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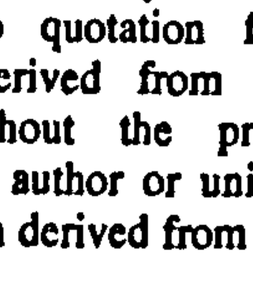
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INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR IN SAUDI ARABIA:
Case Studies of the Ministry of Education and the Institute of Public Administration

Ahmed H. Aldolaimi

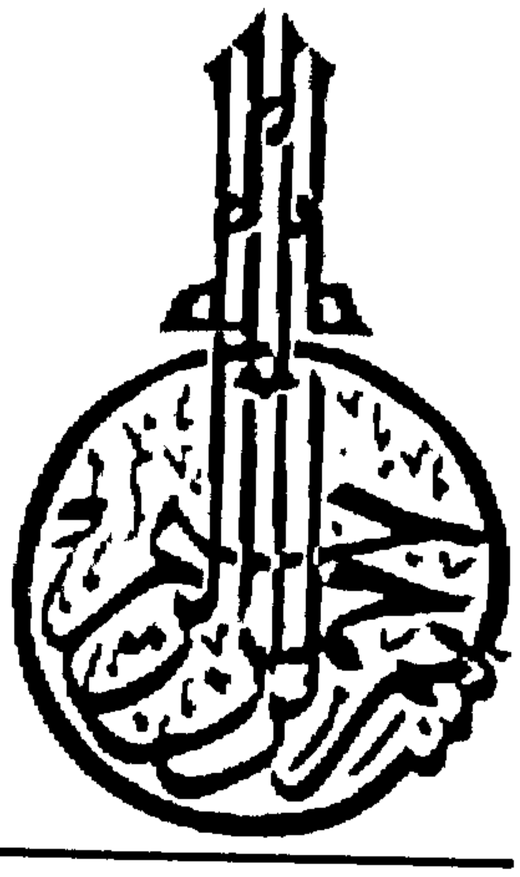
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Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) at the School of Government and International Affairs, Durham University



2006

0 8 AUG 2007



In The Name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful

Abstract

This research aims to measure the impact of training programmes provided for public sector employees in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In addition, this research attempts to compare the training provided through the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) and by the Ministry of Education (MoE) Training Center. The data for this research was collected through a combination of semi-structured interviews with trainers and questionnaires with trainees and their immediate supervisors.

In attempting to investigate the impact of training in the public sector, this study investigates the following issues among others: the motivating factors for trainees' participations in the training programmes, determination of the most effective training method, and trainees' satisfaction with the training programmes. The study also attempts to investigate the constraints on the effectiveness of training programmes. The perceptions of the trainees' supervisors regarding the impact of training upon the trainees are considered.

The study found that from the trainees' perceptions in both samples an important reason to attend training was learning practical skills, and the most effective method was group discussion. The study concluded that there was a lack of a systematic procedure to conduct training needs analysis in both samples which led to negative consequences. In addition, the findings reveal that there is no significant difference between the IPA and the MoE Training Centre regarding the effectiveness of training upon trainee performance. The trainees and their immediate supervisors' reactions towards the effectiveness of training were positive. Nevertheless, the real impact is debatable, as there are constraints that obstructed the training transfer process; the most noticeable is the differences between the work and training setting.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that no portion of the work that appears in this study has been used in support of an application of another degree in qualification to this or any other university or institution of learning.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the memory of my father, to my mother, my wife and my children.

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1. Preface

To most people capital means assets that yield income and other useful outputs over long periods of time (Becker, 2002). Most often, capital means physical capital, which according to Wikipedia (2006) means, any non-human asset made by humans and then used in production. These include buildings, machines, technical equipment, stocks of raw materials, and goods. But 'human capital'- people's knowledge and skills- is at least as important for production, and at least as significant to people who have it. According to the World Bank (2004), the human factor is vital in modern production. It is reflected in the distribution of income among people who own physical capital and people who 'own' knowledge and skills. For instance, as argued by Sheram and Soubbotina, (2004), in the United States in the 1980s, the income received on knowledge and skills (through wages and salaries) was about 14 times more than that received on physical capital (through dividends and undistributed corporate profits). This phenomenon as Sheram and Soubbotina, (2004) emphasised led economists to acknowledge the existence of human capital, which is built up through education or training that increases a person's economic productivity- that is, enables him or her to earn a higher income

An important effect of globalisation is its emphasis on effectiveness and efficiency in the work place in order to remain competitive. This can only be achieved by developing human resources along with material resources. Becker (2002) claims that education and training are the most important investments in human capital. While education is crucially important to develop human resources for economic development and competitiveness, training is another important aspect which preserves and improves the

skills of the workers. The impact of education and training, and hence developed human resources, can be observed in the economic miracles of the South East Asian countries.

The important role that training play in achieving the organisational and occupational objectives is really appreciated and recognised by many organisations, and therefore training is seen as a crucial investment for the future. The interest that has been dedicated to training is derived from the fact that training is crucial to developing and equipping the employees. It could be said that the success or failure of any organisation relies heavily on the quality of its workforce.

According to Squires (2002) most organisations in the United States spend between 2% and 4% of their annual revenues on training. For an organisation, whose annual revenue is $100 million, this represents an expenditure of $2 million or more annually. However, as Squires argued, considering the size of this expense, it is somewhat surprising that the effectiveness and return on investment of this money is not more carefully assessed. The most common framework for evaluating training is Kirkpatrick's four levels of training evaluation. These include evaluating trainee satisfaction, trainee learning, trainee job improvement and business impact. According to ASTD (2005), 80% of organisations evaluate trainee reaction, 40% evaluate trainee learning, and less than 10% assess the impact of training on the workplace.

These are common issues all over the world in terms of human resources and developing human resources. They apply to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia KSA, which has been investing immensely on developing human resources. When the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was founded in 1932, education was not accessible to everyone. It was limited to individualised instruction at religious schools in mosques in urban areas. This limited number of religious schools taught Islamic law and basic literacy skills. A little

over a few decades, Saudi Arabia now has a nationwide educational system that provides free education from pre-school through university to all citizens.

The structure of Saudi Arabia's modern education system began in 1954 with the establishment of the Ministry of Education. At that time there was little development in the field of education in the Arab peninsula prior to the discovery of oil; only a small proportion of the population had access to any form of education.

This situation began to change when oil production started and the government of Saudi Arabia devoted huge sums of its budget in developing the human resources of the country. This recent interest in human development stands top of the list of priorities of the KSA, which can be clearly seen in the great concern in the previous development plans concerning the various forms of the human development process.

While education remains at the heart of this human development process, training is an important aspect for improving and further developing existent human resources. Saudi Arabia, therefore, prizes training because of its significant importance in developing the human potential of the country. Training is a vital process to which the authorities in the KSA have made great commitments in order to develop and enhance the knowledge and skills of employees. The government's awareness of the key role of quality manpower in the social and economic development of the Kingdom has therefore encouraged it to give generous support to the education and training sector. It should be noted that such dedication to training in the public sector in Saudi Arabia is a natural response to the global interest to training in the developed world due to its contribution to effectiveness and efficiency in the work place.

1.2. Aim and Objectives

The aim of this study is to investigate to what extent the training programmes presented to the public sector employees in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are effective and worth the substantial amount of money invested in this sector. In evaluating the effectiveness and the impact of training programmes, three main areas will be investigated: first the trainees' reactions and attitudes about the programmes; second, perceptions of the trainees' immediate supervisors towards the training impact on their subordinates; and third the trainers' perceptions of the impact of training on the trainees. Moreover, this study will also attempt to conduct a comparison between training presented to all public sector employees through the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) and training presented to only the Ministry of Education (MoE) employees through the MoE Training Centre.

In order to fulfill the set aim, the following objectives are considered:

1-to discover the reasons for participating in the training programmes;

2- to ascertain what training methods are most effective;

3- to measure the trainees' satisfaction with the training programmes and methods used in training;

4- to investigate what makes training less effective;

5- to measure the perceptions of the trainees' supervisors towards the knowledge, behaviour, and skills of the trainees before and after training.

In order to fulfill the aim and objectives, this study undertakes research to locate primary and secondary information. Primary data are collected through questionnaire and interviews, while secondary information collated through literature review.

1.3. Research Questions:

The following questions are proposed to guide the collection, analysis and interpretation of data in line with the research aim and objectives.

1- What are the reasons for participating in the training programmes?

2- What are the most effective training methods?

3- To what extent are the trainees satisfied with the training programmes and methods used in the training?

4- What are the obstacles that make training less effective?

5- What are the perceptions of the trainees' supervisors towards the knowledge, behaviour, and skills of the trainees before and after training?

These research questions will be responded by assembling the required data within Kirkpatrick's model of training evaluation which is defined in detail in Chapter Three. It is expected that the research, in the end, provides answers to these questions. The research is designed accordingly to ensure this.

1.4. Research Methodology

In order to collect the required data for this study, the triangulation technique was used, which means combining quantitative and qualitative methods to achieve the objectives of the research. As argued by Jankowicz, (2000:214), sometimes a researcher might find

him/herself using more than one method in combination because of the demand for using one method to cross-check the results from another method.

A semi structured interview with the trainers and a set of two questionnaires, one was addressed to the trainees who attended the training programmes in the IPA and in the MoE Training Center and another to their supervisors, were conducted to gather in depth data. Moreover, secondary data were collected through the government documents and the researcher's observation to respond to research questions.

1.5. Significance of the Study: Motivation for Research

The efforts that the Saudi Arabian Government has dedicated to develop its employees' skills in the public sector are enormous. In-service training is one of the Government human resource policies to enhance the information skills and behaviour of civil service employees.

These training programmes, however, have not been widely investigated to test their effectiveness and impact up on the trainees. In fact, training evaluation studies and researches are very rare; they are mostly conducted only on one aspect of training, namely finding the trainees' reactions to the programmes. According to Al-Ammar, (1986:72) the only method the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) uses to evaluate its in-service training programmes is a participants' questionnaire, which obtains data about how the trainees think of the programme and its components. This method used by IPA represents the lowest level of evaluation that of the trainees' reaction. It does not measure what the trainees have eventually gained from the programme. Nor dose it assess what they learned and whether the training has contributed to organisational objectives.

This study is, hence, an attempt to overcome such shortcomings in the training programmes in the public sector with the aim of contributing to the knowledge gap which exists in the literature in the field. Indeed no literature related to the KSA appears to exist on the three aspects of this present study.

1.6. Organisation of the Study:

This study is divided into nine chapters. These chapters include; introduction; literature review; evaluating training programmes: literature review,; human resources development in Saudi Arabia; methodology; descriptive and analytical data analysis; interview data analysis; discussion; and conclusion and recommendations.

Chapter one, presents a general picture of this research and its aims and objectives.

Chapter two, literature review, presents the rationale for training by highlighting the difference between education and training. It also defines training and explains its importance, significance and objectives. There is also an explanation of the systematic approach to training and how it should be conducted in a systematic manner. Therefore, it underlines the conditions for effective and efficient training programmes. Finally, the chapter concludes by mentioning the obstacles in establishing effective training. While training as a process is important, the measurement of the outcomes of training is crucially important as well, which is the subject of the following chapter.

Chapter three (Evaluating Training Programmes: Literature Review) offers discussion about the training evaluation process. It starts by explaining what it meant by training evaluation, the objectives of training evaluation, and what are the famous evaluation models. In addition, this chapter presents the evaluation methods that should be used,

identifies the people who should be responsible for conducting the evaluation and considers various obstructions to achieving effective training programmes. Finally, a discussion of different empirical studies related to performance evaluation on different cases is presented.

Chapter four (Human Resources Development and Training in Saudi Arabia) offers a brief review of the human resources development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and describes the education and training systems in the country. The chapter then considers the MoE's Training Centre, which provides training to the employees of the MoE and the Institute of Public Administration, which is the official body that presents training to all public organisations employees.

Chapter five (Methodology) offers the research design and methodology. It provides in depth details about the methodological process. A rationalization of why the researcher chose to use the triangulation, namely combining qualitative and quantitative methods, in this research is explained. Next is a discussion on the data collection instruments. The questionnaire and interviews used in the research, clarification of design, piloting, validity and reliability issues are also presented. Population and sampling are also discussed in this chapter as part of the research process. Finally, the limitation and difficulties faced during this research conclude this chapter.

Chapter six (Perception of the Effectiveness of Training in MoE and IPA), is an empirical analysis chapter. It presents the finding of the research as a result of the descriptive and analytical analysis through the quantitative method used in this research, namely the trainee's questionnaire and the immediate supervisor's questionnaire.

Chapter seven (Interview Data Analysis) offers the analysis of the data collected through the qualitative method used in this research, namely the findings from the semi-structured interview.

Chapter eight (Discussion) presents a discussion based on the findings through the primary data analysed by this study in order to measure the training impact in the public sector of Saudi Arabia. This discussion is also related to other studies available in the literature. An interpretative approach is used to provide a discussion with the aim of providing further meaning to the findings presented in the empirical chapters.

Chapter nine (Conclusion and Recommendations) offers the conclusions from the findings and the discussion chapters about the impact of training on the public sector in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It concludes by providing a number of recommendations as to how the identified problems in training programmes and their evaluations can be overcome in achieving more effective and efficient training programmes.

CHAPTER TWO

TRAINING AND ASPECTS OF TRAINING:

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction:

Human resources are, without doubt, one of the most important assets of any organisation (Tennant et al., 2002:7). Recently there has been a great demand for training and development programmes in most developed countries in order to improve the quality of human resources. Training and development programmes are regarded as two of the vital variables in raising efficiency in the field of human resources management (Sikula and McKenna, 1984: 202). Most of the modern organisations have recognised the role that training and development programmes play in achieving an organisation's strategic objectives.

Training is, therefore, seen by a large number of employers as an important investment for the future. According to the British National Statistics (2005), ninety per cent of employers in England in 2002, reported providing job-related training in the previous twelve months. Pratt and Bennet (1982:24) emphasized that training has recently become a major growth industry. They argue that in the UK, the government continues to provide a great sum of money in industrial training through the Manpower Services Commission. This is over the huge investment in training by industry.

The long-term success or failure of any firm depends upon the quality of its workforce. Providing the right sort of training and development, and encouraging people to take advantage of it, will not just foster that quality but will also give the organisation its most basic and central source of competitive advantage - the skill to do the job well. (Darling, 1993: xiii). Training contributes to raising productivity, promoting self

confidence, reducing work accidents and increasing the stability of the organisation, as well-trained personnel are considered among its assets, (Al-Asiry 1997:6).

The very fast growing and changing society in which we live requires every organisation to make all possible efforts to survive in a competitive workplace, and training can provide this competitive edge. Although training has a very important role in an organisations progress, it is not the only factor. Goldstein, (1993:17) explained that

> It is unrealistic to think about training as if it was in a vacuum. Many investigators have been disappointed with the result of their training programmes because they assumed that success would always follow the implementation of a well conceived programme. In some cases supervisors do not permit the employee to use the skills that were acquired in the training programme. In other cases training is not the answer.

Before delving into issues related to training, it is important to state that the systematic approach to training starts with identifying training needs, designing training, delivering training and finally evaluating training outcomes. The importance of training for an organisation is related to its contribution in terms of value added. There must, therefore, be a coherent and well-planned integration of training, education and a continuous development in the organisation if real growth at individual and organisational levels is to be achieved and sustained.

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the conceptual issues relating to training. Since the literature on the subject is extremely broad, this chapter discusses the issues that are specifically related to this study.

2.2. Training, Education and Development

Training is widely understood as being communication directed at a defined population for the purpose of developing skills, modifying behaviour, and increasing competence. Generally, training focuses exclusively on what needs to be known in a particular field. While education can be considered as an instrument for such ends, education is a longer-term process that incorporates the goals of training and explains why certain information must be understood, as education emphasizes the scientific foundation of the material presented. It should, however, be noted that both training and education induce learning, a process that modifies knowledge and behaviour through teaching and experience. (NIOSH, 1999)

Training, development and education are more frequently used generally and sometimes interchangeably, although they are not synonymous. Therefore, it is important that the differences should be identified. Harrison (1992: 4) provides definitions for each of these related concepts;

Development is the all-important primary process through which individual and organisational growth can, through time, achieve its fullest potential.

Education is the major contributor to that process because it directly and continuously affects the formation not only of knowledge and abilities, but also of character and of culture, aspirations and achievements.

Training is the short-term systematic process through which an individual is helped to master defined tasks or areas of skill and knowledge to pre-determined standards.

Training and development describe the formal, ongoing efforts of organisations to improve the performance and self-fulfillment of their employees through a variety of

methods and programmes. Organisations of all sizes have embraced training and development as a means of promoting employee growth and acquiring a highly skilled work force. (Hillstrom & Hillstrom, 1998: 977)

Dodd (1973: 71) has stated some of the differences of training and educational systems and these are shown in Table 2-1:

Table 2.1 The Difference Between the Training System and the Educational System:

Educational system	Training system
Everyone is assumed to reach a standard matched to their natural abilities.	Everyone is expected to succeed.
Those who have difficulty are directed to other topics.	Those who have difficulties are given further coaching until they do succeed.
Those who learn easily cover more topics in the time allowed	Those who learn easily reach the standard sooner or with less help from the trainer
The final standard is expressed as a pass mark which is based on statistical averages.	The final standard is such that everyone can attain it.
The end of course marks, by tradition, range from about 10 % to 85 %	The end-of-course marks are all 100 %.

Source: Dodd (1973: 71)

2.3. Training

2.3.1. Defining Training

Before presenting a specific definition, it is appropriate to ask where the term 'training' comes from. King (1964: 125) states that:

> The verb 'to train' is derived from the old French word 'trainer', meaning 'to drag'. Hence such English definitions may be found as: to draw along; to allure; to cause to grow in the desired manner; to prepare for performance by instruction, practice, exercise, etc.

There are many definitions of training, and most of them focus on two aspects, improving skills and performance, and changing the behaviour and attitude. Training is the process that changes and improves some skills, knowledge and behaviour of any employee. There is a great demand for training because many organisations have realised its important role.

Heery and Noon (2001:272) define training as the process of changing the skills, attitudes, and knowledge of employees with the purpose of improving their level of competence. It is a planned process, usually involving a series of stages where incremental improvements can be identified. It takes two main forms:

On-the-job training whereby an employee receives instruction within the place of work, usually through observing the tasks, being guided through them by experts, and then practising them.

Off-the-job training whereby an employee is instructed away from the place of work, either in a training room on the premises or at a separate location (such as a college). This training is more often theory based and might even take the form of self-learning packages.

As the definitions indicate, training includes many activities starting from learning very simple skills to more sophisticated skills, and also has an impact in developing the attitudes and behaviour of employees. UNESCO (1978: 38), therefore, defines training as:

> Activities which aim at providing the skills, knowledge and attitudes required for employment in a particular occupation, group of related occupations, or for exercising a function in any field of economic activity. Within this broad term a number of a derivatives or subdivisions may be noted based on the purpose or level of the training, the age group or other characteristics of the trainee, the place where the training is given, etc.

In addition, a typical British definition is offered by the Manpower Services Commission (1981:43)

> "a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge, skill or behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in the activities of the individuals and satisfy the current and future manpower needs of the organisation".

For Sikula and Mcklenna (1984: 203) training is a short-term educational process utilizing a planned, systematic, and organized procedure by which non managerial personnel acquire the technical knowledge and skills necessary for increased effectiveness in achieving organisational goals. A very straightforward definition is given by Bentley (1990: 22) when he defines training as helping people to learn. This means, Bentley claims that the primary role of training is to provide the very best learning opportunities and resources.

Goldstein, (1993: 3), on the other hand, defines training as the systematic acquisition of skills, rules, concepts or attitudes that result in improved performance in another environment. Armstrong (1996: 492) also defines training as "the planned and systematic modification of behaviour through learning events, programmes and instruction which enables individuals to achieve the levels of knowledge, skill and competence to carry out their work effectively".

The synthesis of the necessary core concepts, which can be drawn from these various definitions, can be summarized as follow (Bramley, 1990: xiv)

- Training must be a systematic process with some planning and control rather than random learning from experience.

- It should be concerned with changing concepts, skills and attitudes of people treated both as individuals and groups.

- It is intended to improve performance in both the present and the following job and, through this, to enhance the effectiveness of that part of the organisation in which the individual or group works.

All these definitions and nature of definitions reflect the concern that has been devoted to training as a vital element of an organisation's progress.

2.3.2. Significance of Training

Training programmes are regarded as an essential feature of organisational life, and the high technology that most organisations try to implement in the workplace needs extensive training in order to acquire the desired skills (Mann, 1996: 16). Education, training, and skills or human capital are seen as key determinants for economic success and for achieving individual and social goals. At the micro level, employability and quality of life are expected to improve for people with higher levels of skills and competences. Education, training, skills and competences are supposed to be major factors in the economic performance of organisations (Descy & Tessaring, 2005:191).

In recent years, there has been greater interest in preparing competent and skilful employees in the public and private sectors. This interest has led to huge investment in human resources through training programmes which is highly justified and yields sufficient returns in the form of abilities, skills and positive attitudes which, if designed and implemented in a systematic way result in better performance.

Results from the Cambridge Online Learning (COL) 2003 Annual Training Survey reveal a 100% increase in the awareness of the importance of training within the UK. Out of the 250 UK training consumers surveyed, 18%, compared with just 9% last year,

stated an 'increase in awareness' as the key reason for increased training spending in 2003. Training is very important for any organisation to achieve the required success. Its importance comes as Beardwell et al. (2004: 263) claim from the following reasons.

- New employees are, in some respects, like other raw materials, they have to be 'processed' to enable them to perform the tasks of their job adequately, to fit into their work-group, and into the organisation as a whole;

- Jobs and tasks may change over time, both quantitatively and qualitatively, and employees have to be updated to maintain their adequate performance;

- New jobs and tasks may be introduced into the organisation , and be filled by existing employees, who need re-direction;

- People need training to perform better in their existing jobs;

- People themselves change their interests, their skills, their confidence and their aspirations, and circumstances;

- Some employees may move their jobs within the organisation , on promotion, or to widen their experience, and so need further training;

- The organisation itself, or its context, may change over time, so that employees have to be updated in their ways of working together;

- The organisation may wish to be ready for some future change, and require (some) employees to develop transferable skills;

- The organisation may wish to respond flexibly to its environment and require (some) employees to develop flexibility and transferable skills;

- Management requires training and development; this will involve initial training for new managers, further development and training for managers, management succession and the development of potential managers.

While it may be true that the cost might appear too high when designing a training course these programmes could actually save a substantial amount of money for the organisation. Well trained employees will limit the time they need to finish a specified job. Many mistakes will be avoided, such as the breakdown of machinery, which would mean saving money on maintenance costs. In addition, employee satisfaction will increase, which will be reflected in employee loyalty to the organisation, and therefore increased productivity.

The importance of training is too great to be ignored. Coussey and Jackson, (1991: 108), have also stated different reasons for the significance of training, as follow:

- To raise awareness;
- To get things started or give a signal that things are moving;
- To get support;
- To develop a strategy for changes in practices;
- To impart information, knowledge and understanding;
- To give new skills and enhance experience;
- To make up for past under-achievement or lack of experience and develop confidence.

During the past 30 years education and training have increasingly attracted the attention of UK politicians, civil servants, professional bodies, journalists and many others who operate at national level. Education and training are increasingly seen as potentially

able to make a contribution to solve economic struggles that are themselves growing more difficult to control(Reid and Barrington, 1997:13).

According to Whetherly (1994: 3) any organisation that pays little or no attention to training may exhibit the following symptoms:

- The organisation service is not meeting its objectives;
- Change is difficult to achieve because staff have got out of or never developed the habit of learning at work;
- A high rate of staff turnover, especially of the able and ambitious, (though this will be affected by the state of the employment market);
- Underdeveloped staff who are not ready for promotion and who feel stuck in the organisation and unable to compete for jobs outside;
- Demotivated and disillusioned staff.

Adequately effective training programmes enhance the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours of people and hence their performance (Bentley, 1990:33). Increasingly, the change on the performance of each individual will lead to a general progress in the organisation's performance, which is the main target for any organisation.

Descy and Tessaring, (2005:240) have cited from Boselie (2001) who provides an overview of the findings of human resources management research over the last decade. The results with regard to the effects of training on organisation suggest:

- Training has a positive impact on the performance of the firm in such areas as product quality, product development, market share and growth in sales;
- Higher investment in training results in higher profits, market share and investment in the near future;

- Higher investment in training results in reduced staff turnover;
- Training has a positive impact on the relationship between management and other employees;
- Training has a positive impact on perceived organisational performance.

To conclude, training has a very crucial role in the success of any organisation. The significance of training as a means of development is being increasingly considered. The huge investment in training internationally stems from a natural demand to satisfy the most sophisticated and changing nature of organisations.

2.3.3. Objectives of Training

The main objective of training is to enhance the performance of the employee and develop the administrative environment in organisations. Moreover, training is concerned with the development of the employee's skills and attitude and also in preparing him/her for promotion to a more important position which will reflect positively on the organisation's performance in general.

According to Grant and Smith (1984: 100) there are on the whole three major objectives of training.

1- To provide the knowledge and skills, and as far as it is possible, the attitudes needed for individuals to undertake their current jobs more effectively, as well as to assist employees at all levels to extend their abilities and to understand the implications and significance of their roles;

2- To help employees to become capable of assuming other responsibilities within an organisation, either at higher or at their current levels. This objective, in other words, is concerned with developing the potential of employees;

3- To help employees to adapt to the changing circumstances facing the organisation, as part of the process of organisational development.

In addition, Armstrong (1999:507) mentioned three other training objectives:

- to develop the competence and performance of the workers;
- to help employees to grow in the organisation to meet the future needs of human resources;
- to minimise the time for learning for new employees and ensure that they become fully competent as quickly and economically as possible.

Training objectives are precise goals. They and can be measured and they can define the precise targets of the training function. They can be adjusted to suit the organisation as a whole or to meet the needs of an individual department or division. They can be designed for a specific employee as well as for the use of specific trainer. This is because training objectives refer to change that affect a trainee's performance or behaviour (Stout, 1994: 26).

2.3.4. Training for the Current Job

Every employee whether on a job for a long time or at the start of his or her career, needs a kind of training to enable him or her to do the required job in a sufficient way. This can be achieved by analyzing the skills that an employee has, which will give the trainer a chance to assess what kind of skills need to be developed, in order for the employee to carry out his or her role in the organisation . The principles of successful training state that training needs to be modified to suit individual needs.

2.3.5. Training to Adapt to Change

The world today is changing faster than ever before. Developments in all aspects are putting pressure on organisations to change and stay dynamic. Because change in the workplace is occurring so rapidly, the need for training is crucial. Organisations need to train their employees and keep them updated with the most recent technologies and information in order to achieve their goals. Bentley (1990: 12) argues that organisations need to equip people to adapt to change and the only way that this can be done is by fostering a climate of constant change and development within the organisation , with everyone encouraged to learn and grow, and by building really effective training systems.

According to Whetherly (1998: 12), the purpose of training and development is to create any opportunity for learning that helps to facilitate the process of achieving change in any organisation. Training could play a very important role in organisational and individual change and everyone in the organisation should be part of this process.

It is very important that specialists who are responsible for human resource development should fully recognize that it is the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviour of each individual that leads directly to corporate success. Individuals need to be encouraged to seek the kind of opportunities that they want, and encouraged to take every opportunity to develop and grow in the way they wish, and to be consistent with improving their own performance and contribution (Bentley, 1990: 5).

2.4. Training Methods

A careful use of training methods can be a very cost effective investment in the sense of using the most appropriate method for the needs of a person or group. However, many researchers have frequently mentioned that organisations often use inappropriate

methods which can be both costly and time consuming and offer very limited improvement in employee performance (Beardwell et al., 2004: 321). In addition, poorly chosen methods could lead, as Reay (1994:7) suggests, to ineffective learning, dissatisfaction felt by the trainees and top management at the trainer's performance.

There are many training methods and each one has its own peculiar strength and weakness. According to Beardwell et al, (2004: 325) it would be very difficult to cover in great depth all the rich variety and approaches that exist for training. They claim that it is best to bear in mind that there may be nothing wrong with the actual methods, as opposed to how they are utilized by the trainer and the learner.

Anderson (1993: 104) identifies some of the off-the-job training methods and argues that the most crucial one is the *lecture.* More training programme designers rely heavily on lectures as an economic way of giving a knowledge input to a large number of people at the same time. According to Sikula and McKenna (1984: 221), a lecture is a discourse delivered for instructional purposes. It is a formal, organized talk on specific subjects. Goldstein (1993: 231) supported this view when he stated that the lecture method is the most frequently employed control procedure in the analysis of recently developed techniques such as films, television and programmed instruction.

Other methods as identified by Anderson (1993: 104) include:

- talk, group discussion;
- case study, role play, business games;
- programmed and computer-assisted instruction;
- demonstration and example, simulation, planned experience, counselling;
- sensitivity and group training;

- discovery learning, outdoor training;
- planned experience, counselling, coaching.

2.5 The Systematic Approach to Training

Training is most effective when it is the result of a systematic and disciplined analysis that details the tasks to be performed and the knowledge and skills required to perform them. The Manpower Services Commission (1981: 22) defines the systematic approach to training as:

> the process of identifying inputs, components and sub-systems, and then seeking to identify the contribution that training can make to improving the operation by enhancing the contribution of the human components (people) as opposed to machinery and operational procedures. The systems approach is next applied to the training design, where the components are learning strategies and people, and the objectives are in terms of learning. Finally, the systems approach is applied to the interaction between training and operation to produce a feedback which can be used to improve subsequent training.

Babcock and Wilcox (2004) utilize a systematic training approach known as the ADDIE System: Analyse, Design, Develop, Implement and Evaluate.

a) Analyse the organisation's needs and identify training goals which, when reached, will equip learners with knowledge and skills to meet the organisation's needs. Usually this phase also includes identifying when training should occur and who should attend as learners;

b) Design a training system that learners and trainers can implement to meet the learning goals; typically includes identifying learning objectives (which culminate in reaching the learning goals), needed facilities, necessary funding, lessons and sequence of lessons;

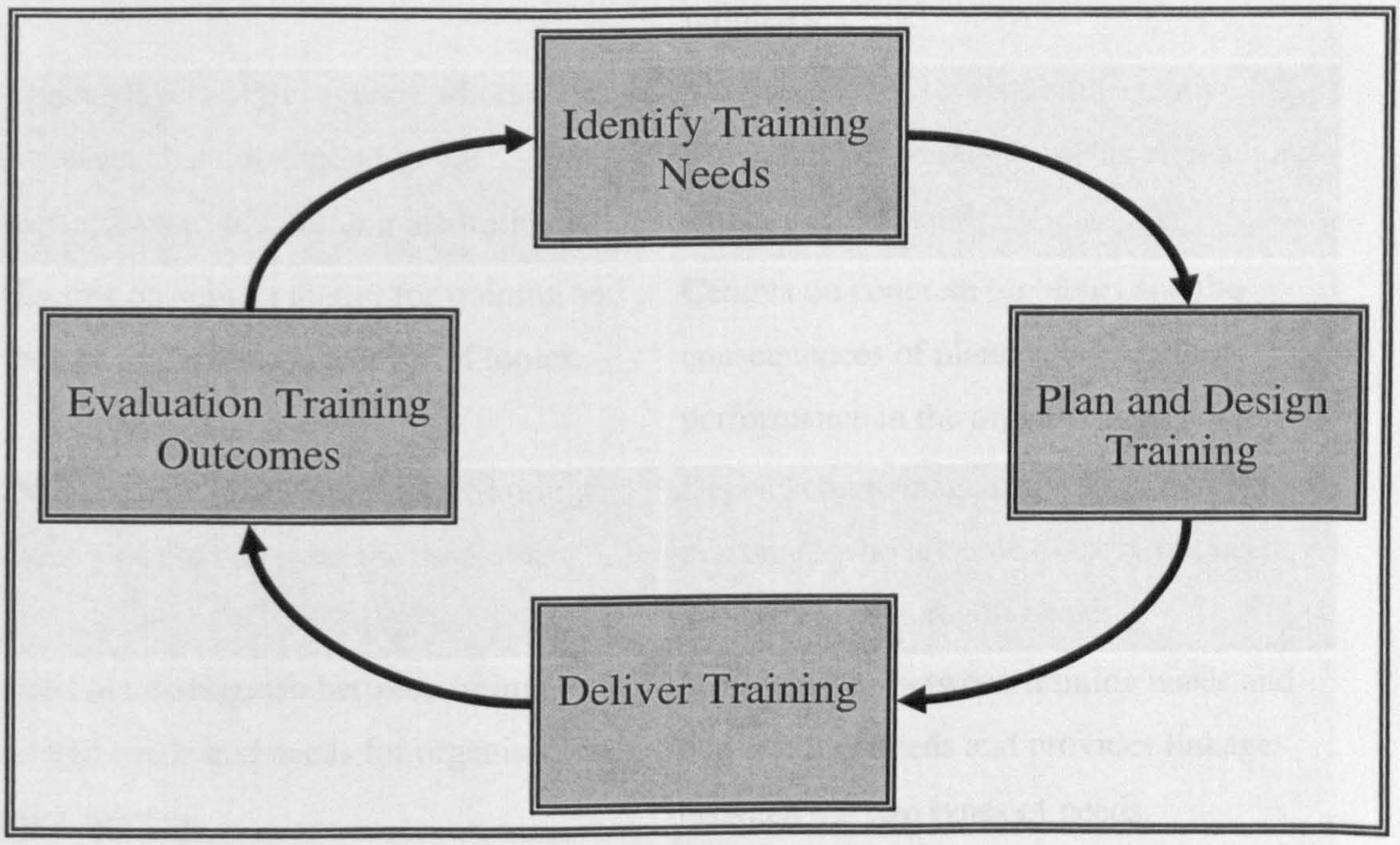
c) Develop a training package of resources and materials, which might include audio visuals, graphics, manuals, etc.;

d) Implement the training package, including delivering the training, support group feedback, clarifying training materials, administering tests and conducting the final evaluation. This phase can include administrative activities, such as copying, scheduling facilities, taking attendance data, etc.;

e) Evaluate training, including before, during and after implementation of training.

Figure 2-1 shows that training does not end when the programme components are completed. It is, as illustrated a continuous process.

Figure 2-1: The Systematic Training Cycle



Source: Reid & Barrington,(1997:183)

Stout (1994:19) mentioned that the four main stages of the training function are as follows:

- identification and analysis of training needs;
- formulation of training policy;
- implementation of the training;
- assessment of training.

Table 2-2 Comparison of Approaches for TNA

Comparison of approaches for assessing training needs	
Conventional	**Systematic**
Is carried out for the agency by training institutions using standardized methods.	Is carried out by the agency to identify its own solutions for gaps in performance.
Focuses on a single source of data, the person who responds to a survey request.	Focuses on multiple data sources to verify training solutions for performance problems.
Targets levels of the agency where there are needs that correspond to the capabilities of the training institution.	Targets various levels of the agency depending on where problems or changing situations are found.
Centres on subject matter for training and the agency's reaction to a list of topics.	Centres on concrete problems and the consequences of planned changes for performance in the organisation .
Depends on the skill of outside training institutions to carry out the assessment.	Depends on management commitment and personnel who are able to carry out needs assessment on a regular basis.
Does not distinguish between training related needs and needs for organisational improvement.	Distinguishes between training needs and non-training needs and provides linkages between the two types of needs.

~Source: Tees et al (1987)

In order to form a good training programme an organisation should first analyse its needs, set a training policy, implement training and then evaluate the whole process. And this process should be done systematically where each organisation should carry out the training needs analysis (TNA) according to its own needs not those necessarily viewed as standard. Tees et al (1987) stated some of the differences that distinguish between the systematic approach to training needs assessment and the conventional approach to training needs assessment; these differences are shown in table 2-2.

2.5.1. Training Needs Analysis (TNA)

Training cannot be effective and achieve the required goals unless it is designed for the trainee's actual needs. Training needs is an analytical process which is conducted to ensure the practical need of training. Good training must be based on the identification of the training needs of individuals on whom the training is targeted. It must also identify existing and predicted training needs. The identification of training needs is the cornerstone of the success of the training. In this stage the basis for who must be trained, what must be trained, when and where training will take place is decided. According to Redman and Wilkinson, (2002: 259) training can be a wasteful and expensive activity if not carefully planned in line with organisational objectives and individual trainee needs.

This view is reinforced by Grant and Smith (1984: 100) when they claim that there is a general agreement that training should be based on needs rather than as an optional extra to be dispensed with the moment difficulties arise. If the link to business needs can be established this will ensure that training is focused on the real issues and demonstrate its subsequent relevance to the business. It also provides the vital starting point for any evaluation (Bee, 1994: 4).

Whetherly (1994: 7), on the other hand, states that training texts frequently classify training needs into three groups: organisational, job or occupational, and individual needs.

Organisational needs may arise when current objectives are not being met because performance is not satisfactory.

Job or occupational training needs are different way of arriving at a similar outcome. A detailed analysis of each job should be made to identify the skills, knowledge and attitude required and hence what training is needed for the job.

Individual training needs are usually the result of inadequate performance in a particular area of the work; the result of job changes or promotions which require the occupant to acquire new skills, knowledge related to an ongoing career development.

TNA as defined by Bee (1994: 69) is the whole process of:

- Identifying the range and extent of training needs from business needs;
- Specifying those training needs very precisely;
- Analysing how best the training needs might be met.

Another definition is presented by Herry and Noon (2001: 273) when they define TNA as the technique of assessing the training needed to fill the gap between what skills and knowledge are currently possessed by employees, and what ought to be possessed. A training needs analysis can therefore not only address present deficiencies, it can also act as a developmental tool to allow managers to project future needs in line with the strategic aims of the organisation . Typically the analysis will take place on three levels: first, the corporate level in order to establish organisational needs, in line with the overall business objective; second, the departmental level, addressing the training

required by different functional groups, project groups, and terms; and third, the individual level, establishing specific employee requirements.

Kotlyar and Saks (2002) claimed that training needs analysis is a diagnostic activity that helps an organisation to identify gaps between the required skills and existing skills. This information is critical for determining where training is needed, what type of training is needed and who needs training. Without needs analysis, a training programme is likely to deliver the wrong goods to the wrong people, no matter how fashionable the training programme is.

According to the previous definitions, the purpose of the training analysis is to identify training goals, that is, what areas of knowledge or skills that training needs to accomplish with learners in order that learners can meet organisational goals more often in terms of a performance standard. This is an important process of any training activities. Research shows that training contributes to organisational performance, but only when it addresses employee, job or occupational and organisational needs. In fact, there is some evidence that training can have a negative effect on the bottom line if it is not focused on the needs of employees and the organisation. (Kotlyar & Saks, 2002).

2.5.2. Methods of Determining Training Needs

Any training needs analysis requires a careful selecting of the appropriate method to gather the required data. There are many sources for determining training needs, most notably, job evaluation techniques, performance appraisals, reports from the immediate supervisors, employees' views about their needs and the organisation s' objectives. According to Anderson (1993: 85) there are many different methods of determining training needs some of which are shown below.

Non-specific manifestations of need: A specific needs analysis would not necessarily be the first port of call as there may be problems and issues with associated paper work, which were not associated with training, from which a training need may be derived. Workflow, quality, quantity, output and material waste or scrap may indicate some technological, operational and productivity issues linked to training.

Driving training needs from the corporate plan manpower (human resource management) plan: Induction, selection, training, attaining experience of work standards in a range of jobs, redundancy and counselling will all have implications for training needs at the level of the organisation , the department and the individual.

Individual's view of training needs: The individual with some knowledge of the job and organisation is well suited to note his or her personnel training needs.

Evaluation of past training analysis and training to date: This is often a useful place to start enquiry, as it may give clues to certain problems that have happened and also some of the training priorities that are required.

The manager's vision of training needs: Observation, sampling of tasks and some form of study of the job / individual interface at work through outcomes or performance may give a more objective stance.

The vision of others: Assessment centres, and psychometric testing as well as, for example simulations in a hotel or training centre may be useful for objective feedback of staff from a qualified third party, particularly where organisational or universal competencies' are involved. Either by using outsiders or by using the manager himself at work may facilitate quick and effective methods of identifying training needs.

Joint or tripartite training approaches: By joint, is meant the manager and his or her subordinate and a third party either from the training department or an external consultancy. These sessions are geared to training solutions so some kind of training problem must be evident before training can start.

2.5.3. Training Design

The importance of identifying training needs in achieving the expected goals of the programme has been recognized in the previous section. In this section the designing phase, which is highly dependent on the identification of training needs, will be discussed.

In order to design a training programme Simmonds (2003: 85) argues that a designer should ask these questions: One, who is the training for? Two who are the trainees? Three, why is the training being conducted? Fourth, what do you want the trainees specifically to know? Five, where is the training going to take place? Six, at what time will the training take place? Seven, crucially, how will the trainees be helped to develop? Lastly, how will the training be delivered and how much it will cost?

The starting of a training intervention is a complex activity with many variables and requisites. It should start after the need for training has been identified and agreed. Alternatives to training have been discounted, resources have been committed for training and further job task analysis has been undertaken where required. All of the above are prerequisites to designing training (Truelove, 1995:146).

Rae (1997:85) summarized some of the initial stages in designing the programme for on-the-job, and the off-the-job training which the designer should consider. These include:

On-the-job training

- List the agreed objectives for the training programme;
- Consider the learning population and how this will affect the programme design;
- List the ways in which each objective might best be met;
- Decide whether the learning will be best achieved by an on-the-job or off-the-job programme type.

Off-the-job training

- List the agreed objectives for the training programme;
- Consider the leaning population and how they will affect the programme design;
- List the ways in which each objective might be met;
- Decide whether the learning will be best achieved by an on-the-job or off-the-job programme form;
- Consider the possible accommodation and how it will affect the course design and practice;
- Confirm whether you are restricted to a certain period of the time or whether the programme will be allowed the full time required for effective completion;
- Confirm from previous information when the programme is required to start and finish;
- Consider material design.

The benefits of any training activity whether on-the-job or off-the-job should be considered by the designer before the start of the designing process. The designer must consider the credibility of the programme to achieve the required objectives, to what extent the training will change the learning and the behaviour of the targeted population,

and how much the beneficiary organisation is welling to pay for the training cost. This will help the designer to produce a successful training programme.

2.5.4. Training Delivery

Training can be generally categorised as either **on-the-job or off-the-job**. On-the-job training is the most frequent technique adopted, where the learner develops skills in the real-work environment. Sikula and McKenna (1984: 218) and Carrel and Kuzmits (1986: 224) reinforced this view when they argued that the main advantage of on-the-job training is that the trainee learns on the actual equipment and in the real environment of his or her job and not through hypothetical or simulated tasks. However, off-the-job training provides opportunities to widen the boundaries of the teaching and can often be a useful initial step ahead of on-the-job training (Tennant et al., 2002: 233)

It would be impossible, as claimed by Carrel et al. (1986: 224), to suggest that either on-the-job or off-the-job training programmes will always be the most effective technique of training to use. Because each organisation has its own set of assets and liabilities, selection of a particular training technique should be made after closely examining the organisation's specific training environment. However, there are different options to deliver training as stated by Hardingham, (1996:26). These may include the following:

- One deliverer, or a team;
- Internal deliverers, external, or both.
- Specialists and experts.

The following Table 2.3 will show benefits of one deliverer or team deliverers.

Table 2.3 Benefits emerging from one deliverer and team deliverer

One deliverer	Team deliverers
Participants feel he or she is theirs they confide in and relate to him or to her readily	Deliverers can work together to win over difficult groups; they are more resilient
Consistency of the delivery	Variety of delivery
Deliverer can be 'wallpaper' rapidly throwing focus onto content.	Possibility of humour and interest in 'double act'

Source: Hardingham (1996:26)

The delivery of training whether internal or external should be part of the designing process. Each one has advantages to consider. The following Table 2.4 shows the advantages of both deliverers;

Table 2.4 Advantages of Internal and External Deliverer

Internal deliverers	External deliverers
Understand the organisation	Bring knowledge of other organisations
Are seen as colleagues, 'in it' with the participants	Are seen as outsiders, with no axe to grind
Are perceived as cheap (hence appreciated and not resented)	Are perceived as expensive (hence listened to)
Are seen as having channels of communication and influence with management	Are seen as neutral

Source: Hardingham (1996:27)

If the organisation is willing to pay more in order to receive an outstanding training, they should depend on experts and professional deliverers.

2.5.5. Training Evaluation

Evaluation is the last stage in systematic training activities, and the most important and the most problematic in many respects. Its importance enables the evaluators to discover whether a training programme has accomplished its objectives, and successfully identified its strengths and weakness in order to improve future training programmes. Problems arise from the fact that evaluating a training programme is a difficult task to accomplish. Moreover, most organisations suffer from insufficient human and financial resources to carry out the evaluation process. In addition, knowing how and what to evaluate also complicates the whole process. The training evaluation objectives, methods and barriers to effective training will be discussed in depth in the next chapter.

2.6. Obstacles in Establishing Effective Training

There are a number of factors that may affect the effectiveness of the training process. According to Bentley (1990: 22), understanding what these barriers are can help trainers to build programmes that overcome the problems many people face. Bentley stated there are four main barriers. These are technical, practical, psychological and human.

Technical barriers: the three types of technical barriers can be described as follows:

System functionality: System designers concentrate, quite rightly, on the technical performance of a system. Ease of use and the practicality of what they design, often come some way down their list of priorities. This not only increases the training burden, it also creates a barrier to learning.

Imposed limits: To ensure accuracy and security, there are many limits placed on the way that systems can be used. These limits which are placed on the systems are in reality there to cover up inadequate and poorly conceived programmes. There is,

however, another group of limits that are placed on users by the way the system has been designed. These are often referred to as discipline, or control procedures.

The user interface: This virtually always causes problems. The reasons are threefold: a lack of thought about user needs; a lack of consistency between systems; and poor ergonomics.

Practical barriers:

Time: There is a great temptation to minimize the time needed and to play down the importance of the learning. Consequently, many new systems are introduced when people are partly trained and lack both confidence and competence.

Space: Appropriate space must be made available for the learning to take place. Some of the learning places are neither adequately equipped nor in suitable environment for the learning process to flourish.

Environment: A good learning environment is fully supportive of learners. Organisations should give time and space for learning to take place. Sometimes this is not possible and a special learning environment has to be created to provide learners with safe and protected methods of learning.

Psychological barriers:

The prospect of learning something new can cause apprehension because people feel inadequate and unprepared and they do not know what to expect. For some people this prospect may generate a feeling of being challenged. For others, anxiety may cause physical symptoms of illness. Below are four psychological barriers that should be dealt with in order for effective training to take place.

Fear of the unknown: All humans fear the unknown, to varying degrees. This fear is based on the anticipation that all might not go well, and that there might be some disturbance to their comfort or security, both physical and mental.

Self-doubt: Incorrect information that people receive about themselves can build a strong negative attitude. When people are faced with some kind of challenge, all these negative thoughts surface and they doubt their ability to cope.

Negative motivation: When people are negatively motivated they do the absolute minimum of what is necessary and they learn very little.

Fear of failure and censure: A very competitive educational environment increases the fear of failure and the consequent censure. Many people, therefore, hesitate before trying new things in case they fail.

Human barriers:

People create barriers which can obstruct them from learning through three distinct aspects of human relationships:

Communication: There are four parts of communication: message construction, transmission, perception and interpretation. Frequently, the message we construct is too long, too complex, and is seen as irrelevant in the perception of the listeners. Unless the message is simple, short and specific there would be little chance of getting it across.

Caring: Unless trainers care about the learning process, and unless they care about the learners, little effective learning will occur.

Personality: There are some people that some learners can simply not learn from. It might be the voice, the way they stand or behave, the way they respond to questions, or any of a multitude of things which can be grouped together under 'personality'.

Whetherly (1994: 14) has also stated some of the factors that might affect the learning process:

Motivation: What motivates an individual to learn may be a complex process. It could include being rewarded by a pay increment for having passed a course, having interest kept alive by the skill of the trainer, or the satisfaction of gaining new knowledge.

Relevance. Whilst some people will enjoy learning for its own sake, most people will wish to see the relevance of gaining new skills and knowledge to what they are doing now or planning in the future.

Experience: Acknowledging and valuing the advantages of experience can encourage learning to take place, while disregarding it can be very discouraging.

Individual differences: Closely related to taking experience into account is having respect for each person as a unique individual. Identifying the employees training and development needs and trying to match these specific requirements will encourage the ability to learn.

Learning environment: There has been much written about the concept of learning organisation in recent years. An organisation which embodies this concept would be one that actively encourages the ongoing learning and development of all its members.

Sense of progress: Learning is likely to be facilitated when the responsibility for assessing any progress can be shared between the organisation and the individual, such

as by using an appraisal system to identify training and development needs, which requires input from both sides.

2.7. CONCLUSION

Training is becoming one of the most important aspects of employee and organisational development. The vast amount of literature that has been written about training, and the great amount of money that organisations around the world have invested in training and developing programmes, reflects its importance. To repeat the long-term success or failure of any organisation relies upon the quality and efficiency of its workforce. One of the primary roles of training is to provide the trainee with the best learning opportunities and resources. The issue that all organisations should consider is the correct way to make the training programmes effective in order to achieve the organisation's strategic objectives. Well designed and developed training programmes are important and are therefore, more likely to be beneficial to the trainees.

The literature in this chapter provides a number of approaches that could be vital in conducting a successful training programme. First, there should be a careful identification and analysis of training needs, followed by the formulation of a relevant training policy, the implementation of the training programme, and finally an evaluation of the whole process.

CHAPTER THREE
EVALUATING TRAINING PROGRAMMES: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

Organisations spend large amounts of money in equipping their human resources with the skills necessary for achieving organisational goals. Training, on-job or off-job, has come to stay as the most preferred intervention style in equipping staff with the skills relevant to their job be they technical, human or conceptual skills.

The amount of time and money spent by organisations on training should be made to yield results. The question is how would organisations know whether they are getting value for their money? (Srinivasan, 2001). Training is a very long term investment which helps to improve and enhance the knowledge and the skills of the staff and in order to know whether training programmes have met their pre-set objectives, there should be careful consideration of evaluation.

Many people think of evaluation as something that is done after the training is completed. Robinson and Robinson (1989: 161) claim that evaluation must be built into the design of the training system before any training takes place. Moreover, Burrow and Berardinelli, (2003), stated that training evaluation should be viewed in a context that is a part of effective training design and as a basis for improved organisational decision-making about human performance improvement and resource utilization. To ensure that an organisation has reached all the expectations from training, it is very important that a detailed evaluation takes place. The evaluation of training will reveal whether the investments in training programmes have made a real impact on the organisation. It should, therefore, be noted that despite that evaluation is the last step in the training process yet it is the most important one.

There are various training evaluation models, but the most frequently used model is Kirkpatrick's Four Levels: reaction, learning, behaviour and result, Kirkpatrick (1998:18). According to many studies, such as those of Al-Ali (1999), ASTD (1997) and Al-Muraifea (1993), many organisations do not go beyond the first level of Kirkpatrick's model (reaction).

The main objective of the evaluation of training programmes is to improve training and know whether the objectives of these programmes have been achieved. In addition, it helps to know if training contributed to meeting the needs of trainees with the knowledge and skills necessary to influence their performance at work. Despite such benefits, training evaluation is neglected by organisations in both the public and private sector for they do not know what to evaluate and how to evaluate it. Furthermore, even if the organisations know how evaluation is conducted, most of the time they lack sufficient human and financial resources to do the job.

The responsibility for evaluating training programmes does not fall only on the trainers who design and implement training. Everyone involved in training has to share responsibility, including senior management, line management, the training manager and the trainee. If an organisation were to ask the more difficult question of 'Was the training effective?' this would involve a complex analysis, as it would imply not only discovering whether the training was well done but also asking whether it was worthwhile for the organisation to be sponsored (Bramley, 1990: xiii)

3.2. The Concept of Training Evaluation

> Evaluate? Evaluate what? Training? What do we mean by training? What's to be evaluated? A particular training course? The trainees? The trainers? The training department? A certain set of training materials? Training in general? More to the point, why evaluate it? Do we wish to gauge its effectiveness, that is, to see if it works? If so, what is it supposed to do? Change behaviour? Shape attitudes? Improve job performance? Reduce defects? Increase sales? Enhance quality? What about efficiency? How much time does the training consume? Can it be shortened? Can we make do with on-the-job training or can we completely eliminate training by substituting job aids instead? What does it cost? Whatever it costs is it worth it? Who says? On what basis? What are we trying to find out? For whom? (Nickols, 2000).

According to Nickols (2000), the preceding questions illustrate the difficulty of any effort to evaluate training and emphasize the importance of being clear about the purposes of, and the participants in any such evaluation.

Training evaluation is a significant element of analyzing, designing, developing and implementing effective training programmes. It is usually conducted to identify the training programmes' weaknesses and strengthens. Goldstein (1993: 147) claims that evaluation will not solve all training problems but is an important step forward. He defines it as the systematic collection of descriptive and judgmental information necessary to make effective training decisions related to the selection, adoption, value and modification of various instructional activities.

Evaluation of training is generally defined as "the assessment of the total value of a training system, training course or programme in social as well as financial terms" (The Manpower Services Commission, 1967: 12). To provide a more specific answer, Phillips (1997: 36) describes evaluation as a systematic process to discover the worth,

the value or meaning of an activity. He mentions ten reasons for evaluation, which are as follows:

- To determine success in accomplishing programme objectives;
- To identify the strengths and weakness in the HRD process;
- To compare the costs with the benefit on the HRD programme;
- To decide who should attend the programme in the future;
- To test the clarity and validity of tests, cases, and exercises;
- To identify which participants were the most successful with the programme;
- To reinforce major points made to the participants;
- To gather data to assist in marketing future programmes;
- To determine if the programme was the appropriate solution for the specific needs;
- To establish databases that can assist management in making decisions.

Training can be considered successful only if the desired goals and outcomes are achieved, and evaluation is the proper way to achieve that. The common view of evaluation as Bramely (1990: 87) states is that evaluation completes the cycle of training. He argues, in support of Phillips (1994) on the reasons of evaluation, that evaluation is integral to the cycle of training and has the key role of quality control of the cycle.

The term 'evaluation' is also used in the general judgmental sense of the continuous monitoring of a programme or of the training function as a whole. Srinivasan (2001) argues that in order for evaluation to be effective it should cover the total training function. To evaluate separately learning by the trainees, the capabilities of the trainer, or the success of the programme, may not give a factual picture of the programme

relevance and value to the organisation. He continues to argue that evaluation as is in use today rarely looks beyond the trainer, the trainee and the classroom. The opportunities available for a critical analysis of the training function are generally ignored. Crucial aspects of the training system which have a bearing on the efficiency of a training function – such as identification of training needs, selection of trainable, post-training placement and post-training on-the-job performance, are left mostly untouched. It is not possible as is declared by Bramley, (1990: xv) to divorce training in organisations from the concept of effectiveness. Nor can the concept of evaluation be separated from the training process.

In summary, with the huge investment in developing training strategies, the question is no longer "Should we train?" but rather "Is training worthwhile and effective?" As companies expand their investment in training, evaluation becomes an essential part of the process. In order to know whether training has achieved most of its objectives and was efficient, organisations should evaluate their training programmes. According to Mann, (1996: 17) evaluation gives a clear vision of the effectiveness of training programmes.

3.3. Objectives of Training Evaluation

Conducting an evaluation plan without a careful consideration of the reason for the training programme for the organisation will probably lead to misused or ignored consequences. Evaluation therefore, should discover whether the training objectives of the organisation were achieved. The objective of the training should be a positive change in the trainee, which will lead to improvement in performance on the job. In this perspective, a main significance of evaluation is to determine if training is successful in achieving that objective. It is clear from what was discussed in the previous section that the evaluation process has various objectives, the most of which is to know to what

extent the trainees change in their performance after attending the training programme and obviously the impact of this change at work.

Easterby-Smith (1986: 45) offers three general purposes for evaluation: proving, improving and learning.

1) Proving aims "to demonstrate conclusively that something has happened as a result of training or developmental activities";
2) Improving implies "an emphasis on trying to ensure that both the current or future programmes and activities become better than that are at present";
3) Learning recognises that "evaluation be divorced from the process on which it concentrates, being an integral part of the learning and development process itself".

In order to achieve these aims, the evaluation process centres around two procedures, establishing measures of success and using experimental and non-experimental designs to determine what changes have occurred during the training and transfer process (Goldstein, 1993: 26).

Other purposes for evaluation are set by Phillips (1997: 36), who argues that evaluation should follow the training process for the following reasons:

- To determine whether a programme has accomplished its objectives;
- To identify the strengths and weakness in the Human Resource Development process;
- To determine the cost/benefit ratio of any human resource development programme;
- To decide who should participate in future programmes;

- To identify which participants benefited most or least from the programme;
- To reinforce major points to the participants;
- To determine if the programme was appropriate;
- To gather data to assist in marketing future programmes.

Bentley (1990: 40) reinforces the previous opinions about the objective of training evaluation when he claims that the aim of evaluation is to increase the degree of overlap, and to make suggestions for re-directing the training budget to match the most important key performance areas. He continues to stress that the evaluation should concentrate on identifying the following:

- Neglected key performance areas, where the impact on profit can be seen and which are not receiving effective training;
- Wasted training, which is the training that might be beneficial to the individual while failing to improve the overall performance of the organisation.

Despite what is mentioned above about the importance of conducting training evaluation, it might sometimes be risky and result in certain unwanted consequences. These include, as suggested by Rae (1997:4):

- The possibility that if there is too much use of tests, questionnaires, interviews, validation discussions and so on, both learners and trainers may feel that these are getting in the way of the learning;
- Training schedules may be so tight that there is no space available for evaluation measures;
- The top management, who may have little or no understanding of the demands of training and development, may make statements like, 'Evaluation! You should be spending time and money on training!

Human resources professionals, therefore, must make a strong case to justify the evaluation objectives in order to overcome any difficulties that may occur. They should prove to top management that training is achieving its objectives through conducting a proper evaluation process which will lead organisations toward success. Moreover, the expected positive results of conducting the evaluation process will lead to greater budget expenditure on training and better development of programmes.

3.4. Evaluation Systems

The various frameworks for evaluation training programmes have been proposed under the influence of two main approaches: the goal-based and the systems-based (Eseryel 2002:94). These are the two approaches predominantly used in the evaluation of training programmes. Kirkpatrick's Model follows the goal-based evaluation approach and is based on four simple questions that translate into four levels of evaluation. These four levels, as Eseryel claims, are widely known as reaction, learning, behaviour and results. However, under the systems approach, the most influential models includes: the Context, Input, Process, Product Model (CIPP) (Worthen & Sanders, 1987); the Training Validation System Model (TVS) (Fitz-Enz, 1994); and the Input, Process, Output, Outcome Model (IPO) (Bushnell, 1990). A comparison of several system-based models with a goal-based model is shown in table 3-1.

Nevertheless, the most comprehensive and widely referenced model of training evaluation is Kirkpatrick's model which was first introduced in 1959. Shackelford (2004:53) agrees that Kirkpatrick's four levels for evaluating training programmes is probably the most frequently used evaluation model. Since the model was first introduced, Kirkpatrick has continued to hone it and provided many case studies to point out effective methods for measuring training success from the time of the programme through to the time when the training effect on the organisation.

Table 3-1: A Comparison of Several System-based Models with a Goal-based Model

Kirkpatrick (1974)	CIPP Model (1987)	IPO Model (1990)	˜TVS Model (1994)
Reaction: to gather data on participants reaction at the end of a training programme	Context: obtaining information about the situation to decide on educational needs and to establish programme objectives.	Input : evaluation of system performance indicators such as trainee qualifications, availability of materials, appropriateness of training, etc.	Situation: collecting pre-training data to ascertain current levels of performance within the organisation and defining a desirable level of future performance
Learning: to assess whether the learning objectives for the programme are met	Input: identifying educational strategies most likely to achieve the desired result	Process: embraces planning design development, and delivery of training programmes	Intervention: identifying the reason for the existence of the gap between the present and desirable performance to find out if training is the solution to the problem
Behaviour: to assess whether job performance changes as a result of training	Process: assessing the implementation of the educational programme	Output: gathering data resulting from the training interventions	Impact: evaluating the difference between the pre- and post- training data
Results: to assess costs vs. benefits of training programmes, i.e., organisational impact in terms of reduced costs, improved quality of work, increased quantity of work, etc.	Product: gathering information regarding the results of the educational intervention to interpret its worth and merit	Outcomes: longer-term results associated with improvement in the corporation's bottom line, its profitability, competitiveness, etc.	Value: measuring differences in quality, productivity, services, or sales, all of which can be expressed in terms of dollars

Source: Eseryel, (2002: 93)

Many authors share the same view about Kirkpatrick's model. Pell, (2001:139), for instance, said that Kirkpatrick developed a model for measuring the effectiveness of training programmes that many organisation use today. Moreover, Conrad, (2000:1), Rae, (2004), Nickols, (2000), Tamkin, et al (2002:3) and Rothwell and Kazanas, (1993:225), have also described Kirkpatrick's model as a simple and widely accepted model for evaluating training programmes.

It should be noted that the four Kirkpatrick's levels are important and represent a sequence of ways to evaluate programmes, and because, as mentioned above, it is

widely used, the researcher will discuses this model in depth and will refer to its advantages and shortcomings. Below is a definition of these four famous levels offered by Kirkpatrick (1998:19):

Reaction: As the word reaction implies, evaluation at this level measures how those who participate in the programme react to it. In other words reaction may also be defined as how well the trainees liked a particular training programme. Evaluating trainee's reaction is not only important but also easy to do and do effectively. It is important because the decision of top management may be based on the participants' reactions to the programme.

Learning: Learning can be defined as the extent to which participants change attitudes, improve knowledge or increase skill as a result of attending the programme. What the trainees know or can do, can be measured during and at the end of training, but in order to say that this knowledge or skill resulted from the training, the trainees' entering knowledge or skills levels must also be known or measured in advance. Measuring learning, therefore, means determining one or more of the following:

- The knowledge or skills learned;
- The skills developed or improved;
- The attitudes changed.

It is vital to measure learning because no change in behaviour can be expected unless one or more of these learning objectives have been achieved.

Behaviour: This implies changes in on-the-job behaviour, which is defined as the extent to which change in behaviour took place because the participants attended the training programme. The extent of change in behaviour is not the only responsibility of the participant, the climate at work could be also crucial in this context. Different climates

can affect the behaviour of the participant when returning to work. These climates can be described:

1. **Preventing:** The immediate supervisor prevents the participant from doing what he/ she has been taught to do in the training programme;
2. **Discouraging:** The immediate supervisor does not say "You cannot do it" but makes it clear that the participant should not change behaviour because it might make the supervisor unhappy;
3. **Neutral:** The immediate supervisor pays no attention to the fact that the participant attended a training programme;
4. **Encouraging:** The immediate supervisor persuades the participant to learn and apply his/her learning to the job;
5. **Requiring:** The immediate supervisor knows what the participant learns and makes sure that the learning is transferred to the work.

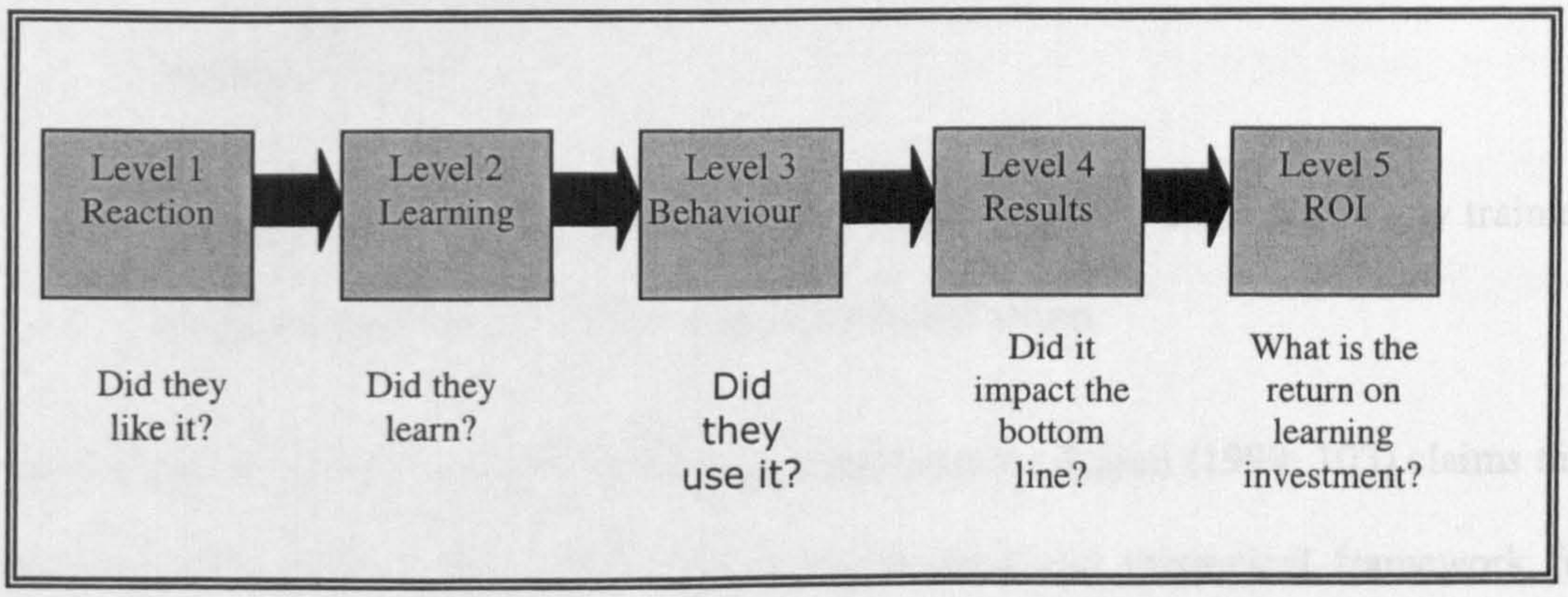
Result: Result is the last level and the most crucial and probably the most difficult one, it provides the greatest challenge to training professionals. It can be defined as the final results that happened because the participants attended the programme. The final results can include reduction of costs; reduction of turnover and absences; reduction of complaints; increase in quality and quantity or production; or improved morale which, it is expected, will lead to some of the previously stated benefits.

Kirkpatrick cites four conditions necessary for change to occur:

- The person must have a desire to change.
- The person must know what to do and how to do it.
- The person must work in the right climate.
- The person must be rewarded for changing.

Since Kirkpatrick established his model, other theorists, for example Phillips (1997:42), and indeed Kirkpatrick himself, have referred to a possible fifth level, namely *Return on Investment* (ROI). As Rae (2004) suggested, ROI can easily be included in Kirkpatrick's original fourth level 'Results'. The relevance of a fifth level is therefore debatably only relevant if the assessment of ROI might otherwise be ignored or forgotten when referring simply to the results level. Tamkin (2002:8) claimed that Phillips model is largely comparable to Kirkpatrick's, but adds a fifth level to separate out the monetary benefits of the training compared to its cost. The illustration below displays Kirkpatrick's four levels and Phillips' fifth level

Figure 3-1 Kirkpatrick's Four Levels and Phillips' Fifth Level



Source: www.businessballs.com

Although Kirkpatrick's model is widely used, research, as suggested by Chmielewski and Phillips, (2002) has revealed some shortcomings including relatively weak systematic evaluation of organisational impact and transfer of learning. In addition, Tamkin (2002) criticises Kirkpatrick's Model for implying a hierarchy of values related to the different levels, with organisational performance measures being seen as more important than reactions. More essentially, there have been criticisms of the assumption that the levels are each associated with previous and subsequent levels. This implies that a causal relationship has not always been established by research. Other criticisms are

that the model is too simple and fails to take account of the various intervening variables affecting learning and transfer.

Jibali (1996), among others, summarizes his criticism of this model in several points:

- Despite the comprehensiveness of the model it lacks the pace of integration between its levels. In other words there is no benefit from the data at one level to another;

- The model focuses only on evaluating the trainee's reaction without considering the reactions of the trainers, and the training coordinator of the programme;

- The model focuses on evaluation only during the programme's implementation and post-implementation, without considering evaluation before programme's implementation;

- It doesn't take the business impact far enough and the final step in any training programme should be measuring the financial return.

In response to Jibali's viewpoints mentioned previously, Alajmi (1999: 103) claims that Kirkpatrick's model was presented as a fundamental and theoretical framework for researchers and experts in this field and is thus susceptible to modification, development and change. As far as evaluating the trainee's reaction only is concerned, Alajmi said that the reason for this is because the trainees are the main target of the training process. Responding to the claim that Kirkpatrick does not consider evaluating trainees' entering level before programme's implementation, Kirkpatrick himself, as mentioned above, explained that in order to claim that the acquired knowledge or skill resulted from the training, the trainees' entering knowledge or skills levels must also be known or measured. Finally the financial issue could be easily included in the fourth level of the Kirkpatrick levels as Rae (2004) mentioned.

With the various systems for evolution the question is which is the best system. Also, if we are able to mention a system as the best, can all organisations use this system for their evaluation process? According to Phillips (1997: 44) there is no right answer. What is best for one organisation may be inappropriate for another. The most important course of action is to select a model around which the organisation will focus its evaluation.

3.5 Evaluation Methods

As mentioned previously the evaluation process embraces multiple evaluation levels which mainly consist of four phases. Therefore, there is a real need to select the ideal and appropriate method to evaluate the training process. It is the duty of the people who are involved and responsible for the evaluation process to select the proper method. Improper selection might lead to the failure of all efforts to achieve good results in evaluating the training and consequently produce incorrect judgements about training.

Beardwell et all (2004: 328) mention eight evaluation methods:

- ***Questionnaires*** (feedback forms) are a common way of eliciting trainee responses to courses and programmes. Some of the advantages of this method, according to Bee (1994: 182), are low-cost, speed, and results which can be readily analysed.
- ***Tests or examinations*** are common in formal courses which provide a certificate. Although Bramley (1990: 114) argues that tests are at best imperfect measuring of trainees' abilities or performance. There is no point as he claimed, to use a device which may fluctuate or vary with time.
- ***Projects*** are initially seen as learning methods but they can also offer valuable information to trainers.

- ***Structured exercises and case studies*** are opportunities to apply learned skills and techniques under the observation of tutors and evaluators.
- ***Tutor reports***: It is important to have the opinions of those who deliver the training in order to approach training assessment from different perspectives.
- ***Interviews of trainees*** after course or instruction period. These can be informal or formal, individual or group or by telephone.
- ***Observation of courses*** and training by those implementing training strategies in the training department is very useful and information from these observations can be compared with the trainees' responses.
- ***Participation and discussion*** during training requires people who are adept at interpreting the responses, as this information can be highly subjective.

There should be careful selection of the evaluation methods to avoid any faulty outcomes which might lead to undesirable results. The selected method must be appropriate to the learning objective. In some evaluation studies more than one method is used. This will create various types of data. These findings from different sources can then be triangulated to generate stronger evidence than that generated by any single method.

3.6. Responsibility of Evaluation

The evaluation process has been usually left to the trainers, because it is thought that it is their job. Training evaluation is not only the responsibility of trainers; everyone involved in the evaluation process has to do his task. This includes the senior management, the line manager, the trainee and of course the trainer. As Rae (2004) claims, a 'Training Evaluation Quintet' should exist, each member of the quintet having roles and responsibilities in the process. The 'Training Evaluation Quintet' advocated by

Rae consists of senior management, the trainer, line management, the training manager and the trainee. According to Rae, each has his/her own tasks, which are discussed in depth next;

Senior management training evaluation responsibilities includes the following:

- Understanding the need and value of training to the organisation;
- The necessity of involving the training manager (or equivalent) in senior management meetings where decisions are made about future changes when training will be vital;
- Knowledge and support of training plans;
- Active participation in events;
- Requirement for evaluation to be performed and for a regular summary report;
- Policy and strategic decisions based on results and ROI data.

The training evaluation responsibilities of the trainer can be summarized as below:

- Provision of any essential pre-programme work and programme planning;
- Identification at the beginning of the programme of the knowledge and skill levels of the trainees/learners;
- Provision of training and learning resources to enable the learners to learn within the objectives of the programme and the learners' own objectives;
- Monitoring the learning as the programme progresses;
- At the end of the programme, assessment of and receipt of reports from the learners of the learning levels achieved;
- Ensuring the production by the learners of an action plan to reinforce, practise and implement learning.

Training evaluation responsibilities of the line manager are as follow:

- Work-needs and people identification;

- Involvement in training programme and evaluation development;
- Support of pre-event preparation and holding briefing meetings with the learner;
- Giving ongoing and practical support to the training programme;
- Holding a debriefing meeting with the learner on their return to work to discuss, agree or help to modify and agree action for their action plan;
- Reviewing the progress of learning implementation;
- Final review of implementation success and assessment, where possible, of the ROI.

The training evaluation responsibilities of the training manager are as follow:

- Management of the training department and agreeing the training needs and the programme application;
- Maintenance of interest and support in the planning and implementation of the programmes, including practical involvement where required;
- The introduction and maintenance of evaluation systems, and production of regular reports for senior management;
- Frequent, relevant contact with senior management;
- Contact with the learners' line managers and arranging the implementation of learning;
- Contact with line managers, where necessary, in the assessment of the training ROI.

Training evaluation responsibilities of the trainee or learner are:

- Participation in the planning and design of the training programme where possible;
- Participation in the planning and design of the evaluation process where possible;

- Active participation in the training programme or activity;
- Completion of a personal action plan during and at the end of the training for implementation on return to work, and implementation, with support from the line manager;
- Commitment to and support of the evaluation processes.

3.7.Barriers to Training Evaluation

Organisations usually fail to carry out the evaluation processes because they do not have enough time and resources. Moreover, they face difficulties in knowing how and what to evaluate. Goldstein (1993: 9) argues that most of the organisations do not gather the required information in order to determine the utility of their own training programmes. This means, according to Mann, (1996: 14), that many training programmes will remain poorly evaluated except for the high esteem with which they may be regarded by training personnel. Many researchers believe that the main barrier for the organisations to implement effective evaluation procedures for training programmes is the difficulty in knowing how and what to evaluate.

As reported by Mann (1996), Grove and Ostroff (1990), describe some of the barriers to training evaluation in organisations, which include the following points:

- The neglect by top management of evaluation. Although they are usually interested in evaluating all aspect of business practice, they tend not to apply the same pressure on training management to evaluate their products;
- Training directors often do not have the skill to conduct evaluations. Many directors are either direct-line managers or human resource generalists. Therefore, evaluation research tends to be a complex enterprise for them;

- It is not obvious to training specialists what should be evaluated and what questions should be answered by an evaluation. They are not sure whether they are supposed to evaluate trainee reactions, learning, job performance, utility or all of the above.

In answering the question of why most attempts to evaluate training and measure its effectiveness have failed, Husni, (2005) has cited a summary of a field research submitted to the Human Resources Committee at the American University in Cairo, (2002). This explained the reasons behind the failure of the evaluation attempts:

- Lack of clarity of the achievable objectives;
- Lack of serious interest in determining training needs;
- Lack of the ability to analyze the training needs and to determine the specific problems of performance;
- Improper design of the programmes in accordance with the specified training objectives;
- Lack of proper selection of trainees to the programme (according to their training needs, experience, level of education, culture and the knowledge and skills required for the subject,(i.e. occupation, age .... *etc*);
- Lack of proper selection of the trainers;
- Existence of psychological, social and cultural barriers, which affect training through out the programme;
- Lack of interest of trainees, which results in their dropping out of the programme;
- Lack of belief of the trainees and their supervisors in the importance of training;
- Lack of a proper system for keeping enough information of the performance of the trainees before and after attending the programme;

- Lack or absence of clear measures for proper assessment of the programme, its effectiveness and outcomes;
- Lack of communication between the training institution and the beneficiary organisation in addressing these issues;
- Lack of a pre-existing system for assessing the training, its effectiveness and its return to the beneficiary organisation.

It should also be added that there is a view that training evaluation can be a risky and expensive enterprise. Moreover, there is also the fear that evaluation will indicate that a publicly endorsed programme is not meeting its objectives. Unfortunately, this is a misunderstanding of the purpose of evaluation, which should be used to provide the information to improve programmes.

3.8. Empirical Studies on Training Evaluation

In-service training and the evaluation process have received increasing interest in the administrative research. It has now become a vast field of study and research. As a result, a large literature has developed looking into various aspects of training, and the mechanism of the training programmes and its effectiveness. The findings of some of these studies, which related to the subject of this study, will be mentioned in this section as part of the literature review. These studies include local studies conducted in the KSA, other Arab studies and international studies.

In a study on the evaluation methods used to assess the in-service training programmes at the Institute of Public Administration in the KSA, Alammar (1986) aimed to present recommendations to improve the methods used to evaluate the programmes. The study concluded that the methods used in evaluation training are inadequate, since they only measure the trainees' reactions to the programme. This criterion is the lowest level of

training evaluation. The study stressed the need to develop the use of other methods to measure the changes which have occurred in knowledge and behaviour and examine the results that have accrued to the organisation in general and to the trainees in particular from this training.

Frazier (1991) examined the trends, efficiency and the performance of personnel administrators in the United States largest banks and how they evaluate the training programmes. The research covered a sample of 150 managers. The findings showed strong support for the process of evaluating training programmes. The research also revealed that the respondents frequently used the first level of the Kirkpatrick model, (reaction), despite their doubts about its effectiveness. The respondents believed that the other three levels of (Kirkpatrick) provide good impact in the evaluation of training. However, they were rarely used, especially the fourth level, (results) which the respondents point out were incompatible with the training programmes.

Robertson (1992) looked into another dimension, namely measuring the effectiveness of the training programme which had been designed to train maintenance managers in an airline company. He used the famous Kirkpatrick four level models for the evaluation process. The study concluded that there were specific positive impacts of training on the trainees' trends, awareness and performance. Moreover, the reaction of the trainees towards the programme were positive, with 65% of the trainees agreed that the training was useful to them. There was also change in the trainees' behaviour in relation to the achievement of the training programmes' objectives within the working group.

Joseph's work (1994) is a revision of previous studies in the field of evaluation of educational training programmes, in which he reviewed all previous training evaluation

studies in the USA, with a view to identifying the best ways and methods in planning and implementing evaluation. The study showed that the main reason behind the failure of effective training programmes in organisations and various institutions is the lack of planning when evaluating the training programmes

It should be stated that Joseph presented some recommendations based on previous studies. The most important recommendation was to plan the training evaluation process and make the people in charge of evaluation work side by side with those delegated to the task of designing and implementing training programmes. Consequently, the evaluation process would start from the beginning of the training programmes and would continue until the end. This would give an accurate and effective result which could improve effectiveness of programmes.

As a general review on training and development, Malcolm (1997) attempted to provide a definition of training as "an activity designed to improve the performance of another person in a specific area". He also showed the difference between training and development, and training and education. Then he discussed the reasons for the importance of training and divided them into practical reasons due to needs of the workplace and the trainees own personal needs. The study emphasized the importance of selecting the appropriate trainer and the most effective means of training without losing sight of the importance of choosing the appropriate trainees. He concluded that evaluating training programmes is very important because it will ensure the effectiveness of training. The researcher emphasized the importance of the effectiveness of training programmes in the long term by deep evaluation based on the goals set before conducting training.

Cheng and Ho's paper (2001) reviews some major studies that were conducted in the past decade (1989-1998) on the transfer of what employees learned from their training programmes back to their jobs. Their paper highlights individual, motivational and environmental factors that are related to such transfers. The major findings of the study are:

Individual factors: Trainees with a high level of confidence in attaining anticipated performance and behaviour change are more likely to apply what they have learned from training on the jobs.

Motivational factor: Trainees with inadequate motivation are likely to be poor in mastering the training content and increasing subsequent job performance. In addition, the level of employees' organisational commitment affects their views on the usefulness of training, both to themselves and to the organisation, and the expected outcome of early training experiences. In fact, trainees with a high level of organisational commitment were more likely to foresee the benefits from positive organisational change.

Environmental factors: The supports-in-organisation variables come from the concept of social support that is said to be influential when employees believe that other client systems in the organisation (e.g. their subordinate, peer, supervisor and top management) provide them with opportunities for practising new skills and knowledge in the job settings. Opportunity to practise ensures that when trainees have plenty of chances to apply what they have learned to their jobs, a larger amount of training content can be transferred.

Kalaifah's study, (2001) attempted to examine the training programmes for primary school teachers in the United Arab Emirates. The aim of this study was to determine the current status of strengths and weaknesses of the training programmes undertaken by the Department for Human Resource Development and Training Centres in different education regions. The study sample consisted of 377 teachers. The researcher arrived at a number of conclusions, the most important of which are; that most of the training programmes do not have an active role in the development of teacher attitudes towards the teaching profession and make it more positive. The study offered a number of reasons:

- Lacks of efficient trainers, most of whom were below the required level;
- Lack of evaluation of the trainees during and after the programme despite the importance of evaluation for them and the trainer;
- General lack of clarity of the objectives of the training programmes;
- Lack of appropriate training methods;
- Reliance by the trainers on a limited number of training methods namely lectures and discussions;

In the light of such results, the researcher recommended the importance of diversifying the methods and means of training and the adoption of a modern technique for evaluating, trainees and trainers. Moreover, he urged the need to identify the strengths and weaknesses of in-service training provision as well as whether or not the training programmes achieved their goals and objectives.

The study by Al-Athari and Zairi (2002) examined the current training evaluation activity and challenges that face Kuwaiti organisations. The sample consisted of five UK organisations (recognized as best practice organisations in their training and development activities) and 77 Kuwaiti organisations (40 governmental and 36 private).

Interviews and questionnaires were used to gather data in the evaluation of the programme. The study revealed that the majority of respondents, both in government and in private sectors, only evaluated their training programmes occasionally. The most popular evaluation tools and techniques used by government and private sectors were questionnaires. The most common model used by Kuwaiti organisations is the Kirkpatrick model, while the most common level of evaluation for both government and private sector is 'reaction'. The study found that most important challenges that deter Kuwaiti organisations from conducting sound evaluations were finding evaluation methods that suit a variety of courses; the cost of doing evaluations well; translating evaluation results into top management language; and determining specific actions to take based on evaluation results. The study also revealed that the majority in both sectors face difficulty in obtaining the information needed for evaluations.

In a recent study, Azab (2002) aimed to evaluate the training programmes carried out by the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in Jordan. Questionnaires were distributed to trainees, their supervisors and to the training policy officers and semi-structured interviews were conducted with trainers. The findings indicated that nominating trainees for training was the responsibility of their immediate supervisors. Trainees' reactions to the training experience were, in general, positive. Gains included making contacts useful to their work; learning new ideas that enabled them to understand better the requirement of their jobs; and to be more confident in their performance. The findings also showed that trainees were motivated to attend training for different reasons. The most important was their desire to be promoted to higher career. Their desire to develop their knowledge and information and learn new skills and behaviours beneficial for their work was another primary reason. As far as training methods were concerned, lectures

were found to be the most common method used. Nevertheless the trainees advocated more use of group work and case studies in future training.

Azab's study also reveals that the trainees' immediate supervisors' responses supported the trainees' positive responses. Comparing the situation before and after training, the trainees' immediate supervisors reported improvements in trainees' knowledge, skills and job behaviour. However, some difficulties in the training and in the work setting were reported to have hindered the trainees' attempts to act upon their ideals. The study concluded that the training programmes met their stated objectives. This is based on the participants' reactions to, and assessment of, training programmes, as well as the impacts of the training observed by supervisors when the trainees returned to their job.

Lim and Johnson's study (2002) examined the nature of transfer of learning that could have occurred following a 3-week course for the HRD professionals of a Korean company. The study showed that work environment factors related to supervisors, which impose critical influence on the likelihood of successful transfer, were among the strongest factors followed by the opportunity for trainees to apply what they have learned to their jobs. Without a strong match between the training content and trainees' work roles, it is unlikely that transfer will occur.

According to Prosell web site (2004) a leading international performance-improvement specialist, conducted a research amongst 100 UK based independent training professionals. They questioned an average group of ten delegates in order to ascertain the kind of attitudes they had at the outset of their course. They found that:

- 65% of those being trained understand why they need training;
- 56% of those being trained do not understand what they need to learn;

- 73% of course delegates have not discussed their training aims with their manager prior to the course.

Astonishingly, of the trainers polled, 90 per cent admitted that not all participants would understand why they were being trained, thus highlighting a disparate level of knowledge and expectation amongst training course attendees across UK. A specialist in Prosell argued that "Training is so often perceived as 'just another necessity' by management because of the frequent lack of visible ROI. "Training", as he continued to say "is most effective when line managers identify a need for individual employee improvement in a specific area and openly discuss how the training is going to address that issue"

Hu, *et al* (2005) mentioned some challenges for training transfer such as:

- Negative attitudes toward training and training transfer because of lack of feel of equity and ownership, lack of motivation and inappropriate reward system;
- No feedback or punishment when employees apply training to work;
- Working environment different from training setting.

According to Kirkpatrick (2005), executives from a mid-sized bank set out to implement Total Quality Management across the organisation. On the surface, TQM seemed to be the right approach for the bank. Participants enjoyed the training and received certificates for demonstrating that they had learned the new concepts and techniques. Nevertheless, after only one year few of them still used what they had learned. What went wrong? Apparently, there was little transfer of learning to behaviour because senior and junior-level managers never fully embraced the benefits of TQM. In a nutshell, they did little or nothing to create accountability or support new behaviours.

Lack of managerial support and participant accountability is obviously much more than a training concern. The bank's strategy, for example, was not executed effectively, and the organisation never realized all the possible positive results. But the consequences can get worse: leaders might question the programme's value and the training department's competency. That is a reality no trainer wants to face.

Altarawneh's study (2005) aimed to explore the current practices, polices and roles of training and development (T&D) within Jordanian banking organisations. It is an exploration of all the issues concerning T&D practices. This include how the T&D process is conducted (how training needs are assessed, how T&D is delivered and how T&D programmes are evaluated); exploring top managers T&D and HRM personnel attitudes towards the importance of T&D in improving employee and organisational performance and the strategic position and roles of T&D in their organisations. It also aims to investigate all problems and challenges that face T&D activities and searches for practical suggestions to improve the effectiveness of these activities.

The data was gathered through a combination of semi-structured interviews with 15 top managers and a survey questionnaire addressed to the persons responsible for T&D within the targeted organisations. A purposive sampling strategy was used in choosing the participants of this study.

The study reveals that, in the majority of the organisations, there is an absence of systematic employee training needs assessment and of effective procedures for evaluation. The top managers' attitude to the effectiveness of training in achieving its objectives reveals that nine of them agreed and six disagreed. The most commonly used delivery methods are lectures, seminars and case studies. Findings also reveal that T&D faces many problems:

- lack of motivation among employees to attend T&D programmes;
- inaccurate training needs analysis processes;
- poor training planning in terms of contents and delivery methods;
- sending inappropriate persons to the training programmes and lack of on-the-job training.

The learning and development consultancy MaST International conducted a survey (2005) on in which over 80 human resources professionals participated. They found that 34% of the respondents said that the biggest driver for measuring and evaluating training was to demonstrate the positive impact of training on the business. This was followed by the desire to allocate training expenditure more wisely in the future (24%) and to able to justify the training budget (19%). Moreover, this survey revealed that course evaluation forms (26%) and anecdotal feedback (21%) are the most popular ways of measuring the effectiveness of training with just 8% of respondents using pre- and post-course diagnostics. The survey also found that only one in five linked course work to real-work projects and activities, and that 60% of the HR professionals surveyed do not have a specific budget for measurement and evaluation of training initiatives.

The Head of Client Development at MaST said: "Our survey shows that despite the acknowledgement that training should be properly evaluated, very little evaluation actually occurs on how training positively impacts people's ability to do their job."

Ashridge Business School has published the results of its research (2005) amongst business school users on attitudes to evaluating return on investment within executive education in the UK. The results show that only a small minority of organisations now regularly evaluate other than at the level of individual participant reactions. Only 11%

evaluate the impact at the organisational level and only 3% regularly assess the financial return on investment (ROI) of executive programmes.

In a more recent study Tejada's (2006), the aim of this research was to find out the relationship between corporate training methods and their perceived effectiveness by trainees. Employees of a company in the mid-south of the United States were presented with a list of thirteen methods and asked to rate the effectiveness of the specific methods used in their most recent non-mandatory training session. The training methods used were as follows: case studies, computer-assisted programmed instruction, computer simulation, conference methods with discussion, games, lectures, live cases, multimedia presentations, one-on-one instruction, programmed instruction, role play, videotapes, and video teleconferences. This study concluded that trainees agreed that training methods that involve more trainee's participation tend to have higher overall effectiveness rating. However, trainees appear to prefer more individualized training methods like one-on-one instruction and technology-based training methods such as computer simulation, multimedia presentation, and computer-assisted programmed instruction.

By rating and ranking the mean of perceived effectiveness of training methods, this study found the highest (most effective) method was one-on-one instruction. The second highest was live cases. On the other hand, the lowest (least effective) training method was video teleconferencing. Furthermore, the trainees felt comfortable with training methods which included computers. They perceived these particular training methods as effective.

3.9. Conclusion

Training programmes are designed to enhance the knowledge, skills and attitude of the trainees. Due to such expectations, in order to know whether these objectives are met there should be a careful evaluation of the whole training process. Although evaluation receives less attention from the decision makers in the organisations who often fail to analyse the value of evaluation, assessment of the impact of costly training process is essential to the success of any programme. The evaluation is the last step of training and the most important one.

There are various evaluation models, but the most widely and frequently used model is Kirkpatrick's model which consists of four levels of evaluation process. This makes Kirkpatrick's model most effective and sophisticated model and therefore this study has adopted Kirkpatrick's model. According to recent researches most organisations do not evaluate beyond the first level of Kirkpatrick's model, which is reaction.

Deposited, that evaluating the training programmes is not an easy task, most organisations lack sufficient human and financial resources to carry out the evaluation process. Moreover, there are many barriers that make conducting effective evaluation a difficult procedure the most important of which is the difficulty in knowing how and what to evaluate.

CHAPTER FOUR
HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING IN SAUDI ARABIA

4.1. Introduction:

The true wealth of any nation is its people, for it is their ability to manage the country's existing resources and to identify and develop new ones which determines the prosperity of the economy and the health of society for present and future generations (Al-Farsy, 1990: 251). Saudi Arabia is a country of startling contrasts, a huge land and a small population. According to the last official census by the Ministry of the Economy and Planning, (MEP, 2004:6), the population of Saudi Arabia is 22,673,538. Native Saudis account for about 16,529,302 (72.9%) of the total population. On the other hand there are 6,144,236 expatriates living in the Kingdom forming (27.1%) of the total population.

Administratively, Saudi Arabia is a monarchy supported by a political system based on the tradition of Islam, comprising a Council of Ministers, a Consultative Council (Majlis Al-Shura) and thirteen regional administrations, each headed by a governor who is supported by a regional council of at least ten local citizens.

Saudi Arabia is known as an oil producing and exporting country and has the world's largest known reserves, which are estimated at present to account for about 26% of the world's total proven oil reserves. It produces between 10%-12% of worldwide daily supply, most of which is exported (Dew, 2003:2). This has given the government a chance to develop and modernise the country socially and economically and to expand the infrastructure by building freeways, hospitals, schools, universities,

communications, housing, airports, and so on. This has made the country one of the fastest developing countries in the world (Alkassim, 1996: 97)

The necessity to develop Saudi human resources is derived from the premise that the Saudi human capital represents the core of the proposed development plan. In order to achieve this goal, the Saudi government has advanced the necessary means and made all training and education programme its greatest priority (MHE, 1997:1)

The economy of Saudi Arabia and any other country is certainly in need of a highly trained and skilful workforce to exploit the country's resources. According to Finegold *et al* (1990:18) the absence of a well-educated trained workforce has made it difficult for industry to respond to new economic conditions.

The Eighth Development Plan (MPE: 2005) explains the importance of why economic and human development are complementary to each other. It states that, in view of the present global conditions and the ever-growing trends of economic globalization and the accelerating pace of technological advancements, to enhance the kingdom's competitive advantage it is more important than ever to improve the quality of its human resources. This has become the basic approach to acquiring and assimilating advanced scientific and technological innovations and improving the capability of the Saudi economy to integrate into the global economy. Furthermore, the capacity to acquire knowledge, produce it and employ it in the production of goods has become the critical factor in gauging the progress and prosperity of nations.

This chapter offers a brief review of the human resources development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It will show how generously the government of Saudi Arabia has spent

on developing human resources in the Kingdom. At first this chapter will discuss the school and the higher education systems in the Kingdom, and try to shed some light on the educational training at the Ministry of Education. The focus then will be, the role of the Institute of Public Administration, which is the official organisation that presents training to the public sector employees.

4.2. Human Resource in Saudi Arabia

When the KSA was founded in 1932, the opportunities for education were not barely existed. But this has changed dramatically over the intervening years. Since the formation of the Saudi Ministry of Education in 1954 the Kingdom has devoted vast resources to an ongoing education programme covering primary, secondary and higher education. The accelerated development in Saudi Arabia, as a result of its vast oil resources, has led to an expansion of social and economic activities at all levels. It has also led to an increasing demand in the Kingdom for sophisticated technology. Consequently, qualified labour needs have become one of the major issues facing the country.

The Seventh Development Plan 1999 gave priority to the different themes on the way forward for development, one of which is human resources development and provision of job opportunities by means of providing education, training, social and health services with an aim to support capabilities and productivity of the national workforce. In addition, the plan laid emphasis on the development of knowledge and technical skills in order to boost the ability of Saudi manpower to harness the benefits of rapid technological developments MEP (2004).

Alzalabani, (2002:125) argues that the government of Saudi Arabia has responded to the global interests, and generously supporting the human resource development. This has led to the increase of expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP from 3.5% in 1970 to 9.5% in 2002. This is clearly shown in the country's development plans which now place great importance on human resource development. The heavy expenditure spent on developing and educating Saudi citizens, as depicted in Table 4.1, reflects the importance that has been given to human resource development in the country.

Table 4.1: Actual Expenditures by Development Agencies during the First Five Development Plans 1390/91 - 1414/15 (1970-1994)

	First Plan		Second Plan		Third Plan		Forth Plan		Fifth Plan	
	SR Billion	%	SR Billion	%	SR Billion	%	SR Billion	%	SR Billion	%
Economic Development	9.5	27.7	97.3	28.0	192.2	30.7	71.2	20.4	34.1	10.0
Human Resources Development	7.0	20.6	51.0	14.7	115.0	18.4	115.1	33.0	164.6	48.0
Social & Health Development	3.5	10.3	27.6	8.0	61.2	09.8	61.9	17.7	68.0	20.0
Infrastructure Development	14.1	41.4	171.3	49.3	256.8	41.1	100.7	28.9	74.2	22.0
Total	34.1	100	347.2	100	625.2	100	348.9	100	340.9	100

- Source. Ministry of Economy and Planning (1999: 43)

The Seventh Development Plan placed human resources development in the forefront of its priority objectives in the sense that people come first as the means and ultimate end of the development process. Thus, the plan allocated 57.1% of total expenditure as earmarked for development agencies for human resources development.

Human resource development has been a primary concern of the Saudi government through its recent history of socioeconomic planning. An integrated programme for human resource development, including the institutional changes necessary to achieve the programme targets was outlined and discussed in the development plans. The importance of those tasks called for immediate attempts to develop analytical tools to study, guide, and monitor human resource development in Saudi Arabia (Sirageldin, et al, 1984: 6).

According to the Seventh Development Plan, (1999:48) the Kingdom's successive plans have given greater attention to human resources development through continuous support of primary, intermediate, secondary and higher education, as well as of technical education, vocational training and pre-service and in-service training. The result has been a great increase in the productive employment of Saudi citizens and a steady upgrading of the skill levels and occupational achievements of the Saudi labour force. The following indicators show the main achievements in the field of human resources development mentioned in the seventh development plan:

- Eight universities, 35 girls' colleges, 12 technical colleges, 68 technical education institutes and vocational training centres, 3,082 secondary schools, 5,896 intermediate schools and 12,196 primary schools have been established during the last thirty years;

- Graduates (male and female) of secondary schools increased from 3,745 graduates in 1389/90 (1969) to more than 165,000 graduates in 1419/20 (1999);
- Graduates of technical education and vocational training increased from 417 graduates in 1389/90 (1969) to 13,832 graduates in 1419/20 (199);
- Enrolment in all educational institutions increased from around 600,000 students in 1389/90 (1969) to nearly 4,748,000 students (male and female) in 1419/20 (1999), or at an average annual growth rate of 7 percent.

Human resources development is the most important direction of the latest plan, which is the Eighth Development Plan and development of human resources has continued to be a priority throughout the successive development plans. These plans were required to continuously promote the skills of human cadres and develop their capabilities through quantitative and qualitative expansion of education, training and vocational training (MEP 2005).

4.2.1. School Education in Saudi Arabia

In the Kingdom, there are four stages of education below higher education. First, there is the pre-school stage, which is a small sector of educational activity, currently restricted mainly to cities. Secondly, there is the elementary stage, which caters for the educational needs of children from the age of six for a period of six years. Thirdly, the intermediate stage which caters for children aged twelve and lasts for three years. Fourthly, there is the secondary stage, which caters for children from fifteen and lasts for three years and prepares those who are to take their education further for higher education. During the first year in the secondary stage, students share a common curriculum. In the final two years they choose between a scientific-based or literary-based curriculum (Al-Farsy, 1990:254).

With the generous resources provided by the Government, the total number of schools and students in school education has increased significantly since 1970. Table 4.2 is an indication of what was achieved with regard to the number of students and schools between 1970 and 2001.

Table 4.2: Number of Schools and Students between 1970-2001

Development of Education 1970/2001		
Year	Number of schools	Number of students (male & female)
1970	3,283	547,000
1975	5,634	984,000
1980	11,070	1,462,000
1985	15,079	2,149,000
1990	16,609	2,934,000
1995	21,284	3,934,000
2000	22,770	4,774,000
2001	23,517	5,015,650

- Source http://www.kingfahdbinabdulaziz.com/main/c001.htm

4.2.1.1. Objectives of School Education

The government of Saudi Arabia has dedicated great resources to develop and enhance the education system and also to develop manpower in general. One of the major aims of the government development plan is to make educational and training opportunities accessible to all its citizens.

The following are the overall objectives of the school education sector as established by the Eighth Development Plan period (MEP, 2005):

- To develop manpower, upgrade efficiency and increase participation to meet the

requirements of the national economy;

- To develop the education and training system to meet the requirements of social, economic and cultural development;

- To eradicate illiteracy.

The Eight Development Plan (MEP, 2005) mentioned some of the targets of school education policy, which are as follows:

- Absorption of 20 percent of children in to education in the age group 4-6 years at the kindergarten level;

- Achievement of 100 percent enrolment rate at the elementary education stage (mandatory education);

- Achievement of 95 percent enrolment rate at the intermediate stage;

- Provision of government school buildings to absorb the expected growth in the number of male/female students, and replacement of rented school buildings at a rate of 400 buildings per year;

- Reducing the drop-out rates to attain a general rate of 1 percent at all stages;

- Reducing the repetition rates to 5% at the elementary stage, 7% at the intermediate stage and 8% at the secondary stage;

- Introduction of a teachers' professional practice licence for male and female teachers, and a system for regular renewal of licences;

- Attainment of a Saudization rate of 95% of teachers in the education sector;

- Providing an Information Technology Centre linked with the internet in all schools;

- Examine the possibility of teaching English language starting from grade four at the elementary stage;
- Establishment of a national centre for educational information;
- Application of e-Government regarding the tasks of the Ministry of Education;
- Introduction of a system of participation in international tests regarding science, mathematics and language;
- Introduction of a system of national standard tests for pupils in the various stages of school education;
- Implementation of a comprehensive evaluation system of schools once every five years;
- Implementation of an educational accreditation system regarding all private schools;
- Attainment of a participation rate of 15% by private education in school education by the end of the Eight Plan period;
- Development of regulations for adult and continuing education;
- Preparation of radio and TV programmes directed towards adult education;
- Provision of support services for adult education such as mobile schools and camps.

4.2.2. University and Higher Education

There are various kinds of institutions of higher education in the KSA. Some are under the supervision of the Ministry of Higher Education, while others are run by other government agencies or ministries (Mosa, 2000). The student who successfully completes school education can pursue his or her university and higher education; it

takes four years in the academic colleges and five or six years in some scientific colleges. At present there are eleven government universities.[1]

The Kingdom's universities include colleges and departments which offer diploma, bachelor, masters and PhD degrees in various scientific and humanities specializations as well as providing community service oriented vocational courses. Some of these colleges and departments also provide distance learning services. There are also a further one hundred and fifteen institutions providing various majors.

Table 4-3: Male/Female Students Enrolled in Universities, Girl Colleges and Private Colleges at Bachelor Degree Level 1999 and 2003 Seventh Development Plan

Educational Institutions	1999	2003
King Saud University	47,067	46,479
King Abdulaziz University	29,320	34,298
King Fahad University for Petroleum	7,157	7,436
King Faisal University	10,332	11,511
Imam University	26,116	27,613
King Khalid University	11,740	9,942
Islamic University	3,748	4,104
Um Al-Qura University	21,764	25,849
Girl Colleges	125,189	197,570
Private Colleges	00	1,542
Total	282,433	366,344

Source: Ministry of Higher Education.

[1] King Saud University, King Abdalaziz University, King Faisal University, King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals, King Khalid University, The Islamic University, Umul-Qura University, University of Imam Muhammad Bin Saud, Qassim University, Taibba University and Taif University, the last three universities were established during the Seventh Development Plan period.

As a result of the attention given by the government to university and higher education, table 4-3 shows the number of males/females enrolled in universities, girls' colleges and private colleges at the bachelor level. This indicates an increase of more than 26% between 1999 and 2003, at an average annual growth rate of 6.7%. Female students constituted more than 69.5% of the total enrolled in 2003, of which 77.6% were at girl colleges, (MPE 2005).

4.2.2.1. Objectives of Higher Education

Some of the objectives of higher education mentioned in the eight development plan as follow (2005);

- Securing higher education opportunities for citizens who have the capability and interest in continuing their university study;
- Expanding the education base in line with socio-economic development requirements;
- Realizing a higher degree of quality and effectiveness along with upgrading the efficiency of scientific and administrative performance of the higher education system;
- Enhancing the role of higher education institutions in the field of community service;
- Building and enhancing the capabilities of scientific research and technological development.

4.2.3. Non-university Level Post-secondary Studies (Technical/Vocational Type)

According to MEP (2005), the technical education and vocational training sector comprises a number of government agencies and institutions, private and public companies, as well as cooperative training programmes developed jointly between the public and private sectors. The sector includes eighty-six technical colleges, vocational secondary institutes and training centres. These institutions either individually or jointly with other agencies provide technical education and vocational training services. Then important of them are the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT), and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA). Moreover, there are other government agencies, which provide training to their employees in different fields.[2]

Institutions of higher education below the level of the bachelor's degree include thirty-four colleges for the health-related professions, twenty women's junior colleges, three community colleges, twelve technical colleges, and two industrial arts colleges (Mosa, 2000). Post-secondary technical and vocational education is available at technical colleges, higher technical institutes and higher institutions for financial and commercial sciences. Most of these institutions offer programmes which last up to three years and lead to certificates and diplomas. These come under the authority of the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT).

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[2] The principal examples are: Ministry of Education, Saudi National Guards Headquarters, Ministry of Defence and Aviation, Ministry of Interior, Royal Commission of Jubail and Yanbu, Saudi Posts Corporation, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Water and Electricity, Ministry of Labour, Presidency of Civil Aviation, King Faisal Specialist Hospital and Research Centre, King Khalid Eye Hospital, Ports Authority, Public Railway Corporation, Saudi Arabian Airlines, Saline Water Conversion Corporation, Saudi Arabian Basic Industries Company (SABIC), Saudi Aramco, Saudi Electricity Company (SCECO) and Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA).

Technical education and vocational training are important in responding to the labour market needs for a qualified national workforce which is able to cope with current needs and fast-paced developments in the Kingdom. The sector plays a significant role in absorbing some of the school education graduates and providing them with the skills and experience to fill labour market vacancies of different professions and specialties, in addition to upgrading the skills and training of on-the-job employees (MEP, 2005).

The objective of the technical education and vocational training development strategy during the Eighth Development Plan is to achieve qualitative improvement and quantitative growth through the implementation of the following specific objectives:

4.2.3.1. General Objectives

- Develop and upgrade the competency and skills of Saudi manpower to satisfy the requirements of socio-economic development;
- Ensure increased participation of the Saudi manpower in the labour market and improve its productivity;
- Upgrade all elements of technical education and vocational training system and concentrate on the outputs of the system;
- Enhance and raise the private sector's contribution to the financing and development of technical education and vocational training programmes (MEP, 2004).

4.3. Administrative Training in Saudi Arabia

Global interest in studying and developing administration on a large scale emerged after World War II. The interest was contemporary to the phenomenon of establishing specialized institutes that would undertake the provision of training programmes, research, consultations and the preparation of studies in that vital field of human knowledge. The interest was translated in the recommendations of the Social-Economic Council of the United Nations, which focused on the need to develop public administration in developing countries as a condition to achieve development programmes (IPA, 1989:1).

4.3.1. Objectives of Administrative Training in Saudi Arabia

The attention given to the training of employees in Saudi Arabia has contributed to the achievement of a real increase in the number of training programmes presented to the public sector. The general aim of these training programmes is to raise the efficiency of the employees and to equip them with the required knowledge and skills in the changing work environment. This aforementioned objective of training has been clearly stated in Article 34-1 of the 1980 of the Training Prospectus of the Civil Service Bureau (recently Ministry of Civil Services), which states;

> Training aim to raise the efficiency of the government's employees to the extent which enable them to do their jobs in the best way. This could be achieved by attending training courses or training workshops.

4.3.2. Institute of Public Administration (IPA)

By the end of the 1950s, the government of Saudi Arabia knew that the inefficiency of its organisations was experiencing weakness in their efficiency due to a shortage of well-trained Saudi employees. Therefore, in 1960, the government set out to seek help

from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development of the Technical Assistance Committee of the United Nations. Some of the recommendations that resulted form these advisory bodies were: establishing the Institute of Public Administration (IPA), simplifying procedures and activities of government organisations and establishing a central organisation for planning (Al-Hamad, 1984: 10).

In order for employees to perform their assigned duties, it is necessary to organise and conduct training courses for various job levels of government organisations. The authorities in Saudi Arabia recognized the important role that training programmes play in promoting the efficiency of employees and preparing them scientifically and practically. Therefore, the government assigned this task to the IPA by issuing the Royal Decree No. (93) dated 24/10/1380H, / 10/4/1961AD, whereby the IPA was established in order to contribute to the process of administration development in the Kingdom. The Institute is an independent organisation with a unique entity, having its main office in Riyadh the Central city and three branches in Dammam in the Eastern province, in Jeddah in the Western province and the female branch at Riyadh. IPA is regarded as the official body that provides administrative training to public sectors employees (IPA, 1989: 17)

The high officials who form the Board of Directors of the IPA reflect the government's support to the services that the IPA provides. According to IPA (2004a) the Institute's Board of Directors includes the following officials as shown in Table 4-4:

Table 4-4: IPA Board of Director

The Minister of Civil Service	**Chairman**
The Director General of the Institute of Public Administration	Vice-Chairman
The Deputy Minister of Civil Service	Member
The Director General of the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training	Member
The Undersecretary of the Ministry of Higher Education for Education Affairs	Member
The General Director for Organisation and Administration of the Ministry of Finance and National Economy	Member
The General Director of Planning and Development of the Ministry of Education	Member

- Source: http://www.ipa.edu.sa/eng/eng200.asp

4.3.2.1. Objectives of IPA:

According to the statute of the Institute, the objectives of the IPA as stipulated in article 2 of its regulation (IPA, 1989: 1) are as follows:

- Planning and executing instructional and training programmes offered to civil servant employees to promote their efficiency and to qualify them theoretically and practically to be able to assume their responsibilities;
- Conducting scientific administrative research and studies; directing and supervising them at the institute; and cooperating with executives in ministries, government organisations, and their branches where there exists relevant research;
- Collecting, tabulating, and classifying administrative documents of the Kingdom;
- Holding conferences on administrative development addressed to high level executives of government agencies;

- Encouraging scientific research in administrative affairs; and allocating study grants and bonuses to achieve this goal;
- Offering the Institute training staff academic and training scholarships in administrative affairs so as to promote their administrative efficiency;
- Offering study grants to some government employees of Arab countries;
- Contributing to the administrative development on an Arab level during conferences and symposiums held for these purposes;
- Training officials of other Arab countries to qualify them to conduct their duties in a better way.

Atiyyah (1993: 10) argues that training materials used in Management Development programmes offered by local Arab institutes are mostly translated from foreign sources and not written with Arab managers in mind. However, only the IPA in Saudi Arabia, as Atiyyah, claims, has a staff that is active and involved in the adaptation of programmes and equipments for local needs.

4.3.2.2. Manpower in IPA

There are more than one thousand two hundred employees in the main office of the IPA and its three branches. The teaching staff represents the majority. Most employees are highly educated and have wide experiences in different majors. The percentage of the Saudi staff reaches about 73 %, and the IPA continues to send some of them abroad annually to obtain masters and doctorate degrees. All this is being carried out within a programmed plan to improve Saudi cadres in order to perform the various activities of the IPA (IPA, 2004b).

4.3.2.3. Training in IPA

Training is considered to be a basic factor for all organisations in terms of improving their employees, because it has direct impact on the efficiency and effectiveness in public and private agencies. The employee, who is considered the main element targeted in the training process can play a major role in the development process, if he or she receives the required level of training that qualifies him or her to carry out the role in a successful manner. According to Al-Tawail (1995: 227) the training programmes provided by the IPA could be categorized into in-service and pre-service training. These two types have experienced rapid development and they now consist of many programmes including the following four types:

(i) General Training Programmes (In-Service)

These programmes are directed towards employees of government organisations during service in order to meet their training needs, raise their productivity and supply them with the knowledge, skills and positive attitudes necessary for improving administrative work and participating in administrative reform. This type of training offers different kinds of programmes such as administration, finance, economics, office management, computing and others (IPA: 2004c). Table 4-5 illustrates the number of participants in the various training programmes, in-service, during 1999/2000.

Table 4-5: The Number of Training Programmes and Trainees during 1999/2000

Branch	Number of Programmes	Trainees			
		Admitted	Enrolled	passed	%
Headquarters in Riyadh	111	9357	8149	8099	60.6%
Dammam	40	2703	2358	2323	17.4%
Jeddah	33	2691	2228	2220	16.6%
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	29	930	731	727	5.4%
Total		15681	13466	13369	100.0%

- Source : http://www.ipa.edu.sa/index.asp

(ii) **Special Training Programmes (In-service)**

The aim of the Special Training Programmes (in-service) is to fulfill special training needs in governmental bodies by providing them with the information and skills necessary to perform their tasks and activities. These programmes are usually designed and discussed in cooperation with the relevant institution to meet the training needs of the employees of such institutions as are not directly covered by in-service training programmes (2004d). Figures shown in Table 4-6 illustrate the number of participants in these programmes:

Table 4-6: The Number of Special Training Programmes and Trainees during (1999/2000)

Place	Number of Programmes	Trainees			
		Admitted	Enrolled	Passed	%
Headquarters in Riyadh	24	576	516	516	54.4%
Dammam	8	223	210	210	22.1%
Jeddah	9	230	209	209	22.0%
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	1	27	14	14	1.5%
Total	28	1056	949	949	100.0%

- Source: http://www.ipa.edu.sa/index.asp

(iii) **General Preparatory (GP) Programmes (Pre-service)**

The GP programmes aim to enable recent high school and college graduates to perform certain professional tasks in both public and private sectors. These programmes include different administrative specializations, such as hospital administration, executive secretary, computing, marketing, accounting, law, office management, sales, banking and hotel management. The duration of these programmes varies from 6 to 30 months depending on the goal and nature of each programme (IPA: 2004e). Table 4-7 shows the number of training programmes and students in GPP during the training year 1999/2000.

Table 4-7: The Number of Training Programmes and Trainees during 1999/2000

Place	Number of Programmes	Students			
		Admitted	Enrolled	Passed (Graduates)	%
Headquarters in Riyadh	17	930	681	664	62.1%
Dammam	5	176	129	121	11.3%
Jeddah	4	174	111	111	10.4%
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	6	257	176	173	16.2%
Total	17	1537	1097	1069	100.0%

- Source : http://www.ipa.edu.sa/index.asp

(iv) Special Preparatory Programmes (SPP)

The aim of these programmes is to satisfy new or developed training needs in government bodies. During the programme, employees are provided with the knowledge and skills necessary to effectively carry out their tasks (IPA: 2004f). Table 4-8 shows the number of training programmes and trainees in SPP in the headquarters and branches during the training year 1999/2000.

Table 4-8: The number of Training Programmes and Trainees during (1999/2000)

Place	Number of Programmes	Trainees		
		Admitted	Enrolled	Passed
Headquarter in Riyadh	8	255	239	239
Total	8	255	239	239

- Source : http://www.ipa.edu.sa/index.asp

(v) Higher Administrative Development Programmes

These programmes are presented in order to raise the abilities of employees in higher administrative positions in the government and private sectors by providing them with the latest findings in the field of administration, discussing the administrative problems that they face, finding their solutions as well as examining and discussing new trends in administration. These programmes use different methods such as applied workshops, symposiums, and seminars (IPA: 2004g). Table 4-9 shows the number of participants during the 1999/2000.

Table 4-9: The Number of Participants in Applied Workshops during (1999/2000).

Place	Number of Applied Workshops	Number of Benefiting Institutions	Number of Participants
Headquarters in Riyadh	39	188	825
Dammam	16	53	291
Jeddah	11	56	202
Women's Branch (Riyadh)	10	22	287
Total	76	308	1501

- Source : http://www.ipa.edu.sa/index.asp

It is obvious that the number of participants in (in-service) programmes is very high compared with other types of training in the IPA. This clearly reflects, as Ashshhowwaf

(1991:23) argues, that these programmes are considered at the heart of training activities and also the most important among other types of training.

Evaluation of Training in IPA

The IPA offers a wide range of training programmes to a very large numbers of the public sector employees. Therefore, the IPA runs programmes to ensure the quality and efficiency of all courses at IPA in accordance with a set criterion of performance. It also undertakes evaluation studies to measure the impact of training on government and private agencies, follows up results of IPA programmes with regards to trainees and recipient agencies, submits reports of results to the organisations concerned and draws up relevant results (IPA, 2004h).

Table 4-10 shows the achievements in evaluating training programmes in IPA bearing in mind that one programme may be evaluated several times; depending on how many times it is implemented:

Table 4-10: Training Programme Evaluations

Type of Training	Number of Evaluations	%
General Training Programmes	473	83.87%
Preparatory Programmes	73	12.94%
Applied Workshops	18	3.19%
Total	564	100.00%

- source: http://www.ipa.edu.sa/index.asp

Despite that each organisation in the public sector has its own training needs, which might be different from the others; almost all of these programmes are designed and implemented in nearly the same way. This may make evaluation of the training programmes rather difficult to conduct and could also lead to less efficiency in the training programmes. The most frequently used method to evaluate the training

programme is the questionnaire. At the end of each programme a questionnaire is distributed to the trainees to discover their attitudes towards the trainer and the training programme in general.

According to the IPA trainer's prospectus (2005:24) the evaluation of training programmes at the IPA is done through an assessment form, which is usually distributed to the trainees at the end of each programme. And due to the large groups participating in the training programme every week, the evaluation is done on only a sample of the programme, which is selected automatically by the system according to certain criteria. This process of evaluating the programme is done up to four times annually. The evaluation system in the IPA also allows the trainers to evaluate the training at the end of any programme. The trainer observations and proposals to develop the programme, in terms of design, materials or participants or other services, contribute to the provision of an information base which will help in the process of developing programmes.

The IPA is not unique in this situation. According to Rae (2004), there have been many reviews on the use of evaluation in training and development. Results initially appear heartening: many trainers/organisations responding about the wide approaches they use. However, when more precise questions are asked, many professional trainers and training departments are found to use only the first level of the Kirkpatrick model (reaction).

4.4. The Educational Training in the MoE

In highlighting the importance of education as a whole, Christopher (1999:1) cited from (OECD, 1989) that:

> Teachers are at the heart of the educational process. The greater the importance attached to education as a whole-whether for cultural transmission, for social cohesion and justice, or for human resource development so critical in modern, technology-based economics- the higher is the priority that must be accorded to the teachers responsible for education.

Today, people and especially governments, do want teachers to change. In England, one of the essential areas that current governments have looked at in their effort to change teachers has been the system of initial teacher training. Teacher education was something of a backwater. But, recently it had become a key issue in government policy (Furlong et al, 2000:7)

Craft (2000:6) argues that professional development has attracted increasing attention in recent years. Faced with rapid change, demands for high standards and calls for improving quality, teachers have a need, as never before, to update and improve their skills through professional development. Many authors emphasized the need for developing teacher's knowledge, skills and attitudes.

The following is some of the principles of teacher development mentioned by Christopher (1999:2):

- Teachers are the schools' greatest asset. They stand at the interface of the transmission of knowledge, skills and values. Teachers will only be able to fulfil their educational purposes if they are both well prepared for the profession and

able to maintain and improve their contributions to it through career-long learning;

- Continuing career-long professional development is necessary for all teachers in order to keep pace with change to review and renew their own knowledge, skills visions for good teaching;
- Teachers learn naturally from their career. However, learning from experience alone will ultimately limit development;
- Successful school development is dependent on successful teacher development

Most of the Arab countries are showing increasing concern on the issues of enhancing the abilities of their employees either teachers or administrators in various stages of public education. This interest is reflected in the establishment of institutes and centres to provide specialized training opportunities appropriate to improve and develop the performance of workers in the education sector.

The education and training policy in Saudi Arabia is concerned about educational training as a means of continuing the education of its teachers to keep them updated with new and useful aspects in the field of education. The dramatic quantitative growth of the educational system since the introduction of the First Development Plan in 1970 has been more than matched by an improvement in the quality of education. One measure of this emphasis is that while the number of students in the educational system increased six-fold between the 1970s and the 1990s, the number of full-time teachers grew more than nine-fold. The Kingdom's ratio of fifteen students to every teacher is one of the lowest in the world. The government, however, continues to work to improve educational standards. This has been achieved by raising the quality of teacher training programmes, improving standards for evaluation of students and increasing the use of educational technology. (MEP, 2005)

In emphasizing the importance of in-service teacher training, Siniscalco (2002:32) states that:

> In-service training, continuing and further education, and the upgrading of teachers are different terms used to refer to teachers' continuing professional development. Although the main focus of teacher education in most countries continues to be on pre-service training, the need for in-service updating and renewing of knowledge, skills and capabilities is now widely acknowledged.

The educational training programmes have been incessantly and systematically extended to accommodate the ever-growing concern for educational training services. Thus, the Kingdom has been able to guarantee equal opportunities for all and to ensure that the Kingdom's need, for well educated and well trained national educational staff to carry forward the Kingdom's future development can be fulfilled.

4.4.1. Objectives of Educational Training

The objective of educational training at the Ministry of Education (MoE) is to achieve continuous professional growth to the occupants of teaching jobs and raise the level of performance in the educational process. In addition, it aims to increase the productive capacity in terms of effectiveness and efficiency of all workers and to prepare national cadres trained in various disciplines required by the ministry. According to the MoE (2006), teacher training comes first in any educational development prgramme in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The teacher is the human element who can make the best use of the pre-requisites of the educational process such as curricula, school activities, textbooks and laboratories... etc. Therefore, the main objective of the educational training is to enhance and develop the knowledge, skills and the attitude of teachers. Training is also the means for employing modern educational ways. As it mentioned in the MoE prospectus, other objectives of educational training are as follows (2003:8):

- Develop and upgrade teachers' competency and familiarize them about the recent circulars and directions;

- Train teachers on the teaching of new courses such as information technology and intellectual skills courses;

- Meet with teachers to hear their views concerning the curriculum in order to identify the points of strength and weakness for ultimate improvement and development.

To achieve the objectives of the educational plan in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the authorities should concentrate on in-service training for teachers to prepare them to be scientifically and morally competent. It is very difficult to change teacher behaviour in the short term and to bring teachers up to date with the latest developments as to how they can be most effective in their work if there is no continuous training. In this regard, the teacher is seen as being the basis of education development.

4.4.2. Training Centres in the MoE

The interest of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in educational training is represented by the Ministry of Education through the establishment of the Department of Training on 1394 H. The Ministry of Education has realised the importance of in-service training for teachers to enhance their work skills and performance. Therefore, the MoE has established forty-two training centres around the Kingdom, where each administrative region has its own centre. These centres only provide in-service training programme for MoE workers. The training centre in Riyadh is regarded as the largest among the training centres of the MoE with thirty-one staff members. The objectives of these centres are to conduct training programme taking into account the following points:

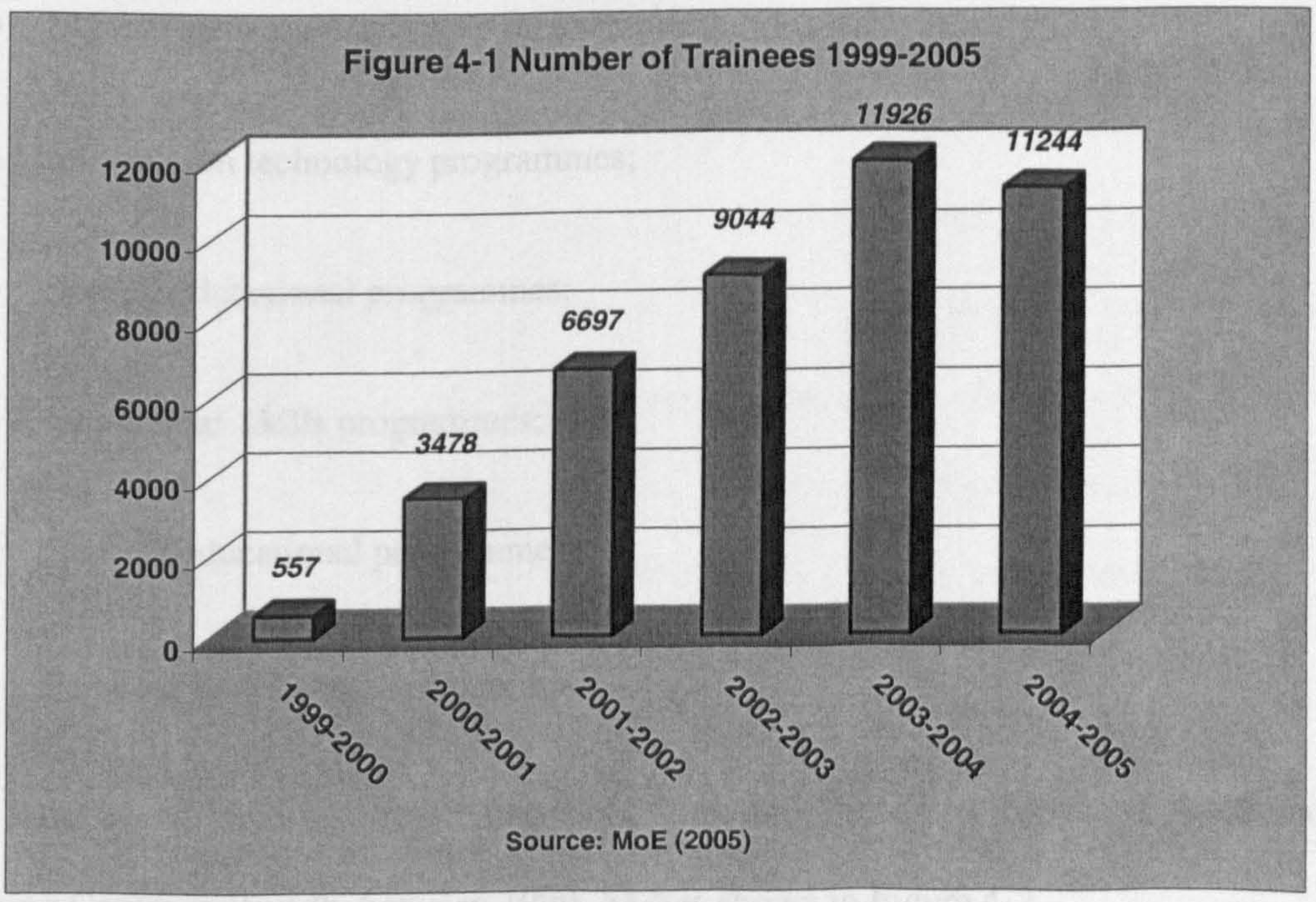
- Planning the training programme systematically not spontaneously;

- Aiming programmes at the professional growth of teachers; increasing their professional and cultural experiences. This calls for the identification of teachers' needs, in the light of which training programme can be designed;

- A training programme which is designed to upgrade the teaching and learning process and increases the potential productivity of teachers. This requires a focus on scientific facts relating primarily to the processes of teaching and learning not merely for public information;

- Training which is dedicated to all personnel in the field of education and learning;

- Training programme which have specific objectives.



It should be stated that there is an increasing demand of training programme in the Riyadh branch which reflects the variety of these programmes available to the trainees. As illustrated in Figure 4-1, the growing number of trainees in the Riyadh branch between 1999 and 2005 reached its peak in 2003-2004 by training about twelve thousand participants.

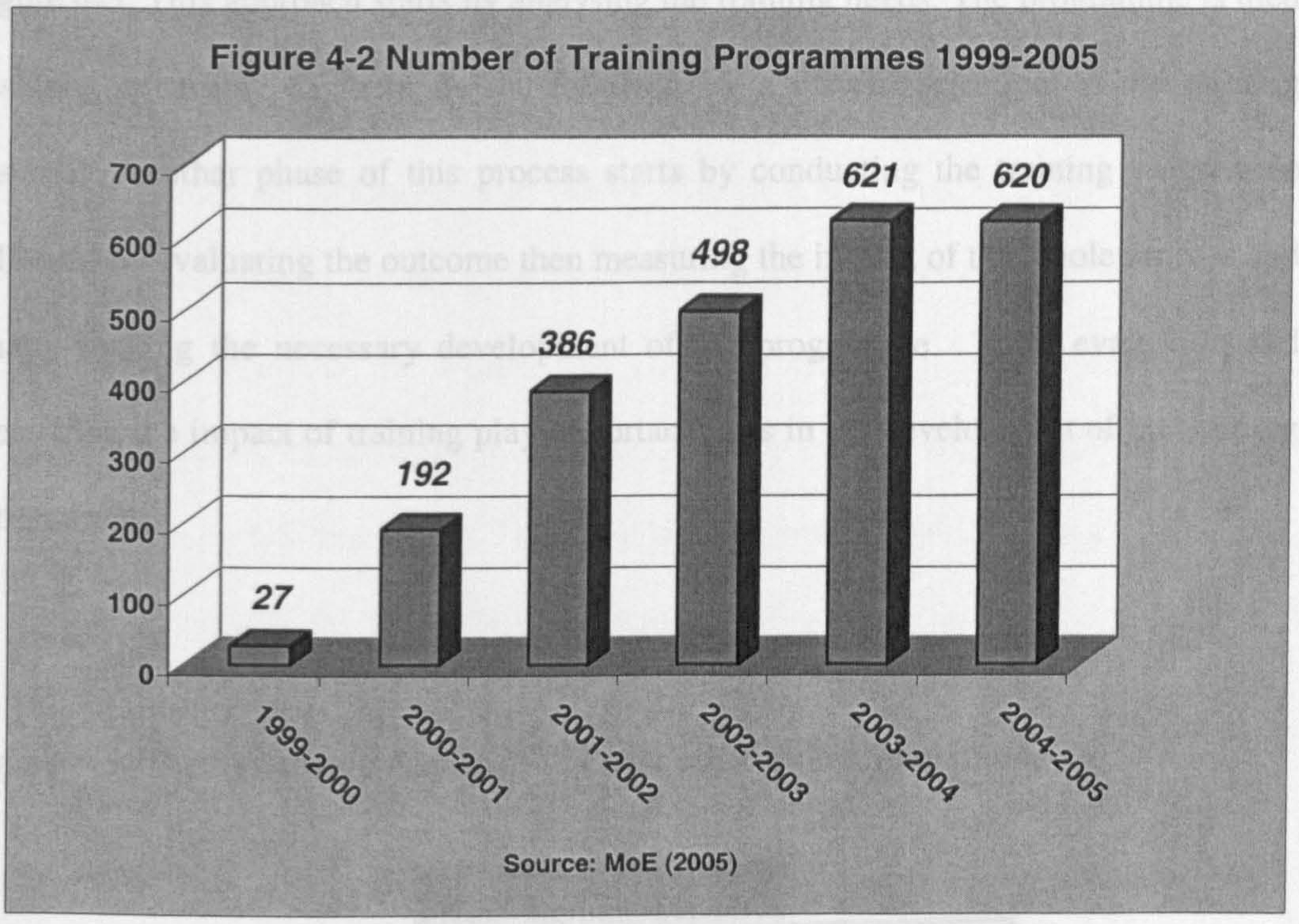
4.4.3. Types of Programme in the MoE:

The educational training system has been continuously extended to accommodate the ever-growing interest in educational training services. Through this speculation, the Kingdom has been able to guarantee equal opportunities for all and to ensure that the Kingdom's need for an educated and trained national educational staff to carry forward the Kingdom's future development can be fulfilled.

There are several training programmes in the Educational Training Centre in Riyadh and these programmes come under six main types:

- Management and leadership programmes;
- Information technology programmes;
- Special educational programmes;
- Intellectual skills programmes;
- General educational programmes;
- Personal development programmes.

The number of training programme organized and presented by the Educational Training Centre in Riyadh, between 1999-2005 is shown in Figure 4-2.



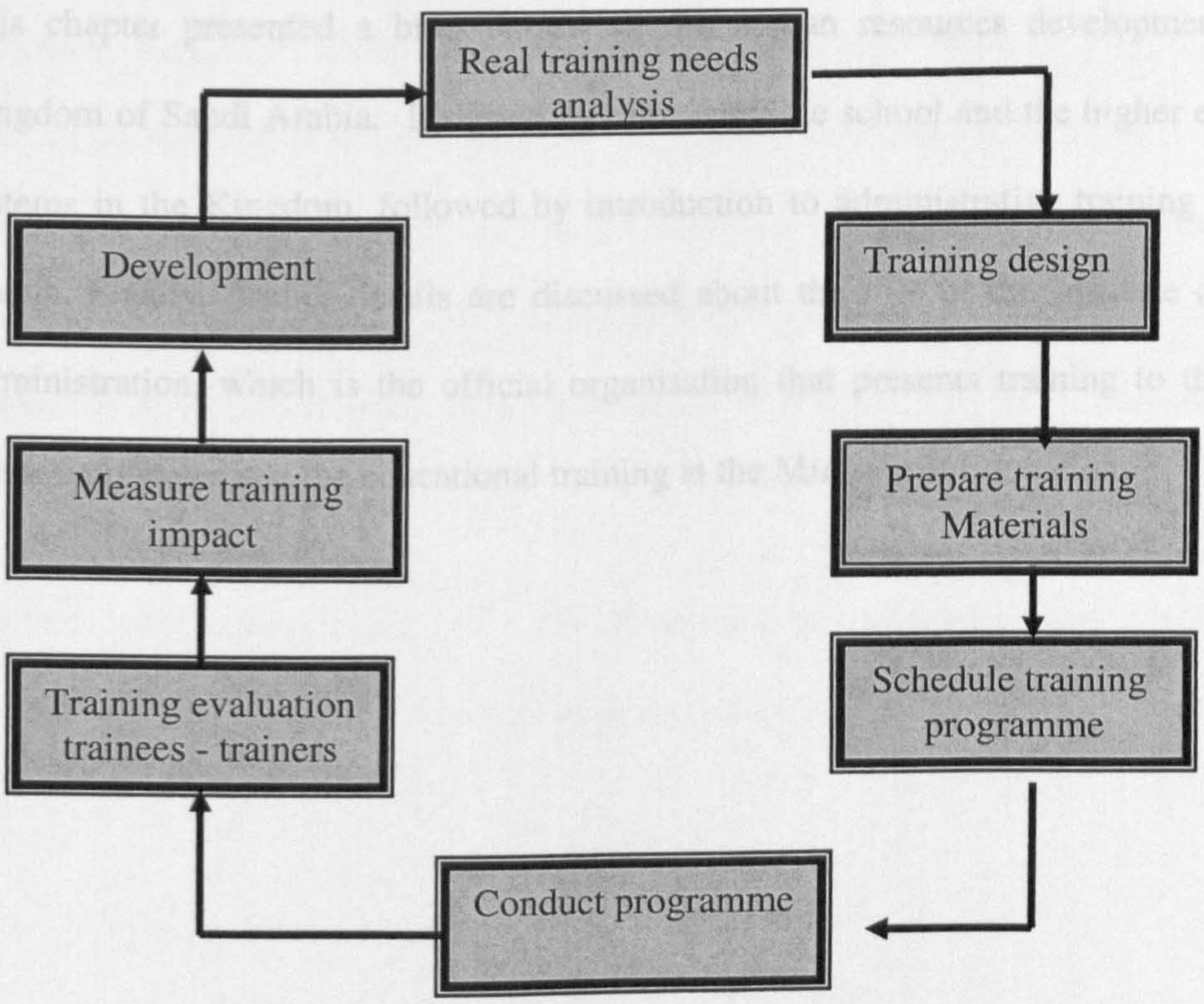
There are some efforts to evaluate the training programme but unfortunately these efforts only measure the trainee reactions. Although there have been some attempts to measure training effectiveness, it was attempted on only two training programmes. At the time when the field work of this research was conducted and during a meeting with the Director of the Educational Centre of MoE in Riyadh, he mentioned a new project to evaluate the training results of specified programmes. This kind of projects will give them the opportunity to assess their work in order to enhance the quality of the programme. Although it is very difficult to conduct such project because of the barriers to evaluating the impact of training as mentioned in the previous chapter, it is a step in the right direction improving evaluation of the impact of training programmes.

4.4.4. Training Process in the MoE

The training process in the MoE commences at the Training Centre in Riyadh, which prepares the training programme according to a systematic approach, as illustrated in

Figure 4-3. This approach starts by analysing the training needs. The programme is then designed according to these needs, followed by a careful selection of the training material. Another phase of this process starts by conducting the training programme followed by evaluating the outcome then measuring the impact of the whole process and finally making the necessary development of the programme. Thus, evaluation and measuring the impact of training play important roles in the development of the training programme.

Figure 4-3: The Systematic Approach to Preparing Training Programme



Source: Prospectus of Riyadh's region Education Training Centre (2004)

4.5. Conclusion

The expansion of oil in Saudi Arabia has enabled its government to invest in social and economic development of the country, which made the country one of the fastest developing countries in the world. The economy of Saudi Arabia, like any other developing country is certainly in need of a highly trained and skilful workforce to exploit the country's resources. Therefore, development plans in Saudi Arabia has shown great interest in developing the human resources by giving the training and education programme their due priority.

This chapter presented a brief review of the human resources development in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It started by discussing the school and the higher education systems in the Kingdom, followed by introduction to administrative training in Saudi Arabia. Finally, further details are discussed about the role of the Institute of Public Administration, which is the official organisation that presents training to the public sector employees and the educational training at the Ministry of Education.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1. Introduction

Contemplating on research, Bryman (2004: xi) states that:

> It is often said that the best three most important features to look for a house are location, location, location. I think that a parallel for the teaching of research methods are examples, examples, and examples. I have always learned a lot by reading research and finding out how others have carried out research and what lessons they seem to have learned.

Moreover, Jankowicz (2000:214) reinforces Bryman's view when he said, that one of the reasons for reviewing other people's work in the same field is to discover how they resolved problems of methods, techniques and design in investigating similar issues. The researcher has benefited from the aforementioned statements and so has read many researches and learned from others experience which helps a lot in conducting this research.

The term methodology refers to the overall approaches and perspectives to the research process as a whole and is concerned with the following main issues (Collis & Hussey, 2003:55):

- Why you collected certain data;
- What data you collected;
- Where you collected it;
- How you collected it;
- How you analysed it.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an outline of the research methods used in the fieldwork and to describe the actions taken to collect the data. It presents a description of the study sample and the statistical techniques used to analyse the data.

5.2. Research Design

There are different research designs in social research and, according to Olayan (2001: 41), research methodologies could be classified in to four categories: historical research, descriptive research, experimental research and developmental-action research. De Vaus (2001: 9) states that social research needs a design or a structure before data collection or analysis can start. He also believes that social researchers ask two fundamental types of questions:

What is going on (descriptive research)?

Why is it going on (explanatory research)?

The basic difference between descriptive and experimental research is that the former includes observations that have already occurred; hence a researcher measures things as they are. On the other hand, in the experimental research the researcher arranges for actions to happen (Crano and Brewer, 2002:17). This research is regarded as descriptive since the researcher is trying to investigate the situation for evaluating training programmes in the Saudi public sector.

5.3. Research Methodology

According to Harrington et al (2006: 35) social research nearly always has the role of developing or testing theory. Consequently, methods and methodology are bridges between social theory and the everyday social world. The term methodology is sometimes incorrectly used with methods. While the two concepts are interrelated, they

are distinct. Research methods are the means by which concepts from one or other theoretical levels are represented through empirical investigation. Methodology has two aspects: it is (1) the translatory bridge between theory and method; and (2) the (often critical) study of choices of method and the relationship between theories and method.

Johnson, (2000: 192), presents the following definition for methodology

> Methodology in sociological research, methodology refers to the practices and techniques used to gather, process, manipulate, and interpret information that can then be used to test ideas and theories about social life.

Gould & Kolb, (1964:425), have also defined methodology as;

> The term methodology in its original and proper usage refers to the systematic study of principles guiding scientific and philosophical investigation.

Miller & Brewer (2003: 192) presents a definition of methodology

> Methodology connotes a set of rules and procedures to guide research and against which its claims can be evaluated. It is therefore fundamental to the construction of all forms of knowledge.

What could be understood from the previous definitions of methodology is that it is simply a systematic study which consists of certain rules and procedures that guide the investigation process and interpretation of the outcomes.

There are two essential methodological approaches in the social sciences: qualitative and quantitative (Miller and Brewer, 2003:192). Quantitative research can be interpreted as a research strategy that emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data. By contrast, qualitative research can be interpreted as a research strategy that usually emphasises words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of the data (Bryman, 2001:19).

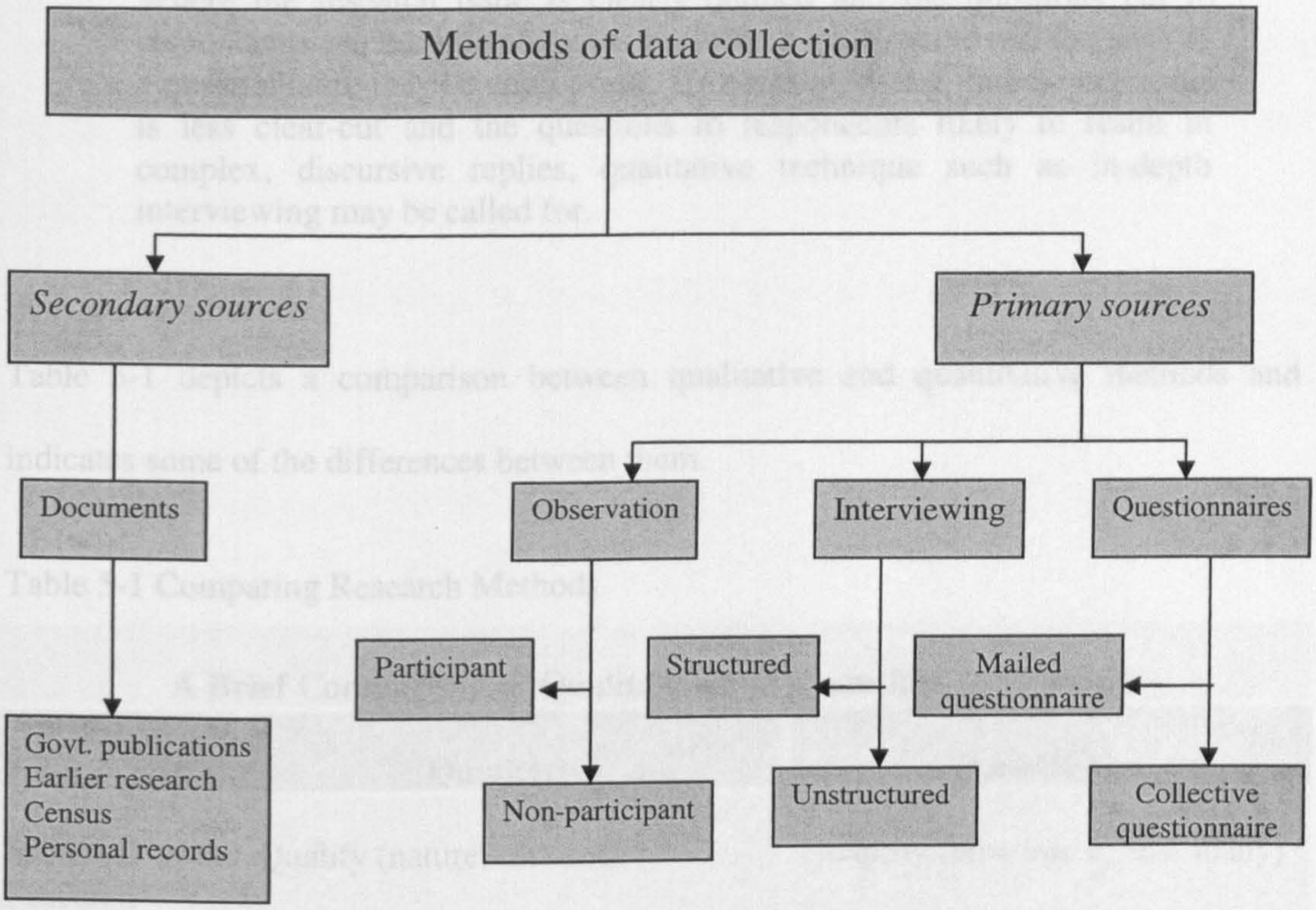
In quantitative research, the researcher is ideally an objective observer who neither participates nor influences what is being studied. In qualitative research, however, it is thought that the researcher can learn the most by participating and/or being immersed in a research situation. These basic underlying assumptions of both methodologies guide and sequence the types of data collection methods employed (CSU, 2005).

5.4. Research Method

Methods are the tools of the researcher's trade. The researcher need to know how to use them but as important is knowing when they should be used. The perfect researcher will be familiar with the widest possible range of methods and will deploy them selectively to meet the requirements of different circumstances (Moore, 2006:103) Research method is simply a technique for collecting data. It can involve a specific instrument, such as a self-completion questionnaire or a structured interview schedule, or participant observation whereby the researcher listens to and watches others, (Bryman, et al 2001:27).

There are different sources of data which could be categorized into two main sources namely; the primary data and the secondary data. Figure 5-1 show the different methods of data which come under these sources. According to Kumar (1999:104) none of the methods of data collection provides perfectly accurate and reliable information.

Figure 5-1: Methods of Data Collection



Source: Kumar (1999: 104)

Neither quantitative nor qualitative approaches are necessarily superior to the other. Each approach has its strengths and weakness, and over-reliance on any one method is not appropriate. Moreover, both approaches are needed in social research (Punch, 2005: 235). In addition, Bryman (1995:127) states that "quantitative research readily allows the researcher to establish relationships among variables, but is often weak when it comes to exploring the reasons for those relationships. A qualitative study can be used to help explain the factors underlying the broad relationships that are established".

Therefore, Brannen (1993:5), states that:

> Where the research issue is clearly defined and the questions put to respondents require unambiguous answers, a quantitative method such as a questionnaire may be appropriate. By contrast, where the research issue is less clear-cut and the questions to respondents likely to result in complex, discursive replies, qualitative technique such as in-depth interviewing may be called for.

Table 5-1 depicts a comparison between qualitative and quantitative methods and indicates some of the differences between them.

Table 5-1 Comparing Research Methods

A Brief Comparison of Qualitative and Quantitative Methods		
	Qualitative	**Quantitative**
Focus of Research	Quality (nature, essence)	Quantity (how much, how many)
Key Concepts	Meaning, understanding, description	Statistical relationships, prediction control, description.
Sampling	Non-representative, small, purposeful	Large, random, representative, stratified
Date	Field notes, people's own words	Measures, counts, numbers
Methods	Observations, interviews, reviewing documents	Experiments, surveys, instruments
Instruments	Researcher, tape recorder, camera, computer	Inventories, questionnaires
Data Analysis	Ongoing, inductive (by researcher)	Deductive (by statistical analysis)
Findings	Comprehensive, holistic, richly descriptive	Precise, numerical
Advantages	Flexibility, emphasis on understanding large groups, hard-to-explain anomalies.	Controlling intervening variables, oversimplifications.

Source: Minnesota State University (MSU) web site

As it is shown in Table 5-1 there are weakness and strengthens in both methods, and therefore combining the two methods will support the findings of the research. Miller and Brewer (2003:326) explain that the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods together could mean that the weakness of one approach is cancelled out by the strengths of the other. Furthermore, Webb et al (1966: 26) reinforce this view when they suggested that social scientists are likely show greater confidence in their findings when these are derived from more than one method of investigation.

According to Bernard (2000: 8),

> Whatever our theoretical orientation, whatever our discipline, a sound mix of qualitative and quantitative data is inevitable in any study of human thought and behaviour. Whether we use words or numbers, we might as well use them right.

Sometimes a researcher might find him/herself using more than one method in combination. This is argued by Jankowicz, (2000:214), because the research design calls for it or because of the demand for using one method to cross-check the results from another method.

Apart from the researcher's own observation, a semi-structured interview was used as a qualitative method to collect in depth data for this research and the questionnaire was used as a quantitative method. Moreover, secondary data were collected through government documents which help in gathering the required data for this research. Thus, triangulation, as a combination of methods, constitutes the research framework of this study.

There are three main ways to combine qualitative and quantitative methods: qualitative work as a facilitator of quantitative work; quantitative work as a facilitator of qualitative; both approaches are given the equal emphasis in order to produce a clear

picture (Bryman, 1995: 134). The approach of using two methods in combination is called triangulation. According to Olsen (2004), in social science triangulation is defined as the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or standpoints cast light upon the subject investigated. Olsen also explained that mixing the use of survey data with interviews is a more profound form of triangulation. Webb (1981:35) argues that one of the principal aims of triangulation in the social sciences seems to corroborate one set of findings with another. Triangulation reduces the risk that a researcher's conclusions will reflect only the systematic biases or limitations of a specific method (Maxwell, 1996:75).

5.4.1. Qualitative Data

According to Ritchie (2003:34), approaches to collecting qualitative data can be divided into two very broad groups, those that focus on naturally occurring data and those that generate data through the interventions of the research.

Naturally occurring data, include different methods such as:

Participant observation in which the researcher joins the constituent study population or its organisational or community setting to record actions, interactions or events that occur.

Observation offers the opportunity to record and analyse behaviour and interactions as they occur, although not as a member of the study population.

Documentary analysis involves the study of the existing documents, either to understand their substantive content or to illuminate deeper meanings which may be revealed by their style and coverage.

Discourse analysis examines the construction of texts and verbal accounts to explore systems of social meaning.

Conversation analysis involves a detailed examination of 'talk interaction' to determine how conversation is constructed and enacted.

Generated data also include different methods such as:

Biographical methods, which use life stories, narratives and recounted biographies to understand the phenomena under study.

Individual interviews which take different forms but a key feature of which is their ability to provide an undiluted focus on the individual.

Paired (or triad) interviews which are in-depth interviews but carried out with two or three people at the same time.

Focus group or group discussion which involve several (usually somewhere between four and ten) respondents brought together to discuss the research topic as a group.

According to Bryman (2001:319), Dean et al (1967:275) and Ritchie (2003:36) individual interviews are probably the most widely used method in qualitative research. Therefore the researcher of this study has chosen to use this method to get in-depth data from the interviewees regarding the research questions and aims.

5.4.2. Quantitative Data

Collis and Hussey, (2003:162) argue that one of the main advantages of quantitative approach to collect data is the relative ease and speed with which the research can be conducted. According to Bryman, (1995:12) surveys and experiments are probably the main vehicles of quantitative research, although, as he continues, there are three others worthy of a brief mention.

- The analysis of previously collected data, like official statistics on crime, suicide, unemployment, health, and so on, can be counted within the tradition of the quantitative research.
- Structured observation, whereby a researcher records observations in accordance within a pre-determined schedule and quantifies the resulting data, displays many of the characteristics of quantitative research.
- Content analysis, the quantitative analysis of the communication content of media such as newspapers, shares many of the chief features of quantitative research.

May (2001:97), explains that data collection in surveys is conducted mainly through three types of questionnaires: the mail or self-completion questionnaire, the telephone survey and the face-to-face interview schedule.

The researcher used a self-completion questionnaire as the quantitative approach and semi-structured interview as the qualitative approach in this study because they would provide the required data of gaining the respondents views and perceptions regarding the research subject.

5.5. Data Collection Instruments

5.5.1. Questionnaire

Quantitative research is mainly concerned with numbers and data easily quantified. The most popular quantitative technique is the survey which can be administered by mail, telephone, face to face, or more recently by the internet.

Questionnaires are an inexpensive way to gather data from a potentially large number of respondents. Often they are the only possible way to reach a number of reviewers large

enough to allow statistical analysis of the results. Questionnaires assist the process of collecting data by asking all, or a sample of people, to respond to the same questions.

According to Bryman (2001:128) self-administer questionnaires come in different forms. Probably the most prominent of these forms is the postal questionnaire. As May (2001:97) states, as its name implies, it is intended for the respondents to fill out themselves.

Bryman et al (2001:133), Alqahtani (2004: 306) and Olyan (2001:102) have listed some of the advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires;

Advantages of questionnaires:

- Cost effective and easy to administer;
- Easy to analyse through computer software packages;
- Convenience for respondents;
- Allows for more thoughtful answers;
- Simple and quick for the respondent to complete;
- Questionnaire scope and length - respondents more willing to answer a range of questions anonymously on topics of interest;
- No interviewer bias;
- Access to hard-to-reach respondents;
- Preserve confidentiality;
- Can be completed at respondent's convenience.

Disadvantages of questionnaires:

- Low return rates;
- Poor quality control due to absence of interviewer;
- Not suitable for complex question patterns;
- Errors in completion;
- Lengthy completion time;
- It takes time for returned questionnaires; researcher must wait to hear back from respondents;
- Questions may be incorrectly completed;
- Difficulty in obtaining a sufficient number of responses, especially from postal questionnaires.

Despite these disadvantages, the questionnaire is still one of the widely used methods in research and it is more convenient for the targeted sample of the research. Regarding the design of the questionnaire, there are many different types of questions which can be included. Some popular types of questions include open-ended, multiple-choice, and Likert-scale. The following steps required to design and administer a questionnaire include:

- Defining the objectives of the survey;
- Determining the sampling group;
- Writing the questionnaire;
- Administering the questionnaire;
- Interpreting of the results.

The research questionnaire did not include open-ended questions because they require more time from the participants which may result in a low response rate. However, by defining the objective of the study and settling on the research sample, the questionnaire was written, administered and the result interpreted by the researcher.

In terms of the technical design of the questionnaire, whether questions are open or closed format, there are several points that must by considered when writing and interpreting questionnaires (StatPac: 2005);

1. **Clarity:** This is probably the area that causes the greatest source of mistakes in questionnaires. Questions must be clear, brief and unambiguous. The goal is to reduce the chance that the question will mean different things to different people.
2. **Leading Questions:** A leading question is one that forces or implies a certain type of answer. It is easy to make this mistake not in the question, but in the choice of answers. A closed format question must supply answers that not only cover the whole range of responses, but that are also equally distributed throughout the range.
3. **Phrasing:** Most adjectives, verbs and nouns in English have either a positive or negative connotation. Two words may have equivalent meaning, yet one may be a compliment and the other an insult. Consider the two words "child-like" and "childish", which have virtually identical meaning. Child-like is an affectionate term that can be applied to both men and women, and young and old, yet no one wishes to be thought of as childish.
4. **Embarrassing questions:** Embarrassing questions dealing with personal or private matters should be avoided. If you make the respondents feel uncomfortable, you will lose their trust.

5. **Hypothetical questions:** Hypothetical questions are based, at best, on conjecture and, at worst, on fantasy. They do not produce clear and consistent data representing real opinion.
6. **Prestige bias:** Prestige bias is the tendency for respondents to answer in a way that makes them feel better. People may not lie directly, but may try to put a better light on themselves.

The researcher has made all possible efforts to follow the technical design of the questionnaire mentioned above. By piloting the questionnaire, as will be mentioned in section 5-9, the researcher was able to avoid any errors and misunderstanding of some of the questions in order to present a clear and forward questionnaire.

5.5.2. Interview

There are different types of research methods that can be used to collect qualitative data. They include interviews, focus groups, and observations. According to May (2001:120), the methods of maintaining and generating conversations with people on a specific topic or range of topics and the interpretations which social researchers make of the resulting data, form the fundamentals of interviews and interviewing.

Interviews can be grouped into three main types: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. In semi-structured interviews, the interviewer will have a list of themes to be addressed and questions to be answered. But the interviewer may omit or add to some of these questions or themes, depending on the situation and the flow of the conversation. According to Denscombe (1998:113), the interviewer in the semi-structured interview is prepared to be flexible in terms of the order in which the topics are considered, and to let the interviewee develop ideas and speak more widely on the issues raised by the researcher.

Like any other data collecting methods, the interview has advantages and disadvantages and according to Crano and Brewer (2002:223) Miller and Brewer (2003:166) and Olyan (2001:112) some of the advantages and disadvantages of the interview are:

Advantages:

- Usually yield richest data, details, and new insights;
- Permit face-to-face contact with respondents;
- Provide opportunity to explore topics in depth;
- Afford ability to experience the affective as well as cognitive aspects of responses;
- Allow interviewer to explain or help clarify questions, increasing the likelihood of useful responses;
- Allow interviewer to be flexible in administering interview to particular individuals or circumstances.

Disadvantages:

- Expensive and time-consuming;
- Need well-qualified, highly trained interviewers;
- Interviewee may distort information through recall error, selective perceptions, desire to please interviewer;
- Flexibility can result in inconsistencies across interviews;

- Volume of information is too large; may be difficult to transcribe and reduce data.

Bernard (2000: 229) states that each of the data collection methods has its own advantages/disadvantages. There is no definite evidence that one method is better than the other. A researcher's choice of a method will depend on his/her calculation of things like cost, convenience and the nature of the questions to be asked. Therefore the researcher has chosen to use the semi-structured interview to get in-depth information to support the questionnaire findings.

Regarding the preparation for interview, according to McNamara (1999), a researcher should adapt the following procedures before conducting the interview:

- Choose a setting with little distraction;
- Explain the purpose of the interview;
- Address terms of confidentiality;
- Explain the format of the interview;
- Indicate how long the interview usually takes;
- Tell interviewees how to get in touch later if they want to;
- Ask interviewees if they have any questions before the interview starts;
- Do not count on memory to recall answers. Ask for permission to record the interview or bring along someone to take notes.

Before conducting the interview with the trainers in the IPA and MoE the above mentioned steps were made clear to the participants. On asking their permission to

record the interview all participants agreed, which helped the researcher to concentrate on the flow of the interview. The researcher used a good quality tape-recorder to conduct the interviews in order to record the in-depth information about the research subjects.

5.5.3. Data Collection Design

The questionnaire is a scientific instrument which is usually used when there is a large sample. The interview is usually used when the sample is small. The researcher's challenge was to prepare a valid and reliable research instrument to draw the respondents' views regarding the subjects under investigation. The two instruments, namely the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview were made subject to series of different procedures before they were considered ready to be used, sample of both are available in the appendix section.

Several studies on training evaluation have used these two methods. For instance those of Jaafar (1990), Alkassim, (1996), Albahussain, (2000), Azab (2002), and Altarawneh (2005). All these studies helped in framing the instruments of this research. In addition, the researcher has a working experience as a personnel specialist for more than nine years in the Ministry of Health and as a training specialist for four years in the Ministry of Justice. This gave the researcher a clear idea about training in the public sector of Saudi Arabia and helped in designing the questionnaires and the semi-structured interview. In addition, the literature review of training in general, and the help and advices from the researcher's supervisor on conducting individual meetings and in the methodology workshops in the first year, gave the questionnaires and the semi-structured interview their final form.

The reason for using the interview was to support the findings of the questionnaires. A semi-structured interview was designed for the trainers to gain deeper information about

their views regarding how they saw the trainees' reactions towards their training programmes. An important part of the research instrument's design was that questionnaires and the interviews should be made available to the sample in a language that they understood. This led to the translation issue. It was necessary to translate the English version of the questionnaires and the interview from English to Arabic, since all the members of the targeted sample are Saudis. Therefore the first draft was translated by the researcher and was handed in to professionals in English-Arabic translation. The first was Dr. O. Alsudais who recently gained his PhD from the linguistic department in Durham University. The second was S. Alowaimer, a PhD student in the Linguistic Department at Newcastle University. The third was a private translator. The necessary alterations were made to the first draft of the Arabic version.

The questionnaire applies to trainees consists of fifty seven questions which are constructed with likert scaling, and includes open ended questions and multiple choice questions. The questionnaire is divided into six sections; background information; organisational information prior to attending the programme; the reasons for participating in the programme; the effectiveness and satisfaction of the training programme, the effectiveness and satisfaction of the training methods and finally the obstacles that might face the trainees in their attempt to change their knowledge; behaviour and skills. While the trainees' immediate supervisors questionnaire consists of twenty six questions all in likert scale, and these questions are divided into three sections, knowledge and information of the trainee before and after training followed by their behaviour and finally their skills.

The semi-structed interview which was conducted with the trainers in both training centres consists of seventeen questions which covers the background information of the

trainers, information about the training programmes, the design of the training programmes, the tools of the training programmes, evaluation of the training programmes, reasons for participating in training programmes and the effectiveness of and obstacles to the effectiveness of the training programme.

To make sure that the aims and objectives of this study were well understood, a covering letter was attached to the questionnaire to clarify the objectives of the study and allow the respondents to give their answers with confidence.

5.6. Population and Sampling

Training in the public sector of Saudi Arabia is mainly the responsibility of the IPA, which is regarded as the central body for administrative training in the Kingdom. There are many training programmes in different subjects carried out by the IPA in its main branch in Riyadh and in three other branches in Jeddah, Dammam, and the female branch in Riyadh. For this study the main branch in Riyadh was selected to distribute the data collection instruments. They were administered to trainees and to their immediate supervisors and in addition semi-structured interviews were conducted with the trainers. The MoE Training Centre provides training to around 11,000 employees annually in the MoE and most of its programmers are dedicated to schools' staff.

Punch (1999:105) explains that population refers to the total target group who would, in the ideal world, be the subject of the research, and about whom one is trying to say something. The target population of this study, therefore, is all the trainees who have attended training programmes in the IPA and in the MoE Training Centre during the period from September until December 2004 at Riyadh.

According to May (2001:93), surveys aim to describe or explain the characteristics or opinions of population through the use of representative samples. On the other hand, as he continues, a large, poor sample which does not reflect the population characteristics will be less accurate than a small one that does. David and Sutton (2004:149) argue that if the group to be studied is small it may be possible to survey the entire group. Otherwise a selection of the group to be surveyed must be representative of the entire group. Moreover David and Sutton believe that the different sampling techniques available can be divided into two classifications.

Probability samples which are based on each case in the population having the same chance to be selected. There are four types of probability samples:

- Simple random sampling
- Systematic sampling
- Stratified sampling
- Cluster/ multi- cluster sampling

Non-probability samples are used when it is difficult to classify all possible cases in the population. There are three types of non-probability samples:

- Quota sampling
- Purposive sampling
- Snowball sampling

The samples in this study were selected on purposive bases. According to Sekaran (2003:277), Bryman (2001:97) and Alomar, (2004:50) purposive samples are generated when the selection of samples is made by the researcher using his or her own judgment.

The selection may be made on the basis that they are easiest to access, or deemed to be the most important. Moreover, Silverman (2000:104) argues that purposive sampling demands that we think critically about the parameters of the population we are interested in and choose our sample case carefully on this basis.

In this study there were two samples. The first was selected from the trainees who returned to their work after they attended training programmes in the IPA during the period from September 2004 to December 2004. The majority of the sample was selected from the Ministry of Justice, where the researcher was working as a training specialist. The rest were selected from five different public organisations located in Riyadh.

The researcher has also interviewed nine trainers from different departments in the IPA to achieve in-depth information about training.

Table 5.2 Provides the detailed information about sampling:

Table 5.2 Number of Questionnaires Distributed to IPA's Trainees

	Work place	Supervisor questionnaire		Trainee questionnaire	
		Distributed quest	Valid response	Distributed quest	Valid response
1	Ministry of Justice	80	40	100	60
2	King Fahad National Library	30	18	70	40
3	King Abdulaziz City for Science and Technology	30	20	50	32
4	Ministry of Transportation	25	12	40	28
5	General Presidency of Promotion of Virtue and the Prevention of Vices	25	16	40	25
6	Institute of Public Administration	10	4	20	10
Total		200	110	320	195

The second sample was selected from the trainees who attended the training programmes in the MoE Training Centre during the period from September 2004 until December 2004, the details of which can be found in Table 5.3:

Table 5.3 Number of Questionnaires Distributed to MoE's Trainees

Work place	Supervisor questionnaire		Trainee questionnaire	
	Distributed quest	Valid response	Distributed quest	Valid response
Ministry of Education	180	108	290	165

The researcher also interviewed nine trainers from the MoE's Training Centre to achieve in-depth information about training.

It should be noted that some of the questionnaires were eliminated due to the following reasons, and therefore Table 5.2 and 5.3 present the valid responses as well:

- Too many items were missing which might affect the results of the study.
- Some answers indicated that the respondent did not read the questionnaire carefully.
- There were some contradictions in the answers either by mistakes or by misunderstanding of the questions.

5.7. Piloting

Once the researcher has generated a set of questions relating to each of the key themes, it is necessary to pilot these questions. These questions are the basis for the researcher's interaction with their interviewees (David and Sutton et al, 2004:88). Yates (2004:54)

argues that the pilot stages enable the questionnaire to be refined in readiness for the feasibility survey and provide valuable experience which will guide other aspects of the study. As indicated by Maxwell (1996:44), pilot studies serve some of the same functions as prior research, but they can be focused more precisely on the researcher's own concerns.

The pilot study has many advantages among which it can reduces errors in and misunderstanding of some of the questions, saves the researcher's times and increases his confidence in the instruments. A pilot study provides the opportunity to the researcher to evaluate his research instruments. It helps in proving the concept and finding problems, and is more beneficial than sending out a questionnaire to which inefficiency preparatory consideration has been given. In addition, according to Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) one of the advantages of conducting a pilot study is that it might give advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated.

Some of the reasons that Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) list for conducting pilot studies are:

- Developing and testing adequacy of research instruments;
- Assessing whether the research protocol is realistic and workable;
- Establishing whether the sampling frame and technique are effective;
- Identifying logistical problems which might occur using proposed methods;
- Estimating variability in outcomes to help determining sample size;

- Collecting preliminary data;.
- Assessing the proposed data analysis techniques to uncover potential problems;
- Developing a research question and research plan;
- Training a researcher in as many elements of the research process as possible.

Trainee questionnaires (Arabic version) were distributed in the Ministry of Justice in Riyadh to twenty-five trainees who attended training programmes in the IPA and fifteen questionnaires to their immediate supervisors as a pilot study. The reasons behind this study were clarified to the participants in order to elicit their comments and in-depth suggestions. As a result of the pilot study, some alterations were made to avoid ambiguity and misinterpretations of some questions.

5.8. Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

Having assembled the data, it was important for the researcher to make sure that they had validity and reliability, as the two important ways of assessing social science measures are reliability and validity. Dooley (1984:73) argues that validity is more important, when he explained that when a measure has a high validity, it must also have a high reliability. If it has a low validity, it is misnamed and misleading regardless of its reliability.

Validity can be divided into two types, internal validity and external validity. External validity refers to the extent to which the results of a study can be generalized, while internal validity refers to the degree to which a study exactly reflects or assesses the specific concept that the researcher is trying to measure. There are several types of internal validity: face validity, content validity, construct validity, predictive validity and concurrent validity (Alomar, 2004:68).

In order to check the content validity of the questionnaires and the interview, the researcher contacted experts in the field of human resources in Saudi Arabia namely: the General Director of the Management Development Department in the Ministry of Justice, Dr. Abdulaziz Alhassen, Dr. Bdran Alomar, Associate Professor in Public Administration Department at King Saud University, Mr. Mansour Alma'shog, the Director General of Private Programmes Department, and Ahmed Alhumaidan, the Director General of Admission and Law programmes, both in the Institute of Public Administration.

As to reliability, this refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions (Silverman, 2000:188). In other words, reliability is the degree to which an instrument measured is used under the same situation with the same topic the same way each time. According to Bryman (2001:71) one of the most widely used tests to measure reliability of a research's questionnaire is Cronbach's alpha test. It essentially calculates the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients. Bryman et al (2001) and Alomar (2001:72) argue that the figure 0.80 is regarded as a highly acceptable level of reliability, though many writers accept a slightly lower figure, for instance De Vaus (2002: 127). He states that for a scale to be reliable it should have as high an alpha coefficient as possible, at least 0.7. The figure of Cronbach's alpha test for this study was found to be 0.79 for the trainee's questionnaire and 0.98 for the immediate supervisor's questionnaire. This demonstrates an acceptable reliability coefficient for the former and a high reliability coefficient for the latter.

5.9. Data Analysis

According to Sekaran (2003:301), "After data are obtained through questionnaires, interview, observations, or through secondary sources, they need to be edited. The blank responses have to be handled in some way, the data coded, and a categorisation scheme has to be set up. The data will then have to be keyed in, and some software programme used to analyse them". In other words, data need to be prepared for analysis.

Bryman, (2001:240) and Aldohayan, (2002:15) argue that the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) is possibly the most widely used computer software for the analysis of quantitative data for social scientists. Using this powerful software all the questionnaires' data for this research study were defined and entered by the researcher. In the next chapter, the findings from the questionnaires will be presented. Because of the nature of the data and research questions, descriptive statistical methods were used. These methods include frequencies, percentages and means, in order to clarify the differences between the two research samples.

Some of the statistical approaches used in this research are:

- Descriptive statistics which consist of the techniques of frequency and percentage (frequency tables). Tables were used to provide frequencies of the participants' responses, the percentage, and the mean.

- The measure of correlation is used when there is a relationship between variables. Alomar (2004:238) argues that the most wildly used correlation coefficient is Pearson's correlation. It is, according to Bryman, (2004: 231) a method for examining relationships between interval/ratio variables.

- The paired t-test is used to measure whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other.

5.10. Difficulties and Limitations

It is normal in this kind of case study oriented research to encounter difficulties. As for this research, there were some difficulties and the researcher tried to overcome and deal with appropriately. Some of them were as follows:

1. Data collection of which took more time than expected (nine weeks) for the following reasons:

   - The targeted sample did not cooperate as expected though many of the participants were from the Ministry of Justice where the researcher works;

   - Most of the public organisations require a formal letter in order to allow the distribution of the questionnaires, which consumed more time;

   - Some of the targeted sample refused to take part in this study, for different reasons. These were not counted in the overall number of distributed questionnaires.

2. Access problem: The researcher encountered some difficulties in the process of distributing the questionnaires in the public sector. Without the researcher's personal relationship the gathering of research data could have taken far longer. According to Albahussain (2000:174) and Alqahtani (1996:216) in the Saudi society, the researcher's personal relationships are very important in facilitating fieldwork. Indeed, undeveloped civil society plays an important role in people's willingness to respond to questionnaires and interviews.

5.11. Conclusions:

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an outline of the research methods used in the fieldwork and to describe the procedures that were used to collect the data. It presents a description of the study samples and the statistical techniques used to analyse the data.

The strength of this study is that it sheds some light on the effectiveness of the training programmes in the public sector on the one hand, and on the other hand, it compares training programmes in out-organisation (IPA) with in-organisation (MoE) in the public sector. In addition, some of the objectives of this study were to discover the reasons for participating in training programmes, which training methods are most effective, to measure the trainee satisfaction, investigate what makes training less effective and measure the perceptions of the trainees' supervisors towards the knowledge, behaviour and skills of the trainees before and after training.

In order to collect the required data for this study, the triangulation technique was used, which means combining quantitative and qualitative methods to achieve the objectives of the research. The process of collecting data through survey in Saudi society is considered to be difficult unless the researcher has his own contacts to facilitate the process.

The most popular software SPSS was used to analyse the raw data which was coded and entered by the researcher. Descriptive analysis of the findings from the questionnaires will be presented and a discussion of interview analysis through the interpretation method will also be presented as main empirical chapters of this study.

CHAPTER SIX
PEERCEPTION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING IN MoE AND IPA: EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

6.1. Introduction:

This chapter will discuss the findings from the primary data collected by the main research method of this study, namely the questionnaires. Descriptive statistics are utilized to depict the basic features of the data in this study. In addition, they provide simple summaries about the samples and by utilizing descriptive statistics it is easy to describe general features of the data. Descriptive statistics are also used to present quantitative descriptions in a manageable form.

The statistical analysis of this chapter is divided into three sections:

- Demographic characteristics of the research samples;
- Descriptive analysis of the research questions;
- Comparison between the two samples.

The following ways of data analysis was utilised in providing answers to each research questions:

- Restatement of the research question;
- Tabulation of the findings based on frequencies and percentages of the responses to different categories related to research questions;
- Interpretation of the findings based on the understanding of the responses provided by the research samples to the items related to research questions;

6.2. Data Analysis.

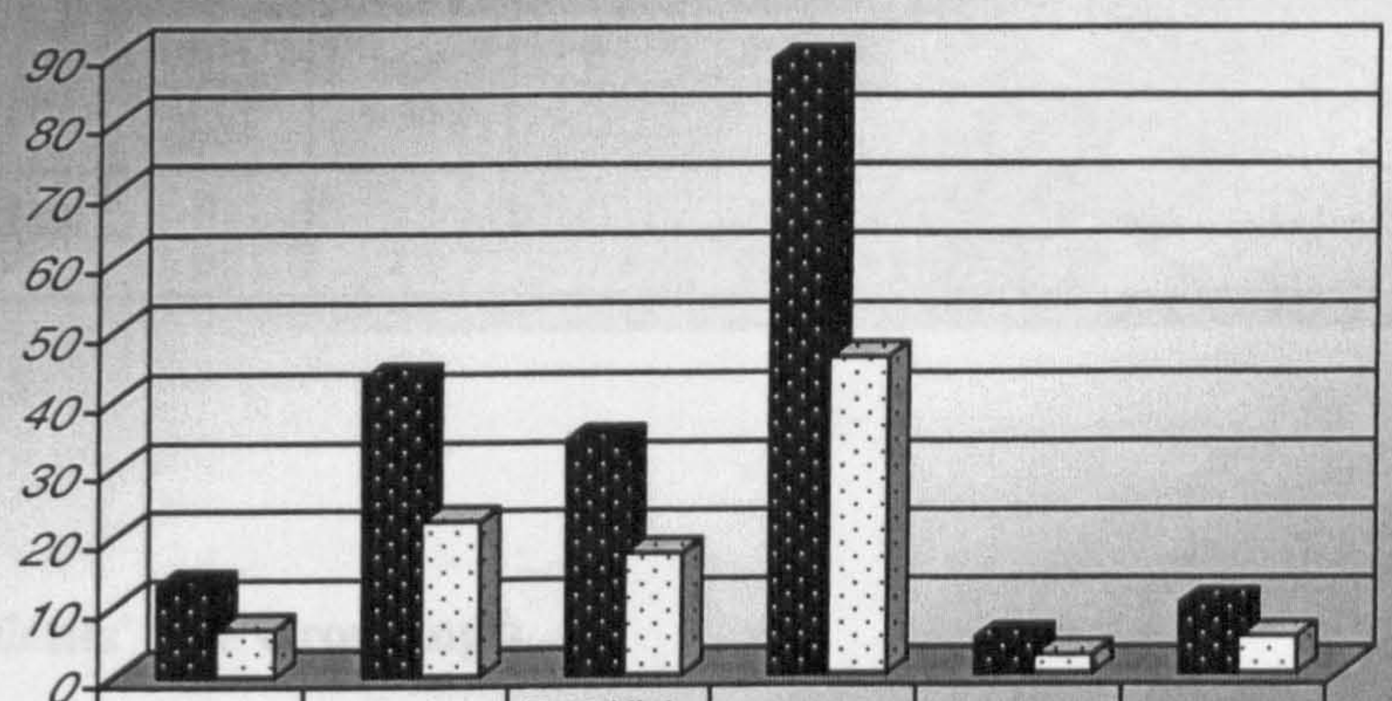
6.2.1. Demographic Characteristics

The first part of the questionnaire in the two samples concerns the demographic characteristics of the research samples in terms of education, age and experience.

6.2.1.1. Education levels of the respondents

Figure 6-1 shows the level of education of the IPA's respondents with the majority 45.9% holding a bachelor degree, and respondents holding high school diploma coming second with 22.2%. A small proportion of respondents 2.6% and 5.2% hold masters and PhD degrees respectively.

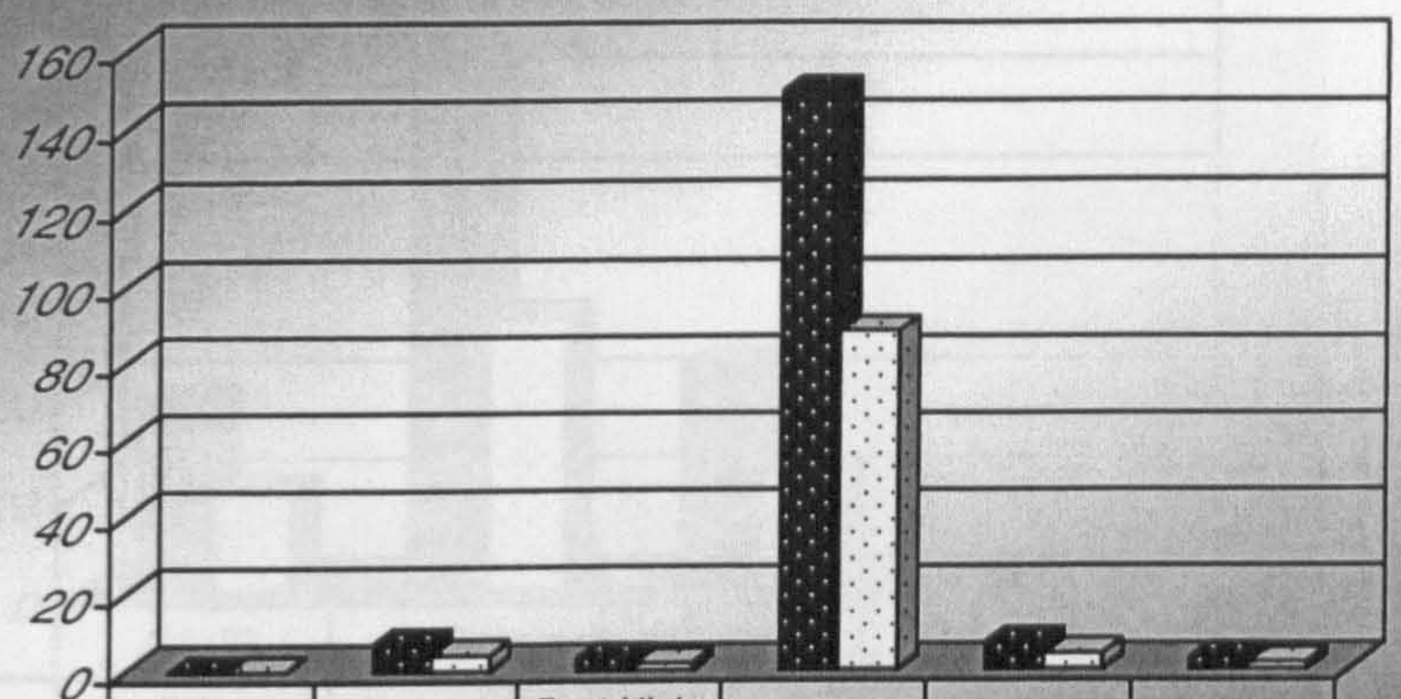
Figure 6-1 Educational levels of IPA's respondents



	Below than high school	High school	Post High School Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
Frequency	13	43	34	89	5	10
Percent	6.7	22.2	17.5	45.9	2.6	5.2

Figure 6-2 shows the educational level of the MoE respondents: it is obvious that the majority (88.2%) hold a bachelor degree. The remaining respondents (4.1%) attained high school levels and 4.1% hold master's degrees. The PhD and the post-high school holders were small proportion of 1.8% each. None of the respondents' qualifications were below high school diploma.

Figure 6-2 Educational levels of IPA's respondents



	Below than high scool	High school	Post High School Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
Frequency	0	7	3	149	7	3
Percent	0	4.1	1.8	88.2	4.1	1.8

6.2.1.2. Respondents' Age Groupings:

Figure 6-3 shows that the majority of IPA's respondents (55 %) were among the 30-39 year old age group. 23.6% were between 40-49 years old. 19.8% were between 20-29 years old, and lastly only 1.5% were between 50-59 years old. This result indicates that respondents in the 30-39 group are more likely interested in participating in training programme than other groups, while the oldest group had showed little interest in training programmes.

Figure 6-3 Age group of IPA's respondents

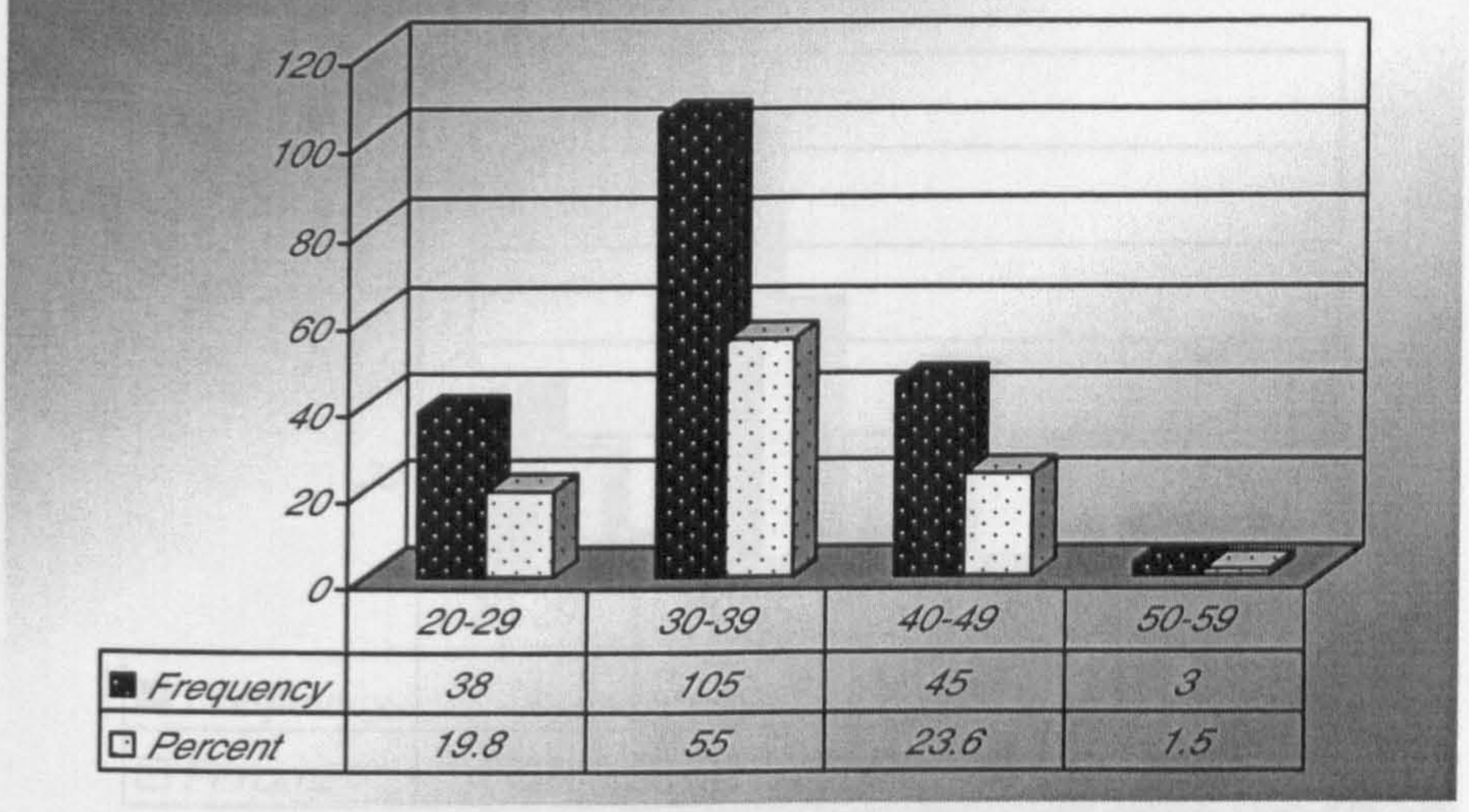
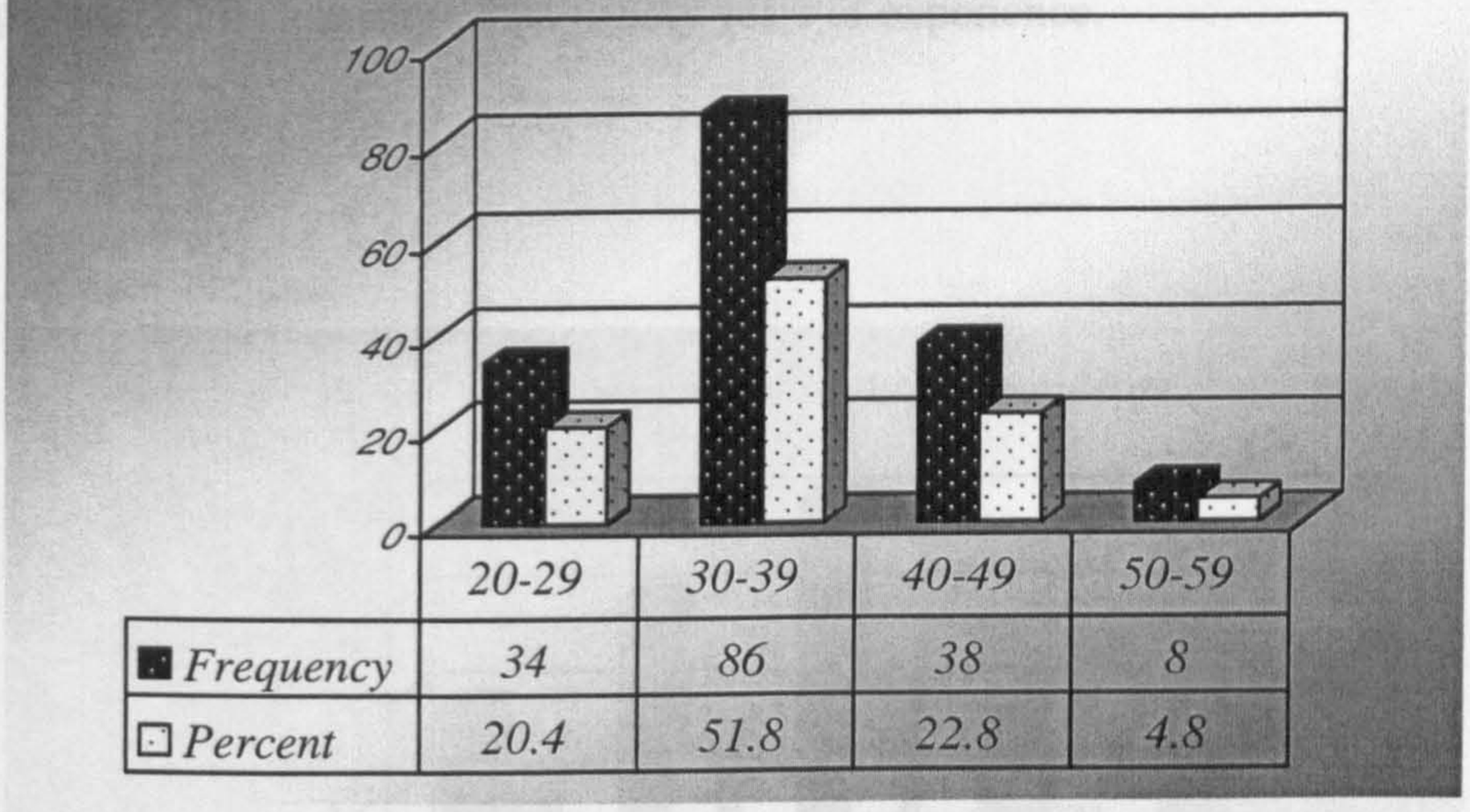


Figure 6-4 shows that the majority of MoE respondents (51.8%) comes from the 30-39 year old group, which closely corresponds to the result produced by the IPA sample. The rest of the sample is distributed as follows: 22.8% were between 40-39 years old, 20.4% were between 20-29 years old and 4.8% were between 50-59 years old group. As with IPA respondents the 30-39 age group has showed more interest in attending training programme comparing with other groups. The oldest group of respondents showed the least interest in training programmes.

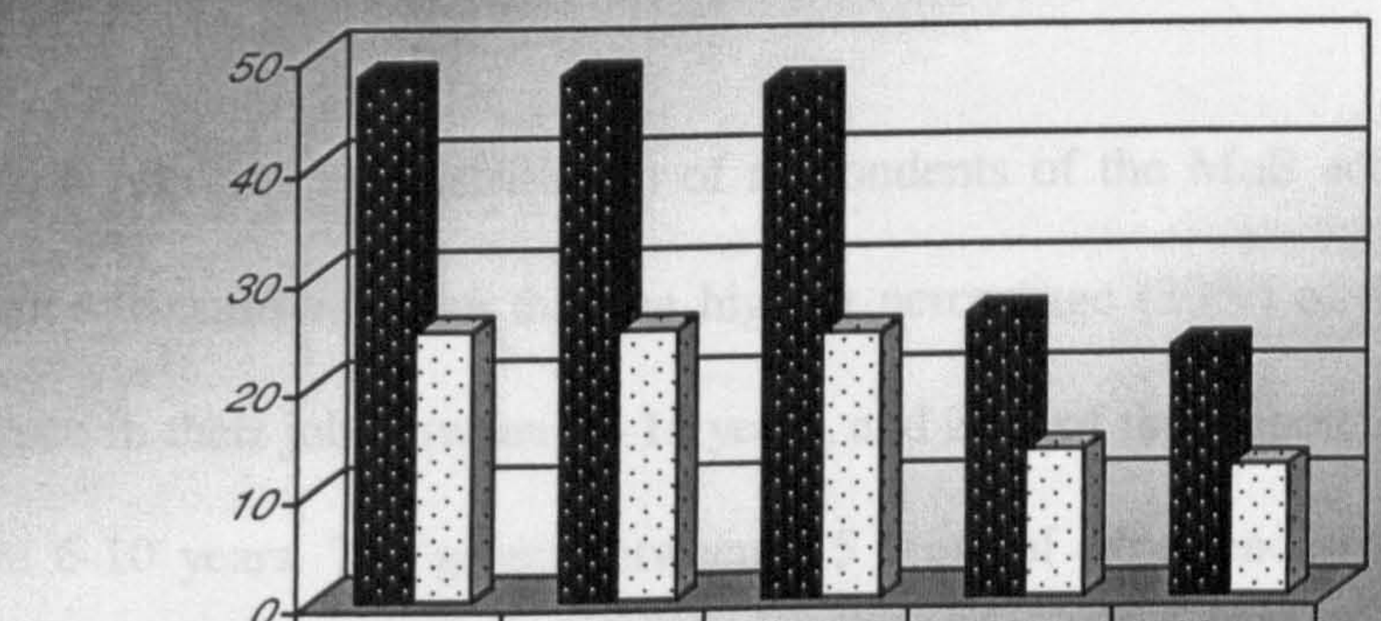
Figure 6-4 Age of MoE's respondents



	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59
Frequency	34	86	38	8
Percent	20.4	51.8	22.8	4.8

6.2.1.3. Experience category of the respondents:

Figure6-5 Experience of IPA's respondents

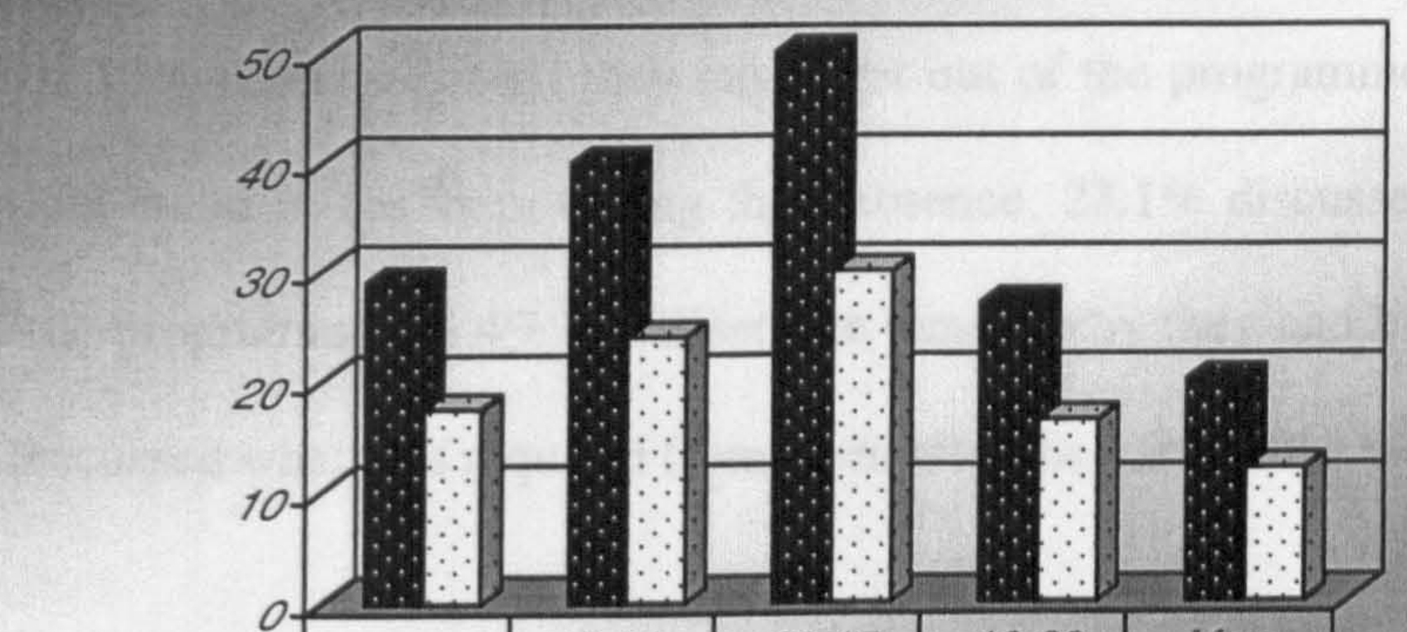


	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	10-15 Years	16-20 Years	More than 20
Frequency	48	48	47	26	23
Percent	25	25	24.5	13.5	12

Figure 6-5 presents the distribution of respondents of the IPA according to their years of experience. Results indicate that the highest percentage of the respondents, 25% had experience in their job between 1-5 years and, 25% had experience of between 6-10

years. 24.5% of the respondents had had 10-15 years of job experience, and a smaller percent, 12%, had more than twenty years of experience.

Figure 6-6 Experience of MoE's respondents



	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	10-15 Years	16-20 Years	More than 20
Frequency	29	40	50	27	20
Percent	17.5	24	30	16.4	12

Figure 6-6 presents the distribution of respondents of the MoE according to their job experience. Results indicate that the highest percentage (30%) of the respondents had experience in their job between 10-15 years, and 24% of the respondents had experience between 6-10 years. The group between 1-5 years of experience formed 17.5% of the sample. 16.4% of the respondents had had 16-20 years experience, and a small percent 12% had had more than twenty years of experience.

6.3. Organisational Information Prior to Attending the Programme

The IPA trainees were asked who was the first to suggest that they attend the training programme. Was it the trainee himself, his supervisors, or the training officer? The findings revealed that the majority, 87.7% of the sample, said that they chose to attend

training themselves. Only 9.2% said their immediate supervisors and a very small percentage of 2.6% said the training officer.

When the trainees from the IPA were asked whether they discussed attending the training programme with their supervisors, 51.8% of them said yes and 48.2 said no. The findings also revealed that the trainees and their supervisors discussions were as follows; 33.3% discussed what they might get out of the programme, 14.5% discussed who would stand in for them during their absence, 23.1% discussed the location and date of the programme, 14.4% discussed the reason why they had been nominated and 10.8% discussed what was required from them after they attend the programme.

With regard to the MoE's trainees, 69.8 chose to attend training by themselves, 10.7% said they attended after their supervisors suggestion. Only a small proportion of 3.0% were influenced by their training officers and 16.6% said their colleagues at work or the educational inspectors suggested that they attend training. When they were asked if they discussed their attendance with their supervisors, 39.6% of the MoE trainees said yes and 60.4% said no. However, of those who discussed their attendance with their supervisors, the discussion covered the following; 23.3% discussed what they might get out of the programme, 12.4% discussed who would stand in for them during their absence, 20.7% discussed the location and date of the programme, 11.2% discussed the reason why they had been nominated, and only 7.1% discussed what would be required from them after they attend the programme.

6.4. Descriptive Analysis of the Research Questions:

The results of the descriptive analysis of the research questions will be discussed in two sections. The first section presents the results from the IPA's respondents, and the second section presents the descriptive findings of the MoE's respondents.

6.4.1. Reasons for participating in the training programme:

IPA's respondents

There are different reasons for employees in the public sector in Saudi Arabia to participate in training programmes. The questionnaire provided six different reasons to choose from. The factors included in the questionnaire were: as part of an organisation plan, to get promotion, to get money allowance, to learn practical skills, developing theoretical abilities and changing the work environment. With such options, proactive and inactive reasons for participating in training programmes were provided to the respondents.

Table 6-1 Reasons for participating in training programme

Statements		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
Part of organisation plan.	F	67	91	20	10	5	1.96
	%	34.4	46.7	10.3	6.2	2.6	
To get promotion.	F	98	61	21	10	5	1.78
	%	50.3	31.3	10.8	5.1	2.6	
To get money allowance	F	22	56	29	67	19	3.03
	%	11.4	29.0	15.0	34.7	9.8	
Learning practical skills in the job.	F	86	88	10	4	7	1.76
	%	44.1	45.1	5.1	2.1	3.6	
Developing theoretical abilities.	F	68	88	31	5	3	1.91
	%	34.9	45.1	15.9	2.6	1.5	
To change the work environment.	F	42	76	36	32	8	2.42
	%	21.6	39.2	18.6	16.5	4.1	

SA= Strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= Strongly disagree M= Mean

It is clear from the distribution in Table 6-1, which depicts the mean value of each of the reasons, that 89.2% of the respondents with a mean consists of 1.76 agreed or strongly agreed that learning practical skills for the job was their reason for participating in training. 81.6% of the respondents with a mean consists of 1.78 attributed their participation (agree or strongly agree) in the training programme to getting promotion in the job. The findings also revealed that 81.1% of the respondents with a mean consists of 1.96 agreed or strongly agreed that their reason for participating in the programme was due to the organisation plan, while 80% of the respondents with a mean consists of 1.91 wanted to develop their theoretical skills. 60.8% of the respondents with a mean consists of 2.42 agreed or strongly agreed that they participated in order to change the work environment, and 29.4% of the sample with a mean consists of 1.78 said they were mainly hoping to improve their chances to get money allowance by participating in the training programmes.

MoE's respondents

Table 6-2 Reasons for Participating

Statements		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
Part of organisation plan.	F	69	81	14	4	1	1.74
	%	40.8	47.9	8.3	2.4	.6	
To get promotion.	F	11	21	30	59	48	3.66
	%	6.5	12.4	17.8	34.9	28.4	
To get money allowance	F	4	18	23	49	72	4.01
	%	2.4	10.8	13.9	29.5	43.4	
Learning practical skills in the job.	F	81	73	9	5	1	1.65
	%	47.9	43.2	5.3	3.0	.6	
Developing theoretical abilities.	F	67	77	17	4	1	1.77
	%	40.4	46.4	10.2	2.4	.6	
To change the work environment.	F	55	61	21	25	7	2.22
	%	32.5	36.1	12.4	14.8	4.1	

SA= Strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= Strongly disagree M= Mean

Table 6-2 shows that the principle reason for participating in the training programme that attracted 91.1% of the MoE's respondents, with a mean consists of 1.65, to agree or

strongly agree, was to learn practical skills for the job. The second most important reason that 88.7% of the respondents, with a mean consists of 1.74 agreed or strongly agreed was, as part of an organisation plan. Developing theoretical skills also showed a high positive response for 86.8% of the respondents with a mean consists of 1.77 agreed or strongly agreed about this reason. That respondents wanted to change the work environment, was obvious because 68.6% of them with a mean of 2.22 agreed or strongly agreed about changing the work environment. In contrast 72.9 % of the respondents with a mean of 4.01 disagreed or strongly disagreed when they were asked if they participated in the programme to get a money allowance. Moreover, 63.3% of the respondents with a mean of 3.66 also disagreed or strongly disagreed that they attended training because they wanted to get promotion.

6.4.2. Training methods.

6.4.2.1. Effectiveness of Training methods

IPA's respondents

Based on the data presented in table 6-3 the most effective training method was the group discussion, since 87.7% of the respondents with a mean consists of 1.83 strongly agreed or agreed that it was the most effective training method. The second most effective method with 82% of the respondents and a mean of 2.02 strongly agreed or agreed was lectures. The findings also demonstrate that the respondents strongly agreed or agreed for the rest of the methods in the following percentages: 80% with a mean consists of 2.09 for exercises or drills, 74.4% with a mean consists of 2.18 for audio visual aids, 68.5% with a mean consists of 2.44 for programme handouts, 60.5% with a mean consists of 2.53 for informal discussion with the participants, 46.3% with a mean consists of 2.87 for researches, and 45.3% with a mean consists of 2.60 for field visits as the least effective methods.

Table 6-3 Effectiveness of Training Methods

Statement		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
Lectures.	F	58	102	9	21	4	2.02
	%	29.9	52.6	4.6	10.8	2.1	
Group discussion.	F	84	87	7	6	11	1.83
	%	43.1	44.6	3.6	3.1	5.6	
Informal discussion with the participants.	F	23	95	38	27	12	2.53
	%	11.8	48.7	19.5	13.8	6.2	
Programme handouts.	F	34	99	16	30	15	2.44
	%	17.5	51.0	8.2	15.5	7.7	
Exercises or drills.	F	57	99	13	16	10	2.09
	%	29.2	50.8	6.7	8.2	5.1	
Field visits.	F	42	45	67	22	16	2.60
	%	21.9	23.4	34.9	11.5	8.3	
Researches.	F	16	73	49	27	27	2.87
	%	8.3	38.0	25.5	14.1	14.1	
Audio visual aids.	F	62	83	11	30	9	2.18
	%	31.8	42.6	5.6	15.4	4.6	
Total							2.32

SA= strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= strongly disagree M= Mean

MoE's respondents

There were different training methods used in the training programme at the MoE Training Centre and the respondents had to give their responses towards them. Table 6-4 shows that the most effective training method was the group discussion, since 77.8 % of the respondents with a mean consists of 2.14 agreed or strongly agreed about this method. The second most effective method was exercises or drills for 72.4% of the respondents with a mean consists of 2.19 agreed or strongly agreed. The results also revealed that the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed for the rest of the training methods as follows: 63% with a mean consists of 2.35 for field visits, 59.2% with a mean consists of 2.71 for lectures, 59.1% with a mean consists of 2.57 for programme handouts, 48.9% with a mean consists of 2.69 for informal discussion with participants, and 44.9% with a mean consists of 2.76 for audio visual aids. The method that 76.8% of

the respondents with a mean consists of 4.02 disagreed or strongly disagreed about its effectiveness was research

Table 6-4 Effectiveness of Training methods

Statement		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
Lectures.	F	14	86	17	38	14	2.71
	%	8.3	50.9	10.1	22.5	8.3	
Group discussion.	F	62	70	8	8	21	2.14
	%	36.4	41.4	4.7	4.7	12.4	
Informal discussion with the participants.	F	30	52	39	34	13	2.69
	%	17.9	31.0	23.2	20.2	7.07	
Programme handouts.	F	32	68	26	25	18	2.57
	%	18.9	40.2	15.4	14.8	10.7	
Exercises or drills.	F	60	61	14	17	15	2.19
	%	35.9	36.5	8.4	10.2	9.0	
Field visits.	F	40	64	34	17	10	2.35
	%	24.2	38.8	20.6	10.3	6.1	
Researches.	F	16	6	17	49	80	4.02
	%	9.5	3.6	10.1	29.2	47.6	
Audio visual aids.	F	22	53	49	29	14	2.76
	%	13.2	31.7	29.3	17.4	8.4	
Total							2.68

SA= Strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= Strongly disagree M= Mean

6.4.2.2. Satisfaction of Training Methods

IPA's respondents

The respondents emphasised the role of group discussion and lectures as the most effective training method, when they were asked whether they were satisfied with the training methods or they thought there should have been more, less or none of these methods. The majority, 82% as presented in Table 6-5, said they preferred more group discussion, and 61.3% opted for more lectures. The third choice, namely exercises and drills, received the support of 74.1% of respondents. With regard to programme handouts 46.4% of the respondents said there should be more, and 45.9% said there

should be less. The rest of the methods received the following support: 61% of the respondents wanted more of audio visual aids. 43.1% thought there should be less informal discussion with the participants. Respondents were not satisfied with field visits and 38.4% thought there should be no research and 34.2% also thought there should be no field visits. The overall mean of the training method satisfaction which consists of 1.59 indicates that the trainees were satisfied with the training methods.

Table 6-5 Satisfaction of Training Methods

		More	Less	None	Mean
Lectures.	F	119	71	4	1.41
	%	61.3	36.6	2.1	
Group discussion.	F	159	29	6	1.21
	%	82.0	14.9	3.1	
Informal discussion with the participants.	F	78	84	33	1.77
	%	40.0	43.1	16.9	
Programme handouts.	F	90	89	15	1.61
	%	46.4	45.9	7.7	
Exercises or drills.	F	143	45	5	1.28
	%	74.1	23.3	2.6	
Field visits.	F	89	38	66	1.88
	%	46.1	19.7	34.2	
Researches.	F	54	63	73	2.10
	%	28.4	33.2	38.4	
Audio visual aids.	F	119	57	18	1.48
	%	61.3	29.4	9.3	
Total					1.59

MoE's respondents

Table 6-6 shows the respondent reaction about satisfaction with training methods and whether they thought there should have been more, less or none. The findings revealed that the majority of the respondents required more group discussion and audio visual aids. The results showed 74.9% wanting more audio visual aids. Group discussion polled second in the training methods with 74.4% of the respondent wanting more. 69.2% of the respondents said there should be more of exercises or drills, 53.6% said

there should be more field visits, and 52.4% said there should be more programme handouts. In contrast, 46.2% of the respondents said there should be less informal discussion with participants. 55% said there should be fewer lectures and 38.2 said there should be none of research method. The overall mean of the MoE trainee responses which also consists of 1.59 indicates that the trainees were satisfied with the training methods.

Table 6-6 Training Method Satisfaction

		More	Less	None	Mean
Lectures.	F	69	93	7	1.63
	%	40.8	55.0	4.1	
Group discussion.	F	125	39	4	1.28
	%	74.4	23.2	2.4	
Informal discussion with the participants.	F	70	78	21	1.71
	%	41.4	46.2	12.4	
Programme handouts.	F	88	56	24	1.62
	%	52.4	33.3	14.3	
Exercises or drills.	F	117	45	7	1.35
	%	69.2	26.6	4.1	
Field visits.	F	90	32	46	1.74
	%	53.6	19.0	27.4	
Researches.	F	46	56	63	2.10
	%	27.9	33.9	38.2	
Audio visual aids.	F	125	24	18	1.36
	%	74.9	14.4	10.8	
Total					1.59

6.4.3. Respondents Views about the Programmes.

6.4.3.1. Satisfaction of Programme Presentation.

IPA's respondents

Table 6-7 Presentation Satisfaction

Statement		Yes	No	Not Sure	Mean
The presentation skills of the trainer.	F	138	33	24	1.42
	%	70.8	16.9	12.3	
The quality of the information presented.	F	134	44	17	1.40
	%	68.7	22.6	8.7	
The quality of the training materials.	F	125	53	17	1.45
	%	64.1	27.2	8.7	
The trainer's ability and knowledge.	F	130	33	32	1.50
	%	66.7	16.9	16.4	
Ability of passing information to trainees.	F	127	40	28	1.49
	%	65.1	20.5	14.4	
Total					1.45

According to the data presented in Table 6-7, most of the respondents had positive reactions toward the overall quality of programme presentation. This is obvious, since the overall mean of programme satisfaction is 1.45. In detail when the respondents were asked if they were satisfied with the presentations of the trainer, 70.8% of them stated that they were satisfied, 68.7% were happy with the quality of the information, 66.7% stated that the trainers' ability and knowledge was satisfactory, 65.1% were happy with his ability to convey information to trainees, and 64.1% stated that they were satisfied with the quality of the training materials.

MoE's respondents

Table 6-8 Presentation Satisfaction

Statement		Yes	No	Not Sure	Mean
The presentation skills of the trainer.	F	106	40	23	1.51
	%	62.7	23.7	13.6	
The quality of the information presented.	F	111	42	15	1.43
	%	66.1	25.0	8.9	
The quality of the training materials.	F	102	56	11	1.46
	%	60.4	33.1	6.5	
The trainer's ability and knowledge.	F	106	38	25	1.52
	%	62.7	22.5	14.8	
Ability of passing information to trainees.	F	109	41	19	1.47
	%	64.5	24.3	11.2	
Total					1.47

According to the data presented in Table 6-8, it is obvious from the overall mean which consists of 1.47 that there was satisfaction toward the quality of the programme's presentation. When they were asked whether they were satisfied with the presentation of the programme, 66.1% 0f the trainees said yes to the quality of the information presented, 64.5% said yes to the ability of passing information to trainees, 62.7% said yes to the presentation of the trainer and to the trainer ability and knowledge and 60.5% of the respondents said they were satisfied with the quality of the training materials.

6.4.3.2. Satisfaction of the training programmes

IPA's respondents

The overall mean of the respondents' satisfaction, 2.003 in Table 6-9 indicates that the respondents were satisfied with the training programmes. 82.5% of the respondents stated that they benefited from comparing their individual experience and views with others. 89.3% stated that they got some useful new ideas, 86.2% stated that they felt motivated to learn throughout the programme, 73.2% stated that they gained a better

understanding of what is required from them in their work 71.8% stated that they are confident about how to do their work, and lastly 80.3% opted for the option that the programme was suitable to their training needs.

Table 6-9 Programme Satisfaction

		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
I benefited from comparing my experience and views with those of others.	F	77	83	19	13	2	1.87
	%	39.7	42.8	9.8	6.7	1.0	
I got some useful new ideas.	F	75	99	11	8	2	1.78
	%	38.5	50.8	5.6	4.1	1.0	
I felt motivated to learn throughout.	F	60	108	12	10	5	1.93
	%	30.8	55.4	6.2	5.1	2.6	
I gained a better understanding of what is required in my work.	F	41	101	31	18	3	2.18
	%	21.1	52.1	16.0	9.3	1.5	
I am more confident about how to do my work.	F	48	92	33	15	7	2.18
	%	24.6	47.2	16.9	7.7	3.6	
The programme was suitable to my training needs.	F	51	104	15	19	4	2.07
	%	26.4	53.9	7.8	9.8	2.1	
							2.003

SA= strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= strongly disagree M= Mean

MoE's respondents

It is obvious from the overall mean (1.94) in Table 6-10 that the respondents were satisfied with training programmes which they participated in. The respondents either agreed or strongly agreed when they were asked about the following statements: I benefited from comparing my experience and views with those of others (92.9%) , I got some useful ideas (89.4%), I felt motivated to learn throughout (78.7%), I am more confident about how to do my work (76.8%), the programme was suitable to my training needs (76.9%), and I gained a better understanding of what is required in my work (74.5%).

Table 6-10 Programme Satisfaction

		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
I benefited from comparing my experience and views with those of others.	F	76	81	8	4	0	1.64
	%	45.0	47.9	4.7	2.4	0	
I got some useful new ideas.	F	64	87	13	5	0	1.76
	%	37.9	51.5	7.7	3.0	0	
I felt motivated to learn throughout.	F	55	78	22	12	2	1.98
	%	32.5	46.2	13.0	7.1	1.2	
I gained a better understanding of what is required in my work.	F	44	82	28	12	3	2.10
	%	26.0	48.5	16.6	7.1	1.8	
I am more confident about how to do my work.	F	44	85	21	17	1	2.08
	%	26.2	50.6	12.5	10.1	0.6	
The programme was suitable to my training needs.	F	47	83	16	20	3	2.11
	%	27.8	49.1	9.5	11.8	1.8	
Total							1.94

SA= Strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= Strongly disagree M= Mean

6.4.3.3. Effectiveness of the Training Programmes

IPA's respondents

The overall mean of the effectiveness of the training programmes which consists of 2.36 indicates that the respondents were generally satisfied. This is shown in Table 6-11. When they were asked whether the programme was significantly related to the job they currently do the majority, 79.9%, of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed. The learning objectives were clearly discussed as 75.7% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed. The findings also show that the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed for the rest as follows: the programme was helpful to me in doing my job (70.8%). The programme was enjoyable in the way it was presented (76.4%). The programme was successful (77.5%). The programme had a balance of theoretical and practical aspects (55.2%). The programme participant's experience was suitable (55.2%), and the

programme achieved its goal 64.7%. With regard to programme duration, when they were asked whether it was appropriate, 47.7% thought it was not appropriate compared with 41% who said it was sufficient.

Table 6-11 Programme Effectiveness

		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
The programme was significantly related to the job I currently do.	F	78	77	16	18	6	1.96
	%	40.0	39.5	8.2	9.2	3.1	
The learning objectives were adequately discussed at the beginning of the programme.	F	47	100	21	21	5	2.16
	%	24.2	51.5	10.8	10.8	2.6	
The programme was helpful to me in doing my job.	F	43	95	28	22	7	2.26
	%	22.1	48.7	14.4	11.3	3.6	
The programme was enjoyable in the way it was presented.	F	42	107	25	15	6	2.16
	%	21.5	54.9	12.8	7.7	3.1	
The programme was successful.	F	45	106	18	21	5	2.15
	%	23.1	54.4	9.2	10.8	2.6	
The programme duration was appropriate.	F	17	63	22	54	39	3.18
	%	8.7	32.3	11.3	27.7	20.0	
The programme had a balance of theoretical and practical aspects.	F	25	100	34	30	6	2.45
	%	12.8	51.3	17.4	15.4	3.1	
The programme participant's experience was suitable.	F	24	83	48	33	6	2.56
	%	12.4	42.8	24.7	17.0	3.1	
I think the programme achieved its goal.	F	28	98	38	23	8	2.41
	%	14.4	50.3	19.5	11.8	4.1	
Total							2.364

SA= Strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= Strongly disagree M= Mean

MoE's respondents

Table 6-12 Programme Effectiveness

		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
The programme was significantly related to the job I currently do.	F	74	64	10	17	3	1.88
	%	44.0	38.1	6.0	10.1	1.8	
The learning objectives were adequately discussed at the beginning of the programme.	F	37	68	43	16	4	2.30
	%	22.0	40.5	25.6	9.5	2.4	
The programme was helpful to me in doing my job.	F	32	90	24	22	1	2.23
	%	18.9	53.3	14.2	13.0	0.6	
The programme was enjoyable in the way it was presented.	F	40	91	19	17	1	2.10
	%	23.8	54.2	11.3	10.1	0.6	
The programme was successful.	F	38	95	19	16	1	2.09
	%	22.5	56.2	11.2	9.5	0.6	
The programme duration was appropriate.	F	16	65	23	24	41	2.95
	%	9.5	38.5	13.6	24.3	14.2	
The programme had a balance of theoretical and practical aspects.	F	16	90	30	24	9	2.53
	%	9.5	53.3	17.8	14.2	5.3	
The programme participants' experience was suitable.	F	21	95	35	17	1	2.30
	%	12.4	56.2	20.7	10.1	0.6	
I think the programme achieved its goal.	F	26	85	39	17	2	2.31
	%	15.4	50.3	23.1	10.1	1.2	
Total							2.29

SA= Strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= Strongly disagree M= Mean

The overall mean 2.29 of the effectiveness of the training programmes presented in Table 6-12 indicates that the respondents were generally happy. When they were asked whether the programme was significantly related to the job they currently do the majority 82.1% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed. The programme was successful as 78.7% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed. The findings also revealed that the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed to the degree shown when they were asked about the following: 72.2% said the programme was helpful to me in

doing my job, 69% said the programme was enjoyable in the way it was presented, 68.6% said the programme participants experience was suitable, 65.7% said I think the programme had achieved its goal, 62.8 said the programme had a balance of theoretical and practical aspects, 62.5 said the learning objectives were clearly discussed at the beginning of the programme. With regard to the duration of the programme 48% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the duration was appropriate and 47.7% disagreed or strongly disagreed.

6.5. Barriers Making Training less Effective

IPA's respondents

Table 6-13 Barriers Making Training less Effective

		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
Lack of support from my superior.	F	27	56	29	55	28	3.01
	%	13.8	28.7	14.9	28.2	14.4	
Lack of support from my colleagues.	F	19	60	29	67	19	3.04
	%	9.8	30.9	14.9	34.5	9.8	
Lack of support from my subordinates.	F	22	60	51	49	13	2.85
	%	11.3	30.8	26.2	25.1	6.7	
Insufficient knowledge on my part.	F	16	47	31	81	20	3.22
	%	8.2	24.1	15.9	41.5	10.3	
Insufficient skills on my part.	F	15	49	29	86	16	3.20
	%	7.7	25.1	14.9	44.1	8.2	
Lack of time to carry out change.	F	22	57	46	59	10	2.89
	%	11.3	29.4	23.7	30.4	5.2	
Lack of desire on my part to change.	F	6	16	31	86	56	3.87
	%	3.1	8.2	15.9	44.1	28.7	
Lack of suitable work environment (PCs, tools ...etc).	F	37	52	27	56	23	2.88
	%	19.0	26.7	13.8	28.7	11.8	
Inflexibility of regulations in dealing with change.	F	60	54	27	38	16	2.47
	%	30.8	27.7	13.8	19.5	8.2	
Total							3.045

SA= strongly agree A= Agree NS= not sure D= disagree SD= strongly disagree M= Mean

There are different barriers that might make training less effective, and the respondents were asked to give their views on nine possible barriers that could prevent them from getting the most from training. The overall mean which consists of 3.04 and also the mean of each barrier in Table 6-13 indicates that the respondents were mainly not sure whether these barriers would have an effect on the output of their training. Their views regarding the barriers were as follows: in the case of lack of support from superior, 42.5% strongly agreed or agreed and 42.6% strongly disagreed or disagreed; for lack of support of colleagues, 40.7% strongly agreed or agreed and 49.4% strongly disagreed or disagreed; for lack of support from subordinate, 42.1% strongly agreed or agreed and 31.8% strongly disagreed or disagreed. In contrast, the majority of the respondents were confident when asked if insufficient knowledge, insufficient skill or lack of desire on my part would make their training less effective. 51.8% of the respondent strongly disagreed or disagreed that insufficient knowledge on my part affected their training, and 52.3% strongly disagreed or disagreed that insufficient skill on my part affected their training, and 72.8% strongly disagreed or disagreed that lack of desire on their part had a negative effect on their training.

MoE's respondents

The respondents were asked to give their views regarding nine possible barriers that could prevent them from getting the most from training. The results in Table 6-14 and the overall mean of 2.86 shows that the respondents were not sure how likely these barriers could affect the output of their training. Their views regarding the barriers were as follows: with Lack of support from superior 38.5% strongly agreed or agreed and 37.9% strongly disagreed or disagreed; with Lack of support from colleagues 36.1% strongly agreed or agreed and 39% strongly disagreed or disagreed; with Lack of support from subordinate 32.5% strongly agreed or agreed and 33.3% strongly

disagreed or disagreed, with Insufficient knowledge on my part 47.6% strongly agreed or agreed and 31% strongly disagreed or disagreed, with Insufficient skills on my part 47.9% strongly agreed or agreed and 30.1% strongly disagreed or disagreed. With regard to Lack of desire on my part to change, the respondents were more confident since 64% of them strongly disagreed or disagreed. In contrast the barriers that they thought they might have an effect on the output of their training showed 56.8% strongly agreed or agreed about Lack of time to carry out change, 64.2% strongly agreed or agreed about the Lack of suitable work environment, and 68% of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed about Inflexibility of regulations in dealing with change.

Table 6-14 Barriers Making Training Less Effective:

		SA	A	NS	D	SD	M
Lack of support from my superior.	F	23	42	40	38	26	3.01
	%	13.6	24.9	23.7	22.5	15.4	
Lack of support from my colleagues.	F	12	49	42	47	19	3.07
	%	7.1	29.0	24.9	27.8	11.2	
Lack of support from my subordinates.	F	9	47	56	36	20	3.07
	%	5.4	28.0	33.3	21.4	11.9	
Insufficient knowledge on my part..	F	11	69	36	43	9	2.82
	%	6.5	41.1	21.4	25.6	5.4	
Insufficient skills on my part.	F	10	71	37	43	8	2.81
	%	5.9	42.0	21.9	25.4	4.7	
Lack of time to carry out change.	F	21	75	35	34	4	2.56
	%	12.4	44.4	20.7	20.1	2.4	
Lack of desire on my part to change.	F	6	24	31	66	42	3.67
	%	3.6	14.2	18.3	39.1	24.9	
Lack of suitable work environment (PCs, tools ..etc).	F	32	76	16	33	11	2.49
	%	19.0	45.2	9.5	19.6	6.5	
Inflexibility of regulations in dealing with change.	F	45	70	21	23	10	2.31
	%	26.6	41.4	12.4	13.6	5.9	
Total							2.868

SA= Strongly agree A= Agree NS= Not sure D= Disagree SD= Strongly disagree M= Mean

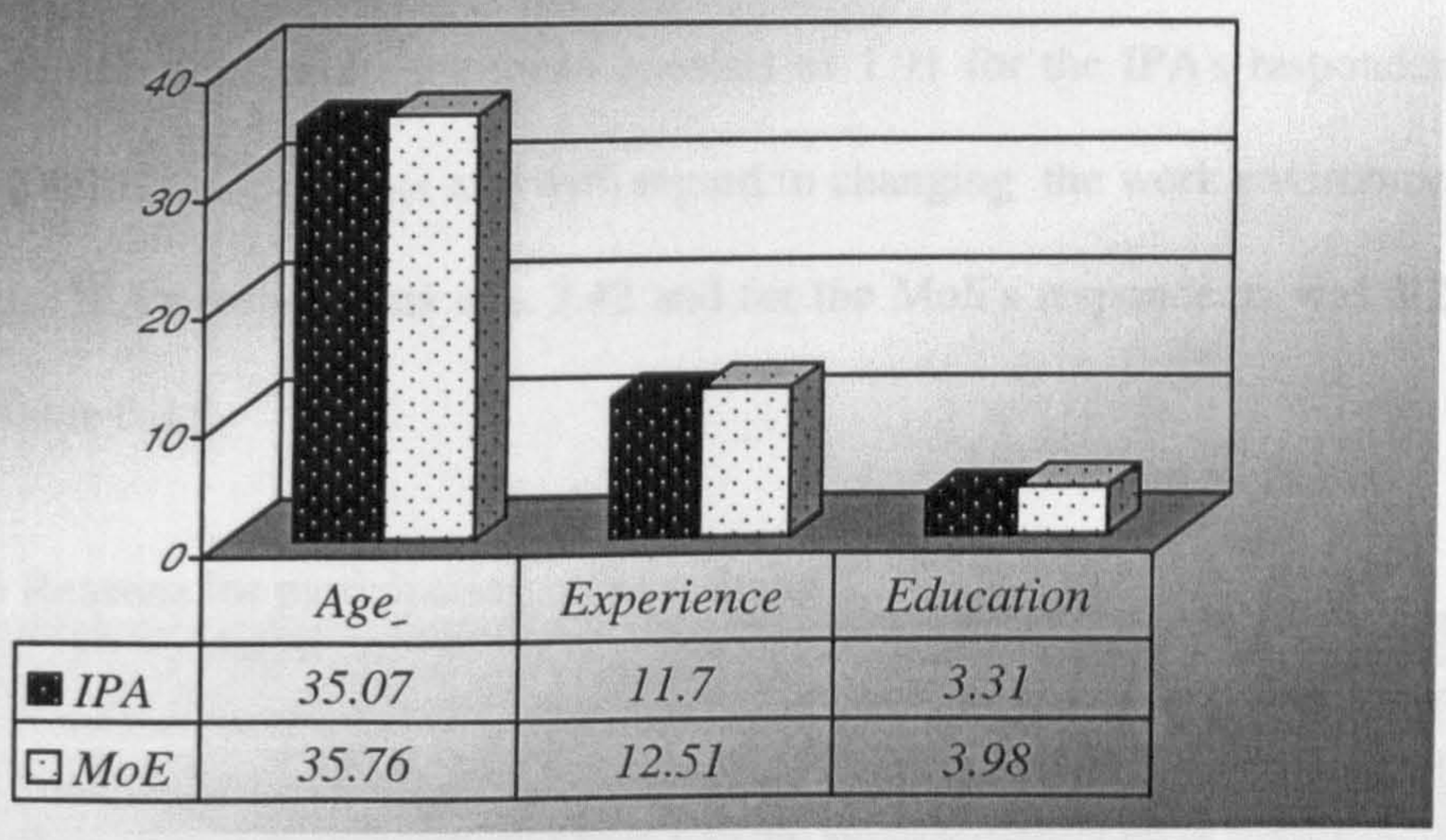
6.6. A Comparison between the Two Samples

In this section a comparison is set to investigate the differences between the results of the two research samples from; the IPA's respondents and the MoE's respondents.

6.6.1. Differences due to demographic characteristics:

It is obvious from Figure 6-7 that there is no significant difference between the IPA respondents and the MoE respondents with regard to age and experience. As far as education is concerned MoE respondents had a higher level of education with a mean value of 3.98 comparing with 3.31 for the IPA respondents.

Figure 6-7 Differences due to Demographic Characteristics



- Figure 6-7

6.6.2. Reasons for Participating in the Training

The means in Table 6-15 show the differences between the two samples with regard to the reasons for participating in the training programmes. Clearly, the widest variation between the two samples related to the importance of getting promotion through attending training programmes. The mean was 1.78 for the IPA respondents and 3.66 for the MoE respondents. This reflects that the more training programmes the IPA

respondents attend the more likely they are to get promotion. In contrast the MoE respondents do not benefit so much from attending the training programme as far as the promotion in the job is concerned. The second reason which significantly differed in the two samples was making use of the training money allowance. The IPA respondents had more interest in getting a money allowance through attending training programmes with a mean value of 3.03 than the MoE respondents whose mean is 4.01. The rest of the results indicate no significant differences between the two samples.

It came as follows; part of the organisation's plan a mean consists of 1.96 for the IPA's respondents and 1.74 for the MoE's respondents; learning practical skills in the job a mean consists of 1.76 for the IPA's respondents and 1.65 for the MoE's respondents; developing theoretical abilities a mean consists of 1.91 for the IPA's respondents and 1.77 for the MoE's respondents and with regard to changing the work environment the mean for the IPA's respondents was 2.42 and for the MoE's respondents was 2.22 as it shown in Table 6-15.

Table 6-15 Reasons for participating in the training

Statement	Mean	
	IPA	MoE
Part of the organisation's plan.	1.96	1.74
Training is important to get promotion in my job.	1.78	3.66
Making use of the training money allowance.	3.03	4.01
Learning practical skills in the job.	1.76	1.65
Developing theoretical abilities.	1.91	1.77
I want to change the work environment.	2.42	2.22
Total	2.140	2.505

6.6.3. Training methods

6.6.3.1. Effectiveness of the Training Methods

Table 6-16 Effectiveness of the Training Methods.

Statement	Mean	
	IPA	MoE
Lectures.	2.02	2.71
Group discussion.	1.83	2.14
Informal discussion with the participants.	2.53	2.69
Programme handouts.	2.44	2.57
Exercises or drills.	2.09	2.19
Field visits.	2.60	2.35
Researches.	2.87	4.02
Audio visual aids.	2.18	2.76
Total	2.32	2.68

Table 6-16 shows the means of the effectiveness of the training methods in the study samples. The overall mean indicates no significance difference between the two samples. Individually the only significance difference was in researches method. The respondents of the MoE thought it was an ineffective training method with a mean consists of 4.02, while the mean of the IPA respondents, which was 2.87, indicates that they were not sure about its effectiveness. Other means differences are for lectures 2.02 for the IPA respondents and 2.71 for the MoE respondents; for group discussion 1.83 for the IPA respondents and 2.14 for the MoE respondents; for informal discussion with the participants 2.53 for the IPA respondents and 2.69 for the MoE respondents; for programme handouts 2.44 for the IPA respondents and 2.57 for the MoE respondents; for exercises or drills 2.09 for the IPA respondents and 2.19 for the MoE respondents; for field visits 2.60 for the IPA respondents and 2.35 for the MoE respondents; for audio visual aids it was 2.18 for IPA respondents and 2.76 for the MoE respondents.

6.6.3.2. Satisfaction of the Training Methods

Table 6-17 Satisfaction of the Training Methods

Statement	Mean	
	IPA	MoE
Lectures.	1.41	1.63
Group discussion.	1.21	1.28
Informal discussion with the participants.	1.77	1.71
Programme handouts.	1.61	1.62
Exercises or drills.	1.28	1.35
Field visits.	1.88	1.74
Researches.	2.10	2.10
Audio visual aids.	1.48	1.36
Total	1.59	1.59

Clearly, the findings in Table 6-17 shows that the overall means of the both samples are identical. Although there was general dissatisfaction with the training methods, this was obvious in the respondents suggestion of either more, less or none of these methods. Nevertheless this does not indicate that these methods are ineffective. Apart from the research method which the majority of trainees in both samples suggested there should have been none of this method, the means of the rest of the methods came as follows; lectures 1.41 for the IPA respondents and 1.63 for the MoE respondents; Group discussion 1.21 for the IPA respondents and 1.28 for the MoE respondents; Informal discussion with the participants 1.77 for the IPA respondents and 1.71 for the MoE respondents; Programme handouts 1.61 for the IPA respondents and 1.62 for the MoE respondents; Exercises or drills 1.28 for the IPA respondents and 1.35 for the MoE respondents; Field visits 1.88 for the IPA respondents and 1.74 for the MoE respondents and the mean of the Audio visual aids was 1.48 for the IPA respondents and 1.36 for the MoE respondents as presented in Table 6-17.

6.6.4. Respondents Views about the Programmes

6.6.4.1. Satisfaction with Programme's Presentation

Table 6-18 Presentation Satisfaction

Statement	Mean	
	IPA	MoE
The presentation skills of the trainer.	1.42	1.51
The quality of the information presented.	1.40	1.43
The quality of the training materials.	1.45	1.46
The trainer ability and knowledge.	1.50	1.52
Ability of passing information to trainees clearly.	1.49	1.47
Total	1.45	1.47

As can be seen in Table 6-18 there is no significance difference between the two samples. The overall mean in both samples shows their satisfaction about the programme presentation. The finding revealed that when both groups were asked about the presentation skills of the trainer, they showed their satisfaction with a mean consists of 1.42 for the IPA respondents and 1.51 for the MoE respondents; The quality of the information presented the responses' means of the IPA respondents was 1.40 and 1.43 for the MoE respondents; The quality of the training materials the mean for IPA respondents was 1.45 and 1.46 for the MoE respondents, The trainer ability and knowledge the mean was 1.50 for the IPA respondent and 1.52 for the MoE respondents, and The ability of passing information to trainees clearly the mean was 1.45 for the IPA respondents and 1.47 for the MoE respondents.

6.6.4.2. Programme Satisfaction.

Table 6-19 Programme satisfaction:

Statement	Mean	
	IPA	MoE
I benefited from comparing my experience and views with those of others.	1.87	1.64
I got some useful new ideas.	1.78	1.76
I felt motivated to learn throughout.	1.93	1.98
I gained a better understanding of what is required in my work.	2.18	2.10
I am more confident about how to do my work.	2.18	2.08
The programme was suitable to my training needs.	2.07	2.11
Total	2.003	1.946

Asked about how satisfied they were towards the training programmes, participants of both samples showed positive responses. The results shown in Table 6-19 indicate that the difference in the overall means was not significant. As can be seen in the aforementioned table the means of each statements came as follows; I benefited from comparing my experience and views with those of others 1.87 for the IPA respondent; I got some useful new ideas 1.78 for the IPA respondents and 1.76 for the MoE respondents, I felt motivated to learn throughout 1.93 for the IPA respondents and 1.98 for the MoE respondents; I gained a better understanding of what is required in my work 2.18 for the IPA respondents and 2.10 for the MoE respondents; I am more confident about how to do my work 2.18 for the IPA respondents and 2.08 for the MoE respondents; The programme was suitable to my training needs 2.07 for the IPA respondents and 2.11 for the MoE respondents.

6.6.4.3. Programme effectiveness

Table 6-20 Programmes' effectiveness

Statement	Mean	
	IPA	MoE
The programme was significantly related to the job I currently do.	1.96	1.88
The learning objectives were adequately discussed at the beginning of the programme.	2.16	2.30
The programme was helpful to me in doing my job.	2.26	2.23
The programme was enjoyable in the way it was presented.	2.16	2.10
The programme was successful.	2.15	2.09
The programme duration was appropriate.	3.18	2.95
The programme had a balance of theoretical and practical aspects.	2.45	2.53
The participant's experience was suitable.	2.56	2.30
I think the programme had achieved its goal.	2.41	2.31
Total	2.36	2.29

When the respondents were questioned about their views about the programme effectiveness the results are displayed in Table 6-19. The two samples had almost the same responses about the effectiveness of the programmes. This is clear from the overall mean shown in the table above. The results of each statements came as follows; The programme was significantly related to the job I currently do mean was 1.96 for the IPA respondents and 1.88 for the MoE respondents; The learning objectives were adequately discussed at the beginning of the programme mean was 2.16 for the IPA respondents and 2.30 for the MoE respondents; The programme was helpful to me in doing my job mean was 2.26 for the IPA respondents and 2.23 for the MoE respondents; The programme was enjoyable in the way it was presented mean was 2.16

for the IPA respondents and 2.10 for the MoE respondents; The programme was successful mean was 2.15 for the IPA respondents and 2.09 for the MoE respondents; The programme had a balance of theoretical and practical aspects mean was 2.45 for the IPA respondents and 2.53for the MoE respondents; The participant's experience was suitable the mean was 2.56 for the IPA respondents and 2.30 for the MoE respondents; I think the programme had achieved its goal mean was 2.41 for the IPA respondents and 2.31 for the MoE respondents; and with the regard to The programme duration was appropriate, neither group was happy. This is clear from the mean which was 3.18 for the IPA respondents and 2.95 for the MoE respondents.

6.6.5. Barriers Making Training less Effective

Table 6-21 Barriers Making Training less Effective

Statement	Mean	
	IPA	MoE
Lack of support from my superior.	3.01	3.01
Lack of support from my colleagues.	3.04	3.07
Lack of support from my subordinates.	2.85	3.07
Insufficient knowledge on my part..	3.22	2.82
Insufficient skills on my part.	3.20	2.81
Lack of time to carry out change.	2.89	2.56
Lack of desire on my part to change.	3.87	3.67
Lack of suitable work environment.	2.88	2.49
Inflexibility of regulations in dealing with change.	2.47	2.31
Total	3.04	2.86

The impression of the respondents in both samples about the possible barriers that could prevent them from getting the most from training is presented in Table 6-21. The results indicate that the respondents had almost the same fears about these barriers. The means

of their views regarding these barriers were as follows: Lack of support from superior 3.01 for IPA respondents and 3.01 for the MoE respondents; Lack of support of colleagues 3.04 for IPA respondents and 3.07 for the MoE respondents; Lack of support from subordinate 2.85 for IPA respondents and 3.07 for the MoE respondents; insufficient knowledge on my part 3.22 for IPA respondents and 2.82 for the MoE respondents; insufficient skills on my part 3.20 for IPA respondents and 2.81 for the MoE respondents; Lack of time to carry out change 2.89 for IPA respondents and 2.56 for the MoE respondents; Lack of suitable work environment 2.88 for IPA respondents and 2.49 for the MoE respondents; and Inflexibility of regulations in dealing with change 2.47 for IPA respondents and 2.31 for the MoE respondents. With regard to Lack of desire on my part to change, the majority of both samples refused to regard this as a barrier with a mean consist of 3.87 for the IPA respondents and 3.67 for the MoE respondents.

It is worth noting that both study groups had almost the same impressions about the training programmes. This may reflect that both samples were from the public sector.

6.7. Immediate supervisor

6.7.1. Trainee Knowledge and Information

The results in Table 6-22 indicate that the immediate supervisors of the respondents of the IPA believe that trainees' knowledge and information had improved after attending the training programmes. This is clear from the overall mean which was 3.39 and stander deviation which was .97 prior to the training programme. After the training the mean improved to 4.16 and .77 for the stander deviation. The same thing could be said about the immediate supervisors of the MoE's respondents. The findings indicate that they believe that trainees had improved their knowledge and information after attending

the training programme. The overall mean was 3.38 and the stander deviation was 1.05 prior the training programme and after attending the training the mean was 4.24 and 0.84 for the standard deviation.

Table 6-22 Trainee Knowledge and Information

Statement	IPA				MoE			
	Mean		Sd		Mean		Sd	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Trainee's application of organisation al methods.	3.32	4.08	.94	.79	3.23	4.11	1.02	0.90
The level of trainees' knowledge.	3.43	4.25	1.03	.58	3.46	4.27	1.01	0.79
Trainee's familiarity with new information needed for the job requirements.	3.44	4.20	.90	.83	3.43	4.35	1.03	0.75
Trainee's understanding of organisation al goals.	3.39	4.12	1.01	.90	3.41	4.25	1.15	0.93
Total	3.39	4.16	.97	.77	3.38	4.24	1.05	0.84

Sd = standard deviation

6.7.2. Behaviour

The responses of the trainees' immediate supervisors towards the behaviour of the trainees in both samples after attending the training programmes were positive. This is clearly shown in Table 6-23. The overall mean of IPA respondents had improved from 3.64 prior training to 3.96 after attending the training programme. The MoE respondents had also changed positively after attending the training programmes. As indicated in the above table the overall mean prior to attending the training programme was 3.26 and it was improved to 4.26 after attending the training programme.

Table 6-23 Behaviour

Statement	IPA				MoE			
	Mean		Sd		Mean		Sd	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Trainee's readiness to work as part of a team.	3.56	4.33	0.93	0.78	3.56	4.34	1.06	0.74
Trainee's objectivity in handling their work in their departments.	3.68	4.35	0.91	0.72	3.79	4.42	1.03	0.73
Trainee's cooperation with colleagues.	4.08	4.61	0.93	0.59	3.81	4.30	1.02	0.78
Trainee's independent behavior in doing the job, not becoming dependent on their superiors.	3.62	4.18	0.93	0.68	3.62	4.33	1.04	0.82
Trainee's ability to solve problems.	3.32	3.97	1.08	0.91	3.52	4.30	1.06	0.76
Trainee's initiative and innovation in introducing change to improve methods of work.	3.24	3.90	0.94	0.82	3.22	4.10	1.10	0.74
Trainee's dealing with rules and regulations in a flexible way to serve the organisation 's objectives.	3.47	4.05	0.98	0.84	3.35	4.10	0.97	0.82
Trainee's concern for and commitment to the organisation 's objectives.	3.51	4.02	1.04	0.82	3.38	4.20	1.08	0.82
Trainee's response to compliance with superiors in carrying out orders.	4.17	4.59	0.88	0.61	3.92	4.26	1.06	0.86
Trainee's utilization of office hours in accomplishing job requirements.	3.71	4.13	0.98	0.80	3.61	4.28	1.12	0.86
Trainee's utilization of the best available resources in the work setting.	3.71	4.18	0.92	0.85	3.51	4.26	1.14	0.88
Trainee's ability to carry out or take additional responsibility at work.	3.63	4.17	1.04	0.90	3.56	4.19	1.14	0.93
Trainee's effort in keeping the regular office hours.	3.72	4.12	1.10	0.92	3.91	4.30	1.07	0.82
Total	3.64	3.96	.97	.78	3.59	4.26	1.06	0.81

Table 6-23

6.7.3. Skills

Table 6-24 Skills

Statement	IPA				MoE			
	Mean		Sd		Mean		Sd	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
Trainee's ability to set priorities and arrangements.	3.35	3.95	1.01	0.87	3.49	4.19	0.94	0.85
The level of trainee's skills.	3.61	4.30	0.96	0.68	3.50	4.31	0.96	0.79
Trainee's ability to recognize obstacles or problems and deal with them.	3.43	4.06	0.93	0.83	3.41	4.16	1.00	0.84
Trainee's ability to accomplish job requirements on time.	3.86	4.36	0.92	0.75	3.69	4.29	0.99	0.6
Trainee's ability to coordinate work between departments.	3.55	3.97	0.98	0.87	3.29	4.13	1.02	0.90
Trainee's ability to make effective suggestions about problems related to their work	3.35	3.99	1.02	0.91	3.36	4.13	1.00	0.87
Trainee's ability to assess their own training needs	3.48	4.15	1.05	0.94	3.35	4.14	1.03	0.89
Trainee's ability to assess their subordinates training needs.	3.18	3.68	1.12	1.17	3.13	3.88	1.12	1.07
Total	3.47	4.05	0.99	0.87	3.40	4.15	1.00	0.87

Table 6-24

With regard to the skills of the trainees before and after attending the training programmes, the immediate supervisors had also positive reactions towards the effects of training on their subordinates. The overall mean of the IPA respondents prior the training programme was 3.47 and it was improved to 4.05 after attending the programme. In addition the MoE respondents had also reacted positively towards their subordinates. The overall mean was 3.40 prior to attending the training programmes but improved to 4.15 after attending the training programmes.

6.8. Analytical Statistical Analysis:

To compare the two research samples, the t-test was utilized to check if there were a significant difference between the IPA respondents and the MoE respondents regarding the training programmes.

As regard to programmes' effectiveness, Table 6-25 demonstrates the t-test results of the differences between the IPA and MoE respondents.

Table 6-25 t-test Programme Effectiveness

Programme Effectiveness	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
1) IPA	2.36	0.69	0.913	0.362
2) MOE	2.30	0.67		

Though it is clear that the IPA respondents had a higher mean-value, the t-test results revealed that there was no significant difference between the IPA respondents and the MOE respondents regarding the effectiveness of training programmes provided by both sectors ($t=0.913$ and $p>0.05$).

Table 6-26 t-test Satisfaction

Satisfaction	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
1) IPA	2.00	0.70	0.783	0.434
2) MOE	1.95	0.68		

Table 6-26 shows the t-test results for the differences between IPA and MOE respondents regarding training programmes satisfaction. Though it is clear that the IPA respondents had a higher mean-value, the t-test results revealed that there was no significant difference between the IPA respondents and the MOE respondents regarding satisfaction about the training programmes provided by both sectors ($t=0.783$ and $p>0.05$).

Table 6-27 t-test Tool Effectiveness

Tools' effectiveness	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
1) IPA	2.32	0.68	-1.263	.207
2) MOE	2.44	0.82		

Table 6-27 shows the t-test results for the differences between IPA and MOE respondents regarding tool effectiveness. Though it is clear that the IPA respondents had a higher mean-value, the t-test results revealed that there was no significant difference between the IPA respondents and the MoE respondents regarding the effectiveness about tools provided by both sectors (t=-1.263 and p>0.05).

Table 6-28 t-test Tool Satisfaction

Tool satisfaction	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
1) IPA	1.590	0.338	-0.190	0.850
2) MOE	1.597	0.334		

Table 6-28 shows that there was no significance difference between the IPA respondents and the MoE respondents regarding tool satisfaction (t= -0.190 and p>0.05).

Table 6-29 t-test Presentation Satisfaction

Presentation satisfaction	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
1) IPA	1.45	0.498	-0.440	0.660
2) MOE	1.47	0.463		

Table 6-29 shows that there was no significance difference between the IPA respondents and the MoE respondents regarding the satisfaction of programme presentations (t=-0.440 and p>0.05).

Table 6-30 t-test Reasons

Reasons	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value
1) IPA	2.14	0.53	-6.364	0.0001
2) MOE	2.50	0.55		

Table 6-30 depicts that there is a significant difference between the IPA respondents and the MoE regarding the reasons for participating in the training programmes ($t=-6.364$ and $p<0.05$).

To test the relationship between training programme effectiveness and respondent views about the tools used in training programmes, the Pearson correlation was used. Correlation results are included in Table 6-31.

Table 6-31 Pearson Correlation Tool Effectiveness

All respondents		**Programme Effectiveness**
Tool effectiveness	Correlation coefficient "R"	0.287
	P-value	0.000
MOE respondents		**Programme Effectiveness**
Tool effectiveness	Correlation coefficient "R"	0.138
	P-value	0.070
IPA respondents		**Programme Effectiveness**
Tool effectiveness	Correlation coefficient "R"	0.454
	P-value	0.000

Table 6-31 shows that there is a significant correlation between the overall training programme effectiveness and respondent views from both samples about the effectiveness of the tools used in training programmes ($r=0.287$ and $p<0.001$). The same conclusion was found among the IPA respondents ($r=0.454$ and $p<0.001$). However, results shows that there is no significant correlation between the training programme effectiveness and MoE respondents' views about the effectiveness of the tools used in training programmes ($r=0.138$ and $p>0.05$).

Relationship between Work Environment and Expected Barriers:

Table 6.32 demonstrates the relationship between work environment and expected barriers as regards the work environment.

Table 6-32 Pearson Correlation Availability of Good Environment

All respondents		Expected barriers 1=extremely expected, 5= extremely not expected
Availability of good environment 1=Strongly agree, 5=Strongly disagree	Correlation coefficient "R"	-0.356
	P-value	0.000
MOE respondents		**Expected barriers** 1=extremely expected, 5= extremely not expected
work environment	Correlation coefficient "R"	-0.435
	P-value	0.000
IPA respondents		**Expected barriers** 1=extremely expected, 5= extremely not expected
work environment	Correlation coefficient "R"	-0.279
	P-value	0.000

Table 6-32 shows the following:

- The more respondents in both sectors believe that they have a healthy environment for staff development, the fewer barriers they expect to face after attending training programmes (r=-0.356 and p<0.001).
- The more IPA respondents believe that they have a healthy environment for staff development, the fewer barriers they expect to face after attending training programmes (r=-0.279 and p<0.001).
- The more MoE respondents believe that they have a healthy environment for staff development, the fewer barriers they expect to face after attending training programmes (r=-0.435 and p<0.001).

6.9. Conclusion

This chapter presents the finding of the research as a result of the descriptive and analytical analysis through the quantitative method used in this research, namely the trainee's questionnaire and the immediate supervisor's questionnaire. The statistical analysis was divided into three sections: first the demographic characteristics of the

research samples were presented, which is followed by a descriptive analysis of the research questions. The analysis was completed with a comparison between the two samples.

In order to provide answers to each research questions the following methods of data analysis was utilised, restatement of the research question; followed by tabulation of the findings based on frequencies and percentages of the responses to different categories related to research questions. Finally, interpretation of the findings based on the understanding of the responses provided by the research samples to the items related to research questions were presented.

CHAPTER SEVEN
TRAINERS' PERCEPTIONS ON TRAINING PROGRAMMES IN THE MoE AND IPA: INTERVIEW DATA ANALYSIS

7.1. Introduction

It was explained in a previous chapter that in order to fulfil the objectives of this research, two instruments were used to collect primary data, namely the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview. The objective of this chapter is to present the findings gained from the interview instrument. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, a semi-structured interview schedule was conducted with eighteen trainers, nine of whom were from the Institute of Public Administration, and the rest from the Ministry of Education's Training Centre.

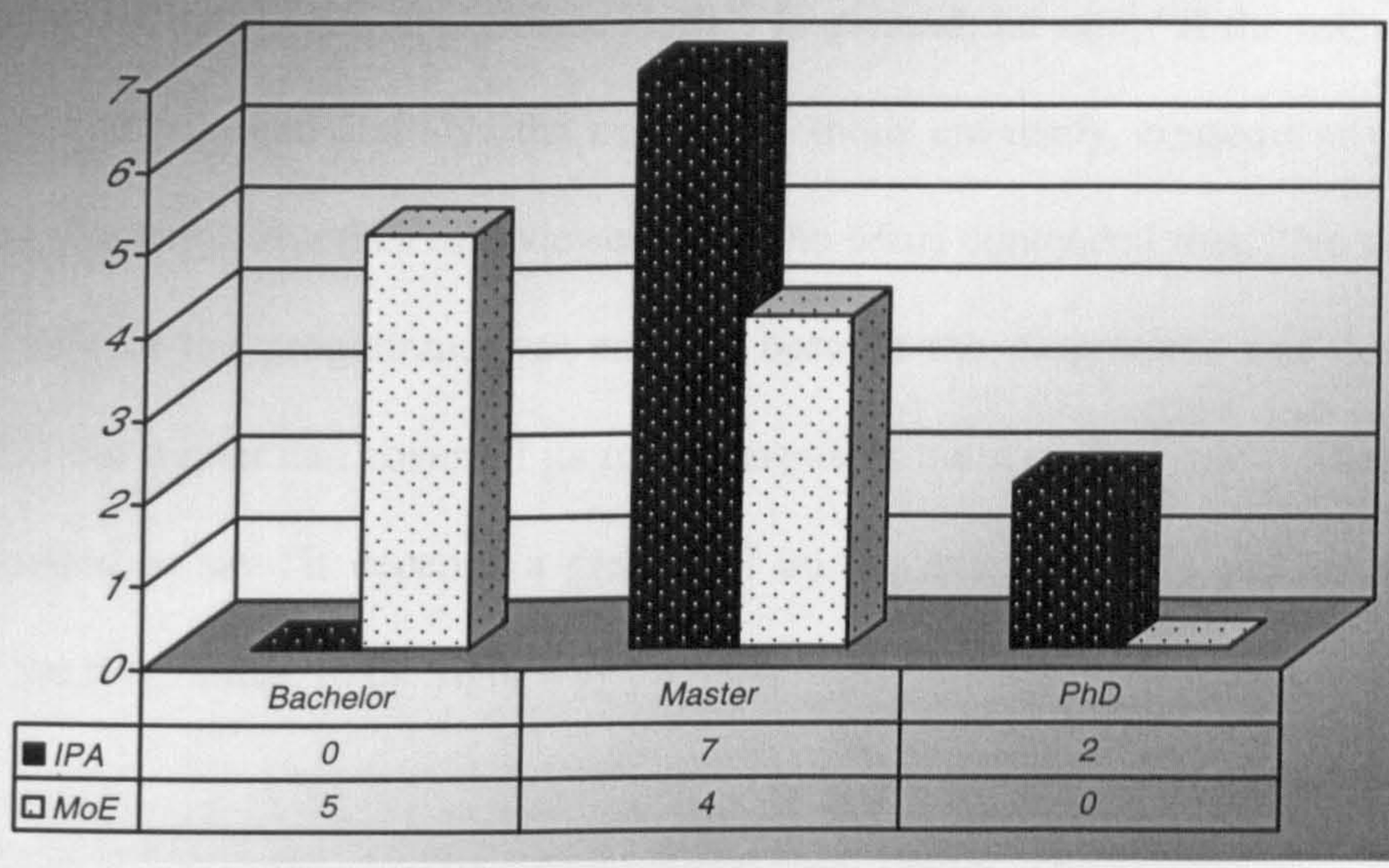
The reason for conducting the semi-structured interview was to find how the trainers in the two training centres perceived the effectiveness and impacts of the training programmes provided to public sector employees. Moreover, it aimed to discover the obstacles that make these programmes less effective from the trainers' point of view.

In order to discuss the interviewees' opinions from the two samples, thematic analysis was utilised to divide the questions of the semi structured interviews into eight sections. These sections were the educational levels of the interviewees, information about the training programmes, the design of the training programmes, the tools of the training programmes, evaluation of the training programmes, reasons for participating in training programmes and the effectiveness of and obstacles to the effectiveness of the training programme.

7.2. Educational levels of the Participants

All the interviewees from both samples are qualified and have at least a bachelor degree. Figure 7-1 depicts that the educational level of the interviewees from IPA is higher than their counterparts from the MoE Training Centre.

Figure 7-1 Educational levels of IPA & MoE Interviewees



7.3. Information about the Training Programmes

7.3.1. Duration of the Training:

The duration of the training programmes that the interviewees from the MoE's Training Centre and the IPA participated in was between two and ten days. Most interviewees were satisfied about the duration of the training programmes and thought it was enough for the trainees' acquisitions of new skills and knowledge.

Table 7-1 Was the Duration of the Training Programme Enough?

	MoE	IPA
Yes	9	7
No	0	2
Total	9	9

It is clear from Table 7-1 that the majority of the trainers, who were interviewed from the IPA and MoE's Training Centre, agreed that the training programmes' duration was sufficient. However, some of them have shed light on some points related to the programmes' duration. One interviewee from MoE Training Centre said "The duration was sufficient because training concerns more about developing skills and it only gives keys to how a trainee can apply these skills". In general, he said, "If the trainer is well equipped and prepared and also the training methods are ready, consequently the time will be sufficient". Another interviewee from the MoE contended that, "No doubt that the duration of the programme was enough, because the programme was designed in order that the trainer can cover all its requirements in the specified time". Moreover, as he continued to say "It depends a great deal on the trainer's skills and his ability to present the programme in the right way".

Most of the interviewees from the IPA responded in almost the same way as the MoE interviewees with regard to the duration of the programme. There were two exceptions. One commented that, "The duration of some of the programmes was sufficient and I can easily cover its contents". In contrast, he claimed, "The duration of some programmes was insufficient because its contents cannot be covered in the specified time". Another interviewee from the IPA said, "In general the short period programmes (3 days or less) are difficult to cover its contents in the specified time".

7.3.2. Importance of Training Programmes

Training is very important and extremely effective in lowering waste and improving performance. The awareness of the importance of on-job training in developed countries is increasing rapidly. This is due to the awareness that well trained employees can

achieve the organisations' goals. Fisher et al. (1990:314) mention the importance of having well trained employees when they stated;

> All organisations, whether public or private, are attempting to achieve goals and objectives. Whether the objectives are return on investment, sales, social well-being or defence of the country, the organisations must have well-trained employees who can perform the necessary tasks to accomplish those objectives.

In this perspective the following statement from KELLY Services web site (2005) gives a clear distinction between high and low performance;

> Training is not just a matter of survival; it's what separates high performance organisations from those being fitted for a burial suit.

Also Alabhussain (2000:181) cited from Denton (1995) that:

> A study by the U.S. Department of Labour found that organisations introducing formal training programmes had a 19% greater increase in productivity over a three-year period than those that did not provide training.

The responses of the MoE and the IPA trainers to the question related to the importance of training were beyond doubt positive and reflected the contentions of the above mentioned studies. They all agreed that training is very important to improve the trainees' skills and behaviour. One trainer from the MoE Training Centre commented on the importance of training when he said; "Training make employees skilful, therefore it is very important to them". Another said, "New university graduates have the knowledge but are in great need of skills which will be gained through training".

Other interviewees from MoE repeated much the same points, adding more valuable reasons for the importance of training in the public sector in Saudi Arabia. For instance

one interviewee from the MoE said, "Training is very important for the public sector employees because training is concerned more with the practical side rather than the theoretical side". He continued "Training will be more beneficial if the trainee attends the programme that targets his needs".

Interviewees from the IPA also agreed upon the importance of training to improve the skills and behaviour of the public sector's employees. One of them emphasised the following: "It all depends on the trainee himself. What I mean by that is when the trainee attends training programme for the sake of training and improving his performance, then training will be important". On the other hand, as he claimed "If he only attends for other purposes not related to improving his skills, then training will not be beneficial and important for him".

In sum, the interviewees' agreement towards the importance of training reflects their awareness of the role that training plays in developing the public sector in Saudi Arabia.

7.3.3. Objectives of Training Programmes

Responding to whether the objectives of the training programmes were clearly identified or not, most of the interviewees of both groups recognised the significance of discussing the objectives of the programmes. They all agreed that they should discuss the programmes' objectives but they differed in the best format for such discussion. "They are declared clearly at the beginning of the programme", said one of the 18 interviewees. Moreover he continued, "The objectives were stated in the programme handouts which were distributed for each programme".

One interviewee from the MoE said, "It is really important that the objectives of the programmes are declared clearly at the beginning of each programme". But as he said "First I personally believe that there should be an exploration of the trainees' expectations about the programme's objectives before they are declared. Mainly the trainees' expectations and the predetermined objectives are identical". Emphasising the same view of discussing the objectives of the programme another trainer from the MoE elaborated "The handouts given to the trainees at the beginning of the programme contained the objectives of the programme, but the programmes do not directly declare these objectives. Instead I impliedly introduce them through the skills that I present in the programme. The reason why I do not mention these objectives is, it might not suit some of the trainees' desires which will lead them to dislike the whole programme". Another interviewee added, "The objectives are pointed out in the handouts, therefore there is no point in repeating them". He continued "At the end of the programme I ask the trainees about what they gained from the programme, in most cases the answers conform with the objectives of the programme".

The IPA interviewees expressed the same views with regard to the objectives of the programmes. As an example one said, "Yes, I do discuss clearly the objectives of the programme and I try to achieve these objectives before the end of the programme. I also probe the trainees' expectations about the objectives of the programme which always match the objectives that were put by the programme's designers".

7.4. Training's Design

7.4.1. Contribution to the Design of Training Programme

Table 7-2 Do you Design the Training Programme Yourself?

	Yes	No
MoE	8	1
IPA	5	4
Total	9	9

Table 7-2 shows that the MoE interviewees were more involved in designing the training programmes themselves in comparison with the IPA interviewees. Out of nine, only one interviewee from MoE Training Centre said, "I have not participated in designing the training programme myself, but I have only contributed with other trainers in developing existing programmes". On the other hand, the rest of the MoE interviewees gave almost the same response to the question. For example, one of them said, "Yes, I have participated myself in designing some of the training programmes in which I train and in other programmes I shared with other trainers in the designing process".

With regard to the IPA interviewees, out of nine only five participated in designing the training programme in which they participated. One of them explained, "Yes, I have participated in designing the training programme then it was reviewed by other trainers". In contrast another four interviewees from the IPA had no part in designing the training programmes in which they participated.

7.4.2. Trainees' Actual Needs:

According to Bee (1999: 4),

> Training must be driven by the business needs of the organisation. If the link to business needs can be established this will ensure that training is focused on the real issues and demonstrates its relevance to the business. It also provides the vital starting point for any evaluation of the training.

Mitchell (1993) also explained that training needs analysis is an examination of the existing need for training within an organisation. In other words, it identifies performance areas or programmes within an organisation where training should be applied. According to Fisher et al. (1990:319), in one survey, 81% of an organisation had stated that they identified training needs only by reacting to problems that cropped up and to requests by supervisors. However, when training is undertaking without a careful analysis of whether or not it is needed, it is likely to be ineffective and a waste of time.

The training professionals were aware of the above statements explaining the importance of the training needs analysis, but what was the situation of both training centres and how did the interviewees of the MoE and IPA respond when asked the same question.

One interviewee from the MoE Training Centre said, "Yes, there was surveying for the training needs which helped in designing the programme". He explained, "Compilation of this survey consisted of elements from different such resources;

- A questionnaire distributed to the employees in their work place to explore their views regarding their training needs;
- Analyzing the performance evaluation form to find out about the employees' weaknesses;

- Arrange meeting with the educational inspector to discover the employees' training needs".

Another interviewee from MoE elaborated, "Yes, there was a study by the statistical and quality department in the Training Centre to identify some of the remarks on the programmes' handouts". He claimed "By doing this study, we managed to avoid some of the mistakes that we encountered in the pervious programmes. In addition to that, the on-site investigation by the educational inspectors about the teachers' training needs helped in designing the programme in a way that suited the trainees' needs".

It is obvious that the MoE interviewees have realized the importance of identifying the training needs before trying to implement any training solutions.

Fitz-enz (1984:182) claimed that,

> The most common stimulus for the creation of a training programme is a needs analysis. These surveys ask people to give the training department information on the skills that are needed for the organisation. The resulting data is generally a collection of unsubstantiated opinions about a broad range of issues that can be fitted into formal educational experience, i.e., a class.

In this sequence, as the previous citation explains, an interviewee from MoE stated that "Before we design the programme, which is dedicated to school head teachers and their assistants, we managed to specify 40–50 skills that the targeted employees need". Then as he said "these skills were listed in a questionnaire according to their importance and distributed to 1200 employees. Only 500 questionnaires were collected and analysed. In conclusion 13 skills were selected and included in the programme".

Things are different in the IPA with regard to their training needs analysis. The IPA as mentioned in a previous chapter is the official body that presents training programmes to all public sector organisations. These organisations have different needs. Therefore, it is really difficult to match all their actual training needs. One of the IPA's interviewee

said that "The training programmes presented by IPA are dedicated to different governmental sectors; therefore, it is difficult to investigate the training needs for all these sectors. Instead there is a work team from the IPA members who decide what should be included in the programme".

Another interviewee from the IPA emphasised that there is no on-site training needs investigation. He said "In general all the programmes in the IPA are designed to fulfil the trainees' needs from different public organisations. Nevertheless there was no on-site training needs analysis to determine the real needs of the public organisations".

According to another interviewee, "Most of the training programmes in the IPA are designed according to fixed standards such as the job title, the job description analysis and work regulations". This process might be deceptive, as Goldstein and Ford (2001:51) explained they argued that the use of standard job titles or generic job names to conduct training needs assessment often turns out to be misleading because they can cover a variety of different jobs. The same job might be performed differently in various geographical locations or even in different work shifts.

Not all the training programmes in the IPA are designed in the same way, since there are programmes which are dedicated to particular public organisations. However, these kinds of programmes require a training needs analysis. An interviewee who trains in the special training programme said that, "With regard to the special training programmes there is a training needs analysis and the programme is designed after investigating these needs".

7.4.3. Programme Content

The content of the training programme should connect directly with problem areas identified in the needs assessment and the training objectives. This will make the training impact more effective. Otherwise it will be less than expected.

The comments of the interviewees show that the content of the programmes was suitable to trainees. One of the MoE interviewees said, "The programme's content was up to 80 % appropriate for the trainees. In addition the feed back forms which were distributed to trainees at the end of each programme helped in evaluating the strengths and the weaknesses of the programme and improving to the required standard". This was supported by another interviewee, when he commented, "Generally speaking the programmes' contents were prepared to suffice the trainees' requirements. However, as he explained "At the end of each programme the training environment, and the handouts are evaluated and the necessary amendments are done to reach a suitable content for the future programmes".

There was not much difference between the two samples in their response to this question, since one of the IPA interviewees said, "Yes the programme's content was suitable, up to 70%, which is considered as a high percentage". However, he continued "This percentage is only applicable to those who attended the programme for the sake of training not for other purposes such as accumulating more points for promotion". However, not all the contents were suitable. This is clearly stated by one of the IPA staff, "Unfortunately some of the programmes contain some information which is not updated. This makes the content of the training programme inappropriate for the trainees".

7.4.4. The Theoretical and Practical Aspects of the Programme

Reid and Barrington (1997:57) state that training aims to provide the learner with the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to carry out specific work task. It is essentially practical and most of its content will be derived from within the organisation itself.

In the sequence of the aforementioned statement, interviewees from both groups have indicated that they have realised the importance of the practical aspects as opposed to the theoretical aspects. Training is concerned more with enhancing the trainees' skills. Therefore, training should provide more practical aspects.

An interviewee from the MoE put it succinctly, "We try to present more skills in the programme and less theory, because the trainees have sufficient knowledge but they lack skills". He continued, "The programme can be divided into 70% practical skills and 30% theoretical information". Another interviewee also supported this view. He also added, "In some cases the theoretical aspects are only used to support the practical aspects".

Although there should be a logical balance between the two aspects the practical and the theoretical, in some cases, as one interviewee explained, "The theoretical aspect may predominate the practical aspect and vice versa". He elaborated "This only happens when there is a problem in the programme's design or the trainer was not successful in presenting the programme".

The IPA participants gave the same opinions with regard to the practical and theoretical aspects. One of them agreed to the previous opinion of his MoE counterpart about the problem in programme design, when he said, "There should be a balance between the

two aspects". He claimed "Although sometimes the practical aspects should outweigh the theoretical, if the opposite happens this means that there is a problem in the design of the programme". He continued, "I believe that the trainee has sufficient knowledge. His need is for new skills and to discover the best ways to implement these skills". Another interviewee elaborated, "It depends upon the nature of the programme itself". He continued "For instance, the information technology courses are considered as practical programmes and therefore the theoretical aspect is much less important".

7.5. Trainees' Nomination for the Programme

In the MoE Training Centre the trainees have the right to choose the training programme they think is suitable for them after they have obtained permission from their supervisors or a recommendation from the educational inspector to attend a training programme. One interviewee expressed his view regarding the nomination of trainees when he said, "Mainly, the trainees can choose the training programmes that are suitable for them, because they know better than anyone else about their needs. Moreover, the school's head teacher and the educational inspector have also recommended some programmes". He continued "The Training Centre only registers the applicants without any interference with their desires". Another interviewee reinforced the same process of trainee nomination when he said "The trainees are selected in MoE Training Centre according to the following;

- If the educational inspector recommends the teacher to attend a training programme according to what he has noticed during his inspection visits;
- If the school head teacher recommends the teacher to attend a training programme;

- If the teacher himself wants to attend a training programme either to develop his skills or for any other purposes".

The IPA has recently adopted a systematic process regarding applicant nominations through its web site. The new system makes the organisations nominate their applicants according to preset standards. This was clearly stated by all IPA interviewees, as an example, one of them explained, "The IPA has developed a system where the public organisations can submit the applications for their applicants through the IPA web site and this system has predetermined standards to accept or reject the applications". He elaborated "These standards in which the trainees are selected include the job title or the work duties, consequently the trainees are selected in equal way".

7.6. Training Programme Tools

Training Methods Used in the Programme:

A training method is a tactic used by trainers to deliver the content of the programme and there are various training methods that can be used to do this. In both training centres, MoE and IPA, different methods are used in the training programmes. Using a variety of training methods throughout a training programme helps to maintain the interest of the trainees and make them eager to participate.

The method used by trainers in both samples varies between lectures, group discussions, exercises or drills, field visits, case studies and audio visual aids. The last training method, which is audio visual aids, may include different techniques such as computer programmes, flip charts, boards, training videos, and the overhead projector.

Responding to the above question about the training methods used in the programmes one of the MoE interviewees stated that "The training methods used in the programme are suitable for the trainees and from my point of view the most effective method which the trainees benefited from considerably was group discussion". Another interviewee expressed his view regarding the training methods when he said, "The most effective methods were the computer programmes, especially PowerPoint and also group discussion which also grasped the trainees' interest. He explained, "There are some other methods which I usually use such as, a board, an overhead projector, and training games".

The IPA interviewees have also responded much the same with regard to the training methods. One of them emphasized that choosing a proper method depends on the message that is to be conveyed, when he said, "We use in our programmes different training methods and we try to select the most appropriate one according to the information and skills we want to present. From my point of view", he added, "the best method that the trainees have interacted with was the training film, because it helps to reactivate the trainees specially after long training hours. The other method which I personally believe attracted the trainees was group discussion especially in small groups which do not exceed three trainees". Another interviewee from IPA also expressed his view by saying "There are different methods which can be used in training programmes but I strongly believe that audio visual aids have a powerful effect upon trainees".

Apart from the group discussion and the audio visual aids, the interviewees from both samples expressed their views regarding the training methods and mentioned some which they used in the programmes. Table 7-3 demonstrates the breakdown of some of these methods;

Table 7-3 Training Methods Used by the Interviewees

Training method	IPA	MoE
Lectures	2	3
Group discussions	8	7
Exercises or drills	2	1
Case studies	4	6
Field visits	1	-
Audio visual aids (PowerPoint, data show, overhead projector & training video)	5	8

7.7. Training Programmes Evaluation

Responsibility of Training Evaluation:

Brinkerhoff, (2005) argues that evaluating training has long been a stumbling block for human resources practitioners. Despite many models, methods, articles and books, most practitioners struggle to find practical and valid methods. Meanwhile, he continues, organisations invest billions in training initiatives that, on average, yield less than 20% impact. Learning and performance improvement professionals can do much to help improve this scenario, and evaluation is a powerful tool for change,

In responding to the question about the responsibility of evaluating the impact of training, the interviewees differed in their responses as it is depicted in Table 7-4. Some of them placed the responsibility on the training body. Others stated that it is the responsibility of the beneficiary organisation. However, another stated that it is a shared responsibility between the training body and the beneficiary organisation.

Table 7-4 Responsibility of Training Evaluation

Responsibility of training evaluation	IPA	MoE
The training body	2	2
The beneficiary organisation	5	1
Shared responsibility between the training body and the beneficiary organisation.	2	6

As was mentioned in Chapter Three (section 3-6) Rae (2004) stated that not only the trainer is responsible for evaluating the training programme, but everyone should do his/her task including the senior management, the line manager and the trainee. One of the MoE's interviewees reinforced this view by stating, "We all responsible for the evaluation process, trainers, trainees and their supervisors and the educational inspectors as well". Another interviewee emphasised the same opinion by stating, "It is a shared responsibility". He added "In one hand the training centre is responsible for evaluating the training impact to discover the mistakes encountered, but on the other hand, the beneficiary organisations need to know what their trainees have gained". In contrast, one interviewee expressed a different view, when he said, "It is the duty of the trainees and their supervisors to evaluate the training impact because they know better than anyone else about any improvement in performance". He emphasised that "Neither the external evaluator nor the training body can help in the evaluation process significantly".

The interviewees from IPA have also differing opinions about evaluating the training impact. As one of them stated, "The Quality Department in the IPA is responsible for evaluating the training impact". He added "Unfortunately the only procedure is a form distributed at the end of the programme, (smile sheet) which only measures the

immediate reaction of the trainee". Another interviewee supported this view when he stated, "The IPA is responsible for evaluating the training impact because of the previous knowledge of the training objectives which will help in measuring change after training take place". He also expressed his disappointment with the existing evaluation process by saying, "The only procedure is the evaluation form which is distributed at the end of each programme". These forms as he explained "Assess only the trainee reaction, which most of the time is positive".

In contrast, other interviewees expressed their judgment differently. Consider the following statement: "I do not think that the IPA is responsible for evaluating the impact of training. It is the responsibility of the training departments in the beneficiary organisations". In this sequence another interviewee also holds the responsibility to the public organisations when he said, "The IPA is a training body with no responsibility for assessing the impact of post training. The beneficiary organisations know the levels of their employees before training; therefore it is their responsibility to assess the impact of training after training take place".

7.8. Reasons for Participating in Training Programmes

Participation Reasons:

Different people have different perspectives and motives when it comes to training. There are some who view training as a waste of time, as it means being away from work. Still some view it as a welcome break from work. Others see the long-term benefits of training and look at it as an opportunity to develop themselves (Ticzon and Hechanova, 2004)

Table 7-5 Trainees' Reasons for Participation in Training

Trainees' reasons for participation in training	IPA	MoE
To get job promotion.	9	-
Making use of the training money allowance.	1	1
Developing practical and theoretical abilities	3	8
Changing the work environment.	3	2
Trainees' conscious of training.	-	3
Transferring to another job, applying for postgraduate studies.	-	5

The interviewees in both samples expressed different reasons why trainees attend training programmes. These are depicted in Table 7-5. As can be seen, some attend to develop their skills and others attend to benefit from the advantages offered to those who do apply for training, such as promotion or just changing the work environment. Moreover, as the interviewees explained, trainees also vary in their enthusiasm for training. Those who attend to develop their skills are likely to be more enthusiastic compared with those who attend for other purposes.

One interviewee from the MoE gave these views on the issue. He stated that, "There are different reasons that make trainees attend training". He cited the following:

- "Trainees have realised the importance of the training and the need to develop; their performance by attending the training programmes;
- A well prepared programme can convince the trainees to attend training;
- To change the work environment, or the daily routine;
- To solve certain problems in the work place or to gain new experience;
- To seek a transfer to another job, apply for postgraduate studies".

Most of the MoE interviewees supported him. One of them also added, "The educational inspector or the school head teacher recommends the teacher to attend certain programmes". Moreover, he added "Some trainees who found the training beneficial, advise their colleagues to participate".

Responding to the same question the IPA interviewees focused on the role of promotion in the job in order to persuade employees to attend training. One interviewee with whom all IPA interviewees agreed, said, "Trainees attend training programme for different reasons but the most crucial one which I believe makes 90% of them participate, is to get more bonuses in order to facilitate promotion". There are other reasons which were stated by the IPA's interviewees which include the following:

- To develop certain skills and benefit from the experiences of other people;
- To be able to handle certain mistakes in the work place;
- Recommended by a supervisor or a friend;
- To change the work environment.

7.9. The Effectiveness of Training Programmes

7.9.1. Trainee's Motivations to Participate:

According to Wexley and Latham (1991:90) no one doubts the importance of trainee motivation for facilitating the effectiveness of any training programme. One of the MoE interviewees expressed his view regarding this when he stated, "The trainees' participation and motivation depends on both the trainee and the trainer". He elaborated "What I mean by this is, when the trainee's intention of attending training is to develop his skills he will be highly motivated. Otherwise he will not pay attention to training".

He also added "On the other hand, a well prepared and determined trainer will make the trainees more active and full of enthusiasm".

Another MoE interviewee said that "The trainees were motivated to participate. We noticed this through the trainees' desire to apply the skills and the knowledge they learned after returning to their work". Another one also shared the same view and elaborated. "Although there was an encouraging feedback from the trainees, nevertheless the MoE's regulations direct the trainees to attend training if they want to benefit from some of the job advantages such as transferring to another job, or applying for postgraduate studies".

The IPA interviewees have also expressed their opinions about the trainees' motivation in the training programmes. One of them said, "Training programmes have a limited effect to motivate the trainees to participate in other programmes. This is due to the premise that most of them attend the programmes not for the sake of training". Another interviewee elaborated on the same issue by stating, "It seems that newly recruited employees are more motivated, because they have the enthusiasm to learn and gain more skills compared with old employees".

Another interviewee explained his view as to why the trainees were not motivated by arguing that "The trainees are not motivated to attend the programmes because there is no training needs analysis". Moreover, as he explained "Most of them attend programmes which do not match their needs. In most cases they choose the programme which might help them in promotion. Therefore they are not interested in what is going on".

In contrast, some programmes stimulate the trainees' interest, such as the computer software programmes. These are more practical and trainees might need them even outside the workplace. Trainees are also interested in the special training programmes which are designed especially for a particular organisation. According to one interviewee from IPA, "In programmes related to computer software the motivations of the trainees were noticeable and they are more likely to benefit from training". Another interviewee who has been training in the special training programmes said, "No doubt that the trainees were motivated to participate". He added "We have realised this through the trainees' positive reactions and requests to attend more programmes".

7.9.2. Obstacles to the Effectiveness of Training Programme

If learning or skills that are gained in the training session are not transferred to the job, it could be stated that the training programme has been a waste of the organisation's resources. Many training programmes have been criticized for their lack of impact on trainees' actual performance on the job (Fisher et al., 1990:329). This is further substantiated by Simmonds, (2004:152) who stated that

> Researches demonstrate that US organisations spend a staggering $30 billion a year on training. Even more surprising is the estimated wastage of $27 billion, since only 10 per cent of the $30 billion investment is actually transferred back to the workplace in the form of improved skills and knowledge.

There are, therefore, a number of obstacles that have been identified as affecting training transfer. The interviewees from the MoE and the IPA have mentioned some of these obstacles. The most crucial factors from the trainers' point of view are the resistance to change from the trainees' supervisors; second, there is no similarity

between training situation and the job situation and third attending training not for the sake of training but for other purposes.

An interviewee from the MoE said, "There are a number of barriers that make the training result less effective than it should be". These barriers as he claimed include the following:

- "Resistance to change from the trainees and their supervisors;
- Low motivation among trainees and their supervisors;
- Resistance to change from the decision makers;
- Failure on the part of decision makers to put rules and regulations in place to encourage trainees to apply what they learned."

Another interviewee from MoE expressed much the same view when he stated that "Resistance to change from trainees, their supervisors and their colleagues, is causing the training result to be less effective". Another participants from MoE made reference to the nature of training in relation to its impact when stating, "There is no similarity between the training situation and the job situation". In other words, as he explained "The content and the equipments used in the training programme are not relevant or applicable to the trainee's work". This view is voiced by another participant who claimed, "We provide very good training programmes but the problem appears to be that the trainees cannot apply the skills that they learned, because the equipments and tools are not similar as in training. Things are different when they go back to work".

Interviewees from the IPA also expressed almost the same opinion. They also think that resistance to change and the lack of suitable work environment have a negative impact on transferable skills gained from the training programmes. However, they all agreed

that the most important factor that makes the training less effective is that trainees do not attend training for the sake of training but have other purposes that make them attend. One of the IPA interviewees clarified this point when he stated that "Most of the trainees attend training in order to get more bonuses to facilitate their promotion, and unfortunately this situation has led to less interest in what is presented in the training which in turn is reflected in the training transfer". Another participant also expressed the following: "The environment in the workplace after the training takes place appears to play a particularly vital role in training transfer, for instance, if there is managerial and organisational support for training, and if the decision makers are willing to allow the trainees to apply the new skills".

7.10. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the different perceptions of the trainers who were interviewed from the MoE Training Centre and the IPA in relation to the effectiveness and impact of the training programmes attended by public sector employees. Moreover, this chapter has also presented trainers' views regarding why the trainees attend training programmes and what the obstacles are which the interviewees think might make these training programmes less effective.

The interviews with the trainers began with their perceptions of the importance for training upon the trainees themselves in the public sector of Saudi Arabia. In this respect, all trainers from both samples realised the importance of training for the public sector employees. There are other issue where the trainers from both samples have the same opinions; these include the importance of communicating the training objectives to the trainees and also the predominance of the practical aspects over the theoretical aspect in the training programmes. On the other hand, when they were asked about

designing the training programme and training needs analysis, it appeared that the two samples held different views. Consequently, MoE's trainers were more involved in the designing process and the training needs analysis comparing to the IPA trainers.

The chapter also demonstrates the viewpoints of the trainers regarding issues such as trainees' selection and motivations in the training programmes. It also shows the evaluation process of both samples and to what extent the trainers think the programmes for the public sector employees are effective.

There are different reasons for participating in the training programme, but from the IPA trainers perceptions the most crucial reason is to get promotion followed by other reasons like developing the skills. The MoE trainers did not ignore the role of career benefits as reasons for attending the training, but they think that the trainees are more concerned for developing their skills.

Finally, this chapter has demonstrated the trainers' perceptions of the obstacles that might have an effect on training transfer. Both samples identified some of these factors and the most crucial factors from their point of view were first the resistance to change from the trainees' supervisors; second, the lack of similarity between the training situation and the job situation; and third, attending training not for the sake of training but for other purposes.

Table 7-6 Summarizes and Compares the Participants Views from IPA and MoE Regarding the Questions in the Semi-Structured Interview.

Statements	IPA	MoE
Educational level.	Master and PhD holders.	Bachelor and master holders.
Training duration.	Majority satisfied.	All satisfied.
Importance of training.	All agreed on importance.	All agreed on importance
Objectives of training.	All agreed about identifying training objectives.	All agreed about identifying training objectives.
Design of the training.	8 out of 9 contribute to the design of training.	5 out of 9 contribute to the design of training.
Trainee actual needs.	Designed according to fixed standards.	Designed according to trainee needs.
Programme content.	Majority agree about programme content suitability.	All agree about programme content suitability.
Theoretical and practical aspects of the programme.	In most cases there is a logical balance between the two aspects (more practical in IT courses).	In most cases there are logical balances between the two aspects.
Trainee nominations for the programme.	According to preset standards via the IPA web site.	According to trainees desires after their supervisors' permission.
Training methods used.	Audio visual aids and group discussion are the most used methods.	Audio visual aids and group discussion are the most used methods.
Responsibility of training evaluation.	Majority say it is the responsibility of the beneficiary organisation.	Majority say it is shared responsibility between the training body and the beneficiary organisation.
Participation reasons.	All agree that the most important reason is to get promotion.	Majority say that the most important reason is to develop practical and theoretical abilities.
Trainee motivations to participate.	Motivations were noticeable only in IT programmes and special designed programmes	Motivation was moderate.
Obstacles for the effectiveness of training.	Most crucial are, attending training not for the sake of training but for other purposes and there is no similarity between training situation and job situation	Most crucial are the resistance to change from the trainees' supervisors and there is no similarity between training situation and job situation

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION

8.1. Introduction:

This chapter presents a discussion based on the research abstracted from the literature and the data analysis used in this research in order to measure the impact of training on the public sector of Saudi Arabia. The findings from the research and the perceptions of the trainees and the trainers in both samples prove that there is an association between the theoretical aspects presented in chapter two and three with the empirical study conducted by the researcher.

In the last two chapters the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data were analysed. This chapter will discuss the implications of the findings in relation to the literature review and in relation to the other related empirical studies, with the objective of providing further meaning to the results.

This chapter is divided into six sections. The following section discusses the reasons that encourage trainees participating in training programmes; then the training tools' effectiveness in the trainees' and trainers' perceptions will be highlighted. Next will be the discussion on trainee satisfaction with the training programme and what makes training less effective. Lastly will come a discussion about the trainees' supervisors' perceptions regarding the impact of training on their subordinates' knowledge, behaviour and skills.

8.2. Reasons for the Trainee Participation

In order to find out what encourages public sector employees to attend training programmes, different optional reasons were included in the questionnaire. This study

demonstrates that the trainees who attended training in the IPA training centre, showed interest in the training as 89.2% of them stated that they participated to learn practical skills. In contrast, only three of the interviewees (3.3%) thought that learning practical skills led trainees to attend training. The second important reason for the trainees, which resulted in 81.6% of them attending training, was to get promotion. This view is strongly supported by the trainers, all of whom said that getting promotion was the priority for most of the trainees. The least important reason which revealed similar reactions among trainers and trainees was to obtain a money allowance. 29.4 % of the trainees and only 11.1% of the trainers thought that being able to obtain money allowance led trainees to participate in training programmes.

As explained previously, there are similarities between the findings from the qualitative and the quantitative data with other case studies mentioned in the literature review regarding the reasons for the trainee participation in training programmes. In Azab's study (2002), mentioned in Chapter 3, the findings showed that trainees at the Institute of Public Administration in Jordan were motivated to attend training for different reasons. The most important was their desire for promotion to improve their career prospects. The desire of the trainees to develop their knowledge and information and learn new skills and behaviours beneficial for their work was another primary reason.

In a recent survey (2004) conducted in the MoE Training Centre, the main question was why trainees attend training programme. The survey targeted a population of 1200 trainees who attended training in sixty programmes in which 1002 questionnaires were collected. 87% of the participants said that their reason for participation was their need to develop their skills. The findings are close to those presented in this study, which also found that 91% of the trainees in the MoE Training Centre who participated in this

research explained that they attended training to develop their practical skills. Moreover, the majority of interviewees, who participated in this study from the MoE also responded much the same since eight out of nine, comprising 89% of the sample, agreed that the trainee's main reason for participation in the MoE's training programmes was to develop practical skills.

The MoE interviewees did not ignore the idea that trainees have their personal reasons for attending training such as transferring to another job or applying for postgraduate study. Indeed five of them (55.5% of the sample) said that this was the second most important reason for trainees' participation in training. In contrast, only 11% of the MoE survey (2004) participants and 18.9% of the trainees who participated in this research agreed that obtaining a certificate, which would help them in their careers, was their reason for attending training.

This study found that money allowances and career promotion were not an important consideration for the majority of the MoE trainees since only one third of them stated that they attended training for pecuniary reasons. Moreover, the interviewees also emphasised this view since none of them said that getting job promotion was the reason that made the trainees in the MoE Training Centre to participate in training programmes. In addition, a large proportion of trainees attended training in the evening time after their formal daily work indicates that the main reason for participations was the trainees' awareness of the importance of training. Indeed it should be noted that it is customary for much training in the MoE to be organised out of daily working hours.

The t-test result in Table 6-31 in Chapter 6 reveals a clear difference between the two samples of this research regarding the reasons for trainee participation in training. The

main differences are related to getting promotion and money allowances. As it is clarified above IPA participants are more interested in getting promotion and money allowances than their counterparts at the MoE.

To understand employees' expectations of promotion as a result of their participation in training programmes one has to consider the related law. Article II of Resolution No (1 / 686), dated 15/3/1421 H (2001), issued by the Ministry of Civil Service of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia states that: "Every month training will be counted as a (one point) bonus for the purpose of promotion". Thus, linking training with job promotion through statute has led many employees in different public organisations to undertake training for the sake of more bonuses which will in turn enhance their chances of promotion. In contrast most of the MoE trainees are head teachers and teachers and they do not benefit from the aforementioned Article since they have a separate cadre system in which training is not counted for the sake of promotion. This probably explains why MoE trainees are agreed that the prospect of promotion has no effect on their desire to participate in training. The majority of IPA trainees and all IPA interviewees prioritised getting promotion as a reason for trainees' participations in training.

In conclusion, this study finds that there was an awareness among trainees in the two samples about the importance of training for the answers concerning the main reasons that encouraged them to attend training programmes were positive. The majority of both samples argued that learning practical skills on the job was the main reason which encouraged them to attend training. However, there were a high proportion of IPA trainees who attended IPA training programmes specified obtaining promotions as the important reason for their attendance. This view was supported by the trainers in the IPA who participated in this research. They pointed out the importance of training

which enabled employees to acquire practical skills for such training was crucial in enabling the organisation to achieve its objectives. In addition they also stressed that a large proportion of trainees attended training mainly to get promotions. For MoE employees seeking another job or admission to postgraduate study courses was of secondary importance.

It could be argued that attending training programmes for the sake of training itself will certainly not have a positive impact on the organisations. In this case investment in training will most likely be a waste of both time and money. There needs to be a greater commitment from both the training centres and the beneficiary organisations to raise the awareness of the importance of training as a means of improving employee performance, for this will affect positively the training transfer.

8.3. Effectiveness of Training Tools

As claimed by many researchers (Section 2.4), inappropriate selection of training methods can lead to fruitless learning and disappointment with trainer performance. This is something that has been felt by the trainees and top management. However, researchers argue that there may be nothing wrong with the actual methods, as opposed to how they are utilized by the trainer and the learner. Kalaifah's study, (2001) recommended the importance of diversifying the methods and means of training. In this perspective an interviewee from the IPA accentuated the importance for them to select the most appropriate method dependent on the information and skills they want to present.

In general, the overall mean of 2.32 (out of 5) of the effectiveness of the training methods used in the IPA's training programmes from the trainees' point of views

indicates that they thought training methods were effective. With no significant difference, the overall mean of 2.68 of the effectiveness of the training methods in the perception of the MoE trainees also indicates that training methods used in the programmes that they participated in were effective.

The trainees in both samples have agreed that group discussion was the most effective method. 87.7% of the IPA and 77.8% of the MoE trainees chose this method as the most effective. This view was strongly supported by the trainers from both samples since eight out of nine of the IPA interviewees, comprising 88.9% of the sample, and seven out of nine of the MoE interviewees, comprising 77.8% of the sample, emphasized the role of group discussion as the most effective method.

The reason behind the interest in this method is because trainees have the opportunity to share with other participants their experience which will enrich their knowledge. In a recent study conducted by Tejada (2006), mentioned in Chapter 3, trainees were asked to rate the effectiveness of specific methods used in their most recent non-mandatory training session. They concluded that trainees are agreed that training methods that involve greater trainee participation tend to have a higher overall effectiveness rating. The result of Tejada's study corresponds with the perceptions of the trainees and the trainers who participated in this research, since group discussion involve considerable contribution by the trainees. This explains the high positive responses from the trainees in both samples, which is depicted in Table 6-19, which indicates their approval of being able to compare their own experiences and views with those of others. Another method, exercises and drills, which involve contribution from the trainees, was rated as an effective method by 80% of the IPA trainees and 72.4% of the MoE trainees who participated in this research. Nonetheless, only two interviewees from the IPA and one

from the MoE have used exercises and drills, which explains why 74.1% of the IPA trainees and 69.2% of the MoE trainees required more use of this method as mentioned in section (5.3.2.2).

Audio visual aids (PowerPoint, data show, overhead projector and training video) are rated as an important method by the interviewees in both samples. According to Tejada (2006), trainees feel comfortable with training methods which include technology-based training methods such as computer simulation, multimedia presentation, and computer-assisted programmed instruction. This view is consistent with what eight of the interviewees from the MoE and five of the IPA said about the effectiveness of this method. They argue that it attracts trainees' attention. However, although IPA trainees rated audio visual aids as effective method, the MoE's trainees were not happy with this method. Some MoE interviewees have said, and they are supported by the researcher's own experience and from discussions with some employees in the MoE, that this is due to the differences between the work settings, which may lack the sort of equipments with what is provided at training programmes. According to a survey conducted by MaST, (Section 3-8) only one in five trainees link course work to real-work projects and activities. Such an inconsistency will obstruct the impact of training and lead the trainees to dislike these methods.

The lecture is regarded as a crucial method in delivering training by many researchers (Section, 2.4) some of whom claim it to be the most widely used method. In addition, Azab's study (2002) and Altarawneh's study (2005) (see section 3-8) revealed that the lecture is the most commonly used training method. This conclusion is close to the findings of this research on the responses of the IPA trainees, who also thought that the lecture is an effective training method. This is why chose it as their second preferred

method. However, the IPA trainers interviewed revealed other ideas, since only two of them use this method. As one of them elaborated, the training day is long and lectures make it longer. Therefore, using methods that involve trainee interaction is more convenient for both trainee and trainer. Ironically, the MoE trainees were so dissatisfied with the use of the lecture as a method of training that they wanted to reduce its use.

It could be argued that the disagreement between the trainees and the trainers of both samples who participated in this study regarding the effectiveness of the various training methods indicates that the training needs were not investigated properly. There will be more discussion about the negative consequences caused by the inadequate TNA in section 8-4-1.

Research as a training method was rated as an ineffective method by trainees and it was never used by those trainers who were interviewed. It could be said that this method is effective for long-term training but as mentioned in chapter four this research was concerned with short term training. Statistically, there is no difference between the two samples regarding the effectiveness of and satisfaction with the training tools. This is apparent in the t-test results in Tables 6-28 and 6-29.

It could be argued that in the IPA and the MoE Training Centre, the training methods that require greater contribution and participation from trainees such as group discussion and audio visual aids were rated as the most important method by the trainees in both samples. The trainers, moreover, use them frequently. Although exercises and drills was rated as the second most important method by the MoE trainees they were satisfied with this method and even required more use of it, the trainers rarely use it. The lecture was rated as a crucial training method only by the IPA trainees that it

was chosen as their second preferred method. Nevertheless it was ignored by the IPA's trainers.

8.4. The Trainees' Satisfaction with the Training Programme

In order to discuss the trainees satisfaction with and the effectiveness of the training programme in the public sector, it is expected that there should be a discussion on how the training needs analysis was conducted followed by the design and evaluation phases. The literature review in Chapter 2 and 3 show the systematic approach of training programmes. They started with a training needs assessment (TNA) and were followed by the training programmes' design, delivery, and finally training evaluation. One of the objectives of training in both training Centre; namely the IPA and the MoE's Training Centre, was to conduct training through the systematic approach. In this context there expected to be a discussion of this systematic approach from the interviewees' perceptions in both samples, which will be related later on in this section with the trainees' views about the effectiveness of the training programmes.

8.4.1. Training Needs Analysis

Training needs analysis is regarded as an important step in the training process. In this context many researchers, as mentioned in Chapter 2, consider the role of TNA critical. In order to design training that can be effective and achieve the required goals a thorough analysis of needs must be undertaken. For instance, as Wilkinson (2002) mentioned, see Chapter 2, training can be a wasteful and expensive activity if not carefully planned in line with organisational objectives and individual trainee needs. Moreover, as stated by Bee (1999) in Chapter 6, linking training needs to training will be the vital starting point for any evaluation process.

When the interviewees of both research samples were asked about whether they conduct TNA in the training programmes they provide, they claimed that they had but they differed in the way it was carried out. An interviewee from the MoE Training Centre explained that they survey training needs through different means (see section 7.4.2). One other interviewee explained that the role of the Statistical and Quality Department in the MoE Training Centre was to identify any adverse remarks in the programme handouts and avoid them in the future programmes. On the other hand, interviewees from the IPA have explained how difficult it was to conduct on site TNA, since training in the IPA is dedicated to all public sectors employee, thus making it difficult to match training needs for all public organisations. Training programmes are designed in the IPA, as explained in Chapter 6, according to fixed standards such as job title, job description and work regulations.

Although the interviewees from both samples claimed that they did TNA in their training programmes, they unfortunately did not follow a real systematic process of TNA. The findings from the literature in Chapter 2 revealed that in order to conduct a sound TNA it should cover three parts, namely organisational, occupational, and individual training needs. While the MoE interviewees were concerned with only a trainees' needs investigation, the IPA interviewees conducted no on site training needs analysis.

From the findings it can be argued that both samples lack the proper procedures to conduct a systematic training needs analysis. This is consistent with Altarawneh (2005), who found that in the majority of the organisations she surveyed, there was an absence of a systematic employee training needs assessment and the attempts that were conducted by the majority of the organisations were inaccurate. The result of this study is consistent also with the Prosell (2004) research which found that 73% of course

delegates had not discussed their training aims with their manager prior to the course. This indicates the lack of TNA. One specialist in Prosell (2004) argued that "Training is most effective when line managers identify a need for individual employee improvement on a specific area and openly discuss how the training is going to address that issue".

As found by this study only 9.2% of the IPA trainees and 10.7% of the MoE trainees were nominated by their supervisors. Moreover, the majority of trainees from both samples did not discuses their training needs with their supervisors before attending the training programmes. From the researcher's long experience in the Ministry of Health where he used to work in the personnel department and in the Ministry of Justice where he works as a training specialist, many employees choose the training programmes on the basis of the wording of its title without prior knowledge of its content and without any negotiation with their supervisors about the expected benefits.

Having not discussing their training needs with their supervisors will lead to certain problems among which is allowing the trainee to attend training programme that is neither suitable to his need nor it is suitable to the occupational and organisation needs. Therefore, there should be more collaboration and discussion from the trainees and their immediate supervisors to ensure that participation at the training programme will suit the needs of the trainee himself and the occupational and organisational needs.

In sum, the findings of this study is consistent with the research mentioned in the literature. For instance, Altarawneh's study (2005) also mentions some problems that face training and development programmes and one of these problems is sending inappropriate persons to the training programmes.

8.4.2. Training Design

Designing training is the second phase of the systematic training process and indeed is an important phase which heavily relies on TNA. The interviewees from both samples were asked whether they contributed to the design of the training programmes in which they train. As it is clear from the literature, participating in training design is a vital step that trainers should take part in. In Joseph's 1994 revised paper (see section 3-8), the most important recommendation is planning the training evaluation process and making the people in charge of evaluation work side by side with those delegated to the task of designing and implementing the training. Consequently, the evaluation process can start from the beginning of the training programme and continue until the end, that which will make training more effective.

The finding of this research with regard the interviewees' contribution to the design phase reveals, as shown in Table 7.2, that MoE interviewees are more involved in designing training programmes than their counterparts from the IPA. Indeed, it could be argued that training programmes in the MoE Training Centre are mainly dedicated to the MoE employees. In addition, the limited staff members at the MoE Training Centre has led the trainers to be more involved in the whole training process. In contrast, the IPA training programmes are much more geared to the interests of the beneficiary organisations and its staff members. Therefore, it will be more difficult for them to participate in the whole training process.

When they were asked about the suitability of the programmes' content and design to the trainees needs, the interviewees from both samples claimed that it was especially suitable for the trainees who attended to develop their skills and not for other purposes. This is a crucial point, since the lack of a systematic training analysis has led to

different consequences, among which is the nomination of unsuitable trainees for the training programmes.

8.4.3. Effectiveness of Training

Grant and Smith (1984) argue, as mentioned in more details in section 2.3.3, that the main objective of training is to provide the knowledge and skills, and as far as is possible, the attitudes needed for individuals to undertake their current jobs more effectively. In order to understand the trainees' views about training effectiveness, they were questioned if they were satisfied with the training delivery that had received and whether they regarded the programmes as effective or ineffective.

The findings revealed that trainees in both samples were satisfied with the effectiveness and the quality of information presented and with trainer ability. The majority of trainees in both samples argued that they benefited from being able to compare their own experiences and views with those of others. This naturally explains why they chose group discussion, as mentioned in a previous section, as an effective method. It was also found that the trainees also claimed that they had picked up useful ideas in the course of the training programmes, that the programmes were significantly related to their work, that the training had helped them to do their job; and that, in their opinion, the programmes had achieved their goals.

The findings from the other related empirical studies are very close to the findings of this research regarding the trainee perceptions on training effectiveness. Robertson (1992) (see Section 3.8), reached to a similar consistent conclusion. He argued that the reactions of the trainees towards the programme were positive, with 65% of the trainees agreed that the training had been useful to them. Moreover, Robertson also revealed that

there had also been a change in the trainee behaviour in relation to the achievement of the training programmes' objectives within the working group.

Statistically, the t-test results revealed that there was no significant difference between the IPA respondents and the MOE respondents regarding the effectiveness and the satisfaction with training as is clear in Tables 6-26 and 6-27. Moreover, there was a significant correlation between the overall effectiveness of the raining programmes and respondents' views from both samples about the effectiveness of the tools used.

The Pearson correlation coefficient 'R' test depicted in Table 6-33, indicates that there is a considerable correlation between the overall effectiveness of the training programmes and respondents' views from both samples about the effectiveness of the tools used. The same conclusion was found among the IPA respondents. In contrast, results demonstrate no significant correlation between the training programmes' effectiveness and the MoE respondents' views about the effectiveness of the tools used in the training programmes.

8.4.4. Training Evaluation

The evaluation phase is the final step in a systematic approach to training and the most important and most problematic one. This step gives the final picture on whether a training programme achieved its pre-set objectives, and will help organisations to identify if their expenditures on the training have yielded any positive results. Moreover, evaluation gives a clear vision of the effectiveness of training programmes.

The findings from the literature mentioned in Chapter 3 emphasise the misconception about evaluation that it only starts after the training programmes have finished. Many researchers, such as Phillips (1997), Robinson (1989), Burrow and Berardinelli (2003),

Barmely (1990), Srinivasan (2001), Kirkpatrick (1998) argue that evaluation is integral to the cycle of training and in order for evaluation to be successful it must cover the total training process.

This study has found that the only level used to evaluate the training programmes in the IPA and in the MoE's training Centres is the first level of the Kirkpatrick model, namely reaction at the end of the training programme. It is clearly stated in the IPA trainer's prospectus (2005) that the evaluation of training programmes at the IPA is done through an assessment form which is usually distributed to the trainees at the end of each programme and that it is completed only on a sample of programmes selected randomly. This is also the procedure in the MoE Training Centre as confirmed by the MoE interviewee since they only measure the trainee reactions through end of programme questionnaire.

This finding is not unique, since many of the empirical studies conducted locally in Saudi Arabia or internationally, as mentioned in section 3-8, are consistent with this result. For instance Alammar (1986) concluded that the methods used in evaluating training are inadequate, since they only measure the trainees' reactions to the programme. Frazier (1991) also revealed that respondents frequently use the first level of the Kirkpatrick model, namely reaction, despite the doubts on its effectiveness. Al-Athari and Zairi (2002) concluded that the majority of respondents, both in government and in private sectors, only evaluate their training programmes occasionally, using questionnaires. In addition, the most common model used by Kuwaiti organisations is the Kirkpatrick model, while the most common level of evaluation for both the government and the private sector is reaction. Altarawneh (2005) revealed that in the majority of the organisations, there is an absence of effective procedures for evaluation,

for most organisations use the first level reaction. The learning and development consultancy MaST International Survey (2005) revealed that course evaluation forms (26%) and anecdotal feedback (21%) are the most popular ways of measuring the effectiveness of training with just 8% of respondents using pre- and post-course diagnostics. The survey also found 60% of the HR professionals surveyed do not have a specific budget for measurement and evaluation of training initiatives. Ashridge Business School's research (2005) showed that only a small minority of organisations now regularly evaluate other than at the level of individual participant reactions.

To find who is responsible for conducting training evaluation in the IPA and the MoE training Centre, the interviewees were asked to give their responses. The uncertain responses from the interviews regarding who is responsible for conducting any evaluation process indicate that there is no systematic approach to this process. The interviewees all agree that evaluating training programmes is very important, but they differ about who should be responsible for carry out this task. The majority of the MoE respondents claimed that it should be a shared responsibility, while the majority of the IPA's respondents said it should be the beneficiary organisations responsibility. Rae (2004) emphasized that training evaluation is not only the trainer's responsibility, but that the senior management, the trainer, line management, the training manager and the trainee, should all take part in the evaluation process. This finding regarding the responsibility of training evaluation is inconsistent with the interviewees' responses of this study.

It could be argued that there is an absence of a systematic and effective evaluation for the training programmes. It is clear from the finding of the literature review that there is a growing consideration being given to training evaluation in the organisations of the

most developed countries. Nevertheless, little attention has been paid to measuring the effectiveness of training in the public sector in Saudi Arabia. This is due to the complexity of knowing how and what to evaluate especially in the public sector, as explained in chapter three. Moreover, in the IPA, which provides training to most of the public sector organisations, and at MoE Training Centre, which provides training to thousands of its employees, it is not clearly known to trainers who should be responsible for conducting the evaluation for the training programmes. This is of course makes the situation even worse.

Therefore, to know what the real impact of training on the employees of the public sector is, there should be more consideration on the evaluation process. Also, in order to conduct a systematic training evaluation, it is necessary to follow what Rae (2004) called the 'Training Evaluation Quintet'. Moreover, the evaluation should focus on the training objectives to find out whether these objectives have been met or not. Consequently, evaluators should not stop at the first level, but devote more consideration to measuring the knowledge and skills, and finally to assessing the benefits to the trainee's organisation.

8.5. Barriers Making Training less Effective

As stated by Simmonds (2004), the United States organisations spend billions of dollars annually on training. This expenditure has little impact in the form of improved skills and knowledge. The assumption that success will always follow the implementation of a well-conceived training programme is not always right. The findings in the literature reveal different barriers that can cause the impact of training to be less than expected. These barriers, as stated by Bentley (1992) and Whetherly (1994), can be technical, practical, psychological and human.

In order to assess what makes the impact of training upon public sector's employees less effective, the trainees who participated in this research were asked about nine expected barriers after they returned to work. The findings revealed in Table 6-21 indicate a similarity between both samples regarding these barriers, and both groups of trainees share the same worriers and doubts about them.

It was found that the most worrying barriers for the trainees are the practical barriers, namely time and the environment. The findings in Table 6-21 show the mean of trainee responses in both samples regarding the lack of time to carry out change, the lack of a suitable work environment, and the inflexibility of regulations in dealing with change. This indicates that these barriers are likely to deter them from applying the new information and skills they gained through training. This fear by trainees is supported by the trainers who participated in this study, since the majority of both samples believe that the environment in the workplace affect the training transfer and that could be either a resistance to change or incompatibility between the training situation and the job situation. The findings in the literature confirm the existence of these equivalent barriers in obstructing training effectiveness. Kirkpatrick (as explained in Section 3-4) describes different climates that affect trainees when returning to work. These can be: *preventing*: when the immediate supervisor prevents the participant from doing what he/she learned; *discouraging*: makes it clear that the participant should not change behaviour; *neutral*: pays no attention to the fact that the participant attended a training programme.

Azab's findings in his study (2002) are consistent with those in this research, since he argued that difficulties in the training and in the work setting were reported to have hindered the trainees' attempts to act upon their ideals. Cheng and Ho's findings (2001) were also similar to this study's since they spoke about the environmental factors as

affecting training transfer. Moreover Doo and Johnson (2002) revealed that a supportive work climate is a very important requirement for the successful transfer of learning. Liu and Ely (2005) also concluded that one of the challenges that affect training transfer is when the working environment is different from the training setting.

Regarding statistical evidence, the correlation coefficient 'R' test depicted in Table 6-34, indicates that the more trainees in both samples believe that they have a healthy environment for staff development the fewer barriers are expected to prevent them from transferring what they learned during the training programmes. Bentley *et al.* (1992) stated that a good learning environment is fully supportive for learners. It could be argued that the trainees of both samples were worried about the work environment, which causes a barrier to training effectiveness. This is because the mean of both samples, 2.88 for IPA respondents and 2.49 for the MoE respondents (out of 5), regarding whether the lack of a suitable work environment might obstruct them from applying the new skills, supports this argument.

The majority of trainees in both samples have denied that the lack of desire on their part to change was a barrier that could obstruct them from applying what they have learnt. This reflects their positive motivation for training. Trainee motivation is a crucial factor to facilitating the effectiveness of any training programme as declared by Cheng and Ho (2001) when they claimed that inadequate motivation is likely to be detrimental for mastering the training content and for subsequent training performance. Nevertheless, this contradicts the trainers' perceptions regarding trainee motivation. The IPA trainers who took part in this study indicated that the trainees were not motivated for different reasons. The most important point is that most of them do not attend training programmes for the sake of improving their skills. The majority of the MoE

interviewees expressed much the same view. Few of them admitted that trainees were motivated.

There are some related empirical studies which are consistent with the previous result about the negative consequences of low trainee motivation toward the impact of training on the organisation. Liu and Ely (2005) revealed that lack of motivation was among the challenges that face transfer of training to the organisations. Moreover, Altarawneh study (2005) mentioned that among the problems that T&D programmes encountered was lack of trainee motivation.

It could be argued that the trainees' low motivation toward training programmes is either due to inadequate training needs analysis or to attending training for career or promotion purposes. Both of these can obstruct or limit the impact of training.

Moreover, it can be seen that nearly all trainees from both samples agreed that their supervisors did not request post-training reports. This implies that they were not interested in the trainees' feedback about training. It could be argued that if there is no reward/punishment system, this might make training transfer less effective than expected. This is consistent with Liu and Ely's study (2005) when they argued that no feedback or punishment when employees apply training to work is one of the challenges that face training transfer. Moreover, as Kirkpatrick (2005) claimed (see Section 3-8) when senior and junior-level managers did little or nothing to create accountability or support new behaviors, this led to little transfer of learning to behavior

8.6. Trainees' Immediate Supervisors' Perceptions

One of the main objectives of attending training programmes, as mentioned in the literature, is to enhance the employee's performance and to develop his/her skills and attitude. As stated by Bentley (1990), in Chapter 2, effective training programmes enhance the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours of people and hence their performance. In order to scrutinize the impact of the training on the trainees at their work, further assessment was made of the trainee's supervisor's perceptions. The immediate supervisors' questionnaire was distributed to measure their perceptions of the knowledge, behaviour, and skills of the trainees before and after training.

Table 6-22 in Chapter 6 lists five different statements regarding the information and the knowledge of the trainees and their supervisors' perceptions before and after the training. The value of training's impact on the trainees has been recognized and appreciated by their immediate supervisors. It was found that the trainees' immediate supervisors in both samples had positive reactions towards the improvement of trainees' information and knowledge after the training with a slight difference in favour of the MoE respondents. The IPA respondents claimed that their trainee's knowledge and information improved by nearly 18% after training, while in case of the MoE the trainee's immediate supervisors has report an improvement of 21%. The greatest improvement among the five statements in Table 6-22 noticed by the IPA supervisor was in that the level of their trainees' knowledge. For the MoE supervisors it was their trainees' familiarity with new information needed to improve job performance

The trainees' supervisors were also asked to express their views about improvements in the trainees' behaviour after attending the training programmes. The overall responses of the trainees' supervisors of both samples regarding the thirteen statements shown in Table 6-23, which described different kind of behavioural attitudes, were positive.

It is evident that MoE supervisors reported (18%) greater improvement in their trainees behaviour after attending training programmes than the IPA supervisors who reported only an 8% improvement in the behaviour attitude of those who had attended IPA training programmes. It could be argued that the educational training programmes presented in the MoE Training Centre deal in greater depth with behavioral aspects compared to the training programmes presented in the IPA. The behaviour impact therefore is more obvious on the MoE participants.

The most significant development in the behaviour of the MoE trainees was in their readiness to work as part of a team; in their objectivity in handling their work in their department; and in their independence of behaviour in doing on the job, i.e. not being dependent on their supervisors. Evidence that this is true is supported by the MoE trainees' responses in that the majority of them agreed to the statements shown in Table 6-10 that they gained better understanding of what is required in their job; and they are more confident about how to do their work.

As far as the IPA's respondents are concerned, the most obvious improvement in the trainees' behaviour in the view of their supervisors was in their readiness to work as part of a team; to cooperate with colleagues; and to comply with their superiors in carrying out orders. It could be argued that improvement in the IPA trainees' behaviour occurred because they did not attend training simply for the sake of training. This was clearly stated by the interviewees in Table 7-5. Indeed the principal motivation for participating in training for those trainees was their desire to gain promotion. This is evident in Table 6-1. So unless the employee has a desire to change in the words of Kirkpatrick the change will not occur.

The improvement that occurred in the trainees' skills after attending the training programmes was more obvious among the MoE trainees than among the IPA trainees.

Out of eight statements depicted in Table 6-24, there was 14% improvement in the skills of the IPA participants compared to 18% in those of the MoE participants. The most significant changes for both samples were in the level of the trainees' skills and their ability to accomplish job requirements on time.

The findings reveal that the trainees' immediate supervisors from both samples who participated in this research show a positive reaction to the impact of the training programmes upon the trainees' knowledge, behaviour and skills. This is consistent with Azab's study (2002) in which he argued that when asked to compare the situation before and after training, the trainees' immediate supervisors reported improvements in trainee knowledge, skills and job behaviour. Moreover, Altarawneh (2005) also found that top managers themselves had noticed that training had had a moderately beneficial effect in the trainees.

The value of the effectiveness of the training programmes in the perceptions of the trainees' immediate supervisors has been recognized and accepted. The immediate supervisors of the MoE trainees were happier with the impact that training had had on their subordinates compared to their counterparts at the IPA. Nevertheless, it could be argued that these results are debatable, since the process that the trainees' supervisors relied on to evaluate the trainees' performance was not conducted following a systematic procedure for TNA. In addition it was found that the discussions between most IPA and MoE trainees and their immediate supervisors regarding the trainees' needs prior to attending the training programme were focused on who would substitute for the trainee during his absence. Moreover, less than 10.8% of the IPA trainees' supervisors and only 7.1% of the MoE's trainees' supervisors discussed what would be required of their subordinates after they had attended the programme. This clearly

shows that the trainees' immediate supervisors were not interested in how the training might affect their subordinates' performance.

Therefore, changes in the trainees' behavior in the view of their immediate supervisors' might not be based on what they learned. Since the immediate supervisors were not involved in the training need analysis or the training design, they do not know what the objectives of the training programmes were, and as a consequence they cannot measure outcomes against objectives. It could be argued that the high rating that the immediate supervisors gave to their subordinates is a courtesy response. Some of the immediate supervisors with whom the researcher had a conversation with asked questions such as the following: "Does responding to this questionnaire affect the employee's promotion?" "Does it affect him in any way?" As mentioned in the methodology chapter (Section 5-12), undeveloped civil society plays an important role in people's willingness to respond to questionnaires either by not responding at all or by filling it in as a courtesy without paying attention to its content. Also, pretentious attitudes in responding to questionnaires in undeveloped civil societies are an issue, as the consequences of the answers would be carefully considered. From this perspective it can be argued that biased manner in which the trainees' supervisors responded in, and therefore the answers should be considered with caution.

The MoE Training Centre, as explained in Chapter 4, dedicates its programmes to upgrading the teaching and learning process and increasing the potential productivity of teachers. This has given the centre, which offers training only to its own employees, an advantage over the IPA, as far as training effectiveness is concerned for the latter offers training, as stated in Chapter 4, to all civil service employees as well as the MoE employee. Nevertheless, the findings revealed no obvious difference between the IPA

and the MoE Training Centre regarding the effectiveness of their training programmes. It could be argued that training programmes in the public sector of Saudi Arabia whether designed for a special group or designed for the public are of relatively equal impact on employees.

In conclusion, Cheng and Ho (2001) cited from Georgenson (1982) that training is regarded as an expensive investment, since only 10 percent of total training expenditures could lead to a positive transfer in the United States. This is the situation in a developed country in which training and training evaluation receive more attention from the organisations in the public and the private sectors, it will be even less in a developing country.

This study concludes that the impact of training programmes in the public sector of Saudi Arabia is very limited. Although the participants in this research claimed that their training programmes presented were effective and they were satisfied with them, the researcher nevertheless thinks that this claim is inaccurate, since the training neither was conducted in a systematic procedure as explained in a previous chapter, nor was it evaluated beyond the reaction level. It could be argued that although the trainees' reaction to their training experience was positive, the real impact of training is nevertheless, much more than 'reaction'. There will be further conclusions and recommendations in the next chapter, which aims to help improve the impact of training in the public sector of Saudi Arabia.

CHAPTER NINE
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9-1 Introduction

This study aimed at investigating the impact of training programmes presented to the public sector employees in the KSA, and to compare the training programmes provided by the IPA, which is the official body for the provision of training for public sector organisations, with the MoE Training Centre, which provides training programmes for MoE employees. Since this study has identified the shortcomings in the training programmes in the public sector, it contributes to the knowledge gap which exists in the literature in the field in the case of Saudi Arabia. Indeed no literature related to the KSA appears to exist on the three aspects of this present study.

In this chapter the researcher presents his conclusions and recommendations about the impact of training in the public sector in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

9-2 Conclusions

The conclusions derived from the findings and the discussion regarding the impact of training in the public sector of the KSA are:

- The most important reason to attend training from the trainees' perceptions in both samples is learning practical skills followed by gaining promotion in case of the IPA trainees and transferring to another job or applying for postgraduate studies in the case of the MoE trainees;
- While the most important reason that persuades trainees to attend training according to the IPA trainers is to get promotion, the MoE trainers thought learning practical skills would be the most important reason motivating MoE trainees to attend training.

- Group discussion is the most important and effective method in the perception of both the trainees and the trainers in both samples. This indicates that trainees are more interested in interchanging their views and experience with their peers from different public sector organisations.

- The second crucial method for the IPA participants is lectures, while exercises and drills are considered second most important method for the MoE participants.
- The majority of the trainees in both samples were satisfied with the effectiveness and the quality of information presented in the training programmes and also with trainer ability to present the training.
- Statically, there was no significant difference between the two samples in terms of the trainees' views about training effectiveness and satisfaction.
- There is a lack of a systematic procedure to conduct training needs analysis which led to certain consequences such as:
  - Inappropriate selection for the trainees to the training programmes;
  - The training programmes do not match the organisational and occupational needs;
  - An inadequate training design, since there is no collaboration between the beneficiary organisation and the training centres.
- The findings reveal that there is no significant difference between the IPA and the MoE Training Centre regarding the effectiveness of training upon trainee performance.
- The first level of the Kirkpatrick model which is 'reaction' or 'smile sheet' is the only level used to evaluate the training programmes in both samples through an

end of programme questionnaire, with no effort to evaluate the impact of training on the beneficiary organisations.

- There are different barriers that make training less effective but the most problematic one is the discouraging environment. Although, the trainees' feeling towards the effectiveness of training are positive, the differences between the work setting and the training setting are obstructing the training transfer;
- The immediate supervisors' perceptions of the impact of the training upon their subordinates' knowledge, behaviour and skills were positive. Nevertheless, the real impact is debatable, since the trainees' views of the expected barriers when they return to work, especially concerning the work environment, have a negative effect on the real impact of training.

9-3 Recommendations

After stating the general findings, it is important to respond to the findings by providing recommendations, which it is hoped will overcome shortcomings in the system if they are to be adopted. These recommendations are entirely based on the findings of this study and the conclusions, which focus on the systematic approach to training, may be of importance in enhancing the impact of training among the public sector employees.

- The IPA and the MoE Training Centres have focused on one aspect of the training process, the designing phase. Though it is an important part of the training process, there are other phases which cannot be ignored. The training process should include the following stages: training needs analysis, designing training according to actual needs, training delivery, and finally evaluating the whole process according to the preset objectives. In order to respond to such levels in a training process, a dynamic approach with the view to adding value to the process should be taken into consideration.

- Linking the reward scheme, either for promotion or other career advantages, to simple attendance the training is not effective and may lead to a waste of time and money to the organisations in the public sectors. It is, therefore, recommended that the reward system should be linked to achieving the preset training objectives;
- Training needs analysis conducted in the IPA and the MoE's Training Centre needs to be reconsidered. Therefore, it is recommended that training needs analysis should be based on the real work needs, which include investigation of the needs of the employee, the job and the organisation;
- As found by this study, training design is conducted by the IPA and the MoE's Training Centre without any collaboration with the beneficiary organisation. Therefore, it is recommended that more involvement in the design stage and in the training needs analysis by the beneficiary organisations is necessary for training to be effective and add value to the beneficiary organisations;
- The findings revealed that there was no input from the trainees and their supervisors in the design and evaluation phases. Therefore it is recommended that the trainees and their immediate supervisors involve themselves in the whole training process to achieve consistency in matching the needs of the job with what can be provided in the training setting including the training tools;
- To conduct a sound training evaluation which measures the impact of training after the trainees return to their work, it is recommended that both the training body and the beneficiary organisation should work side by side, since the former knows the training objectives and the latter knows the trainees level before the training take place;
- The evaluation process should not stop at the first level of the Kirkpatrick model, namely 'reaction'. There should be more consideration given to

measuring the impact of training on the trainees' knowledge and behaviour and skills;

- The findings revealed that the trainees' fear from the discouraging environment is the most worrying barriers. Therefore, it is recommended that more awareness among the top management and the line managers of the importance of providing an encouraging climate, where the trainees find the help and support when they return to their work to apply what they have learned in the training;
- Increasing the awareness of the employees about the crucial importance of continuous training in a changing environment, in which global forces provides the dynamism of change. In order to remain competitive individually and institutionally, they should know that they need to upgrade their skills and knowledge according to the requirements of the changing environment. Thus, training should be undertaken to create value-added to the beneficiary institutions with the objective of increasing its effectiveness, efficiency and competitiveness.

9.4. Difficulties and Limitation:

The most obvious difficulties of the study were:

- the research instruments were translated from English into Arabic, and the gathered data was again translated from Arabic to English ,
- data collection took more time than expected (nine weeks) for various reasons explained in Chapter Five,

- Access problem: The researcher encountered some difficulties in the process of distributing the questionnaires in the public sector. Without the researcher's personal relationship the gathering of research data could have taken far longer.

As regards to major limitation of this study, as mentioned in Chapter Three most studies do not evaluate training beyond the first level of the Kirkpatrick Model (reaction). This study is not exception, since it is very difficult to gather and evaluate the data for the remaining levels of the model, namely transfer of learning and training and change in behaviour. Thus, these areas were not included in this research. Also, the time and remit of this study did not allow such issues to be researched.

9.5. Suggestions for Further Research:

Indeed, PhD research can only focus on a particular aspect of a research conducted on particular subject and case. Therefore, several further researches can be recommended based on the findings of this study. The following agenda may be considered for future research in order to complete a larger picture which could be related to measuring the impact of training:

- A comparative study to compare the impact of training between the public sector and the private sector in Saudi Arabia;
- A comparative study to compare the impact of training in the public sector in Saudi Arabia and a developed country such as the UK;
- Investigating various obstacles that hinder the training transfer related to the work environment. Such a study will locate how the efficiency of training in terms of outcome can be achieved;
- Training needs analysis is a vital step in the training process; therefore a further study to examine the current situation and how these needs are tackled in the training centres has vital importance;

- Linking the promotion or any other career benefits to attending training has different consequences. Therefore, a further study could be undertaken to investigate the training reward system;
- According to Wolf (2002) one obvious way to decide whether a country trains its workforce too little is also to look at other countries which are considered an undoubted economic success. Therefore, a study is recommended to compare the training impact in the KSA and in other countries which have experienced an economic boom in the developing world such as Malaysia, the United Arab Emirates and, more specifically, Dubai.

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Appendixes

Trainee's Questionnaire

Background information

1. Qualification (please tick where appropriate)

   □ Lower Than High School. □ High School. □ Diploma.

   □ Bachelor's degree. □ Master's degree □ PhD

2. Age group (please tick where appropriate)

   □ 20-29 years □ 30-39 years

   □ 40-49 years □ 50-59 years

3. Experience in the job (please tick where appropriate)

   □ 1-5 years □ 6-10 years □ 11-15 years

   □ 16-20 years □ more than 20 years

Organisational information prior to attending the programme.

1. Who first suggested that you come on the programme(s)?

   □ You, yourself □ Your supervisor

   □ Training officer □ Other (please specify) .....

2. Did you discuss attending the programme(s) with your supervisor?

   □ Yes □ No

If 'Yes', what did your discussion primarily cover? (please tick where appropriate)

□ What I might get out of the programme(s)?

□ Who would stand in for me during my absence?

□ The location and date of the programme

□ The reason why I had been nominated

□ What is required from me after I attend the programme?

□ Other issues? Please mention.

a) .....

b) .....

c) .....

Your reason for participating in the programme

Please tick where appropriate to show your agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

	Your reason for participating in the programme(s)	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	The programme forms a systematic part of the organization's development plan for me.					
2	Training is important to get promotion in my job.					
3	Making use of the training money allowance.					
4	Learning practical skills in the job.					
5	Developing practical and theoretical abilities					
6	I want to change the work environment.					

What you think about the training methods followed in your training?

Please rank the following training methods according to how much they contributed to your learning (1 for most …5 for least).

	Training methods	1	2	3	4	5
1	Lectures.					
2	Group discussion.					
3	Informal discussion with the participants.					
4	Programme handouts.					
5	Exercises or drills.					
6	Field visits.					
7	Researches.					
8	Audio visual aids.					

In your opinion, do you think there should have been more or less or none of the following elements in the programme? (Please put a tick where appropriate.)

	Training methods	More	Less	None
1	Lectures.			
2	Group discussion.			
3	Informal discussion with the participants.			
4	Programme handouts.			
5	Exercises or drills.			
6	Field visits.			
7	Research.			
8	Audio visual aids.			

Were you satisfied overall with the following?

	Statement	Yes	No	Not sure
1	The presentation skills of the trainer.			
2	The quality of the information presented.			
3	The quality of the training materials.			
4	The trainer ability and knowledge.			
5	Ability of passing information to trainees clearly.			

What do you think you gained from the programme?
(Please put a tick where appropriate.)

	Your reaction to training	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I benefited from comparing my experience and views with those of others.					
2	I got some useful new ideas.					
3	I felt motivated to learn throughout.					
4	I gained a better understanding of what is required in my work.					
5	I am more confident about how to do my work.					
6	The programme was suitable to my training needs.					

What do you think of the effectiveness of the training programme?

(Please put a tick where appropriate.)

	Training effectiveness	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly
1	The programme was significantly related to the job I currently do.					
2	The learning objectives were adequately discussed at the beginning of the programme.					
3	The programme was helpful to me in doing my job.					
4	The programme was enjoyable in the way it was presented.					
5	The programme was successful					
6	The programme duration was appropriate.					
7	The programme had a balance of theoretical and practical aspects.					
8	The programme participant's experience was suitable.					
9	I think the programme achieved its goal.					

How likely do you think it is that the following factors will be obstacles to your attempts to introduce change? (Please put a tick where appropriate.)

	Obstacles that you might face in your attempts to induce some change after training.	**Very likely**	**Likely**	**Not sure**	**Unlikely**	**Very unlikely**
1	Lack of support from my superior.					
2	Lack of support from my colleagues.					
3	Lack of support from my subordinates.					
4	Insufficient knowledge on my part.					
5	Insufficient practice or skill on my part.					
6	Lack of time to carry out change					
7	Lack of desire on my part to change.					
8	Lack of suitable work environment,(PCs, equipments,…etc)					
9	Inflexibility of work regulations and rules towards change.					

Thank you,

Yours / Researcher

Ahmed Aldolaimi

Questionnaire for Trainees' Immediate Supervisors

In general, training aims to raise efficiency. It plays a crucial role in the success of any organization. To assess whether trainees have improved as a result of their training, some administrative aspects are listed below. Please read the list and rate the employees for whom you were responsible according to their abilities before and after the training intervention.

Job data: job title .....

4. Experience in the job (please, tick where appropriate)

□ 1-5 years □ 6-10 years □ 11-15 years

□ 16-20 years □ more than 20 years

(1= Excellent, 2= Very good, 3= Good, 4= Average, 5= Below Average)

First: Knowledge and Information

	Statement	Before training					After training				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Trainee's application of organisational methods										
	The level of trainees' knowledge										
2	The level of trainee's skills.										
3	Trainee familiarity with new knowledge and information needed for the job requirements.										
4	Trainee understanding of organisational goals.										

Second: Behaviour

	Statement	Before training					After training				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Trainee's readiness to work as part of a team and to show team spirit										
2	Trainee's objectivity in handling his work in his departments.										
3	Trainee's cooperation with colleagues.										
4	Trainee's dependent behavior in doing the job, not becoming dependent on his superiors.										
5	Trainee's ability to solve problems and refer to his supervisor only when necessary.										
6	Trainee's initiative and innovation in introducing change to improve methods of work(performance)										
7	Trainee's dealing with rules and regulations in a flexible way to serve the organization's objectives.										
8	Trainee's concern for and commitment to the organization's objectives.										
9	Trainee's response to compliance with superiors in carrying out orders.										
10	Trainee's utilization of office hours in accomplishing job requirements.										
11	Trainee's utilization of the best available resources in the work setting.										
12	Trainee's ability to carry out or take additional responsibility at work.										
13	The effort they put into the job and their keeping of regular office hours.										

Third: Skills

	Statement	Before training					After training				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Trainee's ability to set priorities and arrangements.										
2	Trainee's skills and abilities.										
3	Trainee's ability to recognize obstacles or problems and deal with them.										
4	Trainee's ability to accomplish job requirements on time										
5	Trainee's ability to coordinate work between departments.										
6	Trainee's ability to make effective suggestions about problems related to their work										
7	Trainee's ability to assess their own training.										
8	Trainee's ability to assess their subordinates training needs.										
9	Trainee's ability to prepare suitable plans to the training needs.										

Thank you,

Yours / Researcher

Ahmed Aldolaimi

Semi-structured interview with trainers

Personal information:

1 -Educational level:
2 -Experience:

Information about the programme:

3- Was the duration of the training enough for the trainees' acquisition of skills and knowledge?

4- Do you think training is important for enhancing employee performance?

5- Were the objectives of the programmes declared and clearly understood?

6- Did you design the training programme yourself? Or did you contribute to the design with others?

7- Do you think the training programme was designed according to the trainees' actual needs?

8- Were the trainees selected appropriately according to their training needs? If yes/no, why? On what basis?

9- Was the content of the programme appropriate for the trainees? If not, Why?

10- Do you think there was a balance between the practical and the theoretical aspects in the programme?

11- From your point of view, do you think the trainees in the public sector were motivated to attend the training programme?

12- Do you think the training methods used in the training programme were suitable for the trainees' needs? What is the most effective method from your point of view?

13- What do think the trainees gained from these programme?

14- Do you think the training centre is responsible for evaluating the training programme? If yes, is there any effort in this context? If not, who should be responsible?

15- What are the reasons that make the trainees attend the training programmes from your point of view?

16- What are the obstacles that obstruct the trainees from applying what they learned in the training programme from your point of view?

17- Do you have any further comments?

Thank you for your cooperation

The researcher

Ahmed Aldolaimi