.4	100.0
To provide data on training effectiveness to IAD training department	0	100.0	100.0
To reward the trainees for their achievement as a result of training	0	100.0	100.0

It is clear that none of the training personnel provided IADTS with data about the programme effectiveness they received by IAD. This may indicate that there is no communication between IAD and the public sectors to confirm whether training had any effect on the participants performance.

5.5.3.4 Perceived barriers:

Training officers were then asked to indicate their level of agreement in relation to the barriers that affect their implementation of evaluating training programmes for their employees. Table 5.14 shows the results.

Table 5.14: Training officers perceived barriers to training evaluation

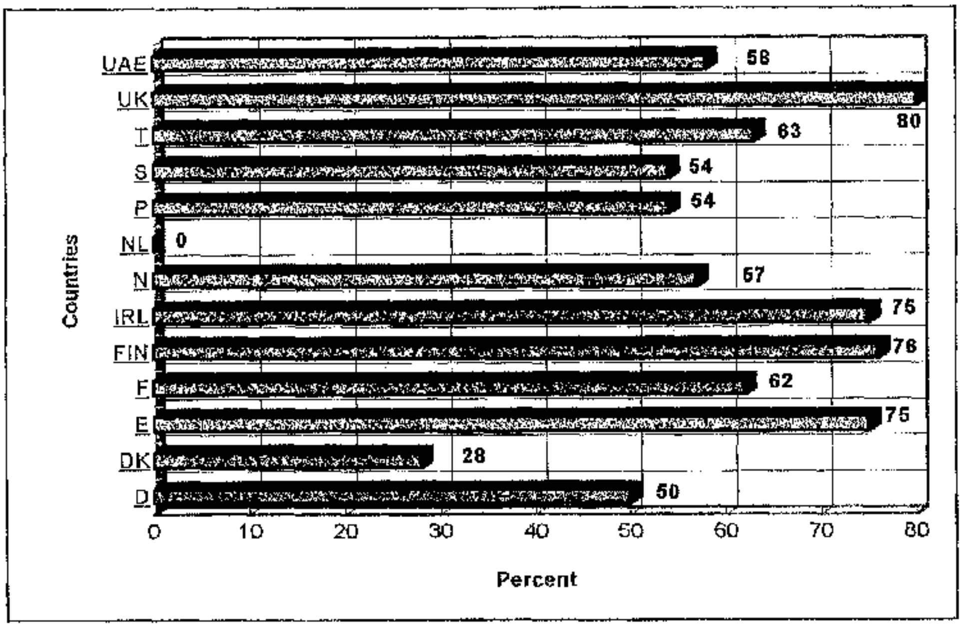
Item	Agree %	Disagree%
No time for evaluation	28.2	70.8
Evaluation of training is not required	29.2	70.8
Training personnel lack skills and knowledge in conducting training evaluation	37.5	62.5
There is no support for evaluation of training	50.0	50.0
Lack of computer to process data	54.2	45.8
The result of training evaluation had little value to trainees	58.3	41.7
True views or feelings of trainees regarding their assessment of the course are not expressed	58.3	41.7
The result of training evaluation has little value to top management	54.2	45.8
Lack of personnel to evaluate training	66.7	33.3
Evaluation of training is difficult to measure	70.8	29.2
Not sure what should be evaluated	75.0	25.0

It is clear from the Table 5.14 that the major factor here is the uncertainty of what to evaluate. The next factors of equal importance are the attitude displayed by top management in treating the result of training evaluation, lack of personnel available to evaluate training, and difficulty in measuring training evaluation. There are two other factors which had some influence, namely, that views of the trainees regarding their assessment are not truly expressed, and the prevailing belief among the trainees is that the results of the training evaluation are of little value. The rest of the factors listed in the above table are of moderate to little important.

5.5.3.5 Comparative analysis:

When comparing the results of training personnel officers responses in relation to the efforts in evaluating the effectiveness of the training programme evaluation with human resource managers. It was found that UAE is in a better situation than some countries (i.e. NL, DK, D, P, S, and N) respectively. In contrast, other countries (i.e. UK, FIN, E, IRL, T, and F) are in a better situation than U.A.E. See Table 5.28.

Figure 5.28: Comparison between UAE and European countries* on evaluating the effectiveness of training programme by percentage



* Germany (D), Denmark (DK), Spain (E), France (F), Finland (FIN), Ireland (IRL), Norway (N), Netherlands (NL), Portugal (P), Sweden (S), Turkey (T), United Kingdom (UK)

In the Arab context, in comparing Jaffar's (1990) study and the present findings, it was found that the training officers in Omani government agencies evaluate training programmes more than the U.A.E (80: 58 percent).

Table 5.15 compares the USA and the UAE in terms of the barriers affecting the evaluation of training, and shows that the two countries only differ in two areas. The widest gap concerns the uncertainty about what to evaluate, with the UAE being exhibiting greater uncertainty. The second is the lack of computer in the UAE for data processing, where the USA does not suffer from this problem

Table 5.15: Comparison between UAE and USA of perceived barriers to evaluation of training by mean

Item	USA	UAE
No time for evaluation	2.78	2.79
Evaluation of training is not required	3.035	2.63
There is no support for evaluation of training	2.675	2.50
Training personnel lack of skills and knowledge in conducting training evaluation	2.465	2.50
Lack of computer to process data	3.009	2.46
Evaluation of training is difficult to measure	2.307	2.25
Lack of personnel to evaluate training	2.228	2.25
Not sure what should be evaluated	2.982	2.12

Note: 1=strongly agree; 2=agree; 3=disagree; 4=strongly disagree

5.5.4 IADTS Response:

5.5.4.1 Efforts of evaluation:

IADTS were requested to indicate whether they evaluate the training programmes they provide. The result of the interview indicate that all eight IADTS evaluate programme effectiveness.

5.5.4.2 Methods

IADTS were requested to indicate whether training programmes were evaluated with reference to any of the following criteria's: reaction, learning, behaviour, and result. An analysis of the responses indicates that two levels of evaluation are conducted: reaction and learning level. The other levels of evaluation, intermediate level and ultimate level were not carried out. IADTS were also requested to indicate the methods that they applied when evaluating their training programme effectiveness at the level they indicated. All IADTS stated that they always use a self-completed questionnaire to measure participants' reaction in relation to the training they received. This is given to the participants at the beginning of the course and submitted on the last day to the programme co-ordinator. When it comes to measuring trainee learning as a result of training, basically two methods of learning evaluation were adopted, namely, research project and group discussion. One trainer mentioned that he sometimes uses a written test to measure participants' learning. This result in consistent with the trainees' response.

The training evaluation methods conducted by IADTS seem to be ineffective, because there are no pre-tests and little TNA conducted. IADTS would thus have a difficulty differentiating between participants' skills and knowledge before and after the end of the programme, making it difficult for IADTS to tell whether they have succeeded, or failed. More importantly, it can be said that it is possible that participants could have achieved the objectives before training. As indicated by Krein and Weldon (1994) if a pre-test is not administered, we will miss the possibility that participants could have achieved the objectives prior to training.

As mentioned earlier, IADTS ignores levels 3 and 4 of evaluation, a fact which strongly suggests that IADTS may not be able to prove the value of training. This may lead to the continuation of ineffective programmes, since the real impact will not appear until some time after the programme ends. Therefore, assessing the participants' performance in the work place may be required. The reason for conducting only level 1 and 2 might be because the outcome of these two levels are easy to measure, and most trainers want the simplest possible method to evaluate programme effectiveness (Hoyle,1984); and Bernthal, 1995).

5.5.4.3 Purpose of evaluation:

According to the Goldstein (1993) and Nadler (1994), the evaluation phase provides the necessary feedback required to continually modify and improve programme content and training outcome. Therefore, IADTS were asked to indicate the purposes of data collected from training evaluation. Their answers are summarised below:

1.To eliminate a non effective programme

2.To modify and plan for a future programme

3.To improve methods of training

4.To evaluate the trainer performance

Earlier findings indicated that IADTS only conducted programme evaluation at the end of a training programme. This may suggest that IADTS used data to make decisions on the effectiveness of their training programme based on the data collected at the end of the programmes only. The decision-making on the effectiveness of the training programme can thus be a misleading guide in improving the quality of the training programme provided to the public sector, because IADTS have neglected the evaluation of participants' training transfer in their work place. A positive reaction towards learning in the training programme does not guarantee that participants can improve their work performance. This finding is in general agreement with Atiyyah (1991), who found that evaluation methods in Arab institutes are highly subjective and that their results have limited advantages for improving ongoing programmes or for designing new programmes. This also is in agreement with the hypothesis of Russ and Zenger (1985) who postulated that subjective reports of participants' feelings about training may help the training leader, but will be of little value in deciding whether the training had any affect on the participants' on-the-job performance. Therefore, it can be stated that the linkage between the evaluation function and decision making process in programme planning tends to be weak. Programme evaluation should provide data which help the decision-maker to answer questions about the nature and consequences of a programme, which reduce the uncertainty of decision making, and which shape the way decision-makers think about a programme (Edward, 1981).

5.6 Analysis of training staff competence:

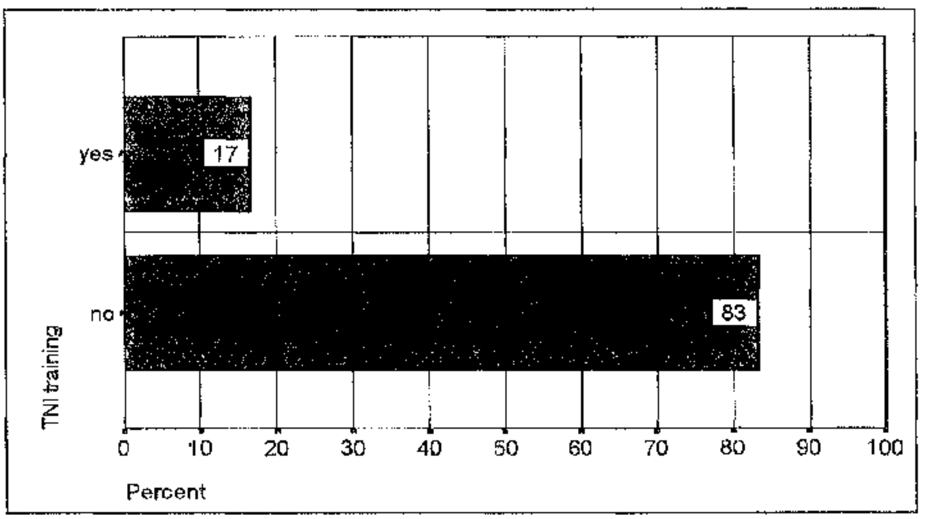
This section investigates the abilities of training personnel officers and IADTS in carrying out the task of TNA and evaluation.

5.6.1 Training personnel Response:

5.6.1.1 Training

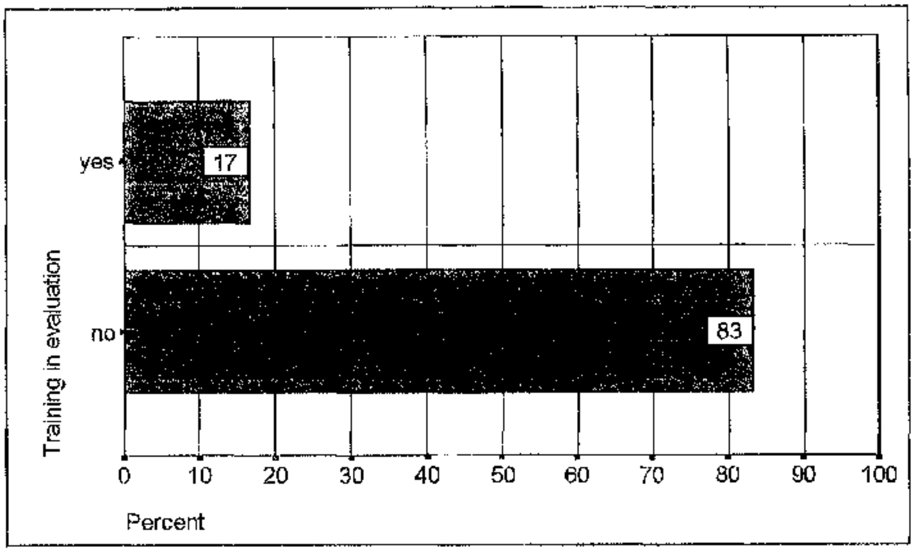
Respondents were asked to declare whether they have received training in conducting training needs identification. The results in Figure 5.29 shows that the majority of respondents (83 percent) have not received training. This would lend support to the belief that the task of TNA was not executed effectively. This may explain why 50 percent of the training officers failed to carry out TNA.

Figure 5.29: Training of training officers in TNA



Training officers were also asked to indicate whether they have received training in training evaluation. Figure 5.30 revealed that most of the trainer officers (83 percent) had not received training such training. It is therefore expected that the accuracy of training evaluation falls short.

Figure 5.30: Training of training officers in evaluation



5.6.1.2 Skills and Knowledge

Training officers' perceptions regarding their knowledge and abilities regarding to TNA and evaluation were investigated (see table 5.16 for results).

Table 5.16: Training personnel officers Responses to Competence:

Item	Agree %	Disagree %
Trainees work motivation should be taken into account when conducting TNA	25.0	75.0
I can conduct a job analysis	33.3	66.7
I can design a questionnaire which elicits data of training needs	37.5	62.5
I can design a questionnaire which measure training effectiveness	37.5	62.5
I can analyse training needs to ensure that they are classified properly, and linked to the right training solution	37.5	62.5
I can formulate training objectives	50.0	50.0
I can report evaluation results in terms that are meaningful to the intended audience	50.0	50.0
I can conduct an interview to elicit data on training outcome assessment	60.8	39.1
I can use various statistical tools to analyse the evaluation result	66.7	29.2
I can report information on training needs that are meaningful to the intended audience	70.8	29.9

The first statement in Table 5.16 indicates that respondents disagree that when conducting training needs identification of employees, motivation should be taken into consideration during the process of TNA (75 percent). This may confirm that training officers conclude incorrectly that an employee requires training, while employees may know how to do a particular job and yet not actually do it because they may not be rewarded for performing well in their organisation. It is possible then that employees attend a programme irrelevant to their training needs. This is confirmed by Peterson (1994): that is, if training staff disregard the motivation factor at any stage of the training needs analysis process, they run the serious risk of producing more frustration than helpful training.

A good portion of training officers admit that they can't design an assessment questionnaire which measures training effectiveness (62.5 percent). It can be inferred here that training officers lack the ability and knowledge in designing a questionnaire that measures the effectiveness of the training.

Only half of the training officers (50 percent) feel that they can formulate training objectives. This may suggest that training officers are not able to specify the learning required for their employees, nor the performance standard that should be reached by their employees. Furthermore, York (1993), stated that if training objectives are not defined in terms of measurable performance, then obviously there is no basis for assessment of achievement.

Table 5.16 shows that a good number of training officers (62.5 percent) are not able to develop a questionnaire that can be used to elicit data about the employees' training needs. This may indicate that the training officers do not know what to include in the questionnaire in order to obtain the necessary data about the employees' training needs.

Nowack (1991) mentions that in order to use the questionnaire as a method for gathering training needs identification, it should be comprised of three important sections include the following: questions on employees' attitudes toward their job; questions on the importance and proficiency of employees in performing their job; and questions on such demographics as job positions, location, years in the organisation, and time in the current position.

It is obvious from Table 5.16 that training officers lack ability in analysing needs to ensure they are classified properly and linked to the right training solution (62.5 percent). This may confirm that they would be unable to distinguish between training solutions and other alternative solutions for employees' performance deficiency, since the causes of employees' performance deficiency are not necessarily due to lack of training.

5.6.2 IADTS Response:

5.6.2.1: Training

IADTS were asked to indicate whether they have received training in the areas of TNA and evaluation. Six out of eight reported that they have received training. Further questions were asked of these six to discover the extent to which the training they received was effective. Two out of six reported that the training was not effective because the course was basically too general and did not explain various methods of conducting TNA and evaluation. Their statement is supported by Dzimbiri (1995) who concludes that many courses which seek to prepare new trainers are heavy on theory and light on practice. Trainers come out of such courses knowledgeable about the systematic approach to training but nervous about their ability to implement it.

5.6.2.2: Skills and knowledge:

Bernthal (1995) argues that many trainers who conducted evaluation do not have the skills for, nor even the knowledge about the training topic. With this in mind, IADTS were probed to find out their perceptions of their ability to conduct training needs identification and evaluation. The findings are summarised in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 : IADTS Responses to Competence

Item	Agree	Disagree
I can conduct a job analysis to gather training needs of employees	6	2
I can analyse training needs and ensure that they are classified properly and linked to the right training solution	7	2
I can develop a questionnaire to meet information-gathering needs	6	2
I can conduct an interview to gather data about training programme effectiveness	6	2
I can develop an assessment questionnaire to gather data about training programme effectiveness	6	2
I can use various statistical tools to analyse the evaluation result	6	2
I can develop a written test to assess participant's performance as a result of training	7	1

It appears from the above table that the majority of IADTS possess some ability in conducting training needs identification and evaluation.

5.6.2.3: IADTS perceived barriers to TNA and evaluation:

As a follow up, IADTS were asked to indicate the obstacles they believe affect the process of conducting TNA and evaluation. In order to simplify the results of this question, and due both to the limited number of trainers interviewed and to the similarities of their responses, regarding these constraints, the researcher has divided those obstacles into two categories external and internal constraints.

5.6.2.3.1 A. External constraints:

The majority of respondents stated that there is a lack of co-operation with the public sector's top decision-makers. This may indicate that IADTS have difficulty in gaining access to organisational information. It could be that IADTS' presence in the public organisation produces resentment because sensitive data about the organisation's performance standards can be revealed through training analysis. Decision-makers may be reluctant to provide IADTS with such information. This speculation is supported by Harrison (1995) who demonstrated that sensitive information can be uncovered during the process of job training analysis: motivation, disciplines and supervision problems; misunderstandings caused by ill-defined responsibilities; or conflict and inefficiency arising from inappropriate organisation structures or culture. Further support comes from Sherwood and Fisher (1984) who point out that many training institutions lack a close working relationship with client organisations, and consequently provide irrelevant training activities.

Moreover, respondents mentioned that top officials in the government sectors are not aware of the importance of training. This may indicate that top officials do not understand the goals and benefits of the TNA and evaluation, lending further proof to the general lack of co-operation between IAD and the public sectors.

The majority of trainers stated that the critical factor that inhibits conducting training needs assessment is that participants' supervisors and training personnel officers lack competence in carrying out training needs assessment. Trainers reported that the evaluation of training has less value to the participants' supervisors' and decision makers. This may reflect Sims' (1993) argument that training evaluation in governmental organisations often yields results which are of little value to decision-makers. It can be inferred that IADTS reliance only on reaction and learning level evaluation approaches may not provide sufficient information about the overall effectiveness of their programmes to the decision-makers in the public sectors. It could thus be concluded that data collected according to the previous methods is not important to the decision makers in the public sectors.

Moreover, trainers stated that it is difficult to isolate and prove the outcome of training because of other variables, such as participants' motivation to apply what they learned and the prevalent organisational climate, which includes factors such as participants' support by their supervisors, lack of reinforcement in the participants' job and the failure to link rewards with newly acquired knowledge and skills on the job. This indicates that when it comes to training evaluation the organisational environment should be taken into consideration (Tracy and Tews, 1995).

In consequence, IADTS may not be able to prove whether the improvement in participants' performance on their job resulted from the training they received or from other factors. IADTS reported that evaluation of a training programme is difficult to measure. This may be because the earlier findings indicated that IADTS did not participate in identifying participants' training needs prior to attending the programme. This suggest that IADTS provide training programmes without a clear view of participants training needs. Therefore, the desired outcome is not addressed, or is at best, unclear. This could make it difficult for IADTS to establish a standard which can be translated into indicators that can measure improvement. This statement can be supported by Sim (1993) who asserts that evaluation of training programmes conducted within agencies must focus on the direct outcomes of that training behaviour change.

The findings related to training objective formulation confirms that the objectives of a training programme produced by IADTS are not discussed with participants or their supervisors, which makes the evaluation more difficult. According to Robert (1990), when the objectives are discussed and agreed with organisations and participants before the training is conducted, and if they are defined in terms that can be measured, the process of evaluation is greatly simplified.

5.6.2.3.2: Internal constraints:

All members of IADTS stated that they do not have time to go to each government organisation to conduct training needs identification and evaluation. IADTS stated that evaluating a training programme requires time to collect data, analyse it, and report the results to the decision maker of IAD. That is why levels 3 and 4 of evaluation are ignored. Trainers reported two important explanations for this. First, they perform functions other than training. Table 5.18 displays the functions and percentages of time allocation for each IADTS member.

Table 5.18: Analysis of IADTS activities and time allocation

Trainers / Activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Mean
Training	40	90	65	40	60	30	40	60	53.13
Research	20	0	35	10	20	10	25	20	17.50
Consultation	40	0	0	50	20	60	35	20	28.12
Other	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.25
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The above table shows that the training function predominates (53.13 percent) over research and consultation. The majority of IADTS commented that the main objectives of establishing IAD are training, consultation, and research, but the time spent on the last two activities has an effect on the way the training programme is delivered. They pointed out that time is considered to be a constraint in TNA and in evaluating the effectiveness of programme they delivered to the public sectors.

IADTS pointed out that IAD is understaffed. For these reasons tracing training programme graduates to their work place to evaluate the training is time-consuming. A similar statement is indicated by Shelton and Alliger(1993) that one reason why organisations shy away from level 4 evaluation in particular is because it is more difficult and time-consuming.

Another important factor is a lack of reward or incentive for IADTS to provide a good training programme which relates to participants' training needs. Therefore, it can be safely stated that IADTS do not bother, or are not motivated, to identify the areas in which the participants require training. Nor do they evaluate programme effectiveness, particularly on levels 3 and 4. This is consistent with Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory which proposes that an individual will be more motivated if he or she perceives that his or her efforts will lead to valued rewards.

Finally, the majority of IADTS stated that they do not have the authority to go to the public sector to identify participants' training needs and evaluate the training programme they provide to the public sectors. This may prevent the trainers from meeting the key decision-makers, and participants in the public sectors to discuss the area of training required. As indicated by Peterson (1994), the most important issue is to gain definite commitment from the organisation or work group to do the work necessary for planning and implementing the training needs analysis process.

5.7 Summary:

This chapter presented and generally discussed the results of the 'field research' designed to explore the current status of the 'training process' in particular to TNA, objective development, trainees selection and evaluation, within the UAE public sector. In addition, where possible, results were compared with 'international' research, and the literature review.

Quite clearly there was a need to investigate the situation regarding the effectiveness and efficiency of the 'training process' within the UAE. The literature review; the country public sector profile; and considerations regarding research design for this study; all indicated that there should be a need to investigate training process, the research emphatically proved the need. Given the current status of training, it's important, and the need to act rapidly in an over changing environment (McCalman and Paton, 1992; Boddy and Paton, 1998), what should be done?; can the UAE recover the situation; are there lessons for other developing economies. These and many other questions will be addressed with the final chapter: conclusion and recommendation.

Chapter Six

Conclusion and Recommendation

6.1 Introduction:

This chapter brings to a conclusion the research into the status, procedures and policy considerations *relating* to the 'training process' within the UAE. The aim is to present conclusions regarding the actual practice and obstacles associated with training needs assessment (TNA); developing training objectives; selecting trainees; and training evaluation in the public sector of the UAE. In addition, it is hoped to develop general conclusions regarding the training process in similar economies. Finally, recommendations, along with future research needs, related to the topic of the study will be highlighted and implementation considerations presented.

6.2 Actual Practice:

Let us first consider the conclusions regarding the actual practice adopted within the UAE, and where appropriate relate them to the comparative research.

6.2.1 Training Needs Assessment Domain:

The study revealed that UAE government organisations typically pursue training programmes with less comprehensive effort being made to TNA. This is inconsistent with Durra (1991) study. There is also a lack of effort by training officers, supervisors and IADTS to identify/discuss the trainees' training needs before attending the programme. This is consistent with past literature (Waheeduzzaman, 1988, Willoughby, 1985). In fact, training needs have been taken for granted; there is no evidence that training needs are identified in relation to the task, the knowledge, or the skills to be performed after training. Likewise, there is an absence of any specification of the organisations' objectives in the process of TNA, which clearly indicates IAD's lack of research on the training needs of the government organisation. This is consistent with past literature (Al-Faleh, 1987; Hayes and Pulparampil, 1989; Attiyah, 1991).

A comparative finding revealed that the involvement in TNA process, by training officers in the European and Jordanian government organisations, is far higher than that of the UAE. On the other hand the finding revealed that the TNA participation of training officers in the UAE tends to be slightly higher than the USA government organisations. See Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Comparative result of training officers on conducting TNA between UAE and other countries by percentages

Countries	Percentage
Netherlands	100
France	88
Spain	80
Finland	77
Sweden	77
Jordan	75
United Kingdom	74
Norway	65
Portugal	62
Ireland	58
Turkey	56
Germany	51
Denmark	50
UAE	17
United State of America	13

However, this study indicates that the methods of data collection adopted by various countries tends to be different from that the of UAE. Table 6.2 shows the different methods of TNA that are most frequently used by training officers in the UAE and other countries.

Table 6.2: Comparative result of the most popular methods of TNA used by training officers of UAE and other countries

Countries	Methods
Denmark	Through training audits
France	Line management request
Finland	Line management request
Germany	Performance appraisal
Jordan	Observation of the trainees
Kuwait	Supervisors of the trainees
Ireland	Line management request
Netherlands	Training audit and line management request
Norway	Business/Service plan
Oman	Departmental contact
Turkey	Line management request
Portugal	Through training audit
Spain	Line management request
Sweden	Line management request
UAE	Brochure of IAD training programme and questionnaire completed by head department
United Kingdom	Performance appraisal
United State of America	Employees' survey

The study shows that government organisations highly depend on the brochure of IAD to determine the trainees' training needs. Thus, it is not surprising that only a minority of trainees expressed that training is to a great extent related to their training needs, and the majority have difficulty in applying what they have learnt from the programme they received. The UAE is, at best, misleading itself into believing that it knows what should, and is, happening in this area.

The research shows that there is a positive relationship between the simplicity of training application to trainee's job situations, and in the effort of discussing training requirement prior trainees attending a programme. Also, it was found that there is a positive relationship between the extent that training programmes related to the trainees' training needs and the simplicity of applying what was learned from the programme to the job situation of trainees.

6.2.2 Training Programme Objectives Development Domain:

Since the research findings revealed that there is no evidence that IADTS were involved in TNA, one can question how programme objectives of IAD were in fact determined. The answer provided by the interview and findings of IADTS indicates that the determination of programmes objectives were largely based on IADTS experience and previous programme syllabus. This is consistent with Waheeduzzaman's

(1988) study. This raises the question, whether the programmes are of value at all?, and are IADTS competent, finally does any one care?.

6.2.3 Trainees Selection Methods Domain:

Surveys of the trainees and interviews with IADTS make it clear that UAE government agencies are solely responsible for trainees selection to attend the programme provided by IAD, with no participation by IADTS. This is consistent with Waheeduzzaman (1988) study. Also, the majority of trainees indicated that the decision-making process regarding selection was based on personal desire, and their supervisors' recommendations. This is in accordance with Bukhary-Haddad's (1986) study. Consequently, it appears from the finding that trainees were admitted to IAD without references to their experience, qualification, and grade levels. This is consistent with Al-Rubaian's (1991) study.

6.2.4 Training Evaluation Domain:

It is evident from the research findings that government agencies and IAD do not have an efficient evaluation system. Most of evaluation, in terms of the Kirkpatrick model, are done at the reaction and learning levels. No attempts were made by government agencies or the IAD to evaluate the relevancy, adequacy, and usefulness of training programmes with references to actual job performance and impact on organisational objectives. This is consistent with Waheeduzzaman's (1988) study. The quality assessment of the training carried out was based only on the certificate attendance, and the effectiveness of the programme was arrived at mostly on the basis of the discussion with trainees at the end of the programme.

The comparative finding shows that the percentage of UAE training officers involvement in evaluation tends to be higher than some of the European countries. See Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Comparative result of the effort of evaluating the effectiveness of training programme between UAE training officers and other countries by percentage

Countries	Percentage
United Kingdom	80
Finland	76
Ireland	75
Spain	75
Turkey	63
France	62
UAE	58
Norway	57
Sweden	54
Portugal	54
United State of America	53
Germany	50
Denmark	28
Netherlands	0

The study further shows that the methods of evaluation adopted by UAE training officers tend to be similar to that of other countries. See Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Comparative result of most popular methods of evaluation used by UAE training officers and other countries

Countries	Methods
Denmark	Informal feedback from trainees
France	Formal evaluation immediately after training
Finland	Informal feedback from trainees
Germany	Informal feedback from trainees
Ireland	Informal feedback from trainees and line manager
Netherlands	Informal feedback from line manager and formal evaluation some months after training
Norway	Informal feedback trainees
Turkey	Formal evaluation immediately after training and formal evaluation some months after training
Oman	Consulting training programme organiser immediately after training.
Portugal	Informal feedback from trainees and line manager
Spain	Informal feedback from trainees and line manager
Sweden	Informal feedback from trainees
United Kingdom	Informal feedback from trainees
United State of America	Immediately after training
UAE	Discussion with trainees immediately after training.

The study findings show that the most common reason for gathering data relating to evaluation, given by the training officers, is to obtain feedback on the overall effectiveness of training evaluation. This is inconsistent with Erthal's (1993) study. Furthermore, the finding indicates that IADTS use that result of evaluation for four purposes: to eliminate non-effective programmes, to modify and plan for future programmes, to improve methods of training, and to evaluate the trainers' performance. There appears to be little evidence to the claims regarding the use of evaluation is matched by good practice within the workplace.

6.3 Barriers of the Domains:

- The findings reveal that there is insufficient number of training staff in the government agencies and IAD to cover the training function, and insufficient financial resource allocated to the government agency training department and IAD. The majority of training officers and IADTS carry out activities other than training, leaving little time to concentrate on the training process. This is consistent with Jaaffar's (1990) study and past literature.

- The study shows that government organisations in the UAE suffer from a shortage of professional competent training officers. This is consistent with Jaaffar's study (1990). This due to the fact that the majority of the training officers have not received any training in the areas of TNA and evaluation, and that training officers lack skill and knowledge in conducting TNA and evaluation.

- The performance appraisal system does not produce reliable data on training needs of trainees due to an in-adequate design of the performance appraisal format. This is consistent with past literature (Al-gabani, 1988; Swan, 1991; Bee and Bee, 1994; Robert, 1995). The supervisors' lack of skills and knowledge in conducting performance appraisal, is a factor, as supported by past literature (Allan, 1992; Harrison, 1995). And the performance appraisal is influenced by personal ties with top officials in the trainees' organisations.

- The study shows that job descriptions are an inadequate source of data for trainees' training requirement, this is due to the fact that the majority of job descriptions are not related to their job performance, and a good proportion of trainees do not have a job description. This is in agreement with past literature (Algabbani, 1989; Jaffar, 1990; Nadler and Nadler, 1994).

- Supervisors and training officers perceive that trainees feel uncomfortable when presented with questions that disclose their performance deficiency, as it may have a negative impact on their position, and that trainees can't describe accurately the area in which they require training. This contradicts the trainee's perceptions which suggest that the majority of trainees can tell the area in which they require training, and they do not feel uncomfortable when presented with questions that discloses their performance deficiencies.

- It is evident from the study that the training objectives were not based on TNA, nor was it specified what the trainees would be expected to be able to do at the end of the programme. This is in consistent with past literature (Buckley and Caple, 1995). Consequently, training officers and IADTS do not take the necessary steps to ensure that specific evaluation criteria which measure job performance improvement exist.

- IADTS and training officers tend to be ineffective in their application of evaluation. This is because training evaluation has never really gone beyond reaction and learning levels; therefore, ministry training officers and IADTS do not know exactly how the programme effects on the organisational and trainees performance. This is a clear indication of the inability of training officers and IADTS to determine the value of training programs in terms of individual and organisational outcomes. This is in agreement with past literature (Gray, 1997). Thus, the forms of evaluation adopted do not provide a complete answer to what training can do for government organisations and for improving the work performance of the trainees.

- The study reveals that the majority of training officers and supervisors admit that they are not sure what should be evaluated, they find evaluation difficult to measure, and claim they lack of personnel. They feel the results of evaluation have little value to the organisations top management and trainees, that there is a lack of computers to process data, and finally that there is no general support for evaluation. The comparative result shows that the most important barriers of evaluation perceived by UAE training officers tend be different from that perceived by USA and Oman training officers. See Table 6.5.

Table 6.5 : Comparative result of the most important barriers to training evaluation among countries

Country	BARRIERS
United State of America	Lack of standards
Oman	Difficulty in measuring performance improvement
UAE	Not sure what should be evaluated

- The true views or feelings of trainees regarding their assessment of the course are not expressed. This is due to the fact that trainees perceive evaluation as being threatening to IADTS because it discloses IADTS performance deficiency, and that assessment of training is influenced by the previous training programmes they have attended. Trainees would rate positively trainers who entertains and offers a lot of break times during the programme.

- The study suggests that the trainees selection process is influenced by trainees' personal ties with their supervisors. This is in agreement with past literature (Reily and Clark, 1990). Also, there were no established criteria, or prerequisites, established regarding who should attend, with the result that the trainees in the classroom differ in their profiles (e.g. educational, grade, and experience).

- The finding reveals that the majority of IADTS perceive the evaluation of training transfer is difficult to measure, since learning transfer by trainees is affected by their motivation to transfer; by a lack of reinforcement in the work place; and by the failure to link the reward with newly acquired knowledge and skills on the job.

- The study shows that reward packages did not recognise the need to ensure the delivery and efficient training. Therefore, ministry and IAD tend to ignore the importance of training process.
- The study reveals that IADTS are at too low a level of authority to gain access to the trainees' organisations in order to identify training needs and to evaluate the programmes.

In summary, the status accorded to public sector training process with the UAE falls short of that required to ensure the effective implementation of training policies and procedures. Existing practices fail to meet even minimum standards of best practice. In developing economies, as we have seen from the literature review, it is essential to link socio-economic objectives with the means of ensuring their successful fulfilment.

It is therefore necessary to ensure that the economies 'human resource', especially those charged by government with the task of accomplishing the 'new future', is prepared to meet the challenges and manage the change. The UAE Public sector, including IAD, could do much more to ensure the knowledge and skills base is prepared.

6.4 Recommendation:

On the basis of the aforementioned conclusions, the following recommendations are offered as a guide to reform the training process, particularly with regard to TNA, trainees' selection, training objectives development, and evaluation. They address both what must be done and how it should be implemented.

6.4.1 What should be done?:

- Training programmes provided to the trainees should be rooted in a careful identification of training needs so that there will be a linkage between training and the job requirement. IAD should go beyond sending their list of training programmes to the public sectors as tools for gathering the training needs. There are several methods of TNA in the training literature, and both IAD and the government organisation should be involved in choosing the appropriate procedure for TNA. And it is vital to develop a method of TNA which provides accurate, valid, and reliable information about the requirement of training for the organisations.

- Programme objectives development should be based on TNA information. And IADTS should ensure that objectives clearly specify the learning required, and the standard sought by the trainees, which can be accomplished through identifying the most important job function performed by the trainees, so that the objectives, and the curriculum taught in the programme, are related to the trainees' training needs.

- Trainee selection should be formalised by IAD and government organisations, with the aim to establish standardised criteria in selecting trainees who need training for improving their capability and the organisation. This would make the trainees homogenous in their background and training needs in the classroom.

- The effects of training programmes on the trainees' job performance and their effectiveness in accomplishing organisational objectives should be evaluated. IADTS and training officers should initiate appropriate measures that sufficiently indicate the relevancy, adequacy, and usefulness of training in improving the trainees' job performance and meeting the organisational objectives.

- Aggregate evaluation results should be shared with the trainees' organisation and IAD to determine the benefit of training in improving the performance of trainees and organisation, to ensure improved training outcome, and to reduce the uncertainty on decision-making about the effectiveness of the programme.

- To overcome trainees' bias in relation to their feeling toward programme evaluation, it could be suggested that during the time of evaluation IADTS should not be present. Evaluation data should be presented in a way that makes it useful rather than threatening. One way of doing that is clearly informing the participants of the purpose of evaluation and the importance of their honesty in their evaluation.

- Measuring changes in trainees' performance and knowledge with reference to the Kirkpatrick model as a method of evaluating training is of value. But training officers and IADTS should be aware of the limitations of this approach. Because positive reaction by trainees at the end of the programme does not predict how well trainees are able to perform trained tasks.

To summarise, the UAE possibly through the IAD, would be advised to:

1. Adopt a training policy and associated procedures for all ministries; an integrated approach.
2. Raise the training profile and integrate training policy with governmental objectives.
3. Act upon the obvious skills shortages identified by this study; ' train the trainers and personnel professionals'.

However, as this study has shown, this would require both system and cultural change. So one must consider how best to manage such change, one which would impact upon all governmental agencies. The next section attempts to address this issue.

6.4.2 How it should be implemented?:

- Training officers should be provided with adequate training to enhance their skills and knowledge and to maximise their ability in the training programme design process, through the use of a programme called "training of trainers".

- An increase of budget allocation to IAD and government agencies should be provided, in order to recruit additional training staff, who possess expertise in the training process.

- More effective communication should be established between government organisations and IAD to promote the process of TNA, training programme objectives development, trainees selection methods, and evaluation.

- Management in the government organisation should recognise the importance of the training process, so that the training officers and IADTS have a credibility in their training task.

- A reward system should be establish by the trainees organisations and IAD. Some forms of recognition and bonus could be administered to training officers and IADTS, for their mastering the training process and programme design.

To summarise, when faced by such an immense management of change project, it is important to take a holistic view of the situation (McCalman, and Paton, 1992). Firstly, senior management must 'buy' the idea and be seen to fully support the venture (Kanter, 1983, 1989). Secondly, they must communicate and lead the 'transformation' (Pascale, 1994). Thirdly, change agents must be identified, trained and charged with ensuring the change occurs (Kanter, 1983; Boddy and Paton, 1998). Fourthly, stakeholders must be involved in the design and implementation of the 'new proposal' (McCalman and Paton, 1992).

Quite clearly additional research would be required to clarify both training specific and policy related issues. The following section deals with suggestions for further research. However, an outline plan of action regarding the above detailed change process would follow the path outlined below:

1. Presentation, in 'management action' format, of this study to IAD directorate. They have signalled there willingness to act.
2. IAD directorate, along with the author, present a detail plan of action to the 'ministries'.
3. A project team, possibly with the author as the 'change agent', finalised a plan for change, while mobilising support and gaining resource commitment.
4. The team would consist of 'key players' from IAD and ministries. They would initially action the 'research outlined below and commission

appropriate 'staff training'. They would probably use an 'action vehicle' to drive the change. For example, a governmental/ministerial sponsored conference on the subject of 'training', followed by action focus workshops.

5. The team would ensure liaison between policy formulating ministries and the IAD. Policy driven training would be the aim.

6. . . . . and so on.

Given the enormity of the task at hand, the author, can at this stage, only indicate a likely course of action. To go any further is well outwith the scope of this study. At present the author has identified and is briefing potential 'product champions'. The communication has commenced.

6.5 Suggestion for further research:

Based on the findings of this study, there is a need for further research on the following related topics:

6.5.1. Training related:

- Research should be conducted to investigate the relationship between the evaluation of the effectiveness of the training programme at the reaction and job performance levels.

- Research should be conducted to investigate the way in which learning should be delivered in relation to both employee and organisational learning styles.

- Research should be conducted to investigate the preferable methods of TNA, trainee selection, and training evaluation within the public sector, and to identify the reasons behind the preference of those methods.

- Comparative research on the practice of training between public and private sector should be conducted to find out whether there is a difference between them in relation to the practice and barriers of training.

This study has answered many of the questions relating to the delivery of effective training within the UAE public sector. The above recommendation made only to ensure clearly when considering the implementation of 'new procedures'. They should be considered in light of the following section defining strategic requirement.

6.5.2 Strategic implications:

Clearly 'training process' improvement can only be implemented, they are given appropriate senior management support and treated in a strategic manner. Further research would assist in clarifying the existing situation:

1. Research should be conducted to investigate the format and nature of any future government training policy statement, and to what extent the policy should define the roles of training officers, supervisors, senior management, and outside training providers.

2. On the grounds that the process of TNA investigates the needs of training at the organisational level, and training evaluation investigate the extent to which the training has met the organisations' objectives, research should be conducted to examine whether there are clear, established, and integrated objectives for each ministry.

3. Since evaluation attempts to measure the change of the tasks performed by trainees, research should be conducted to investigate the attitudes toward the changes of work procedures in the government organisations. Because, the evaluation of training without transferring the training to the job lacks validity.

As seen by the recommendations made previously, it is necessary to integrate the training process with governmental and tactical objectives. However to accomplish this one must firstly establish exactly where one is going (further research point (2) above), and how best accomplish the transfer objectives into reality (further research point 1 and 2).

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APPENDICES

Trainees' Questionnaire

Section One

Biographical Data:

Please tick one of the boxes provided where approporiate:

1. Age:

less than 25 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-39 ☐
40-44 ☐ 45-49 ☐ 50 and over ☐

2. What is your position grade? ____________

3.Years in current job:

less than 5 ☐ 5-9 ☐ 10-14 ☐ 15 and over ☐

4. What is your highest educational level?

1. Elementary ☐
2. Intermediate ☐
3. High school ☐
4. Bachelors ☐
5. Masters ☐
6. Ph.D. ☐
7. Other, Please specify:

____

____

Section Two

Training Needs Assessment :

5.Did your supervisor discuss your training needs programme with you before attending the programme?

Yes ☐ No ☐

6.To what extent do you think the training programme was related to your training needs?

To a great extent	To some extent	To a little extent	Not at all	I don't know
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. How easy was it for you to apply what was learned from the programme into your job place?

Very easy	Quite easy	Quite difficult	Very difficult	I don't know
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Please indicate the extent with which you agree with the following statements:

	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
1	I can tell the areas that I need training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2	I feel uncomfortable when a trainer asks me to pinpoint my performance weakness	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3	Completing a questionnaire by myself to identify my training needs can be difficult because of the ambiguity of the questions and the terminology.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

9. When was the last time your performance was appraised?

1. Less than 12 months ago ❑
2. More than 12 months ago ❑
3. Other:______________________________________

10. Were you recommended for specific training at your last appraisal?

Yes ❑ No ❑

11. Is the performance appraisal kept confidential? Yes ❑ No ❑

12. To what extent do you agree that employees' performance appraisal depends heavily on personal ties rather than on actual employees' performance in your organisation.

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

13. Is there a written job description that explains your duties and responsibilities in your present job?

Yes❑ No ❑

14. If, yes, to what extent is your written job description related to what you do?

To a great extent	To some extent	To a little extent	Not at all	I don't Know
❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Section Three

Selection Method:

15. Below are various approaches used to select and nominate candidates to attend a training course. Would you indicate the methods that were used in nominating you to attend the programme. Please tick the appropriate box.

1. My supervisor's recommendation ☐
2. My personal desire ☐
3. I was a replacement for someone who could not attend ☐
4. Supervisor's recommendation and personal desire ☐
5. Supervisor's recommendation and I was a replacement for someone who could not attend ☐
6. My personal desire and I was a replacement for someone who could not attend ☐
7. My supervisor's recommendation , my personal desire, and I was a replacement for someone who could not attend ☐
8. Others; please specify:

____

____

16. To what extent do you agree that your personal ties with your supervisors have helped you to attend the training programme?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17. To what extent do you agree that your personal ties with top management in your organisation have helped you to attend the training programme?

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. In your opinion do you think the following reasons played an important part in your desire to attend the training programme?

	Item	Strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree	I don't know
1.	To enhance the performance of my current job	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2.	To acquire new knowledge and skills for promotion	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3.	To meet people	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4.	To get a certificate	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5.	The course was compulsory	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Others:____

____

____

Section Four

Training Evaluation :

Please tick one of the boxes provided where approporiate:

19. Did you evaluate the training programme you attended by Institute of Administrative Development? Yes ❑ No ❑

20. If yes, what methods?

____

____

21. Which methods were used by the training staff of the institute to evaluate your learning at the end of the programme?

Please tick the appropriate box:

1.Written test at the end of training course ❑

2.Presenting a research project at the end of training course ❑

3.Interview ❑

4.written test and presinting a research project at the end of training course ❑

5. Written test and interviwe at the end of training course ❑

6. Presenting a research project and Interview at the end of training course ❑

7. Written test, Presenting a research project and Interview at the end of training course ❑

8.Others, please specify:____

____

9. I was not evaluated ❑

22. Did the training staff of the institute evaluate the transfer of what you have learned from the programme into your work place?

Yes ☐ No ☐

23. Please read the following statements related to effective training evaluation, and tick the appropriate boxes which indicate your level of agreement with each statement:

	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
1	Evaluation is threatening because it could disclose the performance deficiencies of IAD training staff	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	I always rate highly the training programme I receive when there is a lot of breaks during the course	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	I always rate highly the training I receive when trainers tell funny jokes during the lecture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	I always rate highly the training programme I receive when trainers reinforce what I believe regardless of how educational or non-educational the message may be	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	My rating of training I receive is influenced by previous training programmes I have attended	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	Evaluating my learning at the end of a training course has little value to my supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	Evaluating my learning at the end of a training course has little value to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

24. If you have any other comments or suggestions concerning the IAD training programme, please state them below.

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Thank you for your cooperation

Trainees' Supervisor Questionnaire

Section One

Biographical Data :

Please tick one of the boxes provided where approporiate:

1. Age:

less than 25 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-39 ☐
40-44 ☐ 45-49 ☐ 50 and over ☐

2. What is your position grade? ________________

3.Years in current job:

less than 5 ☐ 5-9 ☐ 10-14 ☐ 15 and over ☐

4.What is your highest educational level?

1. Elementary ☐
2. Intermediate ☐
3. High school ☐
4. Bachelors ☐
5. Masters ☐
6. Ph.D. ☐
7. Other, Please specify:

____

____

Section Two

Training Needs Assessment:

5. Do you identify the training needs for your subordinates before sending them to the training course? Yes☐ No ☐

6. If yes, what methods did you use to gather data about your subordinates training needs?

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____
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____

7.Does your organisation have a procedure for appraising your subordinate's performance?

Yes☐ No☐

8. If yes, can you specify the methods of performance appraisal?

____
____
____
____

9.To what extent do you think you need training to improve your skills and knowledge in the area of performance appraisal?

To a great extent	To some extent	To a little extent	Not at all	I don't know
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. Which aspects of the performance appraisal process that are still the most difficult for you?

Discussing performance problems	☐
Developing improvement plans	☐
Reaching an agreement on main issues	☐
Discussing performance problem and developing improvement plan	☐
Discussing performance problem and reaching an agreement on main issues	☐
Developing improvement plan and reaching an agreement on main issues	☐
Discussing performance problem, developing improvement plan, and reaching an agreement on main issues	☐
None	☐

Other please specify:

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11. Please read the following statements related to barriers to effective training needs identification. Please tick the appropriate boxes which indicate your level of agreement with each statement:

	Item	strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
1	Not enough time to conduct training needs assessment	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2	Lack of financial resources to conduct training needs assessment	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3	Trainees are unable to describe fully their training needs	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4	Trainees display a level of discomfort when presented with particular questions that disclose their performance discrepancy as this may have a negative impact on their position at work.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5	Performance appraisal of employees is not designed to indicate individual training needs.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6	Top management in our organisations is only interested in the result of the training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7	There is no written job description for my employees	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

8. other difficulties, please specify:

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Section Three

Training Evaluation:

12. Do you evaluate the effectiveness of the training your subordinate receives?

Yes ❑ No ❑ go to q 16

13. If yes, what method do you use to evaluate ?

____
____
____

14. Please read the following statements related to barriers to effective training evaluation. Please tick the appropriate boxes which indicate your level of agreement with each statement:

	Item	Srongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
1	Not enough time to evaluate training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2	Evaluation of training is difficult to measure	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3	It is difficult to get the support for evaluation of training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4	Evaluation is threatening because it could disclose trainers' deficiencies in designing and delivering training programmes	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5	Evaluation is threatening because it could disclose training personnel preformance in management development units	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6	True views or feelings of trainees regarding their assessment of the course are not expressed.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7	Training evaluation yield results that are of a little value to top management.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

8. Other difficulties (please specify):

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Comments

15. If you have any suggestions or views relating to the identification of training needs and training evaluation, please state them below:

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Thank you for your cooperation.

Training Officers Questionnaire

Section One:

Biographical Data:

1. Age:

less than 25 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-39 ☐

40-44 ☐ 45-49 ☐ 50-over ☐

2. Nationality:

U.A.E ☐ Non-U.A.E ☐

3. Please indicate your highest academic qualifications by ticking the appropriate box:

1. Bachelors ☐
2. Masters ☐
3. Ph.D. ☐
4. Other, please specify: ______________________________

4. What is your field of specialisation: ______________________________

5.Could you please indicate your length of current job?

less than 5 ☐ 5 - 9 ☐ 10-14 years ☐ 15- over ☐

6. Could you briefly state the nature of your work and experince prior to taking the post of training officer?

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________

Section two

Training Need Assessment:

7. Do you conduct training needs identification in your organisation?

Yes☐ No☐

8. If, yes, could you indicate the levels you use when you conduct training need assessment? Please tick the appropriate box:

1. Organisational ☐
2. Occupational ☐
3. Individual ☐
4. Organisational and Occupational ☐
5. Occupational and Individual ☐
6. Organisational, Occupational and Individual ☐

9. Could you indicate the tools you use to collect data for training needs assessment?

____

____

____

10. Please read the following statements related to barriers to effective training needs assessment. Please tick the appropriate boxes which indicate your level of agreement with each statement:

	item	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
1	Not enough time to identify training needs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	Lack of personnel to identify training needs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	Lack of computerised equipment to process collected data	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	Trainees' supervisors lack expertise in how to conduct training needs assessment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	Performance appraisal of the trainees is kept confidential	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	Trainees are unable to fully describe their training needs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7	trainees display a level of discomfort when presented with particular questions that disclose their performance deficiency, as this may have a negative impact on their position at work	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
8	Performance appraisal of employees is not designed to indicate individual training needs	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
9	Top management in our organisation is only interested in the result of the training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
10	lack of written job description for trainees	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

11. Other difficulties, please specify:

Section Three

Training Evaluation :

11. Do you evaluate training programmes that your employees receive?

Yes ❑ No❑ (go to q.15)

12. If yes, could you please indicate when do you evaluate the programme that your employees receive?

13. What methods do you use to evaluate the training programme on each time as indicated above?

14. For what purpose is the information from management training evaluation used in your organisation? Please tick the appropriate boxes.

	Yes	No
1. To obtain data on the overall effectiveness of the programme we send our employees to	❑	❑
2. To give data to management with information about the effectiveness of the programmes.	❑	❑
3. To provide data to IAD training department	❑	❑
4. To reward the trainees for their achievement	❑	❑

Other uses, please specify:

1______________________________

2______________________________

3______________________________

15. Please read the following statements related to barriers to training evaluation. Please tick the appropriate boxes which indicate your level of agreement with each statement:

	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
1.	There is not enough time to evaluate training programmes	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2.	Training personnel lack expertise in evaluating training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3.	Evaluation of training is difficult to measure	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4	Evaluation of training is not required	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5.	It is difficult to get the support for evaluation of training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6.	Lack of personnel to evaluate training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7.	Not sure what should be evaluated	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
8	there is a lack of computerised equipment to process collected data	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
9	True views or feelings of trainees regarding their assessment of the course are not expressed	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
10	Training evaluation often yield results that are of a little value to top management	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
11	Training evaluation often yields results that are of little value to trainees.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

12. Other difficulties, please specify :

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Section Four:

Training staff development

16. Have you received any training on how to design a training programme? Yes ❑ No ❑

17. If yes; do you think that the training you received was effective in improving your skills and knowledge in conducting training needs identification? Yes ❑ No ❑

18. If your answer was no for above, could you please indicate the reasons:

____

____

____

____

19. Do you think that the training you received was effective in improving your skills and knowledge in conducting training evaluation? Yes ❑ No ❑

20. If your answer was no could you please indicate the reasons:

____

____

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____

21.Could please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Items	strongly agree	agree	disagree	strongly disagree	I don't know
1	I can analyse training needs to ensure that they are classified properly, and are then linked to the right training solution	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2	I can design questionnaires which elicit data of training needs	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3	I can conduct job analysis to gather training needs of employees	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

4	Trainees' motivation should be taken into account when conducting training need identification	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5	I can report information on training needs that are meaningful to the intended audience	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6	I can formulate training objectives	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7	I can design a questionnaire which measure training effectiveness	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
8	I can conduct an interview to elicit data on training outcome assessment	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
9	I can use various statistical tools to analyse the evaluation results					
10	I can report evaluation result in terms that are meaningful to the intended audience	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Comments:

22. If you have any other suggestions or views relating to the identification of trainees' training needs and training evaluation, please state them below:

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Thank you for your co-operation

Institute of Administrative Development

Training Staff Questionnaire

Interview

Section One

Biographical Data:

1. Age: 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-39 ☐
40-44 ☐ 45-49 ☐ 50-over ☐

2. Nationality: U.A.E ☐ Non-U.A.E ☐

3. Please indicate your highest academic qualifications :
1. Bachelors ☐
2. Masters ☐
3. Ph.D. ☐
4. Other, please specify: ______________________________

4. What is your field of specialisation:

____

5. Could you please indicate your length of the service at the Institute?

less than 5 ☐ 5-9 years ☐ 10 and over ☐

6. Could you briefly state the nature and experience of your work prior to joining the institute ?

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________

Section Two

Training Need Assessment:

7. Do you conduct training needs identification? Yes ☐ No ☐

8. Could you please indicate the methods of training needs identification you employ on your client?

____
____
____
____

9. Can you specify the time at which you identify the training needs before designing a programme?

____

10. Could you please indicate the factors that affect the training needs process in the Institute?

Section Three

Training objectives development:

11. How do you obtain the data to establish the training objectives?

12 The following statements describe the components of writing a training objectives. Does your training objectives include the following components:

	Yes	No
1. A description of the performance you want trainees' to be able to exhibit before you consider them competent	❑	❑
2. The standard (s) by which you would measure the desired trainees behaviour	❑	❑
3. The condition or situation under which the trainees performance occurs, and its limitation.	❑	❑

Section Four

Trainees' Selection Methods:

13. Do you take any part in selecting the trainees for the programme?

Yes ❑ No ❑

14. To what extent are the trainee's characteristics, in relation to their educational background, grades, and experience are homogenous in the programme?

Section Five

Training Evaluation Levels and approaches:

15. Do you evaluate your training programme effectiveness? yes☐ No ☐

16. At what level do you evaluate your training programme? Please tick the appropriate box

	Yes	No
1. **Reaction level**; which measures what the trainees' think or feel toward the materials, facilities, methods, contents, duration of the training programme, and the trainer performance .	☐	☐
2. **Learning level**; which measures to what extent the trainees' have learned from the training, and to what extent the training objectives have been achieved	☐	☐
3. **Behaviour level;** which measures the change in trainees' job performance as a result-of training	☐	☐
4. **Result level;** which concerns with measuring the effect of the training on trainees' organisational performance	☐	☐

17. What methods do you use to evaluate the programme at each level you indicated ?

18. For what purpose is the information from training evaluation used in your organisation?

19. Could you please indicate the factors that affect the process of programme evaluation in the Institute?

20. Do you undertake other activities other than training? Yes ☐ No☐

21. If yes, would these activities include

Research ☐ Consultation ☐ others (Please specify):

---

22. What are the percentages of time you spend in the following activities:

A. Training: ____

B. Research : ____

C. Consultation : ____

Section six

Training staff development

23. Have you received any training on how to design a training programme? Yes☐ No☐

24. If yes; do you think that the training you received was effective in improving your skills and knowledge in conducting training needs identification. Yes☐ No☐

if no, could you please indicate the reasons:

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25. Do you think that the training you received was effective in improving your skills and knowledge in conducting training evaluation. Yes☐ No☐

if no could you please indicate the reasons:

---

26. Could you please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	I don't know
1	I can conduct job analysis to gather training needs of employees	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2	I can produce effective questionnaires to meet information gathering needs	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3	I can analyse training needs and ensure that they are classified properly and linked to the right training solution	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4	I can conduct interviews to gather data about training programme effectiveness	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
5	I can develop an assessment questionnaire to gather data about training programme effectiveness	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6	I can use various statistical tools to analyse the evaluation results	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7	I can develop a written test to assess trainees' performance as a result of training	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Comments:

27. If you have any other suggestions or views relating to the identification of trainees' training needs and training evaluation, please state them below:

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

Thank you for your co-operation

Arabic Version

أستبانــــة المتدربين

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

أخي الموظف / أختي الموظفة

تحية طيبة وبعد،

يمثل هذا الأستبيان جزءا أساسيا من متطلبات أطروحة الدكتوراه التي أقوم بالأعداد لها. لقد قمت بتصميم هذا الأستبيان بعناية وبدقة لتقييم عملية التدريب في القطاع الحكومي لدولة الأمارات العربية المتحدة.

لقد تم إختيارك من كشوفات المشاركين في البرامج التدريبية التي يقدمها معهد التنمية الأدارية للقطاع الحكومي وذلك للمشاركة في الدراسة الميدانية لهذا البحث.

أن المعلومات والبيانات الواردة في هذا الأستبيان ستستخدم لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط وأود أن أؤكد لكم انه خلال هذه الدراسة لن يتم ذكر اسمك او صفتك الوظيفية ولن يتم إطلاع أجابتك الخاصة الواردة في هذا الأستبيان على رؤوساءك في العمل او مرؤوسيك في العمل او مرؤوسين او زملاءك او اي شخص آخر.

أني اقدر لكم مساعدتكم وتحمل عناء تعبئة إجابات هذا الأستبيان والذي أتمنى ان تتم بدقة و موضوعية مع مراعاة ضرورة الأجابة على جميع أسئلة الأستبيان.
وفي الختام أتمنى لكم حظا سعيدا وأنتهز هذه الفرصة لأعبر عن جزيل الشكر على حسن تعاونكم.

الباحث

محمد أحمد إبراهيم

القسم الأول:

<u>بيانات شخصية</u>

يرجى اختيار أحد الأجابات الملحقة بكل من الأسئلة التالية او إضافة الأجابة المناسبة في المكان المخصص لذلك.

١– العمر

☐أقل من ٢٥ ☐ ٢٥–٢٩ ☐ ٣٠–٣٤ ☐ ٣٥–٣٩ ☐ ٤٠–٤٤

☐٤٥–٤٩ ☐ ٥٠– وأكثر

٢ – ما هي درجتك الوظيفية؟---

٣– كم عدد سنوات العمل في وظيفتك الحالية؟

☐ أقل من ٥ سنوات ☐ ٥ – ٩ سنوات ☐ ١٠–١٤ ☐ ١٥ وأكثر

٤– مـا هو أعلى مستوى تعليمي لديكم؟

☐ الأبتدائية

☐ الأعدادية

☐ الثانوية

☐ بكالوريوس

☐ ماجستير

☐ دكتوراه

☐ أخرى (يرجى التكرم بالتحديد):---

القسم الثاني

<u>تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية:</u>

يرجى اختيار أحد الأجابات الملحقة بكل من الأسئلة التالية او إضافة الأجابة المناسبة في المكان المخصص لذلك.

٥ –قبل حضورك للبرنامج التدريبي, هل تم مناقشة إحتياجاتك التدريبية مع مشرفك المباشر؟

☐ نعم ☐ لا

٦ – الى أي مدى تعتقد ان البرنامج التدريبي الذي التحقت به مرتبط بإحتياجاتك التدريبية؟

☐ الى حد كبير ☐ الى حد ما ☐ الى حد ضعيف ☐ لا ☐ ليس على الأطلاق ☐ لا أعرف

٧– ما مدى سهولة قيامك بتطبيق ما تعلمته في البرنامج التدريبي في عملك؟

☐سهل كثيرا ☐سهل الى حد ما ☐صعب الى حد ما ☐صعب كثيرا ☐لا أعرف

٨ – يرجى منك قـراءة العبارات التالية ووضع علامـة داخـل المربع المناسب الذي يبيـن مستوى إتفاقك مع العبارات التالية:

	اوافق بشـدة	أوافق	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشدة	لاأعرف
١- أن بإستطاعتي ان احدد المجالات التي احتاج ان اتعلم عنها أكثـر.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢- أشعر بعدم الأرتياح عندمـا يسألني المدرب ذكـر نقاط الضعف في أدائي.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣- أن قيامي بتعبأة استبانة تتعلق بتحديد الأحتياجات التدريبيـة يمكن ان يكون صعبا بسبب غموض الأسئلـة و المصطلحات.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

٩ –متى آخـر مرة تم فيهـا تقييم اداءك؟

☐ أقـل من ١٢ شهـر

☐ أكثـر من ١٢ شهـر

☐ أخـرى (يرجى التكـرم بالتحديد):-----------

١٠ –هل تم التوصيـة بتدريب لآخـر مرة تم فيها تقييم أداء؟ ☐ نعم ☐لا

١١– هل يتم الأحتفاظ بتقييم الأداء سـريا؟ ☐ نعم ☐لا

١٢ – الى أي مدى تتفق على ان تقييم الأداء في مؤسـستكم يعتمد على الروابط والعلاقات الشخصيـة أكثـر مما يعتمد على الأداء الفعلي؟

☐ أوافق بشدة ☐اوافق ☐ لاأوافق ☐لاأوافق بشدة ☐ لاأعرف

١٣ – هل هناك وصف وظيفي مكتوب يحدد واجباتك ومسؤولياتك في وظيفتك الحاليـة؟☐ نعم ☐لا

إذا كانت أجابتك بنعم:

١٤– الى أي مدى يرتبط الوصف الوظيفي المكتوب بما تقوم بـه؟

☐ ألى حد كبير ☐ ألى حدما ☐ ألى حد ضعيف ☐ليس على الأطلاق ☐ لاأعرف

القســـم الثـــالث

طريقــة الأختيار للتدريب

يرجى اختــيار أحد الأجابات الملحقــة بكــل من الأسئلــة التاليــة او إضافــة الأجابــة المناسبة في المكان المخصص لذلك.

١٥ – فيما يلي مجموعة من العبارات التي توصف الأجراءات المتعلقــة في عملية الأختيار لحضور البرنامج التدريبي، يرجى منك ان تحدد الطرق التي استخدمت لحضورك البرنامج التدريبي وذلك بالتأشير على المربع المناسب:

١ – توصية المشرف المباشـــر ☐

٢ – رغبتي الشخصــية ☐

٣ – تم استبدالي بشخص لم يتمكن الحضـــور ☐

٤ –توصية المشرف المباشـــر +رغبتي الشخصــية ☐

٥ – توصية المشرف المباشـــر +تم استبدالي بشخص لم يتمكن الحضـــور ☐

٦–رغبتي الشخصـــية+تم استبدالي بشخص لم يتمكن الحضـــور ☐

٧–توصية المشرف المباشـــر +رغبتي الشخصـــية+تم استبدالي بشخص لم يتمكن الحضـــور ☐

طرق أخرى (يرجى التحديد):

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١٦ – الى اي مدى تتفق على أن علاقتك الشخصية مع مشرفك المباشرساعدتك لدخول البرنامج التدريبي؟

☐ أوافق بشدة ☐اوافق ☐ لاأوافق ☐لاأوافق بشدة ☐ لاأعرف

١٧ – الى اي مدى تتفق على ان علاقاتك الشخصية مع القيادة العليا ساعدتك لدخول البرنامج التدريبي؟

☐ أوافق بشدة ☐اوافق ☐ لاأوافق ☐لاأوافق بشدة ☐ لاأعرف

١٨ – هل تعتقد بأن أيا من العوامل التالية قد لعب دورا في رغبتك لحضور البرنامج التدريبي(الرجاء وضع علامة على المربع المناسب الذي يحدد مستوى اتفاقك مع العبارات التالية):

	اوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشدة	لاأعرف
١– لتحسين اداء وظيفتي الحالية	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢– للتزود بمهارات ومعارف للترقيــة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣– للتعرف على أشخاص في الدورة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٤– للحصول على شهـــادة دورة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٥– البرنـــامج كان إجباري	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

٦– أخرى(يرجى التحديد):

القسم الرابع

تقييم التدريب

يرجى اختيار أحد الأجابات الملحقة بكل من الأسئلة التالية او إضافة الأجابة المناسبة في المكان المخصص لذلك.

١٩ – هل قمت بتقييم البرنامج التدريبي؟ ☐ نعم ☐لا

٢٠ – أذا كانت اجابتك بنعم، ما هي الوسائل التي أستخدمتها في تقييم البرنامج؟ (يرجى التكرم بالتحديد):

----

٢١ – ما هي الوسائل التي استخدمت في تقييم تعليمك في نهاية البرنامج التدريبي؟

١ – الأختبار التحريري ☐

٢– اعداد مشروع بحثي ☐

٣ المناقشة ☐

٤ – الأختبار التحريري+اعداد مشروع بحثي ☐

٥ – الأختبار التحريري+المناقشة ☐

٦ – اعداد مشروع بحثي+المناقشة ☐

٧ – الأختبار التحريري+اعداد مشروع بحثي+المناقشة ☐

٨ - أخرى (يرجى التحديد):--

٩– لم يتم تقييم تعليمي ☐

٢٢ – هل قام أعضاء الهيئة التدريبية بمعهد التنمية الأدارية بتقييم تطبيق ما تعلمته من البرنامج في عملك؟

☐ نعم ☐لا

٢٣ – يرجى منك قراءة العبارات التاليـة ووضع إشارة على المربع الملائم:

	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أعرف
١- يعتبر تقييم الأداء شيئا مخيفـا بسبب الأفصاح عن نواقص اداء الهيئـة العلمية لمعهد التنمية الأداريـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢- أقوم دائما بتقييم البرنامج التدريبي بدرجـة عاليـة او مرضية عندما تكون هناك فترات راحة متعددة أثناء البرنامج التدريبي.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣- أقوم دائما بتقييم البرنامج التدريبي بدرجـة عاليـة او مرضية عندما يقوم المحاضر بألقاء نكات مضحكة خلال البرنامج.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٤- أقوم دائما بتقييم البرنامج التدريبي بدرجـة عاليـة او مرضية عندما يدعم المحاضر آرائي بصرف النظر عن كونها علمية او غير علمية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٥- تقييمي للبرنامج يتأثـر بخبراتي من البرامج السابقـة التي حضرتـها.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٦- تقييم تعليمي في نهايـة البرنامج ليس ذو قيمـة بالنسبة لمسؤولي المباشـر.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٧- تقييم تعليمي في نهايـة البرنامج له قيمـة قليلة بالنسبة لي.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

تعليقات وملاحظات إضافيـة:

٢٤ – اذا كانت لديك أقتراحات او ملاحظات تتعلق بالبرامج التدريبية التي يقدمها معهد التنمية الأدارية، يرجى التكرم بالتحديد ادناه:---

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شكرا لتعاونكم

أستبانـــة المســؤولين المباشرين للمتدربين

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الأخ المسؤول المباشر / الأخت المسؤولة المباشرة للموظف/للموظفة

تحية طيبة وبعد,

يمثل هذا الأستبيان جزءا أساسيا من متطلبات أطروحة الدكتوراه التي أقوم بالأعداد لها. ولأجل ذلك, وبهدف التعرف على واقع عملية التدريب في المؤسسات الحكومية, نتوجه بهذا الأستبيان راجين تعاونكم على الأجابة عن جميع الأسئلة الواردة فيه.

أن المعلومات والبيانات الواردة في هذا الأستبيان ستستخدم لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط وأود أن أؤكد لكم انه خلال هذه الدراسة لن يتم ذكر اسمك او صفتك الوظيفية ولن يتم إطلاع أجابتك الخاصة الواردة في هذا الأستبيان على رؤوساءك في العمل او مرؤوسيك في العمل او مرؤوسين او زملاءك او اي شخص آخر.

وفي الختام أنتهز هذه الفرصة لأعبر عن جزيل الشكر على حسن تعاونكم.

الباحث

محمد أحمد إبراهيم

القسم الأول:

بيانات شخصية

يرجى اختيار أحد الأجابات الملحقة بكل من الأسئلة التالية او إضافة الأجابة المناسبة في المكان المخصص.

١ – العمر

☐ أقل من ٢٥ ☐ ٢٥-٢٩ ☐ ٣٠-٣٤ ☐ ٣٥-٣٩ ☐ ٤٠-٤٤

☐ ٤٥-٤٩ ☐ ٥٠ وأكثر

٢ – ما هي درجتك الوظيفية؟

٣– كم عدد سنوات العمل في وظيفتك الحالية؟

☐ أقل من ٥ سنوات ☐ ٥ – ٩ سنوات ☐ ١٠-١٤ ☐ ١٥ وأكثر

٤– ما هو أعلى مستوى تعليمي لديكم؟

☐ الأبتدائية

☐ الأعدادية

☐ الثانوية

☐ بكالوريوس

☐ ماجستير

☐ دكتوراه

☐ أخرى (يرجى التكرم بالتحديد):---

القسم الثاني

تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية:

يرجى اختيار أحد الأجابات الملحقة بكل من الأسئلة التالية او إضافة الأجابة المناسبة في المكان المخصص.

٥ – هل تقوم بتحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية لدى موظفك قبل إرساله للبرنامج التدريبي؟

☐ نعم ☐ لا

٦ – إذا كانت إجابتك بنعم، ما هي الوسائل التي استخدمتها في تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية لدى موظفيك؟

----

٧ – هـل هناك أجراءات رسمية في تقييم اداء موظفيكم لدى مؤسستكم؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٨ – إذا كانت إجابتك بنعم, ما هي الطرق التي تستخـدمها في تقييم أداء موظفيـكم؟

----

٩ – الى اي مدى تعتقـد ان لديـك المهارة والمعرفـة في عمليـة تقييم أداء موظفيك؟

☐ الى حـد كبيـر ☐ الى حد ما ☐ الى حد ضعيف ☐ لا ☐ ليس على الأطلاق ☐ لا أعرف

١٠ – ما هي جوانب تقييم الأداء التي تعتقـد انها ما زالت تشكـل صعوبات بالنسبة لـك؟

١ - مناقشـة جوانب الضعـف في أداء الموظـف ☐

٢ – تطويـر خطـة لتحسين الاداء ☐

٣ – التوصـل الى إتفاق حول المسائل الرئيـسيـة في التقـويـم ☐

٤ –مناقشـة جوانب الضعـف في أداء الموظـف+تطويـر خطـة لتحسين الاداء ☐

٥ –مناقشـة جوانب الضعـف في أداء الموظـف+التوصل الى إتفاق حول المسائل الرئيسية في التقـويـم ☐

٦ –تطويـر خطـة لتحسين الاداء+التوصل الى إتفاق حول المسائل الرئيسية في التقـويـم ☐

٧ –تطويـر خطـة لتحسين الاداء+التوصل الى إتفاق حول المسائل الرئيسية في التقـويـم+مناقشـة جوانب الضعـف في أداء الموظـف ☐

٨ – لا توجـد صعوبات ☐

٩–أخـرى(يرجى التكرم بذكـرها):

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١١ – يرجى التكرم منك بقـراءة العبارات التالية والتي ترتبط بالعوامل التي تعيـق فعاليـة تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبيـة. (يرجى منك وضع علامـة داخـل المربع المناسب الذي يبيـن مدى موافقتـك)

	موافق بشدة	أوافق	لا موافق	لا وافق بشدة	لاأعرف
١- ليس هناك وقتـا كافيـا لتحديد الأحتياجـات التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢- قلـة الموارد الماليـة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣- عدم قـدرة المتدربين على وصف إحتياجاتهم التدريبيـة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٤- شعور المتدربيـن بعدم الأرتيـاح عند سؤالهم عن ضعف ادائهـم	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٥- أداء الموظف لم يتم تقييمه بصورة تبيـن الأحتياجات التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٦- الأدارة العليـا تهتـم بنتائج التدريـب فقط.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٧- ليس هناك وصفـا وظيفيا مكتوبا للموظفين العاملين تحت إشـرافي	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

القسـم الثـالث

<u>تقييم التدريب</u>

١٢– هل تقـوم بتقييم البرنامج الذي يلتحق بـه موظفـك؟ ☐ نعـم ☐ لا

١٣ – إذا كانت إجابتك بنعم، ما هي الوسائـل التي يتـم إستخدامهـا؟

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١٤ – يرجى التكرم منك بقـراءة العبارات التالـية والتي ترتبط بالعوامل التي تعيـق فعالـية تقيـم البرامج التدريبـية. (يرجى منك وضع علامـة داخـل المربع المناسب الذي يبيـن مدى موافقتـك)

	أوافق بشـدة	أوافق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أعرف
١- ليس هناك وقتـا كافيـا لتقييم التدريب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢- يصعب قياس تقييم البرامج التدريبية	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣- هناك صعوبـة في الحصول على دعم لتقييم التدريب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٤- عمليـة تقييم البرامج التدريبيـة قد تكون مخيفة حيث أنها تكشف نواقص أداء المدرب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٥- عمليـة تقييم البرامج التدريبيـة قد تكون مخيفة حيث أنها تكشف نواقص أداء مسؤول التدريب .	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٦- آراء أو شعـور المتدربين نحـو البرنامج التدريبي قد تكون غيـر صحيحـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٧- نتائج تقييم الاداء ليس لها قيـمة لأصحاب إتخاذ القرارات.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

٨- معوقـات أخرى، يرجى التكـرم بذكرهـا:

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١٥ – إذا كانت لديك اي تعليقات أو ملاحظات متعلقـة بعمليـة التدريب. يرجى ذكـرها:

شـكـرا لتعاونكم.

أستبانـــة مسؤولي التدريب

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيـــم

الأخ مسؤول التدريب / الأخت مسؤولة التدريب

تحيـــة طيبـــة وبعـــد.

يمثل هـــذا الأستبيـــان جزءا أساسيـــا مـــن متطلبـــات أطروحـــــة الدكتـوراه الـتي أقوم بالأعـــداد لهـــا. ولأجـــل ذلك, وبهدف التعرف على واقع عمليـة التدريب في المؤسسات الحكوميـة. نتوجـــه بهذا الأستبيان راجين تعاونكم على الأجابة عن جميع الأسئلـة الواردة فيـه.

أن المعلومات والبيانات الواردة في هذا الأستبيـــان ستســتخدم لأغـراض البحـث العلمـي فقـط وأود أن أؤكـد لكم انه خلال هذه الدراســة لـن يتـم ذكـــر اسمـك او صفتـك الوظيفيـــة ولـن يتـم إطلاع أجابتـك الخاصـة الـــواردة في هذا الأستبيـــان على رؤوساءك في العـــمل او مرؤوسيك في العمـل او مرؤوسين او زملاءك او اي شخـص آخـــر.

وفي الختـــام أنتهـــز هذه الفرصـة لأعبـر عن جزيل الشـكر على حســـن تعاونكـــم.

الباحث

محـــمد أحمـد إبـــراهيم

القسـم الأول:

بيانـات شـخصيـة

يرجى اختيار أحد الأجابات الملحقـة بكـل من الأسئلـة التاليـة او إضافـة الأجابـة المناسبة في المكان المخصص.

١- الـعمـر

☐ أقل من ٢٥ ☐ ٢٥-٢٩ ☐ ٣٠-٣٤ ☐ ٣٥-٣٩ ☐ ٤٠-٤٤

☐ ٤٥-٤٩ ☐ ٥٠ - وأكثـر

٢ - الجنسـية: ☐ الأمـارات ☐ غيـر الأمـارات

٣ - مـا هـو أعلى مستـوى تعليـمي لديكم؟

☐ ثـانـويـة

☐ بكالوريـوس

☐ ماجستـيـر

☐ دكتـوراه

☐ أخـرى (يرجى التكـرم بالتحـديـد):--

٤- ما هـو مجال تخصصـك العلمي؟

٥- كم عـدد سنوات الخدمـة في الوظيـفـة الحاليـة؟

☐ أقـل من ٥ سنوات ☐ ٥ - ٩ سنوات ☐ ١٠ - ١٤ سنوات ☐ أكثـر من ١٥ سنـة

٦ - يرجى التكرم بإعطائنا فكـرة عن طبيعـة عملـك أو خبرتك التي سبقـت تعيينـكم كمسـؤول للتدريـب.

القسم الثاني

تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية:

يرجى اختيار أحد الأجابات الملحقة بكل من الأسئلة التالية و بإضافة الأجابة المناسبة في المكان المخصص.

٧ – هل تقوم بتحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٨ – إذا كانت إجابتكم بنعم, ما هي المستويات التي تتم تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية؟ (يرجى وضع إشارة على المربع المناسب)

١ – المنظمة ☐

٢ – الوظائف ☐

٣ – الأفراد ☐

٤ – المنظمة+الوظائف ☐

٥ – المنظمة+الأفراد ☐

٦ – الوظائف+الأفراد ☐

٧ – المنظمة+الوظائف+الأفراد ☐

٩ – ما هي الوسائل والأساليب التي تستخدمونها في جمع البيانات اللازمة لتحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية؟

١٠-يرجى منك قراءة العبارات التالية والتي تمثل عوائق تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية. (يرجى منك وضع علامة داخل المربع المناسب الذي يبين مدى إتفاقك مع العبارة)

	العبارة	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أعرف
١-	ليس لدي الوقت الكافي لتحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢-	عدم وجود العدد الكافي من موظفي التدريب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣-	قلة أجهزة الكومبيوتر لتحليل معلومات المتعلقة بالأحتياجات التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٤-	الرؤساء المباشرين للمشاركين في البرامج التدريبية تنقصهم الخبرة في تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٥-	كشوف تقييم اداء الموظف يتم حفظه بسرية كاملة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٦-	المتدربين ليس لديهم قدرة في وصف إحتياجاتهم التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٧-	المتدربين يشعرون بقلق عندما يسألون عن نواقص أدائهم وذلك مما يؤدي الى نتيجة سلبية لموقعهم الوظيفي.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٨-	كشوف تقييم الاداء ليست مصممة لتحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٩-	القيادة العليا في منظمتنا تهتم فقط بنتائج التدريب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
١٠-	ندرة وجود الوصف الوظيفي للموظفين.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

١١ - معوقات أخرى (يرجى التكرم بذكرها):

القسم الثالث

تقييم التدريب

يرجى اختيار أحد الأجابات الملحقة بكل من الأسئلة التالية او إضافة الأجابة المناسبة في المكان المخصص.

١١ – هل تقوم بتقييم البرامج التدريبية التي يتلقاها موظفيكم؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا(إنتقل الى السؤال ١٥)

١٢ – إذا كانت إجابتك بنعم، متى يتم تقييم التدريب؟

١٣– ما هي الطرق المتبعة في تقييم البرامج التدريبية في كل من المراحل التي ذكرتها؟

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١٤ – ماهي الأغراض التي تستخدام فيها نتائج تقييم البرامج التدريبية؟

١ – لجمع البيانات عن الفعالية الكلية للبرامج التدريبية. ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٢ – لتزويد القيادة العليا بمعلومات عن مدى فعالية البرامج
التي يتلقاها موظفينا ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٣ – لتزويد إدارة التدريب بمعلومات عن مدى فعالية البرامج
التي يتلقاها موظفينا. ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٤ – لمكافئة المتفوقين في البرامج التدريبية . ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٥ – إذا كانت هناك أغراض أخرى تستخدم فيها نتائج تقييم البرامج التدريبية يرجى ذكرها:

١٥-يرجى التكرم منك بقراءة العبارات التالية والتي ترتبط بالعوامل التي تعيق فعالية تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية. (يرجى منك وضع علامة داخل المربع المناسب الذي يبين مدى إتفاقك مع العبارة)

	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشدة	لأعرف
١- ليس لدي الوقت الكافي لتقييم البرامج التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢- موظفي التدريب تنقصهم الخبرة في تقييم البرامج التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣- عملية تقييم البرامج يصعب قياسها.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٤- تقييم البرامج في مؤسستنا غير مطلوبة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٥- يصعب الحصول على دعم من القيادة العليا لتقييم التدريب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٦- قلة عدد موظفي التدريب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٧- لست متأكدا من الشيء الذي ينبغي تقييمه.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٨- قلة أجهزة الكومبيوتر لتحليل معلومات تقييم الأداء.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٩- تقييم المتدرب تجاه البرنامج التدريبي قد تكون غير صحيحة	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
١٠- نتائج تقييم التدريب ليس ذو قيمة للأدارة العليا.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
١١- نتائج تقييم التدريب ليس ذو قيمة للمتدرب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

١٢- معوقات أخرى:(يرجى ذكرها):

القســم الرابــع

تدريب و تطـويـر مسؤولي التدريب

يرجى اختـيار أحد الأجابات الملحقـة بكـل من الأسئلـة التاليـة او إضافـة الأجابـة المناسبة في المكان المخصص.

١٦ – هل تلقيت، أي دورة تدريبية في مجال تصميم البرامج التدريبيـة؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

١٧ – إذا كانت إجابتك بنعم: هل تعتقد بأن البرنامج التدريبي الذي تلقيته فعال لتحسيـن مهاراتك ومعلوماتك في تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبيـة؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

١٨ –إذا كانت إجابتك بلا للسؤال أعلاه ,يرجى التكـرم بذكـر الأسباب:

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١٩ – هل تعتقد بأن البرنامج التدريبي الذي تلقيته فعال لتحسيـن مهاراتك ومعلوماتك في تقيم البرامج التدريبيـة؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٢٠ –إذا كانت إجابتك بلا ,يرجى التكـرم بذكـر الأسباب:

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٢١ – يرجى التكرم منك بقـراءة العبارات التالية والتي ترتبط بالعوامل التي تعيـق فعاليـة تحديدالأحتياجات التدريبيـة. (يرجى منك وضع علامـة داخـل المربع المناسب الذي يبيـن مدى موافقتـك)

	العبارة	موافق بشـدة	أوافق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	لاأعرف
١-	بإمكـاني ان أحلل الأحتياجات التدريبيـة للتأكـد من سلامة تصنيعـها وربطهـا بالحل التدريبي الصحيح.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢-	بإمكـاني تصميم إستبانـة لجمع معلومات عن الأحتياجات التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣-	بإمكـاني تحليل الوظائـف لجمع معلومات عن الأحتياجـات التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٤-	المســائل المتعلقـة بالدوافع و الحوافـز يجب ان تؤخـذ بالحسبان عنـد القيـام بتحديد الأحتياجـات التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٥-	بإمكاني إعـداد تقـرير عن الأحتياجـات التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٦-	بإمكاني صيـاغـة أهداف البرامج التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٧-	بإمكاني أعـداد إستبانـة لقيـاس فعاليـة التدريـب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٨-	بإمكاني إستخدام أسلوب المقابلـة لتقـييم فعاليـة البرامج التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٩-	بإمكاني إستخدام معايير إحصائيـة عديدة لتحليل البرامج التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
١٠-	بإمكاني إعـداد تقـرير عن نتائج تقييم البرامج التدريبيـة.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

تعليقات و ملاحظات إضافيـة:

٢٢ – إذا كانت لديك اي تعليقات أو ملاحظات متعلقـة بعمليـة التدريب، يرجى ذكـرها.

شـكـرا لتعاونكم.

أستبانـــة أعضـــاء الهيـــئة التدريـــبية
لمعـــهـــد التنمـــيـــة الأداريـــة

القســـم الأول:

بيانـات شـخصيـة

١– الـعمـر

☐ ٢٥-٢٩ ☐ ٣٠-٣٤ ☐ ٣٥-٣٩ ☐ ٤٠-٤٤

☐ ٤٥-٤٩ ☐ ٥٠ – وأكثـر

٢ – الجنسـيـة: ☐ الأمـارات ☐ غيـر الأمـارات

٣– مـا هـو أعلى مستـوى تعليـمي لديكم؟

☐ بكالوريـوس

☐ ماجستـيـر

☐ دكتـوراه

☐ أخـرى (يرجى التكـرم بالتحـديـد):--

٤– ما هـو مجال تخصصـك العلمي؟

٥– كم عـدد سنوات العمل في المعهـد؟

☐ أقـل من ٥ سنوات ☐ ٥ – ٩ سنوات ☐ أكثـر من ١٠ سنـة

٦ – يرجى التكرم باعطائنا فكـرة عن طبيعـة خبرتك التي سبقـت التحاقكم بالمعهـد؟

القسم الثاني

تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبيـة:

٧ – هـل تقـوم بتحـديد الأحتياجات التـدريبيـة؟ ☐ نعـم ☐ لا

٨ – ما هي الوسائـل والأساليب التي تستخدمونها في جمع البيانات اللازمـة لتحديد الأحتياجات التدريبيـة؟

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٩ – هـل بإمكانـك ان تحـدد الوقت الذي تقـوم في تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبية قبـل تصميم البرنامج التدريبي؟

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١٠ – هـل بإمكانـك ان تحـدد العوائق التي تؤثـر في عمليـة قيـام تحـديد الأحتياجات التدريـبـية في المعهـد؟

القســم الثـالـث

تصميم أهـداف البرنامج

١١ – كيف تقوم بجمع البيانات او المعلومات لتصميم أهداف البرنامج التدريـبي؟

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١٢ – العبارات التالية تصف العناصـر الأساسية في عملية كتابة أو صياغـة اهداف البرنامج التدريبي. هـل أهداف البرنامج التدريـبي التي تقوم بصياغتـه تتكون من العناصـر التاليـة؟

١ – وصف الأداء الذي ترغب ان يتميز به المتدرب قبل ان تصفـه كفـوا. ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٢ – المقياس او المقاييـس التي سوف تستخدمها في قياس السلوك المرغوب. ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٣ – الظروف او الطبيعة التي يظهـر فيها الأداء وايضـا القيـود. ☐ نعم ☐ لا

القســم الرابــع

طــرق إختيــار المتدرب

١٣ – هل تقوم بأي دور في إختيار المتدربيــن لدخولهم البرنامج التدريــبي؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

١٤ – الى اي مدى تعتقــد أن أوضاع المتدربيــن منسجمــة من حيث مؤهلاتهم العلمــية ودرجاتهم الوظيفيــة. سنوات الخبــرة لديــهم؟

القســم الخامــس

تقييم البرامج التدريبيــة

١٥ – هل تقــوم بتقييم البرامج التدريبيــة؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

١٦ – ما هي المستويــات التي تقوم بتقيــيم البرامج التدريبية ؟

☐ المستوى الشعــوري: قياس رد فعل المتدرب حول المواد ووسائل التدريب، وقت البرنامج التدريبي، وأداء المدرب. ☐ نعم ☐ لا

☐ المستوى التعليمي:قياس تعلم المتدرب في نهايــة البرنامج. و الى اي مدى قــد تم تحقيق أهداف البرنامج التدريبي؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

☐ المستوى السلوكي: قياس التغيرات في أداء المتدرب في عمله نتيجــة البرنامج التدريبي. ☐ نعم ☐ لا

☐ المستوى النهائي : قياس نتائج البرنامج في أداء المنظمــة التي ينتمي لــها المتدرب. ☐ نعم ☐ لا

١٧ – ماهي الوسائل التي تستخدمها في عمليــة تقييم البرنامج على ضوء المستويــات التي ذكرتها؟

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١٨ – ما هي الأغراض التي تستخدمهـا في معلومات نتائج التدريب؟

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١٩ – هل بإمكانك تحديد العوائق التي تؤثر في عملية تقييم البرامج التدريبيـة في المعهـد؟

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٢٠ – هل تقـوم بنشاطات اخرى غيـــر التدريب؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٢١ – اذا كانت إجابتك بنعم، هــل تشمــل هذه النشاطات:

☐ بحـــوث ☐ إستشـــارات ☐ أخـــرى

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٢٢ – ما هي النسـبة المئـوية التي تستغرقهـا اي من النشاطات التالـية من وقتـكم؟

بحـــوث: ---

إستشـــارات: ---

تدريب: ---

القســـم السادس:

<u>تدريب وتطويـر موظفي الهيـئة التدريبيـة:</u>

٢٣ – هل تلقيـت دورة تدريبـية في مجال تصميم البرامج التدريبيـة؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

٢٤ – إذا كانت إجابتك بنعم: هل تعتقـد بأن البرنامج التدريبي الذي تلقيته فعال لتحسيـن مهاراتك ومعلوماتك في تحديد الأحتياجات التدريبيـة؟ ☐ نعم ☐ لا

إذا كانت إجابتك بلا يرجى التكـرم بذكـر الأسباب:

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٢٥ – هل تعتقد بأن البرنامج التدريبي الذي تلقيته فعال لتحسين مهاراتك ومعلوماتك في تقييم البرامج التدريبية؟

☐ نعم ☐ لا

إذا كانت إجابتك بلا يرجى التكرم بذكر الأسباب:

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٢٦ – الى أي مدى تتفق مع العبارات التالية:

	اوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا اوافق	لا اوافق بشدة	لاأعرف
١ بأمكاني ان اقوم بتحليل الوظائف لجمع معلومات عن الأحتياجات التدريبية لدى الموظف.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٢ بأمكاني تصميم أستبانة لجمع معلومات عن الأحتياجات التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٣ بأمكاني ان احلل ألأحتياجات التدريبية للتأكد من سلامة تصنيفها ومن ثم ربطها بالحل التدريبي الصحيح.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٤ بأمكاني أستخدام اسلوب المقابلة لتقييم البرنامج التدريبي.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٥ بأمكاني تصميم أستبانة لتقييم البرنامج التدريبي.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٦ بأمكاني أستخدام مقاييس إحصائية عديدة لتحليل البرامج التدريبية.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
٧ بأمكاني تطوير إختبار تحريري لقياس أداء المتدربين من المعرفة والمهارات نتيجة التدريب.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

تعليقات و ملاحظات إضافية:

٢٧ – إذا كانت لديك اي تعليقات أو ملاحظات متعلقة بعملية التدريب, يرجى ذكرها.

شكرا لتعاونكم.