

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

**EFFECTS OF EMPLOYEE TRAINING PROGRAMME ON JOB
PERFORMANCE AT QUALITY CONTROL COMPANY LIMITED -
TAKORADI**

JAMES ODURO MANTEY

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EFFECTS OF EMPLOYEE TRAINING PROGRAMME ON JOB
PERFORMANCE AT QUALITY CONTROL COMPANY LIMITED (QCCL)-
TAKORADI

BY

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MANAGEMENT

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Name: James Oduro Mantey

Signature:..... Date.....

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Name: Prof. Isaac K. Acheampong

Signature:..... Date.....

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of employing training and development on job performance at Quality Control Company Limited (QCCL). The study argues that when the employee is given the right level of training at the right time and in a conducive environment, the employee will absorb the content of the training and that would help shape his/her skills in performing his/ her task in the workplace. The study assessed the training needs of the employees and how such needs were identified.

The study found out that Quality Control Company used the number of years spent in the company as well as the changing needs of the time to identify the training needs of the employees. The Company used the post training evaluation method to evaluate the training given to the employees.

The study used cross-sectional survey design to collect data from a sample of 83 employees of Quality Control Company. The study revealed that 92.8 percent of the employees showed improvement on their job performance. Quality Control Company had a training policy in place but the timing for the training needs must be re-assessed so that employees who would be selected for training would have the right frame of mind to be able to absorb the training that was given at each event.

It is recommended that training policies though visible must be brought to the shop floor and be so clarified so that employees will be able to identify the rationale for a particular training programme and recommendation for training should be based on merit and not necessary one's status in the organisation.

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DEDICATION

To my mum, my wife Sylvia and Priscilla, my younger sister.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

HRM	-	Human Resource Management
QCCL	-	Quality Control Company Limited
SKAC	-	Skills, Knowledge, Ability and Competence

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

Human capital constitutes an important part in the economic development of nearly all developed countries. Human capital is of particular importance to developing countries. This is because the higher individuals possess the skills needed for industrial work, the greater will be the translation of these skills into useful outcomes. These outcomes may eventually lead to economic development (Cornell & Hartmann, 1998). Indeed, since most developing countries have abundant natural resources, adding value to individual expertise would lead to higher productivity and efficiency.

As part of efforts to achieve economic growth, industries have regular training programmes for their employees. This has however become indispensable for businesses to make available regular training programmes for their workforce since every facet and action of an organisation involves roles played by employees (Collier, Green, Peirson & Wilkinson, 2003).

Cole (2002) suggests that a manager in an organisation will be unsuccessful until he/she has subordinates under him who are well outfitted with skills, talent and knowledge. Thus, the quality of human resource in an organisation, to a large extent determines productivity.

A well functioning organisation thus possesses staff that is adequately skilled to undertake the task of the organisation. Unfortunately, the formal system of education does not adequately teach employment skills for a position in a particular organisation. Few workers have the required Skills, Knowledge, Abilities and Competencies (SKAC) needed to work (Cole, 2002).

This discrepancy in skills and abilities calls for extensive training programmes for employees to enable them to obtain the required SKAC to be able to make adequate contribution towards the organisation's growth (Cole, 2002; Collier et al. 2003). If workers are to experience flexibility and effectiveness on the job, they have to acquire and build up knowledge and skills, and if they are to accept as true that they are well-regarded by the organisation they work for, then they need to see noticeable signs of management's dedication to their training and professional needs.

Cole (2002) argues that training is the procedures of investing in people so that they are equipped with requisite skills to perform. These procedures are part of the general human resource management approach that eventually translates into motivated and high performing employees. Consequently the training of workers is a major issue that all organisations must address.

Nevertheless, the quantity and quality of training carried out differs extremely from organisation to organisation.

Factors influencing the quantity and quality of training actions include; the degree of change in the external environment, the degree of internal change, the

availability of suitable skills within the existing work-force and the extent to which management sees training as a motivating factor in work (Cole, 2002).

The baffling question is, how do organisations approach issues of training of their employees? On the one hand, some organisations, identify their training needs, design and implement training activities in a coordinated manner, and evaluate the results of these training programmes on the performance of their employees (Cole, 2002; Collier at al. 2003).

On the other hand, most organisations undertake their training needs in an unplanned and disorganised way. Training in these organisations is more or less uncoordinated and unmethodical. The case of public sector organisations in Ghana is worthy of note here.

Whereas Ghana has a vast public sector that provides work for the masses with diverse skills, training programmes are largely non-existing or uncoordinated (Collier at al. 2003). This situation is more likely to affect the performance and productivity of the organisations. Therefore an investigation into how training programmes affect performance and productivity in public organisations such as Quality Control Company Ghana Limited is worthwhile.

Statement of the problem

Quality Control Company Ghana Limited (QCCL), one of the subsidiaries of Ghana Cocoa Board, is a public sector organisation. Quality Control Company Limited has been ardent in employee training programmes since its inception.

The Company has departments, units and sectors in charge of training and organising training sessions for its entire staff in the country to equip them with the latest developments in the handling of cocoa beans. It has staff training as its core aim at ensuring that Licensed Buying Companies do not convey low graded cocoa beans to the takeover centres.

Staff members who qualify for study leave are promoted after the successful completion of their programmes. Training programmes undertaken are organised annually, whilst short term programmes are also organised from time to time.

Thus the purpose of the training is to increase skills, knowledge, ability and competence (SKAC) in the organisation's handling of Ghana's cocoa beans as Ghana Cocoa Board seeks to maintain its premium on the World market.

Cole (2002) in a study found that training enhances SKAC and eventually worker performance and productivity in organisations.

Given that the training schedule for the Company is somewhat coordinated compared with other public sector organizations, this study seeks to assess the role of the training programme on workers' performance and productivity at the Takoradi Takeover Centre of Quality Control Company Limited (QCCL).

Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study was to assess the role of employee training on their job performance at Quality Control Company Limited (QCCL).

More specifically, the study aimed to:

1. evaluate the major purpose of employee training programmes at QCCL;
2. analyze the training and development policies in operation at QCCL;
3. assess the training practices and processes of evaluating the training needs of employees at QCCL;
4. assess the effects of training designs on employee job performance at QCCL.

Research questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the major purpose of training programmes at QCCL?
2. What are the training policies and practices in use at QCCL?
3. What are the processes of monitoring and evaluation of training programmes at QCCL?
4. To what extent does training programmes affect employee performance and productivity at QCCL?

Scope of the study

The study was limited to the Takoradi Takeover Center of QCCL and took a retrospective look at the impact of the training practices on employee performance and productivity for over a decade at QCCL's (from 1999 to 2009).

The choice was based on the fact that consistent data for performance indicators for workers were available for this period. Accordingly, the analysis and conclusions were based on this period.

Significance of the study

It is anticipated that the study will inform the management of QCCL and other organisations about the benefits of maintaining coordinated employee training programmes.

It will also help unravel the variety of skill needs of the employees and provide management with appropriate means of providing them.

Finally, the study will add to knowledge on outcomes of employee training programmes on productivity in public organisations.

Organisation of the study

The study is organised into five main chapters. The first chapter deals with the background of the study leading to the statement of the problem, objectives of the study through to the significance of the study. The second chapter reviews related literature in the area of the study such as training and development programmes as well as the training needs and development identification of employees. The third chapter focuses on the research methodology adopted by the researcher towards the study. The fourth chapter deals with the data analysis and presentation of the findings of the study. The final chapter which is the fifth chapter highlights the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Literature review enables researchers to familiarize themselves with what is known in a given field and also to identify gaps in research. This chapter therefore examines the existing literature on approaches to employee training and development and its relevance to the current trend of events in the organisational setup from different perspectives. Again, the chapter discusses the advantages associated with employee training and development programmes for individual, organisational and national outcomes.

Theoretical framework on employee training and development

Human resources are the most dynamic of all the organisation's resources. They need considerable attention from the organisation's management, if they are to realise their full potential in their work (Cole, 2004). Thus motivation, leadership, communication, work restructuring, payment systems and training and development may all be included in the issues which have to be faced by management today. The difference between training and development is that while training usually implies preparation for an occupation or specific skills i.e. it is job oriented rather than personal, development usually suggests a broader

view of knowledge and skills acquisition, it is less job oriented, centers more with employee potential than with immediate skill; it sees employees as adaptable resources (Cole, 2004; Collier et al. 2003).

The scope of training and development activities as in most other activities in an organisation depends on the policy and strategies of the organisation. There are many organisations in the commercial field that carry out the minimum of staff training and development, because as a matter of policy, they prefer to recruit staff that are already trained or professionally qualified.

These organisations are prepared to pay the top market-rates for skilled staff, and what they put into recruitment, selection and pay and benefits they do not put into training and development. The majority of the organisations, however, do have a positive policy on training and development. In some cases, this may be no more than to state that:

‘That the Company will provide resources to ensure that key skills are maintained within the organisation’; in other cases, the policy may refer comprehensively to the various actions it will take to ensure not only a regular supply of skills, but also a high degree of personal motivation through development opportunities provided by the company” (Cole, 2004 p.350).

One could assume that organisations see an important role for training and development in the provision of skills and the improvement of employee motivation. A term frequently used to describe well-organised training and development is systematic training (Cole, 2004). This can be illustrated

diagrammatically as a cycle of events, which is initiated by the organisation's policy, and sustained by its training organisation as shown in Figure 1.

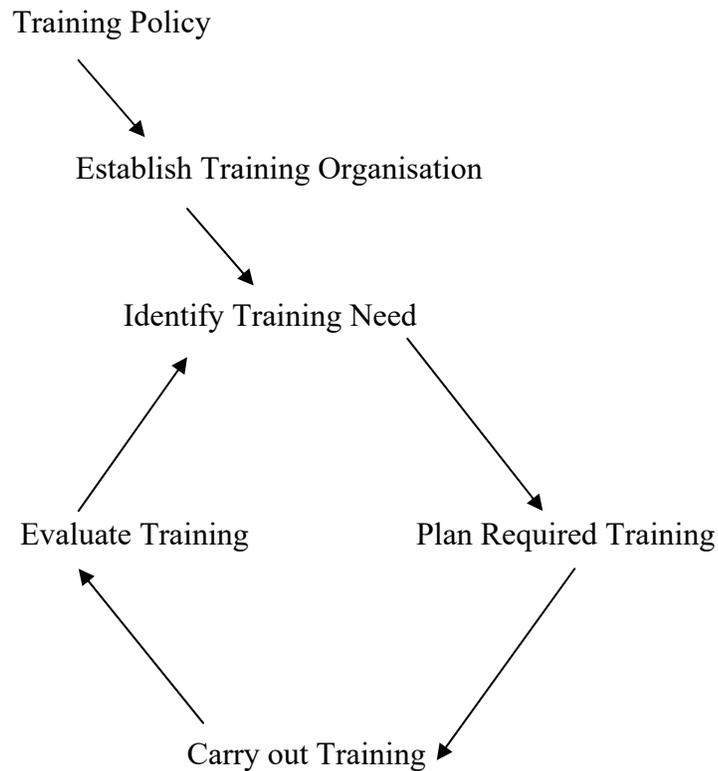


Figure 1: Systematic training: the basic cycle

Source: Cole (2004)

For Cole (2004), once the training organisation has been set up, the first priority is to establish what the training and development needs of the organisation are. This will involve the use of job descriptions, employee appraisal records and other data which may indicate such needs. The next step is to plan the training required to meet the needs identified. This entails such matters as setting the budgets and time tables, and deciding on the objectives, content and methods of training to be employed. The implementation of plans is usually a joint affair

between the training specialists and their line and functional colleagues. Having implemented the required training, it is important to evaluate the results, so far as possible, so that subsequent changes to content and methods can be made, if necessary. Events then move on to the identification of new needs, which re-starts the cycle afresh.

The benefits of systematic training include: the provision of a pool of skilled personnel for the organisation, the improvement of existing skills, an increase in the knowledge and experience of employees, improvements in job performance with resulting improvement in productivity overall, improve service to customers, greater commitment of staff (i.e. increased motivation), increased value of individual employees' knowledge and skills, and personal growth opportunities for employees (Cole, 2004; Collier at al. 2003).

Role of the trainer

The role of training staff in the organisation, thus the part they are expected to play, as well as the part they themselves expect to play, depends considerably on the style or culture of the organisation. If the organisation actively encourages training and development activities, then trainers will have an exciting and important role to play; if however, the organisation wishes only to pay lip-service to training, then the role for trainers will be severely limited (Cole, 2004; Collier at al. 2003) .

The other major factor in deciding what kind of role can be played is that of the training staff's own competence and professionalism. Where trainers are

highly skilled both politically and professionally, they will tend to enjoy a good reputation within the organisation; where their skills and ambitions are of a lower order, then so will their reputation and effectiveness be proportionately lower (Cole, 2004; Collier at al. 2003).

The range of roles that can be played out by training staff is strongly influenced by the requirements of their jobs. In a report of the Training of Trainers, published by the Manpower Services Commission in 1978 (as cited in Cole, 2004), four key areas for training-specialist jobs were identified. These were: planning and organizing activities, determining and managing activities, direct training activities, and consulting and advisory activities. From these four areas of activity, it is possible to see several alternative roles, for example: planner of training, training organiser, training manager, instructor, consultant and adviser. Clearly, when the job is of higher requirement, the range of possible roles would vary, and vice versa for jobs of lower requirement.

As Collier at al. (2003) argue, a training manager for instance, would encompass all the above mentioned roles, although with an emphasis on determining, managing, consultancy and advisory activities. In performing their direct training roles, training specialists are intimately concerned with (a) the identification or assessment of training needs, (b) the design, content and methods of training to be employed and, (c) the evaluation of training.

Identifying training needs

A training need is any shortfall in terms of employee knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes against what is required by the job, or the demands of organisational change (Cole, 2004; Collier at al. 2003). In diagrammatic form, this can be expressed as shown in Figure 2.

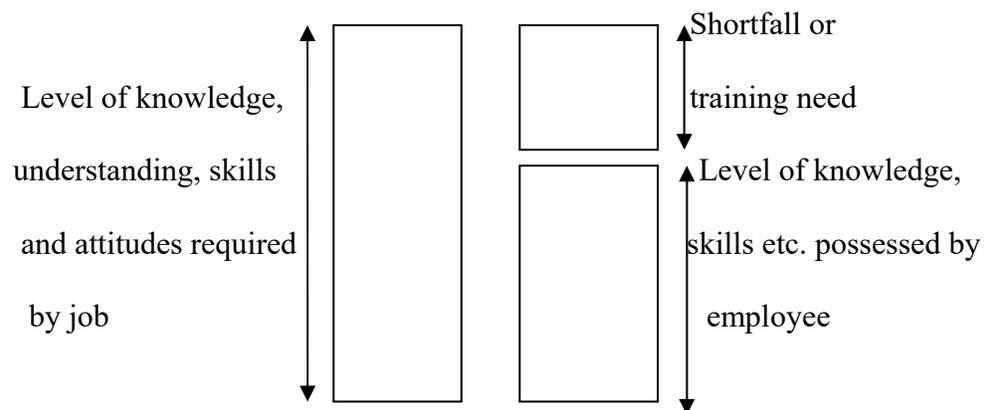


Figure 2: Training Need Diagram

Source: Cole (2004)

All jobs make some demands on their job-holders. Simple jobs will require only a little knowledge with no need for any deeper understanding of what is involved; such jobs will also require little in the way of skill, but may demand more in terms of attitude.

Complex jobs, by comparison, will demand not only specialist knowledge, but also a real understanding of the basic principles or underlying concepts of the work involved; such jobs will probably require a high level of specialist skill, and attitudes that foster an awareness of the importance of teamwork and the necessity for first-rate quality (Cole, 2004; Collier at al. 2003). Cole (2004) suggests that

when training staff conduct a comprehensive training needs analysis in their organisation, they will focus on four main sources for their information:

- organisational level data (example about the management structure, communication channels, products/services offered, and personnel requirements), (b) job-level data (example about the individual job jobs/roles and skill requirements),
- individual data (example performance and appraisal data, training records),
- competence standards (i.e. occupational standards agreed nationally for different levels of responsibility).

The data obtained in this way enable the training staff to draw a comprehensive picture of the areas of current and potential shortfall in requirements. The collection of information for a training needs analysis is carried out by one or more of the following methods:

- Analyzing recorded data relating to the organisation, to jobs and to individuals.
- Analyzing questionnaires and attitude surveys issued to employees.
- Interviewing managers and supervisors about their own or their subordinates' training and development needs.
- Observing the job performance of individuals.
- Monitoring the results of group discussions relating to current work problems and
- Analyzing self-recording diaries kept by managers, specialist and others.

The most popular of the above methods, according to Cole (2004), are those which utilise existing records, and those which involve interviewing managerial and supervisory staff. One particularly important document which contributes to the analysis of training needs is the appraisal form. This is the record of an employee's job performance, usually completed following an annual interview with his superior.

Appraisal interviews and the documentation which accompanies them are the formal mechanism by which organisations can assess or evaluate their human assets. In a well managed organisation, this formal appraisal merely rounds off, in a relatively standardized way, the frequent informal appraisals carried out regularly by the organisation's managers as a normal part of their job. The major objectives of the formal system of appraisal are to identify the current level of job performance, identify employee strengths and weaknesses, to enable employee to improve on current performance, and to identify training and development needs (Collier et al. 2003; Cole 2004).

Planning training

Once training needs have been identified by means of the training needs analysis, the training staff can begin the task of sorting training priorities, drawing up initial plans, costing them and then submitting their draft plans for approval by their senior management. These draft plans spell out the key areas for training, the numbers and categories of employees concerned, the nature of the training proposed, the preliminary time-tabling of the training programmes contained in

the proposals and an estimate of the cost which are likely to be incurred (Collier at al. 2003; Cole 2004).

The training programmes can be formal or informal, and can take place on-the-job or off-the-job. The latter can mean in-company, or in-service, training or can refer to externally provided training. Examples of on-the-job training methods are; on-the-job instruction, coaching, counselling and action learning. On the other hand, methods such as lectures/talk, group discussions and college courses are examples of off-the-job training methods (Collier at al. 2003, Cole, 2004).

Training plans are designed to encompass the following:

- what training is to be provided,
- how it is to be provided,
- when it is to be provided,
- where it is to be provided,
- by whom it is to be provided and
- at what cost it is to be provided.

In most companies, the resources put into training and development represent a considerable investment in time, money and manpower. This investment needs to be evaluated from time to time to ensure, so far as possible, that it is been deployed wisely (Cole, 2004; Collier at al. 2003).

Evaluation of training

The evaluation of training is part of the control process of training. Evaluation methods aim to obtain feedback about the results or outputs of

training, and to use this feedback to assess the value of the training, with a view to improvement, where necessary.

Like any other control process, training evaluation is firstly concerned with setting appropriate standards of training. These may take the form of policies, objectives, adherence to external standards, and standards of trainer-training and qualifications.

Clearly, the more precise the standards set; the easier it is to evaluate the success of training. The next important step will be the collection of relevant feedback data about training. Evaluation can take place at different levels of results, ranging from immediate to long-term results. Each level requires different evaluation strategy which is presented in Figure 3.

From Figure 3, training-centred evaluation aims to assess the inputs to training; thus whether one is using the right tools for training or not. Reaction-centred evaluation, which is probably the most widely used evaluation strategy, seeks to obtain and assess the reactions of trainees to the learning experiences they have been put through. Learning-centred evaluation seeks to measure the degree of learning that has been achieved. This is usually achieved by testing trainees following the training, as in a driving test. Job-related evaluation is aimed at assessing the degree of behaviour change which has taken place on-the-job after returning from a period of training.

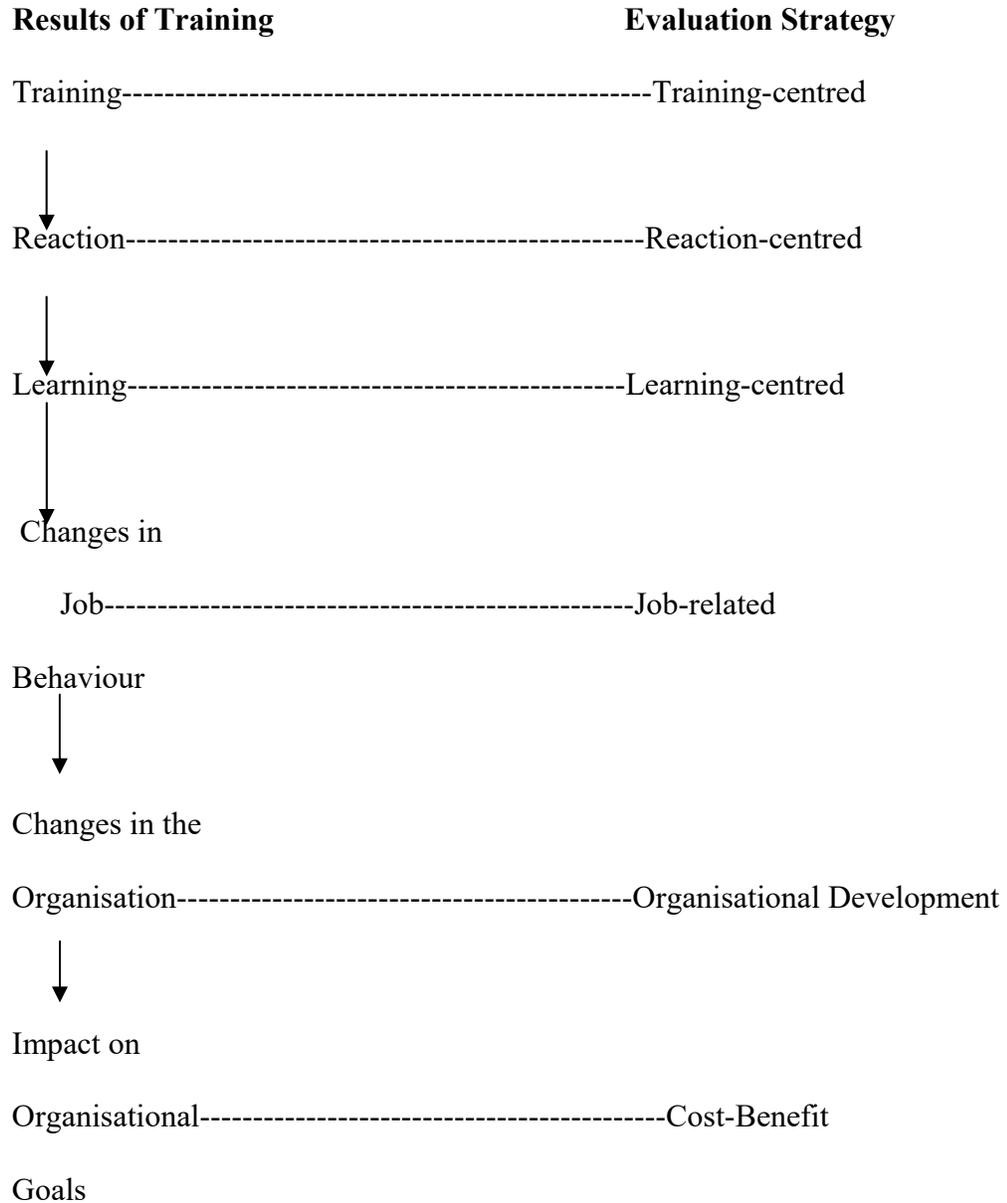


Figure 3: Training and evaluation

Source: Cole (2004)

Organisational changes can be brought about by training, and the evaluation strategy is linked to an organisational development programme. Finally, there is an impact of training on organisational goals to be considered i.e. the effect of training on organisational profitability and company image.

However, as legitimate as the question may be, it is extremely difficult to evaluate on account of the many other variables which have impact on these goals (Cole, 2004; Collier at al. 2003).

Human resource management and training

Human resource management has emerged as a major function in most organisations and is the focus for a wide-ranging debate concerning the nature of the contemporary employment relationships. Managing human resources is one of the key elements in the coordination and management of work organisations. Several new technologies are used to ensure the creation and delivery of services and goods in modern economies. Whatever means used, the role of individuals and groups as employees and the ability of management to effectively deploy such a resource is vital to the interest of both the employee and organization (Collier at al. 2003; Cole, 2004).

Traditionally, human resource concerned itself with recruitment, selection, placement, training, compensation and industrial relations among others (Armstrong, 1996). According to Beer et al. (1984), general management makes important decisions daily that affect this relationship, and this leads to a map of human resource management territory, the core of which they refer to as the four Cs'. These are discussed as follows:

Competence of employees is where high competence creates a positive attitude towards learning and development. Commitment of employees entails high commitment means that employees will be motivated to hear, understand and

respond to management's communication relating to the organisation of work. Congruence between the goals of employees and those of the organization is where higher congruence is a reflection of policies and practices which bring about a higher coincidence of interest among management, shareholders and workers alike. Cost effectiveness of human resource management practices means that the organisation's human resource cost, that is wages, benefits, training and indirect costs such as strikes, turnover and grievances, have been kept equal to or less than those of competitors.

Beardwell, Holden and Claydon (2004) argue that the recognition of the importance of training in recent years has been heavily influenced by the intensification of competition and the relative success of organisations where investment in employee development is considerably emphasized. They add that technological developments and organisational change have gradually led some employers to the realization that success relies on the skills and abilities of their employees, and this means considerable and continuous investment in training and development.

It is the view of Beardwell, Holden and Claydon (2004) that human resource management concepts such as commitment to the company and the growth in the quality movement have led senior management teams to realize the increased importance of training, employee development and long-term education. Such concepts require not only careful planning but a greater emphasis on employee development.

Types of training

According to Cole (2004), training entails learning activity directed towards the acquisition of specific knowledge and skills for the purpose of an occupation or task. The focus of training is the job or task performed by the employee. The needs to have efficiency and safety in the operation of particular machines or equipment as well as the need for an effective sales force are few examples. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) see training as the systematic process of altering the behaviour and or attitudes of employees in a direction to increase the achievement of organisational goals. This means that for any organisation to succeed in achieving the objectives of its training programme, the design and implementation must be planned and systematically tailored towards enhancing performance and productivity.

The Manpower Services Commission of the United Kingdom which was set up by the 1973 Employment and Training Act (as cited in Cannon-Bowers, 2001) defined training as a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. According to the Manpower Services Commission (as cited in Cole 2004), the purpose of training in the work situation is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organisation.

Most organisations have long recognized the importance of training to their development. As new technology progresses, making certain jobs and skills redundant, an increasing emphasis is being placed on the need for a skilled and

highly trained workforce. Many of the jobs being replaced by machines have been of an unskilled and semi-skilled nature, and this emphasizes the need for higher education and skills for those wishing to gain employment in the future.

Armstrong (1996) and Sherman (1998) emphasized that training should be developed and operated within an organisation by appreciating learning theories and approaches if the training is to be well understood. They expressly indicated that the success of a training programme depends more on the organisation's ability to identify training needs and the care with which it prepares the programme so that if the trainees do not learn what they are supposed to learn, the training has not been successful. They further indicated that training experts believe that if trainees do not learn, it is probably only because some important learning principle had been overlooked. This implies that the success or failure of a training programme is frequently related to the recognition and application of basic psychological principles of learning. This assertion is not necessarily right. If the trainees do not learn anything then of what benefit will they be to the organisation.

If trainees return empty, with nothing to contribute, it can also mean that even though the organisation might have done all that is necessary to ensure a successful training programme, the wrong candidate might have been selected for the training programme. There are various kinds of training programmes but the type of training needed will vary from one organisation to the other. Cole (2004) and Collier et al. (2003) suggest the following as some of the training programmes available to most organisations;

Refresher training involves refresher programmes are organised by the organisation for the employees in training institutions. The employees are exposed to modern trends in their field of operations.

Orientation training is usually given to new employees to acquaint them with the culture of the organisation.

Career or development training is the kind of training that shapes the skills and develop the intellect of employees to take up future responsibilities in the organisation.

Job training is where the employee is actually thought how to perform the job upon which he/she was employed. Over here, the necessary skills and experience are acquired for the task ahead.

Benefits of training

The purpose of training is mainly to improve knowledge and skills, and to change attitudes or behaviour. It is one of the most important potential motivators which can lead to many possible benefits for both individuals and the organisation. Changing technology requires that employees possess the knowledge, skills and abilities needed to cope with new processes and production techniques (Collier et al. 2003; Cole, 2004). According to Cole (2004) training can achieve among others: high morale in which employees who receive training have increased confidence and motivation; lower cost of production where training eliminates waste because trained personnel are able to make better and economic use of material and equipment thereby reducing and avoiding waste;

lower turnover because training brings a sense of security at the workplace which reduces labour turnover and absenteeism; change management in which training helps to manage change by increasing the understanding and involvement of employees in the change process and also provides the skills and abilities needed to adjust to new situations; training provides recognition, enhanced responsibility and the possibility of increased pay and promotion; training gives a feeling of personal satisfaction and achievement, and broadens opportunities for career progression and help to improve the availability and quality of staff.

Derek and Hall (2000) looked at the training environment and the structure of organisations, and emphasized on the effects of internal political and cultural factors on training. Sherman et al. (1998) argue that many new employees can be equipped with most of the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to start work, but others may require extensive training to ensure their effective contribution to the organisation. A majority however, will require some type of training at one time or another to maintain an effective level of job performance. According to Krietner (1995), no matter how carefully job applicants are screened, typically a gap remains between what the employee does know and what they should know. An organisation which desires to gain the competitive edge in its respective industry, needs among other things, extensive and effective training of its human resources.

Training is therefore a key element for improved organisational performance; it increases the level of individual and organisational competences. It helps to reconcile the gap between what should happen and what is happening-

between desired targets or standards and actual levels of work performance. Although many employers continue to have reservations about the cost and extent of tangible business returns from training, the development of skills has been identified as a key factor in sharpening competitiveness (Collier et al. 2003; Cole, 2004; Derek & Hall, 2000).

Principles of training

Since the object of training is to assist a learner acquire the behaviour necessary for effective work performance, it is essential that a clear grasp of the ways in which learning theories are applied when designing training programmes are laid bare.

According to Bryan (1990), there are four main requirements for learning to take place. The first is motivation where people learn if they accept the need for training and commit to it. If their motivation is weak, for instance, if they doubt their ability to learn, no matter how well their training is designed and implemented, its effectiveness will be limited.

Flippo (1976) also came out with the fact that the more highly motivated the trainee, the more quickly and thoroughly a new skill or knowledge is learned. This means training must be related to something which the trainee desires. This could be money, job promotion, recognition and so on. The second requirement is cue in which through training, the learner recognizes relevant cues and associates them with desired responses. The third one is response which requires training to be immediately followed with positive reinforcement to enable the learner feel the

response. The reinforcement should be positive, timely and consistent (Leslie, 1990). Finally, the fourth requirement is feedback-the information the learner receives indicating the quality of his response is the feedback. It should be made available as quickly as possible to ensure possible effective learning.

Even though these learning principles are good, they fail to talk about practice where the learner actively participates in using the skills and knowledge acquired. Furthermore, it also fails to mention that the level of aptitude and intelligence of individuals are different and that could affect the methods of training.

The training process, policies and resources

Scores of literature available on training (e.g. Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2000; Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001) suggest that traditionally, training in an organisation involves systematic approach which generally follows a sequence of activities involving the establishment of a training policy, followed by training needs identification, training plans and programmes design and implementation, evaluation and training feedback for further action. Kenney et al. (1992) make a point that companies should have different policies for training depending on the class or level of employment or level of employees to be trained. They pointed out that training policies are necessary for the following reasons namely to provide guidelines for those responsible for planning and implementing training, to ensure that a company's training resources are allocated to pre-determined

requirements, to provide for equality of opportunity for training throughout the company; and to inform employees of training and development opportunities.

Though these policies seem accurate, they are silent on the elements of budgetary provision and top management support for training. According to Armstrong (1996), training policies are expressions of the training philosophy of the organisation. Armstrong (1996) further stated that training policy shows the proportion of turnover that should be allocated to training and advocated that a training philosophy is imperative to indicate the degree of importance the organisation attaches to training. This will if not eliminate entirely, reduce the laissez-faire approach to training.

These benefits of training notwithstanding, policies can be a difficult task especially for first time directors, who do not have the advice of a training officer with previous experience at the level.

Theoretical models linking training to firm's performance

The knowledge and skills workers acquired through training have become important in the face of the increasingly rapid changes in technology, products, and systems. Most organisations invest in training because they believe that higher performance will be the end result (Kozlowski and Klein, 2000). However, the theoretical framework for the relationship between training and firm performance has been subjected to considerable debates. Devanna, Fombrun, and Tichy (1981) proposed a model which emphasizes the interrelatedness and coherence of human resource management (HRM) policies and performance.

According to their model, training and other HRM activities aim to increase individual performance. Thus, the result leads to higher firm performance.

Guest (1987) also came out with a theoretical framework to show how HRM policies have effects on human resources and organisational outcomes.

The strength of Guest's (1987) model is that it is a valuable analytical framework for studying the relationship between HRM policies and organisational performance because it is more careful, clear and easy for empirical testing. Guest (1987) sees commitment as a vital outcome, concerned with the goals linking employees with firm performance. The goal of quality is important to ensure the high quality of products and services. Therefore, training and development policy plays an importance role in HRM and contributes to improved strategic integration, employee commitment, flexibility and quality.

HRM outcomes then lead to high job performance, high problem-solving, high cost-effectiveness, and low turnover, reduced absence, and fewer grievances. Another theoretical model which emphasises the interrelatedness and the coherence of HR practices, firm strategy and firm-level outcomes is one presented by Wright and McMahan (1992). They presented six theoretical models altogether from the fields of organisational theory, finance, and economics.

Three of them namely resource-based view of the firm, cybernetic systems, and behavioural perspective consider the relationship between training and firm performance. First, in the resource-based view, firm resources include physical capital, human capital and organisational capital that enable the firm to improve its efficiency and effectiveness. Its resources determine the strength of a

firm in the long term. In order for a firm's resources to provide sustained competitive advantages, however, it must have four attributes which are valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, and cannot be replaced with another resource by competing companies (Barney, 1991). Therefore, human capital is a primary source of sustained competitive advantage to a firm because apart from the criteria mentioned above it cannot be duplicated or bought in the market by competitors. Applying the resource-based view to training suggests that training can provide knowledge and skills for employees and in turn this may lead to high firm performance.

Second, in the behavioural perspective models, employee behaviour plays an important role as a mediator between strategy and firm performance (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; Schuler, 1989). The models do not focus on knowledge, skills or abilities of employees, but focus only on employee role behaviours because the employee's attitudes, behaviours, and commitments could affect the firm performance. Thus, the employee role behaviour can be instrumental in the creation of a competitive advantage.

HRM practices can be considered as an option to promote the role behaviour more efficiently and effectively, especially HR training policy.

Third, a popular theoretical model applied to HRM literature is the cybernetic model of HR systems. It is based on the general systems models and includes input from the environment i.e., inputs of HR knowledge, skills, and abilities, through (HR behaviours) and output systems i.e. productivity, sale, job

satisfaction, turnover, etc. When the model is applied to strategic HRM, Wright and Snell (1991) focus on two major responsibilities:

Competence management which deals with individual skills required to implement a given organisational strategy; and behaviour management namely activities that seek to agree and coordinate attitude and behaviour of individuals for organisational strategy and goals. Therefore, training will improve knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviour of employees. This in turn leads to positive organisational outcomes.

A suitable and excellent analytical framework which uses a multilevel approach to training has been offered by Kozlowski and Klein (2000). The multi-level model bridges the gap between theoretical models of training needs assessment, design, and evaluation, and the higher levels at which training must have an impact if it is to contribute to organisational effectiveness (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000).

It is focused on training transfer and embedded in two distinct transfer types namely horizontal and vertical transfer. Horizontal transfer concentrates on traditional models of training effectiveness. Kozlowski and Klein (2000) proposed 'top-down contextual effects' which they described as a group and organisational factors that have direct and moderating effects on learning and transfer. These effects have been the source of contemporary theory and research addressing the influence of organisational factors on motivation to learn, transfer, and training effectiveness at the individual level of analysis. Vertical transfer examines the link between individual training outcomes and organisational outcomes.

There are two distinctive forms of vertical transfer processes that is, composition and compilation. Composition concentrates on individual contribution at the same content, while compilation focuses on individual contribution at the different or diverse content.

To summarize, first, it is obvious that similarities exist between the normative models of HRM, whether it is the US (Devanna et al.) or the British (Guest's 1987 model). They have put training on a set of HRM policies and consider training as an important and vital policy for improving knowledge, skills, attitude and motivation of employees.

Second, the HR system is a complex set of policies designed to manage labour in the organisation and integrate into organisational strategy in order to create high performance for organisation. Third, this review of theoretical models linking training to firm performance also suggests that it is explicitly recognized that no organisation can attain its goals or organisational strategy without labour that has the right knowledge, skills, abilities, behaviour, and attitudes. Therefore, training plays an important role in improving the quality of employees directly and effecting on firm performance through HR outcomes (Collier et al. 2003; Cole, 2004).

Finally, organisational researchers studying training and firm performance need to consider the impact of various dimensions of employee training programmes, the type of training methods and design, the type of employees trained, and time spent by employees in training on firm performance (Cole 2004).

Impact of training on an individual's wages

A qualification is a signal to employers that the individual is more able than other applicants. An individual will therefore theoretically invest in education or training if the costs are compensated by sufficiently higher anticipated future earnings (Collier et al. 2003; Cole, 2004).

The weight of evidence relating to the positive impact of education on future earnings is strong. For the western economies, the gross rate of return to an individual of a year's additional education ranges between five and 10 percent.

In New Zealand, Norton, Sanderson, Booth and Stroombergen (2000) found that the effect on earnings of an additional year of education is probably around six and eight percent and certainly less than 10 percent. Also, in the US, Krueger and Lindahl (2001) found that an additional year's schooling appears to raise an individual's earnings by about 10 percent. Furthermore, Blundell, Dearden, Meghir, and Sianesi (1999) in the UK, point out that there are diminishing returns to successive investments in human capital i.e. the rate of return declines with the level of schooling.

A number of studies have been undertaken to examine the effect of increasing training on wages and most of them have found a positive effect. Blundell et al. (1999) in the UK found that individuals undertaking employer-provided or vocational training earn, on average, just above five percent higher real earnings than individuals who have not undertaken such training; the rates of return are in the five and 10 percentage range if the training also results in a middle or higher vocational qualification being obtained; skills acquired from

training depreciate over time, suggesting that training needs to be renewed to retain its benefits.

Other studies with similar findings have included the following. Dearden, Reed and van Reenen (2000) in the UK found that increasing the proportion of workers trained in an industry by five percentage points (say from 10% to 15%) is associated with a one point six percent increase in wages. In Australia, Smith (2001) summarised the international literature that measures the wage effects of participation in enterprise-based training.

The wage effects range varied within and between studies, as well as by country, with the average range being eight percent and nine percent. Also in Australia, Long (2001) found that the average earnings effects for males of skilled vocational qualifications is nine point two percent and for basic vocational qualifications is seven point six percent. Lastly, in the Netherlands, Groot (1995) found that for participants in enterprise-related training the wage effects are 21 percent.

Impact of training on firm-level profitability

In the same way that an individual will consider the returns to training, firms will undertake training if the returns, in terms of productivity gains and hence enhanced profitability, outweigh the cost. In general, the effects of training on firm productivity and profitability appear to be less well researched and less clear-cut than those of training on wages (Collier et al. 2003; Cole, 2004).

An estimate to quantify the contribution of training on firm productivity ranges from very large effects to little or no effects. Some of the studies that indicate that training impacts positively on productivity include the following: Prais, Jarvis, and Wagner (1989) in their study involving a matched sample of hotels in Britain and Germany found that labour requirements were about 50 percent higher in the London hotels, and that this difference was attributable mainly to qualified manpower (vocational training).

Secondly, Dearden et al. (2000) studying the production sector of the UK found that raising the proportion of employees trained in an industry from 10 percent to 15 percent is associated with at least a three percentage point increase in the value added per worker. Third, In Australia, Blandy, Dockery, Hawke and Webster (2000) found a positive impact from investment in training by enterprises on their productivity. However, some found little or no relationship between training and productivity. In New Zealand, Business NZ and the Industry Training Federation (2003) found a range of weak non-linear relationships between training and productivity.

Additionally, Lynch and Black (1995) found that, in the US manufacturing sector, the number of employees in training had no significant effect on productivity. Having said this, several studies (see for example Dearden et al, 2000) have observed that training affects productivity than the wage effect. This confirms the theory that not all the productivity gains resulting from training accrue to the trainee through higher wages, so that investment in training remains largely profitable for the firm.

Conceptual framework

Thus far, the foregoing review has shown that there is a clear relationship between employee training, productivity and economic growth. This has led to the development of a conceptual framework for the study. To achieve the objectives of optimum productivity, there is the need for in-put factors that will shape the quality of human resources in the organisation in order for the organization to achieve higher employee outcomes. The in-put factors come under resources and logistics; skill/competence needs; requisite work attitudes; motivation; and monitoring and evaluation.

These in-put factors properly integrated will translate into equipping employees with adequate competences in performing their roles. These then lead to employee outcomes namely high performance; increased productivity; and improved income/wage. The overall outcomes then become higher profits and competitiveness of the organisation with decreased turnover among employees.

Find below an illustration of this interrelationship between the in-put and employee outcomes.

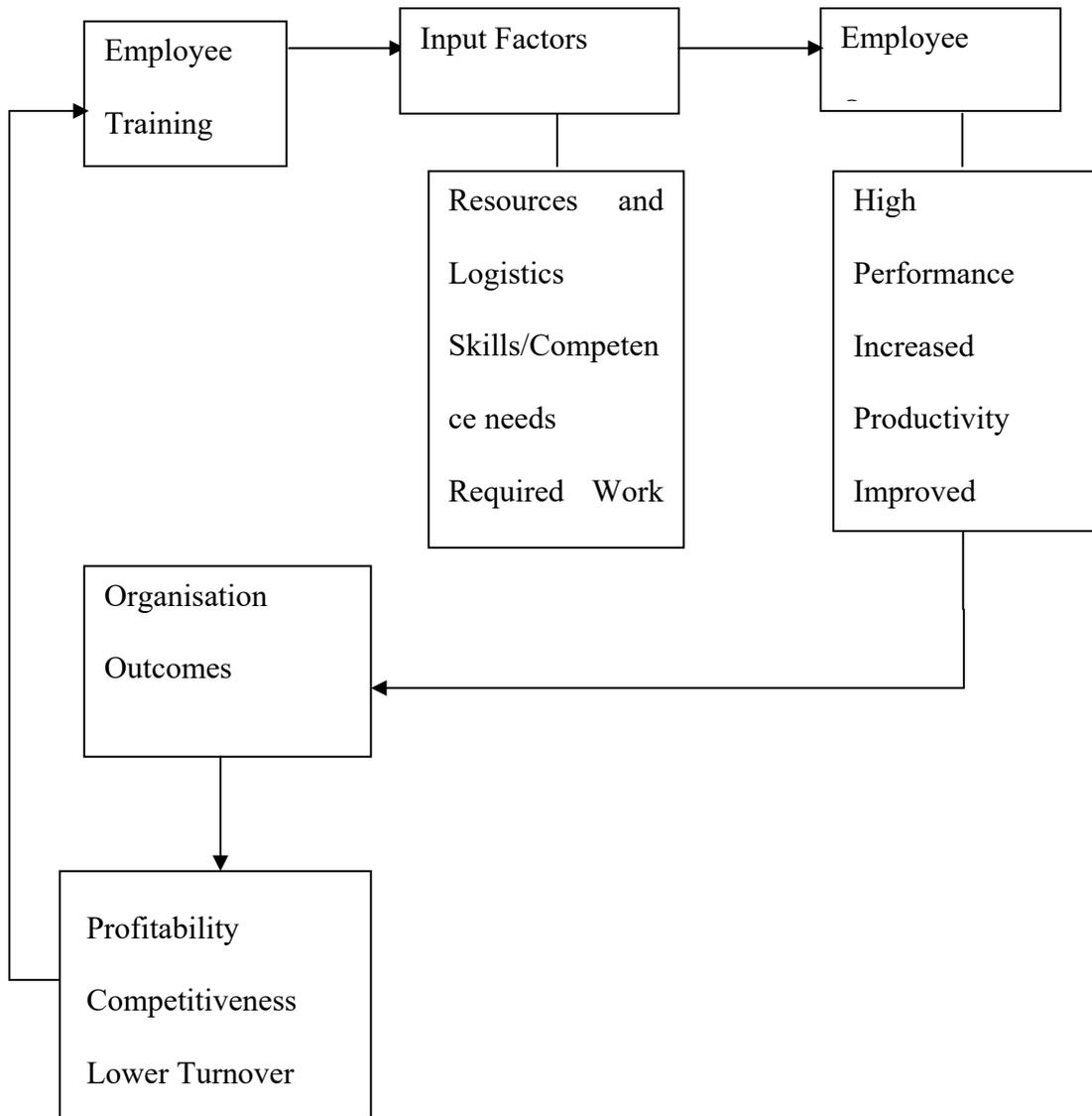


Figure 4: Employee training and outcome relationship

Source: Author's construct, 2011

Concluding remarks

The review has so far revealed the importance and purpose of employee training in an organisation, and how it contributes to productivity as well as economic growth. The review has unraveled the fact that when employees are adequately trained, they develop the appropriate competences to enable them increase their productivity levels and their wage levels also increase.

The final outcome is profitability and competitiveness of the organisation. Again, it was observed from the empirical review that studies exploring the connection between training and productivity are scanty in developing countries such as Ghana. Based on these observations, this study is being undertaken to find out the state of employee training programmes at the Quality Control Company Limited in Takoradi.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Methodology in research is very important because it systematically organises the various aspects of the research process in order to achieve valid and reliable results. This chapter highlights the methods the researcher used in gathering the relevant data as well as how the respondents were selected to participate in the study.

Study design

A research design is a plan of study (Oppenheim, 1996). Bryman (2004) adds that a research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data and thus the choice of research design reflects decisions about the priority given to a range of dimensions of the research process.

This study used the cross-sectional survey design in which data were collected across a population through sampling. The advantage of a cross-sectional design is that it makes it possible for data to be collected on a snapshot basis from a larger population at a specific time often using survey items. The survey approach is acceptable in the literature in relation to this type of research.

Survey as defined by Monette, Sullivan and Dejong (2002) is “a data collection technique in which information is gathered from individuals, called respondents, by having them respond to questions. Monette et al. (2002) revealed that, it is probably the most widely used research method in social science research. According to Monette et al, (2002), many techniques available for conducting a survey make it a versatile tool. Nonetheless, all surveys share certain characteristics.

First, surveys involve collecting data from large samples of people. Therefore they are ideal for obtaining data representative of populations too large to be dealt with by other methods.

Secondly, all surveys involve presenting respondents with a series of questions to be answered. These questions may tap matters of fact, attitudes, opinions, or future anticipations (Cohen, et al., 2007; Monette, et al., 2002).

Sources of data

The data for this research came in two forms namely primary and secondary sources. The existing data on performance and productivity of employees of QCCL for the past ten (10) years of the training programme were used to assess the impact of training on output of employees. Primary data were gathered from the respondents using the survey questionnaire.

Study population

All employees of the Takoradi branch of Quality Control Company Limited (QCCL) comprising, administrative staff, operational/field staff and drivers constituted the target population. At the time of the study, there were 276 employees of QCCL. In all, the study made use of a representative sample of the workers in the three departments at QCCL. The workers in the three departments were distributed as follows: administrative (18); operational/field staff (249); and driving (9). Thus in sum the entire staff is 276.

Table 1: Summary information on respondents

Departments	Population distribution	Sample size (n*30%)	Approximation of Sample size	% Representation
Administration	18	5.4	5	6
Operation/Field	249	74.7	75	90.4
Drivers	9	2.7	3	3.6
Total	276	82.8	83	100.0

*n= population size.

Source: Field survey, 2011

Sample size and sampling techniques

Sampling is a method by which the researcher endeavours to select a representative group from the population under study (Neumann, 2002).

For Neumann (2002), an entire population tends to be too large to work with and a small group of participants must act as a representative sample, thus the need for sampling. The study employed purposive, stratified and quota techniques. The workers in the various departments were stratified according to sex. After that quotas were assigned to each stratum in order to obtain a representative sample.

As stated earlier, QCCL Takoradi had three (3) departments and a total workforce of 276. Neumann (2002) recommends a large sampling ratio (about 30 percent) for small populations (under 1000); a small sampling ratio (about 10 percent) for moderately large populations (1000); and about one percent for very large populations. Using Neumann's (2002) approach, a large sampling ratio of 30 percent was required in this study. Therefore, a sample of 83 workers was stratified and randomly selected via the lottery method. The quotas for the departments were distributed as follows: administration (5); operational/field staff (75); and driving (3).

Data collection instruments and procedure

The study used questionnaires to gather data from respondents. The use of questionnaire is very common in social researches. In most cases, questionnaires are the only method of data collection. In other cases, they are used in addition to

other methods. In either case they are administered to the respondents by mail or personally by the researcher.

The main characteristic of this method is that data are offered by the respondents, with limited interference on the part of researcher (Monette et al., 2002). In spite of the fact that they do not allow probing, prompting and clarification of questions, questionnaires are still the most appropriate research instrument for this study because they offer greater assurance of anonymity, less opportunity for bias and errors and a stable, consistent and uniform measure variation. Besides, they also produce quick results.

The questionnaires were used to solicit information from the eighty-three (83) respondents from the various departments. The questionnaire consisted of both closed-ended and open-ended items.

It sought demographic information of respondents, their training experiences, their levels of performance and productivity. The details of the questionnaire are set out in the appendix. The total questionnaires administered were hundred (100), but after collection and editing, eighty-three valid ones were used for the study.

Pre-test

To ensure the reliability and validity of the data collection instruments, a pre-test was conducted at the Takoradi branch of the Cocoa Marketing Company Limited. The Company was selected because of the training programme it had in place for her employees.

About twenty (20) workers were selected from Warehousing and Port Operations Department to respond to the questionnaire items. The supervisors were interviewed on the impact of training programme on productivity. This pretest revealed loopholes in the instruments which were accordingly corrected for the main study.

Ethical considerations

Ethics in research gives researchers the guidelines on how they should conduct research. The guidelines ensure that research is carried out in a way that is in the best interest of the respondents. It is the researcher's responsibility to act in an ethical manner (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996).

In this study, attention was paid to ethical issues of informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity. Respondents were informed about the objective of the study and their participation was non-compulsory.

The researcher adhered to strict confidentiality of the information received from respondents and the information from the respondents were used only for the intended purpose. To ensure anonymity, survey items were assigned unique identities in order not to expose the identity of the respondents.

Main Fieldwork

The main fieldwork was carried out at QCCL in Takoradi and spanned a period of eight weeks i.e. from October to November, 2011. Questionnaires were administered to respondents in their various departments by the researcher after

which they were given ample time to complete at their own convenience. The researcher then made period checks and reminders to retrieve completed questionnaires.

Data processing and analysis

The Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version 0.6 statistical package was used to analyse the data. The SPSS package was used because it was the most suitable for the type of data analyzed. The researcher used frequency tables and cross tabulation in the analysis. The open-ended items were thematically grouped and then transformed into close-ended formats for use in the SPSS software.

Concluding remarks

The main issue captured here is the methodology that deals with the research design used, the sources of data that were used for the work, sample size and sample technique used, data collection instruments and procedure used as well as the data processing and analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter discusses the background profile of respondents for this study. The chapter again looks at the employee training programmes in the study organisation and how respondents have experienced these programmes. In addition, the relationships between the training programmes and job performance are examined. Lastly, the challenges faced by employees in accessing training programmes are discussed.

Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

The following discusses the various social and demographic characteristics of the sample namely sex and age, educational qualification, status, and tenure in the organization.

Sex and age distribution of respondents

A total of 83 respondents were reached out of the 100 employees who collected the questionnaires. The data showed that there were more males than females in the selected sample at the Quality Control Company, Takoradi. Indeed, of the 83 respondents, an overwhelming majority (92.8%) were males with a few (7.2%) females. Regarding age, majority of the respondents were within the 33 year category.

Indeed, of the 83 respondents, 22 (26.5%) were within the 20-29 age group, 47 (56.6%) were within the 30-39 age group, 11 (13.3%) fell within the 40-49 age group and 3 (3.6%) were within the 50-59 age group.

Table 2 presents information on age and sex distribution of the respondents and shows that the sample constitutes employees in their very youthful ages. It thus expected that this youthful workforce when given the requisite training will yield higher performance and productivity.

Table 2: Sex and age distribution of respondents

Age Group	Sex of respondents				Total (%)
	Male (%)	Female (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)	
20-29	22 (28.6)	0 (0.0)	22 (26.5)		22 (26.5)
30-39	43 (55.8)	4 (66.7)	47 (56.6)		47 (56.6)
40-49	10 (13.0)	1 (16.7)	11 (13.3)		11 (13.3)
50-59	2 (2.6)	1 (16.7)	3 (3.6)		3 (3.6)
Total	77 (100)	6 (100.0)	83 (100.0)		83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

As depicted in Table 2, majority of the male respondents (about 55.8%) fall within the 30-39 age group, 28.6 percent fall within the 20-29 age brackets, 13 percent fall within the 40-49 age brackets, whilst only 2.6 percent fall within the 50-59 age brackets. Similarly, majority of the female respondents (about 66.7%) fall within the 30-39 age group with just a handful in the other age brackets. One observes that whereas there were more males than females, there were relatively younger females than their male counterparts in the sample.

Educational qualification and status of respondents

Majority of the respondents had secondary school qualification. Out of the 83 respondents, there were 18 (21.7%) respondents with basic education certificate, 46 (55.4%) secondary school qualification, 9 (10.8%) had higher national diploma, and 10 (12.0%) had bachelor's degree.

Table 3: Educational qualification and status of respondents

Status	Educational Level				Total (%)
	Basic (%)	Secondary (%)	Diploma (%)	Degree (%)	
QCO	0 (0.0)	3 (6.5)	0 (0.0)	9 (90.0)	12 (14.5)
QCA	1 (5.6)	9 (19.6)	6 (66.7)	1 (10.0)	17 (20.5)
Driver	0 (0.0)	3 (6.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (3.6)
Sampler	17 (94.4)	28 (60.9)	2 (22.2)	0 (0.0)	47 (56.6)
Secretary	0 (0.0)	3 (6.5)	1 (11.1)	0 (0.0)	4 (4.8)
Total	18 (100)	46 (100)	9 (100)	10 (100)	83 (100)

Source: Field survey, 2011

A disaggregation of the respondents by status, as illustrated in Table 3, showed that majority of the respondents in supervisory positions namely quality control officers (QCOs) and quality control assistants (QCAs) held higher educational qualifications such as diploma and degree than those in subordinate positions. As seen from Table 3, the majority of respondents with basic education (94.4%) and secondary education (60.9%) qualifications were samplers compared with those with diploma (66.7%) and degree (90.0%) who were QCA and QCO respectively. Thus from Table 3, the workers have an appreciable level of education such that they must be trained well in other to meet the challenges of the day as the literature specifies that workers with good training and development skills would survive in this challenging world (Cole, 2004; Collier et al. 2003) .

Status and tenure of respondents in the organisation

Out of the 83 respondents, there were 29 (34.9 %) supervisors and 54 (65.1 %) subordinates. Regarding the number of years spent in the organisation, the data revealed that majority of the respondents have spent relatively shorter periods in the organisation. About 53 percent of the respondents had worked for five years or less in the organisation. Again, only about 4.8 Percent have worked for between 16 to 20 years and just a handful (1.2%) had worked for 21 years and beyond. That observation notwithstanding, for those who have worked beyond 10 years, there were more supervisors 5 (17.1%) compared with 7 (13.0%) in the

subordinates category. One observes from Table 4 that majority of the subordinates had worked for few number of years compared with the supervisors. This observation might probably account for the positions held by the respondents, since long tenure partly accounts for higher statuses of employees in an organization.

Table 4: Tenure and status of respondents

Tenure	Status of respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
<5 years	13 (44.8)	31 (57.4)	44 (53.0)
6-10 years	11 (37.9)	16 (29.6)	27 (32.5)
11-15 years	3 (10.3)	4 (7.4)	7 (8.8)
16-20 years	1 (3.4)	3 (5.6)	4 (4.8)
21+ years	1 (3.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.2)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

Data from Table 4 suggest that the longer one stays in the organisation, the higher his chances of getting training. This is clearly in line with the arguments made by Cole (2004) and Collier et al. (2003) that employees with long tenure are more privy to training opportunities than recently recruited colleagues.

Purposes of employee training programmes in the organisation

Respondents generally showed a high degree of awareness of training programmes in the organisation. Indeed of the 83 respondents, 72 (86.7%) said they were aware of the existence of training programmes in the organisation. Only 11 (13.3%) respondents said they were not aware of any training programmes in the organisation. A breakdown of this information into supervisors and subordinates showed that supervisors tended to have slightly higher knowledge of training programmes than subordinates in the organisation. This is to be expected as supervisors tend to have more training opportunities than their subordinates.

As Table 5 illustrates, out of the 29 supervisors, 96.6 percent of them were aware of training programmes in the organisation as compared to their subordinates where 81.5 percent were aware of such programmes.

With regard to awareness of training programme, 86.7 percent of the respondents were positive. This is a good sign for the organisation as it has made training an important part of its rudiments. This obviously adds to what the literature say about the importance of training and development in the competitive world. Employees with higher levels of awareness about training programmes are more likely to embrace such programmes and thus lead such organisations to be more competitive in their operational environment (Sherman, 1998; Beardwell, et. al., 2004).

Table 5: Knowledge of training programmes by status of respondents

Knowledge of Programme	Status of respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)

Yes	28 (96.6)	44 (81.5)	72 (86.7)
No	1 (3.4)	10 (18.5)	11 (13.3)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

One observes from Table 5 that supervisors rather than subordinates tended to have more knowledge of training programmes in the organisation. This observation might not only be to the fact that supervisors were closer to management than the subordinates but also due to their huge responsibilities which demanded adequate skills and training. This observation is thus consistent with what the literature say about the responsibilities of line managers and supervisors as the overall performance of their direct reports have a bearing on their total productivity (Cole, 2004; Collier et al., 2003).

Employee training experiences of respondents

Even though some of the respondents said they were unaware of training programmes in the organisation, further probing, as shown in Table 6, revealed that all 83 respondents had experienced one form of training or another.

Table 6: Employee training experiences

Last training experience	Response	(%)
Over 6 months	67	(80.7)
Over 2 years	15	(18.1)
Over 3 years	1	(1.2)

Total	83 (100.0)
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Source: Field survey, 2011

Indeed, respondents were asked the number of times they have had programme that introduced them to new knowledge and it became clear that respondents have had training sessions since joining the organisation and that training seemed frequent in the organisation. Certainly, 67 (80.7%) had some training session between the last 6 months to a year, 15 (18.1%) had some training about 2 to 3 years ago and 1 (1.2%) respondent had some training about 4 years ago. Regarding the number of times they had received training, it was observed that training programmes were frequent. Of the 83 respondents, 35 (42.2%) have had training many times, 18 (21.7%) have had training twice while 30 (36.1%) said they have had training just once. An interesting observation is made from Table 7 which disaggregates this information into supervisors and subordinates. It shows the seriousness the company attaches to its training and development needs which are very vital for organisational growth and survival even during turbulent time of intense competition from industry players.

Table 7: Number of times of training by status of respondents

No. of Training Periods	Status of respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Once	6 (20.7)	24 (44.4)	30 (36.1)
Twice	6 (20.7)	12 (22.2)	18 (21.7)
Many Times	17 (58.6)	18 (33.8)	35 (42.2)

Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)
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Source: Field survey, 2011

The observation therefore does not deviate from the point raised by the literature as the survival of organisations depend on effective training and development of their human resource as the training will equip the staff with the technical knowhow in the current work environment (Collier et al. 2003; Cole 2004). From Table 7, it is observed that supervisors tended to receive more training than the subordinates. Indeed, majority of the supervisors (58.6%) had received training for a number of times. Only 20.7 percent said they had received training just once. Another 20.7 percent had received training twice. In contrast, the subordinates' training experiences were mixed. More of the subordinates (44.4%) have had just one training programme although some have had twice (22.2%) and 33.8 percent have had training on many occasions.

In exploring the objectives that informed the training, 32 (38.6%) said they have had orientation or induction, 30 (36.1%) said they were trained for performance improvement, and 21 (25.3%) believed that their training programmes were for acquisition of new skills.

Table 8: Objectives of training programmes by status of respondents

Objective	Status of respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Orientation/induction	6 (20.7)	26 (48.1)	32 (38.6)
Performance improvement	14 (48.3)	16 (29.6)	30 (36.1)

Acquisition of new skills	9 (31.0)	12 (22.2)	21 (25.3)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

When the data were categorised by status, as presented in Table 8, it was observed that supervisors tended to undergo training programmes that sought improve performance or help them acquire new skills. In contrast, subordinates tended to experience training programmes with the aim of inducting or orienting them into the task of the organisation.

As seen from Table 8, most of the supervisors undergo training for performance improvement (48.3%) and skill acquisition (31.0%). Only a few (about 20.7%) received training through orientation. In contrast, more of the subordinates mainly received training through induction or orientation programmes (48.1%), although a few undergo performance improvement (29.6%) and skills acquisition (22.2%) programmes. This bias is consistent with the argument made by Cole (2004) that supervisors' position makes it possible for them to choose the most important training modules for themselves.

Training policies and selection procedures in the organisation

In general, selection for training in the organisation took the form of mandatory requirement as compared with recommendation from a superior. Out of the 83 respondents, 52 (62.7%) said their training experienced was a mandatory one compared with 31 (37.3%) who said they were recommended for training. Again, as illustrated in Table 9, no major differences were observed in the

training selection procedure for both supervisors and subordinates. As seen from Table 9, majority of supervisors (51.7%) were selected for training on mandatory basis although a substantial number of them (48.3%) were recommended for training. In the same vein, majority of the subordinates (68.5%) received training through mandatory selection compared with those who were recommended for training. Thus, training processes in the organisation are usually mandatory. This observation which is consistent with the arguments by Kenny et al. (1992), Armstrong (1996) and Derek and Hall (2000) partly explain why most of the respondents were unaware that they have undergone training programmes.

Table 9: Mode of selection for training by status of respondents

Mode of Selection	Status of respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Mandatory	15 (51.7)	37 (68.5)	52 (62.7)
Recommendation	14 (48.3)	17 (31.5)	31 (37.3)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

Regarding the mode of facilitation of the training programmes, the data revealed that facilitation takes varied forms with the dominant mode of training facilitation being seminar. Of the 83 respondents, 47 (56.6%) said they had the training through seminars while 18 (21.7%) each said the training was done through classroom lectures and understudy process (on-the-job) respectively.

A breakdown of the data by status as presented in Table 10 revealed only minor differences in the form of training techniques adopted by the organisation. As depicted in Table 10, there was preponderance of seminar as a training facilitation procedure for both supervisors and subordinates although majority of subordinates (61.1%) underwent seminar mode of training compared with the supervisors (48.3%). This observation goes to support the argument that supervisors get the best of training programmes than subordinates (Sherman, 1998; Armstrong, 2006; Cole, 2004).

Table 10: Mode of training facilitation by status of respondents

Mode of Facilitation	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Seminar	14 (48.3)	33 (61.1)	47 (56.6)
Classroom	7 (24.1)	11 (20.4)	18 (21.7)
Understudy	8 (27.6)	10 (18.5)	18 (21.7)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

Training and evaluation techniques in the organisation

The data showed that three key evaluation techniques were used to assess employees after they had undergone training programmes. These included problem-solving, application of skills on the job and written examination.

The dominant evaluation technique was the application of skills. Out of

the 83 respondents, 32 (38.5%) were evaluated through problem-solving, 39 (47.0%) were evaluated through application of skills on the job while 12 (14.5%) were evaluated through some written examination. Some slight differences were observed in the techniques of evaluation for supervisors and subordinates.

Table 11: Training evaluation technique by status of respondents

Evaluation Technique	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Problem-Solving	13 (44.8)	19 (35.2)	32 (38.5)
Application of Skills	8 (27.6)	31 (57.4)	39 (47.0)
Written Examination	8 (27.6)	4 (7.4)	12 (14.5)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

One observes from Table 11 that supervisors were mostly evaluated through problem-solving techniques (44.8%) as compared to application of skills on the job (27.6%) and written examination (27.6%). In contrast, subordinates were mostly evaluated through the application of skills on the job (57.4%) compared with problem solving (35.2%) and written examination (7.4%). This observation could possibly be explained by the fact that supervisors were more regularly confronted with job challenges that require them to sharpen their problems solving abilities. This situation might not be the same for subordinates (Collier et al., 2003; Cole 2004).

In exploring how the evaluation techniques related to the objectives of the training, the data revealed that application of skills on the job was still the

dominant mode of evaluation for the various training objectives. The details are set out in Table 12.

Table 12: Objectives of training programmes and evaluation techniques

Objectives of training programme				
Evaluation Technique	Performance (%)	Induction (%)	New Skills (%)	Total (%)
Problem-Solving	10 (33.3)	14 (43.8)	8 (38.1)	32 (38.5)
Application of Skills	14 (46.7)	16 (50.0)	9 (42.9)	39 (47.0)
Written Examination	6 (20.0)	2 (6.2)	4 (19.0)	12 (14.5)
Total	30 (100)	32 (100)	21 (100)	83 (100)

Source: Field survey, 2011

As Table 12 depicts, in all training objectives the usual evaluation techniques used is application of skills on the job. Of the 30 respondents whose training objective was performance improvement, most of them (46.7%) were evaluated through application of skills on the job.

Again, of the 32 respondents whose training objective was induction/orientation, half (50.0%) said they were evaluated through the application of learned skills on the job. Lastly, of the 21 respondents whose training objective was acquisition of new skills, more of them (42.9%) were evaluated through the application of skills on the job. Thus, even though supervisors were often evaluated through problem-solving approach, application of skills on the job remains a dominant technique of evaluation.

Managing training programmes in the organisation

Respondents were generally impressed by the arrangements put in place for training in the organisation. Indeed, as illustrated in Table 13, most of them thought that the training programmes were planned and systematic. Of the 83 respondents, 79 (95.2%) said the training programmes were planned. Only 4 (4.8%) said the programmes were not planned.

Table 13: Respondents views on management of training programmes

Response	Supervisor (%)		Subordinate (%)		Total (%)	
Yes	30	(96.8)	49	(94.2)	79	(95.2)
No	1	(3.2)	3	(5.8)	4	(4.8)
Total	31	(100.0)	52	(100.0)	83	(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

In addition, further revelations were made on the sequence of training programmes. As shown in Table 14, 72 (86.7%) of the 83 respondents said the training programmes are systematic. Just 11 (13.3%) said the training programmes are not very systematic.

Table 14: Respondents view on sequency of training programmes

Response	Supervisor (%)		Subordinate (%)		Total (%)	
Yes	32	(88.9)	40	(85.1)	72	(86.7)

No	4	(11.1)	7	(14.9)	11	(13.3)
Total	83	(100.0)	47	(100.0)	83	(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

A disaggregation of the data into supervisors and subordinates, presented in Table 15 showed that although respondents generally believed that training programmes were planned, supervisors tend to hold higher opinions on the planning of training programmes than subordinates. On their part, the majority of subordinates (92.6%) believed that training programmes were planned although a handful (7.4%) held the view that training programmes in the organisation were unplanned.

Table 15: Respondents views on planned training programme

Planned Training	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Yes	29 (100.0)	50 (92.6)	79 (95.2)
No	0 (0.0)	4 (7.4)	4 (4.8)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

Given their generally high opinion on the planned and systematic nature of training programmes in the organisation, it was not surprising that the majority of the respondents were satisfied with the training policy in the organisation. Of the 83 respondents, 68 (81.9%) were satisfied with training policy in the organisation.

Only 15 (18.1%) were not satisfied with the training programmes in the organisation. When respondents' satisfaction was categorized into status, it was observed that supervisors were more satisfied with the training policy than subordinates. Table 16 illustrates information on respondents' satisfaction with training policy of their organisation.

Table 16: Satisfaction with training policy by status of respondents

Satisfaction with Policy	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Yes	27 (93.1)	41 (75.9)	68 (81.9)
No	2 (6.9)	13 (24.1)	15 (18.1)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

As seen from Table 16, although satisfaction was high among respondents, more supervisors (93.1%) were satisfied with the training policy than subordinates (75.9%). In a similar vein, more subordinates (24.1%) were dissatisfied with the training policy than supervisors (6.9%). Thus, supervisors held a very positive impression about the policy than their subordinates.

When respondents were asked to give reasons for their satisfaction or otherwise, 60 of the 68 respondents who were satisfied gave reasons. Out of this number, 35 (58.3%) said that one could always learn new skills whiles 25 (41.7%) said there existed more training opportunities. Table 17 throws more light on the employees satisfaction with training programmes in their organisation.

Table 17: Respondents Satisfaction of training programmes

Reason	Status of Respondents				Total (%)	
	Supervisor (%)		Subordinate (%)			
More training	15	(42.9)	10	(40)	25	(41.7)
New skills	20	(57.1)	15	(60)	35	(58.3)
Total	35	(100.0)	25	(100)	60	(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

In contrast, of the 17 respondents who were not satisfied with the training programmes in the organisation, 12 (80.0%) said the content of the training programmes were inadequate for them while the remaining 3 (20.0%) said the programmes have very short durations. This is shown in Table 18. This observation, as Flippo (1976) argues, presupposes that employees' satisfaction with training programmes may have consequences for their job performance.

Table 18: Dissatisfaction of training programmes

Reason	Status of Respondents				Total (%)	
	Supervisor (%)		Subordinate (%)			
Short duration	2	(22.2)	1	(16.7)	3	(20)
Inadequate content	7	(77.8)	5	(83.3)	12	(80)

Total	9 (100.0)	6 (100.0)	15 (100.0)
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Source: Field survey, 2011

Suggestion to improve training programmes

Respondents were asked to make suggestions about the training policy in the organization and 58 out of the 83 respondents gave some suggestions. Of this number, as shown in Table 19, 21 (36.2%) said longer training periods were needed, 21 (36.2%) said there was the need for more training incentives while 16 (27.6%) said the content of the training programmes must be made adequate to help employees acquire useful skills.

Table 19: Suggestion to improve training programmes

Suggestion	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Longer training programmes	8 (28.6)	13 (43.3)	21 (36.2)
More training programmes	10 (35.7)	11 (36.7)	21 (36.2)
Adequate content	10 (35.7)	6 (20.0)	16 (27.6)
Total	28 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	58 (100.0)

Source: Fieldwork survey, 2011

Putting all together, one observes that even though respondents had positive opinions about the training policy in the organisation and were thus satisfied, they still required more improvements in the training policy for it to make significant

improvements in the abilities and working life of the employees in the organisation.

Effects of training programmes on job performance of respondents

Respondents generally believed that the training programmes had greatly improved their job performance. Out of the 83 respondents, 77 (92.8%) said the training they received had improved their performance on the job while 6 (7.2%) said the training did not improve their job performance.

Respondents were categorized into supervisors and subordinates, and as illustrated in Table 20, it was observed that more supervisors saw improvement in their job performance through training than the subordinates.

Table 20: Improved performance from training by status of respondents

Improved Performance	Status of respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Yes	29 (100)	48 (88.9)	77 (92.8)
No	0 (0.0)	6 (11.1)	6 (7.2)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

As seen from Table 20, all of the supervisors believed that training had improved their job performance. In contrast, 88.9 percent of the subordinates saw improvement in their job performance through training with a handful (11.1%)

saying they did not see any improvement in their job performance from the training programmes in the organisation.

Thus, even though respondents generally saw greater improvements in their job performance through training, the supervisors tended to be the most affected employees. This is very consistent with the arguments from Cole (2004) that supervisors tend to get the best of training programmes and thus generally hold higher opinions about its effect on their job performance.

Respondents were asked about the cues they used to identify how training has affected their job performance and 75 of the 77 respondents who had seen job improvement from the training programmes gave a number of indicators. Out of the 75, 32 (42.7%) said they had increased their output, 27 (36.0%) said they had witnessed increased efficiency while 16 (21.3%) said they had received positive supervisor ratings.

Again, when asked whether training has affected their output per hour, 73 (88.0%) of the 83 respondents said training had improved their hourly output while 10 (12.0%) said training had not improved their hourly output. In exploring how training had affected their hourly output, 71 out of the 73 respondents gave reasons. Of the 71 respondents, 34 (47.9%) said they experienced higher output, 21 (19.6%) said their speed of work has increased while 16 (22.5%) said they had received higher efficiency.

Respondents were once more categorized into supervisors and subordinates, the supervisors were the most positively affected group. As depicted in Table 21, all 29 supervisors believed that training had improved their daily

output. On the other hand, 81.5% of the subordinates said training had improved their daily output while nearly 18.5% said they did not see any improvement in their daily output from training.

Table 21: Improved daily output from training by status of respondents

Improved Daily Output	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Yes	29 (100.0)	44 (81.5)	73 (88.0)
No	0 (0.0)	10 (18.5)	10 (12.0)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

Furthermore, Table 22 captures respondents' view on whether they can quantify their output per day. Of the 83 respondents, 57 (68.7%) said they could quantify their output while 26 (31.3%) could not.

Table 22: Quantifying output by respondents

Output per day	Status of respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
High	10 (33.3)	4 (14.8)	14 (24.6)
Beyond Average	14 (46.7)	10 (37.02)	24 (42.1)
Average	6 (20.0)	13 (48.15)	19 (33.1)

Total	30	(100.0)	27	(100.0)	57	(100.0)
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Source: Field survey, 2011

Of the 57 respondents who could quantify their output, 14 (24.6%) produced a very high output per day, 24 (42.1%) said they produce beyond average per day. Only 19 (33.3%) produced an average output daily. One therefore observes that in general, respondents believed that training had key outcomes for their job performance in the organisation.

Respondents job performance ratings

Following from their general impression of training and job performance, respondents held positive ratings of quality and quantity of their own job performance, positive views of their supervisors' ratings of their job performance, and their own performance compared with their co-workers. Respondents were asked how their supervisors would rate their quality of work in terms of perfect work outcomes and 70 (84.3%) of the 83 respondents said their supervisors would rate them very good and only 13 (15.7%) said they would be rated fairly good by their supervisors.

Regarding, supervisor ratings of work efficiency in terms of speed/quantity 72 (86.7%) of the 83 respondents said they would be rated very good and only 11(13.3%) said they would be rated fairly good for their speed of work. A breakdown of the data into supervisors and subordinates as presented in Table 23, did not reveal any major difference in respondents' view of their supervisors' ratings of their quality of work. As depicted in Table 23, the majority

of supervisors (86.2%) and subordinates (83.3%) said that their supervisors would rate them highly (very good) with regards to the quality of work in terms of perfect work outcomes. Only few supervisors (13.8%) and subordinates (16.7%) said that their supervisors would rate them fairly good.

Table 23: Supervisor ratings of quality work outcomes by status of respondents

Supervisor Ratings	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Very Good	25 (86.2)	45 (83.3)	70 (84.3)
Fairly Good	4 (13.8)	9 (16.7)	13 (15.7)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

Regarding ratings of their own work performance in terms of quality work on time, 78 (94.0%) of the 83 respondents rated their own performance as very good with just a handful (6.0%) rating their quality of their work as fairly good. Lastly, when respondents were asked to rate their own work performance in comparison with their co-workers, 76 (91.6%) of the 83 respondents rated their work as very good with only a few 7 (8.4%) rating their performance as fairly good.

Once again, respondents were categorized into supervisors and subordinates as illustrated in Table 24. It was observed that supervisors had higher rating of their job performance than the subordinates. As Table 24 shows, all the 29 supervisors said their performance in comparison with co-workers was

very good. In the case of the 54 subordinates, 87 percent of them rated their performance as very good even though a few of them (13.0%) rated the quality of their performance as fairly good.

Table 24: Co-worker comparisons of performance by status of respondents

Co-worker Comparison	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Very Good	29 (100)	47 (87.0)	76 (91.6)
Fairly Good	0 (0.0)	7 (13.0)	7 (8.4)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

In sum, one observes that the respondents had very good job performance ratings of themselves; they knew the impression their supervisors had about the quality or otherwise of their work and also how their supervisors would compare them with their co-workers.

Improving training programmes for employee performance

Given the advantages associated with training as observed from the respondents, they were asked whether they knew of any training and development projections put in place for them by the organisation. Of the 83 respondents, 51 (61.4%) said they were aware while 32 (38.6%) said they were not aware of any training projections. A breakdown of this information into supervisors and subordinates revealed that supervisors had higher awareness of training

projections in the organisations than subordinates. This information is presented in Table 25.

Table 25: Awareness of training projections by status of respondents

Awareness of Projections	Status of respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Yes	20 (69.0)	31 (57.4)	51 (61.4)
No	9 (31.0)	23 (42.6)	32 (38.6)
Total	29 (100.0)	54 (100.0)	83 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

As depicted in Table 25, although awareness of the training projections in the organisation was generally high, it was higher for supervisors (69.0%) compared with subordinates (57.4%). In a similar vein, more subordinates were unaware of the projections (42.6%) compared with their supervisors (31.0%).

This might probably be due to the fact that supervisors were closer to management than subordinates and based on their status in the hierarchy (Collier et al. 2003; Cole, 2004), were privy to such information than subordinates.

Regarding whether respondents had sponsored themselves for training purposes before, majority of them said they had never done that before. Indeed, only 17 (20.5%) of the 83 respondents had ever sponsored themselves for training in new skills and techniques. The majority, 66 (79.5%) have never sponsored

themselves for such programmes. Details of the discussion are captured by Table 26.

Table 26: Self sponsorship for training purposes

Self Sponsorship	Status of respondents				Total	(%)
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)				
Yes	11	(35.5)	6	(11.5)	17	(20.0)
No	20	(64.5)	46	(88.5)	66	(79.5)
Total	31	(100.0)	52	(100.0)	83	(100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

Respondents were asked about the skills they learnt and as Table 27 shows, 13 out of the 17 respondents who had sponsored themselves before answered. Of the 13 respondents, 11 (84.6%) said they learnt new skills while 2 (15.4%) said they learnt hands on techniques.

Table 27: Skills learnt from self sponsorship

Skills Learnt	Status of respondents				Total	(%)
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)				
New Skills	5	(71.4)	6	(100)	11	(84.6)
Hands on Technique	2	(28.6)	0	(0)	2	(15.4)

Total	7	(100.0)	6	(100)	13	(100.0)
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Source: Field survey, 2011

Interestingly, most of the respondents were willing to sponsor themselves in future to train for new skills. Of the 76 respondents who responded to that question, 56 (73.7%) of them were willing to sponsor themselves while 20 (26.3%) were unwilling to sponsor themselves for training in new skills. It could be deduced that respondents value the importance of training and are more likely to pay for the cost of training for new skill. Table 28 gives detail information on the issue.

Table 28: Willingness of staff to sponsor themselves

Willingness to sponsor self	Status of Respondents		
	Supervisor (%)	Subordinate (%)	Total (%)
Yes	30 (78.9)	26 (68.4)	56 (73.7)
No	8 (21.1)	12 (31.6)	20 (26.3)
Total	38 (100.0)	38 (100.0)	76 (100.0)

Source: Field survey, 2011

Some of the respondents offered suggestions that could help management of the organisation to improve upon its training policy and practices. Of the 83 respondents, 45 made some suggestions. As shown in Table 29, out of the 45 respondents, 29 (64.4%) said there was the need for regular training programmes, 10 (22.2%) called for more training incentives to motivate workers to train while

the remaining 6 (13.3%) said more training tools should be at their disposal for use. Thus, consistent with the arguments by Cole (2004) and Collier et al. (2003), respondents believed that when these training needs were put in place, they could realize the full benefits of training.

Table 29: Suggestion to improve training programme

Suggestion	Status of respondents					
	Supervisor (%)		Subordinate (%)		Total	(%)
Need for regular training	15	(62.5)	14	(66.7)	29	(64.4)
More training programme	6	(25.0)	4	(19.0)	10	(22.2)
More training tools	3	(12.5)	3	(14.3)	6	(13.3)
Total	24	(100.0)	21	(100.0)	45	(100.0)

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Conclusion remarks

The effect of training programmes on job performance of respondents, respondents' job performance ratings and training programmes that will improve employee performance were captured in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of key findings of the study. Based on these findings, conclusions are drawn and recommendations for improving the training processes and practices at Quality Control Company Limited, Takoradi. In addition, the chapter makes suggestions about priority areas for further research on employee training and job performance.

Summary of key findings

The broad objective of the study was to assess the role of employee training on their job performance at Quality Control Company Limited, Takoradi. The study began with a review of the relevant and related literature on employee training and job performance which showed that despite the numerous advantages

associated with employee training in organisational settings, these training programmes were usually unavailable in most organisations especially in developing countries usually due to the cost involved. Again, where these programmes existed, they were usually uncoordinated, unplanned and were unsystematic. The situation therefore made it difficult for employees to develop new skills and techniques to improve their performance and thus the productivity of the organisation.

To examine how this employee training and job performance situation operates in Ghanaian organisations, this study was conducted at the Takoradi Port Branch of Quality Control Company Limited (QCCL). The study employed a cross-sectional design to collect data from 83 employees of QCCL over a two-month period. Four specific objectives guided the study.

The first specific objective of the study was to evaluate the major purposes of employee training programmes at QCCL. It was observed that the major purposes of training in the organisation was three folds namely induction or orientation, performance improvement and acquisition of new skills. Nearly all employees had undergone training in the organisation. In general, employees in supervisory positions tended to undergo performance improvement and skill acquisition training while subordinates more often undergo orientation/induction training.

The second specific objective sought to analyze the training and development policies in operation at QCCL. It was observed that training policy in the organisation was visible and that majority of employees were aware of the

training policy. The training policy entailed a well-planned and systematic scheme for utilizing training in the organisation. Employees were therefore generally satisfied with the training policy even though they believed that the organization could do more to improve the training policy.

The third specific objective assessed the training practices and processes of evaluation of training needs of employees at QCCL. It was observed that training procedures in the organisation were two folds: mandatory requirement and recommendation by a superior. Supervisors were mainly recommended by their superiors while subordinates go through mandatory training requirements. It was also found that the mode of training facilitation took three main forms namely: seminar, classroom lectures and understudying a superior. Yet the commonest mode of training facilitation was the seminar approach for both supervisors and subordinates. In terms of evaluation, the study observed that the training programmes were evaluated in three ways namely, problem-solving, application of learned skills on the job, and written examination. Application of learned skills was the dominant mode of evaluation. Generally, supervisors were evaluated through the problem-solving approach while subordinates were evaluated through the application of learned skills.

The fourth specific objective sought to assess the effects of training designs on employee job performance at QCCL. It was found that respondents generally held the impression that their job performance had increased following the training programmes they experienced. Most of them had realized increases in their daily output and the majority rated their quality and quantity of work as very

good after having gone through training. They also held positive opinions of their supervisors' ratings of their job performance.

Conclusions

Based on these findings made so far, the study concludes as follows:

The Quality Control Company Limited has a well-functioning training policy that inducts employees into the organisation, provides new skills and improves the job performance of employees. While all employees in the organisation at some point in time experience either a mandatory training programme or a recommended training by a superior, it is rather the supervisors' category that are more likely to know and utilize training programmes compared with the subordinate.

The Quality Control Company Limited has a more transparent and visible training policy and its planned and systematic nature meets the general satisfaction requirements of its employees.

Whereas all employees in the Quality Control Company Limited experience one training module or another, it is those in the supervisors' category that receive the best form of training. The supervisors tend to be recommended for specific training programmes while the subordinates mainly receive mandatory induction training programmes. The supervisors received the best form of evaluation which is problem solving while subordinates applied their learned skills only on the job.

The satisfaction from the training at the Quality Control Company Limited leads to improved job performance ratings. Employees who went through the various forms of training in the organisation experienced an increase in their daily output and thus positively rated their job performance as a result of training.

Recommendations

Following closely the findings of the study, it is recommended that:

- Management should bring the training policies in the organization even closer to subordinates on the shop floor and make it even clearer so that higher levels of satisfaction associated with higher job performance may be realized.
- For maximum productivity, management should recommend employees for training based on merit and not solely on one's status in the organisation. Subordinates just like supervisors must as well be recommended for training beyond orientation to gain new skills and techniques as well as for performance improvements.
- Although the seminar mode of training is very important, the employees may be able to do a self-assessment if their subsequent training sessions are evaluated through different approaches. Again, there should be no preferential treatment for evaluation of training programmes for supervisors and subordinates.

- To improve productivity, management should put more resources into training programmes to make them more attractive to employees since training is highly associated with employee job performance ratings.
- To sustain employee satisfaction from the training policy in the organisation, management must make the effort to address the few limitations raised by the employees.

Limitation of the study

Within the constraints of time and resources this study utilized the employees of one organization namely Quality Control Company Limited. Again, Access to some vital information of the organisation especially on performance indicators was very difficult to come by as some key people in the company were reluctant to release such important information due to the oath of secrecy they swore to the company. The study thus relied mostly on employees self-ratings of their job performance after going through training programmes. Nonetheless, these constraints did not affect the validity and reliability of the data and the findings as discussed in this study.

Further research

This study has attempted to assess the employee training policy, practices, evaluation and job performance in one organisation in Ghana. This therefore makes generalization of findings challenging. More studies would be required in future in different organisational settings to assess the relationship between

employee training and their job performance. Such studies may include a research design that allows for an evaluation of employee training programmes in public and private organisations to allow for comparisons. It should also be possible for such studies to obtain and compare employee appraisal information and self-ratings of their job performance.

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APPENDIX
QUESTIONNAIRE

The study is seeking your views on training and productivity in this organisation. The study is being conducted for academic purposes and nothing more. The researcher takes full responsibility for anonymity and confidentiality of any information given out. Your responses will contribute to the success of this study. Thank you in advance for your time and support.

Direction: Please tick or write where appropriate.

A. Socio-demographic information

1. Age
 - a. 20-29 []
 - b. 30-39 []
 - c. 40-49 []
 - d. 50-59 []
 - e. 60+ []
2. Sex

a. Male []

b. Female []

3. Highest educational attainment

a. JHS/ 'O' Level []

b. SHS/ 'A' Level []

c. HND []

d. First Degree []

e. Others []

'B' Information on employee training programmes

4. Your position at QCC

a. Driver []

b. Sampler []

c. QCA []

d. QCO []

e. Secretary []

f. Other []

5. How long have you worked in the organisation (year/s)

a. 1-5 []

b. 6-10 []

c. 11-15 []

d. 16-20 []

e. 21+ []

6. Are you aware of any training policy in QCC?

- a. Yes [] b. No []

7. Have you had any form of training?

- a. Yes [] b. No []

8. If your answer to 7 above was yes, when was your last training session?

a. 6months-1 year ago []

b. 2-3 years ago []

c. 4 years and over []

9. How many times have you gone for training if you have been in the employ of QCC for more than two (2) years?

a. Once []

b. Twice []

c. Many times []

10. Mode of Selection

a. Recommendation []

b. Personal Request []

c. Mandatory []

d. Other, please specify.....

11. What were the objectives of the training?

a. For performance improvement []

b. Orientation/Induction []

c. Acquisition of new Skills []

d. Other (please specify.....

12. Type/form of training (please specify)

13. Method of facilitation

a. Seminar []

b. On the job training []

c. Understudy Training []

d. Formal lectures/classes []

14. How was the training evaluated (please specify)

.....

.....

15. Do you think training at QCC is planned?

a. Yes [] b. No []

16. Do you think QCC Training program is systematic?

a. Yes [] b. No []

16. Are you satisfied with the type of training policy available at QCC?

a. Yes [] b. No []

17. Why the above response. Give reason.....

.....

18. What do you suggest.....

.....

‘C’ Performance and productivity

19. Has training improved your performance on the job?

a. Yes [] b. No []

20. If your response to 19 above was Yes, how do you know, specify.....

.....

21. Has training affected your output per hour/day?

a. Yes [] b. No []

22. How has training affected your output, specify.....

.....

23. Can you quantify the output in terms of bags/tones?

a. Yes [] b. No []

24. If you answered yes to 23 above, specify how you can quantify the output.

.....

.....

25. Has training exposed you to other skills that will help your future development?

a. Yes [] b. No []

26. How would your supervisor rate your quality of work in terms of perfect work outcomes,

free of errors, and of high accuracy?

Excellent [] Very good [] Fairly good [] Not good [] Not at all good []

27. How would your supervisor rate your work efficiency in terms of your supervisor's

assessment of your work speed or quantity of work?

Excellent [] Very good [] Fairly good [] Not good [] Not at all good []

28. How would you rate your own work performance in terms of your ability to complete quality work on time?

Excellent [] Very good [] Fairly good [] Not good [] Not at all good []

29. Compared to your coworkers, how would you rate your work performance?

Excellent [] Very good [] Fairly good [] Not good [] Not at all good []

30. Have you gained some sponsorship from QCC for further studies since you were employed?

a. Yes [] b. No []

31. If your response to 30 above was yes, please specify the type of sponsorship.

.....
.....

32. Are you aware of any training and development projections available for you?

a. Yes [] b. No []

33. Have you ever sponsored yourself for further training to acquire new skills and knowledge?

a. Yes [] b. No []

34. If you answered yes to 29 above, what did you acquire? (Specify)

.....
.....

35. If you answered no to 29 above, do you have plans to sponsor yourself in the future?

a. Yes [] b. No []

36. Any suggestion for management to help improve worker performance and productivity.....