

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

STAFF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES IN SELECTED
EDUCATIONAL UNITS IN THE KOFORIDUA MUNICIPALITY

AMOO OBENG-ADUESARE

2014

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

STAFF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES IN SELECTED
EDUCATIONAL UNITS IN THE KOFORIDUA MUNICIPALITY

BY

AMOO OBENG-ADUESARE

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES OF THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES,
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE
IN HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT.

MAY 2014

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: Amoo Obeng-Aduesare

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

Supervisor's declaration

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

Supervisor's signature: Prof. I. K. Acheampong

Signature: Date.....

ABSTRACT

Employees are valuable assets of any organisation, and therefore need training and development to upgrade their skills. This study seeks to examine the training and development practices in the education units in the Koforidua Municipality. The research design for the study is descriptive survey. Using convenient sampling technique, 100 employees were selected for the study. Questionnaire was used to collect data from respondents. The Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS version 17) was used to analyse the data.

The study has established that on-the-job training or coaching, induction or orientation, formal training, and self-development or self-assessment are the main training and development methods used at the educational units in the municipality. Also, training programmes increased employees' productivity and quality of work; and improved employees' knowledge and job skills. Training programmes are also in line with their career goals and provided an incentive for increased work performance.

In a nutshell, although there are varieties of training and development programmes, only a few of them are practiced in the various educational units in the municipality. It is recommended that management of educational units should evaluate training and development programmes against organisational goals and objectives in order to help in taking further actions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My immense gratitude goes to my supervisor, Prof. I. K. Acheampong who tenaciously coached me through this daunting task. His patience, commitment, discipline and meticulous tutelage greatly influenced the eventual completion of this dissertation. I am also grateful to all who contributed in diverse ways to this achievement; I am ever thankful.

DEDICATION

To my mother, Esther Lily Owusu

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Content	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF ACRONYMS	x
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
Background to the study	1
Statement of the problem	3
Objectives of the study	4
Research questions	5
Scope of the study	5
Significance of the study	5
Organisation of the study	6
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	7
Introduction	7
The concept of training and development	7
Employee performance	10
Training and development methods	11
Benefits of training and development needs	12

The training and development process	15
Training and development and employee performance	16
Education and employee performance	19
Attitude of employees towards training and development	22
Review of empirical literature	24
Summary	28
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	29
Introduction	29
Study organisation	29
Research design	30
Target population	30
Data and sources	31
Sampling procedure and sample	31
Instrument design	32
Field work	33
Data processing and analysis	33
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	34
Introduction	34
Background characteristics of respondents	34
Training and development methods used in the educational units	38
Effects of training and development on staff performance	41
Staff perception of training and development programmes	44
Summary	47

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND	
RECOMMENDATIONS	48
Introduction	48
Summary	48
Conclusions	50
Recommendations	50
Recommendation for further research	51
REFERENCES	52
APPENDIX: Questionnaire for employees	67

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Sex of respondents	34
2. Age of respondents	35
3. Educational qualification of respondents	36
4. Rank of respondents	36
5. Years of working	37
6. Training and development involvement	38
7. Training and development methods	39
8. Effects of training and development on employee performance	42
9. Staff perception of training and development	45

LIST OF ACRONYMS

HRD	Human Resource Development
ILO	International Labour Organisation
T&D	Training and Development
SPSS	Statistical Product and Service Solutions

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Staff training and development is seen as the most important part of any capable management. Training and development (T&D) practices are essential to economic growth and development because human capital is an invaluable asset to any organisation. In the field of human resource management, training and development is the field concerned with organisational activity aimed at improving the performance of individuals and groups in organisational settings. It has been known by several names, including employee development, human resource development, and learning and development (Harrison, 2005). Training and development practices entail investment in human capital, institutions and practices necessary to enhance human skills, overhaul institutions and improve procedures and systems (Sanusi, 2002).

Customarily, the purpose of training and development practices has been to ensure that employees can successfully carry out their jobs. Now, the organisational environment has changed, with intense pressure on organisations to stay ahead of the competition through innovation and re-invention. According to Rothwell and Benkowski (2002), the purpose of training is principally to improve knowledge and skills, and to transform attitudes or performance. It is one of the key possible motivators which can lead to many potential benefits for both individuals and the organisation. Training and development practices can make momentous contributions to organisations that implement them, including increasing the morale of staff

(Cole, 2002). Similarly, it is anticipated that staff who are involved in training programmes will have their interest in the organisation heightened (Rothwell & Benkowski, 2002). This therefore has an associated contribution of lessening staff turnover in any organisation as it makes the staff feel secure (Pucel, 2001).

Stolovitch and Keeps (2003) observed that staffs that are trained usually use their knowledge and skills gained to help reduce risks and able to better make economic use of materials and equipments. Training helps to manage change by increasing the understanding and involvement of staff in the change process and provides the skills and abilities needed to adjust to new situations (Stolovitch & Keeps, 2003). Furthermore, recognition, enhanced responsibility and the opportunity of increased pay and promotion may be a product of training and development (DeSimone & Harris, 2008). Hence, when a staff is taken through periodic training programmes, its stake when it comes to promotion increases. Ultimately, it gives the staff a feeling of personal satisfaction and achievement, and broadens opportunities for career progression.

Walton (2006) therefore argues that many new staffs can be equipped with most of the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to start work, but others may require extensive training to ensure their successful contribution to the organisation. The majority, however, will require some type of training at one time or another to maintain a successful level of job performance. Hence, regardless of how carefully job applicants are screened, naturally a gap remains between what the employee knows and what he/she should know (Krietner, 1995). To preserve its obtained positions and increase competitive

advantage, the organisation needs to be able to create new knowledge and not only to rely solely on utilisation of the existing one (Vemic, 2007). Hence, constant staff training and development practices have significant role in the development of individual and organisational performance.

In relation to this, some researchers have argued that individual and organisational development are connected and interrelated. From this perspective, employees are expected to be provided with T&D or learning activities to improve performance, which leads to organisational effectiveness (Chalofsky, 1992). Besides, it has been argued that when T&D is provided, other than for organisational effectiveness, it helps to develop key competencies, which enable individuals to improve their current job performance and enhance future performance for career development (Gilley & Egglund, 1989; Marsick & Watkins, 1994).

The nature of the work done by educational units demand a high level of employee skill and competence in handling both the teaching and non-teaching staffs they deal with. To achieve this, employees are supposed to undergo series of training and re-training on the job that they do in order to prepare them for the challenges ahead.

Statement of the problem

Employees are thought to be valuable assets to any organisation, and a formal approach for organisations to upgrade employees' acquisition of job-related skills, knowledge and abilities is through training and development. Training programmes that are consistent with employee and organisational goals and needs and fit with the organisation's strategy will yield greater

success than those that are not (Wexley & Latham, 1991). According to Montana and Charnov (2002), training keeps staff members motivated and up to date with ever-changing industrial trends. Continual training also allows exposure to new technologies, which is essential to achieving goals.

Much literature on exist on the evaluation and assessment of the training and development practices in various organisations including the Banking sector (Appiah, 2010), District Assemblies (Sarkodie, 2011), the Security Service (Yawson, 2009; Anane-Appiah, 2011), and the Judicial Service of Ghana (Ferguson-Laing, 2009). However, little is known about training and development practices in the educational units. Moreover, much existing literature on staff training and development have lamented the failure of organisations to significantly improve the knowledge, skills and attitudes of employees that positively affect organisational performance (Campbell, 1971; Kellerman, 1984). It is against this backdrop that the study seeks to assess the training and development practices at the educational units in the Koforidua metropolis.

Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study was to assess the training and development practices among staff of education units in the Koforidua municipality. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Identify the training and development methods used in the educational units;
2. Examine the effect of training and development practices on staff performance;

3. Ascertain staff perception of training and development programmes in the educational units.
4. Make recommendations for policy making

Research questions

In order to address the specific objectives of the study, the following research questions were posed:

1. What are the training and development methods used in the educational units in the Koforidua municipality?
2. What are the effects of training and development practices on staff performance?
3. What is staff's perception of training and development practices in the educational units?

Scope of the study

This study is limited to training and development practices in selected educational units in the Koforidua municipality. This includes methods of training and developments practiced in the selected educational units; management's role in promoting training and development; the effect of training and development on staff performance and how staff perceives these practices.

Significance of the study

Basically, it is believed that the findings of this study would inform the managers of the various education units in the municipality and the country as

a whole on the state of training and development practices in the educational units in the municipality. This will enable them to develop programmes that will enable employees to learn on the job and ensure improvement in their performance at their various educational units.

Lastly, the findings of this study will add to existing literature on training and development practices and employee performance with specific reference to the educational sector in the country as a whole.

Organisation of the study

The study is organised in five chapters. Chapter One which is the introduction deals with background to the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, scope of the study, significance of the study as well as the organisation of the study. Chapter Two focuses on review of related literature in relation to training and development practices and staff performance.

Chapter Three deals with the methodology and the data collection procedures for the study. Chapter Four presents the results and discusses the results of the study. The final chapter is devoted to the summary, conclusions and recommendations as well as areas for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter focuses on review of related literature on training and development practices. Specifically, this chapter reviews literature on the concept of training and development, employee performance, training and development methods, benefits of training and development, the training and development process, training and development and employee performance; education and employee performance, attitude of employees towards training and development as well as a review of empirical literature.

The concept of training and development

The concept of training and development is a practice of an organisation that stems from two different, yet interdependent words. Training is often interpreted as the activity when an expert and learner work together to effectively transfer information from the expert to the learner in order to enhance a learner's knowledge, attitudes or skills, so the learner can better perform a current task or job. Training activity is both focused upon and evaluated against the job that an individual currently holds (Learner, 1986).

On the other hand, development is often viewed as a broad, continuous multi-faceted set of activities (including training activities) to bring an individual or an organisation up to another level of performance. This development often includes a manifold of methods including orientation on a role, training in various areas, continuous training on the job, coaching, mentoring and forms of self-development. Some view development as a life-

long goal and experience. Development focuses upon the activities that the organisation employing the individual, or that the individual is part of, may partake in the future, and is almost impossible to evaluate (Nadler, 1984).

Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2008) define development as the acquisition of knowledge, skills and behaviours that improve an employee's ability to meet changes in job requirements and in client and customer demands. Training, on the other hand, is defined as a planned effort to facilitate the learning of job-related knowledge, skills and behaviour of employees. In a similar way, Armstrong (2009) defines development as ensuring that a person's ability and potential are grown and realised through the provision of learning experiences or through self-directed (self-managed) learning. Thus, it is an unfolding process that enables people to progress from a present state of understanding and capability to future state where higher-level skills, knowledge and competencies are required.

According to Jackson and Schuler (2000), training refers to improving competencies needed today or very soon, and development refers to improving competencies over the long term. Also, Milkovich and Boudreau (1997) concur by maintaining that development is a long-term process of enhancing employee capabilities and motivation to make them valuable future members of an organisation. Hence, they incorporate training into development as one of the experiences. Training is therefore perceived as a systematic process to foster the acquisition of skills, rules, concepts or attitudes that result in an improved match between employee characteristics and employment requirements. Development is the growth or realisation of a person's ability, through conscious or unconscious learning. Development programmes usually

include phases of planned study and experience, and are usually supported by a coaching or counselling facility. Development occurs when inexperience is effectively combined with the conceptual understanding that can illustrate it, giving increased confidence both to act and to perceive how such action relates to its context (Bolton, 1995).

Furthermore, Buckley and Caple (2000) define training as a systematic effort to modify or develop knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes through the learning experience, to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Goldstein and Ford (2002) also add that training is a systematic acquisition of skills, rules, concepts, or attitudes that result in an improved performance. Further, Armstrong (2003) agrees with other authors in defining training as a planned and systematic modification of behaviour through the learning event, programme and instruction which enable individuals to achieve the levels of knowledge, skill and competencies needed to carry out their work effectively. Sims (1993) also summarises the above definitions by defining training as a systematic planned approach to teaching knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes with certain features.

Lastly, Marchington and Wilkinson (2000) define development as the growth or realisation of a person's ability and potential through the provision of learning and educational experiences. From the literature, it can be observed that the authors view development as a broader term than learning, in terms of its complexity and elaboration as well as its continuity; nonetheless, others see it as rooted in the individual. In effect, it is often difficult to ascertain whether a particular study addresses training, development or both.

In the context of this study, the term “training” refers to both training and development practices.

Employee performance

Many research works on the productivity of the worker highlighted the fact that employees who are satisfied with their job will have higher job performance, and thus supreme job retention, than those who are not happy with their jobs (Landy, 1985). Moreover, it is stated that employees are more likely to turnover if they are not satisfied and hence de-motivated to show good performance. Employee performance is higher in happy and satisfied workers and the management find it easy to motivate high performers to attain firm targets. (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2007). The employee could be only satisfied when they feel themselves competent to perform their jobs, which is achieved through better training programmes. Recognising the role of training practices, enable the top executives to create better working environment that ultimately improves the motivational level as well as the performance of the workforce.

According to Leonard-Barton (1992), an organisation that gives worth to knowledge as a source of gaining competitive edge than competitors, should build up system that ensure constant learning, and on the effective way of doing so is training. Pfeffer (1998) highlights that well-trained workforce is more capable of achieving performance targets and gaining competitive advantage in the market. Training is determined as the process of enabling employee to complete the task with greater efficiency, thus considered to be vital element of managing the human resource performance strategically (Lawler, 1993; Delaney & Huselid, 1996).

The importance of training on the employee performance, through accelerating the learning process, is mentioned in many researches (McGill & Slocum, 1993; Ulrich, Jick, & Von Glinow, 1993; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; DiBella, Nevis, & Gould, 1996). Employee performance, achieved through training, refers to immediate improvements in the knowledge, skills and abilities to carry out job related work, and hence achieve more employee commitment towards the organisational goals (Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski, Shaw, & Prennushi, 1997). Kamoche and Mueller (1998) mentioned that training leads to the culture of enhancing learning, to raise employee performance and ultimately higher return on investment (in training) for the organisation. Employee performance is everything about the performance of employees in a firm or a company or an organisation. It involves all aspects which directly or indirectly affect and relate to the work of employees.

Training and development methods

The means by which one intends to communicate information, ideas, skills, attitudes, and feelings to learners is what is referred to as the training methods (Gary, 2001). These training methods are very crucial elements to the success of training. Taking into consideration the types of these training methods, Graham and Bennet (1992), Armstrong (2001), DeCenzo and Robins (2002), Neil, Deniz, Handan and Chockalingam (2002), and Beardwell, Holden and Claydon (2004) have stated that there are two main methods of training: on-the-job and off-the-job training. On-the-job training is ideal for training unskilled and semi-skilled employees. It gives the trainees ample opportunity for learning on the actual equipment and in the environment of the

job. According to David, Nicholas and Fred (2006), on-the-job training programmes for employees may be in the form of induction training, apprenticeship training and supervisory training. DeCenzo and Robbins (2002) and Neil et al (2002) are also of the view that the most known ones are apprenticeship training and job instruction training (JIT). Organisations rely more on the use of on-the-job training than the off-the-job training (Armstrong, 2001; DeCenzo & Robins, 2002; Beardwell et al., 2004). Therefore, the popular use of this type of training by organisations is attributed to the ease of such methods and the idea that they are less costly to operate (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2007).

On the other hand, off-the-job training is mostly done in the training school, where information, lectures, conferences, panel discussions, and computer-assisted instructions are imparted to the skilled trainees, are usually the styled off-the-job training techniques. Among the forms which off – the job training can take according to Armstrong (2001), Neil et al. (2002), DeCenzo and Robins (2002), and Pynes (2009) are lectures, audiovisual methods, role playing, programmed instruction and vestibule training.

Benefits of training and development

Organisations can develop and enhance the quality of the current staff by providing comprehensive training and development. Research indicates that investments in training employees in problem-solving, decision-making, teamwork and interpersonal relations result in beneficial organisational level outcomes (Ettington, 1997; Barak, Maymon, & Harel, 1999). Also, training has a significant effect on employee performance. Organisations can develop

and enhance the quality of the current employees by providing comprehensive training and development. Russel, Terborg and Powers (1985) in an organisational level study find that training was correlated with sales volume per employee and store image in a sample of retail outlet stores. Effective training programmes are systematic and continuous. Hence, training must be viewed as a long term process, not just an infrequent and/or haphazard event (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Wexley & Latham, 1991).

As a result, assessment of employee and organisational needs as well as organisational strategies should be conducted and then used in selecting training methods and participants (Goldstein, 1991). Training programmes that are consistent with employee and organisational goals and needs and fit to the organisational strategy will produce greater success than those that are not (Wexley & Latham, 1991). Preferably, employees will be trained based on the results of assessments of their work. Training has been an important variable in increasing organisational productivity. According to Sepulveda (2005), Colombo and Stanca (2008), and Konings and Vanormelingen (2009), training is a fundamental and effective instrument in successful accomplishment of organisational goals and objectives, resulting in higher productivity.

The need for improved productivity in organisation has become universally accepted and that it depends on efficient and effective training. It has further becomes necessary in view of advancement in modern world to invest in training. Hence, the role played by staff training and development can no longer be over-emphasised, and the need for organisations to embark on staff training and development programmes for staff has become evident. The absence of these programmes in organisations often manifest in the forms

of incompetence, inefficiency and ineffectiveness. Oribabor (2000) maintains that training and development practices aim at developing competences in the forms of technical, human, conceptual and managerial for the maintenance of individual and organisational growth. Furthermore, Isyaku (2000) posits that the process of training and development is a continuous one. Man is dynamic in nature, the need to be current and relevant in all spheres of human endeavours make staff training and development a necessity, to keep pace with current events and methods.

Besides, Ajibade (1993), Adeniyi (1995) and Arikewuyo (1999) have drawn the attention of everybody to the great value of training and development practices. It is an opportunity to gain more and new knowledge and further develop the skills and techniques to function effectively. Everyone now recognises that training is apparently vital not only to the development of individuals, but also to the productive capacity of employees. Training is not coaxing or persuading people to do what is wanted but rather a process of creating organisational conditions that will cause personnel to strive for better performance.

In highlighting the usefulness of training, Akintayo (1996) and Oguntimehin (2001) maintain that training increases productivity; improves the quality of work; improves skills, knowledge, understanding and attitude; enhance the use of tools and machine; reduces waste, accidents, turnover, lateness; absenteeism and other overhead costs; eliminates obsolescence in skills among others. Therefore, Pitfield (1982) is of the opinion that the objectives of training should be to: provide the skills, knowledge and aptitudes necessary to undertake required job efficiently; develop the workers so that if he/she has

the potentials, he/she may progress, increase efficiency by reducing spoilt work, misuse of machines and lessening physical risks.

The training and development process

A plethora of literature on training and development practices show that conventionally, training and development in an organisation entails systematic approach which normally follows a series of activities including the establishment of a training policy, followed by training needs analysis, training plans and programmes design, and implementation, evaluation and training feedback for further action (Cuming, 1968; Armstrong, 1995; Kenny & Reid, 1995). Since the purpose of training is to help a trainee acquire the behaviour necessary for effective work performance, it is essential that the ways in which learning theories are applied when designing training programmes are explained.

According to Leslie (1990), there are three main conditions for learning to happen. The first is motivation. The old saying that “a horse can be led to the river but cannot be made to drink” contains an important lesson for the trainer. People learn if they accept the need for training and commit to it. For instance, if the trainee’s motivation is weak, doubt his/her ability to learn, regardless of how well their training is designed and implemented, its efficacy will be restricted. Sisson (2003) also shares similar view by contending that the more highly motivated the trainee, the more quickly and thoroughly a new skill or knowledge is learned. Consequently, training must be connected to something which the trainee desires such as money, job promotion and recognition.

One more important requirement is cue to action (Leslie, 1990). Through training, the trainee recognises relevant cues and relates them with desired responses. Hence, training makes the trainee identify the important cues he/she believes are desirable and for that matter associate with them. Sisson (2003) therefore recognises that cues are important pre-requisite for any training programme, albeit he does not necessarily assert that there are three requirements for training. Also, response is viewed as one important requirement for any training programme. Training should be immediately followed with positive reinforcement to enable the trainee feel the response; and the reinforcement should be positive, timely and consistent (Leslie, 1990).

Ultimately, any training programme should have a feedback mechanism (Leslie, 1990). Thus, the information the trainee receives indicating the quality of his response is the feedback. It should be made available as quickly as possible to ensure possible effective learning (Cusworth & Franks, 2003). Although these learning principles are good, they fail to talk about practice where the trainee actively take part in using the skills and knowledge acquired. Besides, it fails to point out the difference in the level of aptitude and intelligence of trainees, which can negatively affect the training and development methods.

Training and development and employee performance

A number of studies provide the evidence that there is a strong positive relationship between human resource management practices and organisational performance (Purcell, Kinnie, Hutchinson, Rayton, & Swart, 2003). According to Guest (1997), training and development programmes as

one of the vital human resource management practices, positively affects the quality of employee's knowledge, skills and capability, and thus results in higher employee performance on the job. This ultimately contributes to high organisational performance. Similarly, Farooq and Khan (2011) find positive correlation between training and employee performance ($r=.233$). Hence, it is not possible for an organisation to gain higher returns without best utilisation of its human resources, and this can only happen when the organisation is able to meet its employees' job related needs in a timely fashion.

Training is the only way of identifying the deprived needs of employees, and then building their required competence level so that they can perform well to achieve organisational goals. Moreover, in a study conducted in the telecom sector of Pakistan, Sultana, Irum, Ahmed and Mehmood (2012) finds the R^2 to be .501, which means that 50.1 percent of the variation in employee performance is brought about by training programmes. Further, with a T-value of 8.58, it implies that training is a good predictor of employee performance.

According to Harrison (2000), learning through training influences organisational performance by greater margin, and is said to be a key factor in the achievement of corporate goals. However, implementing training programmes as a solution for covering performance issues such as filling the gap between the standard and the actual performance is an effective way of improving employee performance (Swart, Mann, Brown, & Price, 2005). Swart et al. (2005) maintains that bridging the performance gap refers to implementing a relevant training intervention for the sake of developing particular skills and abilities of employees and enhancing employee

performance. Swart et al. (2005) further elaborate the concept by stating that training makes an organisation to recognise that its employees are not performing well and thus their knowledge, skills and attitudes need to be moulded according to the organisation's needs.

There might be various reasons for poor performance of employees such as employees inability to use their competencies, or lack of confidence in their capabilities, or the effect of work-life conflicts. All the above aspects must be considered by the organisation when selecting most appropriate training interventions that help organisation to solve all problems, and enhance employee motivational level to participate and meet the organisations expectations by showing desired performance. As asserted by Swart et al.(2005), this employee greater performance occur only because of good quality training programmes that lead to employee motivation and needs fulfilment.

According to Wright and Geroy (2001), employee competencies change through effective training programmes. It does not only improve the overall performance of employees on the current job, but also enhances the knowledge, skills and attitude of employees necessary for any future job, thus contributing to greater organisational performance. Through training, the employee competencies are developed and achieve organisational objectives in a competitive manner.

Moreover, employee performance is affected by some environmental factors such as corporate culture, organisational structure, job design, performance appraisal systems, power and politics prevailing in the organisation and the group dynamics. If problems exist in the above

mentioned factors in an organisation, employee performance decreases not due to lack of relevant knowledge, skills and attitude, but because of the above mentioned hurdles. To make training effective and to ensure positive effect of training on employee performance, these elements should be taken into consideration (Wright & Geroy, 2001). Besides, Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986) state that employees feel more committed to the organisation, when they feel organisational commitment towards them and thus show higher performance.

Bartel (1994) also reports that there is a positive correlation between effective training programme and employee productivity; however, to make it possible, it is the responsibility of the managers to identify the factors that hinder training programme effectiveness and should take necessary measures to neutralise their effects on employee performance. In addition, Ahmad and Bakar (2003) and Kim (2006) conclude that high level of employee commitment is achieved if training achieves learning outcomes and improves the performance both at the individual and organisational levels.

Education and employee performance

Discussions about the value of human resources to organisations' success have become increasingly popular. It is generally believed that more effective utilisation of human resources in organisational context is likely to give organisations a competitive advantage (Guest, 1987). Particularly, the success is likely to spring from organisational capabilities such as speed, agility, learning capacity and employee competence (Leonard-Barton, 1995). However, how to achieve these organisational capabilities is an issue which is

far from the moment of drawing any conclusions; but many have argued that the traditional training function with its focus on the operational level cannot meet organisations' demand for core competency in the new economy (McCracken & Wallace, 2000).

The fundamental issues regarding human resources' lack of capabilities and intellectual abilities are said to be grounded in their levels of education and technical training (Low, 1998). It has been reported that organisations are faced with a challenge in acquiring high calibre human resources with adequate levels of education (O'Connell, 1999; Streumer, Van Der Klink, & Van De Brink, 1999). For instance, Silver (1991) reported that employees in British organisations are seen to have low levels of educational and training qualifications compared to their counterparts. As such, if Britain, a developed country is seen to have this problem, it is likely to be even more evident in developing countries. On this note, the International Labour Organisation has reported that more than half of the workforce in manufacturing organisations, particularly in the South East Asia Region only possess educational qualifications at primary level or lower (International Labour Organisation [ILO], 1996).

The arguments arise that aside possessing the required skills for the job and being knowledgeable and trainable, human resources should also be required to possess at least a college or university qualification (Low, 1998; Chermack, Lynham, & Ruona, 2003). However, the generalisation of this standard of education to all levels of employees is unclear and requires further empirical evidence. Nevertheless, it is agreed that an undergraduate degree provides the essential 'intellectual human capital' on which to build future

learning and also a knowledge-workforce (ILO, 1996; Harrison & Kessels, 2004).

At the other extreme, some theorists have posited that human resources' level of education is interrelated with communication and language (DeSimone, Werner, & Harris, 2002; Alzalabani, 2002; Chermack et al., 2003). Indeed, it is important for trainers to provide and communicate learning to trainees, who on the other hand, must accept and acquire learning (Wright, Dyer, & Takls, 1999; Eichinger & Ulrich, 1998), as any problems in communication and language abilities may have a negative impact on learning, training and development (Gilley & Maycunich, 2000; DeSimone, et al., 2002; Noe, 2008; Alzalabani, 2002). On this basis, the deterioration of English language skills in Malaysia has been criticised by several writers such as McGurn (1996), Hiebert (1996) and Yunggar (2005). Building on this criticism, the lack of English speaking workers is having an adverse effect on education, learning and human resource T&D efforts, particularly in Malaysia and Indonesia (Debrah, McGovern, & Budhwar, 2000).

Moreover, problems with communication and language have also been associated with cultural integration. In HRD, the recognition and integration of culture is an important strategy in the learning, training and development of human resources (Garavan, 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 2000). However, several studies have reported that a lack of understanding of adaptation to different cultures and values has been impeding learning and training (Branine, 1996; Burba, Petrosko, & Boyle, 2001; Chermack et al., 2003; Hansen, 2003).

Attitude of employees towards training and development

The term attitude is a word used in everyday communication. While everyday use of the term attitude is common, it has a more prominent and precise meaning in psychology. This is the starting point of many consumer behaviour or marketing studies. The majority of these studies utilise theories that view understanding of attitudes as the first step in understanding consumer behaviour. An attitude can be defined as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object, issue or behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Attitude research reveals several aspects about attitudes in general. For example, one underlying assumption about attitudes is that they are learned. In other words, people are not born with attitudes. Rather, they learn or develop feelings whether favourable or unfavourable through their experiences or the information that is available to them (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Personal experiences with a product, brand or issue help consumers form attitudes. For instance, trying a new brand of wine can help a consumer form an attitude toward that wine. Information is also obtained through advertising and plays a critical role in the formation of attitudes. This is why marketers try very hard to gauge consumer attitudes toward a particular brand and product to direct their marketing efforts to influence those attitudes. Another aspect of attitudes is the issue of consistency. Several studies suggest that attitudes are somewhat consistent with the behaviour they reflect. A considerable amount of research in this area attempts to predict behaviour from attitudes. The idea is that by measuring attitudes, one can predict the

likelihood of the resulting behaviour. As such, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed a model of the relationship between attitude and behaviour.

In seeking to account for this pattern of training provision, many employers have firm and rather narrow views of the value of different forms of training for different segments of their employees (Metcalf, Walling, & Fogerty, 1994). Many employers focus on the direct benefits of training; some are aware that there might be wider gains from training such as improved staff morale, retention and flexibility, but these were rarely regarded as important enough to justify investment in training (Metcalf et al., 1994).

In the first place, it must be noted that training from the perspective of private sector organisations, is simply a means to an end (better bottom line performance, whether measured by profitability, earnings per share, return on investment ratios, or simply headcount reductions) rather than an end in itself. If current skill levels allow adequate profits to be made then they can be deemed 'fit for purpose', and making a case for further enhancement may be difficult. Given the cost reduction ('efficiency gain') pressures operating in the public sector, approaches may be becoming similar here.

Few organisations will have the luxury of training for training's sake, and will only train if they believe it will affect bottom line performance (Metcalf et al., 1994). Thus, it is also open to question whether the majority of organisations will, of their own volition, be willing to train to meet wider, long term economic and social goals. As a result, any attempt to increase employers' training must entail expanding employers' perceptions of benefits (Metcalf et al., 1994).

The importance of managerial perspectives on understanding of skill is underlined by Metcalf et al. (1994), when they note that managers' appreciation of the skill levels required for a particular job may vary widely from one organisation to another, and that the absence of training opportunities for groups of adult workers in some organisations appears to be a result of prejudices on the part of managers about the interest in and ability to take part in training by those in lower occupational groups. As a result, training had little rational basis and appeared to be based on employers' beliefs about the job and about the job holders (Metcalf et al., 1994). Changing such deeply ingrained attitudes may be extremely difficult.

Review of empirical literature

There are myriads of literatures that confirm that training and development practices have a positive effect on the performance of individuals and teams. Training and development activities can be beneficial pertaining to other outcomes at both the individual and team levels (attitudes, motivation, and empowerment). It is also believed that enhancing trainees' self-efficacy or self-management skills may result in performance consistency.

Frayne and Geringer (2000) conducted a field experiment in which they administered self-management training (lectures, group discussions, and case studies) to 30 salespeople in a life insurance industry. The results revealed that salespeople who participated in the training programme demonstrated higher self-efficacy, outcome expectancy and objective outcomes (number of new policies sold) as well as subjective job performance (sales managers' ratings salesperson's performance). Thus, training-related

performance improvement was sustained over a 12-month period after training ended.

Furthermore, training has a beneficial effect on technical skills. For instance, Davis and Yi (2004) conducted two experiments with 300 participants using behaviour-modelling training and were able to improve computer skills significantly. Even though behaviour-modelling training has a rich history of success (Decker & Nathan, 1985; Robertson, 1990), a unique aspect of this research was that training was found to affect changes in worker skills through a change in trainees' knowledge structures or mental models (Marks, Sabella, Burke, Zaccaro, 2002). Specifically, mentally rehearsing tasks allowed trainees to increase declarative knowledge and task performance, each measured 10 days after the training was completed.

Also, training-related changes are observed to result in improved job performance and other positive changes (Hill & Lent, 2006; Satterfield & Hughes, 2007), that serve as antecedents of job performance (Kraiger, 2002). Arthur, Bennett, Edens and Bell (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of 1,152 effect sizes from 165 sources and ascertained that in comparison with no-training or pre-training states, training had an overall positive effect on job-related behaviours or performance. However, although differences in terms of effect sizes were not large, the effectiveness of training varied depending on the training delivery method and the skill or task being trained. For instance, the most effective training programmes were those including both cognitive and interpersonal skills, followed by those including psychomotor skills or tasks.

Moreover, Barber (2004), in a qualitative study involving mechanics in Northern India, finds that on-the-job training led to greater innovation and tacit skills. Tacit skills are behaviours acquired through informal learning that are useful for effective performance. Concerning innovation, trained mechanics learned to build two Jeep bodies using only a homemade hammer, chisel, and oxyacetylene welder. In terms of tacit skills, Barber (2004) noted that the job of a mechanic requires “feel” to be successful. Thus, trained mechanics developed an intuitive feel when removing dents. As a result of informal training, one of the mechanics had a good feeling of how to hit the metal at the exact spot so the work progresses in a systematic fashion (Barber 2004). This type of tacit skill was particularly useful in the Indian context because, although most shops in developed nations would not even attempt to repair a fender that was damaged so badly, this type of repair is common practice in the developing world (Barber, 2004).

Additionally, training was observed to facilitate consistency in performance across circumstances. For example, Driskell, Johnston and Salas (2001) conducted a study including 79 U.S. Navy technical school trainees who performed a computer-based task. Trainees participated in a stress-exposure training session. This training exposes trainees to information regarding stressors (noise, time urgency), to the stressors, and how these stressors are likely to affect performance. The study established that training was valuable in that, the trainees performed well under a new stressor and when performing a new task. Hence, stress training helps maintain performance consistency.

There is also literature on benefits of training for managers and leaders. For instance, Collins and Holton (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of the benefits of managerial leadership development programmes including 83 studies published between 1982 and 2001. In comparing training with no training, they found that mean ranged from 0.96 to 1.37 for knowledge outcomes and from 0.35 to 1.01 for expertise/behavioural outcomes. Knowledge was defined as principles, facts, attitudes, and skills measured using both subjective (self-reports) and objective (standardised tests) measures. Expertise/behavioural outcomes were defined as changes in on-the-job behaviour and were also assessed using both subjective (peer ratings) and objective (behavioural) measures.

Lastly, other literatures also exhibit the impact of training on outcomes or variables that serve as antecedents to job performance. For example, there is a renewed interest in leadership training (Collins & Holton, 2004; Day, 2000). Dvir, Edin, Avolio and Shamir (2002) also implemented a longitudinal randomised field experiment, using cadets in the Israel Defence Forces, in which experimental group leaders received transformational leadership training. Transformational leaders exhibit charismatic behaviours, are able to motivate and provide intellectual stimulation among followers, and treat followers with individual consideration. The results revealed that transformational leadership training enhanced followers' motivation (self-actualisation needs and willingness to exert extra effort), morality (internalisation of their organisation's moral values), and empowerment (critical-independent approach, active engagement in the task, and specific self-efficacy) (Dvir et al., 2002.).

Summary

It must be emphasised that training and development leads to important benefits for employee performance, organisational performance as well as the society at large, even though it involves enormous cost. In a nutshell, this chapter therefore provided a comprehensive review of training and development literature at the global level, focusing on the training and development concept, methods of achieving training and development strategies, the relevance of training and development as well as some empirical works on training and development practices.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the methods, procedures and approaches used to conduct the study. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a combination of methods and procedures were adopted to investigate the various aspects. These include: the study organisation, research design, target population, sampling procedure and sample, instrument design, fieldwork, and data processing and analysis.

Study organisation

The education units in Ghana, which are principally operated by religious bodies, are charged with the responsibility of establishing, managing and maintaining schools under their jurisdiction. Educational units maintain high moral, religious and academic standards; advocate educational policies and programmes that are consistent with religious principles; and support teachers and help them improve on education delivery in their schools. They focus on providing quality education by ensuring collective involvement of all stakeholders, especially the religious groups and parents in education delivery (Koforidua Municipal Education Directorate, 2007).

The educational units are principally autonomous and have a chain of command like any other institution, and are headed by a manager or director, his/her assistant and staffs both clerical and administrative with their respective responsibilities. In recent years, the government decided to bring all these mission school under one chain of command but the exercise proved

futile when the various churches involved vehemently opposed that idea. It must however be noted that, these educational units have specific colours for the uniforms of their students to distinguish students from each other; for instance, Presbyterian School from Anglican School (Koforidua Municipal Education Directorate, 2007). In this particular study, the researcher selected the Catholic education unit, Methodist education unit, Islamic education unit, Presbyterian education unit, and the Anglican education unit.

Research design

The research design for this study would be the descriptive survey. Fraenkel and Wallen (2001) described the descriptive survey as a research design that attempts to describe existing situation without actually analysing relationship among variables. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2001), descriptive survey is useful for generalising from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about the characteristics, attributes or behaviour of the population. The design is chosen because it has the advantage of producing a good amount of responses from a wide range of people.

Target population

The target population is made up of all the staffs in the educational units in the Koforidua municipality. There are 5 circuits with 60 public schools under these educational units (Koforidua Municipal Education Directorate, 2007). All the staff of these educational units both clerical and administrative constitutes the accessible population for the study. The choice of the population is informed by the nature of work that the staff at the various

educational units are suppose to do and how this may impact on the quality of education in the municipality.

Data and sources

Data for the study were obtained from primary source. The primary data were generated from the fieldwork by the researcher. Basically, the data were elicited from the staff of the educational units in the Koforidua municipality. Secondary information (literature) relating to training and development practices was obtained from journals, scholarly books and the internet, and was used to validate some of the issues that were raised by the respondents.

Sampling procedure and sample

Sample refers to the actual number of members, individuals or cases selected from the target population. By observing the characteristics of the sample, one can make certain inferences about the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2001). For conclusion drawn from a research to be valid, the sample must be representative. The sample size is determined to some extent by the style of the research (Cohen & Manion, 2004). Sampling techniques refer to the methods used in selecting a proportion or part of a given population to represent the whole population (Sarantakos, 2005).

Five educational units including the Catholic education unit, Methodist education unit, Islamic education unit, Presbyterian education unit, and the Anglican education unit were conveniently selected for the study. To get the

sample, convenient sampling technique was used to select 20 staffs from each of the five educational units in the municipality. These were the staffs that were available at the time of the study. This is because it was observed that all the educational units had far less than 50 permanent staffs to their credit; therefore 20 staffs are enough to represent each educational unit. Hence, the sample size for the study was 100.

Instrument design

Questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents. The questionnaire comprised five main sections: sections A, B, C, D and E. Likert scale was used to measure responses from sections B to E. This is because it enabled the respondents to indicate the degree of their belief in a given statement and easy to construct, administer, and score (Cohen & Manion, 2004). Thus, the statement on the Likert scale was structured on a three-point scale which will require the respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree ranging from Agree (A), Not Sure (NS) and Disagree (D).

The section A was centred on the background characteristics of the respondents; the section B asked questions on the training and development methods used at the educational units. The section C of the questionnaire centred on the role of top management in promoting training and development; and the section D focused on the effects of training and development on staff performance, while the section E dealt with staff perception of training and development programmes.

Field work

A letter of introduction was obtained from the Institute of Development Studies, University of Cape Coast, to seek permission for the study in the selected educational units. Hence, permission to conduct the study in the educational units was sought and granted. The field work was conducted in five working days between April 9 to April 13, 2012. As such, one day was used to collect the data in each of the five selected educational units.

Data processing and analysis

The data were edited and cleaned to remove errors and inconsistencies. A template was laid for the data collected and the raw data was coded. The data collected were processed with the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS version 17) for windows. The analysis was done according to the objectives of the study. The results of the study were presented in frequencies, percentages, and tables for discussion.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter focuses on presenting the results and discussing the findings of the study. The findings are presented under four broad sections in accordance with the specific objectives of the study. The first section of the chapter deals with the background characteristics of the respondents, while the subsequent sections focused on the specific objectives of the study.

Background characteristics of respondents

This part discusses the background characteristics of the respondents including sex, age, educational qualification, rank, years of working and involvement in T&D programme. The results are presented using tables, percentages and frequencies for easy apprehension.

Sex of respondents

A summary of the results is presented in Table 1. From Table 1, 65 percent of the respondents were males while 35 percent were females.

Table 1: Sex of respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	65	65
Female	35	35
Total	100	100

Source: Field work, 2012

Hence, the majority of the respondents who were involved in the study were males. Perhaps, this may be as a result of the fact that more males may be present as at the time of the study, or that there were actually more male employees at the educational units in the municipality than the females.

Age of respondents

From Table 2, 46 percent of the respondents were aged 30 to 39 and 25 percent were aged 20 to 29, while only 10 percent were aged 50 and above. This implies that most of the respondents were between the ages of 30 and 39; thus, most of the staffs were in their middle ages.

Table 2: Age of respondents

Age (years)	Frequency	Percent
20-29	25	25
30-39	46	46
40-49	19	19
50 and above	10	10
Total	100	100

Source: Field work, 2012

Educational qualification

In terms of educational qualification, Table 3 indicates that 30 percent of the respondents were degree holders and 30 percent were diploma holders, while on 8 percent were certificate holders. This indicates that, most of the respondents were degree holders; hence they had tertiary education.

Table 3: Educational qualification of respondents

Educational qualification	Frequency	Percent
Certificate	8	8
Diploma	30	30
Degree	43	43
Others	19	19
Total	100	100

Source: Field work, 2012

Rank of respondents

From Table 4, 60 percent of the respondents were senior staff members, 30 percent were junior staff members while only 10 percent were

Table 4: Rank of respondents

Rank	Frequency	Percent
Top management	10	10
Senior staff	60	60
Junior staff	30	30
Total	100	100

Source: Field work, 2012

top management members. Thus, the majority of the respondents were senior staff members. Senior staff members, just like any staff member need some training and development in order to function efficiently and effectively.

Years of working

With regard to number of years of working, more than half (56%) of the respondents had worked for more than 5 years, 24 percent had worked for 3 to 4 years, while only 8 percent had work for less than 1 year (Table 5). That is, most of the employees had been working for more than 5 years, which is quite a long time enough to give the employees much working experience.

Table 5: Years of working of respondents

Years of working	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1	8	8
1-2	12	12
3-4	24	24
5 and above	56	56
Total	100	100

Source: Field work, 2012

Involvement in T&D

From Table 6, 78 percent of the respondents indicated that they were recently involved in some training and development programme while 22 percent were not involve in any programme in recent times. Thus, in the most recent training and development programme organised, the majority of the employees were able to take part. This implies that most employees had ever taken part in some training and development and this may have a long term positive effect of the performances of those employees.

Table 6: Training and development involvement

Involvement in T&D programme	Frequency	Percent
Yes	78	78
No	22	22
Total	100	100

Source: Field work, 2012

Training and Development methods used in the educational units

This section of the chapter tackles specific objective one; to identify the training and development methods used in the educational units. Using a three-point Likert Scale statements, the study asked the views of respondents on the methods of training and development as follows: A=Agree; U=Undecided or Uncertain; and D=Disagree. Table 7 presents a summary of the results.

As indicated in Table 7, respondents showed agreement with some of the statements concerning training and development methods in the educational units. As such, 72 percent of the respondents agreed that on-the-job training was used in their educational units while 18 percent disagreed, with 10 percent being uncertain. Likewise, Neil et al. (2002) and Beardwel et al. (2004) have indicated on-the-job training as one of two main methods of training. According to them, on-the-job training is ideal for training unskilled and semi-skilled employees; and gives trainees sufficient opportunity for learning on the actual equipment and in the environment of the job. Hence, the majority of the respondents identified on-the-job training as one of the training methods used in their units.

Table 7: Training and development methods

Statement	Level of agreement (%)		
	A	U	D
On-the-job training/coaching	72	10	18
Induction/orientation	89	-	11
Apprenticeship- Learning from a skilled person	16	15	69
Demonstration- Teaching by example	17	12	71
Vestibule- Done through industrial attachment for skills and technology transfer	18	10	72
Formal training	84	5	11
Job rotation	15	10	75
Self-development//Self-assessment	65	10	25
Source: Fieldwork, 2012	N=100		

Also, 89 percent of the respondents agreed that induction or orientation was one of the training methods used at their units, while only 11 percent disagreed. Thus, the respondents identified induction or orientation as one of the key methods of training used in their various educational units. As such, David et al. (2006) mention induction training as one of the important training and development methods one could use. However, 69 percent of the respondents disagreed that apprenticeship was one of the training methods used in their units, while only 16 percent agreed and 15 percent were uncertain. This implies that apprenticeship was not a method of training used at the various educational units. DeCenzo and Robbins (2002) cite the importance of apprentice training; however, it was not a method of training in the selected educational units, probably it does not suit the nature of work at

the educational units. Likewise, 71 percent of the respondents disagreed with demonstration as a training method used in the educational units, while only 17 percent agreed with 12 percent being uncertain. It follows that demonstration was not a training method used at the educational units; hence, the majority of the respondents showed their disagreement with demonstration as a training method used in the units.

Furthermore, 72 percent of the respondents disagreed that vestibule was one of the training methods used at their educational units, while only 18 percent agreed and 10 percent were not certain. Thus, vestibule was not a method of training used at the various educational units. However, Pynes (2009) cites the importance of vestibule method of training; and the lack of use may mean it may not suit the nature of work at the units.

Additionally, 84 percent of the respondents agreed that formal training was a method of training used at the educational units, while only 11 percent disagreed and 5 percent were not certain. Armstrong (2001), Neil et al. (2002) and Pynes (2009) write about the value of formal training and the circumstances under which they could be used. Thus, the majority of the respondents identified formal training as a training method used in their units, perhaps because it suits the nature of their job. However, 75 percent of the respondents disagreed with job rotation as a training method used in the educational units, while only 15 percent agreed and 10 percent were uncertain. Thus, the respondents therefore did not recognise job rotation as a method of training in their various educational units, which may probably not be suitable to their job.

Lastly, 65 percent of the respondents agreed that self-development or self-assessment was used in their educational units, while 25 percent disagreed with 10 percent being uncertain. Thus, the majority of the respondents identified self-development as one of the training methods used in their educational units. As such, self-development may be a suitable training method in the selected educational units; hence it was identified by the respondents.

Effects of training and development on staff performance

This section of the chapter examines the effects of training and development on staff performance. Using a three-point Likert Scale statements, the study asked the views of respondents on the effect of methods of training and development on staff performance as follows: A=Agree; U=Undecided or Uncertain; and D=Disagree. The summary of the results are presented in Table 8. As indicated in Table 8, 58 percent of the respondents agreed that the training had helped them in making better decisions when solving problems, while 27 percent disagreed and 15 percent were uncertain. Hence, most of the respondents had indicated that training programmes had improved their problem solving skills.

In a similar way, Ettington (1997) and Barak et al. (1999) alluded to the fact that investing in employee training improves the problem solving and decision making skills of employees. Furthermore, 67 percent of the respondents agreed that the training had internalised a sense of achievement and advancement in them, while 21 percent disagreed and 12 percent were uncertain. It therefore follows that the majority of the respondents felt some

Table 8: Effects of training and development on employee performance

Statement	Level of agreement (%)		
	A	U	D
Helped me in making better decisions in problem solving	58	15	27
Have internalised sense of achievement and advancement	67	12	21
Have achieved self-development and self-confidence	56	15	29
It has increased my productivity	78	5	17
Improved my quality of work	76	10	14
Improved my knowledge and job skills	79	6	15
Increased my job satisfaction and recognition	25	8	67
Source: Fieldwork, 2012	N=100		

sense of achievement and advancement after going through the training programmes. This is consistent with what Oribabor (2000) cites that training and development practices breed individual growth and advancement. Also, more than half (56%) of the respondents agreed that the training programmes had helped them achieve self-development and self-confidence, while 29 percent disagreed with 15 percent being uncertain. Thus, most of the respondents indicated that training programmes had provided them self-development and self-confidence. In light of this, Pitfield (1982) alludes that training and development practices have the capacity to develop workers.

Moreover, 78 percent of the respondents agreed that the training programmes had helped increase their productivity, while only 17 percent

disagreed with 5 percent being uncertain. This implies that the training programmes had helped improve the productivity of the individual employees. In consistence with this finding, it is observed that training and development practices actually help improve employee's productivity in various ways (Adeniyi, 1995; Akintayo, 1996; Arikewuyo, 1999; Oguntimehin, 2001).

Similarly, 76 percent of the respondents agreed that the training programmes had improved their quality of work, while only 14 percent disagreed and 10 percent were uncertain. Thus, the training programmes had helped improve the quality of work of the individual employees. This echoes what Akintayo (1996) and Oguntimehin (2001) observed that training and development programmes improves quality of work.

Additionally, 79 percent of the respondents agreed that the training programmes had improved their knowledge and job skills, while only 15 percent disagreed with 6 percent being uncertain. This means that the training programmes had helped increased the knowledge and job skills of the individual employees of the educational units in the municipality. Affirmatively, Akintayo (1996) and Oguntimehin (2001) maintain that training and development practices improve skills, knowledge, understanding and attitude of employees; hence, the majority of the respondents agreed with the statement.

However, 67 percent of the respondents disagreed that the training and development programmes had improved their job satisfaction and recognition, while just a quarter (25%) agreed and 8 percent were uncertain. This implies that training and development programmes did not improve job satisfaction

and recognition of employees at the various educational units in the municipality.

Staff perception of training and development programmes

The section of the chapter seeks to ascertain staff perception of training and development programmes at the educational units. This is because staff perception of training and development programmes may have a bearing on their attitude toward such training programmes. Using a three-point Likert scale statements, the study sought for the perception of staff of training and development programmes as follows: A=Agree; U=Undecided or Uncertain; and D=Disagree. Table 9 presents a summary of the results.

As indicated in Table 9, 64 percent of the respondents agreed that the training programmes were in line with their career goals, while 25 percent disagreed with 11 percent being uncertain. Thus, the majority of the respondents indicated that they perceive the training programmes as being in line with their career goals. In line with this, Wexley and Latham (1991) maintain that training and development programmes that are consistent with employee goals produce greater success than those that are not. This is because it instils zeal in the employees concerning the training programmes, and for that matter likely to produce positive results.

Also, 72 percent of the respondents agreed that the training provided an incentive for increased work performance, while one-fifth (20%) disagreed and 8 percent were uncertain. It implies that the majority of the respondents perceived the training programme as an opportunity to increase their work performance.

Table 9: Staff perception of training and development

Statement	Level of agreement (%)		
	A	U	D
The training programmes were in line with my career goals	64	11	25
The training provided an incentive for increased work performance	72	8	20
Training programmes were evaluated in terms of improved work performance	26	15	59
Training and development courses resulted in formal qualification	30	9	61
Training programmes were in line with the organisational goals and objectives	78	6	16
Training programmes were evaluated against organisational goals and objectives	25	10	65
The training programmes were systematic and continuous	65	12	23
Source: Fieldwork, 2012	N=100		

In a similar way, Colombo and Stanca (2008) and Konings and Vanormelingen (2009) perceive training as a fundamental and effective instrument for increasing productivity. However, 59 percent of the respondents disagreed that the training programmes were evaluated in terms of improved work performance, while only 26 percent agreed and 15 percent were uncertain. Hence, most of the respondents perceived that the training programmes were not evaluated against work performance; but Armstrong

(1995) and Kenny and Reid (1995) cite the value of evaluation and training feedback which they believe would be used for further action. Further, 61 percent of the respondents disagreed that the training and development courses resulted in formal qualification, while just 30 percent agreed and 9 percent were not certain; implying that, most of the respondents thought that the training programmes did not give them any formal qualification. While this may be true, Swart et al. (2005) maintain that a relevant training intervention can lead to developing particular skills and abilities of employees, and for that matter enhancing employee performance.

Additionally, 78 percent of the respondents agreed that the training programmes were in line with the organisational goals and objectives, while only 16 percent disagreed and 6 percent were not certain. This implies that the majority of the respondents perceive the training programmes as being in line with the organisational goals and objectives. Similarly, it is observed that training programmes that are consistent with organisational goals and needs, and fit to the organisational strategy will produce greater success than those that are not (Wexley & Latham, 1991; Sepulveda, 2005; Colombo & Stanca, 2008; Konings & Vanormelingen, 2009).

Conversely, 65 percent of the respondents disagreed that the training programmes were evaluated against organisational goals and objectives, while only 25 percent agreed and 10 percent were uncertain. Thus, the majority of the respondents perceived that the training programmes were not evaluated against the organisational goals and objectives. Yet, Leslie (1990) cites that it is very vital to have feedback mechanism in any training programme; while Armstrong (1995) and Kenny and Reid (1995) also emphasised the importance

of evaluation and training feedback in the training and development process. However, this was lacking in the educational units as reported by the respondents.

Finally, 65 percent of the respondents agreed that the training programmes were systematic and continuous, while only 23 percent disagreed and 12 percent were uncertain. This means that majority of the respondents perceived the training programmes as systematic and continuous. In line with this, Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992) and Wexley and Latham (1991) argue that effective training programmes must be systematic and continuous, and viewed as a long term process and not just an infrequent and/or haphazard event. Besides, Armstrong, 1995; Kenny & Reid, 1995) maintain that training and development should entail a systematic approach which normally follows a series of activities including the establishment of a training policy, followed by training needs analysis, training plans and programmes design, and implementation, evaluation and training feedback which will be used for further action.

Summary

This chapter therefore presented the results of the study, analysed and discussed the findings of the study in relation with the literature. It therefore identified training and development methods mostly used at the various educational institutions; the effect of these training and development programmes on staff performance as well as the perception of staff of the training and development programmes organised at the various educational units in the Koforidua metropolis.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter summarises the key findings from the study, draws conclusions based on the findings and then makes recommendations in relation to the objectives of the study. Also presented in this chapter is a recommendation for further studies.

Summary

This study assessed the training and development practices among staff of education units in the Koforidua municipality. The study adopted a descriptive survey research design, and convenient sampling technique was used to select 100 employees from five educational units in the municipality. Data for the study were collected using questionnaire and the data were processed using the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (Version 17) for windows. Based on the results of the study discussed in the previous chapter, the following key findings were made:

With respect to the background characteristics of the respondents, the study found that the majority of the employees at the educational units in the municipality were males. A large proportion of the employees were between the ages of 30 to 39. Also, it was revealed that most of the employees were degree holders and for that matter had attained tertiary education. The respondents were also made up of mainly senior staffs. The study brought to light that the majority of the employees had working for more than five years in their various educational units; and the majority had being involved in the

most recent training and development programmes in their various educational units.

With regard to the training and development methods used, the study further revealed that on-the-job training or coaching, induction or orientation, formal training, and self-development or self-assessment were the main training and development methods used at the selected educational units in the municipality.

The study further established that the training and development programmes helped the majority of the employees in making better decisions in problem solving; had internalised sense of achievement and advancement in employees; helped employees achieve self-development and self-confidence; had increased employees' productivity; had Improved employees' quality of work; and improved employees' knowledge and job skills. However, training and development programmes could not improve employees' job satisfaction as well as employees' recognition.

Furthermore, the majority of the employees perceive the training programmes as being in line with their career goals; as providing an incentive for increased work performance; as being in line with the organisational goals and objectives; and as being systematic and continuous. However, the majority of the respondents did not perceive the training and development programmes as being evaluated against work performance; as training and development courses resulting in formal qualification; and training programmes being evaluated against organisational goals and objectives.

Conclusions

The study concludes that even though there are varieties of training and development programmes available, only few of them were practiced or used in the various educational units in the Koforidua municipality. While some of these training methods were suitable to the nature of work at the educational units, some were not suitable and for that reason they were not used during training programmes.

The study also established that the training and development programmes had positive effects on the majority of the employees at the educational units, in terms of increased productivity, quality of work, and knowledge and job skills among others; even though it did not improve staff job satisfaction and recognition. Moreover, the study revealed a somewhat mixed staff perceptions of the training and development programmes at the educational units. Thus, majority of the employees had positive perception of some of the characteristics of the training and development programmes, while had negative perception of some of the characteristics of the training and development programmes.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are made:

1. It is recommended that the management of the educational units in the municipality should incorporate other training and development methods that are suitable to the nature of their job in their training

processes, in order to lend effectiveness and efficiency in their training and development practices.

2. The study also recommends that the management of the educational units should re-structure their training and development programmes so that it could help improve job satisfaction and recognition among staff.
3. It is recommended that the management of the educational units should make a concerted effort to evaluate every training and development programme against staff performance in order to help in taking further actions.
4. The study further recommends that the management of the educational units should make a concerted effort to evaluate training and development programmes against organisational goals and objectives in order to help in taking further actions.
5. It is also recommended that the management of the educational units should make a concerted effort to involve all staff members in their training and development programmes.

Recommendation for further studies

This study assessed the training and development practices among staff of education units in the Koforidua municipality. Further studies should examine the following areas: The effect of teacher motivation on teacher performance; and the role of the government in helping shape the training and development needs of teachers and employees in the various educational units.

REFERENCES

- Adeniyi, O. I. (1995). Staff training and development. In A. Ejiogu & I. A. Achumba (Eds.), *Reading in Organisational behaviour in Nigeria, Lagos* (pp.159-167). Lagos: Malthouse Press.
- Ahmad, K. Z., & Bakar, R. A. (2003). The association between training and organisational commitment among white collar workers in Malaysia. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 7(3), 166-185.
- Ajibade, E. S. (1993). Staff development and in-service for teachers. In E. S. Ajibade (Ed.), *Educational issues policies and practice in the eighties and beyond* (pp. 147-157). Emia: Emia Nigerian publication.
- Akintayo, M. O. (1996). *Upgrading the teacher's status through in-services training by Distant Learning System (DLS)*. A Public Lecture at the Second Convocation Ceremony of NTI, NCE: DLS.
- Alzalabani, A. H. (2002). Training and development in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 6(2), 125-140.
- Anane-Appiah, S. (2011). *Evaluation of training and development practices in the Ghana Police Service: A case study of Akropong Division in the Eastern Region* (Unpublished master's thesis). Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana.
- Appiah, B. (2010). *The impact of training on employee performance: a case study of HFC Bank (Ghana) limited* (Bachelor's thesis). Ashesi University College, Accra, Ghana.
- Arikewuyo, M. O. (1999). Improving teachers' productivity in Nigeria. In P. O. Adesemowo (Ed.), *Basic of education* (pp.102–109). Lagos: Triumph Books.

- Armstrong, M. (2001). *Human resources management practice* (5th ed). London: Kogan Page.
- Armstrong, M. (2003). *Human resources management practice* (7th ed). London: Kogan Page.
- Armstrong, M. (2009). *Handbook of human resource management practice* (11th ed.). Philadelphia: Kogan Page.
- Armstrong, M. (1995). *A handbook of personnel management practices*, London: Kogan Page.
- Arthur, W. J., Bennett, W. J., Edens, P. S., & Bell, S. T. (2003). Effectiveness of training in organizations: A meta-analysis of design and evaluation features. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 234-245.
- Barak, M., Maymon, T., & Harel, G. (1999). Teamwork in modern organisations: Applications for technology education. *International Journal of Technology and Design Education*, 9(1), 85-101.
- Barber, J. (2004). Skill upgrading within informal training: Lessons from the Indian auto mechanic. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 8, 128-139.
- Bartel, A. P. (1994). Productivity gains from the implementation of employee training programmes. *Industrial Relations*, 33(4), 411-425.
- Beardwell, I., Holden, L., & Claydon, T. (2004). *Human resource management: A contemporary approach* (4th ed). Harlow, England: Prentice Hall.
- Bolton, M. (1995). *Assessment and development in Europe: Adding value to individuals and organisation*. Maidenhead: McGraw Hill.

- Branine, M. (1996). Observations on training and management development in the People's Republic of China. *Personnel Review*, 25(1), 25-39.
- Buckley, R., & Caple, J. (2000). *Theory and practice of training* (4th ed.). London: Kogan Page.
- Burba, F. J., Petrosko, M. J., & Boyle, M. A. (2001). Appropriate and inappropriate instructional behaviours for international training. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 12(3), 267-283.
- Campbell, J. P. (1971). Personnel training and development. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 22, 565–602.
- Chalofsky, N. (1992). A unifying definition for the human resource development profession. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 3(2), 175-182.
- Chermack, T. J., Lynham, S. A., & Ruona, W. E. A. (2003). Critical uncertainties confronting human resource development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 5(3), 257-271.
- Cohen, L., & Manion, L. (2004). *Research methods in education* (3rd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Cole, G. A. (2002). *Personnel and human resource management* (5th ed.). London, England: York.
- Collins, D. B., & Holton, E. F. (2004). The effectiveness of managerial leadership development programmes: a meta-analysis of studies from 1982 to 2001. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15, 217-48.
- Colombo, E., & Stanca, L. (2008). *The impact of training on productivity: Evidence from a large panel of firms*. Retrieved on June 20, 2011 from <http://www.ssrn.com>.

- Cuming, M. W. (1968). *The theory and practice of personnel management*. London: Heineman.
- Cusworth, H., & Franks, T. (2003). *Managing projects in developing countries* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Longman.
- David, W. T., Nicholas, Y., & Fred, F. (2006). *Manual for training needs assessment in human settlements organisations*. UNDP Working Paper. New York: UNDP.
- Davis, F. D., & Yi, M. Y. (2004). Improving computer skill training: Behaviour modelling, symbolic mental rehearsal, and the role of knowledge structures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3), 509-523.
- Day, D. V. (2000). Leadership development: A review in context. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11, 581–613.
- Debrah, Y. A., McGovern, I., & Budhwar, P. S. (2000). Complementarity or competition: The development of human resources in South-East Asian growth triangle: Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(2), 314-335.
- DeCenzo, D. A., & Robbins, S. P. (2002). *Human resource management* (7th ed). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- DeCenzo, D. A., & Robbins, S. P. (2007). *Fundamentals of human resource management* (9th ed). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Decker, P. J., & Nathan, B. R. (1985). *Behaviour modelling training: Principles and applications*. New York: Praeger.

- Delaney, J., & Huselid, M. (1996). The impact of human resource practices on perceptions of organisational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 949-967.
- DeSimone, R., & Harris, D. (1998). *Human resource development* (2nd ed.). Fort Worth: The Dryden Press.
- DeSimone, R. L., Werner, J. M., & Harris, D. M. (2002). *Human Resource Development* (3rd ed.). Orlando: Harcourt College Publishers.
- DiBella, A. J., Nevis, E. C., & Gould, J. M. (1996). Understanding organisational learning capability. *Journal of Management Studies*, 33(3), 361-379.
- Driskell, J. E., Johnston, J. H., & Salas, E. (2001). Does stress training generalise to novel settings? *Human factors*, 43, 99 -110.
- Dvir, T., Edin, D., Avolio, B. J., & Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(4), 735-744.
- Eichinger, R., & Ulrich, D. (1998). Human resources with an attitude. *SHRM Magazine*, June, 77-82.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organisational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.
- Ettington, D. R. (1997). How human resource practices can help plateau managers' success. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 36(2), 221-234.

- Farooq, M., & Khan, M. A. (2011). Impact of training and feedback on employee performance. *Far East Journal of Psychology and Business*, 5(1), 23-33.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behaviour: An introduction to theory and research*. Ontario, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2001). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (4th ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Frayne, C. A., & Geringer, J. M. (2000). Self-management training for improving job performance: A field experiment involving salespeople. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 361-372.
- Ferguson-Laing, I. (2009). *The impact of training and development on worker performance and productivity in public sector organisations: A case study of Ghana Ports and Harbours Authority* (Unpublished master's thesis). Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana.
- Garavan, T. N. (1991). Strategic human resource development. *International Journal of Manpower*, 12(6), 21-34.
- Gary, R. S. (2001). *Hands-on training: A simple and effective method for on-the-job training*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Gilley, J. W., & Eggland, S. A. (1989). *Principles of human resource development*. Cambridge: Perseus.
- Gilley, J. W., & Maycunich, A. (2000). *Organisational learning, performance and change: An introduction to strategic human resource development*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Perseus.

- Goldstein, I. L., & Ford, J. K. (2002). *Training in organisations: Needs assessment, development, and evaluation* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Goldstein, I. L. (1991). Training in work organisation. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organisational psychologists* (pp.507-619). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Graham, H. T., & Bennet, R. (1992). *Human resources management*. London: Pitman.
- Guest, D. E. (1987). Human resource management and industrial relations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 24, 503-521.
- Guest, D. E. (1997). Human resource management and performance: a review and research agenda. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8 (3), 263-276.
- Hansen, C. D. (2003). Cultural myths in stories about human resource development: Analysing the cross-cultural transfer of American models to Germany and the Cote d'Ivoire. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 7(1), 16-30.
- Harrison, R. (2000). *Employee development*. (2nd ed.) London: Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Harrison, R. (2005). *Learning and development* (4th ed). London: CIPD.
- Harrison, R., & Kessels, J. (2004). *Human resource development in a knowledge economy: An organisational view*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

- Hiebert, M. (1996). War of the words. *The Far Eastern Economic Review*, 159 (12), 44.
- Hill, C. E., & Lent, R. W. (2006). A narrative and meta-analytic review of helping skills training: time to revive a dormant area of inquiry. *Psychotherapy Theory Research Practice*, 43, 154-72.
- Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 635-672.
- Ichniowski, C., Shaw, K., & Prennushi, G. (1997). The effects of human resource management practices on productivity. *American Economic Review*, 87, 291-313.
- International Labour Organisation [ILO]. (1996). *Human resource development in Asia and the Pacific in the 21st century*. ILO Workshop on Employers' Organisations in Asia Pacific in the 21st Century, Turin, Italy, ACT/EMP Publications.
- Isyaku, I. A. (2000). *Training and retraining of teachers through distance education*. A paper presented at the National Workshop on Distance Education, Abuja, Nigeria.
- Jackson, S., & Schuler, R. (2000). *Managing human resources: A partnership perspective* (7th ed). Cincinnati: South-Western College.
- Kamoche, K., & Mueller, F. (1998). Human resource management and the appropriation learning perspective. *Human Relations*, 51, 1033-1060.
- Kellerman, B. (1984). *Leadership: Multidisciplinary perspectives*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

- Kenney, D., & Reid, B. (1995). *Personnel management*. New Delhi: Himalaya.
- Kim, S. (2006). Public service motivation and organisational citizenship behaviour in Korea. *International Journal of Manpower*, 26(8), 722-740.
- Kinicki, A., & Kreitner, R. (2007). *Organisational behaviour*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Koforidua Municipal Education Directorate (2007). *Koforidua municipal education directorate handbook*. Koforidua: KMED.
- Konings, J., & Vanormelingen, S. (2009). *The impact of training on productivity and wages: Firm level evidence*. LICOS Discussion Paper 244/2009, Leuven: LICOS.
- Kraiger K. (2002). Decision-based evaluation. In K. Kraiger (Ed.), *Creating, implementing, and maintaining effective training and development: State-of-the-art lessons for practice* (pp.331-75). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Krietner, S. (1995). *The good manager's guide* (1st ed.). London: Synene.
- Landy, F. W. (1985). *The psychology of work behaviour* (3rd ed.). Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.
- Lawler, E. E. (1993). Creating the high-involvement organisation. In J. R. Galbraith & E. E. Lawler (Eds.), *Organising for the future: The new logic of managing complex organisations* (pp. 211-228). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Lerner, R. (1986). *Concepts and theories of human development* (2nd ed.). New York: Random House.

- Leonard-Barton, D. (1992). The factory as a learning laboratory. *Sloan Management Review*, 34(1), 23.
- Leonard-Barton, D. (1995). *Wellsprings of knowledge: Building and sustaining the sources of innovation*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Leslie, B. A. (1990). *An ounce of prevention for workplace accidents*. Retrieved on November 10, 2011 from www.accessmylibrary.com/.../ounce-prevention-workplace-ac.
- Low, L. (1998). Human resource development in the Asia-Pacific. *Asian-Pacific Economic Literature*, 12(1), 27-40.
- Marchington, M., & Wikilson, A. (2000). *People and the organisation: Core personnel development*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Marks, M. A., Sabella, M. J., Burke, C.S., Zaccaro, S. J. (2002). The impact of cross-training on team effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 3-13.
- Marsick, V., & Watkins, K. (1994). The learning organisation: An integrative vision for HRD. *Human Resource Quarterly*, 5, 353-360.
- McCracken, M., & Wallace, M. (2000). Towards a redefinition of strategic HRD. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 24(5), 281-290.
- McGill, M., & Slocum, J. (1993). Unlearning the organisation. *Organisational Dynamics*, 22(2), 67-79.
- McGurn, W. (1996). Money talks. *The Far Eastern Economic Review*, 159 (12), 40.

- Metcalf, H., Walling, A., & Fogerty, M. (1994). *Individual commitment to learning: Employers' attitudes*. Employment Department Research Series No. 40, Sheffield: ED.
- Milkovich, G. T., & Boudreau, J. W. (1997). *Human resource management* (8th ed.). Chicago: Irwin.
- Montana, H., & Charnov, B. (2002). Human resource practices and firm performance of multinational corporations: Influences of country of origin. *Journal of International Human Resource Management*, 9, 632-652.
- Nadler, L. (1984). *The handbook of human resource development (Glossary)*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Neil A., Deniz, S. O., Handan, K. S., & Chockalingam V. (2002). *Handbook of industrial, work and organisational psychology*. London: Saga Publication.
- Noe, R. A. (2008). *Employee training and development* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Irwin-McGraw.
- Noe, R. A., Hollenbeck, J.R., Gerhart, B., & Wright, P.M. (2008). *Human resource management: Gaining a competitive advantage* (6th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The knowledge creating company: How Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- O'Connell, J. (1999). HR's next challenge: Harnessing individualism. *HR Focus*, 76(1), 7-8.

- Oguntimehin, A. (2001). Teacher effectiveness: Some practical strategies for successful implementation of universal basic education in Nigeria. *African Journal of Educational Management*, 9(1), 151-161.
- Oribabor, P. E. (2000). Human resources management: A strategic approval. *Human Resources Management*, 9(4), 21-24.
- Pfeffer, J. (1998). *The human equation: Building profits by putting people first*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Pitfield, R. C. (1982). *Effective human resource development*. California: Jossey Bass.
- Pucel, D. J. (2001). *Performance-based instructional design*. Peoria, IL: McGraw-Hill.
- Purcell, J., Kinnie, N., Hutchinson, S., Rayton, B., & Swart, J. (2003). *Understanding the people and performance link: Unlocking the black-box*. London: CIPD.
- Pynes, J. E. (2009). *Human resources management for public and non profit organisations* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Robertson, I. T. (1990). Behaviour modelling: Its record and potential in training and development. *British Journal of Management*, 1(2), 117-125.
- Rothwell, W., & Benkowski, J. (2002). Basic principles of instructional systems design. In R. Taft (Ed.), *Building effective technical training: How to develop hard skills within organisations* (p.124-129). San Francisco, CA: Jossey- Bass/Pfeiffer.

- Russel, J. S., Terborg, J. R. & Powers, M. L. (1985). Organisational performance and organisational level training and support. *Personal Psychology, 1*, 849-863.
- Sanusi, J. O. (2002). Actualising partnership with people: The challenges of capacity building. *Human Resources Management, 10*(5), 6-8.
- Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social research*. London: Macmillan Press.
- Sarkodie, G. W. (2011). *Training and development and employee performance in District Assemblies in Ghana (Bosomtwe District Assembly)* (Unpublished master's thesis). Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana.
- Satterfield, J. M., & Hughes, E. (2007). Emotion skills training for medical students: A systematic review. *Medical Education, 41*, 935-941.
- Sepulveda, F. (2005). *Training and productivity: Evidence for US manufacturing industries*. Retrieved on June 20, 2011 from <http://www.ssrn.com>.
- Silver, M. (1991). *Competent to manage?* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Sims, R. R. (1993). *Training enhancement in the public service organisations*. West Point: British Library.
- Sisson, K. (2003). Human resource management and the personnel function: A case of partial impact. In J. Storey (Ed.), *Human resource management: A critical text* (pp. 78-86). London, England: Thomson Learning.
- Stolovtich, H. D., & Keeps, E. J. (2003). *Handbook of human performance technology: A comprehensive guide for analysing and solving*

- performance problems in organisations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Streumer, J., Van Der Klink, V., & Van De Brink, K. (1999). The future of HRD. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 18(4), 259-274.
- Sultana, A., Irum, S., Ahmed, K., & Mehmood, N. (2012). Impact of training on employee performance: A study of telecommunication sector in Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(6), 646-661.
- Swart, J., Mann, C., Brown, S., & Price, A. (2005). *Human resource development: Strategy and tactics*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Tannenbaum, S. I., & Yukl, G. (1992). Training and development in work organisations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 43, 399-441.
- Ulrich, D., Jick, T., & Von Glinow, M. A. (1993). High-impact learning: Building and diffusing learning capability. *Organisational Dynamics*, 22(2), 52-67.
- Vemić, J. (2007). Employee training and development and the learning organisation. *Economics and Organisation*, 4(2), 209-216.
- Walton, M. (2006). Evolving modes of work force governance: An evaluation. In B. Kaufman (Ed.), *Employee representation: Alternatives and future directions* (pp. 215-218). Ithaca, NY: ILR Press.
- Wexley K. N., & Latham, G. P. (1991). *Developing and training human resources in organisations* (2nd ed.). New York: Harper Collins.

- Wright, P., & Geroy, D. G. (2001). Changing the mindset: The training myth and the need for word-class performance. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(4), 586-600.
- Wright, P. M., Dyer, L., & Takls, M. G. (1999). What's next? Key findings from the 1999 state-of-the-art and practice study. *Human Resource Planning*, 22(4), 12-20.
- Yawson, F. (2009). *Training and development of human resource in Customs Excise and Preventive Service (CEPS) in Ghana* (Unpublished master's thesis). Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana.
- Yunggar, M. (2005). Globalising Malaysia's human resources: Removing the language barrier. *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge*. 6(2), 332-339.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire for employees

Introduction

This questionnaire seeks to solicit your views on training and development practices your educational units. The study is solely for academic purposes and the responses you provide will be confidential. You are not obliged to answer any question you are not comfortable with. I would greatly appreciate your co-operation in responding to this questionnaire.

Read each question carefully and choose the appropriate answers by making the mark [✓] in the appropriate box corresponding to the chosen item.

Section A: Background information

1. Sex
a. Male [] b. Female []
2. Age
a. 20-29 [] b. 30-39 [] c. 40-49 [] d. 50 and above []
3. Educational qualification;
a. Certificate [] b. Diploma [] c. Degree [] d. Others []
4. Position/Rank.....
5. How long have you been an employee in this institution?
.....
6. Have you been involved in any training and development programme recently?
Yes [] No []

Section B: Training and development methods

Please indicate your level of agreement to the statements below by ticking [✓] where applicable:

[A]-Agree, [U] –Uncertain, [D]-Disagree

Statement	A	U	D
On the job training/coaching			
Induction/orientation			
Apprenticeship - A method of training where an unskilled person understudies a skilled person			
Demonstration - Teaching by example			
Vestibule - done through industrial attachment for the purpose of skills and technology transfer			
Formal Training			
Under-study			
Job-rotation			
Self-development/Self-assessment			

Section C: The effect of training and development on employee performance

Please indicate your level of agreement to the statements below by ticking [✓] where applicable:

[A] - Agree, [U] – Uncertain, [D] - Disagree

Statement	A	U	D
Helps the individual in making better decisions and effective problem solving			
Through training and development, motivational variables of recognition, achievement, growth,			

responsibility and advancement are internalised and operationalised			
Aids in encouraging and achieving self-development and self-confidence			
Helps a person handle stress, tension, frustration and conflict			
Provides information for improving leadership, knowledge, communication skills and attitudes			
Increases job satisfaction and recognition			
Helps a person develop speaking and listening skills; also writing skills when exercises are required. Helps eliminate fear in attempting new tasks			
Provides the trainee an avenue for growth and a say in his/her own future			
Develops a sense of growth in learning			
Moves a person towards personal goals while improving interactive skills			

Section D: Staff perception of training and development programmes

Please indicate your level of agreement to the statements below by ticking [✓] where applicable: [A]-Agree, [U] –Uncertain, [D]-Disagree

Statement	A	U	D
I have been given training opportunities that would realise my career goals			
My career goals coincide with organisational goals and my training opportunities have been			

determined accordingly			
Training is provided as an incentive for increased work performance			
Training courses are evaluated in terms of improved work performance			
Work place training and development courses culminate in formal qualification			
Work place training courses are aligned with organisational goals and objectives			
Work place training courses are evaluated against organisational goals and objectives			
Work place training and development programmes are evaluated against individual objectives and goals			