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**HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES AND RELATED
ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS IN KUWAITI ORGANISATIONS**

An investigation of the policies and practices of Kuwaiti Government and Private/Joint venture Organisations towards Training and Development and organisational related factors.

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HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES AND RELATED ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS IN KUWAITI ORGANISATIONS.

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KEY WORDS

Management Training, Management Development, Learning, Kuwait, Government Sector, Private sector, Joint venture sector, Training and Development, Organisation Development.

ABSTRACT

This study examines and aims to disclose the current policies and practices of Training and Development (T&D) within Kuwaiti government and private/joint-venture organisations. The literature review indicates that although much attention has been devoted in studying Training and Development practices, a very few focus on T&D related factors on organisation performance in developing countries. The literature also indicates the need for considering these factors in order to have a better T&D effectiveness, and hence organisation overall performance. In this study the Training for Impact model was adopted and tested within Kuwaiti context in terms of training needs assessment and evaluation and follow-up. This research uses data collected from 100 organisations in Kuwait. 50 of these were government and 50 private /joint venture listed in Kuwait Stock Exchange. Therefore, all managers (100 training personnel) who are in charge of T&D function/programmes, were samples of the respondents of the present study. The main data collection methods adopted by this study were interviews (semi-structured) and "drop-in and pick-up" self-completion questionnaires. The data were quantitatively analysed and triangulation of quantitative findings was carried out in order to find out the difference between the two sectors in Kuwait in terms of T&D practices and related factors. To establish a causal connection between related factors and identified dimensions (T&D effectiveness, organisational rating, and satisfaction with evaluation process), a multiple regression technique was employed.

The major findings of this study are noted below:

Results indicate that the majority of the investigated organisations do not have a formal T&D system. T&D programmes are still carried out on a piecemeal basis rather than a systematic long-term policy. Findings which were common among the majority of the approached organisations were absence of a systematic organisational training needs analysis, use of conventional training methods, lack of effective procedures for T&D evaluation.

The study explores the training personnel's way of thinking towards their T&D function and to the proposed T&D dimensions framework (integrated HRD strategy, top and line management commitment, a supportive formal system, T&D mechanism, organisational culture, and training budget). The findings indicate that most of the training personnel perceived these dimensions as providing motivation, commitment and support to their T&D function.

Six main factors were found to influence T&D practices in government and private/joint venture organisations. These factors are: top management commitment, mutual support between organisational philosophy and T&D activities, line management support, T&D involvement in organisation strategy, T&D policies and plans, and T&D effects on employees self-development.

The study also identifies T&D effects on organisation performance in Kuwaiti organisations in terms of: eliminating problems; increasing commitment and motivation; fulfilling individual needs and personal objectives, improving interpersonal and interdepartmental relations; improving quality of goods and services; and leading to effective utilisation and investment in human resources. In addition the study establishes a causal connection of T&D related factors with performance dimensions, organisation rating, and satisfaction of T&D evaluation.

The author recommends that for the T&D function to be treated as seriously as other organisational functions, then Kuwaiti training personnel, as well as top and line management, need to be more willing to play proactive and strategic organisational roles in T&D activities.

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ABBREVIATIONS

T&D	Training and Development
MD	Management Development
MTD	Management Training and Development
MEP	Management Education programmes
HRM	Human Resource Management
HRD	Human Resource Development
OD	Organisational Development
ROI	Return of Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
KD	Kuwaiti Dinar
KSE	Kuwait Stock Exchange
NBK	National Bank of Kuwait
US\$	US Dollar
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
CSC	Civil Service Commission
HRDC	Human Resource Development Centre
GCC	Gulf Co-operation Council
PAAET	Public Authority for Applied Education and Training
CSCE	Community Service and Continuing Education
KISR	Kuwait Institute for Scientific Research
KFAS	Kuwait Foundation for the Advancement of Science
CROTA	Comparative Rating of Organisation's Training Activities

Dedicated to my mother, sisters, brother, and to the memory and soul of my father. Also to my wife, and my lovely daughters and son.

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In recent years, increasing attention has been given within organisations to Human Resource Development (HRD) through Training and Development (T&D) of employees, in order to prepare and equip them with new skills, methods, and strategies to carry out greater responsibilities. Torraco and Swanson, (1995) stated that HRD has served the needs of organisations to provide employees with up-to-date expertise. This has arisen because of the vital role that T&D plays in human improvement to meet business strategic objectives, and not because it is a management philosophy related to concepts or theories or enrichment of management science.

Employees are valuable assets, which should be increased through a systematic approach to investment in their training and development. “Systematically developing and implementing learning activities to enhance knowledge, skills and competencies and to prepare individuals to perform a wider or more demanding tasks now or in the future” (Armstrong, 1995). A 1990 survey of 264 of some of the USA largest industrial and service firms revealed that the biggest challenge their executives see in the coming decades is not foreign competition but building and keeping a qualified work force (Beverly, 1991).

HRD has grown and expanded under a variety of labels, and among these is Training and Development as a subsystem of HRD. Willis (1990) defines HRD as a multifaceted discipline that utilises well-qualified individuals in HRD activities to integrate the use of training and development and organisational development to improve individual, group, and organisational effectiveness. In a study of 500 companies conducted by Ralphs and Stephan (1986) to identify which resource areas are included under HRD, they stated that among the higher ranked areas were Training and Development, Human Resource Planning, and Career Development. According to Nadler and Nadler (1990), T&D is one of the main elements of HRD, and should be viewed from three objectives: Training, Education and Development.

Training is a job-related experience, which could be defined as learning related to the present job to improved performance and preparation of advancement of an individual in his/her current job or task. Nadler and Nadler (1990 p.6) define training and development as “organised learning experience provided by employers within a specific period of time to bring about the possibility of performance improvement and/or personnel growth”. Education is learning intended to prepare the individual for a different but identified job, with breadth of knowledge and broader understanding and thinking. Development is similar to learning; it enhances the general growth and the broader role of the individual, and is not related to a specific present or future job, it is oriented to both individual and organisational growth.

There has been an argument among researchers and scholars regarding the effectiveness of T&D programmes, especially when related to expected results and benefits in comparison to the huge financial resources, effort, and time, invested in

T&D programmes. A lot of pressure is being put on human resources to show results, which indicates that businesses see the function of these departments as strategic (Calvacaa, 1999). Increasingly, organisations are evaluating training to determine if it has improved the performance and productivity of the organisations (Matheson, 1997). Consequently, if this sort of evidence is not presented accurately, T&D will be viewed as an ineffective process in attaining organisational objectives, which, as a result, will exclude training and development policies and strategies when formulating an organisation strategies. Milkovich and Boudreau (1987) argue that the cost and expense can be clearly assessed in management training and development (MTD) programmes, but the return from these processes and costs are still ambiguous.

Others related effectiveness to the corporate strategy. Michael (1993) argues that T&D programmes should be allied to corporate strategy. Although not always obvious, there is a natural fit between initiatives for developing employee expertise and the organisation's strategic direction. Jacobs and Jones (1995, p. 178) posit the argument as follows: "Organisations in the new economy have come to realise that employee expertise is a vital dynamic living treasure. The desire for the employee expertise is meaningless unless an organisation can develop it in ways that respond to the business needs". Roy (1977) and Hofstede (1983) connected T&D programme effectiveness to the culture requirements, and understanding of some culture variables. Bailey (1998) has distinguished between high-performing companies and all other organisations, and attributed their success to the degree to which training is integrated into company culture and strategy.

T&D is an investment in a variety of efforts and resources provided by organisations for the process of preparing skilled and competent human resources in order to achieve strategic objectives more effectively. Torraco (1993) argued that organisations in market leadership positions realise sooner or later that human resources are ultimately the only business resource with the creativity and adaptive power to sustain and renew an organisation's success despite changing market conditions. In this regard, Latham (1988) states that the success of T&D programmes in facilitating the achievement of organisation strategic objectives has been demonstrated. Other researchers are also enthusiastic, and advocate all T&D processes as important for achieving organisational effectiveness (Quick, 1991).

T&D is a tool for success, and no organisation can ignore it, because it is an essential factor for most of human resource functions and activities. The main objective in training individuals is to provide well-organised and systematic training activities to achieve strategic objectives, and to prepare the trainees to cope with present and future environmental changes. However, the study conducted by Development Dimensions International indicates that 5 out of 10 organisations are dissatisfied with their current workforce development systems and want to improve them. Further, the findings indicate that half of the 171 companies surveyed rate the effectiveness of their current programme at a score of 5 or less out of a possible 10 (Alonzo, 1998).

The need for T&D in the Arab world is no less urgent, and management considers it to be as the most crucial factor facing development in the third world (Blunt and Jones, 1992). Other researchers claim it is the most critical challenge

facing developing countries: Murrell (1984, p.25) stated that “ few would disagree that one of the most critical challenges facing the third world is the training and development of its people”.

1.2 Statement of problem

Arab countries have stated that their growth, economic and social development will not be achieved unless they develop their human resources (people). This requires extensive and intensive preparation and continual efforts to prepare leaders who are able to face challenges of the future and manage the present effectively. Drucker (1969, p.51) argues “it can be said without too much oversimplification that there are no underdeveloped countries, there are only undermanaged ones”. However, Arab countries have to face a problem related to the shortage of qualified and trained human resources in general, and managers in particular (Attiyah, 1993; Al-Faleh, 1987). Besides, there is little information regarding T&D in the Arab world, and it is not given adequate consideration in terms of research.

Kuwait is one of those Arab countries which faces a shortage of qualified human resources in general, and managers in particular, especially after the Iraqi invasion. In order to face challenges of the coming century, the middle and top management positions need to be filled with capable and highly qualified Kuwaitis. This has been made clear in the national five-year plan (1995/1996-1999/2000), which emphasises the preparation and development of the national work force, and increase in the efforts related to T&D activities.

On the other hand, T&D is urged to be applied systematically to cope with government strategy towards implementing privatisation and nationalisation policies. Admittedly, T&D in Kuwait has been a subject of increasing interest and debate in recent years. Although Kuwait is applying administrative development techniques and T&D for overall development, these processes may face some obstacles in their implementation which might slow them down or prevent them from achieving their goals, such as bureaucratic inflation, malfunctioning, and inefficient current management T&D practices, (Al-Homoud and Abdulla, 1995). Others relate these obstacles to lack of investment in T&D programmes, and the absence of an effective evaluation systems and strategic linkage between development plans and training policies (Al- Fathly, 1995).

The World Bank (1994) report, regarding a broad assessment of the Kuwaiti economy, criticises the Kuwaiti employment policy. According to the report, the Kuwaiti guaranteed employment in the government sector (92%) affects productivity, and causes a gradual decline in the quality of the Kuwaiti human capital. In addition, Kuwait's labour market is highly distorted, reflecting the public/private sector total remuneration differential, and a consequent lack of inducement for Kuwaitis to be employed in the private sector or for private employers to hire them. The report recommends privatisation of some of the government sectors and reform of the education and training policies, so that Kuwait can produce the manpower it needs, and thus, the country's dependence on foreign labour will diminish. As described above, human resources in the developing countries, along with other organisational factors, need to be developed if these countries are really concerned about their further development.

1.3 Significance of the study

The justification for this study comes from the increasing interest in T&D in the world in general and Kuwait in particular, to develop, improve, and upgrade performance of human resources to achieve the required level of effectiveness, and to remain competitive in the world economy. T&D is a critical factor in the success of organisations, and the effectiveness of these organisations builds upon the effectiveness of individuals responsible for running the organisation's activities (McClelland, 1993; Kirschner, 1998; Bailey, 1998; Hanover and Cellar, 1998). It is notable that across the world the training budget is rising. Flynn (1998) stated that the true learning organisations would spend between 3% and 6% of their budget on training. However, the actual average is .9%, according to the American Society for Training and Development. According to Training Magazine's Industry Report in 1995, that \$52.2 billion was budgeted for formal training in 1995, (cited by Filipczak, 1996). Calvacca (1999) stated that according to a 65,000-circulation trade monthly, it was predicted that US companies with 100 or more employees budgeted \$58.6 billion for training in 1997, a 5% increase over 1996. Anonymous (1998) stated that it was estimated that US employers would provide employees with some 1.7 billion hours of training that year. These job categories are ranked according to the average number of hours provided per individual employee.

Arab countries have giving an important emphasis to T&D, by agreeing that management in general and T&D in particular is the appropriate approach to overall development. However, there are still few studies and research within the Arab countries related to T&D. Given the predictions, it appears reasonable also to assume

that T&D will occur increasingly in the workplace. It is now therefore the time to start to investigate in more detail how T&D is experienced by organisations.

Payrolls in Kuwait are high, and the unemployment rate is low. However, while economic numbers look promising, behind the statistics an acute skills shortage is appearing in every part of the country that is threatening the foundation of Kuwaiti organisations' competitiveness. The problems caused by this skill shortage and the solutions are not limited to any particular place or time, nor are they restricted to one level of the workforce or to one specific business. However, Kuwait is making great efforts in both government and private sectors to keep abreast of modern progress. These efforts are directed to exploring the appropriate methods and approaches to improve the performance level of administrative development in general, and T&D in particular. This takes into consideration the fact that the success of any organisation is at least partly attributable to how employees as a resource are formally and informally trained and developed.

Therefore, the main significance of this study lies in its being the first overall survey assessing the practices of T&D in Kuwait, and to clarify what constitutes the major organisational factors for effective T&D activities. In order to achieve this, two main sectors in Kuwait, namely Government and Private/Joint venture were chosen as a subject for this study, along with the personnel responsible for the T&D functions. The reason for this is the belief that personnel for T&D activities are the most knowledgeable in terms of training practices as well as the main organisational factors related to training effectiveness. Although a few studies exist, they are mainly focused on the investigation of a single issue related to T&D activities.

Therefore, the current situation requires a more comprehensive study. As far as this study is concerned, there are only a few specialised and analytical studies about T&D in either Kuwait or in the Arab world, which are not empirically based and tend to be faddish in nature.

1. The study will contribute to improve the understanding of T&D practices in Kuwait, by adding something new about T&D in Arab countries, and presenting an empirical and analytical study to expand the literature in relation to T&D in Arab countries.
2. The study will raise awareness of the importance of T&D, and give a better understanding of how T&D could be approached effectively. Through emphasis and realisation of the importance of applying a systematic training approach, with a support of the related organisational factors, on training effectiveness.
3. The study will also enlighten policy makers and top management in government and the private sector to apply a systematic approach to training to improve the skills of the nation's human resources, taking all organisational factors related to T&D into consideration in their strategic issues. Training managers will be able to use the findings to redesign T&D practices and activities for more effective implementation.

1.4 Study aims and objectives

This study is attempt to provide a theoretical and analytical view of the current T&D practices and their effectiveness. Also, to assess and specify the factors that are related to these practices, which affect the implementation of a rational approach to training in both the private and public sectors in Kuwait. How the actual situation is, and how it could be improved to achieve organisational and national objectives better, through more effective investment in human resources. Therefore, there is a need to review the function of the T&D activities, in order to estimate their effectiveness and to identify other possible related organisational factors. It is felt the failure to examine these issues may negatively affect the quality existing of T&D practices, which consequently do not meet the strategic direction of these organisations. The study also intends to provide recommendations for appropriate ways and methods to meet Kuwait's expectations to formulate effective T&D approaches based on analytical information.

The achieving of the above aims required the establishment of the following set of objectives:

1. To shed light on the demographic profile of both the investigated organisations as well as personnel who are in charge of conducting T&D activities in Kuwait. This profile will include the kind of business and employment size, and the education, experience, age, sex, and nationality, of those in charge of T&D.

2. To investigate the personal traits information regarding the status of training personnel who are in charge of carrying out the T&D activities within their organisations, with regard to their management level, level of authority, the management levels to whom they report, and decision-makers related to T&D activities.
3. To seek information also regarding other departmental features such as the existence of a training department/division, and the availability of trained and professional staff.
4. To test applicability of the Training for Impact model by Robinson and Robinson (1989) within the Kuwaiti organisations. This model mainly concentrates on two important elements necessary to any training approach: training needs assessment (TNA) practices and the evaluation process for the T&D function. Specifically:
 - 4.1 To find whether TNA practices are applied in Kuwait according to the proposed steps in the model, which is based on in-depth analysis for systematic long-term application, and how T&D is currently administered by training personnel.
 - 4.2 To discover also what type of methods are adopted by organisations related to TNA.

- 4.3 To shed light on the evaluation process conducted by the investigated organisations, and what obstacles there might be in implementing such a process.
5. To explore the training personnel perceptions of the dimensions which constitutes the basis of the author's framework. This consists of clarifying the organisational factors that could affect T&D activities and process in Kuwaiti organisation:
- 5.1 Strategic factors, such as the integration of HRD strategy, the corporate setting of the T&D plans and policies, and the characteristics of these plans and policies.
- 5.2 Organisational factors, in regard to top management support, co-ordination and mutual understanding between line managers and training personnel, organisational culture, and supportive formal system.
- 5.3 Implementation factors, in terms of the training budget, training providers/trainers' competencies, and training techniques.
6. To compare between government organisations and private and joint venture organisations in Kuwait in order to find out if there is a difference between private and public sectors in Kuwait, in regard to T&D practices and factors affecting those activities.

7. To test the impact of organisational factors on the level of satisfaction with the evaluation process, effectiveness of T&D activities and organisational rating of T&D practices, in comparison with other organisations working in the same field in Kuwait, in order to find out to what extent the author's T&D framework is applicable within the context of Kuwaiti organisations.

8. To compare the findings of this study with other similar studies around the world. Such comparison will provide arguments in support to T&D practices in Kuwait, whether it is similar or differs to that in the proposed model with some developed and other Arab countries. Also to validate the author's framework.

9. To draw conclusions and practical suggestions for the reform and redesign of T&D practices as recommended by the proposed model, with more emphasis on organisational factors for improving and formulating T&D within corporate strategy and culture.

In the light of these research objectives, the research design was developed to investigate one group, those who are responsible for T&D functions. This was because of the difficulties associated in gaining simultaneous access to other groups of respondents in the same organisations, and partly because of these positions being held by top management, general director, chief executives, and so on, in some of the investigated organisations. It was decided that both qualitative and quantitative approaches should be used in order to achieve the study objectives, the use of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies being likely to provide the researcher with greater insight into the T&D function in Kuwait.

1.5 Theoretical Framework

This section is concerned with the theoretical framework that has been adopted and tested in this study. The framework was divided into two stages. First, adopting and applying the comprehensive systematic approach to training called “Training for Impact” of Robinson and Robinson (1989). Fundamentally, a system training approach provides a basis for identifying and analysing areas in which there are skills development is needed. This is followed by an evaluation and follow-up process. The systematic approach to training is a comprehensive and technically reliable means for continually assessing an organisation’s skill and knowledge base, while simultaneously providing a catalyst for meaningful training programmes designed to address and overcome productivity improvement obstacles.

Where the evaluation and follow-up measurements may precede training and provide baseline measures of behaviours and skills. Evaluation is necessary descriptive and judgmental information to make effective training decisions through a systematic collection of data related to the selection, adoption, value and modification of various instructional activities. There are four steps involved in the evaluation and follow-up process:

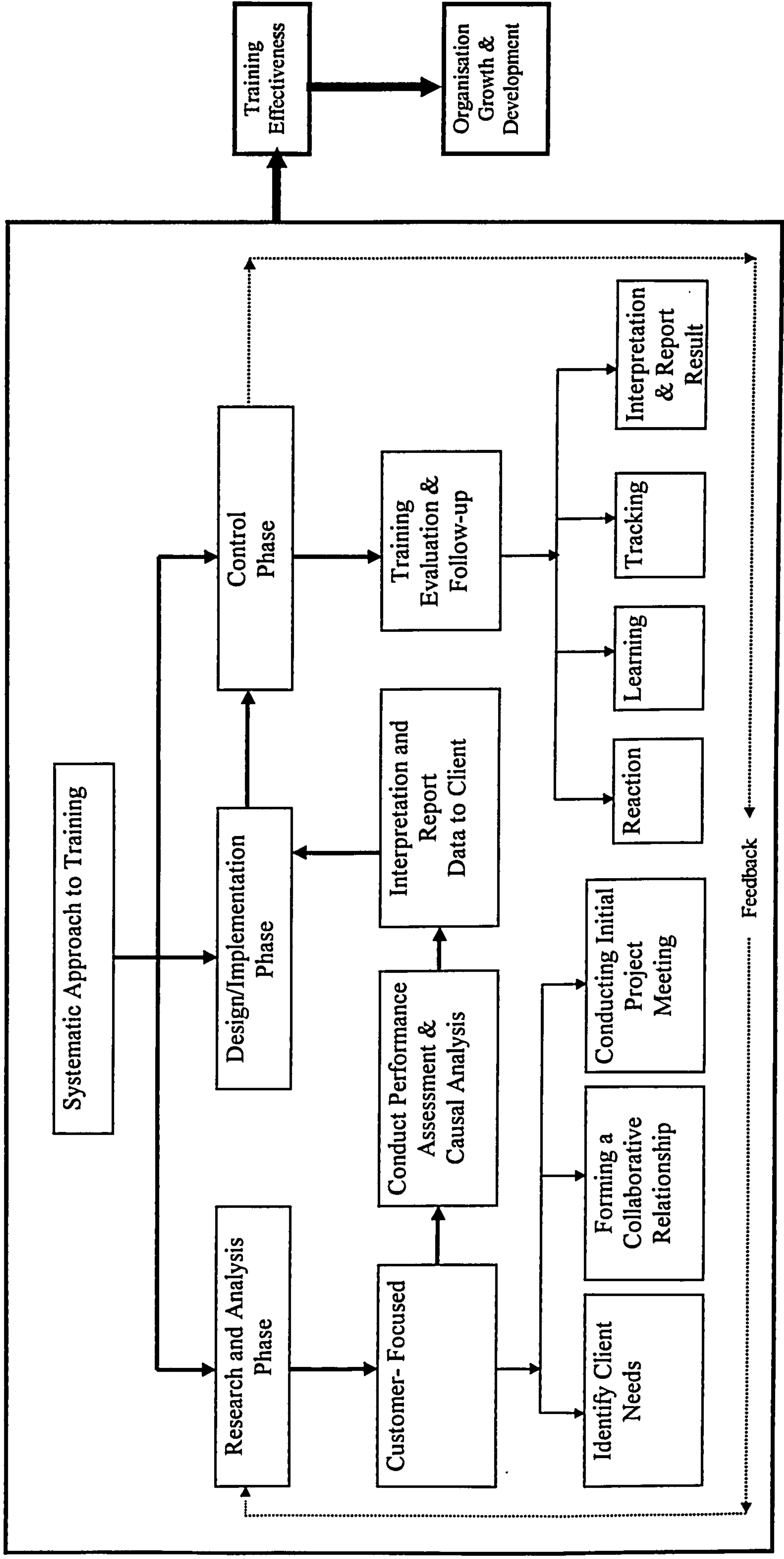
1. It is usually related to the trainee's attitudes towards a particular programme, and motivates learners to focus on specific individual learning needs.
2. Extent to which participants change attitudes, improve knowledge and/or increase skill as a result of attending the programme. This occurs during the learning process, and provides in-process guidelines for the learner.

3. This refers to any changes in skills, knowledge, and attitude brought about by the T&D programme, and provides important feedback to learners.
4. This level of evaluation focuses on the impact the behaviours have on performance, through providing an indication of how much sustained behaviour change occurs in the work place.

The first stage is illustrated in Figure 1.1, which consists of steps elicited from Training for Impact model by Robinson and Robinson (1989), further related phases and steps to Training for Impact model were added by the researcher to categorise the recommended steps and complete the training cycle approach.

The second stage of the theoretical framework is related to a causal model. To understand the world around us better, scientists try to deduce a satisfactory explanation for the different events and phenomenon. An explanation is a human construct. It is the answer to the question 'why?' One way of answering the question 'why?' is by using a cause and effect relationship, 'because ... happened first'. An explanation provided or a problem analysed in this form is known as causal analysis. Causes exist in the real world; they are processes which, once started, end up producing a particular outcome (effect) at a later point in time. In everyday life, to ask for the cause of something is to ask what 'makes it happen', what 'produces', 'creates', 'generates' or 'determines' it. Thus, causes are means by which change can occur.

Figure 1.1 A Systematic Approach to Training (Theoretical Framework)



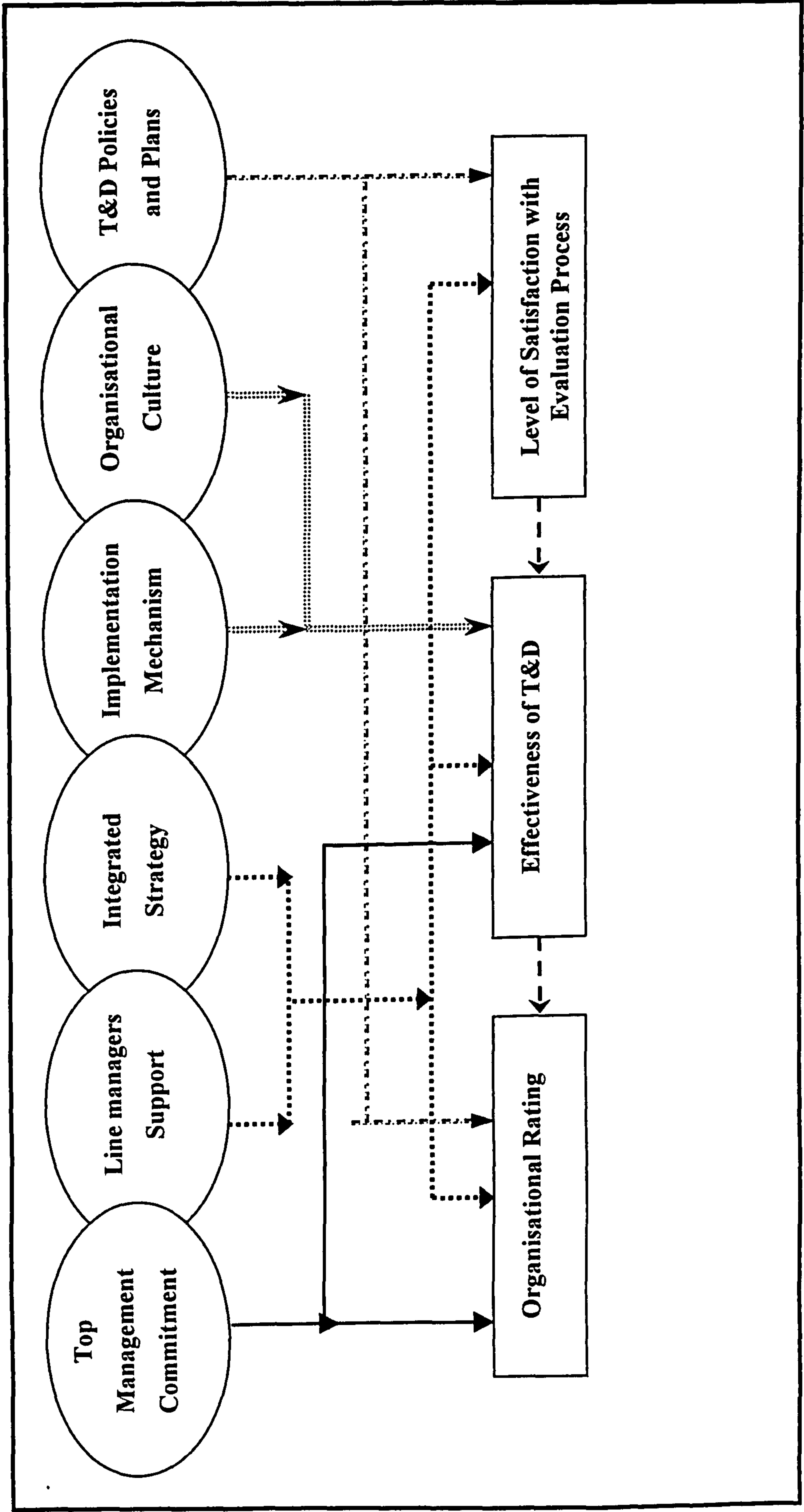
Under a realist view, causality concerns not a relationship between discrete events, 'cause and effect', but the 'causal powers' or 'liabilities' of objects or relations, or more generally, their way of acting or 'mechanisms'. Often causal powers do not come from a single object or individuals but from the social relations and structures which they form (Sayer, 1992).

1.5.1 Causal Model and its Mechanism

The basic causal model depicting one set of possible relationships between the variables is shown in Figure 1.2. The researcher according to the results found in Chapter 9, using factor and multiple regression analysis developed this figure. The six independent variables have a direct influence on the effectiveness of T&D activities, organisational rating in term of T&D activities in comparison with other organisation in the same field, and the level of satisfaction with the evaluation process within the organisation (dependent variables). As will be found in Chapter 9 of this thesis, T&D effectiveness and organisational rating in turn lead to an increase in the overall productivity and performance of the organisation.

It is not only important to know what effect the independent variables cause on the dependent variables but also the relation or 'mechanism' by which the effects occur. The causal relation between the six factors (independent variables) with dependent variables was discussed. As discussed above, the focus of this study is to determine the factors responsible for the effectiveness of issues addressed in Kuwait and how they are related. Thus six possible factors are considered to be causally related.

Figure (1.2) The Causal Model



1.6 Organisation of the study

This thesis is organised into ten chapters. The following is a brief description of them.

Chapter One introduces the background to this study. In short, it provides the basis for the later chapters of the thesis.

Chapter Two, emphasises the review of the literature related to T&D. The main issue targeted by this chapter is a systematic approach to training. This includes definition of training; education and development; training function; importance of T&D; integrated T&D policies and plans; training system approach; phases of a systematic approach; training techniques; and training for specific populations. This also includes the framework (first stage) was drawn.

In Chapter Three, the primary aim is to demonstrate the common themes in T&D. The following issues are discussed: integral strategy, top management commitment, organisational culture, and a system approach. Arab management characteristic and recent trends of T&D in Arab countries are also discussed, along with T&D in Kuwait. The author's proposed framework (second stage) was also drawn and included.

Chapter Four aims to acquaint the reader with a background of the country in which this study is conducted (Kuwait). This chapter provides a brief review of the country's history, geography, climate, population demographic features, labour force,

education sector, and economic context. It also includes a profile of economic sectors in Kuwait (government and private/joint venture), developments in Kuwait's foreign trade, the Kuwait Stock Exchange, and the overall economy, along with the administrative process in Kuwait and its complications.

Chapter Five explains the research design and methodology used to accomplish the study objectives. It describes what is a research; research objectives; the research process; research design; methodology in research design (Qualitative and Quantitative); research methods and survey types (interview/questionnaire); conducting research in Kuwait and its applicability to the Kuwaiti context; methodology and procedure of this research and the source of data used in this study; sample selection and the definition and construction of the sample population; sample population procedures; and designing, formulating and piloting the questionnaire, initial contact and in the field. Data analysis techniques (Quantitative data analysis techniques) are included, along with the difficulties encountered by the researcher in conducting the fieldwork of this study in Kuwait.

Chapter Six, aims to provide the findings related to the demographic profile of training personnel in charge of conducting T&D activities in Kuwait. Personnel attributes include age, sex, experience, education, and nationality. Career-related aspects include management level, level of authority, the management levels to whom they report, and decision-makers related to T&D activities. This chapter also includes the kind of business and employment size of the investigated organisations, along with departmental features such as the existence of a training department/division, and the availability of trained and professional staff.

Chapter Seven investigates thoroughly the applicability of the model presented in Chapter Two in the two sectors as viewed by their training personnel. The chapter presents empirical findings on the main issues related to a systematic approach to training, namely training needs assessment, and evaluation and follow-up. These issues include conducting a TNA and the approaches used in this regard (comprehensive, person, and job analysis), and the applicability of the Robinson and Robinson model (12 steps). The first part of this section emphasises TNA and data collection methods. The second part includes evaluation processes (reaction, learning, and tracking). In addition, the main difficulties that might hinder the effectiveness of the evaluation process are analysed.

Chapter Eight focuses on specific aspects related to T&D according to training personnel perceptions of the proposed T&D related factors, which comprise the author's framework. These include strategic factors such as integration strategy, training policies and plans; organisational factors such as top management commitment, and collaboration between training personnel and line managers; a supportive formal system; and implementation factors such as training budget, training outsources and training techniques. The chapter also explores the effectiveness of T&D in an organisation's growth and development, along with categorisation of its T&D compared with other similar organisations.

Chapter Nine explores the organisational factors related to T&D activities within the investigated organisations, and aims to discover whether or not the government and private/joint venture training personnel share the same perceptions of these factors. Analysis of this chapter indicates that there are six factors that both

organisations considered being influential on T&D activities. In the second part of this chapter the proposition that organisational factors will determine T&D effectiveness, organisational rating in terms of T&D activities, and level of satisfaction regarding the evaluation process.

Chapter Ten, summarises the main findings of the study and addresses implications and recommendations for the concerned parties (training personnel, government, and policy makers). This chapter also provides an avenue for further research in the field of T&D.

Chapter Two

Literature Review and the Research Framework (A Systematic Approach to Training)

2.1 Introduction

Since the turn of this century, many researchers, authors, trainers and specialists have developed an extensive amount of research interest in training and development. They have indicated that training means change, development and improvement of people's skills, behaviour, knowledge and attitudes to meet organisational objectives. (McGhee and Thayer, 1961).

In recent years, training and development have become increasingly important and play a vital role in an organisation's life. The role of training is to provide new knowledge and information, supply new skills, abilities, and also change and develop attitudes. As a result, it is expected that productivity and competency will increase for the achievement of an organisation's goals.

Therefore, any organisation should provide opportunities to its employees to enhance their skills, and to achieve optimum performance the employees should be properly selected and adequately trained to carry out their jobs. Robinson (1985) mentioned that in the last 25 years, the U.K. has seen a marked increase in training activities as employers have realised the importance of well-trained human resources for the attainment of their goals.

Lynton and Pareek (1967) argue that training responsibility is shared by the participants, the organisation and the training institutions. These three partners should be co-operative and effective in terms of determining training objectives, strategy and follow-up.

In the first section of this chapter consist of: definition of training and development, training functions, integrated training plans and policies, training and productivity, training system approach. The second part discusses the systematic approach to training which consists of four main phases, first, research and analysis which mainly concentrated on training needs assessment (e.g. organisation, task, person analysis). Second is development phase (e.g. setting training objectives, programme design, training techniques). Third is implement phase related to implementation of training programmes. The fourth is control phase which related to evaluation and feed-back of training programmes. Finally, training for specific population is outlined.

2.2 Definition: Training and development

Training is about extending and developing individuals' capabilities for better performance on the job. Taylor and Lippitt (1975) define training and development as "programmed and non-programmed continuous development of the managerial abilities of people, at all levels, in all executive and supervising functions, and in all departments. It is fundamentally a line responsibility, and one of the most essential functions of top management" (p.15). Robinson (1985 p.12) defined the ultimate objectives of training as "to develop a person's behaviour pattern in the area of

knowledge, skill or attitude, in order to achieve a desired standard or level of performance”.

The Manpower Service Commission Glossary of Training (1981) says that “Training is a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge, skills through learning experience to achieve effective performance in activities or ranges of activities”. This definition is based on a planned process which helps employees gain adequate knowledge and skills which are necessary to perform their duties effectively. The Glossary also defines development as “the growth or realisation of a personal ability, through conscious or unconscious learning. Development programmes usually include elements of planned study and experience and are supported by a coaching or counselling facility”.

Training, however, is different from education; education is concerned with more general growth and development of individuals. It focuses on broader objectives, opens up career opportunities, and deals mostly with knowledge, while training has more narrowly defined objectives, helps improve job performance, and concentrates more on skills. Jahns (1981) argues that education prepares people for relatively undifferentiated roles, positions and work setting, while training is concerned with an individual’s performance in a certain position in a given work setting. The differences between training and education should not be overstated, due to the similarity of the learning process involved and the methods and techniques used. What distinguishes them is the circumstances in which they impact on their agents of change and the nature of change they aim to bring about.

Training, then, is a planned and continuous process, concentrating on human resources in order to bring about certain changes in transferring of new knowledge, skills, behaviour and attitude to develop and maintain competence to perform specific roles in job-related tasks and to meet specific, current and future needs of the organisation.

2.3 Training Functions

The Manpower Service Commission Glossary of Training (1981) defined the function of training as “the purpose, the structure and specialised activities of training and its relationships with other activity within a working organisation”.

Rodger, Morgan and Guest (1971) defined the training function as a means to better utilise human resources by developing people in the organisation to meet the job to be done. According to Warren (1969), training must be job-oriented and aimed at specific task requirements. Robinson (1985) has gone further and specified the training function as a combination of structured, specialised and sequential activities to achieve a better investment in human resources in organisations.

Taylor (1996) has classified this function into two main roles, namely, services and proposing. He stated that the first role of the training function is reactive, where the training department provides the necessary expertise or skill to help organisations to fulfill their needs. The second is a proactive one, in which training specialists are engaged in suggesting and, where necessary, implementing training to achieve short and long-term corporate plans and strategies. This concept requires a positive attitude

and support at two levels of responsibility. Top management should see training and development as a major source of investment. Line managers should engage actively in determining their training needs, allocate time and resources, and be responsible for the evaluation of results.

2.4 Integrated Training Policies and Plans

The training plan and policy of an organisation is a part of the overall human resources development plans and policies. The effectiveness of the training and development activities therefore depends on how well the training policies and plans are developed and integrated within the organisation's strategy. Robinson (1985) states, regarding the training plan, that it is a practical document which brings training needs, derived from business and manpower plans, performance review system and any recognised sources, to set needs and establish standards. It also indicates the means by which they are to be satisfied, with estimated time and budget allocation.

Tavernier (1971) emphasised the individual's expectations and argues that these expectations should be included in training policy for more effective managerial decisions. He states that any policy regarding training should be in harmony with the company's personnel policies on recruitment, salaries, promotion and security of development. These elements have a direct effect on the training activities. For example, the recruitment policy may determine what type of training has to be provided and to whom. In terms of developing training policy, Kenney and Reid (1986) have emphasised that it is important to define the relationship

between the organisation's objective and its commitment to the training function, and to provide operation guidelines for management.

The following steps have been recommended for Planned Training (Armstrong, 1995):

1. to identify training needs, and involves analysing corporate teams, occupational and individual needs to improve existing competence.
2. to mention the objectives of training.
3. to decide who will provide the training.
4. to define the qualification required, specify the required skills and knowledge, and what kind of attitude is to be developed.
5. to plan training programmes by using the right combination of training techniques.
6. implement training in ways that ensure that the most appropriate methods are used.
7. to evaluate training, to determine the extent to which learning objectives have been achieved.
8. to do the necessary amendment and extension required, and also decide to what extent the training programme needs to be improved.

In order to meet management's expectations, training managers should influence those concerned with the corporate planning process that the training function must be involved in that process, and from their point of view training should be integrated into all corporate activities embracing all levels in the

organisation structure. The importance of this step is emphasised by Rosow and Zager (1988) who argued that the manager should have the power to influence and affect the formulation of corporate strategy and make top management aware of that.

This point emerged from the training literature that training must be linked to the organisation's strategy if it is to be viewed by top management as effective (Kozlowski and Salas, 1997; Taylor, 1996; Armstrong, 1992; Latham, 1988). A recent survey of 614 U.S. employers conducted by Watson Wyatt Strategic Rewards indicated that the degree to which training is integrated into company culture and strategy is considered as a distinguishing factor between high-performing companies and all other organisations (Bailey, 1998). Without proper training plans and policies integrated into all corporate activities, training and development can not address the actual organisational needs, and lack of proper guidelines and well-defined policies will result in the whole training effort being scattered and overlapped.

2.5 Training and Productivity

Organisations around the world are coming under increasing pressure to improve their efficiency and effectiveness to be able to compete in the changing market situations and cope with unexpected and turbulent issues. The key point for success is change. Change may be internal to the organisation or external to it. Internal changes in an organisation may be a result of changes in finance, structure, technology, strategy and culture, while external changes may be a result of changes

due to economics, politics, competition and government legislation. Training and development are therefore logical extensions of each other. McClelland (1993) argues that relying on training will produce improvements in human performance. Organisations are increasingly becoming aware that in spite of the technological changes in recent years, human resources are still an important issue which has a significant effect on overall development and productivity.

Goldsmith and Clutterbuck (1984), in viewing successful top British companies, concluded that training and development was a major factor in increasing efficiency of the workers. A study conducted to find the link between training activities and productivity compared 45 matched firms in Britain and Germany and found an average differential of 63% in productivity between the two countries favouring Germany (Daly et al., 1985). The authors concluded that much of the differential in productivity was attributable to skill factors achievable through systematic training, both at technical and managerial levels.

Rapid changes in technology, shorter product life cycle, increased competition, and low-cost production, are some of the reasons which are compelling organisations to have a highly skilled and educated workforce which can effectively cope with the changes. Several recent studies found that training and development was used as a tool to help employees become more productive by successful organisations (Kirschner, 1998), and as a mean of attraction and retention used by employers to attract potential employees (Bailey, 1998). Hanover and Cellar (1998) conducted a study among 99 middle-managers in a Fortune 500 consumer products organisation, and examined the importance of a diversity-related management-practices and the

effects of a training workshop on self-perceptions of behaviour. The study found that those who attended the workshop did rate management practices related to diversity training courses as more important, and did perceive themselves as engaging in such practices more than did a control group.

2.6 Training System Approach

There are many systems approaches to training with no single approach universally accepted. Goldstein (1980) states that “there is no one single approach to training indeed”(p. 22). Jones (1983) also argues that there is no single approach to training or development, which will guarantee a satisfactory and cost-effective solution. With regard to being systematic in training, we should be conscious of what we are doing and consider the role of the training functions in an organisational context. For the importance of a system approach to training, the Manpower Service Commission (1981) has defined such an approach “as a process of identifying inputs, outputs, components, and sub-systems, and then seeking to identify the contribution that training can make to improve the operation by enhancing the contribution of the human components (people) as opposed to machinery and operational procedures. The system approach is next applied to training design, where components are learning strategies and people (human components), and the objectives are in terms of learning”.

Three important aspects of a system approach were put forward by Patrick (1992):

1. Any functioning entity can be viewed as a system and defined in terms of its objectives or what it is attempted to achieve.
2. A system can be divided into subsystems and defined in terms of the interrelationship between them.
3. Different functions are performed by the sub-systems which enable the system to achieve its objectives.

For training personnel, a system approach is advantageous, some reasons in support are given by Kenney and Reid (1986):

- The training personnel are encouraged to study and evaluate a number of options before deciding their training objectives and priorities.
- By using it, the training personnel are in a position to see all the relevant variables and also get the opportunity to make a change in the given organisation context.
- It is more flexible to be applied to training at the individual level, the task level, the group and national levels.

Four training approaches were outlined by Kerrigan and Luke (1987) to be used for enhancing management talent in developing countries. These are: On-job-training, action training, formal training and non-formal training.

Tracy (1971) presented a generalised, integrated and conceptual picture of the major steps in designing, developing and validating a learning system. In the generalised sense, it defines common elements in the design and validation of training and development systems of all types and levels in the organisation. It is integrated in the sense that it deals with the entire process of the system design, development and validation, and describes the relationships of each sequential step to the preceding and subsequent steps. His conceptual approach focuses on “why”, “what” and “when”, rather than “how”.

A training framework was formed by Lynton and Pareek (1967), by dividing it in three phases:

1. The pre-training phase consists of determining the objectives’ selection process, motivation and job content, and time to delineate appropriate training programmes.
2. The training phase consists of participant’s perspectives towards the strengths and weaknesses of the training programme and its importance to their jobs.
3. The post-training phase consists of the transfer of learning to the work environment. In this phase the support and adjustment of the organisation is needed.

Within the integrated systematic training approach, an instructional system for Goldstein (1985) is one of a whole set of interacting systems, training programmes interacting with and being directly affected by a larger system involving corporate policy for determining objectives. He addressed the following points:

- Development of needs assessment techniques.
- Objectives necessary to be considered.
- Evaluation design must recognise that training programmes and evaluation are interventions within the organisation structure.
- Need for high quality empirical investigation that examines the usefulness of training techniques.

Odiome (1970) promoted the 'Cybernetic system', which is the most popular concept used in the field of training. The system assumes that training as an organisational activity is operated through a feedback process. Training needs are assessed by an accumulation of relevant data and feedback developed through the evaluation of prior training. Training efforts are designed consistent with the training needs, and then the evaluation is conducted to produce the feedback loop that generates the process.

Thus, management training and development should be based on a systematic process. Kubr and Prokopenko (1989) go one step further and suggest a Global Model of the management development cycle. It is a five-stage model. The system starts with needs assessment and is directed to all subsequent activities in the management training and development process, to achieve a desired result in meaningful way. It is depicted in Fig. 2.1.

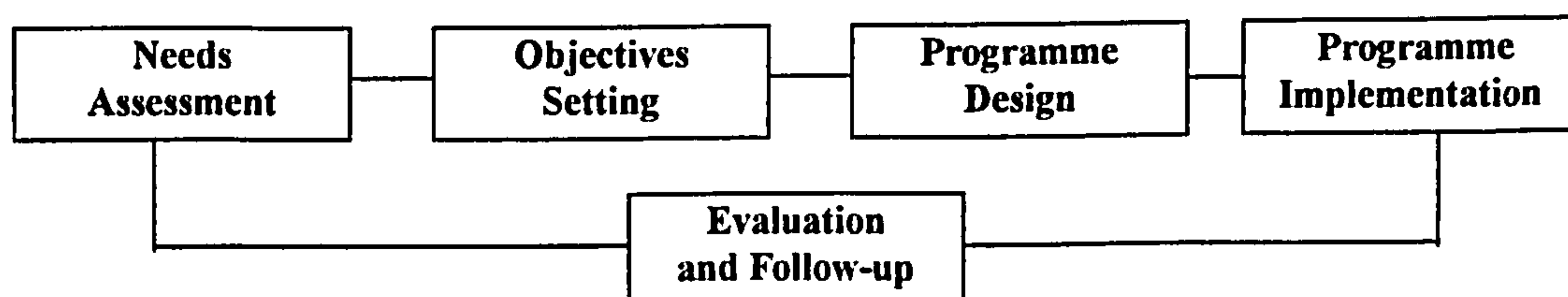


Fig. 2.1 Diagnosing management training and development needs (Kubr and Prokopenko, 1989; p. 47).

Nadler (1982) presented a Critical Event Model (CEM), in which he explains that the training process can be impacted by a variety of environmental variables that may affect the whole process or result in different outcomes. Thus, one significant implication of CEM is that the training needs cannot be assessed only in the first step, but the model has to be flexible enough to reassess training needs during the next steps to be followed in the process.

The two distinctive characteristics of this model are:

1. It cannot begin identifying training needs until identifying the needs of the organisation and specifying job performance are met. This is just because the identification of training needs must reflect the actual problem or need of the job or employee.
2. As the evaluation is the final step in the process, the evaluation and feedback step has to be built into each event in the training system.

The traditional approach of training or “training for activity” has been criticised by Robinson and Robinson (1989) who strongly recommend an alternative approach which is more sensitive to business needs, and is known as “training for impact”. In the “training for activity” approach a specific need is first identified, based on which a training programme is developed. To develop an instant programme to meet the qualitative expectations of top management, the training departments tend to be reactive and more forward-looking. On the other hand, in the “training for impact” approach, it is assumed that the training process intends to help organisations achieve their objectives, to provide assistance (which is associated with other variables), and also to make employees more capable of achieving the organisation’s objectives.

When the skills taught in the training programme are applied on the job, a business result occurs, yielding improved performance. "Training for impact" has twelve major steps which positively affect the job and help employees to achieve their job objectives (Fig. 2.2).

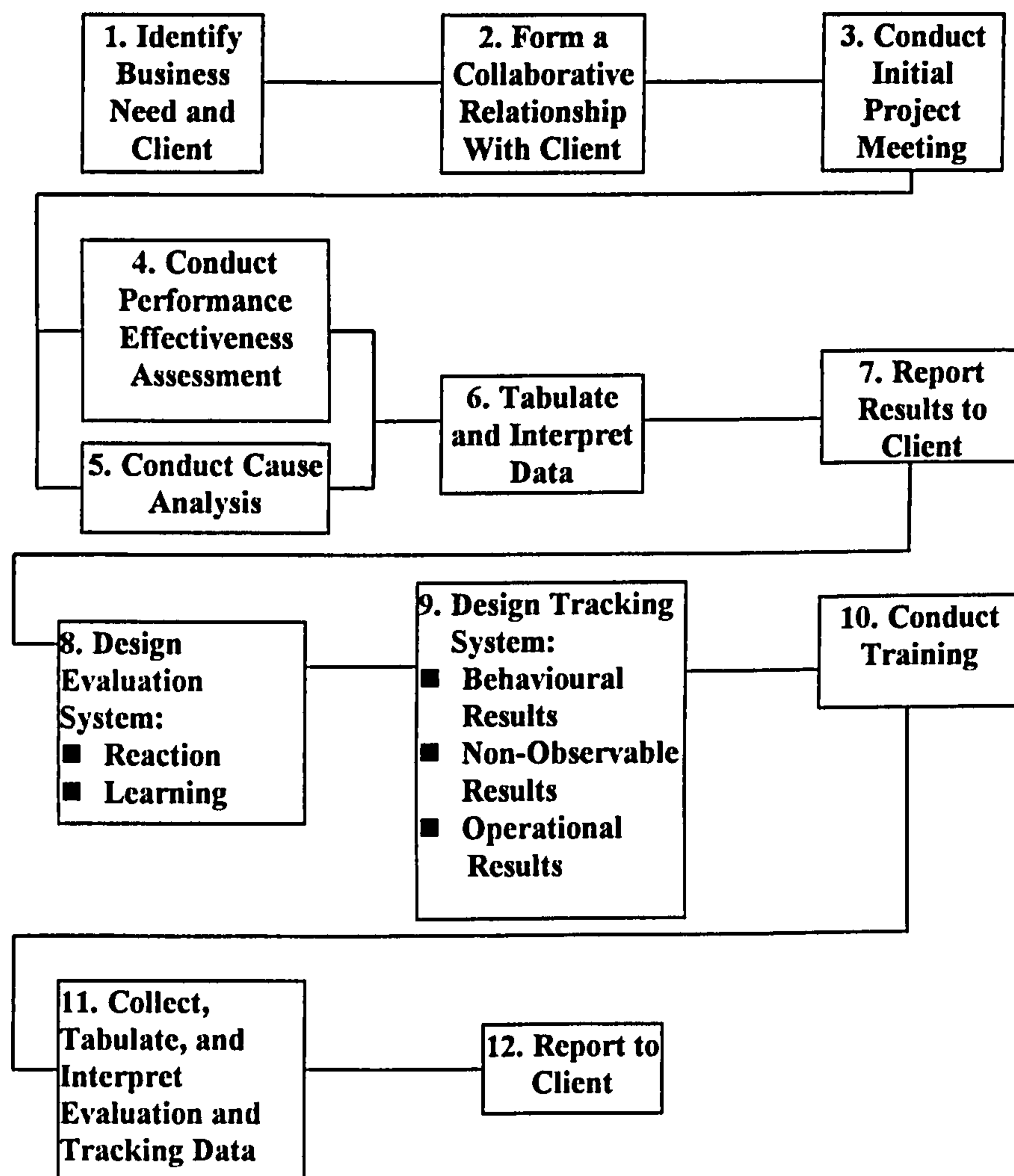


Fig. 2.2 Training for Impact (Robinson and Robinson, 1989, p.9).

Patrick et al. (1986) have developed a Learning Systems Development (LSD) Model with three phases, namely; Analyse phase, Design/develop phase, Implement/Control phase. These phases have been broken down into the tasks for the training designer. They highlighted the advantages of this LSD model as: identifies popularisable functions in the development of training, helps people who are

unfamiliar with training development, particularly helpful for large-scale organisations, psychological principles can be appended, and useful as an evaluation framework.

In the Human Resources Development plan (HRDP) approach developed by Beardwell and Holden (1994), the mechanistic system training approach should recognise the human needs of employees and the changes that can affect organisations. Thus, a more organic approach is recommended, one that strictly adheres to training schemes which are patently not working due to changes in personnel, personal relationships, business plans, economic performance and some of the other factors needs to be accommodated as well (Fig 2.3).

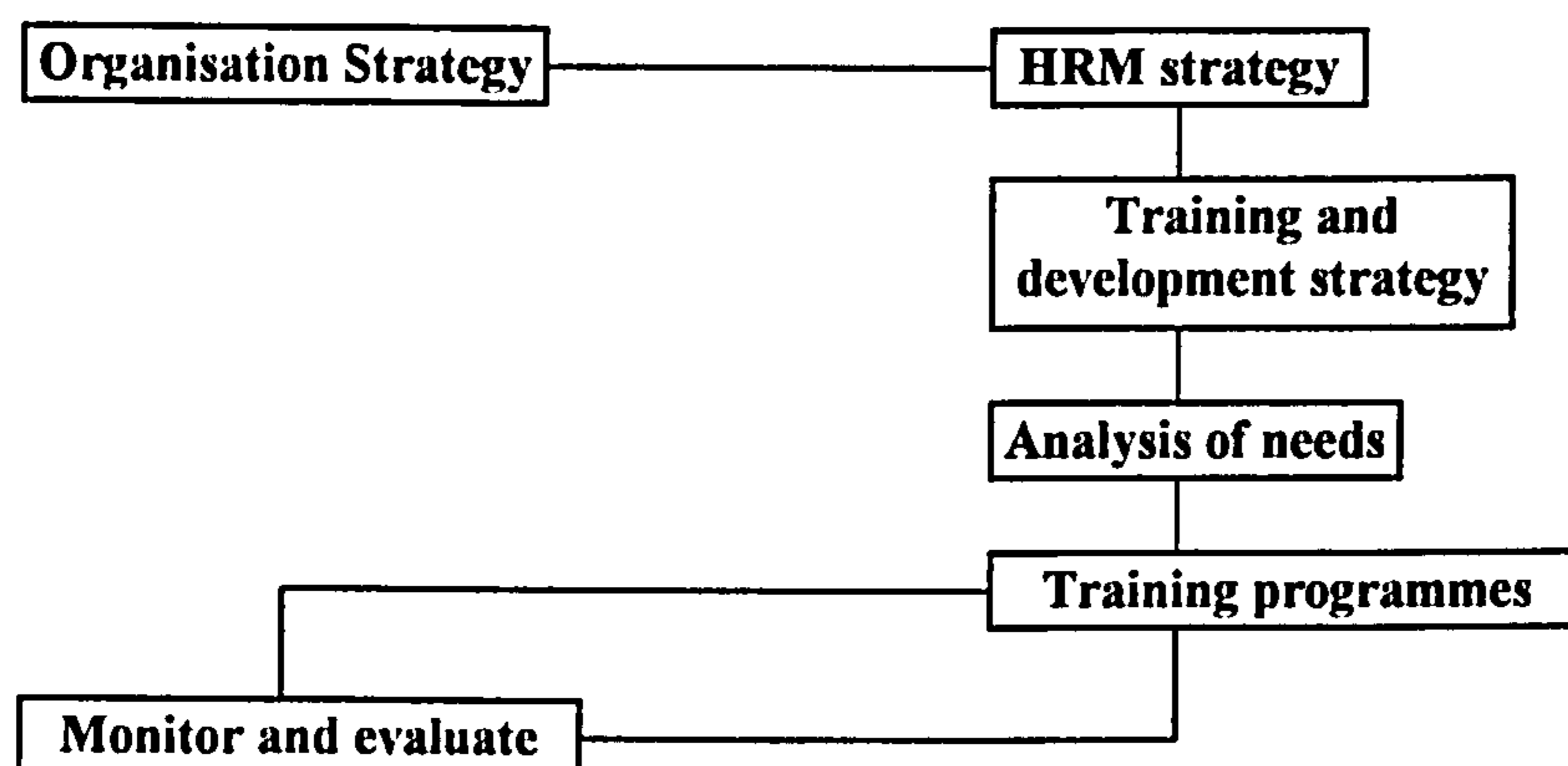


Fig. 2.3 Training cycle based on HRD plan (Beardwell and Holden, 1994, p.340)

To conclude, a system approach provides training in two ways:

1. Training viewed as a system that interacts with other systems such as personnel selection.
2. The development of training itself is a system and can be analysed in terms of subsystems and the interrelationship between them.

The first step in the training development cycle is the systematic identification of a training need and the specification of training objectives. Another important element in a training development system is evaluation and feedback, which needs to be capable of regulating the system by modifying and improving the necessary functions.

A system approach to the training and development function is to be viewed as an integral part of an organisation's strategy. Therefore, to bring about the desired results, it is the line manager's responsibility to work in harmony with the training and development personnel. These models are an attempt to analyse the development of training into a series of goals or decisions facing the training managers; they specify what goals need to be achieved, they do not necessarily specify how these goals should be accomplished.

2.7 A Systematic Approach to Training

As we have seen from the literature review, the importance of a systematic approach to training could be of benefit for individuals as well as the organisation, for better performance and competence. A systematic approach emphasises five main aspects:

1. Training needs assessment.
2. Setting objectives.
3. Training programmes design.
4. Implementing training.
5. Evaluation.

2.7.1 Research and Analysis phase

The analytical phase gives information about the organisation, tasks and people, which is an inventory of organisational objectives and their activities based on the tasks selected for instruction, the performance appraisal. These can be attained by interview or observation at job sites.

2.7.1.1 Training needs assessment (TNA)

Training needs assessment enables training and development to be directed towards achieving organisational strategy and objectives. McClelland (1993) defined the TNA function as a tool to identify organisational as well as individual training needs, and provide a relatively detailed account of an organisation's skill and knowledge base. Kaufman (1996) goes further, and stated that the determination of needs and the analysis of their root causes are vital steps toward the effective and efficient development of solutions.

The individual needs, group needs, and organisational needs are distinguished between themselves in the light of the specific techniques employed in assessing training needs (Fowler, 1991; Kubr and Prokopenko, 1989). Beardwell and Holden (1994) argue that it is not only the individual and the group that are needed for training but it is how their needs fit the objectives of the entire organisation. Further, they argue that it is the reconciliation of the training and development needs of the individual to those of the organisation which is to be considered important. An integral part of analysing training needs is indicated by Fairbairns (1991) as the

recognition of what will fit into the company culture as well as the company's strategy and objectives.

Many writers and HRD professionals have, in recent years, adopted a systems view of TNA. A model called "Deficiency model approach" is developed by Armstrong (1995) and defines the "training gap" as a difference between what people know and can do, and what they should know and be able to do (Fig. 2.4).

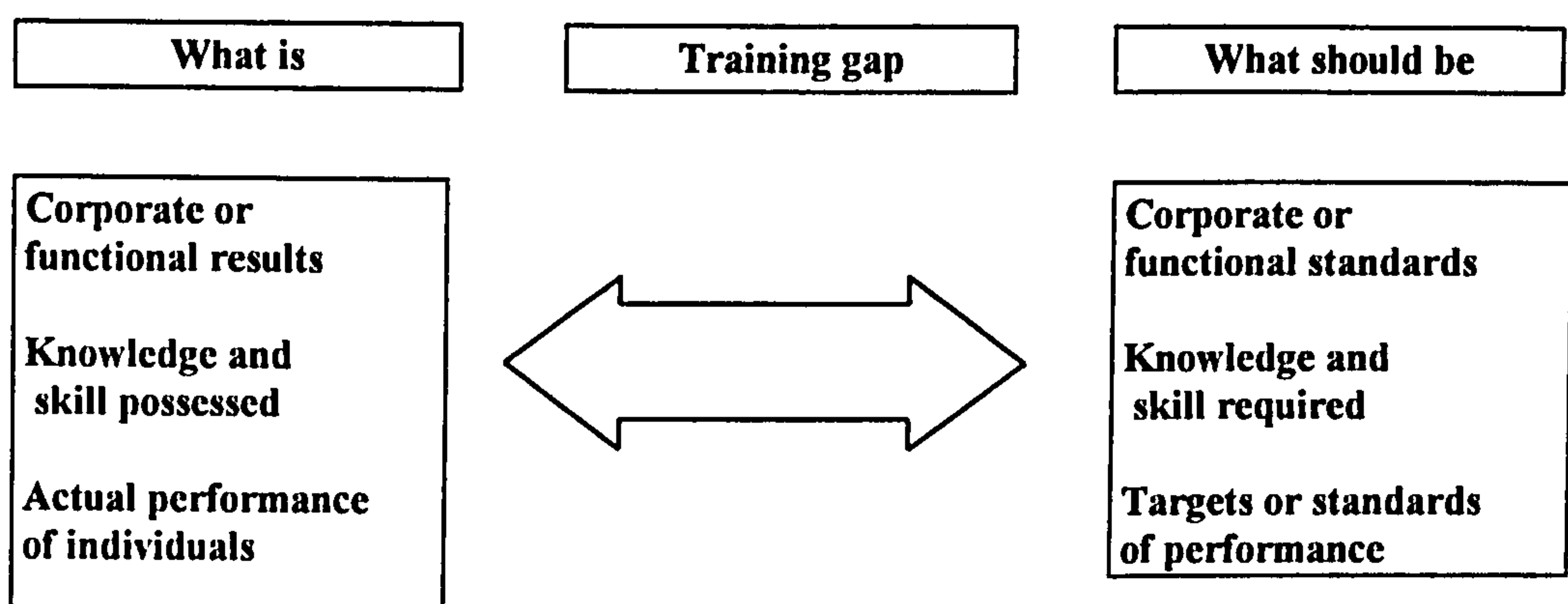


Fig. 2.4. The training gap (Armstrong, 1995, p.516).

As mentioned above, the training needs are interconnected, and the process also operates in reverse. Also it involves the combination of several components in an attempt to collect and then analyse feedback so that valid recommendations regarding training needs can be formulated and presented. To provide a consistent set of training needs, it is necessary that the three stages of analysis be closely interrelated. Kaufman (1996) developed a conceptual framework of needs assessment that encompasses three phases: first, pre-assessment is the exploration of the context and environment of the perceived problem. Second, in the assessment phase, data collection and analysis are the primary activity. Finally, the post-assessment phase is the moment for reflecting back on the results of the needs assessment.

A data gathering approach might be mixed-methods, which include quantitative and qualitative methods. Armstrong (1995) has outlined many different methods which can be used to collect needs assessment data, such as:

- Business and human resources plans.
- Job analysis, which includes the content of the job, the performance standard, the knowledge and skills and the competence needed to perform the job.
- Performance review, and
- Training surveys.

If used inappropriately, these methods may bring very little improvement in the performance of the employees and will be a waste of time and money. Thus a careful use of training methods may result in a very cost-effective investment of needs assessment (Beardwell and Holden, 1994). As the key for an effective training programme and to enhance the interactive learning, appropriate matching is needed between training requirements of the employees and the training method available.

In this phase, we are investigating data of training needs assessment to support the training system. Therefore training needs assessment is considered as the most critical stage, which should be analysed properly to obtain the sort of information to build up a systematic approach to training. The necessity behind this stage is to understand the gap between the desired performance and the actual level of performance. In regard to the research and analysis phase, McGhee and Thayer (1961) classify this phase into three kinds of analysis: organisation, task and person.

Warren (1969) has pointed out three critical missions in this phase:

1. Identify organisation needs and evaluate them.
2. Identify and specify behaviour and performance to be obtained.
3. Analyse task for which training is provided.

Thus, the distinction between the three groups (organisation, task, individual) will be examined. Therefore, in this phase; the question arises, “where do the training needs occur?” In order to answer this question, the following method should be used.

Organisation Analysis

The main objective of this part is to determine the appropriateness of the organisation’s existence in terms of the required objectives. Goldstein (1985) argues that one should examine the short and long-term goals of the organisation, taking into consideration that wide components of the organisation which may affect training programmes. McGhee and Thayer (1961) provide information about where and when training was needed in an organisation. An organisational analysis has been reconceptualised as an examination of system-wide components that determine whether a training programme can yield behavioural change on the job (Goldstein et al., 1991).

Hall (1984) comments "considerable resources in training and development are invested by many organisations, but never do they examine how training and development can most effectively promote organisational objectives or how developmental activities can be altered in the light of business plans". Latham and

Wexley (1991) argue that they look at the organisation as a whole, and this involves its interactions with the environment in which it operates.

The need for an organisation may emerge from production activities, new technologies, internal and external organisational pressures, and continuous organisation diagnosis by employees working on the first and second lines of production (Nadler, 1982). Moore and Dutton (1978) reviewed nine major data sources for organisational analysis with the training needs implications of each. This also enriches the process of organisation analysis and assists in the designing of training programmes by examining these specific sources which are organisational goals, manpower inventory, skills inventory, organisational climate indices, analysis of efficiency indices, changes in system or sub-system, management requests or management interrogation, exit interviews, and MBO or Work planning and Review Systems.

Task Analysis

Most HRD specialist and operational managers are familiar with the process of task and job analysis. Some treat them interchangeably, while others as interdependent. Task analysis is associated with the nature of task to be performed on the job and the knowledge and ability yet to be learned or acquired to perform these tasks (McClelland, 1993; Tannenbaum and Yuki, 1992). An expanded view of task analysis has been called upon by Howell and Cooke (1989) to conduct an examination of the cognitive processing and learning requirements needed to perform job tasks. A job analysis involves observing and measuring the interaction of three hierarchies.

They are data analysing, people motivating and supervising, and operating (manipulating and handling, etc.) (McClelland, 1993). A job description is essentially a narrative statement about what a person does on the job, including the conditions under which that job is performed. The need for job description is to give the employee an idea of his/her superior's performance appraisal. In order to enable employees to deal with problems outside the work domain, a culture must prevail (Beardwell and Holden, 1994).

Task analysis lists specified tasks required for each job, and is more specific than job descriptions. Specifications may extend to judgements of knowledge and skills required of job incumbents. In this regard, Moore and Dutton (1978) described this stage as an operation analysis, which is a collection of data on the job process. According to them, operation analysis is worker-oriented and refers to knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to reach the expected performance; the description of the job activities performed is task-oriented. They determine the techniques for obtaining job data such as by job descriptions, job specifications or task analysis; performance standards; performing the job; observing job-work; sampling review literature; asking questions about the job; training committees or conferences; and analysing operating problems.

Tracy (1971) argues that a job analysis is "a process of collecting, tabulating, grouping, analysing, interpreting and reporting data, and preplanning of the work performed by the individual". He goes further to say that a job analysis consists of a sequence of preplanned and tested procedures as follows:

1. Collect, record, tabulate, analyse duties and tasks. It is a broad statement of the scope, relationship and task which constitute a particular job (Manpower Services Commission, 1981).
2. Describe the conditions surrounding the performance (Goldstein 1985; Latham and Wexley, 1991).
3. Identify skills, knowledge and abilities required.
4. Determine acceptable standards of performance.

Person Analysis

Identification of who is to be trained and what sort of training is needed by an individual is the person analysis (Tannenbaum and Yuki, 1992). Who needs training? And what kind? In order to answer these questions, we need to diagnose what specific skills and knowledge are to be developed if the employee is to perform his or her job (Latham and Wexley, 1991). Ford and Noe (1987) found small but significant difference for managers with different job levels, functions and attitudes towards the utility of training. It was reported by lower-level managers that there is higher need of administrative skills than for the middle-manager. Greater need for training in quality control skills is reported by managers who perceived training to be worthwhile.

Accordingly, person analysis can be utilised to assess whether the employees have the prerequisite attitude, knowledge, and the motivation to benefit from training. Goldstein (1985) argues that criteria can be used to determine the capabilities of how employees will actually demonstrate the tasks, knowledge, and attitude required. One of the techniques used in personal analysis is self-reporting; organisations may use

self-reporting as a personal analysis tool for systematic diagnosis of the employee's strengths and weaknesses (Ford and Noe, 1987).

Latham (1988) has argued that more research is needed into inter-observer reliability and constant validity of self-rating with regard to a personal analysis. As an example, several studies have highlighted that employee and supervisor needs assessment do not correlate strongly with one another (Enery and McEnery, 1987; Staley and Schockley-Zalabak, 1980, cited by Latham and Wexley, 1991).

With regard to information sources for needs assessment, there are many techniques, such as surveys, questionnaires, interviews, observations, tests, consultations, organisation guides, procedure guides, appraisal performance, employee records, assessment centres, and research and studies. Another point to be considered is that the collected information should be criteria-based, in order to be sure that all of the information is accurate, valid and not prejudiced.

2.7.2 Development Phase

This phase is based on the outcome of the analysis phase. It uses the results of the task analysis to develop guidelines which will help to achieve optimum learning. Instructional management plans are developed in this phase, to allocate and manage all resources, and to develop as well as select instructional materials.

2.7.2.1. Setting Objectives

After defining training needs as a first stage, setting objectives is the second. Training derives from the training needs assessment, that is, the discrepancy gap between the actual performance and what it ought to be. The training objectives should be adapted to trainees who will participate in the training programmes. Armstrong (1995) defined it as a criterion behaviour: "if the job is achieved then the training is to be regarded as successful". For this, clear and measurable training objectives are required, without which the co-ordination of the training activities, which is vital for any planning, could be arduous work to carry out (Buckley and Caple, 1990).

It is difficult to design or evaluate training at professional level without knowing what training is trying to achieve. Without such stated training objectives, evaluation of training results becomes impressive and it will be unable to assess accurately overall effectiveness of training (Buckley and Caple, 1990; Kubr and Prokopenko, 1989). McDonald (1989), quoted by Abu Doleh (1995), presents a similar view, "without a stated plan of activity or with merely a vague statement of intention, trainer's, participant's and organisation's resources can lack co-ordination and common direction".

Latham and Wexley (1991) have stated that the course objectives should be tailored to people who will enrol on the training course, based on the information which has been collected from needs assessment, in order to determine what is expected from the individual to know and practise after training. In Tracy's (1971)

view, training objectives must describe unambiguously what the trainee should be able to do, under which conditions, and the standard of acceptable level of performance.

Goldstein (1985) has described objectives as providing inputs to course design as well as the measure of success. Without the appropriate objectives stated, this will cause other problems related to evaluation and will affect overall effectiveness of the training. A clear plan and realistic policy is required along with regular and frequent evaluation, followed by marginal adjustment which can help training objectives in turn to satisfy needs (Lynton and Pareek, 1967).

Mager (1962), who suggests that the objectives should have three components, has provided a classic account of developing objectives:

1. Identify the terminal behaviour by name and specify the kind of behaviour that will be accepted.
2. Try to define the desired behaviour by describing the conditions under which the behaviour is expected to occur.
3. Specify the criteria of acceptable performance by describing to what extent the learner must perform.

Thus, the objectives should be firmly linked to performance requirements, and the actions that the trainee should be able to execute after training are to be specified clearly, with the conditions under which these actions are to be performed and the standard of execution to be met.

Training objectives play an important role, but without knowing the aim or theme one cannot design or evaluate training at a professional level. Hussey (1985)

argues that training objectives should be reviewed for management development by top management whenever a switch in strategy is planned. He further argues that training should not be solely for the benefit of the individual, but training should be for the benefit of the firm, recognising that in turn this benefits the individual. According to him, the linkage of objectives with the organisation's plan and shift in thinking towards the purpose of training are significant factors for the success of training programmes.

Doherty (1982) introduced eight advantages of formulating educational and training objectives specifically. They are:

1. Assists the design and selection of instructional material.
2. Provides a basis for evaluating final results.
3. Assists the selection of individuals for courses.
4. Informs trainees about the nature of behavioural change aimed for.
5. Helps the course design in defining its structure.
6. Enhances communication between instructors and learners.
7. Assists learners with the management of their learning process.
8. Defines the required teaching standards and hence aids course staff.

2.7.2.2 Programme Design

After the successful completion of training need analysis and identifying the objectives, the next stage is to determine how training will be accomplished. All the activities associated with translation of the training content to a training programme are covered in the training design. In this stage, the outline, sequence and detailed

scheduling of the training and development programmes are involved. Design of training must take into account the trainee's characteristics, available resources, learning objectives, and current knowledge about the learning process. (Tannenbaum and Yuki, 1992; Wexley and Latham, 1991).

Patrick (1992) describes the three main components to fully designed training programmes, first, training content to be sequenced and broken-up into manageable learning chunks. Second, training methods and strategies as organisational instructional method or strategies. Finally the trainee characteristics, such as knowledge and skills. These not only affect what has to be trained, but also how information in a training programme is understood and assimilated. According to him, trainee's motivation and attitude has a strong influence on the success of any training programme, which are the most neglected design variables.

Mumford (1991b) suggests that the content of programmes should be focused on the real issues and the problems that the managers have to deal with. Lynton and Pareek (1967) have stated five steps involved in designing training programmes with a high level of creativity:

1. To choose a strategy or combination of strategies which in turn favour certain tools in the kit of training methods.
2. Break the general objectives into constituent parts: knowledge, understanding, and skills.
3. Use the specification of different training methods in order to arrive at the total time and facilities required for meeting objectives.

4. Decide on the different packages in which a programme could be offered and ask the organisation to choose between them.
5. Design a training programme to work detailed training events into training sequences and finally into the shape of the total package.

Accordingly, the designers, the training and development specialists, have to gain experience and a value system of training methods, so that all the variables and components of the design process are taken into consideration to ensure content validity.

2.7.2.3 Training Techniques

We will classify the major training techniques currently used by organisations by relating them to the objectives they accomplish. Laird (1985) states the decisions behind which training techniques should be applied. He outlined these decisions as involving the learning objectives, the inventory of the learners, the norms of the organisation, and the available financial resources.

Training techniques have several aims such as to increase knowledge, develop skills, change behaviour, and to assess and develop training activities. The decision to decide which training techniques are most appropriate to specific objectives and circumstances should take into account that training and development usually uses more than one method to achieve its goals.

2.7.2.3.1 Presentational Techniques

Lecture

Lecture is a direct teaching approach and used most frequently by organisations as a training tool. The lecture method has been criticised by many scholars and authors, (e.g. Bass and Vaughan, 1966; Korman, 1977; McGhee and Thayer, 1961; Goldstein, 1985; Latham and Wexley, 1991). Some of these criticisms are:

- Lecture is just one-way communication from lecturer to participants.
- The lecturer ignores differences between trainees' backgrounds, abilities and interests, causing difficulty in presenting the material equally.
- Lecture is ineffective in teaching job-related skills which can be transferred from learning to actual work.
- The learner is a passive participant in the learning process with little observable trainee response or feedback.

Despite the above-mentioned deficiencies of the lecture method, the method has some benefits too. It can be used in certain situations likely to provide trainees with information and knowledge related to background theories, and also to give an insight into research conclusions. For a better use of the lecture method, a competent lecturer should be selected to make the material meaningful, with awareness of participant's reactions, and to promote discussion (Goldstein, 1985). Warren (1969) argues that as a back-up method, lecture must be combined with some other training methods to obtain the response needed.

2.7.2.3.2 Participatory Techniques

Discussion

Discussion is one of the training methods where groups of people get together and exchange information, opinions, and ideas about an issue which has to be clarified or explained by the trainer. The trainer plays the main role in discussion, such as encouraging trainees to participate, controlling the debate, involving himself in the discussion for more guidance needed by trainees and directing them to the key points, and finally summarising the results. Discussion has many advantages, such as providing a chance to trainees for self-expression in exchanging experience and ideas, and learning by participation as a way of retention.

There are some disadvantages too, such as a tendency to discuss unrealistic cases, or perceptual debate, trainees may rely on the trainer to reach the proper answers, and this is not sufficient for a big group of people. Discussions require a qualified trainer with skills in planning and preparation (Robinson, 1985).

Case Study

The case study is considered as a teaching method and learning experience which can be achieved by well-documented description of a real-life or simulated situation. Initially, it was implemented by Harvard Business School, and it is widely accepted as a method for improving analytical problem-solving skills. In case study, a summary of a real-life situation with background information (facts and figures) is presented to participants in syndicates or small groups to discuss and analyse in order to reach a solution (Robinson, 1985).

Berger (1983) and Miner and Miner (1973) advocated the use of the case study method and argued that this method would help managers to identify and analyse complex problems and formulate their own decisions, and allow managers to gain more conceptual ideas which can be later applied to the job problems. Tracy (1971) supported the idea of case studies and highlighted other advantages, such as gaining self-understanding of manager's way of thinking through ideas and concepts developed in the discussion, and produces thinking more relevant to the experience of the trainees because they inject their own perception, attitudes and feeling into the case.

On the other hand, the case study method suffers from some limitations. According to Argyris (1980), participants should read cases related to their own organisation. Trainers should be less dominating in classroom discussion, because it can cause less trainee participation, as well as to allow the trainees to discuss how to apply their own new ideas to the situation back home. One of the benefits of the use of case studies is that the trainees have an opportunity to participate in discussion and express their own ideas. Finally, the case study should be suited to trainees' abilities, skills and knowledge as well as their jobs; otherwise, trainees will lose confidence in the trainer's capabilities and integrity (Pigors and Pigors, 1987).

Role-Playing

Role-playing is one of the methods where we can learn by doing, not talking. It involves interactions between more than one person. For implementing role-playing, trainees are required to actually respond to certain problems they encounter in their everyday organisational role (Latham and Wexley, 1991). They go further, by saying

that role-playing is frequently used in management development for teaching skills such as leadership style, effective communication, human relations, handling grievances, and interviewing. Role-playing obviously includes four main elements; the role, the behaviour required, the situation, and the trainer's characteristic abilities and attitudes. Trainers might use prepared or spontaneous assignments in role-playing.

However, in terms of the advantages, Tracy (1971) has stated that trainees can develop skills in problem diagnosis, promote understanding of the viewpoint and feelings of others, develop insight into personal attitudes and values and behaviours, illustrate aspects of an interpersonal problem, and discover how trainees might react under certain conditions. On the other hand, one of the problems of role playing is that trainees might feel stressful and afraid of making fools of themselves in public and practical demonstration of their abilities may rightly or wrongly effect their reputation. Robinson (1985) has suggested that role-playing should not be done either in isolation or at the beginning of the programme. Shaw (1967) has stated four theoretical approaches to learning in role-playing as follows: active participation, modelling, knowing results, proactive by conceptualisation of principles being taught.

Role-playing is usually used with other training methods, such as group discussions or case study. It differs from other methods in that actual experience is given to trainees by offering them a chance to involve themselves emotionally and psychologically, and helping the trainees to control feelings and direct their attitudes.

2.7.2.3.3 Simulation Techniques

Management games

Management games may be considered as an extension of simulation. They consist of an assumed situation related to reality, where participants are asked to play the management game themselves as a team. It includes three elements: roles for the participants; games guide which contains a detailed description of the situation and game discipline; results and conclusions, which might use a computer system for analysis.

Management games are set to train participants mostly of a higher level with the following aspects: long-range planning, decision-making, and best use of the available resources. The management games approach is currently enjoying a great deal of popularity, existing research showing that games increase student enthusiasm and enjoyment for the learning process (Ernest, 1986; Wesson, Wilson and Mandlebau, 1988).

Meurs and Choffray (1975) have described the following types of management games:

1. General, where several aspects of activities and internal functions are modelled.
2. Functional, where the emphasis is on one management discipline, such as marketing.
3. Industry specific, in which the game is designed to meet directly the characteristics of an industry type, such as production.

Taylor (1986) describes those games, even though unfortunately under-used, provide a method for building and reinforcing knowledge and skills in the work arena. For him, games fall into three categories: memory, skill and strategy. Despite the popularity and their role in training and development, management games have problems, such as the difficulties in transfer of training, because most games are not based on real business-life situations (Goldstein, 1985), and it might disregard the human element, as well as conditions and sociological importance. Therefore, any organisation has to choose the games which are coherent to its objectives and participant's capabilities.

Finally, it seems difficult to make any judgement regarding management games effectiveness in changing behaviour. Gordon (1985) has stated that it was still difficult to make a clear statement of the positive effectiveness of management games regarding performance on the job. He based his decision on a review of 39 studies conducted between 1973 and 1983. A well-designed learning game achieves its educational purpose, whether it is to recall information, practise skills or apply learning in strategy-making situations, and adds enthusiasm to learning.

2.7.2.3.4 Developmental Techniques

Assessment Centre

Assessment centre is a prescription of training and development actions. Taylor and Lippitt (1975) have stated that an assessment centre is an accurate method of diagnosing individual and development needs. It has become a common practice for the organisation to include assessment and development activities in one programme (Bray, 1976). Assessment centre is a powerful training experience for both participants and assessors. Its impact on participants is to have feed-back on their

performance (Thornton and Byhman, 1982). For assessors, they will gain more accurate judgment in potential advancement (Taylor and Lippitt, 1975).

Teel and DuBois (1983) have stated the following recommendations to maximise the development value of the assessment centre process:

1. Feed-back interviews should be conducted within two weeks after assessment.
2. Basis of evaluation should be explained by assessors.
3. Strengths and weaknesses identified should be reviewed by follow-up interview between the immediate manager and the individual.
4. Immediate manager and individual should discuss and argue on future function, to capitalise on individual strengths and correct weaknesses (Cascio, 1986).

Assessment centres dominate any other techniques in identifying management potential, and their effectiveness has proved more valid than other existing methods (Taylor and Lippitt, 1975). Stevens (1985) states that most the early design of assessment centres was done in Britain. But then, like a good number of other bright ideas, employers in Britain a took back seat while the approach become commonplace in America. He refers the arguments of three British organisations' (Deloitte, Haskins and Sells; Woolworth; and Petfoods) current involvement in assessment centres as follows: All the three disagree that assessment centres used only for recruitment. It assists managers in coping with a massive change in company culture and business strategy. The said three organisations agree that assessment centres are expensive and time-consuming. All three organisations have used an external consultant, who is a psychologist since they believe that assessors need degree in psychology. He further states that an assessment centre is a systematic approach to

identifying precisely what is required for success in a particular job and then labelling these requirements as leadership, integrity, tenacity and team-building skills. A number of companies in the UK are now using assessment centres as the basis for their appraisals.

2.7.3 Implementation Phase

Staff training is needed for the implementation phase and they must be trained to give instructions and acquire evaluation data on every instructional component.

2.7.3.1 Implementing programmes

Programmes should be implemented according to the programme design. On the other hand, a qualified and experienced trainer is required to deliver the management training programmes, who has ability in dealing with different people and situations and who is capable of solving problems when they arise.

Another point to be considered is regarding training techniques which fit and fulfill training programmes as well as individual expectations, so careful analysis should be taken before committing to a particular method. In implementing, administrative activities are needed to control, co-ordinate and report, as the action goes on-line (Warren, 1969). The general rules in conducting training programmes are pointed out by Armstrong (1995) as:

1. The courses should be monitored continuously to confirm that they are proceeding according to the plan and within the agreed budget.
2. In order to check the marginal results, all the training should be evaluated after each event.

Davis (1990) outlines eight approaches for delivering management training programmes. They are: internal training specialist; internal promotion/rotations/transfers and special assignment; external trainers and educators; external recruitment and external consultants; the individual manager; senior management; the manager's boss, and organisational development interventions. According to him, the goal of management development and the method of implementation need to be considered together. He further argues that before commitment to a particular method of training and development, there is a need for careful analysis of the strength and weakness of different approaches to be delivered.

2.7.4 Control Phase

This control phase involves a two-dimension evaluation:

1. Learner's performance in the course to determine the instruction quality.
2. On-the-job assessment is done to determine the actual performance of course graduates.

2.7.4.1 Evaluation and Feedback

Evaluation is the last stage in systematic training activities, and the most important and most problematic in many respects. Management training is a multi-phased process which requires many people to carry it out and a vast amount of money and time to be invested. Generally, researchers agree on the point that training evaluation is an important part of the training system (Goldstein and Gillan, 1990).

Although there are many training evaluation techniques proposed for management training and development, there is no single one generally accepted frame-work. Four similar and somewhat complementary frameworks, such as Kirkpatrick, the Bell System, Parker and CIRO, have been reported by Wallace (1991).

Evaluation is an information-gathering technique to revise instructional programmes. Tracy (1971) has defined the evaluation system as a process to determine the specific aspects of training, the means and instruments to be used in collecting data, analysing and interpreting results, and providing recommendation to improve instructional training programmes.

According to Goldstein (1986), it is the type of decision for which evaluation is used that counts, and 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". Hamblin (1974) defines the process of evaluating training as "any attempt to obtain

information (feedback) on the effects of a training programme and to assess the value of the training in the light of the information". Lynton and Pareek (1967), in regard to the effectiveness of training programmes, argued that from evaluation we can make a judgement of what employees gain from training and what is transferred and implemented to their work, to determine whether training programmes are successful, and how the evaluation could give direction in designing other future programmes.

Edwards (1999) introduced various forms of evaluation measurements of behaviours called multisource assessment. The important attribute is that it provides discriminate validity or a range of scores compared with single-source measures, by providing a sensitive measurement process that shows behavioural changes. This approach consists of four stages. First, Pre-measures which provide a baseline measurement and have value in bringing real-time feedback to the learning experience in the training situation. Second, in-situ measures occur in the place that learning takes place, which usually target immediately obvious behaviours. Third, post-measures examine behaviour shortly after training and occur in the work environment. Finally, sub-post-measures occur in the work setting, which address how much learning was translated to sustained behaviour.

Kirkpatrick (1976) remains the prevalent framework for categorising training criteria evaluation and also the most widely-known and commonly-used. According to Kirkpatrick, there are four stages or steps to consider in evaluating a training programme. They are: reaction, learning, behaviour and results.

1. **Emotional Reaction/Response:** This is commonly obtained at the end of a training programme through a questionnaire or group discussion, usually called "feelgood measure" or "Happy Sheets". It is usually related to the trainee's attitudes towards a particular programme, including content of training, methods of training, trainer competence, facilities, length and pace of training, accommodation, learning acquisition, and so on. Such measurements should not be underestimated; as Kirkpatrick puts it, "If (participants) do not react favourably, they will not be motivated to learn".
2. **Learning:** According to Kirkpatrick, "the extent to which participants change attitudes, improve knowledge and/or increase skill as a result of attending the programme". This is an end-of-course evaluation to measure what the trainees have gained through the training and development intervention. Thus different measures of learning performance might be used, such as pre-and post, paper-and-pencil tests, skill practice, workshops, and job simulation.
3. **Behaviour Changes:** This refers to any changes in skills, knowledge, and attitude brought about by the training and development programme. This form can be costly and time consuming, but it is critical in determining if classroom knowledge transfers to the workplace. Methods of evaluating behavioural change include: surveys; interviews; before-and-after comparison; observations of performance, subjective evaluations of trainees by others such as supervisors, co-workers and peers; statistical comparisons; and also self-evaluation. Again, care should be taken to know whether the change is due to the training given or due to some other external factors (Endres and Kleiner, 1990).

4. Results: What final results does the training program produce? This level of evaluation focuses on the impact the behaviours have on performance. Change in behaviour is not the final objective. The end result should include such things as improved productivity, better quality, lower costs, meeting deadlines, more competition, fewer accidents, improved morale, lower turnover, and ultimately more profits and better service.

The correlation among the four levels of the Kirkpatrick framework of training effectiveness has been examined by Alliger and Janak (1989) who found no relationship virtually among the trainee reactions and the other levels, but slightly higher correlation among the other levels. A significant relationship between learning and subsequent performance was found by Mathieu et al, in 1990, cited by Tannenbaum and Yuki, (1992). According to them, training motivation was related positively to learning for the individuals who reacted positively to training. To explain, it is the trainee reaction that moderated the relationship between motivation and learning. Thus, to conclude, the reaction measure is not a suitable substitute for other measures of training effectiveness. This is the final area, and it is important to measure the results of training in terms of organisational or group performance. Also, the training personnel have to evaluate their training programmes in terms of cost-benefit analysis.

Dailey and Nelson (1999) examine a multiple-level system of evaluating “recognition” programmes that derives from Kirkpatrick’s model for evaluating the impact of training. A modification of Kirkpatrick’s model results in a method which can be used to measure the impact of recognition programmes. At level one, a

systematic approach to participants' reaction to the programme could include simple questions related to the enjoyment of the course of work group, clear programme guidelines, nomination and award process, perception of previous programmes, and the favourite part of the current one. Also various formats, such as short answers, ratings, or collecting data through a focus group can be used. At the second level, certain skills or awareness levels which have changed since the roll-out of the programme can be measured. Training can teach guidelines for effective praising and provide opportunities to practice, and other measurable recognition skills such as using formal and informal recognition, knowing how to praise publicly, timing the recognition appropriately, and forms of recognition which work well for different types of performance. At level three, the implementation of a recognition programme offers several opportunities for determining follow-up interviews and surveys. Behaviour changes from a recognition programme include managers recognise their employees, employees receive written praise, recognition tools being used, and programme guidelines adhered to accurately. At the last level, the results of a recognition programme can include both direct and indirect measures of impact. Productivity award programme, improvement in production goals, and sales incentives programme can serve as direct measures. Indirect measures are those such as customer service award, team awards, and safety programmes.

Grove and Ostroff (1990) have determined four barriers which discourage the evaluation process:

1. Top management does not usually require information, when all functions of the organisation are working properly.

2. Because of the complexity of evaluation, most senior level training managers do not know how to go about it.
3. Senior level training managers do not know what to evaluate, in other words what questions should be answered by an evaluation. Do they focus on the key people who attend the programme, the cost, the degree of enjoyment, or transfer of training?
4. Evaluation is perceived as:
 - a. Costly, because training specialists prefer to spend their limited funds on new, visible training offerings rather than the evaluation.
 - b. Risky, because the evaluation might show that training managers are not attaining the objectives.

They have attributed as the major contributor to this problem a lack of training objectives, and in this regard, corporate objectives and strategies should be identified. In regard to the above barriers, Grove and Ostroff (1990) have recommended the following to counteract them:

1. Top management needs to be educated on the importance of the evaluation and be conscious of expecting it on faith.
2. Training managers should be taught about the training evaluation process.
3. Both top management and training managers should discuss what exactly needs to be evaluated to incorporate training needs with business strategy.
4. Top management should make it clear to the managers that a proportion of the training budget should be for evaluation.

5. The risk-taking components of evaluation should be minimised by rethinking the purpose of evaluation, as a way of finding out if there is anything wrong with the programme and then correcting it.

In order to reach an effective evaluation, we should note some factors and study them carefully, such as a passive perspective of training managers towards evaluation. The reason behind this point is that managers are aware of evaluation results which might reveal some weaknesses in the manager's competence in conducting and running training programmes. Another factor is that employees have different expectations, motivations, ambitions, self-development needs, and different job environments. Also, using a limited means of evaluation. Finally, difficulties might arise in following-up trainees, in terms of changing job, positions and promotions, and some employees do not show any willingness to co-operate with the assessors.

In spite of the difficulties, evaluation is still considered to be the most important phase in the management training and development process. However, this phase is the most neglected and least adequately carried out in this process (Beardwell and Holden, 1994).

The mentionable constraints are that it is often hard to set measurable objectives, and even harder to collect result-oriented information or to decide on the level at which the evaluation should be made. This is because there are the designers of the course, the trainers and the sponsors, besides the trainees. Each of them have their own aims, objectives and purpose. So they must be clearly identified before the evaluation process starts (Easterby-Smith and Mackness, 1992). The evaluation

practices of several large organisations were examined in detail by the American Society of Training and Development (1990). The report showed that almost all of the companies reported the trainee reaction, and only 10% showed behavioural change on the job.

In spite of excellent training programmes carried out by some organisations, the final and most vital stage is often ignored. Easterby-Smith and Mackness (1992) state "training evaluation is commonly seen as a feedback loop, starting with course objectives and ending with collecting end of course reactions which are then generally filed away and not acted on".

The Manpower Services Commission (1981) distinguished between validation and evaluation. Validation is defined on the basis of training needs assessment and training objectives that are prerequisites to programme evaluation as:

1. Internal, a series of tests and assessments are designed to make it certain that a training programme has achieved the specified behavioural objectives.
2. External, a series of tests and assessments are designed to make it certain that the behavioural objectives are realistically based on an accurate initial identification of training needs in relation to the criteria of effectiveness adopted by the organisation.

Further, the evaluation is stated as "the assessment of the total value of a training system and training course or programme in social as well as financial terms". Thus, the costs and benefits of a complete training system have been attempted to be measured rather than whether it has achieved its objectives. Last but not least, the

training job environment might differ from actual work. However, some solutions can be derived regarding these difficulties. For example, distinguishing between direct results of training and other results which might be caused by other factors, such as by using multiple evaluation means, looking at training as an integral part of human resources policy, and using sufficient information systems to provide guidelines to top management regarding which are the factors that could be treated by training or retraining, or other proper arrangements.

2.8 Training For Specific Population

The need for having a prior plan and preparation for the training, to qualify and to develop managerial staff, has been realised by many leading personnel in organisations for management training and development. Thus, the managers must receive continuous training throughout their service period to be aware of the latest developments in order to carry out their job satisfactorily, and to be aware of the greater responsibilities. Armstrong (1995) gave more stress to this point and stated that top management should realise that they live in a world of competition, having higher quality people, and the actual or potential skills shortage can threaten their future prosperity and growth.

Most of the research on managerial work has been for a description of an effective management. The skills required for managers at various levels have been described by the researchers, and these findings are used by managers in selecting, developing and evaluating a manager's performance (Carrol and Gillan, 1987). It is also used to plan and develop the career of their subordinates as well (Margerison,

1991). As literature does not fully cover this topic, it is not enough to draw a conclusion as to how these terms are understood by managers and professionals.

Management training, in a narrow sense, sometimes involves the development of practical skills in the use of management techniques. However, it is more recognised as the systematic and continuous benefit for both the organisation as well as the individual in achieving the objectives of the organisation. Thus, management training is an essential tool for developing and improving abilities and also qualifying individuals, appointed in various jobs. This training concept is concerned with knowledge and attitude in addition to skills in the use of various techniques, which can be achieved through planned training activities.

Management development is an indication of a complex process to develop, improve and raise the standard of managers. Skertchly (1968, p.1) states: "Raising managerial ability in order to improve the effectiveness of management actions". Management development can be stated as the planned-experience, estimated growth and the training opportunities provided to, whoever performs management functions. This idea is also expressed by others like Armstrong (1988), who states: "A systematic process which aims to ensure that the organisation has effective managers required for meeting its present and future needs". Mumford (1991a) explains it as: "An attempt to improve the managerial effectiveness through a learning process". It is thus clear that the aim of management development is to ensure that the organisation has effective managers within its job setting so that it can meet the present and future needs.

Management development does not stop at achieving managerial development by enhancing ability and upgrading performance only, but it goes further to achieve the ambitions of future needs and changes required. Managers have great responsibility to control and guide resources of the organisation to meet its objectives, while the functions are complicated and require competence and specific skills. Storey (1992) describes the future management functions needed so as to decentralise and seek greater flexibility, assume greater control over resources (technical, financial and human), and to be prepared to utilise these resources to achieve wide objectives and meet estimated targets. A similar view is expressed by Wilson and Kosenfield (1990), who state that managers will be under pressure to respond by adopting their management styles and behaviour and shifting styles to a more appropriate approach.

In order to achieve more effective management training and development, the following elements should be taken into consideration:

1. The manager's attitude and awareness. Managers may fail to recognise the need for learning or look at development as an unwanted, time-consuming procedure, or is not taken seriously due to unawareness as a result of lower educational qualifications (Tovey, 1991). In regard to this case, development should be an integral part of long-term strategy.
2. The mismatch between organisational expectation and what development programmes can realistically be expected to deliver. Much time is taken to develop managers and so creates a conflict with the short-term needs of the organisation (Beardwell and Holden, 1994).

3. Absence of top management support may discourage middle managers from using such skills in the job. So, for an effective management development programme, there is a need for the full support of management, especially those who are responsible for strategic decision-making (Hall and Norris, 1991), cited by Beardwell and Holden (1994).

The major objectives of management development are to ensure that the managerial and equivalent professional specialist positions are filled by capable suitably-trained and motivated employees, according to the organisational needs. Thus the management takes care of improving the general performance of an organisation by focusing on the leading element in charge of the process, who is the manager.

Management development and management training have been differentiated by many writers and academics. Management training is a part of management development, although they might differ in their strategies. Pepper (1984) specified that training differs from management development, even if it is a part of it. But it is a limited part compared to management development, which is a continual process. On the other hand, management training and education are regarded as main components within the management development process (Storey, 1989). Some writers have argued on the scope of management development and have stated that it is an organisational function (Drucker, 1988). Some others have mentioned that it is the manager's responsibility (Pedler, Burgorpe and Boydell, 1986). Another group of academics have disagreed with both concepts, and have viewed management development as a shared responsibility between organisation and managers (Margerison, 1991).

Drucker (1988) suggests a two-dimensional process of management development:

1. Focusing on organisational survival and growth, "development management".
2. Focusing on individual growth and achievement as a member of an organisation.

Thus, according to him, it is an organisational function which gives a chance for the manager to learn, gain skills, and be effective.

Manager training and manager development has been differentiated by Raia (1974). Manager training is mentally-oriented, with emphasis on creating a learning environment and its programmes. Certain programmes have been referred to by him to equip an individual with the opportunity to learn knowledge, skills and attitude, so that he becomes a competitive and successful manager. Manager development is considered to be the real and actual performance, and this point is connected with the marginal advancement and improvement gained by the manager. The relation between management development and manager development has been specified by Ashton and Easterby-Smith (1979). They explain that management development tries to improve both the skills of managers and the corporation, and also the structural factors that affect the behaviour of those managers, based on the management development definition: "The development of managers individually and in groups to make them more effective (a) in working within existing structures and process, and (b) in changing structures, process and jobs to achieve greater effectiveness".

Due to the complexity of managerial work, the assessment of training needs has become harder than most of the jobs. Through a continuous progress in the research on managerial skills, activities and behaviours, it has become easy to identify a particular type of managerial position competency (Tannenbaum and Yuki, 1992).

According to Ruderman et al., (1990) developmental assignments and other forms of on-the-job rotation are not used by most organisations, and also mostly not connected with specific learning objectives or individual training assessment. A new questionnaire called the Job Challenge Profile (JCP) was introduced by them which was designed to measure the potential of a job for management responsibilities, the job challenges or the projects which have the highest developmental potential for a manager.

Managers may be less able to use on the job skills learned in training when a training programme is not designed to meet job needs. Dechant's (1990) investigation provided a process through which managers could diagnose learning needs and develop strategies to meet them. The relationship between the demands of the day-to-day work situation and what is taught in training may help managers to acquire relevant skills.

Thus, to conclude, managerial work is complex and managers are required to master the knowledge and skills which in turn will allow them to deal effectively with work and people, and thus ensure the achievement of organisational objectives.

2.9 Summary

Training is an essential factor for the progression of management development. Its importance has called for specialised, efficient personnel capable of high quality performance and consequently good adaptation in accordance with new concepts and requirements. The success of training activities depends on the linkage of these

activities with the whole organisation's activities. Therefore, the training system is considered as a part of an organisation's policy and plans, resulting in more awareness by top management of training activities. The literature indicates that a systematic training approach is needed, and it is important to achieve an organisation's goals through its own current and future human resources.

The main steps in this respect are training needs assessment, setting objectives, programme design, training techniques, implementation of programmes, and evaluation. These steps are allocated in four phases, the first is research and analysis, second is development, third is implementation, and fourth is evaluation.

Some factors should be taken into consideration for implementing a systematic training approach and more realistic training programmes, such as top management perspective, quality programmes rather than quantity, and training policy integrated with the organisation's policy. Distinguishing between the real problems which can be solved by training and other problems which can be overcome by different means, clarified and integrated objectives are a continuation of the training needs process whenever changes take place, with a routine review of the evaluation methods and techniques, in order to be sure whether they are sufficient or are to be modified or changed.

Chapter Three

Common Themes in Training and Development

3.1 Introduction

There are tremendous efforts being devoted by most organisations in the world to improve their efficiency and make them able to compete more effectively in the changing market and cope with unexpected and turbulent issues. The key point for success is change. Change may be internal to the organisation or external to it. Internal changes in an organisation may relate to finance, structure, technology strategy and culture, while external changes may include economics, politics, competition and government legislation. One of the important areas in this respect is Human Resource Development (HRD), to develop change within the organisation through a coherent strategy and appropriate and systematic training.

Pettigrew et al. (1988) highlighted a number of factors for increasing the effectiveness of training activities. These factors can be broadly classified into four main categories: business strategies; the external and the internal labour market; internal factors, e.g. training systems, philosophy and management organisation; and external training stimuli and support, including funding. However, Latham (1988) and Hussey (1988) argued that the most important themes related to HRD, and which affect training and development activities and programmes, are an integral strategy, involving top management commitment and organisational culture. Armstrong (1992) added another theme related to a coherent and flexible training approach.

Therefore, this chapter will highlight common themes related to T&D, such as, integral strategy, top management commitment, a systematic training approach, and organisational culture. Arab managers' characteristics and management practices are also discussed in regard to current situation and practices, training needs assessment, programme design, training techniques, and evaluation. This chapter also focused on training and development in GCC countries as well as in Jordan, and more specifically in Kuwait.

3.2 Integral strategy

The first and the most important theme related to T&D which has been prominent over the last decade is to link T&D to organisational strategy. The recent literature has brought attention to the need of linking training and human resource systems to organisational strategies, and considering the contextual factors in human resource management (HRM) (McCain, 1999; Paget and Kottke, 1997; Winterton and Winterton, 1996; Taylor, 1996; Jacobs and Jones 1995; Torraco and Swanson, 1995; Johns, 1993; Goldstein, 1992; Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992; Latham and Crandall, 1991; Jackson and Schuler, 1990). Taylor (1996) argues that training and development should be seen as an integral part of an organisation's investment plan when implemented as an organisational development strategy.

Since, human resources are part of the valued assets of an organisation, their effective management is an important factor for its success. The organisation has to ensure a proper match between business strategy and HR plans, in order to achieve strategic integration. To ensure that T&D can be successfully implemented in an

organisation, the T&D plan should be developed with the same principles as the business plan. This will help to ensure a congruence between business goals and development needs. Organisations will waste effort, and human and financial resources, if they fail to recognise that a training and development strategy needs to be driven from the business plan. Hendry and Pettigrew (1986), argue that management development (MD) should form an integral element of an organisation's strategy. This will ensure the developmental needs of the managers who are responsible for achieving these objectives. Taylor (1996) advocates creating understanding and awareness about the link between T&D and organisational goals among the trainees and managers, in order to create an atmosphere of commitment and motivation, since the learned skills can be seen as valued by the organisation.

The aim of the integration process is to match the availability of skilled human resources with the organisation's changing requirements. This process is to establish the competencies required in organisations to ensure that business strategies are implemented, and T&D takes initiatives required to provide those competencies to manage strategic changes. It is argued that HRD serves a strategic role by assuring the competence of employees to meet the organisation's current performance requirements (Torraco and Swanson, 1995; Jacobs and Jones, 1995). They further stated that these could be met by providing education in the concepts and methods of strategic planning and systems thinking to those responsible for setting the strategic direction for the organisation, through direct participation of HRD professionals in the business planning process.

The strategic integration process of training and development may face certain obstacles. Armstrong (1992) highlights some of these problems: the diversity of strategic process levels and styles to determine the required contribution, the evolutionary nature of business strategy, the absence of a written business strategy, and the qualitative nature of HR issues. He suggests some remedies, such as understanding how business strategy is formed, understanding the key business issues as growth or retrenchment, increasing competitive advantages, associating culture management with change, and establishing methods of linking business and HR strategy. Temporal (1990), similarly, recommends finding out more about the corporate plan, meeting top management to gain insight into their views for the future, and determining changes which are likely to take place in those parts of the organisation for which they are responsible.

Business strategy influences training and development activities, depending on the strategy adopted by the organisation. Pettigrew et al. (1988), identified the strategic factors affecting training and development. These are major technological and product market changes which create a clear signal of a skill gap. The three features of the internal labour market of the firm which are favourable to training are: a) reducing the number of employees may often lead to an expansion in the tasks and skills demanded of individuals, which may in turn lead to the requirement for multi-tasking and composite skills, b) when an organisation is experiencing a high level of attrition, it may discover that a positive approach to training and development is necessary to recruit high quality staff, c) a tradition of high quality recruitment, retention and promotion makes training in high-level skills an available option for a firm undergoing or contemplating change.

For any training and development programme to be effective, it is important to link them appropriately with the strategy, objective, politics and the business plan of the organisation (Taylor, 1996; Robinson, 1985). Watson Wyatt Strategic Rewards, in a recent survey, found that the degree to which training is integrated into company culture and strategy, the more highly performing companies are in comparison to all other organisations (Bailey, 1998).

3.3 Top management commitment

Top management support plays a critical role in the success or failure of any training and development activity, therefore it is important that before starting any training and development activity, top management support must be ensured. Armstrong (1992) argues that commitment is necessary to support each aspect of the overall HR strategy. The America @ Work study, which investigated a list of over 80 possible drivers of workforce commitment, shows that a large majority of employers feel their organisations are ready to make the changes necessary to become competitive (Stum, 1999).

Other writers and academics have supported this view and stated that top level management commitment is a critical factor for the implementation and maintenance of training and development activities (Taylor 1996; Sinclair and Collins 1992; Latham and Wexley 1991; Jones 1990; Pettigrew 1988). This point makes it clear that top management has to provide all the facilities to personnel who are in charge of the T&D activities, in order to carry out those activities effectively and to create a proper and a supportive environment for implementation. Trainees will likely be more

motivated to attend, learn, and apply training when doing so is consistent with the overall organisational support system (Kozlowski and Salas, 1997; Mathieu and Martineau, 1997; Holton, 1996; Tracey, Tannenbaum, and Kavanagh, 1995; Temporal, 1990).

For HR programmes to be developed and be successful, top management must play a decisive role in supporting its design and costs. MD and T&D designs must have top management support and focus on organisational culture and goals (Dakin and Gough, 1986). The two crucial points in these regards are how to get top management support, and what kind of support makes T&D activities operate effectively.

Top management views any activities in the organisation in terms of benefits and revenue. So, T&D activities should be able to demonstrate clearly the benefits to the individual in particular and enhancement of productivity in general. Otherwise, in difficult times, when resources are constrained, competition for budget is likely to result in serious cuts in training budgets. There are some important points to be taken into consideration to ensure top management commitment.

- A clear method to demonstrate potential benefits of the training and development activities. If management is not sufficiently convinced about the potential benefits, they are likely to concentrate resources in activities where the returns are more evident.

- Without clear benefit of the training and development activities, there will be a lack of appropriate guidance from the top management to the managers for systematically planning the training and development activities.
- Top management needs to set flexible plans and norms, so managers can send their employees to training and development programmes.
- Formulating long-range plans and budgets should be considered, rather than counting on short-term objectives which have immediate evident results.

Salinger (1987) has identified six factors which affect top management commitment:

1. No clear benefits of the T&D activities, due to a lack of methods for demonstrating the expected benefits, causing a shift in allocating resources to other fields where the return is evident.
2. The absence of clear benefits of T&D activities rarely leads top management to evaluate and reward managers and supervisors for carrying out effective T&D activities.
3. Top management rarely plans and budgets systematically for T&D, and so are unlikely and unable to consider T&D in formulating long-range plans and budgets.
4. Managers do not usually take into account T&D activities in production planning, and thus are not able to allocate time and money systematically for T&D for their employees.
5. Supervisors often find that production requirements preclude sending their employees to take T&D programmes.
6. Unsystematic development of employees, when managers and supervisors develop their employees mostly in short-term objectives.

The problem in measuring the effectiveness of T&D activities is that their impact on productivity is not clearly apparent, and it is difficult to determine the improvement in management skills in the short term. Salinger (1987) argues that productivity measures need to be present in individual units, not just on an organisational basis. According to Clark (1992), applying cost benefit and cost effectiveness analysis techniques, which control costs, on a continuous basis, will result in determining the contribution of selected training programmes to business results. In regard to the second point, managers should not be directly evaluated and rewarded on their use of T&D activities, “but rather they be judged on successfully meeting both short- and long-range organisational goals” (Salinger, 1987, p.110).

Another crucial point is how to obtain top management support for T&D programmes and activities. There are two kind of support, verbal and action support. Verbal support is related to words, written documents and reports. Action support deals with T&D activities in the formulation of business plans and allocating sufficient resources. Action support also deals with the implementation and evaluation of final results. The latter support is needed to make T&D activities more effective. T&D functions should be incorporated in the early stages of planning (Yeomans, 1982).

3.4 A systematic approach

A systematic approach to training can be considered to be an action process to put ideas into practice and to combine all the main elements of organisation success. The process of a systematic approach to training consist of several functions, starting with training need assessments, evaluation and follow-up (Ordione, 1970; Kubr and

Prokopenko, 1989; Nadler, 1982; Patrick 1992). Others break down these steps into sub-steps (Robinson and Robinson, 1989), while Beardwell and Holden (1994) link their approach to organisation strategy.

Armstrong (1992) argues that systematic training often fails to make significant impact on performance, because it is introduced on a piecemeal basis and is used in isolation without the backing of top management. Despite the importance of training programmes, the quality and the quantity of T&D programmes are still not adequate, especially in view of rapidly changing business needs. As Handy et al. (1988) state, the majority of managers do not receive management training (MT), despite the recognition that management education and training (MET) could greatly improve their performance.

Chenault, (1987) quoted by Jones (1990), reviews the characteristics of MT carried out in the USA, and suggests that the majority of MEP at middle-level and senior management levels tends to be fragmented and formed of short courses designed for specific needs, but not necessarily part of the overall company MD policy. Pettigrew et al. (1988) argues that systems for identifying training needs have to be embedded in the organisation and supported by top management. According to him, such mechanisms lead to active training plans for individuals and operating units.

The effectiveness of a training system depends on top management and line managers' support and understanding of what training ultimately hopes to achieve and its potential benefits, on the other hand linking training system activities to corporate planning and strategy. Grove and Ostroff (1990) postulate that both top management

and training managers should discuss what exactly needs to be evaluated to incorporate training requirements with business strategy. Fairbairns (1991) argues that training needs to recognise what will fit the company culture as well the strategies and objectives.

Training needs assessment could prevent training from being viewed as an isolated activity. Training needs must be linked to corporate strategy (Brown and Read, 1984). Hussey (1985) states that training objectives should be reviewed by top management whenever a change in strategy is planned. Goldstein (1985) suggests evaluation design must recognise that training programmes and evaluations are interventions within the organisational structure.

3.5 Organisational culture

Organisational culture is a relatively new concept within organisational analysis. This concept has come from the field of anthropology and has raised interest among writers and professionals. The current interest in organisational culture has its roots in research in organisational culture, national culture, investment in HRM, and new explanation of corporate performance (Brown, 1995).

Organisational culture is defined as the shared values, beliefs and understanding, which are held by a particular group or organisation, regarding its problems, practices and goals (Reicher and Schneider, 1990). Drennan (1992, p.3) defines organisational culture as a set of behaviours: “ How things are done around here. It is what is typical of the organisation, the habits, the prevailing attitudes, the

grown-up pattern of accepted and expected behaviour”. Organisational culture has developed from three important sources (Brown, 1995):

1. The social and national culture, within which the organisation is situated;
2. The vision, management style and personality of the organisation’s founder or other prominent leader; and
3. The type of business the organisation conducts and the nature of its business environment.

The essence of culture is the basic assumptions and beliefs that are developed by a group of people in response to environmental problems. According to Schein (1984, p.78), “culture is a pattern of basic assumption invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration - that has worked well enough with new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems”.

The major role of culture is to cope with economic and technological changes which cause organisations to change their business strategy. The consistency with which the individual corporate decisions will merge in order to guide the organisation into a single strategic direction will depend on the strength of the organisation’s culture. At the centre of the decision-making process is the Chief Executive Officer (CEO). Continued economic success will depend on a stronger more proactive role by the CEO (Gluck, 1986). America @ Work recent study showed that American companies generally are meeting their workers' expectations in terms of organisation's culture, the quality of its leadership, and whether employees are encouraged to contribute ideas (Stum, 1999).

Culture is composed of tangible and intangible factors which influence work behaviour, attitudes, and affects the organisational activities. Top management commitment, training champions and training philosophy are some of the cultural aspects which have a profound effect on training and development activities of the organisation (Pettigrew et al., 1988).

Greengard (1998) states that, when an organisation links systems and resources, and develops a culture that embraces change as a strategic advantage, the resistance fades and the true revolution begins. The crucial role that organisational culture plays, and its appropriateness, is influential for the organisation life cycle. The founders and leaders, however, are important as the source of organisational culture. Davis (1984) states, “the clearer the leader is about what he stands for, the more apparent will be the culture of that company”. In this case, an appropriate culture towards T&D is required, and should be perceived by the top management as a source to achieve organisational objectives by developing employees’ attitudes and values, rather than treating T&D activities simply as a cost, for which immediate and tangible returns are not always evident.

Therefore, leadership is responsible for the success or failure of any T&D programmes. Temporal (1990) states that “an in-depth understanding of the organisation’s culture is extremely important to those who are trying to make MD happen, without this knowledge and understanding MD initiatives could fail”. He further suggests that MD must work with organisational culture and may be applied to help to foster changes in the organisation.

However, training by itself is not sufficient to change a company's culture, but it can act as a change agent and signal a serious intent to change (Hussey, 1988). As a result, culture influences work behaviour and the way organisations view things. In this regard, Morgan (1986) argued that culture structures the environment and makes it possible for people to derive meaning from their work, to work comfortably with others and to focus on key organisational tasks. Vestal et al. (1997) highlighted this role, and argued that the culture and all elements must be aligned with human resource strategies, to successfully support the organisation's strategy and mission.

Top management's task is to develop an appropriate culture for the organisation. In regard to changing a culture, Chief executives, who act in a monitoring role to ensure that a culture is maintained, must take the initiative if they want to bring about a change (Hussey, 1988). A similar view was expressed by Schein (1984). He stated that an organisation's culture is initially created by the founders and maintained by the leaders. According to him, the personal beliefs of the founders determine what is appropriate or inappropriate for the organisation's activities. Two other aspects that shape corporate education and training practices are a company's perceived innovativeness and management resistance to change in HR practices. Ussem (1993), in his survey, found that firms with innovative and less resistant management culture invest more in training of their main-line workers and experience fewer problems in recruitment. Due to the rapid changes in technology, economic fluctuation and organisation restructuring, managers have to be more proactive, co-operative and willing to change the organisation's culture and structure, to be competitive. So, top management's primary task is to develop an appropriate culture for the organisation and for T&D in particular.

3.6 Arab Managers' characteristics and management practices

According to Weir (1994, p.374), "It might now be appropriate to regard Arab Management as a unique and separately identifiable phenomenon in its own right. We distinguish it from the American, Japanese and European intellectual and organisational traditions. Thus, Arab Management could be defined as a "fourth paradigm".

Socio-cultural influences have a profound effect on the characteristics of Arab management practices. The socio-culture is derived from Arab culture and built upon an Islamic value system. These aspects affect management practices, and T&D in particular. Culture is considered to be the most important element in terms of shaping human behaviour. Badawy (1980) found Middle Eastern managers favoured a traditional approach influenced by their culture and history. Management practices are a product of culture and individual understanding, which are derived from social values, norms, beliefs and work experience (Ali, 1995).

All over the world, individuals have different backgrounds which determine their perceptions about rules within the organisation, therefore these perceptions affect behaviour (Hortun and Muller, 1989). These differences in perceptions between managers from different cultures can determine the pattern of the management development strategy. Evans (1990: 46) postulates that "strategies for developing managers can vary widely between different cultures and countries. In Germany functional specialisation is the norm, while generalism dominates in UK and North

America. Japanese companies typically believe that it takes four years to do a job well, while western high-flyers are expected to hold 10 jobs before they are 40”.

The common belief is that Arab countries share the same culture and values, irrespective of political and economical differences. Muna (1980) states that Arab countries show similarities and share common values despite economical and political differences. However, these differences affect managerial preferences. Ali (1988) argues that there is variation between Arab manager value systems. He attributed these differences to different ideological and religious beliefs, as well as the pattern of production and living in each country. In Kuwait for example, the managers’ preference for tribalistic and manipulative values finds its roots in the social and economical aspects of the Kuwaiti society (Ali, 1988).

Although Gulf managers share to some extent common cultural values with other Arab countries, they differ in economic and political dimensions, as for example in tribal government and high national gross income. On the other hand, designing economic orientations and determining their priorities influences managers in both sectors, private and public. Ali (1989) states that Gulf managers play a significant role in directing and implementing social and economic development. The Arab society is considered to be a personalised society, and the political elite are sensitive and easily influenced by powerful businessmen and managers.

The two most important influences on Arab society are family and religion, and their effect on management practices are more profound than demographic or organisational variables. An ideal Arab manager is a family man, who looks after his

family and relatives, and is willing to lend a helping hand when required. He builds a reputation of being honest, wise, generous, and committed to his extended family and community (Ali and Shakis, 1991). The Arab society is built around an extended family system, loyalty and obligation to which precedes loyalty to friends and the demands of the job (Nydell, 1987). Personal contact plays an important element for more efficiency than formal procedures. Al-Faleh (1987) states that managers count on family and friends to get things done within the organisation or in the society in general.

The religion of Islam has a dominant influence on all aspects of Arab life. The concept of Islam is based on belief in God, hard work and equality among people. These aspects emphasise certain qualities like honesty, trust, solidarity, loyalty and flexibility (Ali, 1995). Ali (1996) further argues that any approach in organisational change must take into account existing Islamic work ethics and norms since they have tremendous influence on people and organisations.

The effect of culture on Middle Eastern managers differs from western culture, in their beliefs, behaviours, acts, and how things are perceived in an organisational context. Pezeshkpur (1978) compared Middle Eastern and American characteristics of various environment and cultures, and found the following characteristics in Middle Eastern managers: they believe that God actively controls their every undertaking, and the status of an individual is determined primarily by his family position and social contact. In terms of the design and function of an organisation, executives place a high importance on loyalty. When a choice between loyalty and competence takes place, persons with poor qualifications can move up the

hierarchy with the support of a series of supervisors. When loyalty is the determining factor, authority is seldom delegated, and rules and procedures are considered flexible and transitory. On the other hand, American managers are less affected by their religious orientation which is tempered by other values, rather than viewing events within a religious context. Emotional commitments help to seek goals more actively, but the type of goal that is being pursued more directly determines the action rather than the emotional feeling at that time. Status is achievement-orientated, and personnel are recruited to fit the design and functions of the organisation. Also, the conception of loyalty can apply to non-human entities such as an organisation.

Arab countries put a lot of emphasis on strong family ties and interpersonal networks. Cultural differences which lead to successful practices in one specific environment might fail in another. A serious consideration should be made before any attempt is made to transfer western management practices and theories to a dramatically different culture. Western beliefs, values and approaches may not necessarily be the proper solution to Arab management problems.

Culture and environment, as well as economics and politics, have some effect on management thinking and practices in the Arab countries. These aspects affect planning. For example, Hofstede (1980) indicates that Arabs are high on uncertainty avoidance. Weir (1994:337), states that, "they (Arab countries) do not typically feel threatened by uncertainty or unknown situations but neither do they wish to be assimilated towards them". Al-Faleh (1987) characterised Arab management planning as reactive and crisis-oriented, while innovation and risk-taking are activities which seem to be more often punished than rewarded. A trustful atmosphere, together with

political gamesmanship, characterises Arab organisations. In addition, there are closed information systems, low levels of disclosure to organisation members, constant change, and a high level of uncertainty in work. A fatalistic orientation is another aspect of long-term planning that the Arab manager has derived from Islamic beliefs.

In regard to managerial style, the collectivism in decision style is dominant in Arab countries. Hofstede (1994) indicates that individualism prevails in developed and western countries, while collectivism prevails in developing and eastern countries. On the other hand, Ali (1989) and Muna (1980) found Arab managers in the Gulf demonstrate a high preference towards a consultative style. Al-Faleh (1987) describes the consultation process as being conducted on a person-to-person basis, informal and unstructured, and decisions are taken in an avoidable manner which can be negotiated later. In Kuwait, the society is more collectivist than individualist. Ali et al. (1995), in their study, found consultative and participatory styles more common in Kuwait. The underlying cultural elements, tribal values and beliefs, have a major influence on management styles.

In Arab countries, social values play a crucial role in shaping work values and commitments. Ali (1988) asserts that Arab managers are people-oriented rather than materialistic and they value the approval of their peer groups and associates more than individual fame. Muna (1980) agrees with these points, and further argues that Arab managers are easily affected by family, friends and the community, which in turn influences management thinking, decisions and practices.

According to Al-Faleh (1987), the dominant values and belief systems of Arab society have given a distinctive feature to the Arab management style. Some of these distinctive features are: subordinates act with deference and obedience in the formal hierarchy of authority, organisation members are motivated by affiliation and power needs rather than by performance objectives, social formalities are extremely important, in group affiliation and group interaction kinship ties are important, punctuality and time constraints are of much less concern than in western culture, and managers rely on family and friends for getting things done within the organisation and in the society at large.

Arab managers in the Gulf show high commitment towards family and friends over an organisation's goal and performance (Asaf, 1983). Another feature which may have a negative impact is commitment. In Gulf organisations, employment is usually for life. Training and education facilities and the social system increase their chances of getting jobs over expatriates in both the public and private sectors.

Culture has played an important part in the success or failure of T&D activities, which creates the proper and supportive attitude and beliefs to be instilled in all employees in an organisation and particularly with top management. Choosing the right culture is an important factor for successful T&D activities. Arab management is facing many increasing challenges. A deep understanding of these changes can be made by reviewing management's role and responsibility. Thus an evaluation of strategy and administrative development practices is essential for success. According to Ashor (1993), "The changes and challenges which are imposed by the new international system on Arab countries, require radical changes not only in strategies

and patterns of administrative work, but also in administrative development methods”.

Weir (1994) presents a two-fold argument:

1. The theories of management and its approaches did not give much response in Arab countries.
2. It is now appropriate to regard Arab management as a unique and separately identifiable phenomenon.

He further argues that Arab countries rank strongly in their emphasis on the importance of strong kinship and interpersonal networks. These complex characteristics form essential elements of the “fourth paradigm”, the definition he advances for Arab Management.

3.7 Current Situation and Difficulties

The last three decades, especially the 1980s, were declared as the decade of administrative development, due to the positive impact of management development on organisational effectiveness, economic and social development. Despite this, very little research has been conducted about management development (Al-Homoud and Abdalla, 1995).

After independence, Arab countries had to face a number of problems, such as lack of manpower, lack of well-educated and trained management, lack of professionals and skilled managerial staff, and lack of efficient manpower, which were the main hindrance to development activities in developing countries in general, and in

Arab countries in particular. These were considered to be critical development factors and continued to be so in the 1990s. (Bakshi, 1991; Atiyyah, 1993; Al-Faleh, 1987; Roy, 1977).

Since 1960, there has been an increase in demand for managerial personnel, as the Arab countries started showing interest in management development as well as administrative reforms. This was due to rapid industrialisation, expansion of the public sector, huge debts, increasing population, surplus of workforce, increasing government expenditures, efforts to extend the reach of the state authority over the population, and the nationalisation policy (Al Fathly, 1995; Atiyyah, 1993).

All the above-mentioned factors forced Arab countries to devote more efforts to overcoming the obstacles and to controlling the activities and ensuring quality of inputs as well as outputs through quality control and supplying of competent management. This, to enhance the organisation and its development plans, as well as social and economic growth.

The Arab countries in general have a relatively weak performance in the government sector in comparison to the performance of the private sector, which demonstrates a greater efficiency and high realisation of responsibility in practice. The expansion of government sectors in irresponsible hands, along with lack of government support for developing the private sector, are the important reasons for the relatively poor performance of the government sector. Atiyyah (1993) points out the need for studying political, economic and bureaucratic systems and policies in various countries of the Arab World separately. He also draws attention to the

problems of over-centralisation, over-staffing and under utilisation of resources in some Arab countries (Yunnis, 1993).

In spite of the above-mentioned difficulties, a lot of efforts have also been applied towards administrative reform and renewal to redress many management problems. However, Durra (1991) highlights other problems related to elements affecting administrative development in term of planning, support and implementation, such as:

- Non-existence of a comprehensive, well-integrated national plan for administrative development.
- Lack of co-ordination among agencies.
- Lack of proper commitment among top management.
- Shortage of well-experienced personnel, trainers and consultants, who can take responsibility for smooth administrative development.

The question which now arises is what are the causes of these problems? The scarcity of well-qualified managers in Arab countries has a negative effect on the social and economic development projects. Further, the increasing demand for competent personnel more than the supply has compelled employing individuals in line responsibility with minimum qualifications, experience and training. Thus, employees with little or no qualification have to take responsible positions and bear all the burdens (Al-Tayeb, 1986; Sadiq, 1980).

Arab managers have to be aware of the lack of a long-term focus of business in general and manpower development in particular. Short-term planning will just cause difficulties in determining the required training needs for the administrative development of Arabian countries. "Typically, the Arabs and the Arabian business managers concentrate on satisfying their current needs rather than their long-term manpower requirements" (Atiyyah, 1993). Besides the short-term focus, training activities and attitudes have also been criticised: "Supporters of management development contend that the fault does not lie with the concept of training and education itself, but rather with the methods, material and teaching approaches currently being used" (Al Faleh, 1987).

Al-Tayeb (1986) highlights some problems related to training activities and attitudes, which are as follows:

- Conceptual approach in training programmes.
- Practical research in administrative issues still plays a marginal role.
- Lectures and general discussions given more stress, than rather proper utilisation of different and modern methods.
- Administrative leadership refrains from training because it is difficult to convince line responsibility of training importance (Al-Tawail, 1978).
- Huge amount of work-load, due to over-centralisation, the need for competent trainers, and the scarcity of training and scientific material.

Consequently, the typical training programmes are concentrated on middle and low-level management in these countries. Thus, the top-management's perception is that these programmes are tailored for the middle and low levels only. However,

some training organisations in Arab countries have recently applied and conducted top management training programmes.

Al-Hadad (1996) has described the reality of training in Arab countries and points out the following:

1. When a prepared training programme is applied and used by several training organisations without any distinction, it becomes a widely-used approach.
2. The organisations which benefited from this training adopt a training-related-to-cost approach. Consequently, the training organisations reduce the training cost without giving any attention to the quality, in order to compete in the market.
3. The training function just becomes a group of lectures, followed by certificates, without any serious attempt to see the training as a complete system.

3.8 Current Practices

The literature review has shown many difficulties and obstacles facing the Arab countries, and to tackle these many steps have been taken, such as establishment of public institutes for administrative studies. Their functions included the design and implementation of management training programmes and also conducting short and long-term training programmes for lower-middle-level managers, and thus extending activities to develop administrative leadership. Government support and a number of researches conducted by specialists are other aspects of efforts made.

Significantly, two points have been realised:

1. The effectiveness of T&D depends upon the country's availability of economic, political and social support, its objectives, and the financial and technical facilities.
2. Despite the difficulties, some successful efforts have been accomplished to develop manpower capabilities, as the accepted management process has gained its own principles, elements, foundation and rules, and is the core for national experience.

In order to establish a suitable organisational structure, governments are applying certain administrative reforms to their development plans, such as training and developmental aspects and concepts. The aim is also to adapt it accordingly to the functional and environmental changes. Stifel et. al. (1978) argues that one of the requirements to build professional capabilities is to be consistent to future life requirements and make the training locally available to ensure its effectiveness by keeping external training limited to on a few specialists, which saves expenditure and is favourable to the existence of local capabilities in the training and research fields.

Recent studies reflect that few Arab countries are taking steps to prepare an administrative development plan, in consistent with a comprehensive development plan (Al-Tayeb, 1986). As we know that the human element is the most important investment in all developmental processes, it is to be given priority. In spite of these efforts, T&D have been found ineffective and inadequate. Attiyah (1991) describes training effectiveness as being in general low. In Al-Tayeb's (1984) view, achievements in this field are modest. Al-Humoud (1989) argues that the emphasis of the training institutes on quantitative criteria of achievement intentionally diverts their attention from the more significant qualitative criteria of effectiveness.

Abdulrahman (1989) believes the training institutes have failed to realise any significant change in attitude and practice of Arab managers.

In the government sector, many officials do not take training seriously. Thus, benefit from the training is not obtained and appreciated. In such a condition, the extra expense can only be tolerated if there is a surplus budget. Many therefore believe that money spent on training is a mere waste (Al-Humoud, 1989). Management training is less effective, as stated by Al-Fathaly and Chakerian (1983) and Al-Tayeb (1984) due to the following reasons:

1. Diverse attitudes among Arab managers.
2. Shortage of competent trainers.
3. Inadequate facilities.
4. Non-specific policies.

Al-Tawail (1985) reports, in his study of "Senior Public Managers in the Gulf", that a sample-study shows 60% of the local training is inefficient, while 73% indicated that the impact on performance has been marginal.

After discussing some of the specialists' and researchers' points of view on T&D, we will now focus on management training and development practices in Arab countries.

3.8.1 Training Needs Assessment

As discussed previously, the need for training exists when an employee lacks the necessary skill or knowledge in the particular field of employment and his ability to perform an assigned task satisfactorily (Laird, 1985). The field or particular branch in which extra care is to be given should be examined and analysed so that the objective is achieved. Durra (1991) specified the tools which could be used to collect needs assessment information. They are: interviews, surveys, observations, focus groups and document examinations. He also highlighted the purposes of training needs assessment as:

1. Assisting the trainer to design training programmes.
2. Focusing attention on relevant issues.
3. Setting training objectives.
4. Choosing strategies to solve problems.
5. Establishing the criteria so that the behaviours after training can be measured, and thus determine the material needed in training activity.

Management training specialists consider the needs assessment as a vital step in the planning and evaluation of management training programmes, although the weakest point in all training activities is the lack of systematic needs analysis (Murrell, 1984). Some specialists and training officers indicate that there is an absence of training needs assessment in Arab countries and it is inappropriately performed (Saad Al-Deen, 1989; Al-Tawail, 1989). Atiyah (1991) also opines that in the absence of systematic needs assessment, training professionals have often searched indirect sources, such as national plans and manpower policies to determine training needs.

3.8.2 Programme Design

Lack of adequate and reliable information on training needs makes it difficult in defining programme objectives. Thus, programme design relies on adequate and sufficient information from training needs. Some specialists and researchers criticise the curricula borrowed from western sources and designed by Arab institutes, which are fit for the training needs in western countries only. Juraysat (1982) argues that these curricula should be tested to know their applicability to the local situation and culture.

To avoid a clash between management development and culture, cultural differences in the design and implementation of management development programmes should be taken into consideration. The designer should have the knowledge of specific sensitive topics that cannot be freely discussed, such as politics, religion, sectoral belief and work ethics (Attiyah, 1993).

To sum up, there are two main observations on programme design. Firstly, lack of proper training needs assessment, which leads to design of typical programmes according to a theoretical perspective. Secondly, more effort is needed to innovate and adapt curricula to the local conditions and culture.

3.8.3 Training Techniques

Training methods and materials are limited and conventional in Arab countries. Some specialists and researchers have found that lectures and discussions are the most frequently used techniques in training. Group discussion, case study, and role-playing are rarely used (Halaby, 1976; Juraysat, 1982; Durra, 1988; Atiyyah, 1991). Juraysat (1982), in his study of trainers in Saudi Arabia and Jordan, indicates that 86% use lectures, 62% use case study, and 33% use role playing. Durra (1988) argues that little attention is given to figures, pictures and tables, and he goes further to mention that the audio-visual technologies are not considered as an integral part of the trainers' strategy. Using modern training methods needs more attention, preparation and updating, so that it suits the local situation, attitude and culture of the Arab countries, and to keep pace with the new concepts and approaches to management development.

Training organisations should keep and provide updated material and use adequate training methods which are suitable for the managers' qualifications, experience and work environment. The trainers should be keen to use updated material so that the Arab trainers can achieve their aim and train by using modern methods as an integrated part of their training strategy. As Bachler (1997) indicated, many training professionals agree that distance learning is the best way for students to take courses while remaining on the job. Training by technology may be offered by e-mail, through the Internet, or videoconferencing.

Now the question before us is “Have we reached the aim of having qualified and experienced trainers?” Certainly; in the first conference on recent trends in training and management development, the Arab institutes have stressed the need for training the trainers in modern training techniques (Al-Orfali, 1988).

3.8.4 Evaluation

Evaluation is possibly the least developed aspect of the training cycle. “Practice tends to suggest that in many organisations validation of training either is ignored or is approached in an unconvincing or an unprofessional manner” (Buckle and Caple, 1990). Jackson (1989) makes the point even more forcefully: “evaluation in the human resource field has never really caught on at all in Britain, and has still a long way to go in the United States. Many publications seem to skirt round the subject of the value of training and development...”. He further points out that evaluation is not necessary to sustain an act of faith. In leaner or more difficult times, this may result in training being seen not as a justifiable investment in human resources but as an overhead to be trimmed.

Evaluation aims to collect all necessary information as a basis to correct and develop the training system, to control the quality level of all components of the training system, and thus to ensure that the training instruction is applied in consistency with the prepared plans. However, evaluation is considered as a very difficult task in the training system. Literature on evaluation is rarely found in the Arab countries. However, Atiyah (1991) states that the evaluation methods in Arab institutes “are highly subjective and their results have limited usefulness for improving

on-going programmes or designing new programmes”. He further mentions that the management training programmes are usually evaluated at the reaction level by the use of a questionnaire, distributed to the participants to give their opinion on the quality of instruction, course material, suitability of the training techniques, etc.

The difficulties arise during the evaluation and assessment of the training benefits, because it is not an easy task to measure attitude changes, the time needed to improve skills and increase knowledge, top management support, and internal and external factors in organisational contexts. In a study conducted by Muna and Bank (1993) on 177 managers in the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC) countries, they found that the GCC companies rarely engage in real training evaluation. This problem is not limited to Arab countries only, but also found in some developed countries. A survey in the USA shows that 30% of the largest corporations do not conduct formal evaluations of their training, in developmental programmes (Bernhard and Ingols, 1988). Where in UK evaluation still remains a neglected area (Harbridge consulting Group, 1991).

3.9 Training and Development in GCC Countries

The Gulf countries have a mutual economic relationship, based on huge financial resources, and a historical, heritage, language, religion and many other similarities in their systems. Oil adds another mutual characteristic to make their administrative, social and economic status homogenous. Again, the political structure and political values are the same.

The common features in these countries are those such as specialisation in producing and exporting oil; counting on expatriates in their companies; reduction in relying on industrial and agricultural sectors; huge oil funds; and relying on external imports to cope with their needs. The GCC Countries realised that the more the process of development is facilitated, the more effective will be the training and development.

Al-Tawail (1985), in his study, found that there is no comprehensive determination of training needs, no specific determination of the kind and level of training programmes needed, lack of comprehensive training plans in the short and long-run, weakness of management curricula in academic organisations, shortage of research and studies in training centres, weakness of effective training programmes, and line managers were not concerned in training. The study also endorsed the effectiveness of training institutes to direct training to meet needs (Saudi Arabia 74%, UAE 65.5%); oppositely, Kuwait and Qatar 58%, 60% indicated the ineffectiveness of training institutes in this regard. Al-Jafary (1983) conducted a study on 381 top managers (2 levels) of ten multinationals, drawn from GCC countries - Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Bahrain and the UAE. He extracted the following aspects of managerial style:

1. Tendency towards participative management.
2. Managers prefer a more participative style than the current way.
3. Managers tend to show higher participative inclinations than those in more developed regions.
4. Lack of faith in subordinates' ability to be resourceful in the job.

T&D is a distinctive feature in the Gulf Countries, through their emphasis on the nationalisation policy of filling all the posts held by expatriates by efficient nationals. Al-Sanea (1989), in his study, noted that the expenditure met by the Gulf employers (\$2.850 per national employee) is larger than elsewhere. Constable and McCormick (1987), in his survey of 206 British organisations, revealed that the average annual expenditure per manager was only \$830 approximately. Muna and Bank (1993) confirmed through their findings that the Arab organisations spent three times as much money and time on their management development every year than their counterparts in Britain. Thus T&D must benefit the organisation in a cost-effective manner.

The study by Al-Sanea (1989) also highlighted that management development indicates that some organisations are using modern tools to develop managers in a systematic manner, such as career development systems, professional development programmes, individual development programmes, and other similar programmes. The study conducted by Muna and Bank (1993), already referred to, on 177 managers representing the GCC Countries, drawn from five sectors of industry, found that the important factors which contributed to the success of managers are good education, training opportunities, and career development. But, as already noted, they found that Gulf companies rarely conducted formal training evaluation. The use of annual performance appraisal forms from line development is the major source of determining training needs (Al-Saney 1989).

Gulf managers are homogeneous and follow a consultative decision-making style, influenced by common problems like increasing bureaucracy and centralisation. It has been suggested that systematic thinking to guide planning, implementation, and follow-up of management development efforts is needed to reach an effective management development practice. Abdel Khaliq (1988) indicated in his study that the Institute of Public Administration in Oman, although playing a vital role in T&D, and making significant efforts in conducting researches related to administrative reform on the one hand, on the other is facing problems in terms of financial restraints, over-centralisation, most activities concentrating on training only, no clear role in manpower planning, and a shortage of suitable functional structures. Shaiban (1992) stated that training opportunities in the government sector in Oman do not meet all needs, and training effectiveness is affected negatively by several obstacles: training needs assessment is not accurate, there is a shortage of follow-up of training results, training effect on employees' competence and policies is limited, and managers and employees are not aware of training importance.

Muna (1987) was in charge of setting the objectives of the Qatari development training systems for the petroleum industry, by implementing the individual development programme (IDP) as a tool designed to fill the gap between job requirement and existing capabilities of the individual. Muna stated that over 135 IDPs have been prepared; several were considered a failure, others however went exceptionally well. In general, the IDP training plan was successful in targeting a number of Qataris towards departmental managers' positions.

With regard to the GCC countries, they should minimise the difficulties through comprehensive management T&D plans and exploit all their financial and manpower resources to cope with the development aspects. Overall, GCC countries should apply some of the international experiences in development, as recommended at the first ministerial meeting on administrative and management development in Cairo, 1992 (Akhbar Aledara, 1993), to follow the strategic pattern of successful administrative development in developing countries, which is based on the following:

1. Support from top officials in the state and political leadership.
2. Application of an administrative system approach, to balance and integrate between the developing organisation's structure and systems on one hand, and to develop human resources in terms of attitudes and perspectives on the other.
3. Importance of having a centralised developmental department at State level and keeping the development responsibilities un-centralised.

Taking into consideration management development as a long and continuous process, involving manpower prediction, recruitment and promotional policies, and also training and education with a feed-back system, all should be linked to organisational strategy. The co-operation of the private sector is essentially needed to support government efforts in management development, especially in those companies which have the experience and know-how (Al-Faleh, 1987).

3.10 Training and Development in Jordan

The government in Jordan supported Public Administration by forming committees for modernisation, administrative reform and development, since Jordan is aware that the progress in the administrative fields is the basis for real development. The Public Administration Institute established in 1968, in full co-operation with the Civil Service Commission, aims at continuous development of administration in Jordan. The comprehensive development plan for the years 1986 - 1990 has provided some alternatives for improving the administrative system.

Al-Faleh (1987) stated that management development is one of the most critical issues facing Jordan and noticed a strong link between success in management development and economic development and stability. In his study, he found the following:

1. Capacity of management and training programmes in Jordan never reached an equivalent size with the country's real needs.
2. Lack of commitment to management development on the part of many enterprises and senior managers.
3. Content of existing training programmes does not reflect the actual needs of Jordanian companies. Thus an adjustment is needed to suit the cultural situation, so that management training and development could be achieved.

Al-Rasheed (1993), in his paper on managers' motivation and job satisfaction, examines the extent to which Jordanian managers understand the higher goals of their

jobs, and relates this dimension to the patterns of motivation and job satisfaction. He finds that Jordanian bank managers largely interpret the relevant concepts in a similar way to their counterparts in the west. There is an absence of organisational training needs analyses, use of conventional training methods, and lack of effective procedures for management training and development evaluation, also there is not much congruence between the nature of management training and development programmes and organisation of the formal system (Abu-Doleh, 1995).

In the recent study by Awamleh (1996) of organisational commitment of Civil Service managers in Jordan, he recommends that the concept of organisational commitment should be effectively introduced to Jordanian Public Service practices, through continuous education, training and development. The organisational commitment should be incorporated into motivation and the control system.

3.11 Training and Development in Kuwait

Kuwait considers that the human resource is the substance of development in order to face challenges of the coming century, to fill positions with capable and highly qualified Kuwaitis. This has been made clear in the national five years plan (1995/1996-1999/2000), which emphasises the preparation and development of the national work force, by building productive humans with innovative and exploration competencies, and increase in the efforts related to training and development activities. However, Kuwait is facing a shortage of qualified human resources in general, and managers in particular.

The Civil Service Commission (CSC) is considered to be the only authority in charge of civil service affairs, and ensures unified practices in government organisations such as setting-up the Government occupation concepts, supervising the budget application, employment, and promotion. The goal of the CSC is to upgrade the level of public service and guarantee government work performance at an acceptable level. Accordingly, CSC has conducted several studies in co-operation with foreign and local expatriates, in order to develop and enhance the public sector activities. It has also established the Centre of Administrative Development Affairs, which consists of six departments in charge of T&D.

The CSC has also conducted projects with foreign experts, one of which is to give technological support to the human resource development centre (HRDC). This project aims to benefit the CSC in the following ways:

1. Train employees in such a way that the centre will be the most capable training centre in the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC) as to researchers, training needs analysts, design programmers, HRD evaluation, and administrators in HRD.
2. Have the most comprehensive and innovative administrative research which has been applied in the GCC.
3. Apply the most developed training techniques and use the most advanced training material, as applied in the USA.
4. Reduce the training cost in the future.

On the other hand, the CSC is dealing with United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), in order to support the CSC activities in administrative development projects. This consists of projects with a number of UNDP experts to

provide technological support and specialised scientific consultations, including a diagnosis study and initial recommendations to support and develop sectoral capabilities and information system and computerised projects.

The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training (PAAET) is considered one of the leading governmental authorities in education and training in Kuwait. It applies administrative promotion concepts through the offering of the training programmes to develop human resources in the government and private sectors. Therefore, an in-service training centre and the community service and continuing education department (CSCE) have been set up. PAAET devotes a lot of time and effort to develop training activities, and staff are trying their level best to eliminate any obstacles to training. The in-service training centre consists of various training programmes for management and financial levels, high, middle and supervisory, and others such as computer, and secretary vocational studies.

Further, the training activities conducted by the CSCE in PAAET present various training programmes to provide chances to learn during the whole span of life of anyone who intends to learn. PAAET is also conducting another project called "PAAET - 2000" in the administrative development field; this project consists of organisation structure, manpower planning, job description formulation, policies and procedures for PAAET activities, performance evaluation, staff training, and management information services.

Certainly, there is no doubt that these activities supply some remarkable lessons to be understood and acted upon. Some of the lessons from dealing with United Nations experts and others concerned are:

1. It is important to continue co-operation with foreign experts because it leads to the benefit of the national workforce and competence, which finally leads to the development of government organisations.
2. It is necessary to keep in contact with experts till the execution and follow-up stages of the projects are dealt with.
3. National workforce is to be trained as a counterpart to the foreign experts by the end of each project.

T&D is urged to be applied systematically to cope with the government strategy towards implementing privatisation. Although Kuwait is applying administrative development techniques and T&D for overall development, these processes may however face some obstacles in their implementation which might slow them down or prevent achievement of their goals, such as bureaucratic inflation, malfunctioning, and inefficient current management T&D practices (Al-Homoud and Abdulla, 1995). Others relate these obstacles to lack of investment in T&D programmes, and the absence of an effective evaluation system and strategic linkage between development plans and training policies (Al-Fathly, 1995).

In the independent government organisations, the personnel department plays a more active role in the training and development of employees than the traditional government organisations. The major obstacle facing the T&D function in the private

sector is the unwillingness to allocate sufficient budget for staff training, as indicated by a lot of HRM professionals. Private sector organisations are looking for short-term investment with quick return of profits. This approach does not meet the T&D concept which is a long-term investment. Training activity requires planning and extensive attention which the private sector of Kuwait cannot afford.

In Kuwait, people perceive a government position as a way of distributing the national fortune and not for career development. This affects the perception of T&D. Also, T&D is not compulsory and management training has received scant attention due to the strong belief among managers that the best way to learn about management is through experience. On the other hand, there is an absence of an incentives system to participate in training activities, and there is no link with promotion. The World Bank Report 1994, regarding a broad assessment of the Kuwait economy, criticises the Kuwaiti employment policy. According to the report, the Kuwaiti guaranteed employment in the government sector (92%) affects productivity and causes a gradual decline in the quality of the Kuwaiti human capital. In addition, Kuwait's labour market is highly distorted, reflecting a public/private sector total remuneration differential, and a consequent lack of inducement for Kuwaitis to be employed in the private sector or for private employers to hire them. The report recommends privatisation of some of the government sectors and reform of education and training policies, so that Kuwait can produce the manpower it needs and, thus, the country's dependence on foreign labour will diminish.

Al-Fathly (1995) argues that the obstacles in administrative development are not related to political support, or shortage of financial facilities, or lack of scientific capabilities, but to the following aspects:

1. Absence of spirit of management change instilled at various administrative levels.
2. Absence of effective measurement and evaluation systems.
3. Absence of strategic linkage between development planning and educational training policies.
4. Absence of effective and seriously concerned investment process in training and development programmes.

Besides, according to Al-Homoud and Al-Refai (1981), organisations do not give enough attention to management development, and there is a strong tendency to use expatriate consultants for this purpose, rather than rely on their own abilities. They recommend an increase in training and awareness programmes to overcome their problem. Al-Homoud and Abdulla (1995), in their study, examined the current management training and development practices adopted by large Kuwaiti organisations in government, private and joint-venture sectors. The study raises the following aspects:

1. Training needs assessment: It is noted that the government, private and joint-venture sectors have no specific practices or procedures for determining the training and education of their management personnel.
2. Programme content, and trainers' reputation behind selecting external short programmes. It has been reported that a newly-made programme and the availability of written material are very important factors that affect programme selection.

3. Results show that the government sector use external short programmes extensively for higher management levels and in job training for lower management levels. Private and joint venture sectors mainly make use of the training and open enrolment programmes for all managerial levels.
4. Participant selection. The government sector reported that the eligibility to attend development programmes and the external short courses lies mainly in the candidates specialisation, level of education and nationality (i.e. Kuwaiti). On the other hand, private and joint venture sectors have reported job requirements and level of education as the most important criteria for selection.
5. Evaluation. 90% of the government and 93% of the private and joint venture sectors have no specific follow-up procedures for evaluating the effectiveness of management development programmes.

A paper presented by Al-Otibi (1995) to the Kuwaiti Government in a management and development symposium highlighted the training obstacles in Kuwaiti government sector, as follows:

1. Some participants are not interested in training programmes, and take them for fun or misuse them as a leisure period, or think participation will reveal their poorer performance.
2. Training is not comprehensive, it is concentrated on low-middle management and few programmes are for high management level.
3. There is no interest in training incentives.
4. Shortage of trainers and training specialists in various specialisations.

5. There is a weak co-ordination between government organisation and the training establishment.

Training in Kuwait is conventional and the most negative aspects are the huge budget devoted to trainers, the curriculum, the lecture rooms, and drawing the employees from their jobs to attend long training courses. Some employees benefit from the training courses as relaxing holidays away from their job responsibilities and lack seriousness to achieve the actual course objective. Also the decision makers usually deal with some training officers according to their personal relationship and benefits, even though these training officers are not qualified or experienced to run/or conduct the training courses effectively (Al-Anbaa, 1997).

3.12 Summary

The rush towards industrialisation, expansion of population, increasing competition and changes in technology have caused huge pressure on the existing infrastructure in the Arab countries. The inability of the infrastructure to cope with the increasing pressures has affected the implementation of business plans. Arab countries in general, and Gulf countries in particular, have realised that the human resource is a key shortage, and that T&D is the primary lever for overall development. A qualified and well-trained human resource is conceived to be a significant element and a prerequisite for any development activity.

The two main cultural elements that have a tremendous impact on the management orientation and norms are Islam and the Arab way of life and tradition. So, any transfer of western ideas and practices to the Arab countries needs to be adapted to the local culture, otherwise the contribution of the transfer will be negligible and it may not provide the necessary solution to problems.

Arab management is characterised by over-staffing, over-centralisation, lack of qualified managers, lack of long-term planning of human resources, lack of well organised and systematic training programmes, and deep involvement of social relations in management activities. However, Arab countries, and especially the Gulf countries, have taken remarkable steps to overcome these problems.

The generalisability and validity of the available literature on Arab experience in training and development, especially in regard to public sector reforms and developments, is questionable. Whether the results derived from the public sector can be used in the private sector and in the other Arab countries with political, economical, social and ideological differences, has to be determined. On the other hand, the literature of Arab culture has not precisely determined how culture affects T&D activities.

Chapter Four

Kuwait: Background and Major Environmental Factors Profile

4.1 Introduction

The management of every organisation should be according to the surrounding environment which might affect directly or indirectly the respective organisation. Whether it is a profit-oriented or non-profit-oriented organisation, it has its own objectives. It is noticed that understanding the organisation structure within its environmental context and cultural domain has become more important in developing countries. This is because in these countries, the culture, tradition and religion of the country play major roles in running business activities.

This chapter is designed to acquaint the reader with the background of the State of Kuwait, in which this research has taken place. The following eight sections are highlighted: History, Geography and Topography, Climate, Economic context, Education sector, Demographic Development (Population and Society), and Labour Force. Finally, there is a brief description of the Administrative process, as well as Training and Development.

4.2 History

The State of Kuwait was referred to as “Qurain” or “Grane” in the early 17 th century both names being diminutives of the Arabic words *qarn* and *kout* (*qarn* is a high hill, and *kout* is a fortress near water). Historians believe that Sheik Barrak Al-Ahmad, the ruler of the Bani Khalid tribe, built ‘Kuwait’ in ‘Grane’ and since then,

the city has been referred to as Kuwait. The Danish traveller C. Neibuhr depicted Kuwait as “Grane” on his map and in the narrative of his voyage made in 1765 (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996).

Modern Kuwait began more than 250 years ago when the country emerged as an independent political entity under the wise, just and beneficial rule of the first Al-Sabah and his son. On May 14, 1963, the UN General Assembly accepted the Security Council’s considering Kuwait as one of its members; the flag of Kuwait was raised among the flags of the other member States.

Islam is the official religion of the State and Islamic Sharia is a major source of legislation in accordance with Article 2 of the Constitution. Article 35 of the Constitution guarantees freedom of belief; the State protects and guarantees the right to worship without violating public order. Arabic is the official language, English is widely spoken.

4.3 Geography and Topography

Kuwait lies at the northwest corner of the Arabian Gulf, between latitudes 28⁰ and 30⁰ N and longitudes 46⁰ and 48⁰ E. To the north and west it shares a border of 240 km. (149 miles) with the republic of Iraq, and the south and southwest it shares a border 250 km. (155 miles) with the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. To the east, it has a coastline of 290 km. (180 miles) on the Arabian Gulf. The total area of the State of Kuwait is 17,818 square kilometres (6,969 square miles).

Most of the Kuwait mainland is a flat sandy desert, it has no mountains or rivers or other natural features. The southern part is generally flat, with the exception of Ahmadi Hill. The Neutral Zone between the State of Kuwait and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was created on 7 July, 1965.

There are six seaports, at Shuwaikh, Doha, Ahmadi, Mina Abdallah, Shuaiba and Al-Zor, besides some special anchorages used by companies and individuals. There are nine islands off the coast of Kuwait: Failaka, Bubiyan, Miskan, Warba, Auhha, Umm Al-Maradim, Umm Al-Naml, Kubbar and Qaruh. The island of Failaka lies 20km north-east of Kuwait City. It is of special interest to Kuwaitis, and has become a modern tourist attraction.

4.4 Climate

Due to the location of Kuwait in the Sahara geographical region, the weather of the country is characterised by long, hot and dry summers, and short warm and sometimes rainy winters. Dust storms almost always occur with a rise in humidity during summer. The highest temperature ever recorded was 51°C in July, 1978, whilst the lowest (6 °C) was recorded in January, 1964. There is a wide variation of temperature ranging from an average of 45 °C in summer to an average of 8 °C in winter.

4.5 Demographic Development (Population and Society)

Demographic studies has become one of the independent statistical sciences, and information related to the number; characteristics and distribution of population are of great importance for policy making and setting-up planning programmes.

The first population census in Kuwait was conducted in 1957. Little was known about the population of Kuwait before that date, although some travellers gave estimates which lacked accuracy. The Central Statistical Office tentatively estimates the 1910 population at about 35,000.

From 1910 to 1935, the rate of population growth suddenly accelerated and reached 75,000. In the early-1950s, the population was about 100,000. When the first population census was conducted in 1957 the population had doubled to 206,000 (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996). It is clear that the high rate of immigration is considered to be the main cause responsible for the increase in population and this is due to high fertility and low mortality rates of Kuwait.

Since 1957, a census of the population in Kuwait has been conducted every five years. The results of the April 1985 census indicate that the population rose by mid-1988 to 1,958,477, will have risen by the year 1990 to about 2.1 million, and to around 3 million by the year 2000, if the rate of growth remains constant. (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996).

Previous rates of population growth were as follows:

- * Between the census conducted in 1965 and 1975, Kuwaitis growth rate 6.2%, non-Kuwaitis 8.7%, general average 7.9%.
- * 1975-80 census: Kuwaitis growth rate 4.7%, non-Kuwaitis 7.3%, general average 4.6%.
- * 1980-1985 census: Kuwaitis growth rate 4.0%, non-Kuwaitis 4.8%, general average 4% (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996).

Total Kuwaiti population was 1,697,301 in the 1985 census. The number of Kuwait nationals increased by 185,347 in 1995, while the number of non-Kuwaitis dropped by 306,665. This was probably due to the Iraqi invasion in 1990 when most non-Kuwaitis left Kuwait, and the Kuwait localisation policy. Table (4.1) classifies the population of the State of Kuwait by sex and nationality, according to the 1965, 1975, 1985 and 1995 censuses.

The female population of Kuwait has shown a slight but perceptible increase based on the statistics of the population censuses, from 47.9% in 1957 to 50.4% in the 1985 census (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996).

Table 4.1 Population in Census Years by Nationality and Sex (*1965-1995)

<i>Census year</i>	<i>Population</i>			<i>Percentage</i>
	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	
1965				
Kuwaiti	85856	82937	168793	36.1
Non- Kuwaiti	200456	98090	298546	63.9
Total	286312	181027	467339	100.00
1975				
Kuwaiti	153010	154745	307755	30.9
Non- Kuwaiti	390758	296324	687082	69.1
Total	543768	451069	994837	100.00
1985				
Kuwaiti	238181	232292	470473	27.7
Non-Kuwaiti	727116	499712	1.226.828	72.3
Total	965297	732004	1.697301	100.00
1995				
Kuwaiti**	325967	329853	655820	41.6
Non-Kuwaiti	588357	331806	920163	58.4
Total	914324	661659	1.575.983	100.00

**Provisional data census of population, April,, 1995. ** Not including Kuwaitis residing permanently abroad. Males per 100 Females.*

Source: Annual Statistical Abstract, Ministry of Planning, 1997.

After identifying the population without nationality, statistics about population according to nationalities are currently available. More than 120 nationalities live peacefully in Kuwait. Population by sex and group of countries is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Population by Sex and Group of Countries

<i>Sex</i> <i>Nationality</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>female</i>	<i>total</i>	<i>Percentage</i> <i>%</i>
Kuwaitis	382058	390200	772258	34.51
Non-Kuwaitis	986946	478898	1465844	65.49
1. Arab	388059	167684	5555743	24.83
2. Non-Arab	536080	250197	786277	35.13
A. Asian	522120	240193	762313	34.06
B. African	1266	1225	2491	0.11
C. European	6320	4258	10848	0.49
D. American	5871	3854	9725	0.43
E. Australian	503	397	900	0.04
Not stated	62807	61017	123824	5.53
Total	1369004	869098	2238102	100.00

Population size by sex and nationalities. The Fundamental Features of Population and Labour Force, June, 1998, Ministry of Planning, Kuwait.

4.6 Labour Force

Kuwait labour market characterised by imbalance is continuously hindering the development process and it would be more dangerous if it is continued in the same way. This imbalance was started since the last three decades, but due to a strong economy and financial availability in Kuwait, the negative aspects of imbalance did not realised. When the Kuwaiti economy and its financial started to weaken with some indication of minimising Kuwaiti economy capabilities, especially after the Iraqi invasion. This affected along with the human-beings economy as well, resulting in more financial commitment. Reduction of oil prices added to its burden. This phenomenon in Kuwaiti labour force market is characterised by the following aspects, as described by Ibrahim and Al-Mutawa, (1998):

1. Low rate of national labour force in comparison to the total Kuwaiti labour force in last five years (1993-1998). The growth rate of the total population raised by 46.3%, where Kuwaitis increased by 34.8% and non-Kuwaiti by 48.1%. This was due to the increase in Kuwaiti economic growth and expanded activities, where national labour force would not meet its requirements.
2. Low rate of female participation in the Kuwaiti national labour force, which estimated to be less than half of the male of the total national labour force. Even though the growth rate of female was by 8.33% in 1997 and male by 5.11%, the Kuwaiti female participation in labour-force still lower than the Kuwaiti male.
3. Most of the Kuwaiti labour force is employed in government sector. This is due to Kuwaiti employment policy, which guaranteed employment opportunities for Kuwaitis with attractive and suitable working conditions (such as high salaries,

less working hours, more leave with leave-benefits, and job-security). Whereas the private sector could not offer the same. At the end of the year 1993, Kuwaiti labour force employed in the government sector was 92.54% and it increased to 93.37% at the end of 1998. The Kuwaiti male increased from 91.29% to 92.55%, whereas Kuwaiti female reduced from 95.31% to 94.92% in the same years.

4. Kuwaiti labour force concentrated on unproductive economic activities such as public administration and clerical jobs.

The appearance of petroleum and mass production brought into existence new business relations characterised by individual equality between the employer and the employee. The government intervened to organise the business relations of each sector (government/ private) of those powers working in Kuwait. The rapid growth of the Kuwaiti economy has led to the creation of a vast number of work opportunities and the State's generous expenditure on social services has originated a greater demand for manpower, a demand which the native population has not been able to satisfy.

Therefore, with the rapid change in industry and technology in Kuwait, and because Kuwait is dependent to some extent upon foreigners who come to work in the country, many qualified, well-trained and skilled Kuwaiti workers are needed to operate industries and to replace foreign workers. The statistical data which reflect the supply and use of the labour force are important and essential for the manpower planning programmes, in addition they measures social development at national level.

Table 4.3 shows the estimated distribution of the labour force by employment status and nationality (Statistical Review, 1997), and labour force distribution by sex and nationality.

Table 4.3 Labour force by employment status and nationality (1985-1990)-provisional results of labour force sample survey, May 1990.

<i>Item</i>	1985			1990		
	<i>Kuwaiti</i>	<i>Non-Kuwaiti</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Kuwaiti</i>	<i>Non-Kuwaiti</i>	<i>Total</i>
Employed	94255	566240	660495	117599	730525	848124
Unemployed	1557	8333	9890	4048	21850	25898
Total labour force	95812	574573	670385	121647	752375	874022
Population	470473	1,226828	1697301	568077	1552225	2120502
% labour force	20.4	46.8	39.5	21.4	48.5	41.2

Source: Statistical Review, Ministry of planning (1997).

In employment in Kuwait, in the government sector in particular, where the Kuwaitis largely work, the labour-force is based on an unplanned process, leading to an imbalance between Kuwaitis and non-Kuwaitis. This will very much affect social relationships, values and tradition.

The Kuwaiti workforce requires a two-aspect policy:

1. Developing the national workforce by creating job opportunities in the private sector, training for the speciality in the current job and improving the skill, and also introducing compulsory education system available for every one, free of charge, with all facilities, even at the graduate level. Technical education will be much preferred.
2. Creating an organised immigration policy which is in congruence with the changes in the economic structure and social values.

Obviously, a foreign-labour force is not a factor to encourage economic development. Due to the fact is that unfortunately, as we have in Kuwait 46% illiterate and 92% holding an undergraduate degree, which reflects a weak participation in promoting the economic development of a country. Specifically, in order to compete in a modern economy that counts on advanced technology, one requires a well-trained, competitive and sufficiently well-qualified, as well as well-experienced, labour force, which is unfortunately not available at present to meet the demand. Thus Kuwait depends on a foreign labour force which meets all these qualifications to run the wheels smoothly until we can replace it with a national labour force of such efficiency.

Thus, there is an urgent need for renovation of current policies, so that we can have our own well-trained, efficient labour-force and become self-sufficient in our national labour needs. Accordingly, our first step must be to start training our national labour-force and encourage the remaining ones so that in future all these can replace the foreigners.

Similarly, to achieve a balance in the national labour-force with the population in Kuwait, through applying special localisation policy programmes that can support and encourage Kuwaitis and make them efficient to work in the private sector. Some of the policies include implementing a taxation policy on immigrants, and a solid selective process for selecting a labour force that will be well qualified and experienced. Details of the labour force size in 1997 by sex and nationality are shown in Table 4.4.

Table (4.4) Labour force size by Sex and Nationality (June, 1997).

<i>Sex</i> <i>Nationality</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Percentage</i> <i>%</i>
Kuwaiti	128144	62922	191066	16.19
Non-Kuwaiti	776887	211899	988786	83.81
1. Arab	284734	28417	313151	26.54
2. Non-Arab	476031	183012	659043	55.86
3. No stated	16122	470	16592	1.41
Total labour force	905031	274821	1179852	100.00

Results of labour force sample survey June, 1997. (Fundamental Features of Population and Labour Force, June, 1997, Kuwait). Ministry of Planning.

According to the statistical publication of the Ministry of Planning 1997, the Kuwaiti work-force is 191066, equal to 16.19% of the total work-force, which is estimated at 1179783. Out of the total Kuwaiti-work force, 177649 persons, i.e. 92.97% of Kuwaitis, are working in the government sector, this because of Kuwait government employment policy. Only 10102 persons (5.29%) are working in the private sector and only 856 persons (0.448%) are working in the joint venture sector. While only 25 persons, equal to 0.013% are working in the family sector, there are 2402 unemployed, which is 1.26%. This is illustrated in Table 4.5.

On the other hand, 988786 non-Kuwaitis equal to 83.81% of the total workforce. 104707 persons (10.58%) are working in the government sector. 8969 persons (0.91%) are working in the joint venture sector. 621910 persons 62.89% are in the private sector, and 247219 persons (25%) are in the family sector, with 5944 persons (0.60%) unemployed. These figures can be attributed to the low wages and conditions and length of working experience and qualifications.

Table 4.5 Total labour force (15 years and more) by sector, educational status and sex (1997)

Educational Sector	Illiterate		Primary		Secondary		Higher		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Government Sector	29434	10.42	95486	33.82	91425	32.38	66011	23.38	282356	100.00
Joint venture Sector	2958	30.11	2706	27.54	2716	27.64	1445	14.71	9825	100.00
Private Sector	266457	42.16	190428	30.13	128099	20.27	47028	7.44	632012	100.00
Family Sector	166478	67.34	57195	23.13	22480	9.09	1091	.44	247244	100.00
Unemployed	3264	39.11	3893	46.64	958	11.48	231	2.77	8846	100.00
Total	468591	39.72	349708	29.64	245678	20.82	115806	9.82	1179783	100.00

Source: *The Fundamental Features of Population and Labour Force, June, 1997, Ministry of Planning, Kuwait.*

Table 4.6 Labour force in Kuwait by economic activity (May *1990)

Economic Activity divisions	Labour Force									
	Kuwaiti	%	Non-Kuwaiti	%						
Agriculture, hunting and fishing	345	0.3	1,4675	2.0						
Mining and quarrying	1,886	1.6	5,425	0.7						
Manufacturing industries	3,680	3.1	63,875	8.7						
Electricity, gas and water	1,288	1.1	5,200	0.7						
Construction	989	0.8	163,525	22.2						
Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	4,094	3.5	99,200	13.5						
Transport. Storage & communications	7,061	5.9	39,475	5.4						
Finance. Insurance & real estate and business services	5,244	4.4	18,550	2.5						
Social, community & personal services	94,254	79.3	325,950	44.3						
Total **	118,841	100.0	735,875	100.0						
					Total					%
					15,020				7,311	0.8
					67,555				6,488	0.8
					164,514				103,294	12.1
					46,536				23,794	2.8
					420,204				854,716	100.0

* Provisional data. Labour force Sample Survey May 1990. ** Distribution excluding newly unemployed. (2.806 Kuwaiti 16.500 Non-Kuwaiti). (Source: Annual Abstract, Ministry of Planning, 1997)

In general, as Table 4.6 shows by economic activity, 23.93% of the total workforce are working in the government sector, 8.32% are in the joint venture sector, 53.8% are working in the private sector, and 20.95% are in the family sector, leaving 0.71% unemployed. On the other hand, most of the labour force in Kuwait is working in Social community and personal services, estimated at 49.2%, while the lowest percentage is in Mining and quarrying, and in Electricity, gas and water 0.8%.

4.7 Education Sector

The system of education and teaching in Kuwait is designed to encourage modern technological advance. The Kuwait Ministry of Education monitors the achievements of other countries, their experiences, and modern educational theories. It adopts what is appropriate for the Kuwaiti environment and what is suitable in the field of education for various sectors.

The structure of the education hierarchy started with a programme of three stages: primary, intermediate, and secondary (time span of each is four years), in addition to a kindergarten programme. The objectives of the educational programme were to eliminate illiteracy in the young population at the lower level and to prepare them for careers in the modern work-force at the upper levels. Education between the ages 6 to 14 was made compulsory for all Kuwaitis in 1965.

Education in Kuwait emerged in 1877 upon the inaugurating of the first Kuttab Koran (One Class School) for teaching reading and writing. Later on, second local Kuttabs for boys and girls were founded. Regular education in Kuwait emerged

in early in 1912, when Al-Mubarakiya School, which is considered the first regular school in Kuwait was founded. The first Educational Council in Kuwait was established in 1936. Henceforward, education was brought under governmental control.

- * In 1954, systems and curriculum changed, and the schooling system now consists of three stages: elementary, intermediate and secondary, each stage having four years classes.
- * Special attention was focused on adult education and eradication of illiteracy through many centres found all over Kuwait.
- * In 1967, the Ministry of Education issued the “compulsory education law”, which means that school attendance in Kuwait is compulsory the children between the ages of 6 and 14.
- * University education in Kuwait started in the academic year 1966-67 by establishing the faculties of Arts, Science, and the University girls’ college which were followed by the faculties of Law, Sharia, Commerce, Economy and Political Science, Engineering, and finally the faculty of Medicine.
- * Private education began in 1967 to accommodate the needs of increasing numbers of multinational expatriates seeking work in Kuwait. These new-comers felt the need to establish special schools to teach their children in their mother tongue.
- * The Ministry of Education has paid great attention to disabled children and providing cultural care for them at the private schools, the foremost of which were the two institutes of “Al-Nour Wal Amal” (1955), then it expanded such type of education to include the following categories: visual and mental disability.

4.7.1 The Higher Education

Ministry of Higher Education. This ministry is responsible for matters related to the University and Applied Education and the scientific research conducted by faculties and institutes of higher education, and to employing it for the service and promotion of the community and connecting it to the Arab and Islamic cultures, as well as meeting the country's needs for specialists, technicians, and experts in different fields.

The Ministry of Higher Education is in charge of laying out the general structure of the policies and plans required for the development of Higher Education in both of its aspects: University and Applied, and its follow-up, the adoption. Moreover, it supervises the plans and programmes for human resources preparation and their execution.

Kuwait University. Higher Education started in 1966 by establishing Kuwait University to supply the country with trained, and practically and scientifically qualified manpower in all fields. As the final step to complete the structure of the educational hierarchy, Kuwait University, established with an initial intake of 500 students, reached 17123 students in the academic year 1978/1979. Kuwait University graduated 2046 (512 males and 1534 females) students in the academic year 1994/1995 (Social Statistics, 1995). The objectives of the University can be summarised as: benefiting from knowledge and scientific heritage, developing and raising productive capabilities of manpower and its civilised and social level, sharing in community service, and developing cultural and scientific ties that link the

University and other institutions to achieve goals at local, Arab, Islamic and international levels.

Kuwait Institute for Scientific Research (KISR). This institute was established in February, 1976, by the Arabian Oil Company Limited (Japan), to carry out applied scientific research in three fields: petroleum, desert agriculture, and marine biology. An Amiri decree in 1981 (Law No. 28) formally established KISR as an independent public institution. The law specified that the institute would be governed by a Board of Trustees chaired by a Minister chosen by the Council of Ministers. There are 6 major research divisions and highly effective support and administrative units. The institute has agreements in the field of scientific and cultural co-operation at the local and international levels such as the financing and participant authorities in projects.

Kuwait Foundation for the Advancement of Science (KFAS). This foundation is one of the prominent public utilities founded by a personal initiative of His Highness the Amir of Kuwait, when he was the Crown Prince, on 12 December, 1976. KFAS is a private institution of public utility managed by a Board of Directors, presided over by His Highness the Amir of Kuwait, besides six members elected for three years by Kuwait shareholding companies affiliated with the establishment. The establishment receives subsidy from Kuwait shareholding companies at 5% of their net annual profits.

The most important objectives of KFAS are:

1. To support fundamental and applied research work through scholarships awarded by the corporation in the field of Engineering, Health, Social and Economical Sciences, and other Sciences.

2. To train Kuwaiti citizens by means of granting them scholarships and fellowships, as well as by holding scientific seminars and conferences.
3. To encourage, support and promote research projects and scientific programmes among Kuwaiti scientific authorities on one hand and Arab and international scientific authorities on the other hand.

Public Authority for Applied Education & Training (PAAET). This authority, established in 1982, has undertaken the responsibility for eight institutes and training centres spread over Kuwait, in addition to lately assuming the responsibility for training oil sector workers. PAAET assumed the role of the different organisations which were supervising training, and thus the supervision of preparing and qualifying the technical cadres and preparing suitable programmes for their training was unified.

Other training institutions. These were established as more job-related systems than university education. Among them are the Arab Planning Institute, and Banking Studies Institute.

4.8 Economic Context

Kuwait's economy is dominated by its oil industry. In 1993, oil accounted for 40%, social and personal services for 23.5%, and industry for 15.8% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Despite efforts to diversify the economy by building-up the industrial and financial service sectors, oil and gas still account for more than 90% of export earnings (Kuwait Facts and Figures, 1996).

Despite the depredations of the Iraqi occupation, Kuwait is still one of the richest countries in the world and, as it imports most of its requirements, the possibilities seem limitless. However, the Gulf War has caused financial difficulties: Kuwait is suffering from private sector indebtedness, a budget deficit, and commercial life abounds in regulations. One of the distinguishing features of the Kuwaiti economy is its liberal trade policy of minimal customs duties, though tariffs and quotas are sometimes used to protect local industry. Consequently, better economic conditions and economic growth were achieved.

On the basis of the National Economical data prepared by the Central Statistical Office of the Ministry of Planning - the Gross National Product (GNP) and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the State of Kuwait rose to KD 8,206.757 million and KD 7,379.757 million in 1994, compared to KD 7,523.737 million and KD 5,327.737 million in 1995, respectively (Movements of Economic Indicators, 1995). The Central Bank Annual Report (1996) says that GDP rose markedly in 1996. It gives the same figure as provided by the IMF earlier in the same year (3rd quarter 1997). The Central Bank says that GDP at current prices grew by 16.8%, mainly because of the noticeable improvements in the world oil prices, but also aided by growth in domestic demand. The report says that the average price of Kuwaiti crude exports in 1996 was \$ 18.6/barrel, compared with \$15.56/b in 1995 (19.5% increase). The Central Bank also shows that consumption, both government and private, accounted for 70% of GDP at current prices in 1996, with private consumption rising by 21% on the previous year. Government consumption actually fell marginally. The oil boost also showed in expenditure on exports which rose by 15.3%, while imports fell slightly (Central Bank of Kuwait, Economic Report, 1996).

4.8.1 Profile of Economic Sectors in Kuwait

The analysis of different economic sectors will include the role of the sector in the Kuwaiti economy, the activities and the management features. Three sectors emerged in the Kuwaiti economy; these are the government, the joint and the private sectors.

3.8.1.1 The government Sector

The Government sector is very important in the Kuwait economy and its importance has been increased since the change in ownership of oil to the Kuwaiti government instead of the oil companies, and due to the world oil price rises in 1971. Even before this, the Government was already a major operator in the Kuwait economy; its value added to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was 64.4% and 69.0% in 1992 and 1994, respectively (Movements of Economic Indicators, 1995).

Oil revenues financed the entire public expenditure, which is in contrast to the usual situation in other countries, where Government expenditure is financed by taxation or borrowing. It is worthwhile mentioning here that the government is the largest employer in the country. The percentage of employees working in the government sector is equivalent to 55% of the country's labour-force.

The government sector is characterised by its routine and bureaucratic form. The conduct of work depends mainly on written communications through the chains of command and a lot of paperwork to ensure the official documentation of all aspects

of the work. The government is responsible for providing jobs for Kuwaitis. This commitment has been understood that the government should create jobs for people and not that people should look for job openings. The labour-force is inflated in most government organisations, regardless of the actual need for additional manpower. Most government organisations under study suffer from the lack of qualified managers and supervisors. This has been indicated by many HRM professionals and organisations' leaders as well.

4.8.1.2 Joint Venture Sector

The joint venture sector is considered to be crucial as one of the most important attempts to transform the low income, narrow-based economy of pre-oil years into a developed economy able to create a modern industrial country. This sector has been created by the government as an experiment to enhance industrial and economic activities between the government sector and the private sector.

The joint sector is essentially multi-country enterprises that are owned and/or managed totally or partially by the government, or publicly-owned companies and/or nationals, or private companies of more than one country. In the last few years, a number of joint venture enterprises financed or operated totally or partially by the Kuwaiti government have been established, in which participation has been gained as much from an initiative aimed at political and national balance as from ordinary business motives. As for the nature of activities, the majority was clearly concentrated in oil-related and petrochemical activities, followed by banking and investment. By contrast, Kuwait is the base for very few joint ventures despite being the second most

important industrial power in the GCC. However, this sector has a value added to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which was 3.6% and 3.9% in 1992 and 1994, respectively (Movements of Economic Indicators, 1995). This could be attributed to the fact that Kuwait's major industry is oil, and it is fully controlled by the government beside a few other large-scale industries.

The Government has also introduced financial and legal control on joint venture sector organisations. These organisations, to some extent, have the freedom to set and develop policies, and have demonstrated more efficiency than government organisations. The control is concerned with enforcing these organisations' rules and regulations which may affect the available flexibility in this sector. However, this sector has limits and constraints, as indicated by Khatrawi (1988). His study concentrated on privatisation and joint ventures in the GCC region, including Kuwait.

The major constraints include the following:

1. Lack of common policies, institutions, and incentives.
2. Lack of a project allocation scheme for distributing regional joint venture enterprises among the GCC member states.
3. Absence of common foreign investment code.
4. Difference in the incentives and subsidies package provided to national joint enterprises.
5. Lack of legal and procedural framework for mergers and acquisition of similar enterprises.
6. Lack of market knowledge and information on potential national and/or foreign partners most appropriate for joint venturing.

In conclusion, the return on Government investment in the joint venture sector has been increasing. However, the performance of management in both managerial and technical positions needs improvement, even within a short time of this sector being established.

4.8.1.3 Private Sector

The economic system of the country has developed on through the private sector and has based its traditional approach on trade activities with the outside world which need flexibility, promptness, free enterprise, and a decentralised economic system.

The importance of the private sector and its considerable achievements has been shown, especially in areas such as trade, construction, banking, insurance, and other financial activities in the Kuwait economy. The growing business market in Kuwait has been characterised by high profit, huge capital and low competition, which resulted from a small population, narrow economic base and government support. This support can be observed through protecting Kuwaiti nationals' rights, such as Kuwaitis must own at least 51% of any business enterprise, supporting investors during financial crises, supporting the real estate prices, and covering shares prices registered in the Kuwait stock exchange. However, this leads to the private sector being unwilling to abandon the government support, which leads to shaping the private sector characteristics in terms of unwillingness to take risks and concentration on short-term investment.

The private sector has a tremendous impact on the national economy and is generally regarded as offering the best means for promoting economic development through the application of modern tools and techniques in both the technological and managerial areas. In Kuwait, private sector is relatively small and is incapable of providing the required experiences to managers. Its role is limited and its contribution to the country's development is still marginal. Thus, its value added to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was 32.0% and 27.1% in 1992 and 1994, respectively (Movements of Economic Indicators, 1995). This could be attributed to the economic crises and unstable political situation. And, as mentioned before, the fact that Kuwait's major industry is oil, fully controlled by the government, beside a few other large-scale industries.

The urge to Privatisation is a result of the risks of a weak economic condition and inappropriate of the best use of resources on one hand, and insufficient management competence in running enterprises on the other. The domination of the public sector in Kuwait over economic activity leads to minimising most of the feasible investment opportunities from the private sector, which leads also to weakening this sector's capabilities and directing it to marginal activities. The privatisation programme was begun cautiously in mid-1994 by the Kuwaiti government to give a more constructive role to the private sector in developing the economy. The Kuwait Investment Authority which has overall control of state investments, local and overseas, started by selling stakes in companies already listed on the Kuwait Stock Exchange. A government committee in charge of privatisation has been formed and chaired by the Under Secretary of the Ministry of Finance, the aims of which are to lesson the financial burden on the state, to stimulate the private

sector, and to develop capital markets. Privatisation is actually administered by the Programme Executive Office.

The World Bank and the Gulf Investment Corporation are advising the government on privatisation. The World Bank has identified a total of 74 companies for privatisation, of which 24 are banks or investment groups, and has recommended sectors for privatisation; these include: airlines, telecommunications, electricity generation, healthcare, public transport, and certain oil activities. The government is currently reviewing the World Bank advice; in many cases, it has decided not to create private enterprises in these sectors (Petroleum Economist, 1996). However, new legislation has been introduced whereby foreigners are allowed to own up to 40% of local banks and insurance companies, and 49% of other companies.

4.8.2 Developments in Kuwait's Foreign Trade

Available data and estimates on Kuwait's merchandise transactions worldwide show several significant developments during the second quarter of 1997, whereby Kuwait's trade balance surplus rose by KD18.3 million (4.2%) during that quarter over its level for the corresponding quarter of the previous year. This increase is the outgrowth of the developments in Kuwait's merchandise exports and imports (Quarterly Statistical Bulletin, 1997).

4.8.3 Kuwait Stock Exchange

The Kuwait Stock Exchange is considered to be one of the most important Arab financial markets and compares favourably with international bourses in terms of the value and volume of traded shares.

Activity in the Kuwait Stock Exchange (KSE) continued to increase at an accelerated pace during the second quarter of 1997, whereby the daily average value of traded shares rose tangibly to KD 53.1 million against KD 41.7 million during the previous quarter, i.e. an increase of 27.3%. Meanwhile, the daily average of the value of traded shares rose to 188.4 million shares during the second quarter of 1997, from 152.4 million during the previous quarter, i.e. an increase of 23.6% (Quarterly Statistical Bulletin, 1997).

4.8.4 Banking Developments

The aggregate balance sheet of local banks stood at KD. 11946.4 million at the end of the second quarter of 1997, against KD. 11817.3 million at the end of the previous quarter, i.e. an increase of KD. 129.1 million (1.1%). This increase reflects several development in the elements of the aggregate balance sheet of local banks, on both the assets and liabilities sides (Quarterly Statistical Bulletin, 1997).

A recent survey by Gulf Business pointed out the National Bank of Kuwait (NBK) as Kuwait's top company, with market capitalisation of US\$ 2,714 million. The study ranked NBK as the fifth largest company in the Gulf, behind SABIC,

Etilsalat, Al Rajhi and Saudi American Bank. The Gulf Bank, National Industries, Mobile Telecomm, Commercial Bank, Burgan Bank and Commercial Facilities were the other companies whose market capitalisation has been pretty strong. Most of the prime Kuwaiti companies are from the banking sector. The other top companies are finance or real estate (Target Business News, 1997).

4.8.5 Economy

Kuwait and other GCC country's growth rate accelerated noticeably during 1996, with aggregate real GDP estimated to have risen by at least 3%, compared to 1% or less during the previous year. Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Oman and the United Arab Emirates likely recorded a fast rate of growth in this region. Inflation, however, measured by official consumer price indices, slowed, in nearly all countries in the GCC region, ranging between 1% to 4% (Target Business News, 1997).

This decline in consumer price inflation is partly attributable to the absence of further reductions in subsidies on consumer goods and domestic utility charges or other substantial pricing reforms. Another key factor was the strength of the US Dollar relative to other currencies which reduced the Kuwait imported inflation, given the large role the US Dollar plays in regional currency regimes. The growth acceleration last year reflected three main factors. First, despite virtually constant oil output, the unexpected run-up in oil prices generated larger government revenue. Secondly, activity by the private sector in the non-oil economies strengthened. Finally, price inflation fell last year in all GCC countries. The Kuwait government as well as

other GCC governments have persistently signalled their desire to contain fiscal deficits in recent years.

In Kuwait, the actual budget deficit last year was US\$ 2.2 billion, almost one-half of the US\$ 4.4 billion that had been projected. The decline reflected larger revenue and expenditure restraint. Kuwait's 1997 budget projects a deficit of just under US\$ 4 billion (Target Business News, 1997). The Nominal GDP (US\$ billion) and Inflation Rate (%) of Kuwait - 1992 – 1996 are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7, The nominal GDP and inflation rate of Kuwait (1992-1996).

Years	1992	1993r	1994r	1995	1996e
Nominal GDP US\$ billion	19.1	23.9	24.7	26.6	28.7
Years	1992	1993	1994	1995e	1996e
Inflation Rate (%)	-0.5	0.4	2.5	3.5	3-3.5

r: revised, e: estimates.

(Source: IMF, IFS, Jan, 1997; MEES; Official Statistics; and GIC, Economic Division estimates, Target Business News, 1997).

Oil represents a major part of Kuwaiti exports and GDP, leading to diversifying national income resources by depending on other sectors. Industrial production is one of the priorities, especially with the expanding agricultural production representing only a limited prospects with scarcity of water, land and labour force.

Therefore, from Independence (1961), the government started to support the industrial sector in many fields. One of these provides the basic infrastructure and

develops it to push industrial development through granting industrial areas and providing them with the necessary services. Also, it emphasises diversification of their industries side-by-side with the essential industries which depend on oil. Taken into consideration that these industries should count on a well-trained and experienced workforce, and give chances to train Kuwaitis and attract technical graduates from technical institutes and engineering colleges.

The industry in Kuwait is facing some obstacles which were defined by the Business Barriers Conference held in 1997 (Arab Research Centre, 1997), such as the industrial option and related industrial sector decisions based on a clear plan or comprehensive study to locate the industrial option among industrial development priorities. The industrial workforce suffers from lack of experience and specialisation in industrial management, besides the high cost of the national workforce. In addition, the insufficient government support and shortage of budget for research and development in the industrial field.

The strength of the oil sector meant that the contribution of the non-oil sector to total GDP fell from 61.7% in 1995 to 56.6% in 1996. Excluding the refined products industry, the non-oil sector contribute 48.8% to GDP at current prices. Other than mining and quarrying, which includes oil extraction, the most important activities were community, social and personal services and finance, insurance, real estate and business services. Together they accounted for more than 31% of GDP in 1996. Manufacturing was responsible for 11.2% of total GDP, of which 69% was petroleum-related. Non-oil manufacturing grew by 4.4% which contributed 3.4% of GDP (Economist Intelligence Unit, 1997).

In the year 1998, an increasing optimism and development are possible. Oil production is rising, and foreign participation upstream is now allowed, the Equate petrochemical complex is a landmark in industrial development, there is further rationalisation in the banking sector, privatisation is continuing apace, and there is a healthier situation for the first time since the Iraqi invasion. There has been a 16% increase in GDP because of higher oil prices during 1996/1997, and the government now has a budget surplus for the first time since 1991 (Middle East, 1998).

4.9 Administrative Process in Kuwait

Economic and social activities witnessed a dramatic growth and expansion as a result of the growing international interest in oil. This rapid development was achieved through the constructive co-operation between Kuwaiti nationals and expatriates - which tripled the number of population.

With the rapidity of social and economic growth, the civil service expanded and was to perform new functions and greater responsibilities, staff were needed for the numerous infrastructure projects that were being implemented, and the public sector along with private/joint sector were rapidly expanding. Consequently, Kuwaiti government has paid a great attention to the management of human resources and the efforts to make an effective contributing workforce in the development plans within Kuwaiti organisations. Thus, T&D in Kuwait was declared as a necessary weapon to cope with the future ambitions and to overcome of the present difficulties in their administrative system.

Kuwait started its administrative developments in the 50s and continued in the 60s and 70s, till before the 1990 Iraqi invasion. The administrative development plan was prepared, which concentrated on the human resources element, to improve the administrative system, develop the growing Kuwaiti population, revise the training process, review the organisational structure, and search for ways to develop services and procedures and provide new job description systems. The economic and social situations in Kuwait have slightly changed after the Iraqi invasion. The need to develop oneself through education and experience is the best insurance against under-employment or insignificant, non-productive careers.

Kuwait has two types of organisations: first the ministries, and second government-owned business organisations (independent organisations), which operate out of the government infrastructure, but under government umbrella and regulation. It is noticed that the latter are relatively different from the ministries in their work environment, organisational structure and their style of running activities. They are more flexible in their procedures and levels of authority, and give all their activities more attention, including T&D. A major factor behind this is that they are linked to the need to make profit and to reduce costs and enhance their quality services.

However, all government organisations working through bureaucracy are tied with social, parliamentary, tribal and civil service regulation constraints. The government system in Kuwait is under the influence of being linked to the social system. Consequently, many recent theories in management such as re-engineering and re-structuring could not be applied, due to their concepts.

The expansion of the State bureaucracy was so fast that it is causing the State to suffer from bureaucratic inflation and malfunctioning. Al-Homoud and Abdulla (1995), in their study, examined the current management T&D practices adopted by large Kuwaiti organisations in government, private and joint-venture sectors; they identified certain factors responsible for Kuwaiti bureaucratic inefficiency. These are the following:

1. The country's blindfold dependence on expatriates from Arab countries.
2. The compulsory State policy to have complete Kuwaitisation, especially of management jobs in the government sector, with the available inexperienced indigenous personnel.
3. Many of the government establishments, where there is a need for highly efficient employees, are not functioning due to sudden stoppage of employing qualified expatriates.
4. High job security for indigenous personnel leads them to become lazy and irresponsible.

The ability of a bureaucracy to perform the core economic and service delivery functions of government appears to rest largely upon two elements: the structure of the bureaucracy itself, and the behaviour and attitudes of the individuals managing the civil service. Bureaucratic organisations, like all inanimate structures, remain at the mercy of human beings. Kuwait's bureaucracy is similar to bureaucratic organisations in other societies, as it is responsible for executing the decisions of its political leadership and for maintaining the day-to-day economic, regulatory, and service

functions of the state. The development capacity of a bureaucracy is a function of at least four interdependent variables, as stated by Heady (1996): (i.e. structural/organisational, behavioural, client-interaction, and environmental).

The behaviour of Kuwait's core civil servants is profoundly influenced by their organisational setting as well as by various dimensions in their larger political, economic and social environments. Al-Dowihees (1996, p.11) in his study recommended the competency-based model for developmental capacity for assessing the larger bureaucratic setting in Kuwait which consists of three basic levels: structural/organisational (administrative), political, and technical/client-interaction (service delivery and core economic functions). He further argues that " it is essential that any diagnostic exercise ultimately sheds light on the interaction between these interdependent variables and the overall performance of the civil service".

The administrative development efforts in Kuwait are suffering from a shortage of degree of commitment and level of activity - which are below average in Kuwait-and an absence of a comprehensive administrative system (job descriptions, performance appraisal, administrative procedures, training and development) (Al-Jamal, 1995).

The private sector, on the other hand, is small and under-developed. It is mostly staffed by expatriates since they have relatively longer work experience and are therefore more cost-effective. The main reason for under-development is that employment in the public office is considered to be more prestigious, offers more opportunities, shorter working hours, and higher salaries. In private and joint venture

organisations, management has more freedom in the way decisions are made and in procedures, policies and leadership style. The meaning of management roles, and hence of T&D, is therefore likely to be different from government organisations.

Implementation of Kuwaitisation at the micro level was more effective in public sector organisations than in the private sector. Nowadays, the public sector is overstaffed with Kuwaitis, and the number of entrants into the labour market during the period of 1990-1995 was expected to exceed the total employment in the public sector. The private sector, the largest employer in the country, which employs over 85% of the total, is still dependent on expatriates, and even resists the Kuwaitisation of its jobs, blaming the educational system and Kuwaiti workers for not being well trained enough and for demanding higher wages.

Among other aspects, the main traditional social context of Kuwaitis influences their administrative behaviour, such as family relationships, external social relationships, visiting employees and accepting visitors during working hours, and lack of time-base and giving importance to the time factor.

The Kuwaiti administration allows one to occupy responsible administrative posts for a continuously long period of time, which bars the chance of the next in charge to hold the position. Their aspirations for promotion also grow weaker, which causes them to lose interest in their work or search for other ways to benefit from their initiative, like getting involved in business in addition to their employment (Al-Rumaihi, 1981).

The behavioural problems confronting the Kuwaiti bureaucracy are not solely caused by structural inadequacies, but the structural problems are a major contributing factor and deeply affect the performance levels of civil servants (Al-Dowihees, 1996). Thus promotion to give inspiration can not be expected. So many prestigious and influential persons go in search of other places to work, leaving the well-trained and experienced sector.

4.9.1 Complications of the Administrative Process

Hamouda (1978), in his study on authorities and jurisdiction at the level of high administration in Kuwait, concluded by laying down a framework for the problems from which the actual organisational situations of these leaders suffer, which can be summarised as:

- * Non-determinative capabilities of the authorities of high administration.
- * Vagueness of the concept of the principle of authorisation.
- * Concern for the formal aspects of authorisation.
- * Exceeding the administrative powers in granting authorisation.

The research conducted by Hashem (1983) revealed weakness of the administrative system in the following two areas: in the field of planning, and in the field of appraisal of performance. Al Houmod (1987) stated the obstacles to administrative development in Kuwait are as follows:

1. Economic obstacles: The financial return of the State and the application of government policies are unplanned.

2. Political obstacles: Direct interference of the government to control developmental plans by expanding its authority and executing it.
3. Social Obstacles: Wealth and economic affluence help in transferring conventional values: contempt for arduous work, preference for administrative work, and the loss of linkage between productivity and salary.

The troubles facing management development operations in Kuwait are augmented by the low performance levels of the directors of personnel and development departments in most local institutions, and especially in the fields of T&D. The phenomenon of conflict of nationalities also adds a new dimension to the obstacles facing management development, a dimension where nothing has been done so far to reduce its negative effects, or benefit from its good effects.

The administrative structure in Kuwait suffers from the lack of balance in technical and managerial knowledge between young Kuwaiti managerial leaders and efficient, experienced employees of other nationalities, because the balance tips in favour of efficiency and experience at lower levels of the administrative structure, whereas the young leadership is at the higher levels.

The Kuwait government has just finished one of its strategic projects in restructuring the State system in co-operation with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in order to establish a scientific vision. The purpose was to diagnose the obstacles facing the government sector, to redesign the development role to be played by the State to support its capabilities and improve functional

performance to overcome the budget constraints, and to improve the private sector capabilities to participate effectively in national development requirements.

The development programme consists of four elements: improve performance, introduce functional change, change the structure, and build/create civilian responsibilities. These elements have main features, such as introduce management systems, build upon performance, establish the Institute of Public Administration, remedy overlapping of responsibilities, develop the policy and programme of modifying the workforce through expanding the private sector, and reassess the employment policy and provide new incentives in the private sector (Al-Qabas, 1997).

In general, it can be stated that management is merely a concept reached by man through his continuous search for setting-up strong and permanent bridges between the fact and fiction of the nations and the hopes and achievements of the organisations, and the continuous reaction of man with all the variables in his environment, with acclimatising with this environment on one side, and facing its requirements and exploitation of its quick variables on the other.

4.10 Summary

In this chapter an overview of the Kuwaiti context was presented. It started with a brief description of Kuwait's history, geography and topography, and climate; then some demographical characteristics of the population were presented. Other sectors which are thought to related to this research, such as the education sector, the

labour force distribution and composition, the country's economy, with special emphasis on the government, joint and private sectors, were examined in some detail.

Finally, the researcher further gave a brief idea about the administrative process and development in Kuwait. The direct relation to this study of the contents of this chapter are the country's development in relation to some aspects of the economic, labour-force and administrative system that prevails in the State of Kuwait.

Chapter Five

Methodology, research design and description of fieldwork and sample

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a comprehensive analysis of some methodological considerations. These considerations are related to the research design and methods that social science researchers can employ with special emphasis on those which are deemed to be more appropriate in the field of management research.

Thus our aim is to give a detailed account of the procedures, methods and techniques used in this study.

First, the objectives of the research will be outlined.

Second, the nature, the basic foundations and the main types of research process and design will be presented.

Third, an outline of the advantages and disadvantages of the research methods that are available to the social scientists will be given.

Fourth, the sample concept and the process of determining the sample for this study will be discussed.

Fifth, cultural issues in Kuwait which may affect research design are identified.

Sixth, the selected strategy for this investigation is explained in detail, and the selection is also justified.

Seventh, the fieldwork related to this study and the steps undergone are clarified.

Finally, the limitation of this research will be discussed.

5.2 Research Process

The research process usually starts with a problem and ends with a tentative empirical generalisation. The characteristic feature of the research process is its cyclic nature, the generalisation ending one cycle being the beginning of the next cycle. This cyclic process continues indefinitely, reflecting the progress of a scientific discipline.

Social science involves a special kind of problem solving. Social 'problems' are classified into three groups. Policy problems are problems in everyday life which are of social concern. They are of importance to policy makers, whether politicians or officials, and to the general public. Some policy problems are so pressing that their solution can not wait for research to be carried out, evaluated and action taken at a later stage. In such cases, the intervention and its monitoring through research occurs simultaneously. Such problems are called action problems. Theoretical problems, on the other hand, may or may not have policy relevance but are primarily concerned about understanding and explaining social behaviour and social action. Therefore, this research is based on descriptive and exploratory basis.

In order to investigate a research problem, and answer the questions it raises, some formulation of the ways in which the phenomena are related to each other is required (Ackoff, 1967). All research begins with some hypothesis in this sense. A hypothesis is a tentative answer to a research problem, expressed in the form of a relation between independent and dependent variables (Nachmias and Nachmias

1996). Hypotheses are tentative answers because they can be verified only after they have been tested empirically.

5.3 Research objectives

Relevant literature review in the previous chapters shows there has been very little research held and little attention extended to T&D research in Arab world and Kuwait is no exception. Hence, the main objectives of this study are:

1. To shed light on the demographic profile of government and private/joint venture organisations as well as personnel who are in charge of conducting T&D activities in Kuwait. This profile will include kind of business and employment size, and education, experience, age, sex, and nationality, of those in charge of T&D.
2. To investigate the character traits information on the status of training personnel in charge of carrying out the T&D activities within their organisations, with regard to their management level, level of authority, the management level to whom they report, and decision-makers related to T&D activities.
3. To also seek information regarding other departmental features such as the existence of training department/division, and the availability of trained and professional staff.
4. To test applicability of the Training for Impact model by Robinson and Robinson (1989) within the Kuwaiti organisations. This model mainly concentrate on two

important elements necessary to any training approach which are; training needs assessment (TNA) practices and evaluation process for T&D function, specifically:

- 4.1 Whether (TNA) practices are applied in Kuwait according to the proposed steps in the model, which based on in-depth analysis for systematic long-term application, and how the actual situation of T&D is administered by training personnel.
 - 4.2 To also discover what type of methods that adopted by organisations related to training needs assessments.
 - 4.3 To shed light of the evaluation process conducted by the investigated organisations, and what obstacles that might be responsible of implementing such process.
5. To explore the training personnel perceptions of the dimensions, which constitutes the basis of the author's framework. This consist of clarifying the organisational factors that could affect training and development activities and process in Kuwaiti organisations, which are:
- 5.1. Strategic factors, such as integration of HRD strategy, the corporate setting of the training and development plans and policies, and the characteristics of these plans and policies.
 - 5.2. Organisational factors, in regard to top management support, co-ordination and mutual understanding between line managers and training personnel, organisational culture, and a supportive formal system.

5.3 Implementation factors in term of training budget, training providers/trainer' competencies and training techniques.

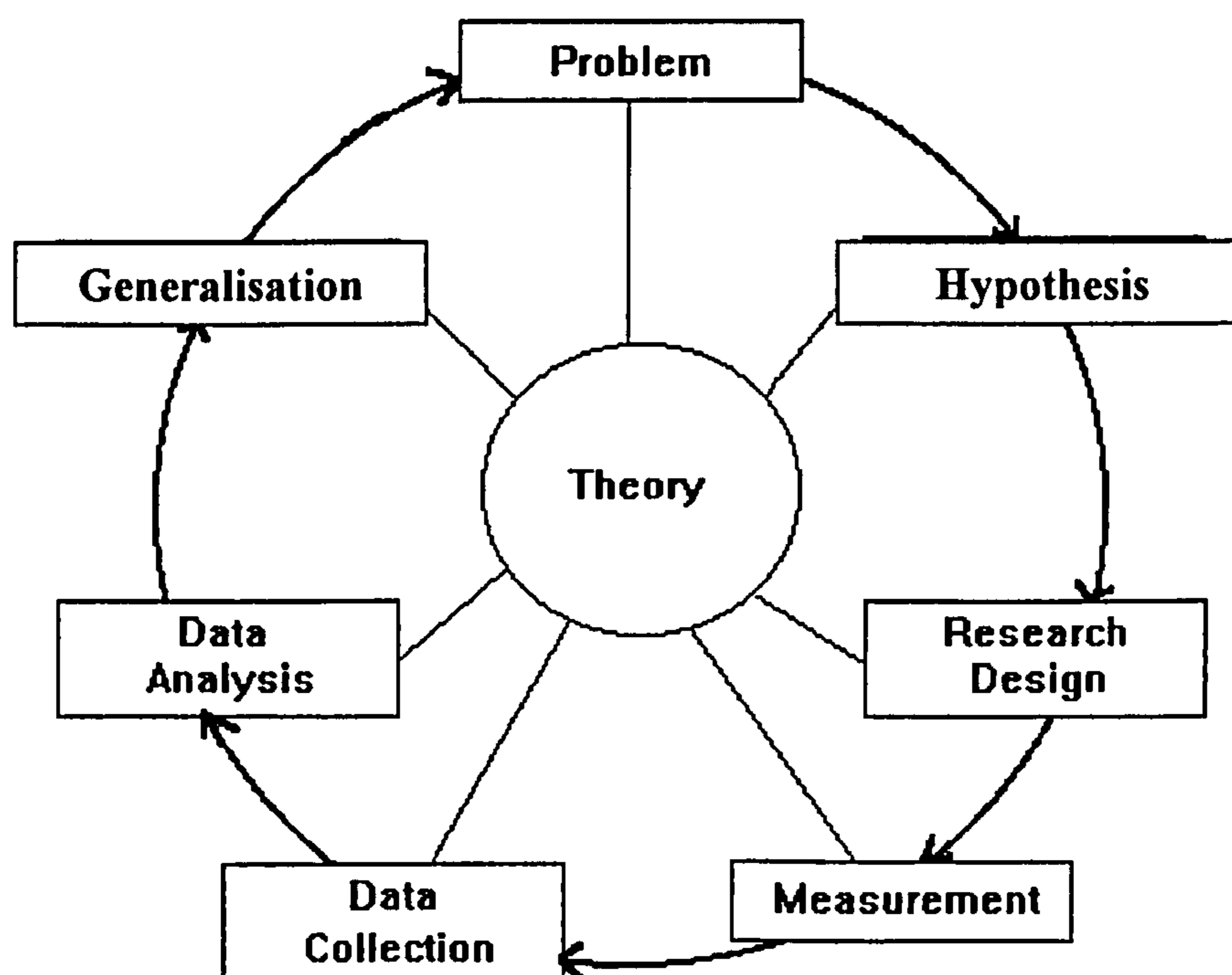
6. To compare between government organisations and private and joint venture organisations in Kuwait in order to find out if there is a difference between private and public sectors in Kuwait in regard to training and development practices, and factors affecting those activities.
7. To test the impact of organisational factors on the level of satisfaction of evaluation process, effectiveness of T&D activities and organisational rating regarding T&D practices, in comparison with other organisations working in the same field in Kuwait. In order to find out to what extent the author's T&D framework is applicable within the context of Kuwaiti organisations.
8. To compare the findings of this study with other similar studies around the world. Such comparison will provide arguments or support to training and development practices in Kuwait, is it similar or differs to that in the proposed model with some developed and other Arab countries. Also to validate the author's framework.
9. To draw conclusions and practical suggestions for reform and redesign T&D practices as recommended by the proposed model, with more emphasis on organisational factors for improving and formulating T&D within corporate strategy and culture.

5.4 What is a research?

Research is a disciplined and logical investigation to find answers to a given problem. The research process is the overall scheme of scientific activities carried out to find a solution to a given problem.

A research process therefore basically consists of seven main stages: *problem, hypothesis, research design, measurement, data collection, data analysis* and *generalisation* (Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). Each stage affects theory and is affected by it as well. The interaction between the various stages is illustrated in Figure 1.5. Research design and data availability are very important for a successful research study.

Figure 1.5 Main Stages of Research Process (Nachmias and Nachmias 1996)



5.5 Research Design

A research design can be defined as a framework or structure for data collection and analysis. As illustrated in Figure 1.5, after the research problem (objectives) has been determined and the hypotheses formulated, the next step is to construct a research design that will make it possible to test the hypotheses.

Research design is a fundamental step in investigating a research problem that precedes the actual start of collecting the required data. It is the overall strategy that includes total planning for the investigation (Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). It must address the question or questions being researched and meet the objectives of the study concerned (Sanders and Pinhey, 1983; Oppenheim, 1992).

Various definitions are provided for the term 'research design' in the related literature; some are broad, others are narrow. Nevertheless, almost all these notions centre around the fact that research design is a guideline for researchers and a framework for researching. To facilitate this, a few examples are quoted for the sake of clarification. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) believe that " a research design is the program that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting observation" (p.97). Bryman (1989) defines it as " the overall structure and orientation of an investigation. The structure provides a framework within which data are collected and analysed" (p.28). Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1991) argue that a research process is simply a process of collecting and analysing data, "it is the overall configuration of a piece of research: what kind of evidence is gathered,

from where, and how such evidence is interpreted in order to provide good answers to the basic research question” (p.21).

A more general definition is offered by Oppenheim (1992 p.6), which emphasises that “the term research design refers to the basic plan or strategy of research, and the logic behind it, which will make it possible and valid to draw more general conclusions from it”.

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) there are four distinct types of research design; these are: experiments, quasi-experiments, pre-experiments and correlation design. Each of these research designs has its own particular advantages and disadvantages. The choice of a particular research design will depend on the nature of the subject being researched and the questions being addressed.

The correlation design, also known as survey design, is the predominant design employed in social sciences. This design is identified with survey research. It involves data-collection from a respondent who represents a certain population. Usually it intends to gather information at a single point in time using a standardised method, i.e. questionnaires and interviews (Sanders and Pinhey, 1983).

According to Robson (1993), the main advantages of correlation design are that provides a simple and straightforward approach to study attitudes, values and beliefs; it may be adapted to collect generalisable information from almost all human populations, and highly structured surveys have a high amount of data standardisation. On the other hand, the major problem of this design type is accuracy

of data, since the data collected are affected by the characteristics of the respondents, which cannot be judged or controlled accurately.

5.6 Methodology in Research Design

Methodologies are neither appropriate nor inappropriate until they are applied to a specific problem (Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). Whereas design exposes research decisions to evaluation before they are carried out, methodology actually makes the evaluation and exposes the method used at arriving at these design decisions so that it can be evaluated before-hand. The better the methods, the better the resulting decisions are likely to be (Ackoff, 1967). The scientific methodology is a system of explicit rules and procedures on which research is based and against which claims for knowledge are evaluated (Nachmias and Nachmias 1996).

Methodology is the system of rules and procedures that defines the 'rules of the game,' and this in turn enable communication, constructive criticism and scientific progress. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), argue that the important functions, which methodology serves in scientific investigation, and the rules and procedures forms the basis for communication.

The key to good research may be to design a research strategy that may fit in a particular context. Bouchard (1976, p.402) argues that ".....methods are means to ends, no more, no less. The key to good research lies not in choosing the right method, but rather in asking the right question and picking the most powerful method

for answering that particular questions. Methods are neither good nor bad, but rather more or less useful for answering particular questions at a particular time and place”.

Consequently some factors must be considered while selecting the appropriateness of a research methodology, such as:

- Objective of the questions it intends to answer must be borne in mind (Robson, 1993).
- Subject under investigation may restrict its suitability and also the methodological option (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991).
- Political orientation and conflicting interest at the organisational level may constrain the accessibility to some information, and thus affect the choice available to researchers.

5.7 Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches

To obtain data, frequently the choice is whether to use a qualitative, or quantitative. Adler et al. (1989) point out: “ choosing a methodology determines what we can study as well as the range of possible results and conclusions”.

Qualitative research is concerned with describing rather than explaining relationships between variables, so it is called descriptive research. Van Maanen (1983 p.9) has explained qualitative methods as “an array of interpretative techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning not the frequency of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in social science”.

A qualitative research is in need whenever there is a concern for understanding how variables are related rather than only measuring the relationship between variables. As described by Wright (1995), qualitative research is taken to mean any research where number counting and statistical techniques are not dominant issues, rather it is to get closer to the collection of data in their natural settings. Any array of methods were included, such as participant observation and case study, content analysis, formal and informal interviewing, videotaping, unobtrusive measures, archival data surveys.

The differences between case study and sample survey approaches reflect a broad distinction in the social sciences between qualitative and quantitative methods. Quantitative is described as “*thick*” (Greetz, 1973), “*deep*” (Sieber, 1973). In contrast quantitative is described as “*thin*” (Greetz, 1973), but “*generalizable*” (Sieber, 1973). However, the use of qualitative research techniques has its advantages and disadvantageous. Identifying and clarifying specific responses, especially those related to the attitudes and behaviour of the respondents, and understanding deeply their organisational climate are the main advantageous. However, there are certain drawbacks associated with these methodologies as described by Yin (1981), reported by Demirbag (1994). His criticism of the case study, which is a typical example of qualitative methodologies, are: (a) Qualitative methodologies within case analysis are essentially primitive and unmanageable. (b) Cross-case analysis tends to be even less well formulated than within-case analysis. (c) Without additional forms of methodological inquiry, qualitative research on organisations has difficulty in transcend story-telling.

Finally, there are different types of qualitative methods, such as interviews, group discussion, participant observation, and documents and record analysis.

There is a long-lasting debate of what determines the most appropriate methodology (research design). This debate is concerned with the relationship between theory and research. The two main philosophical streams, positivism and phenomenology, have contributed to the development of research design in social sciences (Esterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991).

Quantitative research is concerned with explaining the relationship between variables and/or testing certain hypotheses. Oppenheim (1992) defines quantitative research as “A form of planned collection of data for the purpose of description or prediction as a guide to action or for the purpose of analysing the relationship between certain variables”.

Quantitative methods are described as thin, hard, but generalisable. Survey is the most widely used technique of data collection among quantitative approaches. Others are personal interviews, telephone interviews, mail questionnaire survey, etc. A quantitative approach relies on the use of predetermined response categories by means of standardised data collection instruments such as mail survey, structured, or semi-structured interviews.

There has been a growing interest in combining these methods into a real life investigation. In the field of management, many researchers have adopted a pragmatic view by deliberately integrating the two methods to capitalise on their

advantages and avoid their limitations (Bryman, 1992). Hammersley (1992) argues that the distinction between the qualitative and the quantitative models are of limited use and could be dangerous and misleading because it obscures the breadth of the issues and the arguments involved in the methodology of social research. In 1959, Cambell and Fisk sought to use more than one method to measure a psychological trait. This was to ensure that the variance was reflected in the trait and not in the method (Creswell, 1994).

5.8 Research Methods

The previous section has concerned with research design, process and strategy which set guidelines to help the researchers to draw up their plans in order to carry out scientific research. Now, in this section we will focus on research methods. Oppenheim (1992) defines research methods as methods used for data generation and collection. Social science data are obtained when investigators or others record observations about the phenomena being studied (Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). Data can be gathered by interviews, questionnaires, observations, and from archival records. Researchers are restricted by what can actually be observed. So they have to choose between questionnaire, the interview method, or choose both, depending on the nature of the study. Interviews and questionnaires, as the most commonly used data collection methods in social science research, have been adapted in this study.

5.8.1. Survey Types

There are several dimensions in ways of classifying surveys. For example the type of data often sought in addition to the type of subjects included. The main two categories are personal surveys and impersonal surveys. Face-to-face structured or semi-structured interviews are personal surveys, while impersonal surveys include mail questionnaire and telephone survey.

5.8.1.1. Interview

An interview is a conversation that is initiated and directed by a researcher with an intention to obtain research-relevant data, on specific issues that are related to the objectives of the study (Cohen and Manion, 1989). Maccoby and Maccoby (1954) defined an interview as “a face-to-face verbal interchange, in which one person, the interviewer, attempts to elicit information or expression of opinion or belief from another person”. Festinger and Katz (1966) stated that “the interviewer is a technician who manipulates the instruments (which in this case is the questionnaire), takes the appropriate readings, and records the results. In this sense, the interviewer’s function parallels that of scientific technicians in other fields”.

A face-to-face interview is common, widely-used technique of data collection in social science. It can be divided into three groups: highly structured; semi-structured; and informal/conversational. In a standardised or highly structured interview, a set of pre-determined questions are asked and the responses are recorded on a standardised schedule. On the other hand, in a semi-structured or in-depth

interview, the interviewer prepares a set of questions which are, however, freely modified, depending on the outcome or response of the interviewee.

The main advantages of the interview are:

1. It is a flexible method that allows the interviewer to adjust and modify the questions to suit the situation, and thus helps the researcher to collect supplementary data, as well as clarifying the objectives of the study, and questions can be changed if it seems to be necessary (Dijkstra et al., 1982), while it is difficult to remedy this situation in the case of a mailed questionnaire. Flexibility of the interview is increased in this case, especially in the use of unstructured interviews.
2. Increase in certainty, due to direct contact between the researcher and the respondents. It allows the interviewer to explain the purpose of the study more convincingly, to clarify any doubts that may arise to avoid misunderstanding of the questions or the concepts used therein (Oppenheim, 1992; Robson, 1993).
3. The interviewer can explain or elaborate on questions which the interviewee may not completely understand, which will lead to knowing about aspects which need to be highlighted and clarified.
4. The response rate is high as in this case most of the interviewees can not refuse, and so more respondents are co-operative in giving actual and accurate answers and also more questions can be posed. Shaikh (1988, p.138) reported in support

of this that the typical response rate for a personal interviews is about 95%, whereas that for a mail survey is between 20% and 40%.

Despite the above advantages, the interview has some disadvantages, which are highlighted by Stone (1978) as follows:

1. Time-consuming, if a large number of respondents is to be interviewed.
2. Mood of the interviewer very much affects the responses of the respondents.
3. In the case of travelling a long distance, it costs more for the researcher.

Thus we can conclude that the main problems associated with the interview method is the high cost of conducting interviews, time and resource consuming exercise starting at the preparation stage all the way to the conclusion of the process.

5.8.1.2. Questionnaire

This method is similar to the interview method in the sense that both take the form of asking questions. In comparison with impersonal surveys, questionnaires are easier to analyse across all respondents since the researcher can obtain the same data for all, whereas in an interview he may have additional items of data that cropped up in the interview. Thus the researcher is familiar with the kind of data the study is likely to produce. In spite of this, in a questionnaire one could complete it at his own convenient time and not waste his precious time waiting for the interview and travelling.

However, the main difference is that the questionnaire method does not involve a direct contact between the researcher and his or her subject. This method of data collection is widely used in social science research, especially in situations where it is practically impossible for a researcher to reach the members of the sample and where the sample is relatively large (Judd, Smith and Kidder, 1991).

The main advantages seen are:

1. It is relatively inexpensive for the researcher as well as the respondents.
2. No need for a highly skilled researcher.
3. A large sample can be collected or available to a large population.
4. It permits advanced statistical analysis of the data by generalisation of large population (McClintock et al., 1983).

Oppenheim (1966) explains in support of the mail questionnaire: "The chief advantage of the mail questionnaire is cheapness. Since it does not require a trained staff of field workers..., virtually all that it requires is the cost of planning and pilot work, printing or duplicating expenses, sampling, addressing, mailing and providing stamped self-addressed envelopes for the returns".

There are some disadvantages also noted, as in every method, such as:

1. Inaccuracy caused by non-response bias or data missing.
2. Low response rate.
3. Inapplicable in case of illiterate people.
4. Some respondents will give "socially accepted" responses in some cases (Selltiz et al., 1981).

5. No ideas about who is the actual respondent as the questionnaire can be filled by any one.
6. Inability to correct misunderstandings or to offer explanation (Oppenheim 1992).

We can hereby conclude that the questionnaire method, like the other methods of data collection has its own advantages and disadvantages. The main advantage of the questionnaire method is the ability to reach a relatively large respondent population quickly and economically. On the other hand it suffers from low response rate.

Questionnaires usually have two response categories: a free-response (open-ended) and a fixed-alternative (close-ended). Each has its advantages and disadvantages. Open-ended questions allow the respondents to express his/her feelings or ideas more freely and clearly, however it is expensive and difficult in coding and analysing. On the other hand, close-ended questions are easily coded to give meaningful results in the analysis process, thus the alternatives answers given could facilitate the respondents' understanding of the questions and refresh their memories.

Factors affecting the method of measurement by questionnaire include:

1. Length of the questionnaire, time needed for completion.
2. Questionnaire content, sensitivity and difficulty of items.
3. Fixed-response and open-ended questions.
4. Mechanical factors, like layout, ease of completion, type of printing, misspelled words, missing pages and ambiguous items.

5. Interpretation of responses.
6. Questionnaire administration.

In this study, as validation of the questionnaires, the interview technique is used. The interviews aim to verify the questionnaire findings, and gather additional data and develop a better understanding of the situation. The other means of gathering information about individuals is the questionnaire. As indicated earlier, it seems that the survey research based on questionnaires is the most popular form of research in the social sciences.

5.9 Conducting Research in Kuwait

In this section we will consider the most important aspects that should be taken into account in doing research in Kuwait.

Islam influences all aspects of Arab societies, especially with regard to Kuwaitis. Sensitivity to and consideration for others' feelings is a most important characteristic of Kuwaitis, which is a direct influence from Islam as well as their traditions. We observe that the "right questions" and the "best methods" applied to Kuwait are likely to be those which take into account the Islamic codes of conduct. Thus Islam, family relation and tradition generally shape many aspects of Kuwaiti lives and behaviour. These characteristics should be considered in selection, design and implementation of research methodology.

The following will examine the Kuwaiti situation and identify some of the most important cultural issues which may affect research design in this area.

The behaviour of Arabs is generally shaped by social pressures of a given society. Here the term "social pressure" refers to the expectations, demands or constraints which society places on its members. Thus it is advisable to examine these socio-cultural factors in order to establish a general profile of Kuwaitis.

In one regard, Kuwaitis place a limited value on time. It is observed that Kuwaitis lack punctuality in time schedules and appointments, which may be a result of their fatalistic attitudes, and social pressure in terms of expectations, demands and constraints placed on them by Kuwaiti society. Of course, there are others who are very particular about their appointments. Patience is to be one of the most important characteristics of the researcher conducting research in Kuwait. The traditional way of receiving visitors by Kuwaitis has a long procedural system, which often results in the cancellation or delay of a pre-arranged meeting.

Customs in conducting interviews is another point that should be considered. Kuwaitis in general regard it as impolite or even "shocking" to start business talks abruptly. They like to begin with social talk and hospitality with their guest. A good starting point would be with health enquiries, followed by conversation regarding the well-being of the host's family, his work, and some of his main interests or admirable deeds, and so on.

The other main point in conducting research in Kuwait is the significance of personal ties and connections. In Kuwait, the initial step to be taken is to establish trust, which will probably take a long time. So in order to speed up the data collection and procedures, one must make use of personal ties and friendly influence.

In fact, it should be indicated that individual differences do exist, which make Kuwaiti managers different, in perception at least, from managers in western industrial societies. It is known that the culture in which one has spent one's life is likely to have a strong influence on one's attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, what is considered right and approved by western societies, may not be accepted by the religious customs or the Kuwaiti traditional laws.

The next step is to examine the techniques which are likely to be the most appropriate for Kuwait, and also the specific techniques which should be adopted in the development of the methodology and procedure of this research.

5.9.1 Applicability of Research Techniques to Kuwaiti Context

Research techniques, if designed properly, can be applied to both developed and underdeveloped countries. Bulmer and Warwick (1993, p.3) noted that “..it would be a mistake to draw too sharp a distinction between methods of research used in the developed and in the developing worldThey differ in degree, perhaps, but not in kind.” However, Devereux and Hoddinot (1992) believe that fieldwork in the developing world should be conducted with extra care due to the fact that many contextual elements may be involved and restrain the access to data.

In any research, especially if it is designed to be applied to different societies, there is always the problem of cultural differences. Our main aim purpose through out this particular research is to achieve the best fit between research design and the Kuwaiti culture. The following will present a detailed study of the research techniques and their applicability to the Kuwaiti culture. As for as research administration is concerned is that the collection of data in developing countries always an expensive operation, hence an individual has to be particular in choosing the research technique that best suits his/her area of investigation within the context of his/her own culture.

As already seen (Section 5.8), among the range of research techniques that can be used to gather information, are interviews and questionnaires. These are particularly appropriate for this research. The interview method communicates directly with the respondents. Interviews, as already noted (Section 5.8.1.1), can take several forms, ranging from very informal exchanges to very structured. Since, mentioned in Section 5.9, Kuwaitis in general are very sensitive and lack punctuality in time and schedules, for this research the informal, semi-structured type of interview is likely to be an effective means of eliciting information. It could also be used to build up trust and confidence between the researcher and the respondents. So, two methods are used to collect the data in this study (i.e. interview and questionnaire).

Both the interview and the questionnaire focus on the areas which are related to T&D practices within the context of Kuwait, with consideration of the influence of prevailing factors.

5.10 Methodology and Procedure of this Research

After reviewing the research design and its methods, along with their merits and de-merits as stated above, the purpose of this section is mainly to explain and defend the strategy selected, as well as the tools employed in collecting data.

In collecting relevant data, therefore, the quality of the research will depend on the quality and quantity of information to enable the researcher to draw/illustrate realistic conclusions. As mentioned earlier the most popular methods of collecting data, based on the opinions of personnel involved, are questionnaires and interviews. These techniques are mentioned by Sekaran (1984) and Nachmais and Nachmais (1996) as the main methods of data collection in survey research.

5.10.1 Sources of data used in this study

This section examines possible types of data available which could be applicable for this study. Essentially, there are two main sources of data from which researchers can obtain information for their studies. Namely primary and secondary; within these sources many categories may be identified depending on the nature of the research being conducted. Which data source or combination of sources to use can be determined by identifying the advantages and disadvantages of each, according to the given situation and overall objectives of a particular study. Primary data sources can be classified as: observation, postal questionnaire, and interview. The secondary data can come from government bodies, other studies, published statistics, directories and so on.

The nature of this study requires the collection of primary data at the organisation level. The researcher is studying T&D activities and therefore needs to cover aspects such as current practices and factors affecting T&D activities within Kuwaiti organisations. After determining what kind of information is needed and from where, the next the step in the research process is to consider the most appropriate method or mix of methods for data collection.

The sources of data for this study can be classified into as follows:

1. Questionnaire and interview as sources primary of data. In using questionnaire approach, a researcher has two aims, namely to develop questions which will yield the necessary information, and to persuade people to answer them. Both can be more difficult to be practical in developing countries, and especially questionnaires, which are self-administered, because there is no intermediary to assist and encourage the respondent. The most commonly used self-administered questionnaire is the postal questionnaire. Although a postal, self-administered questionnaire can be used in developed countries with relative ease. It is much more difficult to use this method in a country like Kuwait, for two main reasons:

(A) The replies may be distorted due to possible misunderstanding of the questionnaire items.

(B) The rate of response will be very low. According to Kuwaiti context, without having personally convinced the respondents of the importance of the survey and its aims, and establishing personal relations, response rate will be low.

2. Other secondary sources of data. Firstly, literature on western T&D collected in the UK in order to develop a T&D framework. In this regard, the researcher found the Training for Impact model of Robinson and Robinson (1989) (see Chapter 1), the applicability of which approach he intended to test within the Kuwaiti context. Therefore the researcher studied the model carefully and extracted questions from this model for each step and fitted them to the questionnaire. The reason for choosing this approach is because of the sequence, the logic, and in depth analysis of the training practices adopted in this model. These practices concentrate on training needs assessment and evaluation, which considered as the main steps of any training approach. On the other hand, the success of other training steps relay on, which believe if it implemented it will get a positive impact on individuals' performance as well as the organisation in terms of training investment and growth. Secondly, data of relevant documentation revealed in Kuwait especially related to T&D were obtained.

5.10.2 Sampling

Explanations and predictions must be general to be of scientific value. Generalisation is an important part of any research process, it shows the extent to which the results are representative of the population. Typically, generalisations are not based on data collected from all the observations, all the respondents, or all the events that are defined by the research problem (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). Instead, a relatively small number of cases is used as the basis for inferences to all the cases.

When data are partial and used to make generalisation on the whole, the subset is called a sample, and the whole is called a population. A sample comprises some members selected from the population, studying which, the researcher would be able to draw conclusions that would be generalisable to the population of interest (Sekaran, 1984). According to Selltiz et al. (1981), a population is the aggregate of all cases that conform to some designated set of specifications. The specifications are determined by the purpose of the research. Thus, the term population refers to the entire group of people, events or things that the researcher wishes to investigate related to a particular study.

The reasons for using a sample rather than collecting data from the entire population are fairly obvious. Research investigations usually involve several hundreds or thousands of elements, it could therefore be practically impossible to collect data from, or to test, or to examine every element, in terms of time, costs, and other human resources (Sekaran, 1984). Thus, it makes sense for a variety of reasons, to restrict the study of the population to the task of merely sampling some of its members and using the information gained in this way to infer the characteristics of the population as a whole (Barnett and Arnold, 1991).

Empirically-supported generalisations are usually based on partial information. This is the case because often it is impossible, impractical or extremely expensive to collect data from all the potential units of analysis encompassed in the research problem. Yet precise inferences on the population based on a relatively small sample can be drawn when the sample accurately represents the relevant attributes of the population (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996).

5.10.2.1 Sample selection

5.10.2.1.1 Definition and construction of sample population

The present study investigated thoroughly all government and private/joint organisations listed by the Kuwait Civil Service Commission and Kuwait Stock Exchange Market that engaged in T&D activities and programmes. Therefore, the organisations chosen reflect the whole sample population rather than any type of sampling frame.

The research unit has been defined as any Kuwaiti firm, economically active. The sample was determined by using as an indicator the size of the firm, hence the sample excluded small-size organisations, based on the assumption in the literature that smaller organisations were not likely to engage in formal T&D activities. As indicated by Schaaf (1998), the larger the company, the more likely its workers were to have been trained. But smaller companies are not lagging by much, 82 percentage of respondents in firms with more than 1000 employees received formal training.

The criteria used for defining the population from which the sample would be drawn were as follows: organisations listed on the Kuwait Stock Exchange Market for the private/joint venture sector, whereas the government organisations are those which are under the Civil Service Commission umbrella and regulations, and conducting formal T&D activities. The researcher combined private and joint venture sectors due to the small size of Kuwait's private sector.

A list of organisations in Kuwait, was made available by the Ministry of Planning, the Civil Service Commission, the Kuwait Industrial Guide and the Kuwait Stock Exchange Market Directory were the basis for constructing the sample population. Although the initial sample population of the private/joint venture organisations was identified as 69 organisations, the initial contact with all the sample population revealed that some of these organisations were either no longer carrying out any sort of T&D activities or had not yet started. Therefore, the number of private/joint venture organisations that could be sampled was reduced to 62. After excluding organisations that did not meet the criteria set, the population sample comprised 120 organisations (62 private/joint venture- 58 government) (see Table (5.1).

Table 5.1 Construction of sample population

Sector	Total Sample Population	Excluded from Sample	Targeted Sample Population
Public	58	-	58
Private/Joint venture	69	7	62
Total	127	7	120

5.10.2.1.2 Sample population procedures

The data for this research were derived from one sample. The study attempted to collect from it information on two major aspects of the labour market (i.e. which seem to influence labour recruitment and mobility within and among different types of organisations). The sample population was drawn from training managers or personnel in charge of conducting T&D activities in Kuwaiti public and private/joint venture organisations, and the research aimed at comparing these two types of organisations, in terms of T&D practices and factors affecting them.

In selecting the interview sample, for choosing the organisations in the government sector, the researcher selected different organisations with different services/activities, such as corporations, authorities, ministries and academic organisations. The researcher chose the government sector deliberately to cover the whole organisation with different activities and services. On the other hand, these organisations are well known and have a good reputation in running their T&D activities.

For the private and joint venture sample, the researcher chose various different sectors: investment, academic and training, banking, and insurance services. The private/joint venture sector organisations were chosen randomly by dividing the whole sample of organisations into different sectors where each belongs, and then started choosing one by one upon receipt of their response and willingness to participate in the research interview.

In the process to determine the questionnaire sample, the Civil Service Commission (CSC) is the only steering body controlling employment activities in the Kuwait government sector, and from which the researcher collected the information and data on this sector (contact addresses, telephone/fax numbers). In order to cover the whole sector with different activities and services, especially those having T&D Departments/Divisions, the researcher collected further information related to the research area from other government organisations such as the Ministry of Planning. The total number of these organisations was 58.

The study was conducted with the help of the Kuwait Stock Exchange, whose most valuable and updated Directory (1997) has been used as a frame for the research population, as well as the Kuwait Industrial Guide (1997). The directory contains the names, PO Box numbers, addresses and telephone numbers of 69 targeted organisations. These firms are categorised according to their activities, which are banking, investment, food, industry, services, real estate, and insurance. According to the Kuwait Central Bank quarterly publication issued in 1997, eight new companies were listed on the market during the second quarter of 1997, thus bringing the number of listed companies at the end of that quarter to 69.

This sample is not a representative sample of Kuwait private sector firms since it is highly dominated by small firms. The Western literature indicates that small firms tend to be less involved in T&D activities, and also not able to endure the expenses associated with T&D activities in terms of both financial and human resources. This was supported by the pilot study, which found that the issues under investigation were not relevant to small firms. It seems likely that the most significant consequence will be that Stock Exchange Companies appear to be somewhat more fully engaged in T&D than is really the case.

5.10.3 Designing and formulating questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed and developed to be administered to the training managers or HRM professionals regarding their personnel department functions and programmes in terms of T&D activities. The questionnaire was aimed to shed light on T&D practices and factors that affect these functions within Kuwaiti organisations.

The questions used in this instrument are of the close-ended type, with five alternative answers. A 5- point agree/disagree and never/always Likert scale was used for all the questionnaires in this study. A Likert scale is a series of statements regarding an attitudinal object for which a respondent is requested to agree or disagree. The Likert scale is one of the most popular forms used to create interval or approximately interval scales. This type of question is used because it seems to be efficient and specific in measuring attitudes, and simple and direct in compilation. However, a blank space is provided at different sections for any further comments.

Before the questionnaires were administered, they were translated into Arabic. The first translation was carried out by the researcher himself and later back-translated by others who were fluent in both languages. As agreement was reached by both translators and the researcher that there were no significant differences between the back-translated and the original text, the questionnaire was then printed. The questionnaires were typed in Arabic as well as in English. This was done for the convenience of the Arabic and English-speaking participants. Also, in order to sort out any language difficulties of the participants.

The questionnaire had four main purposes:

- (1) To obtain the demographic profile of respondents and background information of age, sex, education, nationality, and experience, and factual elements such as status within their organisations, such as management level, level of authority, decision making related to T&D activities, the existence of training department/division, the availability of trained and professional staff, and the management level to whom they report.
- (2) To test the current T & D practices in Kuwaiti organisations according to the by Robinson and Robinson (1989) Training for Impact model, which mainly concentrates on two important elements of any training approach, which are:
 - A. Training needs assessment.
 - B. Training evaluation and follow-up.
- (3) To investigate the factors that could affect management T&D activities and process in Kuwaiti organisations, which are:
 - A. Strategic factors, such as integral strategy and T&D planning and policies.
 - B. Organisational factors, in regard to co-ordination and mutual understanding between line managers and T&D managers, organisational culture, and training budget.
 - C. Implementation factors, in terms of training providers/trainer competencies and training techniques.
- (4) To obtain the individual managers' perception regarding the practices of T&D in their organisations and how much they believe that the above-mentioned factors influence these practices (see Appendix B).

5.10.3.1 Piloting the questionnaire

Pilot studies are trial investigations of specific research problems, and help to discover mechanical problems connected with interviews, questionnaires, and the like. The pilot study was important to discover any possible problems related to the design of the questionnaire in terms of the adequacy and clarity of the questions, precision of translation, length of the questionnaire, and relevance of questions to the study investigation.

The following will explain the pilot process. For the purpose of testing the validity, objectivity and clarity of the questionnaire, two pilot studies were conducted. The following stages were carried out:

1. First, drafts of the questionnaire were handed to faculty members and Ph.D. students at the Management Centre, University of Bradford, UK, and comments were invited. Some suggestions and recommendations were made, which were taken into consideration for the next piloting phase.
2. The second part of pilot study was conducted in Kuwait, where the researcher had meetings and interviews with some academic staff at Kuwait University and the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training (PAAET), as well as some professionals in T&D in the marketing field, in order to determine what adjustments needed to be made in terms of the validity of the questionnaire regarding the nature of the questions, and scale measurement. As

a result, certain modifications were made according to these practitioners' and academic staff views to make the questionnaire more understandable and evaluable.

3. Modified questionnaires were then distributed to ten training managers, personnel professionals, and other involved officials, and comments were invited. As a result no further modifications were made.
4. Finally, a draft of the questionnaire was prepared and printed with an appropriate covering letter by the scholarships director of PAAET, requesting the recipient to facilitate the researcher's mission and to provide him with necessary information for the intended study, as well as another covering letter explaining the aim and the importance of the study, encouraging participants to co-operate by providing accurate data, urging the return of the completed questionnaire, and assuring them of the confidentiality of the information.

5.10.4 Initial contacts

The method used was either directly, where the researcher took the initiative of speaking to managers, or by pre-arranged appointment in every organisation studied. This was in order to build trust between the researcher and the respondents, and to ensure their response and commitment to accurate answers before arranging the interview and distributing the questionnaire.

The researcher first visited the Civil Service Commission and obtained a list of all government organisations that have T&D Departments/Divisions and their contact addresses (telephone/fax numbers).

Secondly, the researcher visited the Kuwait Stock Exchange to get a list of names of the biggest companies/establishments in Kuwait registered with the Kuwait Stock Exchange Market. The reason for choosing this approach was because the researcher believes that these big companies should have T&D activities according to their size, number of employees and financial situation (capital).

Furthermore, to facilitate his mission and to get direct contact with the persons in charge of T&D activities, the researcher visited one of the biggest consultancy and training organisations to collect details of targeted persons in private and joint venture companies in Kuwait, and obtained very useful information.

After identifying the targeted population, an initial inquiry was made by means of letter and telephone follow-up to the organisations in order to identify key persons of the subject for interview and completion of the questionnaire. Correspondence was a copy of the original letter of the scholarship director of PAAET requesting to facilitate the researcher's mission and to provide him with necessary information for the intended study. In addition, a covering letter stressed that the information provided by the respondent would be treated with utmost confidentiality and no individual or organisation names would be mentioned in the final report. As the last step, the follow-up telephone calls were made to the

respective personnel in order to encourage organisations to participate and to secure appointments with those who agreed to co-operate with the researcher.

5.10.5 In the field

The first step was to establish personal contact and acquaintance with the influential personalities and officials within the two sectors to assess the progress of the research. In the Arab culture, personal and social contacts seem to be more effective in gaining access and getting things done (Al-Faleh, 1987).

The researcher started collecting data from both government and private/joint venture sectors. As explained before, the whole sample population was approached for the data collection process.

A semi-structured interview was used to elicit official views on the practices of HRD overall, and thus T&D within the surveyed organisations. The questions were aimed to elicit discussion and to stimulate interviewees to give as much information as possible rather being restricted to a specific answer. The interview guide consist of three main parts: (a) demographic profile, (b) training and development activities, (c) managers' perceptions regarding to the factors affecting their T&D, (d) managers' perceptions regarding the overall T&D within their organisation's context (see Appendix A). The questions contained in the interview were developed by the researcher with the assistance of previous studies and writings in the T&D literature.

For first arrangements for the interview, the researcher started calling Kuwait organisations in both of the sectors, to organise and arrange the interview with the persons-in-charge of the T&D activities and to gain the respondent's commitment for being interviewed by the researcher. This procedure resulted in 18 interviews, which took about 30 hours (28 hours recorded and 2 hours written interviews). Thus the estimated time of the interviews range between one and two hours.

There were interviewees who were very co-operative in preparing a good environment for the interview and providing the information. Some however lacked punctuality, interruptions in interviewing occurred while others were in the same place, and some interviewees were reluctant to speak openly and frankly. Therefore the potential interviewees were asked to determine the most convenient time for conducting the interview of the time and duration.

On the other hand, they showed willingness to fill out the questionnaire but hesitated to arrange interviews. Some showed unwillingness to be interviewed due to their work load, pre-arranged meetings, and other commitments. The researcher tried many times to arrange appointments with some officials but failed, and left his contact telephone number; unfortunately, none of them responded.

Some hesitated to be interviewed due to the unavailability of T&D department/division or any training activities with them. Such companies are sending one or two of their employees to training programmes outside their establishments. Therefore, they were unable to produce or give any information in this regard.

In general, the interviewees gave the researcher enough time and co-operation, and provided necessary available information about their T&D activities, as well as talking/discussing frankly and openly. The researcher was to use this information in constructing and modifying the questionnaire.

The researcher started distributing the questionnaire to both sectors (government and private/joint venture) in October 1997. Distribution was conducted by the researcher himself as he started to meet the persons in charge of T&D activities (which took 15 to 30 minutes) to introduce himself, the objective of the research, and the questionnaire to clarify any points which might be unclear, if any. The rare time taken place in the collection of data to take a quick look and to complete any missing information and to discuss the issue deeply in the allowed time. This work was accomplished over a period of four months, i.e. October 1997-January 1998.

The informal, semi-structured interviews and conversations preceded the administration of the questionnaires. Some organisations have no T&D managers and this responsibility is held by either a Line Manager or the General Manager himself. The return of completed questionnaires presented some problems. Many researchers complain of the low co-operation of their respondents. In this case, replies took a long time due to shortage of time, heavy responsibilities, sick leave, business trips and pre-arrangements of local officials. Therefore, follow-up personal phone calls were conducted with one of the key staff of each of the selected firms to urge response and filling the questionnaire with accurate answers.

A few people claimed that their firm had no T&D activities and they were not authorised to fill in the questionnaire. Other participants showed much interest and were very co-operative; they asked for more details about the study and whether it was possible to provide them with final conclusions. Thus, many of the survey participants took the time to respond to the open-ended questions, expressing their feelings and making suggestions about the general HRM and T&D activities in Kuwait. Their comments have been helpful and beneficial to this research. Both negative and positive comments were received, indicating that some respondents were not afraid to express their feelings and attitudes, even though their responses revealed problems in their organisations.

The total number of completed questionnaires were received represents a high response rate of 83% of the total Kuwaiti organisations, the reason was the data collection process that the researcher adopted, as explained earlier in this section. Thus, the response rate of the government organisations is 86%, which represents 50 out of 58 questionnaires that were completed and collected. In the private/joint venture sector, the response rate is 81%, where 50 out of 62 questionnaires were completed and collected (see Table 5.2 below). The total 100 of these questionnaires were usable. These questionnaires were collected by the researcher and installed in the computer using data manipulation through the SPSS statistical package programme.

Table 5.2 Distributed Questionnaires and Response Rates for both Sectors

Sector	Distributed	Completed	Incomplete	Response Rate
Public	58	50	8	86%
Private/Joint	62	50	12	81%
Total	120	100	20	83%

5.11 Data Analysis Techniques

5.11.1 Qualitative data analysis techniques

Qualitative techniques attempt to understand behaviour and institutions by getting to know the persons involved and their values, symbols, beliefs, and emotions. These techniques were applied only to open-ended questions. The data from which a verbal portrait is drawn tend to be structured and to result from questionnaire survey, where the case study generally results from the open-ended interview and the number of cases were comparatively smaller (Demirbag, 1994). Since the questionnaires used in the fieldwork contained interval scale questions and open-ended ones, a verbal portrait would be the most appropriate approach to triangulate qualitative analysis with quantitative analysis.

5.11.2 Quantitative data analysis techniques

In order to achieve the objective of the research, the data collected were analysed by using several techniques that are available in the SPSS/PC package. The approach taken in quantitative data analysis in this study is to consider statistical techniques more as a tool to support or disconfirm the underlying theory, and to assist interpretation, rather than as the sole support for the interpretation arrived at.

The following sections give a general overview of the programmes that were used, the criteria used in selecting methods and techniques, and the significance of criteria in the context of this research will also be summarised.

5.11.2.1 Cross-tabulation

Cross-tabulation is one of the simplest and most frequently used ways of demonstrating the presence or absence of a relationship. In data analysis, the cross-tabulation procedure was employed to indicate whether certain variables are associated with each other.

The Chi-square test is the statistic most widely used in conjunction with the cross-tabulation procedure. Chi-square is a general test designed to evaluate whether the difference between observed frequencies and expected frequencies under a set of theoretical assumptions is statistically significant. Isaac and Michael (1977) indicated that chi-square is measure of squared deviation between observed and theoretical numbers in terms of frequencies in categories or cells of a table, determining whether such deviations are due to sampling error or some interdependence or correlation among the frequencies.

Thus, with the chi-square test, as with tests of statistical significant in general, the null hypothesis of no relationship between the two variables is examined. If the null hypothesis is confirmed, the proposition that there is a relationship must be rejected. Existence of a significant association between cross-tabulated variables can be identified when the chi-square statistic is large and the observed significance level is small (i.e. less than the 0.05 level). By both criteria, the cross-tabulated variables can be said to have some kind of association which is statically significant, and thus the null hypothesis can not be accepted.

5.11.2.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a statistical technique for classifying a large number of inter-related variables into a limited number of dimensions or factors. According to Nunnally (1978, p.326) “it is not one, simple, statistical method that can quickly be described as a whole and exemplified with one or several equations, with the matter then settled, rather, the term factor analysis stands for a broad category of approaches to conceptualising grouping of variables and an even broader collection of mathematical procedures for determining which variables belong to which groups”.

In order to perform factor analysis, variables need to be measured on a structured scale (Likert-type scale). Factor analysis requires that the variables be measured at least at interval level; this requirement is implied by the use of correlation or co-variance matrices as the basic input to factor analysis. Throughout this research the use of factor analysis is of an exploratory nature, in which we seek to reduce and simplify the large number of variables into some smaller number of common factors. This approach to factor analysis may be more useful to explain the underlying dimensions of factors affecting T&D within Kuwaiti organisations. Further details of factor analysis will be highlighted in Chapter 9.

5.12 Limitation of the study

Obtaining data and information in any sort of social research depends to a great extent on the co-operation of the organisation or the individuals in providing accurate, adequate and reliable information. As a matter of fact, there is insufficient

research in the field of T&D in the Arab world as a whole, and Kuwait in particular. Thus more scientific investigations are required in this field to pave the way for further research.

The main limitations in this study are associated with the sample and population characteristics. Explanations and predictions must be general to be of scientific value. Generalisation refers to the extent to which the results are representative of the population. Since the specific types of organisations, which will be able to provide the desired information, that conform to some criteria set by the researcher. Our sample excluded smaller-sized organisations, as it was known that they are less likely to engage in formal training and development practices. Therefore, it should be remembered that the findings of this study are generalisable to the Kuwaiti government and larger-scale private/joint sectors. On the other hand, the sample is not wholly representative of the population in the private sector, since this is dominated by small firms.

The findings of this research have targeted the Kuwaiti context as the core focus of the study design. The implications of the findings are therefore closely related to the context in question and would be applicable in the Kuwaiti culture. The social structure, norms, values in every context shape individual behaviour, opinions and attitudes towards specific issues. Whilst good care was taken in minimising biases in the findings provided, it is still likely that some respondents involved in this study may have been influenced by social desirability bias in their responses. This may have affected some aspects of validity and therefore the findings and conclusions. However, the confidential nature of the questionnaire may have helped

to minimise such bias. Selltiz et al. (1981) stated that some respondents will give “socially accepted” responses in some cases To counter these likely limitations and minimise the influence of “social bias” which thereby affect the findings, it is strongly recommended that this study be replicated in a different cultural context.

Research of a nature is treated with scepticism, due to the conservative attitude of both organisations as well as individuals in Kuwait who are reluctant to disclose their behaviour, especially to an outsider. This could be attributed to the methods of scientific research, which is a new concept and experience for the country and its people. Thus, some of the managers were reluctant to answer the questionnaires in front of the researcher. Shortage of time, heavy responsibilities and lack of interest may have prompted some managers to pass on the questionnaire to their lower staff members. Any one of those staff members may be reluctant to criticise their organisation or other co-workers. These are especially sensitive issues if an organisation’s employees are foreign workers who are unwilling to jeopardise their positions.

It was possible to overcome the reluctant behaviour of the Kuwaiti organisations in both sectors by the support of influential figures (social and professional). And again the researcher’s knowledge of the force of personal relationship made things easy. Thus the top managers and the other specialists made things easy and interesting and thus the research successful to an extent. Finally, keeping in mind that the study is an effort of the researcher himself, it is therefore constrained by the limited resources available to him in term of time and expense.

5.13 Summary

This chapter described the methodology applied in this study and was it designed to give a detailed account of the procedures, methods and techniques applied to this investigation.

The chapter began by introducing the objectives of the research, the nature of the research methodology, then presented the basic foundations and what the main types of research process and design will be, an outline of the advantages and disadvantages of the research methods, the main features of the sample and the process of determining the sample for study, cultural issues in the Kuwaiti situation which may affect research design, the strategy selected for this investigation, and justification of the selection, the fieldwork related to the study and the steps which have been applied, and finally the limitations of this research.

However, it is emphasised in this chapter that there is no single design or method that is better than others. Each type has its particular advantages and disadvantages and the combination that meets the nature of the issue or question under examination should be selected accordingly.

Chapter Six

Background and Profile of Kuwaiti Organisations and training personnel

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the reader to the characteristics of the organisations of the two economic sectors (government and private/joint venture) in Kuwait. The organisations' status, the kind of business conducted, number of employees, number of managers, T&D status within the organisations, and to which sector they belong will be discussed. It will also introduce the training managers or the personnel in charge of running T&D activities. Regarding the individuals' status, the nationality, gender, age, level of education, period of services, job status, are discussed. This meant to clarify their career and organisational status. The background of the personnel in charge of T&D activities will provide the basis for later discussions and analysis. The variables related to these individuals and their organisations will be presented.

6.2 Sample Characteristics

The research design adopted in this study is the interview and questionnaire approach. There are 100 organisations in the present research taken from the government and private/joint venture sectors. The individual managers/personnel surveyed are 100 in number, drawn from the 100 organisations. They represent managers and personnel in-charge of T&D activities from various managerial levels and various job-oriented backgrounds.

6.2.1 Characteristics of investigated organisations

6.2.1.1 Kind of business and employment size

The sampled organisations represented the largest organisations in the government and private/joint venture sectors in Kuwait. These organisations stand first in terms of institutional organisations in Kuwait. The 50 sampled government organisations represent 86.2% of the government sector, while the 50 private/joint venture organisations represent 72.5% of the total organisations listed on the Kuwaiti Stock Exchange Market. They provide jobs for about half the population working in Kuwait. Hence the two sectors play a major role in the Kuwaiti economy. The surveyed organisations in Kuwait drawn from the government and private/joint venture sectors were conducting various activities. These included services, banking, insurance, investment, food industry and real estate.

The distribution of the surveyed organisations according to the type of business activity, size of employment and number of managers in the selected organisations is summarised in Table 6.1. It can be seen from the table that the majority of government organisations (72%) are working in services. This is because of the nature and responsibilities of government organisations in Kuwait. Several types of services that may be run by private organisations in many countries, such as power generation and distribution, health services and education are operated by the government in Kuwait. This is added to the types of services that governments generally provide to the people in other countries. Industry accounted for 14% of the government organisations. These represent the oil and petrochemical companies. As mentioned before, the government controls the oil industry.

Table 6.1 Type of business conducted and size of employment in investigated organisations.

		Public		Private/Joint		X ²
		No	%	No	%	
Type of business	Services	36	72	6	12	
	Banking	1	2	9	18	
	Insurance	-	-	4	8	
	Investment	1	2	12	24	
	Food	-	-	4	8	
	Industry	7	14	10	20	
	Real estate	-	-	4	8	
	Others	5	10	1	2	
Employment size	less than 100	1	2	13	26	35.344**
	100 less than 300	4	8	17	34	
	300 less than 500	8	16	8	16	
	500 less than 700	4	8	5	10	
	More than 700	33	66	7	14	
Number of managers	Less than 10	7	14.6	30	60	23.780 **
	10 less than 20	19	39.6	11	22	
	More than 20	22	45.8	9	18	

** Significant at P<0.01 level.

On the other hand, the majority of private/joint venture organisations (24%) conducted their business in investment, industry (20%), and banking (18%). Industry is lightly directed to provide the local market. Construction materials, consumer goods, and metallurgy are major activities. The food industry is also fairly developed. This is because of the availability of capital, the small size of the economy, and short and long-term investments.

The distribution of employment size shows that the majority of the government organisations had more than 700 employees. This amounted to 66% of the sample, 16% had 300-500 workers, and another 8% had either 500-700 or 100-300. Over-employment in the government is a matter of concern that is being discussed. The majority of the Kuwaiti population prefers to have a government job

with fewer working hours and higher salary. It is also prestigious to have a government job. In the private/joint venture organisations, only 14% were quite large, with 700 or more workers. In 26%, the organisations had less than 100 employees, and in another 34%, the number was between 100 to 300 employees. The difference in the distribution between the two sectors was quite significant ($\chi^2 = 35.344$). This may reflect the fact that the private/joint venture sector is comparatively smaller with respect to job requirements and range of activities.

The number of managers in the Kuwaiti organisations in both sectors was consistent with the distribution of employees. A major proportion of the government sector (45.8%) had 20 or more managers; of these, 45.3% had more than 20 managers. In 39.6% the number of managers was between 10 and 20, and in 14.6% it was less than 10. In the private/joint venture sector, 18% had 20 or more managers (of these 10% had more than 25 managers), 22% had 10-20, and the balance (60%) had less than 10 managers. There was a highly significant difference between the two sectors regarding the number of managers ($\chi^2 = 23.780$).

It is apparent that large number of managers working in the government organisations is partly due to the much larger size of these organisations and the diversity of responsibilities. However, it should be noted that with the affluence of the society, getting a prestigious post is looked on more favourably than a rise in salary, and this is thought to improve stability.

6.2.1.2 T&D status in corporate setting

It was interesting to find out on how T&D activities and functions were constructed within the selected Kuwaiti organisations, whether these organisations have separate divisions or departments for T&D activities, when was that department established, the number of T&D staff, and to whom they reported. Both government and private/joint venture organisations were evaluated. The results are shown in Table 6-2. It is seen that the vast majority (98%) of the government organisations had established T&D divisions or departments with the private/joint venture organisations, 34% had a department. The differences in distribution were highly significant ($\chi^2=45.633$).

The main reasons for the difference between the two sectors in Kuwait are likely to be the availability of financial resources and larger employment size in the government sector. The Kuwaiti government perceptions of the importance of T&D to their activities and performance may be also a factor. This has come to effect since the Iraqi invasion, in order to fill the gap of non-Kuwaitis who had left Kuwait, along with the Kuwaiti government measures to have 100% Kuwaitisation. Various responsible posts should now be filled by Kuwaiti nationals who were trained to be specialised in particular jobs.

The variation between the two sectors may be due to the fact that all the government organisations should comply with government policy and five-year plan (1995-2000). This is scheduled to develop Kuwaiti nationals with the required skills and knowledge to cope with modern technology and management approaches. This

was in general a new concept for Kuwaiti organisations. With the private/joint venture organisations, the perception of short and long-term investment in human resources, in terms of the investment rate of return, may have not been favourable.

Table 6.2 Status of T&D division/department in investigated organisations.

		Public		Private		X^2
		No	%	No	%	
T&D department	Yes	49	98	17	34	45.633 **
	No	1	2	33	66	
Length of establishment	Less than 4 yrs.	12	25	4	22.2	8.081
	4 less than 6	6	12.5	2	11.1	
	more than 6	30	62.5	12	66.7	
Staffing in T&D dept.	less than 10	22	46.8	17	87.5	14.904 **
	10 less than 20	8	17	2	8.6	
	More than 20	17	36.2	0	0	

** Significant at $P < 0.01$ level.

Secondly, the length of T&D division/department establishment showed that the majority of the Kuwaiti organisations had a T&D division/department established for more than 6 years. This was common to both sectors, with 62.5% of the government, and 66.7% of the private/joint venture sector organisations. It was also noted that 25% of the government organisations had had their T&D division/department for less than 4 years, and 12.5% for between 4 to 6 years. With the private/joint venture sector organisations, the corresponding figures were 22.2% and 11.1%, respectively. The difference in the distribution in the 2 sectors was not significant ($X^2 = 8.081$). However, the rate of increase is only mild. In any case, this gives a good sign that the majority of Kuwaiti organisations have recently recognised the need for T&D activities.

Thirdly, the number of employees engaged directly in T&D activities or the staffing of the department in the two sectors is also summarised in the table. The

majority of government organisations had either more than 20 T&D staff (36.2%) or between 10 and 20 (17.0%). However, in 46.8 % of government organisations the number of T&D staff was less than 10. With the private organisations, the vast majority (87.5%) had a small department with 10 workers or fewer. Two organisations had departments with 10-20 people and none had a staff of 20 or more. The difference between the two sectors was highly significant ($\chi^2 = 14.904$ and $P > 0.01$).

The number of T&D staff probably reflects the size of the Kuwaiti organisations. It has been noted that where there is an increase in the employment size (Kuwaitis employed), there is simultaneously an increase in the T&D staff. As explained earlier, the majority of government organisations (66%) had more than 700 employees, among which 36.2% had more than 20 T&D staff. While private/joint venture organisations, with 26% and 34%, had only less than 100 and 100-300 employees, respectively, 87.5% had on average fewer than 10 T&D staff. On the other hand, it is expected that the span of control is usually reduced while moving up the management hierarchy. However, the span of control depends on other variables, such as the nature of the complex activities, competence among subordinates, kind of technology adopted, and the availability of financial resources.

The respondents were asked whether their organisations suffered from a shortage of qualified and well-trained staff in the T&D field. The majority of respondents in the government sector (56%) agreed that the T&D staff members were not sufficiently trained to achieve their job requirements. This is mainly due to the employment policy adopted, giving the priority to personal relationship, and unfit

candidates may be selected for responsible positions. One who is not qualified can not be made efficient in 2-3 months or more by attending training programmes. Only eligible candidates can be made more efficient through well organised and effective training. In the private/joint venture organisations, a large proportion of respondents (46%) agreed that the T&D staff were professionally trained to fulfill the job requirements of their organisations.

Finally, after identifying the T&D status within the Kuwaiti organisations in both sectors, it is interesting to see who is responsible for running T&D activities in the organisations in case there was no T&D division/department. In both sectors, especially in the absence of an independent T&D department, the personnel/human resource department was responsible for conducting T&D activities. It should be noted that in only 4 government and 19 private/joint venture sector organisations the personnel in charge of T&D activities reported this position. Coming next, was top management/board of directors, represented in 2 organisations, and general manager only for 5 organisations in the private / joint venture sector.

6.2.2 Characteristics of investigated training personnel

The individuals were representing the organisations in the two sectors, namely the government and private/joint were selected to represent the training managers or heads of the training sections and personnel of running T&D activities. The most relevant demographic variables, namely nationality, sex, education and age were elicited. The length of employment, time on the job, rank, and to whom they report are also summarised in Table 6.3. The chief aim is to highlight some of the main

characteristics of the managers involved in this study, through a set of standard questions.

6.2.2.1 Nationality

As mentioned before, 100 individual managers from 120 organisations completed the questionnaire. The nationality distribution of T&D showed that most of the personnel in charge of T&D activities were Kuwaitis. It was 100% in the public sector. The underlying cause may be the Kuwaitisation policy to fill such positions with Kuwaiti nationals. In private/joint venture organisations, 72% were Kuwaitis and 28% non-Kuwaitis. Some of these organisations are joint-ventures so they would also be affected by Kuwaitisation policy.

In reality, private organisations which are not influenced by the nationalisation policy have T&D positions where selection depends on qualifications and experience. In total, 86% of the sample were Kuwaitis, while 14% were non-Kuwaitis. The difference between the two sectors was highly significant ($X^2 = 16.279$).

6.2.2.2 Sex

The majority of the managers surveyed were males. In the government organisations, 73.5% were males. In the private/joint venture organisations, 88% were males and 12% were females. In general, males accounted for about 80.8% of the total sample and females for 19.2%. The higher proportion of males in higher

posts is not specific to Kuwait. This phenomenon can be seen in the third world in general, and in the Arab countries in particular, due to cultural differences.

On the other hand, private/joint venture organisations are not attractive to many females due to long working hours, slightly lower wages, social constraints, and responsibility, in comparison with the government sector. This may have contributed to the differences in the percentage of females between the two sectors. However, in such a conservative traditional society these findings indicate some progress in relation to the participation of women, not only in the work-force but also in managerial positions.

Table 6.3 Demographic data and employment characteristics of training personnel in the investigated organisations.

		Public		Private/Joint		X ²
		No	%	No	%	
Nationality	Kuwaiti	50	100	36	72	16.279 **
	Non Kuwaiti	-	-	14	28	
Sex	Male	36	73.5	44	88	3.369
	Female	13	26.5	6	12	
Education	Less than University	5	10	3	6	.717
	University first degree	31	62	32	64	
	Higher degree	14	28	15	30	
Age	Less than 30	5	10.2	1	2	4.420
	30-less than 40	23	46.9	28	56	
	More than 40	21	42.8	21	42	
Length of experience	Less than 10	15	30.6	40	80	30.291 **
	10-less than 15	15	30.6	6	12	
	More than 15	19	38.8	4	8	
Time in job	Less than 5	30	60	30	60	5.407
	5-less than 10	8	16	11	22	
	More than 10	12	24	9	18	
Level	Top manager	12	24	16	32	4.630
	Middle manager	35	70	33	66	
	Lower manager	3	6	1	2	
Report to	Top management	18	37.5	7	14.3	11.913 **
	General manager	10	20.8	18	36.7	
	Executive manager	4	8.3	8	16.3	
	Personnel manager	8	16.7	13	26.5	
	Others	8	16.7	3	6.1	

** Significant at P<0.01 level.

6.2.2.3 Education level

The education level and qualifications of respondents indicated that the majority of managers/training personnel in Kuwait were well educated. Most had a university first degree; this amounted to 62% in government and 64% in the private/joint organisations. Moreover, 28% of those in the government organisations had a postgraduate degree. In the private/joint venture organisations 30% had similar qualifications (Master/Ph.D. degree). The difference in the distribution between the 2 groups was not significant. The pattern of distribution shows that the qualifications of the majority of training personnel can be considered to be the same as or even higher than in some Arab or developed western countries, 91% of the surveyed sample having a university first or postgraduate degree.

This is probably due to the fact that there have been more educational opportunities in Kuwait for the population during the last 30 years. The educational policy adopted by the government is to make all education opportunities available locally free of charge. A grant and scholarship system is organised through which it is possible to send eligible candidates for training abroad in order to cope with developmental plans. Therefore, some of the respondents in this study have received their education outside Kuwait, especially in the USA and UK., which is reflected in their attitudes and behaviours. This has shaped their personalities and their working style. Consequently, the number of educationally qualified human resources have increased and more are entering the labour force.

It is worth mentioning that 24% of the respondents in the government organisations have a degree in business administration and accounting. In private/joint venture organisations, 27% hold a degree in the same area of speciality. This shows that both sectors have preferred a degree in business administration for managers' positions in Kuwait. Another common degree among training personnel in the two sectors was arts or engineering. This was found for 15% and 11% in government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively. No significant differences between the respondents in terms of speciality and education level were found in comparing the two sectors.

6.2.2.4 Age

The age of the managers/training personnel in Kuwait in the two sectors showed that a large proportion of the sample were in the age group of 30 to 40 years. This amounted to 46.9% in the government, and 56% in the private/joint venture organisations. Those who were aged more than 40 years amounted to 42.8% and 42% in government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively. The age distribution indicates two main points. First, the Kuwaiti population has been reckoned to be young. Second, life expectancy of this society is not lower than that of more developed countries. Again, the retirement age is 60 years in Kuwait. Sheik (1988), in his study, found that 89% of Kuwaiti managers were under 40 years of age. It was also found that Kuwaiti managers are younger than their counterparts in Jordan.

6.2.2.5 Experience

The length of time the managers/training personnel in Kuwait had served with their current employers showed that there was a significant difference between the two sectors ($\chi^2 = 30.291$). With the government organisations, 30.6% of the training personnel had been with their current organisations from 10 to 15 years, 38.8% had 15 or more years, and 30.6% had less than 10 years. A noticeable percentage of respondents in the private/joint venture organisations (80%) had been in their job for less than 10 years, in 12% of cases it was between 10 and 15 years, only 8% had worked in the organisations for 15 years or more. In the light of these findings, one can argue that the majority of managers in the government organisations are quite loyal to their organisations, i.e. they do not want to change organisations.

The length of time the training personnel in Kuwait had been in their current job in charge of running T&D activities is also shown in the table. The results show that in 60% of both government and private/joint venture organisations, training personnel had been less than 5 years in their current positions. This parallel shows that high interest in HRD has started growing and has been given more attention, especially since the Iraqi invasion, to comply with the government policy towards Kuwaitisation. In addition, 16% and 22% of training personnel in government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, had 5 to less than 10 years in their positions. Those in the job for 10 years or more amounted to 24% in the government and 18% in the private/joint venture organisations.

The difference between the two sectors in terms of length of service in the training personnel current position was insignificant ($\chi^2 = 5.407$). This indicates that the managers in government organisations spent almost the same period of time as their counterparts in the private/joint venture organisations.

6.2.2.6 Managerial level

The distribution of managerial level of the managers in both sectors in Kuwait is also shown in the Table 6.3. The management levels were divided into three categories. The middle managers represented the biggest part of the sample, about 70% of the managers in government and 66% of those in private/joint venture organisations. Next come upper management levels, with 24% of respondents in the government and 32% in the private/joint venture organisations.

The distribution of the sample can be explained by the fact that most of the government and private/joint venture organisations prefers top management to handle T&D activities, due to the absence of a T&D division/department. This may also be attributable to the fact that most of the participants reported that the information about T&D activities is communicated only to the developmental heads (senior and middle managers). The distribution between the two sectors in terms of managerial level was not significantly different ($\chi^2 = 4.630$).

The final part was designed to show the position to which the head of the T&D division/department reports. This reflects how the organisations are taking into

consideration T&D activities and how much attention they devote to this area. It is expected that when T&D division/departments report to upper management level they are likely to get more support and have a better chance to link their activities to corporate strategy. It appears from the table that divisions/departments in about 37.5% of government and in 14.3% of the private/joint venture organisations report to top management or board of directors. Next comes reporting to general managers, where about 20.8% of divisions/departments in government organisations, and 36.7% in private/joint venture organisations, report to that level.

In addition, about 16.7% and 26.5% of divisions/departments in government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, reported to the Personnel/Human Resources Department. It should be noted that some respondents were occupying the post of section head, or the T&D activities were integrated with the HR department, or their organisations do not have a separate T&D department.

6.3 Summary

In this chapter we have investigated the characteristics of the sample of organisations as well as the training personnel included in this study. The organisations characteristics were classified into kind of business conducted, employment size, and number of managers. It was found that the majority of the government sector organisations were working in services, whereas the private/joint venture sector organisations were conducting their business in investment. The Chi-square test results reveal that there are statistically significant differences between the two sectors in regard to employment size and number of managers they employed.

The majority of government sector organisations had more than 700 employees, and more than 20 managers, whereas private/joint venture organisations employed fewer than 300 employees and fewer less than 10 managers.

The training personnel shared the same characteristics in both sectors, as it was revealed that the majority were Kuwaitis, male, and holding a university degree, and had average age, length of time in their current position, and managerial level. The Chi-square test results show that there are statistically significant differences between the two sectors in terms of length of time served with current employers and the person to whom they report. The majority of those in the government sector had served for more than 15 years and report to top management, whereas the private/joint venture sector the majority had served for less than 10 years and report to the general manager.

In the last part of this chapter, the status of T&D in the corporate setting was investigated. The following issues were examined: the existence of T&D, when it was established, the number of T&D staff, and to whom they report. The Chi-square test results show that there are statistically significant differences between the two sectors in respect to the existence of a T&D department and number of staffing. In the government organisations the majority had a T&D department with fewer than 10 employees, whereas the private/joint venture organisations, only a third had a T&D department and fewer than 10 employees. The results also show that the two sectors had a T&D department established for more than 6 years.

Chapter Seven

Analysis of the Applicability of Training for Impact Model in Kuwait

7.1 Introduction

Fundamentally, a system approach to training provides a basis for identifying and analysing areas which need skills for development. It is necessary to improve human performance and productivity in order to achieve organisational goals. The systematic approach to determining training needs, followed by evaluation and feedback, is a comprehensive and technically reliable means for continuously assessing an organisation's skills and knowledge base. This will provide a catalyst for meaningful training programmes designed to address and overcome obstacles of improving productivity.

This section deals with a particular system approach to training. The Robinson and Robinson (1989) Training for Impact model was used. This model consists of 12 steps emphasising training needs assessment and evaluation. The approach can be used by any HRD professional or training personnel. Training for impact is applicable to any situation where the training's purpose is to help the organisation accomplish its goals (Robinson and Robinson, 1989). One of the objectives of the study is to test the applicability of this model in the Kuwaiti context.

7.2 Training and Development Needs Assessment

The initial step is to conduct a training needs assessment (TNA). At the heart of this assessment is an analysis of the tasks in the job and a determination of the

relative importance of the knowledge, skills, and abilities required to perform these tasks. Moreover, a needs analysis should provide clues on how to ensure what is being learned will be used on the job, and to choose the criteria that will be used in evaluating the training programme's effectiveness (Dipboye, 1996). This part will focus on how TNA is conducted by the Kuwaiti organisations, using the Robinson and Robinson model.

Before testing the applicability of this model, a prerequisite is needed in the interdependence between the training personnel function and management. Together, they can accomplish a great deal; when mutual support and partnership are absent, there is low probability that efforts to develop people will be successfully transferred to the job. In other words, training personnel's role is to improve skills, whereas the client (the manager) must ensure that the work environment will support the new skills. Training requires a partnership with a client in order to identify a business need for the training. Assessment of the situation is also needed to identify specifically required skills and knowledge. This is to be followed by preparation of the work environment to ensure that it will support the new skills and measurements of results.

In this context, the respondents were asked how often their organisations conducted TNA and the approaches used. Second, we investigated the applicability of the steps related to needs assessment in the adopted model. Third, the sort of data collection methods used in this regard. More than half of the government organisations (52%) reported that they always assessed their T&D needs on a regular basis. Of the private/joint venture organisations, 32% reported that they sometimes conducted TNA.

As regards the approach used in conducting T&D needs assessment, Table 7.1 shows that slightly less than half the respondents of the two sectors in Kuwait, 45.8% of the respondents in the government and 47.8% of those in the private/joint venture organisations used all TNA approaches (comprehensive analysis of the organisation, person analysis, job analysis). It seems clear that much emphasis was placed on combining all the approaches for determining training needs. Some of the approaches to T&D needs assessment were cited by the investigated organisations individually.

Job analysis was the most frequently used by the government (16.7%) and the private/joint venture organisations (19.6%). Comprehensive and personal analysis were less common. Other methods were reported by some respondents, such as combining two approaches to their TNA; 27.1% of the government and 15.2% of the private/joint venture organisations adopted this method in determining training needs. However, no significant difference was found between the two sectors.

Table 7.1 Type of training needs assessment approaches in the investigated organisations

	Public		Private/Joint		χ^2
	No	%	No	%	
Comprehensive Analysis	2	4.2	3	6.5	2.517
Person Analysis	3	6.3	5	10.9	
Job Analysis	8	16.7	9	19.6	
Others	13	27.1	7	15.2	
All	22	45.8	22	47.8	

In conclusion, for most T&D needs assessment the organisations applied all the approaches. Thus, the character of organisational analysis forces a consideration of the multilevel analysis inherent in each of the three approaches of needs assessment. Ostroff and Ford (1989) argued that organisational analysis can not be considered in isolation from the other levels comprising the organisational system.

7.2.1 Applicability of Training for Impact model

7.2.1.1 Training Needs Assessment

This section aims to test the applicability of the Robinson and Robinson (1989) model in terms of TNA within the investigated organisations. A TNA approach entails using a combination of interrelated and interacting techniques in order to collect, validate, and then analyse feedback data in regard to training needs. The results are summarised in Table 7.2. This includes: conducting and identifying actual training needs, forming a collaborate relationship with the client, conducting initial project meeting, conducting a performance effectiveness assessment (PEA), conducting a causal analysis, tabulating and interpreting data collected, and reporting results to the client.

7.2.1.1.1 Conducting and identifying actual training needs

Current and especially future needs can be vague and somewhat difficult to identify. McClelland, (1993) stated that a starting point is first to begin by evaluating the strategic as well as short-term plans and goals of the organisation in order to

Applicability of Training for Impact model Training Needs Assessment

Table 7.2 Training needs assessments conducted by investigated organisations

Sector	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Identify Actual Training Needs	2	4	1	2	7	14	10	20	30	60	11.763 *
Private/Joint	5	10	3	6	19	38	10	20	13	26	
Public	-	-	1	2	6	12	18	36	25	50	6.764
Form Collaborative Relationship	4	8.2	1	2	10	20.4	11	22.4	23	46.9	
Private/Joint	6	12	7	14	19	38	11	22	7	14	1.474
Public	6	12	8	16	15	30	10	20	11	22	
Private/Joint	10	20	5	10	18	36	9	18	8	16	2.202
Public	9	18	9	18	13	26	11	22	8	16	
Private/Joint	12	24	14	28	9	18	8	16	7	14	6.936
Public	13	26	5	10	15	30	12	24	5	10	
Private/Joint	10	20.4	9	18.4	15	30.6	9	18.4	6	12.2	2.269
Public	15	30	5	10	15	30	8	16	7	14	
Private/Joint	5	10	4	8	12	24	15	30	14	28	6.961
Public	13	26	7	14	12	24	9	18	9	18	
Private/Joint	11	22	5	10	12	24	8	16	14	28	8.027
Public	20	40.8	8	16.3	10	20.4	6	12.2	5	10.2	
Private/Joint											

* Significance at P<0.05 level.

determine where it is currently positioned in terms of accomplishment of those goals, and to proceed to identify possible ways and means of meeting those objectives. For the first step, the training personnel revealed that of the government organisations 60% always, 20% mostly, and 14% sometimes, conducted and identified actual training needs. With the private/joint venture organisations, 26% of the respondents always, 38% sometimes, and 20% mostly, assessed the actual needs. This means that training is strategically linked to business needs and will be more project-driven and less curriculum-based. The distribution in the two sectors was statistically significant at $P < 0.05$ ($X^2 = 11.763$). In UK it was found by Harbridge Consulting Group, (1991) that about 10% of 57 large organisations in the financial and public sector has developed or were to develop a competence approach training needs and 60% of the respondents used formal training needs analysis.

7.2.1.1.2 Forming a collaborate relationship with the client

The second step is to form a collaborate relationship with the client (individual(s)/ group(s)/department(s)) within the investigated organisations). The client is usually the individual who has the power to make decisions about the work environment. He or she is the one who gains or loses something from the success or failure of a training effort directed towards a business problem or opportunity, and needs to be actively involved in the project (Robinson and Robinson, 1989). Again, consulting the people who have the most to benefit from training efforts can lead to a strategically implemented programme which will result in organisation impact.

This step is considered the most important in establishing and marketing any projects, especially in Arab society, where gaining trust by a constructive relationship leads to successful projects and establishing business. It is seen from the table that 50% of the government and 46.9% of the private/joint venture organisations reported that they always formed a collaborative relationship with their clients. Coming next, 36% and 22.4% of the respondents in government and private/joint organisations, respectively, reported that they mostly formed this relationship, and 12% and 20.4% did this sometimes. No significant difference was found between the two sectors ($X^2=6.796$). In conclusion, both sectors in Kuwait gave great attention in building up a collaborative style with their clients in order to link training efforts to business needs, and ensure that the work environment supports the acquired skills and knowledge.

7.2.1.1.3 Conducting initial project meeting with client

The third step was related to conducting an initial meeting with the client; 38% of the respondents in the government and 30% of those in private/joint venture organisations reported that they sometimes held initial project meetings with their clients. A smaller proportion of the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, 22% and 20% mostly and 14% and 22% always followed this procedure. No significant difference was seen between the two sectors ($X^2=1.474$). Training personnel must influence a client manager to see the benefits of conducting training programmes, and to raise their awareness that training by itself will not meet the organisation's needs. Only a partnership between training personnel and management will provide the desired results.

The respondents were asked what issues were discussed during this meeting regarding determining training needs of their clients. Collecting such information would be vital, to make certain that any action taken would be addressing the cause of the problem and not just the symptoms. It would be beneficial to determine whether there were other problems and the lack of skills was not the only reason.

Three options were given to be indicated by the respondents:

1. Real cause (s) of current/future performance.
2. Other secondary causes of current/future performance.
3. Other individuals, groups or departments who need to be involved in the training programmes.

It was noted that a large proportion of the respondents, 45.5% of the government and 46.7% of the private/joint venture organisations, included all three issues during their meetings with clients.

7.2.1.1.4 Conduct performance effectiveness assessment (Desired performance)

Performance analysis starts with a clear definition of a performance problem through accurate identification of actual and desired performance requirements at the organisation, process, and individual levels (Swanson, 1994). With regard to the fourth step, once the training personnel have had initial client meetings, and the client has agreed to some front-end assessment, two scenarios for training personnel will be provided: (a) to have an opportunity to assess the current situation accurately so that any training programmes provided will affect the business and improve performance,

(b) to deliver on the commitments made and the expectations raised in the initial meeting. The literature suggests that determining this information up-front contributes much to the overall success of a needs assessment (Kaufman, Rojas and Mayer, 1993).

The respondents were asked how often do their organisations conduct a PEA to determine what the situation should be after the training (i.e. desired performance). This would be based on the information collected in the initial project meeting with the clients. In Table 7.2, a greater proportion of the respondents, 36% and 26% in the government and private/joint venture organisations respectively, reported that they sometimes conduct a PEA. Another 18% and 22% did it mostly, and 16% in the two sectors always did so. Not surprisingly, this step needs supportive factors to achieve its goals such as qualified and experienced T&D staff, a positive attitude towards what training could achieve, and a high and constructive relationship with the clients in order to get reliable information to reach an accurate understanding of the desired performance.

After collecting such information, this would indicate if there is a performance or business problem, or a performance or business opportunity. The information collected would be in quantifiable form. It may be derived from operational reports, and behavioural data which are qualitative and derived from observations or conversations with others. The respondents were asked what the issues were that were the main core for conducting a PEA to determine the desired performance. Two answers were given. First, skills and knowledge required to perform the job

successfully. Second, what the operational results indicate (value/target). The respondents from 64% and 63.4% of the government and private/ joint venture organisations, respectively, indicated that they used all the above issues in order to determine what the situation should be after the training (i.e. desired performance).

7.2.1.1.5 Conduct performance effectiveness assessment (Actual performance)

In the fifth step, the respondents were asked whether they conducted a PEA to assess the current situation, according to the information collected in the initial project meeting with their clients. With the government organisations, 24% reported they never, and 28% rarely did this. A smaller proportion, 18% sometimes, 16% mostly, and 14% always, followed this procedure. With the private/joint venture organisations, 30% reported sometimes, 24% mostly, and 10% always. About 26% and 10%, respectively, reported that they never and rarely did this. This distribution was not significantly different ($X^2=6.936$). This pattern could be attributed to the same reasons as in step three, or the clients did not really reveal any sort of problems they had, or shortage of skills and knowledge. In other words, they emphasised on new concepts and technology to be applied rather than starting with their actual deficiencies.

The respondents were asked what sort of information was taken into consideration while conducting a PEA to assess the current situation. The following statements were provided: how typical performers demonstrate the desired skills or knowledge, what the operational indicators show as being true now, and what the

greatest knowledge and skills deficiencies are. Both sectors had a tendency to include all these. This was reported by 50% of the government and 45.9% of the private/joint venture organisations, respectively.

On the other hand, both sectors had a different distribution in applying one statement or combining two of them. In the private/joint venture organisations, 24.3% concentrated on what the operational indicators show as being true now. This reflects the nature of their work, where they put more efforts towards their output (i.e. quality of the products, revenue, customer satisfaction). With the government organisations, 21.1% emphasised how typical performers demonstrate the desired skills or knowledge, and what are the greatest knowledge and skills deficiencies. Again, this reflects their working nature, where most of these organisations are involved in services.

In conclusion, the ultimate aim of a PEA is to collect data to determine gaps between desired and actual performance, as well as to identify the link between desired operational results and the desired skills or knowledge required to achieve them. However, these functions need a supportive system which consists of enough professionals available who are skilled in this regard, T&D staff should know how to do a content analysis of the data collected, and they should have enough information to build good data collection methods. The data should be usefully organised and made available in the time frame required.

7.2.1.1.6 Causal analysis approach

The following section will focus on the analysis of the information collected. A causal analysis provides the information to elicit what causes an end-result or on-the-job performance deficiency, and what might prevent newly learned skills from being transferred to the job. It has been shown that the determination of needs and the analysis of their root causes are vital steps toward effective and efficient solutions (Kaufman, 1996).

In this sixth step, the respondents were asked whether their organisations conducted a causal analysis of actual performance with their clients. The respondents showed a tendency to using this approach not very often in both sectors. The government organisations, 30.6% reported sometimes, 18.4% mostly, and 12.2% always. The corresponding figures were 30%, 16% and 14% for the private/joint venture organisations; it is also noted that 30% never followed this approach. The distribution between the two sectors was not significantly different.

Further to this, a causal analysis must examine all possible causes of performance deficiencies, including current and future causes. The majority of performance deficiencies are that either people may not have the skills to perform, or that environmental reasons make it difficult to perform, such as lack of incentive system, and lack of authority, time, or equipment, or a combination of these factors. In this regard, the respondents were asked what sort of information was included in the causal analysis. The following statements were given: the primary cause of the gap

between what should happen and what is happening, there are any other structural, and the managerial or motivational reasons for the lack of desired performance. The majority of the two sectors, 69.2% of the government, and 57.1% of the private/joint venture organisations were applying all the statements in conducting a causal analysis approach.

In general, both sectors showed an interest in conducting this approach by using the real cause of the gap, and linked the other related reasons in the organisational context, with less emphasis on the individual's skills and knowledge deficiency. McClelland, (1993) stated that processes and procedures are generally more easily observed and analysed than are individuals' behaviour, actions and reaction. This is because employee skills and/or knowledge deficiencies can be lightly considered or, at worst, overlooked.

In general, the causes fall into three major categories. According to Robinson and Robinson (1989), causes may be due to the learner, manager and organisation. The learner may lack confidence to use new skills on the job, and disagree with the values or concepts that are underpinning the new training programme. The manager should be a positive model by using skills that are the same or congruent with those that subordinates are learning and expected to use on the job. The organisation causes include organisational structure, system, values, norms, and rewards or punishments for using new skills.

7.2.1.1.7 Tabulating and interpreting data collected

After collecting and analysing all information related to training needs assessments, one would ask what is to be done next. The model suggests that valuable information should be built upon a constructive base by tabulating and interpreting the data and reporting the outcome of the assessment efforts to the client (management), and doing so in a manner that encourages management to take necessary actions. After all the information has been collected and reported, if no actions are taken and no decisions are made, then the entire process will be a waste of time. Therefore the next step will be to investigate whether these two steps were applied in the two sectors in Kuwait.

Regarding the seventh step, the respondents were asked how often their organisations tabulate and interpret the information collected in the previous steps regarding training needs assessment. Tabulation of data means the process of extracting from the surveys and interviews what people have indicated, and starting to categorise the information so that it can be reviewed and understood. The interpretation is related to what all these results mean, in terms of performance deficiencies and what is causing them. The answers varied between the two sectors; in the government organisations, the majority have a tendency towards applying this approach, where 30% and 28%, respectively, reported that they were mostly and always conducting such an approach. In the private/joint venture organisations, the picture is different, where 26% and 24%, respectively, reported sometimes and never, in applying this approach.

7.2.1.1.8 Reporting results to client

For the eighth step, the respondents were asked how often they reported the results of the information collected in the previous steps to their clients. The answers are consistent with the other items. It was noted that 28% of the government organisations stated that they always reported the results of the training needs analysis to the clients. Another portion (24%) reported that they sometimes report to their clients. In the private/joint venture organisations, however, 40.8% of the respondents never reported to their clients.

7.2.1.2 Data collection methods in determining training needs

After the discussion of how Kuwaiti organisations were conducting their TNA, the next section will focus on the data collection methods used to determine training needs, and what procedures their organisations adopt and implement for T&D programmes.

Data collection methods are the basis for establishing an overview of the organisation's performance, where the strengths and weaknesses of individuals in terms of knowledge, skills and behaviour will be determined, and T&D programmes designed to handle any sort of deficiencies that may exist. However, there are many data collection methods and choosing one or more of them depends on the organisation's capabilities (personal/financial), the number of employees to be surveyed, and training staff available. In this context, the respondents were asked to

determine the data collection methods most used by their organisations to determine their training needs, by using a scale of 1-5, where 1=Never, 3=Sometimes, and 5=Always. Results are summarised in Table (7.3).

It is noted that in the government sector, survey, interview and direct observation were the most widely used as data collection methods. This was reported as being mostly or always in 58.4%, 46.9% and 50% of cases respectively. In the private/joint venture sector, direct observation (59.2%), assessment of performance appraisal (50%), and interview (42.8%), were the most common data collection methods, stated as mostly and always. Group interview with managers was reported by 39.1% of the government and 46% of the private/joint venture organisations. Job description was reported as mostly or always by 53% of the government, and 42% of the private/joint venture organisations.

It is worth mentioning that no significant difference was found at the 0.01 level between the two sectors in terms of data collection methods, except on the survey ($X^2=23.798$) and administrative procedures ($X^2=12.385$). The government organisations used more survey methods. The private/joint venture organisations relied more on the administrative means. These differences could be expected, because most of the government organisations have a high level of employment. As mentioned before, about 92% of Kuwaitis are working in these organisations. The huge number of employees will therefore make it hard to monitor training needs, and government organisations prefer to use surveys as methods to collect the necessary information.

Table 7.3 Methods applied in training needs assessment by investigated organisations

Sector	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Survey	8	16.7	3	6.3	9	18.8	7	14.6	21	43.8	23.798 **
Private/Joint	29	59.2	3	6.1	7	14.3	6	12.2	4	8.2	
Interview	7	14.3	3	6.1	16	32.7	8	16.3	15	30.6	6.210
Private/Joint	13	26.5	7	14.3	8	16.3	8	16.3	13	26.5	
Observation	8	16.7	3	6.3	13	27.1	16	33.3	8	16.7	5.272
Private/Joint	10	20.4	-	-	10	20.4	15	30.6	14	28.6	
Assessment. of performance appraisal	14	29.8	8	17	8	17	9	19.1	8	17	2.325
Private/Joint	13	26	5	10	7	14	12	24	13	26	
Specialist committee	17	37.8	4	8.9	9	20	7	15.6	8	17.8	8.971
Private/Joint	30	61.2	7	14.3	6	12.2	2	4.1	4	8.2	
Job description	12	24.5	3	6.1	8	16.3	13	26.5	13	26.5	3.490
Private/Joint	15	30	8	16	6	12	10	20	11	22	
Administrative procedures	16	37.2	11	25.6	10	23.3	6	14	-	-	12.385 **
Private/Joint	26	52	7	14	4	8	6	12	7	14	
Group interview	9	19.6	7	15.2	12	26.1	11	23.9	7	15.2	7.797
Private/Joint	17	34	3	6	7	14	9	18	14	28	

** Significant at P<0.01 level.

In conclusion, many different data collection methods were used by the organisations for T&D needs assessment. The direct observation in the workplace was the most used method in collecting training needs data. This was reported by 50% and 59.2% in the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively. Next came a job description of individuals, cited by 53% and 42% in the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively. It is noted also that private/joint venture organisations were better in adopting some of the data collection methods which are necessary in getting accurate data for their training needs and in linking training needs assessment with a management performance appraisal scheme, such as direct observation in the workplace, assessment on a regular basis of performance appraisals, sample of administrative procedures (e.g. monthly reports), and group interview with managers and supervisors. The survey method held the highest percentage score in the government organisations. That is to say, both sectors in Kuwait are adopting all the above-mentioned methods, and their responses were similar for some and differed for others, according to the availability of resources, organisations' size and how they perceived the importance of these information-seeking methods in conducting an accurate needs assessment.

7.2.1.3 Procedures used in adopting and implementing T&D programmes

Different procedures are used in conducting and adopting T&D programmes by the Kuwaiti organisations, either by training committee, advertising, direct request and selection of individuals based on training needs assessment. The respondents procedures for T&D programme implementation are shown in Table 7.4.

Results indicate that the majority of respondents, 78% of the government and 60% of the private/joint venture organisations reported using “match each individual to the appropriate training programmes through training needs assessment”, mostly or always. This is likely due to the strong and effective training needs assessment by the majority of the responding organisations. The results confirms previous findings that the majority of the government organisations (80%) and a large proportion of the private/joint venture organisations (46%) were identifying their actual training needs.

On the other hand, 60.4% of the government organisations were using “training committee in determining training needs for implementing training programmes”. The same procedure was mostly or always used by 22% of the private/joint venture organisations. A specialist training committee as a data collection method for training needs was never used by 54% of the private/joint venture organisations. It is also noted that advertising for potential individuals was the least adopted process. This was cited as never/rarely used by 44.7% of the government and 58% of the private/joint venture organisations. Direct request of individuals themselves was used not very often, as indicated by the respondents, where 41.3% and 36% in the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, reported following this procedure sometimes. In 34.8% of the government and 42% of the private/joint venture organisations, this was rarely or never adopted.

There was no significant difference at the 0.05 level between the two sectors in terms of the procedures applied in adopting and implementing T&D programmes, except on “training committee in charge of determining needs assessment” as a procedure to conduct T&D programmes ($X^2=17.624$). The government organisations

Table 7.4 Procedures applied in determining training needs by investigated organisations

Sector	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Training committee	11	22.9	3	6.3	5	10.4	16	33.3	13	27.1	17.624 **
	27	54	4	8	8	16	3	6	8	16	
Advertising	14	29.8	7	14.9	8	17	11	23.4	7	14.9	3.515
	20	40	9	18	10	20	8	16	3	6	
Direct request	8	17.4	8	17.4	19	41.3	7	15.2	4	8.7	3.900
	7	14	14	28	18	36	10	20	1	2	
Training needs assessment	2	4	3	6	6	12	26	52	13	26	7.092
	9	18	4	8	7	14	16	32	14	28	

** Significant at P<0.05 level.

used this procedure more frequently, compared to the private/joint venture organisations.

Thus, we can say that the government organisations are more frequently adopting different procedures in implementing T&D programmes than their counterparts in the private/joint venture organisations. However, the individuals in the private/joint venture organisations were more self-driven and willing to attend certain training programmes. This is realised by the fact that the private/joint venture sector tends to concentrate its T&D programmes on the real job duties and responsibilities of the individuals on one hand, and link that to their career development on the other. Abdullah and Al-Homoud (1995) explained the difficulties originating from the lack of information in Kuwaiti organisations regarding the reservoir of basic skills, job descriptions and career planning, which is a serious obstacle in conducting systematic training needs assessment. It also shows that all the government organisations and 96% of private/joint venture organisations have no specific practices or procedures for determining training and educational needs of their managerial personnel. They also viewed the absence of systematic needs assessment as a serious drawback in their organisation's management development efforts.

7.3 Training Evaluation and Follow-up

The evaluation and follow-up of the training programmes is very difficult to apply, especially when it is result-oriented. In order to help training professionals to make decisions they can defend and justify their training programmes, this often means evaluating the overall performance of their organisations. This section is

designed to detail the evaluation steps recommended in the Robinson and Robinson (1989) model (reaction, learning, tracking). The respondents were asked whether their organisations are engaged in evaluating the effectiveness of T&D programmes. If so, by which techniques, in order to identify the evaluation methods that they believe to be most applicable by indicating which techniques they mostly employed. They were also asked how often their organisations conducted a systematic evaluation process in order to determine the effectiveness of the T&D programmes for both internal and external courses.

The results are summarised in Table 7.5, which shows that 36.7% of the government organisations sometimes apply a systematic evaluation process, 18.4% do so mostly, and 34.7% always. Of the private/joint venture organisations, 24% indicated that they never conduct a systematic evaluation of T&D programmes, and 12% do so rarely. Those who stated sometimes (22%), mostly (20%) and always (22%), were fewer than those in the government organisations. The difference in distribution was significant at $P < 0.01$ ($\chi^2 = 12.727$). Following the Robinson and Robinson (1989) training for impact model, the following steps were tested for applicability within the investigated Kuwaiti organisations.

7.3.1 Evaluation of reaction to training system

To evaluate the trainee's' reaction to training programmes by asking them about what they thought of the programme in order to determine their degree of satisfaction with the training. The respondents were asked how often their organisations apply the training evaluation system to assess the trainees' reaction to

Table 7.5 Evaluation approaches adopted by investigated organisations

Sector	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Conduct systematic evaluation	1	2	4	8.2	18	36.7	9	18.4	17	34.7	12.727 **
	12	24	6	12	11	22	10	20	11	22	
Training reaction evaluation	3	6	1	2	5	10	10	20	31	62	15.758 **
	12	24	7	14	4	8	12	24	15	30	
Training learning evaluation	5	10	3	6	12	24	15	30	15	30	4.348
	10	20	6	12	10	20	15	30	9	18	
Training tracking evaluation	13	26	8	16	16	32	10	20	3	6	0.621
	16	32	8	16	13	26	10	20	3	6	
Tabulate and interpret data	2	4	8	16	10	20	14	28	16	32	15.464 **
	17	34	7	14	8	16	10	20	8	16	
Report results	18	36	9	18	9	18	4	8	10	20	6.976
	24	48	5	10	3	6	9	18	9	18	

Table 7.6 Satisfaction level with evaluation approaches

	Public		Private/Joint		X ²
	No	%	No	%	
Strongly Dissatisfied	5	10.2	12	24	13.021 *
Dissatisfied	17	34.7	14	28	
No opinion	-	-	6	12	
Satisfied	23	46.9	12	24	
Strongly Satisfied	4	8.2	6	12	

* Significant at P<0.05 level, and ** at P<0.01 level.

the training programmes (e.g., completing a questionnaire at the end of the training programme/consulting the trainers or training providers). The validity of this evaluation may be questionable. Saari et al. (1988) stated that organisations typically use only “happy sheets”, and ignore whether training has had an impact on learning, behaviour, and the performance of the trainee on the job.

The results show that both the sectors reported positively in terms of applying a reaction system. In the government organisations, 62% were always applying this evaluation system, 20% used it mostly, and 10% sometimes. In the private/joint venture organisations, 30% always, 24% mostly, and 8% sometimes used this system. However, 24% never, and 14% rarely, applied this. The difference between the two sectors was significant at $P < 0.01$ ($X^2 = 15.755$).

7.3.2 Evaluation of learning system

The respondent were asked how often their organisations apply training evaluation to determine the degree to which trainees have acquired the skills and knowledge presented in the training programmes (i.e., testing the trainees, competence demonstration, interviewing the trainees, consulting the trainees' supervisors). According to Robinson and Robinson (1989), paper and pencil tests are commonly used for the knowledge being learned, competency demonstrations are sometimes used to determine skills acquisition. In other words, the learners are provided with an opportunity to demonstrate their competencies while being observed by a trainer.

The results in Table 7.5 show that both the sectors have reported positively on applying learning system evaluation. Of the government organisations, 30% stated they always or mostly, and 24% sometimes, used this procedure. Of private/joint venture organisations, 30% reported they mostly, 18% always, and 20% sometimes, used learning system evaluation. The distribution was not significantly different.

7.3.3 Evaluation of tracking system

There are four categories of learning outcomes that can be evaluated for application. Affective learning outcomes focus on attitudes, values, and beliefs of participants. Cognitive learning outcomes represent concepts, principles, and knowledge. Behavioural or skills learning outcomes address what participant are to be physically able to do. Operational outcomes occur on the job as a result of other outcomes (Robinson and Robinson, 1989). This step is obviously concentrating on behaviour application and non-observable results, whereas in Kirkpatrick's model (1976) the third level focuses on behaviour or skill application.

Respondents were asked to indicate how often their organisations apply a tracking system to assess the degree to which changes have occurred after a training programme according to the training outcomes: behaviour or skills, non-observable (e.g. analytical ability/changes in attitudes and values) and operational results.

The results in Table 7.5 indicate that both sectors did not do this very often and in some cases almost neglected applying a tracking system. In the government organisations, 32% were sometimes applying such a system, 20% used it mostly, and

6% always. The majority of private/joint venture organisations had never applied such a system as reported by 32%, 16% used it rarely, and 26% sometimes. This infrequency in using tracking evaluation could be attributed to many factors. Costs may be too much or it takes too much time. Professionals within the organisation do not know how to use the preferred technique or how to collect the needed data. Top management does not view training evaluation as important or prefers the use of the reaction method. Individuals from whom information should be collected may not be responding and are unwilling to cooperate. Line managers show no interest in recognition of the outcomes of the evaluation. Thus the difference between the two sectors was not significant ($X^2=0.621$).

Training personnel, when they measure whether skills have been transferred to the work environment, should measure both what has been and what has not been transferred and why. On the other hand, conditions of the work environment should be considered for an effective tracking valuation system. Robinson and Robinson (1989) state that there are three categories of these conditions. The learners, do they value the particular set of skills and behaviours taught in the programme, and do they feel confident using these skills and behaviours? The managers, do they supervise and reinforce the use of these skills and behaviours? The organisation, does it reward or punish people for the use of specific skills and behaviours; is there any interference such as conflicting policies or lack of equipment; does it give feedback to employees indicating the impact of these particular skills and behaviour?

After collecting the evaluation data, the training personnel and HRD professionals are to measure results from training. This step starts with collection of baseline pretraining information: with what frequency are learners using the desired skills or behaviour? Then, what is the frequency of use some weeks or months after training was conducted?

7.3.4 Collection, tabulation and interpretation of evaluation and tracking data

The respondents were asked how often their organisations collect, tabulate and interpret evaluation and tracking data. As cited by the respondents, 32% of the government organisations were always collecting, tabulating and interpreting evaluation data, 28% did so mostly, and 20% sometimes. In contrast, in the private/joint venture organisations, the majority never (34%) or rarely (14%) did this. Those replying mostly (20%), or always (16%) were fewer. The distribution was significantly different between the two sectors at $P < 0.01$, $X^2 = 15.464$.

The respondents were further asked what sort of information the tabulation and interpretation were based upon. The following statements were given:

1. Has the result from the reaction and learning evaluation included?
2. Has the training programme been able to bridge the knowledge and skills deficiencies identified?
3. Has the behavior of the participants changed in the desired direction?
4. Has the initial problem been solved and the desired business need achieved?

The results indicated that both the sectors have a tendency towards including all the items mentioned above as a basis for collecting, tabulating and interpreting evaluation and tracking data. In the government and private/joint venture organisations, a large proportion, 52% and 50%, respectively, of the respondents indicated that they included all information. However, some respondents included only one or two sorts of information.

7.3.5 Reporting evaluation results to client

Finally, a process was used to involve the client in determining what the results mean and what actions, if any, are required. The respondents were required to indicate how often their organisations report back to their clients the results of evaluation. The results show that a large proportion of organisations in both the sectors never reported evaluation results to their clients. This was cited by 36% and 48% of government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively. Those replying mostly or always amounted to 8% and 20% in the government organisations, and 18% for the two responses in the private/joint venture organisations.

The above discussion has indicated that the majority of Kuwait organisations in both the sectors were applying reaction to training evaluation technique. This was widely used in training programmes; it included trainees' evaluations of training, often assessed on "smile sheets" or "happy sheets". Robinson and Robinson (1989) stated that almost all HRD professionals provide end-of-course questionnaires which are completed by participants and given to the instructor. However, these reaction evaluations, too frequently, are poorly designed and yield minimally helpful

information. Next came learning evaluation, which includes tests of performance during training and tests administered at the end of training, and a trainer's sense of satisfaction with the programme. The least used technique was tracking evaluation.

In a survey by Grider, Capps and Toombs, cited by Swigert and Kottke (1993), members of the American Society for Training and Development were asked to identify the evaluation methods they believed most effective and to indicate which techniques they most deployed. Trainees' reactions was the most commonly used, although behavioural indices, skill-based competencies, and cost/benefit results were the most preferred.

7.4 Evaluation of training programmes effectiveness

Following discussion of the applicability of evaluation levels within the Kuwaiti organisations, the respondents were asked whether they consider these techniques applied by their organisations for evaluating the T&D programmes as satisfactory for effective evaluation. The results show that respondents from both sectors differed in expressing their satisfaction with the effectiveness of the evaluation techniques.

It is clear from Table 7.6 that the majority of the respondents from the government organisations (46.9%) were satisfied, and highly satisfied (8.2%), whereas of their counterparts in the private/ joint venture organisations 28% were dissatisfied, and 24% highly unsatisfied with the effectiveness of training evaluation

techniques within their organisations. The difference between the respondents in the two sectors was quite significant ($X^2=13.021$).

7.4.1 Difficulties affecting evaluation techniques process

The evaluation process for assessing T&D programme effectiveness is not an easy task which requires special techniques, financial resources, and qualified and capable staff to conduct the process effectively. However, in addition to these requirements, there are some obstacles which might also minimise the evaluation process such as the nature of the work, formal system and procedures, and the follow-up process. The respondents were asked to comment on difficulties that might be responsible for the evaluation process being not effective in their organisations by using a scale of 1 to 5, where 1=strongly disagree, 3= neither agree nor disagree, 5= strongly agree. The following reasons were given as difficulties for effective evaluation of the T&D programmes:

1. Difficulties in measuring performance improvement in certain jobs (e.g. services).
2. Difficulties in measuring the change of behaviour of individuals over a short period of time.
3. Absence of job description.
4. Lack of available financial resources for evaluation process.
5. Lack of knowledge about evaluation process.
6. Participants can not apply what they have learned in T&D programmes.
7. Absence of follow-up process after T&D programmes.

Table 7.7 illustrates the results obtained on the difficulties that hinder optimum training evaluation. The most frequently stated are: difficulties in measuring performance improvement in certain jobs (e.g. services). This was agreed by 46.5% or strongly agreed by 23.3% of the respondents from the government sector. The corresponding figures from the private/joint venture sector were 29.2% and 14.6%. Not surprisingly, most of the government organisations are working in the services, where the main role is providing services to the whole population, whereas many private/joint venture organisations are also working in the same field.

Difficulties in measuring the change of behaviour of individuals over a short period of time and the absence of a follow-up process after the T&D programmes were major difficulties as reported by many respondents in the government organisations. Those who agreed or strongly agreed amounted to 82.2% and 81.8%. In the private/joint venture organisations, the percentage was 72.9% and 69.3%. However, there were no statistically significant differences between the two sectors in Kuwait, except for the measuring of performance improvements in certain jobs ($X^2=10.632$), and lack of financial resources ($X^2=12.616$).

Not surprisingly, change in behaviour is a very complicated issue especially when dealing with human attitudes and behaviour, and it requires continuous observation and knowledge of how to evaluate such a sensitive issue. Another difficulty was related to the absence of follow-up of the individuals who completed training programmes. The majority of respondents indicated that there is an absence of effective follow-up of participants after programme attendance in the government and private/joint venture sectors. This conclusion indicates that the investigated

Table 7.7 Difficulties in conducting systematic evaluation in investigated organisations

	Sector	S. Disagree		Disagree		No opinion		Agree		S. Agree		χ^2
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Performance improvements	Public	4	9.3	8	18.6	1	2.3	21	46.5	10	23.3	10.023 *
	Private/Joint	6	12.5	11	22.9	10	20.8	14	29.2	7	14.6	
Change in behaviour	Public	2	4.4	4	8.9	2	4.4	26	60	10	22.2	2.565
	Private/Joint	5	10.4	3	6.3	5	10.4	25	52.1	10	20.8	
Absence of job description	Public	4	9.8	11	26.8	2	4.9	13	31.7	11	26.8	7.177
	Private/Joint	5	10.6	18	38.3	4	8.5	17	36.2	3	6.4	
Financial resources	Public	2	4.7	16	37.2	1	2.3	18	41.9	7	14.9	12.616
	Private/Joint	8	17	15	31.9	8	17	9	19.1	7	14.9	
Experience	Public	4	8.9	11	26.7	2	4.4	23	51.1	4	8.9	5.533
	Private/Joint	6	12.8	16	34	6	12.8	14	29.8	5	10.6	
Difficulty in application	Public	2	4.8	17	40.5	12	28.6	9	19	3	7.1	3.305
	Private/Joint	9	19.1	8	17	16	34	11	23.4	3	6.4	
Absence of follow-up	Public	2	4.5	6	13.6	-	-	28	65.9	7	15.9	6.157
	Private/Joint	2	4.1	8	16.3	6	12.2	25	51	8	18.3	

* Significant at P<0.05 level.

organisations put more emphasis on evaluating T&D at the end of the training programmes, whereas little efforts were given to follow-up evaluation to get the maximum benefits of applicability of what trainees have learned to the workplace.

These findings were consistent with the previous results, where the investigated organisations reported that they frequently applied a reaction to training evaluation system. They rarely or never applied a tracking evaluation system. Another point is that the majority of the investigated organisations reported that they never and rarely conducted a study of return on investment on the training programmes. This was 52.5% reported by the government, and 17.2% by the private/joint venture organisations.

For the other difficulties, the absence of job description, lack of available financial resources, and lack of knowledge about the evaluation process, these seem to exist in the government sector more than in the private/joint venture sector, as cited by 58.5%, 56.8% and 60% respondents in the government sector, respectively, whereas cited by 42.6%, 34% and 40.4% in the private/joint venture sector, respectively. In this regard, Ghodsian et al. (1996, p. 64) argue that “organisational units responsible for post-training operations may lack the staff and resources necessary for extensive on-the-job assessment, or they may be deterred by the sensitive nature of such assessment”.

On the other hand, the government sector organisations also show that their formal system and environment is more supportive of the applicability of what participants have learned in T&D programmes, as reported by training personnel:

49.3% disagreed (combined percentage) regarding difficulties in application, whereas the private/joint venture sector reported 36.1%. Regarding the absence of follow-up in the government and private/joint venture organisations, this seemed to exist, where 65.9% and 51% agreed in the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively.

7.5 Main difficulties in applying a rational approach to training

Having discussed the applicability of the training for impact approach within the Kuwaiti organisations, the research now addresses responses of the investigated personnel with regard to the main difficulties in conducting them. However, it should be noted that 24 of the government organisations and 25 of the private/joint venture organisations responded out of the total respondent organisations (100). In the private/joint venture sector, the absence of a specialised department or unit to conduct T&D activities was seen as a major difficulty cited by 48% of the respondents. This was also reported by 4.17% of the government sector, respondents.

Traditionally, the HRD department has had lower power in the organisation compared to other departments. This trend also affects T&D department in terms of appointing qualified trained staff and devoting training budget. Further, 40% of the respondents in the private/joint venture and 54% in the government organisations considered a shortage and unavailability of qualified and professionally trained staff in the field of T&D as a problem, which affects in applying a rational approach to training.

Another difficulty perceived by 83% of training personnel in the government and 28% in the private/joint venture organisations was the lack of understanding and neglect to recognise the benefits and importance of focusing T&D on the organisation's activities and improvements, by line managers, trainers, administrators, trainees, and other relevant departments. A negative attitude is seen by the lack of respect for the special expertise and others who are responsible of implementing training programmes. Managers' attitudes and their awareness towards training, as indicated mostly, were frustration and disillusion with the T&D function. This is because the weakness of training was perceived by most managers as resulting from a lack of consistency, where employees were required to attend ad-hoc courses which sometimes failed to meet their individual needs. Hence, the rational approach to training seems likely to fail if professionals can not convince top management of the strategic advantages of using this approach (Dutton and Ashford, 1993).

Administrators and trainers often do not understand the scientific approach to training and its benefits. Administrators tend to view training as an administrative innovation that requires common sense rather than expertise (Johns, 1993), and as an expense rather than as an investment for the future. The lack of seriousness shown by the trainees is another problem. Most of the trainees attending T&D programmes in the government sector consider it as a passing time or entertainment activity.

This attitude could be related to the same cultural issues where trainees were selected on the basis of their personal ties and relationship, or training was not linked to promotion and incentives within the organisations' formal system. When there is a dominant equality concept, all the individuals in a situation are seen as deserving to

attain training opportunities, regardless of their inputs or personal relationships. Gary, Connor and Decatur (1994) found that the leaders with strong support for equality recommended spending more funds to train their subordinates, rather than leaders with a weak support for equality. Witt and Broach (1993), talking in the same context, explained that the trainees were more satisfied when they perceived they had procedural justice in the way training was administered. However, Schaaf (1998) found that more than half who said they had received training from their employers in the past year pronounced themselves satisfied or extremely satisfied, while only about 10% expressed dissatisfaction.

The efforts and costs associated with the training is another constraint of the impact model. Conducting a needs analysis, proper planning of training programmes, ensuring positive transfer, evaluating the effectiveness of the programme, all these require time, money and effort which the personnel involved in training may lack. Thus, budget constraints or lack of financial resources and knowledge about the training process were considered as among the main difficulties in applying a rational approach to training. This was cited by 29% in government and 20% in the private/joint venture organisations. This was demonstrated by non-increase in budget for T&D or even not keeping a steady budget on one hand, and non-availability of a separate training budget and an independent T&D department on the other.

Absence of follow-up in T&D programmes to evaluate trainees or their abilities after attending training is another difficulty cited by 17% in the government and 16% in the private/joint venture organisations. Obviously, to implement follow-up process successfully requires an independent training department, a separate and

sufficient training budget, qualified and trained professionals, and full cooperation and understanding by all managerial levels in the organisational structure, which the respondents' organisations may lack.

7.6 Summary

In the first part of this chapter conducting TNA and the approaches used in this regard were tested. The results show that the government organisations used TNA more than in the private/joint venture organisations. However, less than half of the respondents in both sectors tend to apply all training needs approaches (comprehensive, person, and job analysis) in determining training needs.

The second section deals with testing the applicability of the Robinson and Robinson (1989) training for impact model. All the 12 steps included in this model were examined in detail. The first part of this section emphasised training needs assessment and data collection methods. The results reveal that Kuwaiti organisations have applied these steps to some extent. However, although up-front assessments seemed to be more applicable, as these steps go forward with in-depth analysis, they seemed to be less applicable. The second part examined evaluation processes (reaction, learning, and tracking). It was found that reaction to training evaluation was widely used in training programmes, next came learning evaluation, whereas the least used technique was tracking evaluation.

In addition, the main difficulties that might hinder the evaluation process from being effective were examined. The results indicated that the most frequently stated difficulties facing the investigated organisations are difficulties in measuring performance improvement in certain jobs (e.g. services), difficulties in measuring the change of behaviour of individuals over a short period of time, and the absence of a follow-up process after the T&D programmes. Other difficulties, the absence of job description, lack of available financial resources and lack of knowledge about evaluation process seem to exist in the government sector more than in the private/joint venture sector.

Chapter Eight

Analysis of Organisational Related Factors in Corporate Setting in Kuwait

8.1 Introduction

The failure to implement a rational approach is clearly shown in the amount and sophistication of the training that is being conducted by most organisations. Despite the evidence that training is an effective means of enhancing organisational productivity (Burke and Day, 1986), most organisations give very little attention to training (Labour letter, 1991). According to one estimate, only 16% of the American employees have ever received training from their employers (Carnevale, 1995). The essential theme of this chapter is to investigate the factors in the Kuwaiti organisational context that affect the implementation of a rational approach to training, as viewed by the training personnel or other personnel in charge of T&D activities.

Many reviewers and researchers have drawn attention to the need to devise training and human resource systems that are driven by the strategic requirements of the organisation and consider the contextual factors in HRM (Tannenbaum and Yuki, 1992; Johns, 1993; Jackson and Schuler, 1990). These contextual factors are classified here into three groups. First: strategic factors, such as integration strategy, training policies and plans. Second, organisational factors; such as top management commitment, co-ordination and collaboration between training personnel and line managers, a supportive formal system and organisational culture. Third: implementation factors, such as training budget, training providers and training techniques. A descriptive analysis is used for the comparison between the two study sectors. In addition, significance is tested for by X^2 .

8.2 Strategic Factors

8.2.1 Integration Strategy

The developments of employees represent a critical strategy essential for organisations wishing to create new opportunities for growth and take advantage of the opportunities present in a rapidly changing business environment. This part will focus on the existence of an HRD strategy within the Kuwaiti organisations and whether it is are implemented and integrated with the overall strategy for the organisation. It is needless to say that an integrated strategy is a very important concept, specifically when formal training relates to the corporate needs which in turn contributes to the attainment of the corporate objectives. Hussey (1988) argues that the initiative must come from the chief executive and training needs must be assessed against corporate requirements. This implies better understanding of the company's aims and strategy.

The regular training assessment by individuals and the results of assessment by specialised centres have to be related to an understanding of organisational goals, strategy, business environment, and the desired culture. In this context, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they have a clear and defined HRD strategy or not. The results, together with the degree of relation to the organisation strategy, and how often the HRD strategy is applied, are summarised in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Status of HRD strategy in investigated organisations

		Public		Private/Joint		χ^2
		No	%	No	%	
HRD strategy	Yes	33	66	25	50	2.627
	No	17	34	25	50	
Relation to organisational strategy	V. small extent	-	-	1	4	2.177
	Small extent	5	15.2	2	8	
	Medium extent	6	18.2	5	20	
	Great extent	17	51.5	12	48	
	V. great extent	5	15.2	5	20	
HRD Strategy application	Never	1	3	-	-	.941
	Rarely	1	3	1	4	
	Sometimes	9	27.3	6	24	
	Mostly	14	42.4	11	44	
	Always	8	24.2	7	28	

In the government organisations, 66% of the respondents indicated that they have such an HRD strategy. Half of the respondents (50%) from the private/joint venture organisations reported that such a strategy is adopted. This shows that HRD has an important role in the success of the organisational growth. It is similar to other functions in the organisation context (marketing, finance, production, etc.). These results are consistent with the previous findings on the existence of T&D departments (Section 6.2.1.2). The vast majority (98%) of the government organisations and 34% of the private/joint venture organisations had a separate T&D department. It was also noted that half of the private/joint venture organisations had an HRD strategy, although not all of them had a separate T&D unit.

The Kuwaiti organisations have given attention to developing their human resources. Success however depends on how they manage it. Having an HRD strategy is not an indication that the organisation will have the best investment in human resources unless it is derived from or related to an overall strategy, and successfully

implemented. HRD should not be a written document presented in the annual reports. The HRD that offers real strategic value to the organisation must contribute directly to important business goals and must be based on key business performance requirements (Swanson, 1994). In this regard, the investigated organisations which already have an HRD strategy were evaluated according to the degree to which their adopted HRD strategy was derived from or linked to an organisational strategy; results are also shown in Table 8.1.

In the government organisations, more than half of the respondents (22 organisations, 66.7%) indicated that their HRD strategy was derived from or related to a very great or a great extent to the organisational strategy. In the private organisations more than half of the respondents (17 organisations, 68%) reported that their HRD strategy was a part of the organisation strategy. Thus it could be said that most of the organisations had established strong links between HRD strategy and the overall strategy, and HRD strategy is designed to meet business needs through investing in people. These findings are consistent with a survey by the Harbridge Consultant Group (1991) who found that in the years from 1982 to 92, the proportion of UK business organisations in which management development was explicitly linked to corporate strategy increased from 33 to 54 per cent.

The respondents were asked to what extent the adopted HRD strategy has been implemented to develop individuals, including all managerial levels. Less than half of the respondents in both sectors (42.4% of the government, and 44% of the private/joint venture) reported that the HRD strategy had mostly been implemented. A smaller proportion, amounting to 24.2% of the respondents in the government and

28% of those in the private/joint venture organisations, indicated the HRD strategy was always implemented. In addition, 27.3% of the government and 24% of the private/joint venture organisations reported that HRD was sometimes implemented. Interestingly, very few organisations reported rarely or never in describing the implementation of the strategy.

These findings indicate that both sectors in Kuwait give sufficient support to adoption and implementation of HRD strategy, and T&D programmes are closely linked to planned expansion. In this regard, Winterton and Winterton (1996) argue that the identification of both strengths and weaknesses of employees has enabled a development strategy to emerge which complements the strategic goals of the organisation, since organisation strategy is limited by the competence of staff.

In conclusion, more than half of the investigated Kuwaiti organisations (58%) have their HRD strategy. More than half of them have a training/personnel department/division. Among those with HRD strategy, half (50%) reported that the strategy was derived to a great extent, and in 17.2% it was derived to a very great extent, from that for the organisation. As regards the implementation of HRD strategy, the respondents indicated that less than half of the investigated organisations (43.1%) have mostly implemented their HRD strategy and 25.9% reported it was always implemented.

8.2.1.1 Difficulties of linking T&D with organisational strategy

HRD strategy is meant to serve the needs of organisations by providing employees with up-to-date experience, skills, knowledge, and technological development. Therefore, the T&D function should be based upon a broad range of business initiatives that require a competent workforce. Torraco and Swanson (1995) argued that HRD serves a strategic role by assuring the competence of employees to meet the organisation's present performance demands. Similarly, that rational HRD interventions support business objectives was considered straightforward by Jacobs and Jones (1995). They stated that enhancing employees' expertise through HRD increases the likelihood that business objectives will be achieved. Kuwaiti organisations have shown that their HRD strategies are derived or related to organisation strategy so as to improve overall efficiency. Yet, it is not the HRD itself, but the way HRD is integrated into the major business processes that represents the greatest opportunity for the successful implementation of an organisation's business plans and processes.

Despite the importance of linking HRD to organisation strategy, Kuwaiti organisations have had some difficulties in linking their HRD strategy with overall strategy. These difficulties will be discussed according to training personnel perceptions. As described earlier in this chapter, not all the investigated organisations had their HRD strategy. However, almost all of the respondents in the organisations responded to this question even if they did not have a strategy. The respondents were asked to indicate the difficulties they may face in integrating T&D activities into the organisation strategy. The difficulties presented required the respondents to choose a

response from 1 to 5 on a Likert five-point scale, 1 representing strongly disagree, 5 representing strongly agree, and 3 representing neither agree nor disagree.

The major problems were those of addressing more immediate issues instead of long-term strategic T&D, lack of systematic analysis of present performance improvements arising from T&D activities, personnel in charge of T&D having no influence on the formation of corporate strategy, and much of T&D remaining focused on the needs of individuals rather than the needs of organisations.

The results are summarised in Table 8.2. It is observed that the problem resulting from immediate priorities taking precedence over long-term strategic T&D was rated as the most common difficulty cited by both sectors in Kuwait. The vast majority of the government (81.3%) and of the private/joint venture organisations respondents (80%) agreed or strongly agreed on this. Sinclair and Collins (1992) support this finding, and state that many managers have a blinkered view of T&D and request immediate short-term and tangible results.

Coming next was the lack of systematic analysis as regards which competencies will improve business performance, with a percentage of 72.9% and 54%, respectively. Personnel in charge of T&D not participating in the formulation of corporate strategy was the third difficulty reported by 56.3% and 46% of the participants in the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively. Concentrating on the development of personnel instead of the organisation was reported by 52.1% of the government and 52% of the private/joint venture organisations. Lack of top management commitment was the least mentioned,

reported by 33.3% of the respondents in the two sectors. It is worth mentioning that none of the differences in terms of the difficulties in linking T&D activities with overall organisation strategy were statistically significant at $P < .05$. The X^2 are shown in the last column of the table.

The giving of more attention to immediate concerns in both sectors in Kuwait was cited by most respondents. This may be because most of the government organisations are very large. They could have problems in establishing structures for T&D because of their complexity and the over-centralised and also has bureaucratic system adopted may be a factor. Most of the private/joint venture organisations are smaller. They may however face resource difficulties, whereby management may be prevented from behaving strategically and devoting sufficient time or money to T&D initiatives because of the need to address more immediate issues.

The lack of systematic investigation into how the performance improvements derived from T&D activities could be achieved was seen as another major problem. Surprisingly, the respondents in both sectors had agreed that they had no influence in shaping actively strategic issues. They were not participating in the formulation of the corporate strategy. This could prevent HRD professionals from adding a valuable dimension to the strategic planning process by ensuring that planning is based on an accurate assessment of current and achievable levels of employees' performance. They would represent unique perspectives by providing development issues on the workforce that are central to the strategic planning process.

On the other hand, that much T&D is focused on individuals, instead of the organisation, was cited by the two sectors as a difficulty in the integration process. This could be attributed to the dominance of the instructional theory of training which is based on individuals level models of change. Ostroff and Ford (1989) stated that, in practice, training activities are generally focused at the individual level, including needs analysis. This is true, despite the fact that training should be designed to support and contribute to clearly visible organisational goals (Goldstein, 1992). Lack of top management support would indicate that there was no clear perception of how T&D would support the organisation strategy to achieve business objectives.

In short, although the respondents agreed that there is no lack of top management commitment towards the integration process, they had no power in forming corporate strategy. This leads us to conclude that there were inconsistencies and ambiguities concerning top management perceptions regarding the T&D integration into the corporate strategy. The strategic capability is demonstrated by adding two important dimensions to the organisation's planning process. As stated by Torraco and Swanson (1995), this includes (a) providing education in the concepts and methods of strategic planning and systems thinking to those responsible for setting the strategic direction for the organisation, (b) and playing an active role in strategic planning through direct participation of HRD professionals in the business planning process.

8.2.1.2 Perceived linkage of HRD strategy by T&D personnel

The previous section (8.2.1) showed that the majority of Kuwaiti organisations (both sectors) implemented an HRD strategy that was derived or related to organisational strategy. T&D was also closely linked with organisational strategy. In this section the respondents were asked to indicate how this link was demonstrated by a variety of ways, within their organisations, which included:

1. T&D responds to change in organisation environment.
2. T&D supports strategic priorities.
3. Major change provides both opportunity and necessity of linking T&D to organisational strategy.
4. T&D personnel have an access to organisations' objectives and strategies.

Respondents in both sectors in Kuwait reported the presence of all these statements about the strategic role of T&D within their organisations. As indicated in Table 8.3, most of the organisations have closely linked their T&D activities with the organisation's overall strategy. There were no statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level between the perceptions of personnel in charge of T&D activities in both the government and private/joint venture organisations regarding integrating T&D into organisation objectives.

The above mentioned statements were cited as "mostly or always" in regard to the strategic role of T&D activities. These T&D activities are linked to organisational overall strategy and support the organisation objectives in different ways. As was cited by 55.1% and 54.2% in the government and private/joint venture

Table 8.2 Difficulties in linking HRD strategy with overall strategy in investigated organisations

Sector	S. disagree		Disagree		No opinion		Agree		S. Agree		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Lack analysis of competencies	2	4.2	9	18.8	2	4.2	29	60.4	6	12.5	7.434
Priority of short-term goals	4	8	9	18	10	20	24	48	3	6	2.283
Focus on personnel Development	1	2.1	7	14.6	1	2.1	25	52.1	14	29.2	2.240
Low commitment of top management	2	4	5	10	3	6	29	58	11	22	3.267
No influence of T&D personnel	4	8.3	17	35.4	2	4.2	21	43.8	4	8.3	5.022
	2	4	18	36	4	8	19	38	7	14	
	10	20.8	19	39.6	3	6.3	12	25	4	8.3	
	5	10.4	25	52.1	2	4.2	10	20.8	6	12.5	
	4	8.3	15	31.3	2	4.2	21	43.8	6	12.5	
	3	6	16	32	8	16	15	30	8	16	

Table 8.3 Perceived linkage of T&D activities within strategy/goals of investigated organisations.

Sector	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
T&D responds to change	2	4.1	3	6.1	17	34.7	20	40.8	7	14.3	1.716
T&D supports strategic priorities	4	8.3	5	10.4	13	27.1	19	39.6	7	14.6	3.674
Changes provide linking T&D to Organisation strategy	2	4.3	5	10.6	14	29.8	19	40.4	7	14.9	.690
Access to objectives and strategy	5	10.2	8	16.3	8	16.3	21	42.9	7	14.3	.739
	5	10.2	7	14.3	15	30.6	17	34.7	5	10.2	
	3	6.3	6	12.5	16	33.3	17	35.4	6	12.5	
	6	12.2	8	16.3	12	25.5	15	30.6	8	16.3	
	7	14.3	7	14.3	13	26.5	12	24.5	10	20.4	

organisations, respectively, that T&D responds to change in organisation environment. Where T&D supports strategic priorities was agreed by 55.3% and 57.1% the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, if major change provides opportunity and necessity of linking T&D to organisational strategy was agreed by 44.9% in the government and 47.9% in the private/joint venture organisations. These figures are consistent with the previous findings (Section 8.2.1) that 58% of the total of investigated organisations have defined HRD strategies, and 39 organisations (67.2%) have their HRD strategy derived from or related to their organisation strategy.

Another interesting observation is that in 46.9% of the investigated organisations in the government sector and in 44.9% in the private/joint venture sector, the respondents had access to their organisations' objectives and strategy. This can be expected from the high status of the personnel in charge of T&D within their organisation's structure. As illustrated earlier (Section 6.2.2.6), most of the training personnel were of middle or top management levels. This result is in line with a recent Watson Wyatt's strategic Rewards survey (cited by Bailey, 1998), of 614 US employers which found that 75% of high-performing companies said they linked employee T&D to their business strategy, compared to 67% of all other organisations. It also found that 63% of high-performing companies say that their employees have a clear understanding of organisational goals, compared with just 41% of all other organisations.

However, some of the respondents in both sectors indicated that they have no influence on the formulation of corporate strategy. This could lead us to conclude that top management in both sectors are informing and providing lower management levels, including personnel in charge of T&D activities, with information regarding strategic issues without their having any active role or participation in designing or formulating them. Top management might not be taking T&D activities as one of their priorities in the formulation of corporate strategy, and this will prevent T&D personnel from a better participation in the integration processes.

8.2.2 Training and Development Policy and Plan in the Corporate Setting

The training policy/plan of an organisation is a part of the overall HRD plans and policies. The effectiveness of T&D depends on how well training policies and plans are developed and integrated into the organisation's strategy. Brown and Read (1984) argued that the primary issue has been that training policies need to be linked to organisational business strategy. Thus, without proper training plans and policies, T&D activities cannot address the actual organisational needs. Lack of proper guidelines and well-defined policies will result in the whole training effort being scattered and overlapped.

8.2.2.1 Training and Development Policy

Training policy is a strategic issue which sets the guidelines for proper implementation of training plans and programmes. This section starts by examining the nature and status of training policy in the Kuwaiti organisations, and the

responsibility of formulating this policy. First, the respondents were asked to determine the nature and status of training policy in their organisations. Table 8.4 shows the responses on the presence of a formal documented policy, who is responsible for formulating the policy, and the presence of a plan, the time frame, and coverage.

It could be seen that the majority of the government organisations (82%) had a formal/documented T&D policy. Less than half of the private/joint venture organisations (47.9%) reported the presence of a formal policy. The difference between the two sectors was significant at the $P < 0.01$ level ($\chi^2 = 14.979$). This would be expected from the previous findings (Section 8.2.1) where only half of the private/joint venture organisations had a HRD strategy. In addition, 17 organisations reported that their HRD strategy was part of their organisation strategy. Another factor is that in some organisations immediate priorities took precedence over long-term strategic T&D, especially when they relate to short-term investment.

On the other hand, some of these organisations claimed to have informal T&D policies. More than half of the private/joint venture organisations (53.1%) and 18% of government organisations had an informal/non-documented policy. The reason behind this may be that most of these organisations preferred an informal policy which gives them more flexibility and discretion. Based on these results and discussions, we come to know that the private/joint venture organisations in Kuwait have only recently recognised the importance of the training function as a separate provision.

In terms of the responsibility for formulating training policy, the training personnel reported that in 63.4% of the government organisations and 21.8% of the private/joint venture organisations, the training personnel or T&D department were responsible for determining T&D policies. This is probably due to the presence of a T&D unit within the organisation's structure. It was also noted that in 30.4% of the private/joint venture organisations this responsibility was devolved to the personnel/human resource department/division, probably due to the absence of a T&D unit in the organisation structure. In 9.8% and 39.1% of the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, top management was involved in T&D policies.

The responses generally show that training personnel in Kuwaiti government organisations are more directly involved in formulating the T&D policies of their respective organisations, while in the private/joint venture sector, top management are more actively engaged in determining their T&D policies. In conclusion, it could be said that in government organisations training personnel have more responsibility, and their T&D activities are less centralised than in the private/joint venture sector.

8.2.2.2 Training and Development Plans

The majority (90%, 45 organisations) of the government sector, and less than half (42%) of the organisations in the private/joint venture sector had T&D plans, as shown in Table 8.4. There was a significant difference between the two sectors at the $P < 0.01$ level. This is related to previous issues, such as having HRD strategy and having HRD strategy as a part of the overall organisation strategy. Another issue is

having a formal/documented training policy and whether immediate priorities take precedence over long-term strategic T&D. Both sectors in Kuwait seem to have short-term T&D plans. The long-term planning for future investment in HRD, such as career development and long-term training programmes, was mostly neglected.

Table 8.4 T&D policy and plan in corporate setting

		Public		Private/Joint		X2
		No	%	No	%	
T&D policy	Formal/documented	41	82	23	47.9	14.979 **
	Not formal/documented	9	18	26	53.1	
T&D plan	Yes	45	90	21	42	24.750 **
	No	5	10	29	58	
Period	Annual	35	77.8	18	85.8	1.110
	2-5 years	6	13.4	1	4.8	
	Others	4	8.6	2	9.5	

** Significant at $P < 0.01$ level.

Table 8.4 also shows that 35 government organisations (77.8%) and 18 private/joint venture organisations (85.8%) had annual training plans. It is also noted that in the government sector 13.4% (6 organisations) had 2-5 years training plans. In the private/joint venture sector only one organisation reported having a 2-5 years training plan. That is to say, although the majority of the two sectors had strategies, policies and plans related to T&D, future vision and long-term planning for T&D are not given sufficient attention. This is true in terms of financial and human resources, and time to achieve better and comprehensive long-term planning.

The responses of the training personnel generally show that in the majority of organisations (80.3%) in both sectors in the Kuwait setting, T&D plans were carried out and implemented by their own T&D department/division. Only 10.6% (7

organisations) devolved this responsibility to their personnel/human resource department/division. Top and line managers or other senior non-board members participated in implementing T&D plans in 9.1% of the organisations. That is to say, training personnel were directly involved in both determining and implementing the T&D plans of their respective organisations, whereas top and other senior managers were less involved in such processes. These findings support the previous results (Section 6.2.1.2) where both sectors have an independent T&D department/division within their organisation structure.

As for the level to which T&D planning relates, the respondents were asked to determine the level of management, which the T&D plans accommodate. In the government training personnel in 30 organisations (66.7%) were giving equal priorities to all levels, including top management, followed by middle and lower management level, reported for 11 organisations (26.6%). On the other hand, for the private/joint venture sector 30% of the training personnel (6 organisations) reported all levels followed by middle and lower levels (20%, 4 organisations), and technical/clerical level (30%, 6 organisations). The situation in the government sector was not different from that in the private/joint venture sector. It is concluded that the two sectors were interested to include all levels in their T&D plans, and private/joint venture sector organisations were giving more training to technical/clerical personnel. This is expected from the nature of their work since most of them were involved in investment, banking and industry.

Bailey (1998) argues that T&D needs change. In the early stages of T&D focus on technical skills and career development may be most important. He further

argues that there is always an increased need for programmes that promote leadership and management skills development down the line. Empirical evidence was provided by Saari et al. (1988) in a national survey of management training practices. Only 27% of the participants in the survey indicated that a needs assessment was conducted, training was mostly restricted to training the lower levels of management.

8.2.2.3 Characteristics of T&D policies and plans

The need to link the T&D policies and plans to the corporate strategy, policies and plans have been advised by writers like Michael (1993) and Temporal (1990). The characteristics of the T&D policies and plans in Kuwait were investigated in terms of two main aspects. First, whether T&D policies and plans were linked to the corporate formal system. Second, the features that shape the characteristics of T&D policies and plans within the organisations. Once again, the respondents selected a response from a Likert five-point scale, with 1 representing “strongly disagree”, 5 representing “strongly agree”. This section was designed to bring forth the extent to which the T&D plans were seen by training personnel as part of the corporate formal system (strategic planning process, rules, regulations). Results are summarised in Table 8.5. The figures given below show only the response of “agree” and “strongly agree”.

On whether the organisations link the process of development and change to T&D programmes, 30 (61.2%) of the personnel from the government organisations agreed, and 4 (8.2 %) strongly agreed with the statement that this is being followed. With the private/joint venture organisations, 30 respondents (60.0%) agreed, and 5 (10.0%) strongly agreed. Whether the training policies are in harmony with the

organisation's personnel policies (e.g. recruitment, salaries, promotion, security of development, etc.), 15 respondents from government organisations (30.0%) agreed, and 2 (4.0%) strongly agreed. A large proportion (19, 38%) disagreed. With the private/joint venture organisations, 13 (26.0%) agreed and 2 (4.0 %) strongly agreed. A large proportion 19 (38%) had no opinion, due to the absence of T&D policies or plans. On whether the policies and plans for T&D were inspired by the organisation's policies and plans, 33 (66.0%) of the respondents from the government agreed, and 6 (12.0%) strongly agreed. With the private/joint venture organisations, 15 (30.0%) agreed, and 6 (12.0%) strongly agreed. Whether T&D plans include all T&D needs (technical/managerial) 29 (58.0%) and 8 (16.0%) from the government organisations either agreed or strongly agreed. The corresponding figures for the private/joint venture organisations were 14 (28.0%) and 5 (10.0%). A large proportion, 19 (38%) had no opinion, due to the absence of T&D policies or plans.

It is clear from the responses that both sectors in Kuwait have linked their T&D policies and plans to the corporate formal system. That is to say, training personnel had a high perception of the T&D dimension. There is coherence between Kuwaiti corporate formal systems and the nature of T&D programmes. The majority of respondents from both sectors reported the presence of a link between the process of development and change and T&D programmes. Similarly, the results also showed that the majority of respondents from the government sector reported that their T&D policies and plans were inspired by the organisation's policies and plans. Also, they believed that their T&D plans were accommodating all the T&D needs, and those who had T&D policies and plans in the private/joint venture organisations also responded positively.

On the other hand, human resource planning decides the organisation's personnel policies on recruitment, promotion and development. These factors have a direct effect on the training activities. For example, the recruitment policy may determine what type of training has to be provided and to whom. In this regard, the responses indicated that less than half of the respondents in the government sector (34%) reported that their training policies are in harmony with their personnel policies. Similarly, less than half of the respondents in the private/joint venture sector (30%) agreed that their training policies are related to personnel policies. Surprisingly, both sectors agreed that their T&D programmes inspired by the organisation's overall development plans; however, the majority of the respondents in both sectors reported that their training policies were not in harmony with their organisation's personnel policies. As cited by 48% and 32%, in the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively.

No significant difference was found between the two sectors in term of linking T&D policies and plans to their corporate formal system. However, the government sector in Kuwait seems to link T&D policies and plans to the corporate formal system more than the private/joint venture sector. As indicated, T&D policies and plans were more inspired by the organisation's policies and plans and their T&D plans accommodate all training and development needs, as shown by the higher positive responses, compared with private/joint venture sector. This is probably due to many private organisations having no T&D policies and plans. The private/joint venture sector showed higher positive responses, compared to the government sector, in terms of linking the process of development and change to T&D programmes.

These results indicate that the private/joint sector is more pro-active, innovative and willing to change in parallel with their required training needs to cope with changes compared to the government sector. Government organisations are often criticised for having rigid rules, and being bureaucratic and less eager to change. Another interesting result is that the both sectors also showed not much awareness of their human resources regarding their career development and motivations through the integration between the T&D policies and personnel policies. Facticeau et al. (1992) argued that managers and supervisors who had completed a management training curriculum reported a higher motivation to learn the training content if they had positively considered a strategy for their careers.

The latter findings are also in conformity with the earlier results (Section 8.2.1.2), and would be explained by the fact that 46.9% of the respondents from the investigated organisations in government and 44.9% from the private/joint venture sector reported that they have access to their organisations' objectives and strategies. This can be expected from the high status of the personnel in charge of T&D within their organisations. As stated by the respondents when they were asked to locate their management status within the organisation's hierarchy, almost 96% of the training personnel were of middle or top management levels (Section 6.2.2.6). This explains why training personnel have access to their organisation strategy and objectives. In conclusion, training personnel perceived that there is congruence between their organisational corporate formal systems and T&D functions/programmes. Kozlowski and Salas (1997) emphasised the crucial role of the integration process for the human resource systems. They stated that "organisations that integrate human resource planning and human resource systems with their long and short- term strategic plans

are more likely to enact congruent contextual systems that support training and facilitate transfer”.

For the second aspects of this section, the respondents were asked to describe the features that shape the characteristics of their T&D policy and plan. Whether they had an HRD strategy, a formal or informal T&D policy, and a T&D plan in their organisations. The given characteristics required the respondents to select a response from 1 to 5 on a Likert five-point scale, as explained earlier.

The results summarised in Table 8.5 indicate that on one hand both sectors in Kuwait have adopted workable and measurable T&D policies and plans. Also T&D plays a role in supporting strategies to achieve the goals of the organisations. This is necessary and important to operational success and can offer even greater strategic value. Moreover, the government sector showed a higher score than the private/joint venture sector in both these aspects. As regards the T&D policies and plans, the government sector had applied and designed workable T&D policies and plans. This was seen from the high rating of the respondents (70%). Plans were flexible to handle unpredictable circumstances (84%), fulfilled actual training needs and T&D objectives (64%), and were congruent with the organisation’s culture (76%). With the private/joint venture sector, the responses showed that plans were seen to be relatively less effective. The corresponding figures were 34.6%, 40%, 28%, and 68.8%, respectively. Also, no opinion was cited by 49%, 56%, 44% and 16.7%, respectively.

Table 8.5 Perceptions of training managers of T&D policies and plans within investigated organisations.

	Sector	S. disagree		Disagree		No opinion		Agree		S. Agree		X ²
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
T&D linked with organisation development	Public	0	0	7	14.3	8	16.3	30	61.2	4	8.2	.234
	Private/Joint	0	0	8	16	7	14	30	60	5	10	
T&D policies in harmony with personnel policies	Public	5	10	19	38	9	18	15	30	2	4	5.758
	Private/Joint	2	4	14	28	19	38	13	26	2	4	
T&D inspired by organisation policies & plans	Public	2	4	5	10	4	8	33	66	6	12	12.750 **
	Private/Joint	2	4	7	14	20	40	15	30	6	12	
T&D plans include TN	Public	3	6	7	14	3	6	29	58	8	16	18.291 **
	Private/Joint	2	4	10	20	19	38	14	28	5	10	
T&D policies & plans workable	Public	1	2	6	12	8	16	29	58	6	12	16.168 **
	Private/Joint	1	2	7	14.3	24	49	11	22.4	6	12.2	
T&D policies & plans flexible	Public	1	2	1	2	6	12	32	64	10	20	27.092 **
	Private/Joint	0	0	2	4	28	56	10	20	10	20	
T&D policies & plans fulfil TN	Public	1	2	8	16	9	18	26	52	6	12	14.830 **
	Private/Joint	3	6	11	22	22	44	13	26	1	2	
T&D policies & plans congruent with culture	Public	2	4	4	8	6	12	34	68	4	8	1.649
	Private/Joint	3	6.3	4	8.3	8	16.7	27	56.3	6	12.5	

** Significant at P<0.01, and * at P<0.05 level.

The χ^2 values showed that there were statistically significant differences between the two sectors in terms of whether the deployed T&D plan has achieved to a great extent the actual training needs in the organisations. As indicated, the government sector scored higher compared to the private/joint venture sector in this respect. In fact, this confirmed the above findings that the government T&D plans were better prepared and integrated into the overall organisation formal system, whereas the private/joint venture sector showed a weak link between the comprehensive analysis of organisational needs and T&D plan.

Torraco and Swanson (1994) stated that planning should be based on an accurate assessment of current and achievable levels of employee expertise. This would add a valuable dimension to the strategic planning process. The above discussion suggests that T&D functions in Kuwait were adopted in terms of HRD strategy, and T&D policies and plans were in line with the directives of the organisations. However, it is clear that there is need for extra work to improve the quality of the existing T&D policies and plans. This in turn will enhance the integration process and give the training personnel a more active participation in setting strategic functions, with a real support from top management.

8.3 Organisational factors

8.3.1 Co-ordination and mutual understanding between training personnel and line managers regarding T&D activities

The line manager has a crucial role to play in the training and development functions. The line manager/training staff relationship is a prerequisite crucial to the success of any training activity. In all organisations, line managers have the

responsibility for providing the support necessary for the training specialists so that they can perform their duties in an effective manner. Unfortunately, line managers often assume that training should be a panacea for all managerial and organisational problems. Therefore, a clear understanding between line managers and training specialists on issues related to the organisation's problems is crucial in order to distinguish between the problems that require training intervention and those for which training has no relevance.

This section deals with the level of co-ordination and mutual understanding between training personnel and line managers in term of their attitude and willingness to support the T&D activities/programmes. The results are summarised in Table 8.6. The responses related to this section were elicited by presenting the following statements to the training personnel.

As to whether the relationship between training personnel and line managers was based on mutual understanding and an exchange of ideas to solve problems related to human resource development, within the government organisations 86% agreed or strongly agreed with this; the proportion of those in the private/joint venture organisations was 78%. Whether line managers facilitate T&D activities, and provide advice, monitoring and support, 83.6% of those respondents in the government organisations and 76% in the private/joint venture organisations agreed or strongly agreed with this. Whether line managers appreciate the value of T&D and are keen to work with internal and external training staff, and if their attitude towards T&D is characterised by a high level of commitment, associated with a high level of

Table 8.6 Mutual understanding and support of top management (TM) and line managers (LM) for T&D

	Sector	S. disagree		Disagree		No opinion		Agree		S. Agree		X ²
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
LM understand	Public	1	2	6	12	0	0	33	66	10	20	4.548
	Private/Joint	3	6	5	10	3	6	28	56	11	22	
LM facilitate	Public	0	0	5	10.2	3	6.1	35	71.4	6	12.2	3.452
	Private/Joint	3	6	5	10	4	8	31	62	7	14	
LM appreciate	Public	0	0	12	24.5	3	6.1	28	57.1	6	12.2	5.492
	Private/Joint	3	6	10	20	6	12	22	44	9	18	
LM release	Public	0	0	8	16.3	7	14.3	28	57.1	6	12.2	5.180
	Private/Joint	2	4	10	20	9	18	19	38	10	20	
TM believe	Public	1	2	8	16	3	6	28	56	10	20	2.169
	Private/Joint	0	0	6	12	4	8	26	52	14	28	
TM provide	Public	0	0	13	26	4	8	26	48	7	14	8.732
	Private/Joint	0	0	4	8	10	20	24	48	12	24	
TM invest	Public	1	2.1	6	12.5	5	10.4	27	56.3	9	18.8	2.852
	Private/Joint	0	0	6	12	9	18	23	46	12	24	
TM encourage	Public	1	2	8	16	4	8	26	52	11	22	5.567
	Private/Joint	1	2	2	4	9	18	26	52	12	24	
TM satisfy	Public	1	2	12	24.5	2	4.1	27	55.1	7	14.3	4.353
	Private/Joint	1	2	7	14	7	14	26	52	9	18	
TM maintain budget	Public	3	6.3	13	27.1	4	8.3	25	52.1	3	6.3	16.154 **
	Private/Joint	0	0	12	25.5	14	29.8	12	25.5	9	19.1	

** Significant at P<0.01 level.

understanding of what T&D is trying to achieve, received agreement or strong agreement from 69.3% of the government and 62% of the private/joint venture organisations. On whether line managers were willing to release employees for training programmes despite their workload, the respondents who agreed or strongly agreed were 69.3% from the government and 58% from the private/joint venture sector. The percentages of training personnel who supported the above arguments were generally quite high.

The majority of the respondents in the organisations investigated in the two sectors in Kuwait were of the opinion that the line managers were co-operative and showed mutual understanding and willingness to solve any problems related to T&D activities. A similar proportion reported that line managers were appreciative and gave support, advice, and monitoring, and were keen to work with training staff (internal/external). Harrison (1997) argued that trainers need to win the full confidence of line managers and to work with them as partners in delivering performance, if they going to be more than project managers or purchasing officers.

On the other hand, the respondents showed a lower perception in regard to the willingness of line managers to release their employees for training programmes on account of the workload. However, Kuwaiti training personnel were inclined to support the view that the relationship between training personnel and other line managers is based on mutual understanding of the necessity of the development of the organisations' human resource. Richard, James and George (1997, p.16), describe the role of managers by emphasising the manger-employee relationship as "managers can

provide a steering function for future actions and perceptions in the workplace by referring to employees as team members (instead of workers or subordinates), and supervisors as team leaders or facilitators”.

There were no statistically significant differences between the two sectors at the $P < 0.05$ level, in term of evaluation of line managers’ co-operation and support of T&D activities/programmes. However, line managers in the government sector were reported to show a higher level of commitment, support and eagerness to work with training personnel in regard to T&D issues. According to the training personnel opinion, line managers in Kuwait were showing appreciation of T&D efforts, not only by mutual understanding and a positive attitude, but also provided advice and monitoring. They showed willingness to work with training staff and did not hesitate to release their employees to participate in training programmes. The results generally indicate that training personnel believed that their relationship with line managers is based on mutual understanding and co-operation. This included exchanging ideas to solve problems related not only to T&D, but to HRD as well.

8.3.2 Top management commitment

Top-level management commitment is a critical factor for the implementation and maintenance of T&D activities. This will affect the success or failure of any T&D programmes. Several writers and academics support this view (Taylor, 1996; Armstrong, 1992; Pettigrew et al, 1988). Therefore it is important that before starting any T&D activities top management support must be ensured. In this context, top management commitment towards T&D was examined in both sectors in Kuwait. The

respondents were asked to indicate their point of view regarding top management support within their organisations.

Further statements were given to respondents to indicate their perception of top management support for T&D. The responses of these training personnel as regard the attitudes of top management are also shown in Table 8.6. The results generally reflect an optimistic perception of training personnel of top management commitment. The proportion of those who agreed or strongly agreed in the government sector that top management believed in the important role of T&D activities in the organisation's overall performance, amounted to 76%. The proportion of the respondents with this opinion in the private organisations was higher (80%). A slightly lower proportion of the respondents in the government (62%) and in the private/joint venture organisations (72%) agreed that top management were committed to support and provide all facilities to T&D activities.

That top management commitment resulted in effective investment of time, effort, and money was agreed or strongly agreed by 75.1% of the respondents in the government and 70% from the private/joint venture organisations. Whether top management encourage individuals to develop themselves and create the proper environment where the newly acquired skills can be implemented, was agreed or strongly agreed by 74% and 76% of the respondents in the government and private/joint venture sectors, respectively. Top management commitment and support was seen as satisfactory by 69.4% and 70% of the respondents from the government and private/joint venture sectors, respectively. On the question of budget cuts there was the least agreement by the respondents from both the government (58.4%) and

the private/joint venture sector (44.6%). Eventhough, some companies still interested in investing in training as found by Ganzel, et al. (1998). In their study of 171 companies, found 77% of the executives said their companies plan to increase funding for training over the next two years, despite the lack of management support.

Although, it was noted there was a top management commitment to T&D activities in both sectors. All perceptions of commitment were based on training managers' points of view on the aforementioned statements. In reality, not all commitments came to practical or partly involvement. This was observed to be due to low perception of training personnel regarding top management commitment towards training budget. As for example take this point of the report that, "top management provides all the facilities to T&D activities, including the financial support and solving problems and conflicts which affect T&D activities". If this the case then competition for training budget allocation might not be affected in more serious cuts in comparison with allocation of other budgets in difficult financial times. This is to say, top management commitment is highly perceived by training personnel in terms of their attitude and beliefs, but without effective involvement at ground level, without the proper facilities (financially/technically) or personnel, training activities will only be carried out in a half-hearted and ineffective way.

On the other hand, no statistically significant differences between the two sectors in Kuwait in terms of perception of top management commitment towards T&D activities/programmes were found. The only exception was the case of budget cuts, where the proportion of managers from the government sector who gave a favourable response was significantly higher ($X^2=16.154$). However, the private/joint

venture sector produced a higher positive score to several other statements. That is to say, top management in the private/joint venture sector were more aware of the importance of the T&D functions for their organisation's growth and they are more acceptable of the changes. Another reason is that most of the investigated organisations have established their T&D functions recently, therefore top management were not expecting a quick comprehensive outcome of a formal T&D system. Just providing training is not enough; in order to gain the full benefit, a supportive environment has to be created where the newly acquired skills can be implemented (Temporal, 1990).

The lower perception of top management attitude towards training budget allocation, especially in difficult financial times, is probably because top management views any activities in the organisation in terms of benefits and revenues. A recent finding of the Economic and Social Research Council (1994) about small firm initiatives shows that there is no evidence that training pays off (Gibb, 1997). Unfortunately, there is no attempt in the published research to provide a positive evidence, other than a minor review (Storey, 1994). So, T&D activities should be able to demonstrate clearly the benefits to individuals in particular and enhancement of productivity in general. Otherwise, in difficult times, when resources are constrained, competition for budget is likely to result in serious cuts in training budgets, especially when organisational goals and employee development are not perceived as being achieved properly. According to the results of a recent training survey, training departments that are not forced to cut back are usually those that get a great deal of pressure for their willingness to invest in people. Also, most of the training directors

whose budgets are cut are those who have not met specific business needs or do not work for a top management that is convinced of the necessity of training (Beverly, 1991).

8.3.3 Supportive formal system

A formal system refers to the situational factors which define characteristics of the environment and may interfere with or restrict individuals' performance. These include tangible factors such as (a) adequacy of job-related information, (b) tools and equipment, (c) financial and budgetary support, (d) material and supplies, (e) time availability (Mathieu and Martineau, 1997).

Situational constraints may operate in a two-fold fashion; first, constraints may inhibit individual's motivation if they do not believe that they will be able to use what they are being taught. Second, constraints will likely moderate the extent to which what was learned in training will be transferred to the job setting. Rouiller and Goldstein (1993, p.5) examined the impact of the organisation's climate for transfer of training, defined as "those work group policies, practices, and procedures that affect how trainees perceive the worthiness of utilising their new skills". Therefore, a crucial point is that congruence between relevant organisational context factors at the higher level and targeted training content will moderate training transfer and improve performance, whereas inconsistent content will have little likelihood for expression and transfer. Kozlowski and Salas (1997) thus stated that the congruence of different individual factors with targeted training content will moderate training transfer.

This part was designed to measure training personnel perception of the situational factors represented by the formal system -environment and culture- that could affect T&D activities, as well as the trainee's motivation in participating in training programmes within the Kuwaiti organisations. The statements (as shown in Table 8.7) were provided to the respondents of the two sectors in order to explore the impact of their formal system on training activities and motivation. Table 8.7, shows the results are summarised.

The results of all statements are summarised in Table 8.7. For T&D programmes to be effective, they should be directed in such way, so as to enhance or change the culture of the organisation. This was strongly approved by 93.8% of the respondents from the government organisations, and 83.6% of the private/joint venture organisations. No one disagreed with this statement from the government sector; however, 8.2% of the respondents from the private/joint venture sector disagreed.

Whether the incentives in the organisation formal system (e.g. promotion) encourage individuals to participate in T&D programmes, was agreed or strongly agreed by 56% of the government and 62% of the private/joint venture sector respondents. A smaller proportion of the respondents from the government (38%) and the private/joint venture organisations (24%) disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Whether the organisation environment and the formal system help employees to apply what they have learned in T&D programmes was agreed by 72% in the government and 84% of the private/joint venture sectors. Whether the level of

Table 8.7 Formal system impact on training and motivation within investigated organisations

	Sector	S. disagree		Disagree		No opinion		Agree		S. Agree		X ²
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Enhance culture	Public	-	-	-	-	3	6.1	33	67.3	13	26.5	4.452
	Private/Joint	-	-	4	8.2	4	8.2	30	61.2	11	22.4	
Incentives to participant in T&D	Public	9	18	10	20	3	6	25	50	3	6	8.544
	Private/Joint	1	2	11	22	7	14	29	58	2	4	
Environment to apply T&D learning	Public	3	6	4	8	7	14	34	68	2	4	2.889
	Private/Joint	1	2	2	4	5	10	38	76	4	8	
Authority of T&D Personnel	Public	1	2	8	16	3	6	32	64	6	12	7.828
	Private/Joint	2	4.1	13	26.5	9	18.4	19	38.8	6	12.2	
Belief in experience versus T&D	Public	9	18	29	58	6	12	5	10	1	2	3.393
	Private/Joint	12	24	20	40	8	16	8	16	2	4	
Organisation culture encourages T&D	Public	2	4	9	18	4	8	32	64	3	6	1.199
	Private/Joint	3	6.1	7	14.3	5	10.2	29	59.2	5	10.2	

authority of T&D personnel is sufficient to carryout the job requirements for more effective and efficient T&D, the proportion of those that agreed or strongly agreed amounted to 76% in the government, and 51% in the private/joint venture sectors.

Whether T&D receives scant attention due to the strong belief among managers that the best way to learn is through experience, was not supported by the majority of respondents from the government (76%), or the private/joint venture sectors (64%). Only 12% of the government sector respondents and 20% of the private/joint venture responses went along with this idea. Whether organisational culture (beliefs, values, understanding) and environment encourage T&D activities was agreed by 70% and 69.4% of the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively.

As shown in the table, the respondents in both sectors held a high perception of the support of their formal system for T&D activities. Again, the strong link between corporate formal systems and the nature of T&D programmes was reported. This degree of congruence indicated that the training programmes had been tailored to the organisational needs and training was put into practice upon return to the work setting. However, the influence of the work environment on transfer of training has been empirically examined by relatively few studies to date. Some recent research and theorising suggest that creating a sense of optimism and capitalising on motivational variables in training can enhance transfer of training back to the target environment (Holton, 1996; Karl and Ungsrithong, 1992).

In this context, as was found earlier (Chapter 7), the majority of the investigated organisations in both sectors which formally assessed their training needs tended to include all levels of assessment (task, person, organisation). Therefore, it can be said that there is congruence between the corporate formal system and the nature of T&D programmes. Needless to say, the more T&D programmes are coherent with actual training needs, the more the capabilities in achieving organisational goals, eventually encouraging the formal management system to support T&D activities.

Again, the majority of respondents believed that there was a high incentive to encourage individuals to participate in T&D programmes, such as monetary incentives, promotion, and solving problems or creating a productive environment. For employees, skill-based pay systems reward them for developing new skills and having the opportunity to perform a wider variety of jobs. Trainees will likely be more motivated to attend, learn, and apply training when doing so is consistent with the overall organisational reward system (Mathieu and Martineau, 1997).

Other points were cited by the majority of the respondents presenting the formal system and environment support in terms of helping employees to apply what they have learned in the training programmes. Perception of T&D programmes as the best method to learn through training and not through experience was high. A sufficient level of authority was needed to conduct T&D activities. If there is a lack of authority, or training is administered by an independent entity or by a training division isolated from the rest of organisation, trainers simply do not have contact with trainees once training is over. In other cases, the lag between completion of a training

programme and receipt of post-training information by training personnel is too long for the information to be of use in modifying the training regimen (Ghodsian et al., 1996). The results also show that the organisation's culture is congruent and supportive to T&D efforts and programmes, and the majority of respondents support and advocate that T&D programmes should be directed to enhance or change the culture of the organisation if these T&D programmes are to be effective. Moreover, most of the respondents stated that organisational culture (beliefs, values, understanding) encourages T&D activities. Thus, corporate culture is a sensitive as well as problematic issue in the T&D literature (e.g. changing a culture is not an easy task, further adopting of any new system may fail if it goes against the prevailing culture, and it is also affected by the surrounding environment and society). Therefore, having an appropriate culture is essential for the success of T&D programmes.

In conclusion, the formal system in Kuwaiti organisations seems to provide trainees with the opportunity to apply what they have learned from their T&D programmes. However, the trainees' willingness and ability to perform may not translate into performance improvements if the situation inhibits their efforts and the whole efforts of T&D functions will be wasted. Kopelman, Brief and Guzzo (1990) suggested that having sufficient supplies, materials, equipment, services, and resources necessary to perform one's job will yield higher employee motivation, whereas lack of these facilities would create frustration. In the same manner, Noe and Wilk (1993) found that constraints inhibited managers' participation in development activities.

On the other hand, the majority of training personnel perceived a congruence and supportive link between T&D programmes and objectives and the organisation's culture. Mathieu and Martineau (1997, p.211) stated that "Trainees who come from work environments that are supportive of what is targeted in training will likely: (a) report greater pretraining motivation; and (b) evidence greater transfer of training, as compared with trainees who come from a less supportive environment".

8.3.4 Perceived mechanisms of T&D approach and importance

This section will examine other forces at work in the organisational system. These include the attitude and perception of the persons who actually implement the process of a systematic approach to training. Whether an innovation is successfully used depends on the attitudes of the individuals who implement it (Lewis and Seibold, 1993). Thus, a positive attitude of training professionals is likely to influence a rational approach to training and have an impact on the success of any attempt to implement and conduct training programmes.

Another set of statements were given to the training personnel in order to disclose their perceptions of the mechanism of the T&D system approach to training within their organisations. 1. Whether T&D programmes could improve employees' capabilities and help the improvement of the total organisation's performance. 2. If Organisation emphasises that its T&D programmes are built upon a systematic approach rather than an ad hoc process. 3. What individuals have learned on external training courses can not be applied when they return to their work because these courses are not tailored to the actual organisation's needs. 4. Whether organisation's

system approach to training often fails to make significant impact on performance, because it is introduced in a piecemeal fashion. 5. If T&D programmes help in imparting organisation culture to employees. 6. Whether T&D programmes and the development of employees give them an opportunity to learn the necessary skills and knowledge which are required to cope with change in technology and use modern management approaches, 7. Without well-organised T&D programmes, organisations could not carry out the necessary changes and development plans. 8. Whether organisation realises that recent dramatic changes in technology product/services require more T&D programmes The responses (in percentage) to these statements are presented in Table 8.8.

Job involvement relates most positively to training-related outcomes when the programme is designed to improve performance on central aspects of their current job. Trainees who possess important content-related knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) are likely to perform better in training than those with lower requisite KSAs (Mathieu and Martineau 1997). Clark (1990) found that job involvement related positively to training motivation across a diverse set of training programmes. In other words, highly job-involved individuals participate actively in the job and view their jobs as a central interest in their lives.

That the mechanism of the T&D system approach to training was based on a systematic approach rather than an ad hoc process was agreed by 81.6% of the government, and 64% of the private/joint venture sector respondents. No opinion was cited by 10.2% and 12% in the government and private sectors, respectively. Not surprisingly, the results also show that the T&D programmes were capable of

Table 8.8 Perceived mechanism of T&D approach and its importance in the investigated organisations

Sector	S. disagree		Disagree		No opinion		Agree		S. Agree		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
T&D give new skills and knowledge	-	-	2	4	1	2	27	54	20	40	2.266
	-	-	3	6	-	-	22	44	25	50	
T&D tailored to training needs	14	28.6	21	42.9	3	6.1	8	16.3	3	6.1	9.090
	15	30	25	50	8	16	1	2	1	2	
T&D piecemeal	6	12	26	52	6	12	12	24	-	-	6.562
	10	20	24	48	9	18	5	10	2	4	
T&D imparting culture	2	4	5	10	3	6	35	70	5	10	5.460
	2	4	5	10	11	22	28	56	4	8	
T&D necessary change/development	1	2	5	10	-	-	25	50	19	38	7.248
	1	2	9	18	5	10	21	42	14	28	
T&D improving performance	-	-	2	4	-	-	31	62	17	34	4.562
	-	-	5	10.2	2	4.1	31	63.3	11	22.4	
Organisation stresses T&D systematic	2	4.1	2	4.1	5	10.2	30	61.2	10	20.4	7.535
	1	2	11	22	6	12	24	48	8	16	
Organisation realises need more T&D	3	6	3	6	4	8	29	58	11	22	.327
	3	6	3	6	3	6	28	56	13	26	

improving employees' and organisations' performance. This was cited by the majority of respondents from the government (96%) and the private sector (85.7%) who agreed or strongly agreed with this. None strongly disagreed; only 4% from the government and 10.2% from the private/joint venture sectors disagreed.

On the other hand, 71.5% and 80% of the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, stated that the programmes were tailored to the actual organisation needs. A smaller proportion, 64% of the government and 68% of the private/joint venture organisations, thought that T&D was not introduced in a piecemeal and had a significant impact on performance. For 80% of the government sector and 64% of the private/joint venture respondents, T&D helped in imparting organisational culture to employees.

It was also noted that the respondents have agreed that T&D programmes and the development of employees give them an opportunity to learn the necessary skills and knowledge which are required to cope with change in technology and use modern management approaches was cited by 94% in both sectors. 88% and 70% of respondents in government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, indicated that without well-organised T&D programmes, organisations could not carry out the necessary changes and development plans. That the organisation realises that recent dramatic changes in technology product/services require more T&D programmes was agreed by the majority of respondents, as cited by 80% and 82% in government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively.

8.4 Implementation factors

8.4.1 Budgeting for T& D

A T&D budget is an essential tool to achieve any training goals and plays a main part in the success or failure of training programmes, if it is sufficient and implemented appropriately. However, training is often seen as an expensive proposition. It still shows up on the cost side of most accounting ledgers. As a result, the training department is often on the defensive, justifying the money spent to improve the skills of employees and, ultimately, to improve the organisation's overall performance.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter One, a 1990 survey was revealed that the biggest challenge corporate chair-people see in the coming decade is building and keeping a qualified workforce (Beverly,1991). Allocation of training budget in the investigated organisations, together with the adequacy and any changes in the budget, is summarised in Table 8.9. A high percentage of the government organisations (94%) had a separate budget for T&D. With the private/joint venture organisations 54% were allocated a training budget. The difference between the two sectors was significant at $P < 0.01$. This difference could be attributed to the government organisations having full support from the Kuwaiti government to comply with long-term strategy in developing Kuwaiti individuals. This is meant to enhance government productivity and quality of services, and is also consistent with the five-year plan, while private/joint venture organisations do not give priority for T&D. They are focusing on short-term investment and maximising their profits by cutting other expenses, including T&D. On the other hand, these organisations depend on hiring

skilled, experienced and qualified individuals, where training is not urgently required, unless for a new technology or system. In the same context, Flynn (1998) stated that companies that promote from within are generally going to need bigger training budgets than those which prefer hiring candidates who already have the necessary skills.

Table 8.9 Perceived allocation of training budget

		Public		Private/Joint		X2
		No	%	No	%	
Allocated budget	Yes	47	94	27	54	20.790 **
	No	3	6	23	46	
Sufficiency of budget	V. small extent	7	14.3	2	6.7	6.648
	Small extent	9	18.4	1	3.3	
	Medium extent	15	30.6	11	36.7	
	Great extent	12	24.5	13	43.3	
	V. great extent	6	12.2	3	10	
Budget changes	Cancelled	0	0	3	7.7	13.208 **
	Reduced	22	44.9	5	12.8	
	No change	12	24.5	12	30.8	
	Raised	15	30.6	19	48.7	

** Significant at P<0.01 level.

In regard to the sufficiency of the budget to achieve T&D objectives, the respondents were asked to determine whether their training budget is sufficient to conduct their training programmes effectively. In the government organisations, 30.6% of the respondents stated that the training budget was sufficient only to a medium extent. This is probably because the training budgets for most of the government organisations are allocated by the Civil Service Commission (CSC). The regulations and procedures of CSC generally allow little flexibility. In other words, budgets are centralised. With the private/joint venture organisations, the majority of the respondents (43.3%) thought that the training budget was sufficient to a great extent. They usually have more freedom in allocating their training budget according

to actual training needs. They also generally had a smaller number of employees who need to attend training programmes. This is expected, taking into consideration that not all organisations had a separate training budget and had to transfer funds from other organisation resources to T&D activities.

The following are proposed steps for the best investment in workforce development within the allocated training budget or facing cost reduction. First, the employees should have enough basic training for their duties, later teaching them how to find out about the more advanced features when they need them. Second, people who really need the training get it. Third, use job aids instead of training (written instructions) that employees take to job sites and use as references. Fourth, let employees stumble through tasks they seldom need to do. Fifth, use on-the-job training and train the trainer. Finally, training is performance rather than knowledge-based, where employees get time to practise their new skills when they get back to the job (Filipczak, 1996).

Regarding the responsibility for allocation of training budget, 17 organisations (36.2%) in the government sector reported that T&D and personnel departments were responsible for the decisions on the allocation of T&D budgets. Top management was not cited as frequently by respondents (7 organisations, 14.9%). It is worth recalling that most of the Kuwaiti CEO or other board member in the government organisations were not responsible for decisions on the allocation of T&D annual budget. Interestingly, in 12 (25.5%) of the government organisations, CSC determined the training budgets. In most cases, they did not meet their training objectives.

In private/joint venture organisations, responsibility for decisions on the allocation of T&D annual budget was nearly centralised in top management. This was cited by the majority of the respondents from 18 organisations (42.9%). Personnel and training managers were also involved to a lesser extent; this was reported for 8 organisations (19%). These are in line with the findings of the Tavistock Institute (1988) which reported that the chief executives were the most influential group in relation to training budgets, training volumes, and overall training philosophy.

This result is probably due to the fact that 23 organisations (46%) of the private/joint venture organisations did not have a separate training budget. In these organisations, the decisions come directly from top management, based on their views about the training needs. Most of these 33 organisations (66%) have no independent T&D department, and leave most of the key decisions regarding T&D activities to top management. Other areas were cited as responsible for the decision in the allocation of the T&D budget, although with fewer respondents. Senior management and finance department were cited by only 2 organisations (4.8%), both private/joint venture organisations. In the government organisations, none reported involving these two levels in the allocation of the annual training budget.

One of the most interesting results from this study is that the training budget continued to grow in the two sectors in Kuwait over the last three recent years (1994-1997). In the private/joint venture organisations, 19 organisations (48.7%) reported there was an increase in their training budget, whereas 15 organisations (30.6%) in the government sector reported so. On the other hand, 22 organisations (44.9%) in

the government sector reported a decrease in their training budget despite the full support of the government.

This is an indication of the importance of T&D as a separate managerial function in the private/joint venture organisations. Although the same concept is also held by government organisations, it was not followed. The reason for the reduction in their training budget is probably due to the government policy to reduce expenses due to the drop in oil revenues. The huge number of employees that should be trained may also contribute to this. Moreover, the return on the training is not clear, especially where the majority of the government organisations are working in the services where it is hard to measure the benefits from training in the short term.

In 1987, "Training" a 65,000 circulation trade monthly published by Minneapolis-based Lakewood Publications, Inc., surveyed readers to find out if training budgets are easy targets in any corporate cost-cut. It reported that even though trainers were paranoid about budget cuts, most of their departments did not suffer any worse than any other department in the companies reporting actual budget cutbacks. One third said training was treated less harshly than other departments. Just 20% said their budgets were cut more severely than those of other departments (Beverly, 1991).

Also, it is noted in Table 8.9 that 12 organisations in the government sector (24.5%), and 12 organisations in the private/joint venture sector (30.8%), reported no change in their training budget for the last three years. In short, it is clear that the optimistic view of the respondents which is of great importance in the training

functions is shown by an increase, or at least maintaining the budget at the same level during the last three years. These results are consistent to some extent with Peel's (1984), which indicate that most of the companies had training budgets, and most responding companies increased their training budget over the past five years. Similarly, "Training", estimates that US companies with 100 or more employees budgeted \$58.6 billion for training in 1997, as a 5% increase over 1996 (Calvacca, 1999).

8.4.1.1 Priority of Training Budget Allocation

Training personnel were asked to indicate which levels were given priority in spending training budget or other monitoring resources in Kuwaiti organisations. This was rated on a scale of "1" (very small) to "5" (very great). Respondents were asked to indicate their organisations first allocation priority of T&D resources. Results are shown in Table 8.10. Government and private/joint venture organisations seem to give low priority to training and developing their top management. Only 30.6% of the government and 26.6% of the private/joint venture organisations gave top priority to the top management. A larger proportion of the respondents in government and private/joint venture organisations, 62% and 57.4% respectively, gave priority to middle management. This result is consistent with a study conducted by Anonymous (1998) which stated that, in the past years, a little more than half of all training dollars have flowed towards programmes for managers and professionals.

Table 8.10 Priority of training budget allocation in investigated organisations.

Sector	V. Small		Small		Medium		Great		V. great		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Top management	11	22.4	13	26.5	10	20.4	10	20.4	5	10.2	1.677
	8	17.8	14	31.1	11	24.4	10	22.2	2	4.4	
Middle management	2	4	3	6	14	28	22	44	9	18	1.194
	2	4.3	4	8.5	14	29.8	22	46.8	5	10.6	
Supervisory	2	4.1	0	0	9	18.4	29	59.2	9	18.4	2.123
	3	6.4	1	2.1	11	23.4	26	55.3	6	12.8	
Professional	1	2.1	1	2.1	11	22.9	25	52.1	10	20.8	6.016
	7	14.9	2	4.3	11	23.4	18	38.3	9	19.1	
Clerical	1	2.1	6	12.5	11	22.9	19	39.6	11	22.9	16.877 **
	12	25.5	11	23.4	10	21.3	10	21.3	4	8.5	
Technical	1	2.2	1	2.2	3	6.5	23	50	18	39.1	14.135 **
	8	17	4	8.5	9	19.1	17	36.2	9	19.1	

** Significant at P<0.01 level.

On the other side, technical and supervisory levels were cited by 89.1% and 77.6% in the government organisations as receiving top priority. While in the private/joint venture organisations, these levels were cited by 55.3% and 68.1%, respectively. Thus, in conclusion, we can say that lower management levels and technical training were seen as a major target by the responding organisations. Beverly (1991), argues that when severe cutbacks hit a training department, it is not unusual that sales and technical training programmes are the last to go, they have greater visible impact on the company's performance than management training or personal development.

Another point is that the government sector seems to spend more on training for all mentioned levels than in the private/joint venture sector. This leads us to conclude that the latter sector prefers to appoint skilled and experienced people, where the question of training does not arise. Also, most of those employed are expatriates where there is no obligation to train them. On the other hand, in the government sector, training is urged and sufficient budget is required to train the low skilled and in-experienced people, due to the appointment policy and socio-cultural environment. The respondents tended to allocate a high proportion of training and development resources to technical and lower management rather than top and middle-management levels. Government organisations seem to spend a larger share of their T&D budget on technical training rated as first priority, while the private/joint venture organisations tended to allocate T&D budget to supervisory levels as first priority.

The differences between the two sectors were statistically significant in terms of clerical/secretarial and technical training. Government organisations placed significantly higher emphasis on allocating training budget regarding to these two levels, as shown by the $X^2=16.877$, $P<0.01$ and $X^2=14.135$, $P<0.01$, respectively.

These differences may be due to two factors. First, government organisations are working in services (e.g. water/electricity/communication) and large-scale industries (oil and petrochemicals). These require a highly technical staff to run them appropriately and efficiently in order to produce a high quality of services as well as products. Second, after the Iraqi invasion, the Board of the Civil Service in Kuwait placed great importance on the secretarial/clerical staff by providing training courses, curriculum in the educational system, and motivation (financial/promotion). This was because most of these jobs were employing foreigners before the invasion and very important information was revealed by them to the invaders. Therefore, for national security, the intention is to occupy all these positions with nationals. Interestingly, this concept is gaining wider reputation nowadays in the Kuwaiti environment.

8.4.2 T&D Programmes delivery and Implementation/Development

Following the discussion earlier of how the T&D activities were conducted within the organisations' structure, this section will focus on how T&D activities are delivered and implemented. First, the training personnel were asked to indicate whether their organisations do have a clear policy for selecting training providers (trainers/training centres). Second, to what extent the assistance is provided by

external management consultants or training providers. Third, how often these organisations use certain training techniques.

First, it was found that 87.5% of the government, and 56% of the private/joint venture organisations had a policy for trainer selection. Second, Table 8.11 shows the various kinds of assistance given by external trainers in the delivery of T&D programmes. It is seen from the table that 38.3% of respondents in government, and 28.3% of the private/joint venture organisations, have used this sort of assistance sometimes to make changes to already designed external T&D programmes to suit organisational needs. In regard to help to design T&D programmes from the beginning, it was reported that 34% of the government organisations used this sort of assistance sometimes, whereas 27.4% of the private/joint venture sector have never applied this sort of assistance. To provide the organisation with specialist experience in designing and implementing T&D programmes, many of government organisations (44.4%) have mostly used this sort of assistance, while of the private/joint venture organisations, 28.3% have never used this type of assistance.

Regarding implementing T&D programmes, 41.7% of the government organisations have used this sort of assistance mostly, whereas 28.3% in the private/joint venture organisations have used it sometimes. On the other hand, the majority of government and private/joint venture organisations have reported that they never used external assistance to evaluate the T&D programmes and review the content as was reported by 29.5% and 32.5% of the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively. McClelland (1993) however argues that an

Table 8.11 Co-operation with external training providers in investigated organisations

Sector	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		X ²
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Make changes to external T&D	6	12.8	4	8.5	18	38.3	13	27.7	6	12.8	2.582
	6	13	8	17.4	13	28.3	11	23.9	8	17.4	
Design programmes	5	10.6	5	10.6	16	34	13	27.7	8	17	12.323 **
	12	27.4	10	23.3	4	9.3	9	20.9	8	18.6	
Provide specialist experiences	5	11.1	0	0	10	22.2	20	44.4	10	22.2	14.494 **
	13	28.3	7	15.2	8	17.4	9	19.6	9	19.6	
Implement programmes	0	0	3	6.3	12	25	20	41.7	3	27.1	9.168 *
	7	15.2	3	6.5	13	28.3	12	26.1	11	23.9	
Evaluate & follow-up training	13	29.5	8	18.2	11	25	8	18.2	4	9.1	2.821
	15	32.5	5	10.9	8	17.4	10	21.7	8	17.4	
Provide regular training	4	8.9	8	17.8	10	22.2	17	37.8	6	13.3	3.530
	8	17.4	9	19.6	11	23.9	10	21.7	8	17.4	

** Significant at P<0.01, and * at P<0.05 level.

experienced professional will be of particular value during the assessment, design, implementation and analysis phases. In addition, a large proportion of the government organisations (51.4%) have mostly or always used assistance for training and teaching on a regular basis, in contrast with 39.1% of the private/joint venture organisations.

Anonymous (1998) found no evidence of a rush to outsource training services in US employers. The proportion of courses designed, developed and delivered by outside contractors (about a third) has not budged significantly. It was noted from the analysis above that both organisations have responded in slightly different ways as regards using these kinds of assistance. This is also consistent with the results obtained earlier. It is not surprising that the majority of government organisations believed that their T&D staff were not professionally trained, and also the number of T&D staff employed was not enough, whereas most of the private/joint venture organisations believed the opposite. Some of the private/joint venture organisations preferred to be more involved in delivering and conducting T&D programmes with relatively small assistance from outsiders, due to the kind of business they follow. This leads us to conclude that in private /joint venture organisations, the line managers are engaged in the development and delivery of T&D programmes.

8.4.2.1 Training techniques used by investigated organisations

All training techniques are useful, hence the appropriate ones should be taken into consideration in order to achieve the training goals and get a good result from the training. Therefore this part will investigate the training techniques applied by the government and private/joint venture sectors in Kuwait. In this context, and before

starting to shed light on the methods used, it is worth mentioning that many Arab writers and scholars have argued that training methods used in the Arab world are conventional and do not involve the trainees in the learning process (e.g. Atiyah, 1993; Durra, 1990).

Results of the training methods used by each sector in Kuwait are summarised in Table 8.12. The following training methods were cited as being used mostly/always (combined percentage). Lectures were the most common training method used. This was cited by 94% and 66% of the respondents in the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively. Coming next were audio-visual aids and group discussion, cited by 77.1% and 72.9% respondents in the government organisations, respectively. This was also reported by 53.1% and 52% respondents in the private/joint venture organisations, respectively.

Other training methods, such as management games, case study, role playing, special projects, fieldwork visits, brain-storming and job rotation were less commonly used, as indicated by the respondents in the two sectors. Similarly, Kerrigan and Luke (1987) found through their research that lecture, discussion, case studies, movies and films, and field visits are the most common methods used in formal training in less developed countries. That is to say, the training methods used in Kuwait are conventional to some extent, with little involvement of the trainees in the learning process despite the training personnel point of view. As 84% and 64% of the respondents from the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, had expressed their disagreement with the statement given, which argues that training providers use conventional training techniques.

Table 8.12 Training methods/techniques used by investigated organisations

	Sector	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		X ²
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Lectures	Public	0	0	2	4	1	2	18	36	29	58	16.793 **
	Private/Joint	3	6	3	6	11	22	19	38	14	28	
Management games	Public	5	10.4	12	25	15	31.3	5	10.4	11	22.9	15.311 **
	Private/Joint	20	40.8	8	16.3	11	22.4	7	14.3	3	6.1	
Case study	Public	1	2.1	4	8.3	13	27.1	16	33.3	14	29.2	13.461 **
	Private/Joint	10	20.4	5	10.2	18	36.7	11	22.4	5	10.2	
Special projects	Public	5	10.6	12	25.5	16	34	10	21.3	4	8.5	7.579
	Private/Joint	16	33.3	8	16.7	14	29.2	8	16.7	2	4.2	
Group discussion	Public	0	0	2	4.2	11	22.9	17	35.4	18	37.5	14.209 **
	Private/Joint	7	14	9	18	8	16	16	32	10	20	
Role playing	Public	5	10.4	7	14.6	13	27.1	11	22.9	12	25	11.929 *
	Private/Joint	16	33.3	10	21.8	11	22.9	8	16.7	3	6.3	
Brain-storming	Public	3	6.5	10	21.7	13	28.3	13	28.3	7	15.2	15.154 **
	Private/Joint	18	38.3	7	14.9	10	21.3	11	23.4	1	2.1	
Field visit	Public	4	8.3	10	20.4	21	43.8	8	16.7	5	10.4	6.030
	Private/Joint	12	24	11	22	16	32	9	18	2	4	
Audio-visual aids	Public	0	0	5	10.4	6	12.5	14	29.2	23	47.9	10.425 *
	Private/Joint	6	12.2	6	12.2	11	22.4	12	24.5	14	28.6	
Rotation	Public	10	22.7	13	29.5	10	22.7	8	18.2	3	6.8	2.461
	Private/Joint	10	20	9	18	16	32	10	20	5	10	
Computer	Public	2	4.2	5	10.4	18	37.5	16	33.3	7	14.6	6.367
	Private/Joint	7	14	10	20	13	26	13	26	7	14	

** Significant at P<0.01, and * at P<0.05 level.

The results are in line with the Arab writers' point of view (e.g. Attiyah, 1993; Durra, 1990). Also with the Anonymous (1998) findings that the classroom remains the workhorse of corporate education, where 88% of respondents say they use live instructors to deliver training. Another result supporting this argument, was given by Schaaf (1998), who found about one in four mentioned either computer training or training in some other form of current technology, when asked what kind of training not currently offered by their company would be of most value. However, training-based-technology has increased in nowadays and becomes very common. Multimedia and Internet Training Newsletter, cited by Greengard (1998) estimates industry spends \$55 billion on all employee training.

It has been seen that lecture, group discussion and audio-visual aids were the most common training methods used by the investigated organisations in both sectors. However, there is a statistically significant difference in the frequency of the use of lectures, management games, case study, special projects, group discussion, role playing, brain-storming, and audio-visual aids, between the two sectors. These differences are in favour of the government sector compared to the private/joint venture sector, as shown by a higher X^2 value for these training methods. That is to say, the government sector organisations are more involved in using more training methods than those used in the private/joint venture sector to get higher benefits from the overall trainee learning process. The differences between the two sectors in terms of using training methods were attributed to the fact that government organisations have more financial and personnel resources, and independent T&D departments. On the other hand, private/joint venture organisations tend to concentrate more on-the-job training due to their nature of work.

8.4.2.2 In-house T&D Programmes

The previous sections have discussed most organisations that have their own independent T&D division/department. This section discusses to what extent these organisations are offering their own in-house T&D programmes. Results are shown in Table 8.13. It was found that 94% of the government and 66% of the private/joint venture organisations offer in-house T&D programmes. It is also worth mentioning that 92% of respondents from the government organisations reported that they have a T&D department and that these are providing in-house T&D programmes. Obviously, the organisations which have independent T&D departments are more capable to handle their in-house T&D programmes (i.e. training centres with sufficient budget and specialised trainers and co-ordinators).

Table 8.13 In-house T&D programmes and estimated percentage of total training programmes

		Public		Private/Joint		X2
		No	%	No	%	
In-house T&D	Yes	47	94	33	66	12.250**
	No	3	6	17	34	
Percentage of in-house T&D	Less 20%	23	50	13	40.7	2.513
	20% to 60%	11	23.9	13	40.7	
	More 60%	12	26.1	6	18.7	

** Significant at P<0.01 level.

However, with the private/joint venture organisations 32% had an independent T&D department along with in-house T&D programmes. It was also noted that 34% of the organisations not having a T&D department were also providing in-house T&D programmes. This has been explained by respondents that there are few training

programmes on the market to suit their business requirements (e.g. aviation, highly sophisticated technology, security reasons, food, real-estate), and also due to budget constraints. Again, some organisations prefer their employees to participate in real-life situations, as on-the-job training (e.g. banking, investment). According to a recent authoritative study conducted by the Centre for Workforce Development, up to 70% of what employees know about their jobs they learn informally from the people they work with (cited by Stack, 1998).

The percentage of total in-house training programmes conducted internally by organisation's personnel in both sectors showed that 50% of the government and 40.7% of the private/joint venture organisations provided up to 20% of the total percentage of in-house training programmes. The table also shows that 23.9% and 40.7% of the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, provide between 20% and 60.0% of the overall needs. On the other hand, 26.1% and 18.7% of government and private/joint venture organisations seem to depend 60% or more on their in-house training programmes to fulfil their training needs. Thus we may conclude by saying that both the sectors (government and private/joint venture) in Kuwait are more dependent on external training programmes than on their own in-house training. However, it has been observed that governmental organisations show more dependence than private/joint venture organisations on in-house training to achieve human resources training needs.

8.5 Effectiveness of T&D in organisational growth

T&D is the foundation for improved performance and productivity. Without it, improvement efforts involving people would not be effective, (McClelland, 1993). Thus, T&D becomes an integral part of almost any productivity improvement effort. Such training and productivity improvement share common goals to develop performance in an individual, as well as organisation growth, thereby increasing efficiency, quality and output, while simultaneously reducing costs.

Therefore, this section will shed light on how T&D programmes impact on individuals as well as the investigated organisations. The results in Table 8.14 show substantial evidence of the value added by the application of T&D programmes to the organisations' development in both sectors in Kuwait. It is clear from the results that training and productivity are logical extensions of each other, as cited by 48% and 63.8% in the government and private/joint venture organisations, respectively, where they have agreed that T&D programmes have an impact on their productivity and efficiency. McClelland, (1993), has stated that it is improbable to produce improvements in human performance without relying on training.

In addition, the investigated organisations in both sectors have agreed that T&D has achieved their basic mission and objectives, as demonstrated by eliminating problems, increasing commitment and motivation, fulfilling individual needs and personal objectives, improving interpersonal and interdepartmental relations, improving quality of goods and services, and leading to effective utilisation and

Table 8.14 Impact of training activities/programmes on individual/organisation performance

	Sector	V. Small.		Small		Med.		Great		V. great		X ²
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Productivity & Efficiency	Public	4	8	3	6	9	18	26	32	8	16	.837
	Private/Joint	3	6.4	4	8.5	10	21.3	21	44.7	9	19.1	
Eliminated problems	Public	2	4	8	16	18	36	18	36	4	8	2.226
	Private/	3	6.4	7	14.9	12	25.5	19	40.4	6	12.8	
Increased motivation/commitment	Public	4	8	2	4	17	34	24	48	3	6	8.898
	Private/Joint	3	6.4	5	10.6	6	12.8	25	53.2	8	17	
Fulfilled individual needs/objectives	Public	2	4.1	1	2	17	34.7	26	53.1	3	6.1	3.005
	Private/Joint	4	8.5	2	4.3	12	25.5	23	48.9	6	12.8	
Improved social & organisational interrelations	Public	1	2	4	8	17	34	24	48	4	8	1.963
	Private/Joint	3	6.4	5	10.6	13	27.7	20	42.6	6	12.8	
Improved quality and services	Public	2	4	5	10	12	24	26	32	5	10	8.427
	Private/Joint	2	4.3	1	2.1	8	17	22	46.8	14	29.8	
Effective utilisation/investment of human resources	Public	2	4	6	12	8	16	25	50	9	18.8	1.597
	Private/Joint	2	4.3	4	8.7	6	13	21	45.7	13	28.3	

investment in human resources. As cited, 44% and 53.2%, 54% and 70.2%, 59.2% and 61.7%, 56% and 55.4%, 42% and 76.6%, and 68% and 74%, in the government and private/joint venture organisations respectively. It is noticed that private/joint venture sector scored higher than the government sector in terms of the effectiveness of T&D in their performance development. This was due to the fact that the private/joint venture sector is working in certain fields where the output is quantifiable and easy to measure, whereas for the government sector working in services, the output is more complicated to be measured.

This result is also consistent with the previous findings of the existence of an HRD strategy and links to organisation strategy. Winterton and Winterton (1996) found that management development is more likely to improve performance when it is linked with organisation strategy. That is to say, in an organisation where the HRD strategy had been adopted and implemented, with a clear training policy and plan, and a supportive formal system, T&D appeared to deliver business benefits more effectively. Bailey (1998) found that high-performing companies consistently fostered an environment of continuous learning in which non-traditional training opportunities were offered and encouraged. Their employees in turn reported having greater access to T&D than those at other companies.

On the other hand, organisations that ignore the strategic value and role that HRD plays in productivity improvement are limiting their opportunities as well as placing their future in a compromising position, one in which sizable and meaningful gains in productivity will be marginal at best (McClelland, 1993).

8.5.1 Organisational rating

Overall discussion of this chapter and the previous one (Chapter 7), regarding T&D practices and contextual factors such as: integration and application of HRD strategy, top management and line manager support, a supportive formal system and training budget. The investigated training personnel have rated their organisations in terms of training practices and factors related to these practices within the Kuwaiti organisations in both sectors.

This section aims to give an overall picture of how training personnel perceived their organisations in terms of T&D practices in comparison with other organisations in the same field. Four options were given in order to determine where their organisations fit. The responses are illustrated in Table 8.15. The results show that 30% of the government sector respondents indicate that their organisations were excellent in terms of their T&D activities/practices. On the other hand, 26% were good and 22% were average, leaving 16% and 6%, fair and poor, respectively. In the private/joint venture sector, the majority of respondents indicated that 28% were good and 20% were excellent. In addition, 18% were fair and 24% were poor, leaving 10% as average.

Table 8.15 Organisational Rating according to T&D activities

Sector		Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent	χ^2
Public	N	3	8	11	13	15	
	%	6	16	22	26	30	
Private/Joint	N	12	9	5	14	10	
	%	24	18	10	28	20	

8.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed and examined the organisational factors in the Kuwaiti context that affect the implementation of a rational approach to training. These factors are categorised into three main groups. First, strategic factors, such as integration strategy, and training policies and plans. Second, organisational factors, such as top management commitment, a supportive formal system, and collaboration between training personnel and line managers. Third, implementation factors, such as training budget, training providers, and training techniques.

First, it was found that the majority of both sectors reported that an HRD strategy is adopted. In addition, most of the organisations had established strong links between HRD strategy and the overall organisation strategy, and the HRD strategy has been implemented. The main difficulties that hindered such links were identified. The most common difficulties were immediate priorities taking precedence over long-term strategic T&D, lack of systematic analysis of present performance improvements arising from T&D activities, personnel in charge of T&D having no influence on the formation of corporate strategy, and much of T&D remaining focused on the needs of individuals rather than the needs of organisations.

The chapter has also examined the nature and status of training policies and plans, responsibility, priorities, and characteristics of the T&D policy and plan. It should be noted that both sectors had informal and formal/documented T&D policies as well as plans. However, both sectors in Kuwait seem to have short-term T&D plans. It is also concluded that the two sectors were interested to include all

management levels in their T&D plans. It was also found that both sectors in Kuwait have linked their T&D policies and plans to the corporate formal system, with a more favourable increase in the government sector. The features described in section (8.2.2.3) that shape the characteristics of the T&D policies and plans. The results indicated that both sectors in Kuwait have adopted workable and measurable T&D policies and plans, also T&D plays a role in supporting strategies to achieve the goals of the organisations.

Second, management commitment and support were examined. The results generally indicate that line managers show a high level of commitment, associated with high level of understanding of what T&D is trying to achieve. Top management also were more aware of the importance of the T&D functions for their organisation's growth and they are more accepting of the changes. The supportive formal system was examined. As shown in the results, both sectors held a high perception of the support of their formal system for T&D activities. Therefore, it can be said that there is congruence between the corporate formal system and the nature of T&D programmes.

Third, training budget, T&D programme delivery, and training techniques were tested. It was found that a high percentage of the government sector organisations had a separate budget for T&D. With the private/joint venture organisations, more than half were allocating a training budget. Training budget was more sufficient to achieve T&D objectives in the private/joint venture sector rather than in the government sector. One of the interesting results from this study is that

training budget continued to grow over the three recent years (1994 - 1997) in the two sectors in Kuwait. The results also shown that government and private/joint venture organisations gave priority of budget allocation to low management levels and technical training which were seen as a major target.

The last section has discussed the impact of T&D programmes on individual performance as well as the investigated organisations, and organisational rating. The results shown that substantial evidence of the value added by the application of T&D programmes to the organisations' development in both sectors in Kuwait. The results also highlighted that the majority of both sectors indicated that their organisations were excellent and good in terms of conducting T&D activities/practices.

Chapter Nine: Underlying Dimensions of Factors Related to Training and Development Activities

9.1 Introduction

Previously, we discussed the measuring instruments, the questionnaires, and also the methodology for this study. In this chapter, we will analyse the data gathered, the purification and computation process of the measuring instruments. Statistical techniques used are highlighted and justified. Results are then computed. Finally, the results of the factor scores are used for further analysis.

The first section of this chapter explores the factors that affect T&D activities or practices. A multivariate analysis such as factor analysis will therefore be used in constructing T&D dimensions. In the second part of the chapter, the relationships between level of satisfaction, the role of T&D in organisation growth, and organisational rating in terms of T&D activities with T&D constructs will be examined. The estimation connections between constructs generated by factor analysis and regression based analysis will be used. This chapter also provides an overview of factor and regression analysis techniques. Finally, the findings of this chapter will be discussed.

9.2 Meaning of factor analysis

The single most distinctive characteristic of factor analysis is its data-reduction capability. Given an array of correlation coefficients for a set of variables, factor-analytic techniques enable us to see whether some underlying pattern of relationships

exists, such that the data may be rearranged or reduced to a smaller set of factors or components that may be taken as source variables accounting for the observed interrelations in the data.

Factor analysis can be used in summarising the data and data reduction, when the latter can be achieved by calculating scores for each underlying variable and substituting them for the original variables. According to Comery (1973), the greatest application of factor analysis, as a scientific tool, is the determination of the important variables in a given domain. It is essentially a mathematical tool rather than a statistical one. It also concerns manipulation of a data matrix produced from the collection of a number of responses from many individual cases or respondents.

Possible uses of the capability are many and varied. Nevertheless, the most common applications of the method may be classified into one of the following categories: (1) exploratory uses - the exploration and detection of patterning of variables with a view to the discovery of new concepts and a possible reduction of data; (2) confirmatory uses - the testing of hypotheses about the structuring of variables in terms of the expected number of significant factors and factor loading; and (3) measurements uses - the construction of indices to be used as new variables in later analysis. The exploratory uses of factor analysis are the most common but should not be taken as the sole rationale for factor analysis.

9.3 Objectives of factor analysis

Factor analysis has been used increasingly in all fields of business-related research during the past decades. The basic principles of factor analysis are to be discussed in this section. The purpose of the factor analytical technique is to condense the information obtained from a number of original variables into a smaller set of new dimensions or variables with minimum loss of information.

Hair et al. (1995) claimed that factor analysis can be used for achieving any of three objectives:

1. Identify the structure of relationships; this means that the factor analysis can examine correlation between either the variables or set of respondents.
2. Identify representative variables from a much larger set of variables for use in subsequent multivariate analysis.
3. Create an entirely new set of variables, much smaller in number, to replace partially or completely the original set of variables in order to be included in the subsequent techniques, ranging from the methods of regression and correlation, to other interdependent techniques.

According to the degree of their importance to the study, all three objectives of factor analysis are considered and achieved. By achieving the first objective, we can verify the dimensionality of the constructs by knowing the factors that underlie the original variables. Similarly, the large number of original variables are reduced into a more manageable set, by achieving the second objective. Likewise, consequent

variables or surrogate variables are also identified to be used for subsequent analysis by other techniques.

The study is also interested in obtaining the factors themselves to calculate the factor-scores and factor loading (to be discussed later), so that the original variables can be replaced by the factor scores. This in turn can be used in testing the research objectives. These calculations and replacements are possible only if the third objective is fulfilled.

Validity of the measures - convergent and discriminate - can be assessed by applying factor analysis. Validity refers to the ability of a measure to capture what it is intended to measure (Sproull, 1988). Convergent and discriminate validity are popular in the marketing and social science literature (Churchill, 1979). It is expected that by the usage of a factor analytical approach, all items representing a concept should load strongly on one factor if they are to satisfy the requirements of convergent validity, and weakly on all other factors to satisfy the requirements of discriminate validity.

9.4 Requirements for applying factor analysis

There are a number of issues to be addressed and highlighted when considering the application of the factor analytic technique, which in turn assists the researcher regarding the use of factor analysis. These issues include:

1. Level of measurement.
2. Sample size.
3. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS).
4. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test.

9.4.1 Level of measurements

This is one of the most crucial issues to be considered when using factor analysis. This is because researchers are not able to use factor analysis unless variables are measured by using interval scales, or scales approximately interval in character, regardless of the sample size (Aaker et al., 1995). The properties of interval scales enable the researcher to use varieties of applications and statistical tests. As Bagozzi (1994) stated: “It is meaningful to apply the Arithmetic Mean, Standard Deviation, Pearson Product-moment Correlation, and Parametric Statistics (e.g. factor analysis, multiple regression) to interval-scaled data ”.

Interval scale are represented by different types of attitude scales, which include Likert scales, this scale was being one of the most popular for creating interval or approximately interval scales. As Bagoz’s (1994) says: “Many formats are used to create scales that are approximately interval in character. One of the most popular and effective is called semantic differential..... Another popular scale approximately interval in character is the Likert”. Since a Likert scale was used for all the questionnaire in this study, the most important requirement for application of factor analysis is thus met.

9.4.2 Sample size

Another most important requirement to be addressed before using factor analytic technique is the sample size. A minimum of 100 respondents is suggested by the factor analytical literature (Aaker et al., 1995; Hair et al., 1995). The latter explain: “ The researcher generally would not factor analyse a sample of fewer than 50 observations, and preferably the sample size should be 100 or larger”. The sample size in this study was 100. This thus meets the requirements in terms of absolute sample size.

9.4.3 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS)

BTS is an indicator of the relationship between variables. It is a statistic that can be used to test the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix (a matrix in which all diagonal terms are 1 and off-diagonal terms are 0). If the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix can not be rejected, and the sample size is reasonably large, then the use of a multivariate analysis, like factor analysis, is advisable (Nunnally, 1978). The larger the test statistic value for Sphericity and the smaller the significance and the less likely the correlation matrix is an identity matrix.

9.4.4 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test

KMO is an index for comparing the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficient to the of the partial correlation coefficient. It is a measure of sampling adequacy. The sum of the squared partial correlation coefficients between all pairs of variables ranges from 0.0 to 1.0. Since the correlation between pairs of variables can not be explained by other variables, small values do not recommend use of the factor analysis. The more close to 1 the KMO measure, the comfortable the researcher is with factor analysis.

The guideline given by Kaiser (1974) is as follows:

In the 0.90's: marvellous.

In the 0.80's: meritorious.

In the 0.70's: middling.

In the 0.60's: mediocre.

In the 0.50's: miserable.

And below 0.50: unacceptable.

9.5 Factor analysis model

The basic assumption of factor analysis is that underlying dimensions, or factors, can be used to explain complex phenomena. Observed correlations between variables result from their sharing these factors. The goal of factor analysis is to identify the not-directly observable factors based on a set of observable variables.

9.5.1 Steps in factor analysis model

The term factor analysis is not a unitary concept, and it subsumes a fairly large variety of procedures, the most general classification of which may be organised around the major alternatives available at each of the three customary steps of factor analysis. These steps are (1) preparation of the correlation matrix, (2) extraction of the initial factors - exploration of possible data reduction, and (3) rotation - the search for simple and interpretable factors

9.5.1.1 Preparation of correlation matrix

First, the correlation matrix for all variables is computed. Variables that do not appear to be related to other variables can be identified from the matrix and associated statistics. Factor analysis involves the calculation of appropriate measures of association for a set of relevant variables. Since one of the goals of factor analysis is to obtain 'factors' that explain these correlations, the variables must be related to each other for the factor model to be appropriate. If the correlations between variables are small, it is unlikely that they share common factors. It was found through the analysis process for this study that most of the correlation coefficients that constitute the correlation matrix are fairly robust.

9.5.1.2 Extraction of Initial Factors

The second step in factor analysis is to explore the data-reduction possibilities by constructing a set of new variables on the basis of the interrelations exhibited in the data. In doing so, the new variables may be defined as exact mathematical transformations of the original data, or inferential assumptions may be made about the structuring of variables and their source of variance. Initial factors are usually extracted in such a way that one factor is independent from the others; that is, factors are orthogonal. Furthermore, effort is directed not so much to locating meaningful dimensions as to detecting possible reductions of data.

The proportion of variance accounted for by the common factors, or the communality of a variable, is 1 for all variables. In general, principal components analysis is a technique that can be used whenever uncorrelated linear combinations of the observed variables are desired. All it does is to transform a set of correlated variables into a set of uncorrelated variables (principal components). First, the principal components method calculates a factor that will explain the maximum variance in all the variables. Then a second factor is calculated that explains the maximum amount of the remaining variance. However, the second factor can not be correlated with the first factor.

It is important to have a manageable and small number of variables that account for the original variables, as in this study we intend to use the results of factor analysis for subsequent analysis. This study is also interested in predicting the behaviour of the original variables of the dimensions they are suppose to measure.

Thus, the principal components analysis method is selected. It is appropriate when a researcher is primarily concerned about prediction or the minimum factors needed to account for a maximum portion of variance represented in the original set of variables (Hair et al., 1995).

9.5.1.3 Rotation

We now turn to the final step in factor analysis. The exact configuration of the factor structure is not unique; one factor solution can be transformed into another without violating the basic assumptions or the mathematical properties of a given solution. In other words, there are many statistically equivalent ways to define the underlying dimensions of the same set of data. This indeterminacy in a factor solution is in a way unfortunate because there is no unique and generally accepted best solution.

The major option available to the analyst at this point is whether to choose an orthogonal or an oblique rotational method. Orthogonal factors are uncorrelated, while oblique factors may be correlated to achieve simpler and theoretically more meaningful factor patterns. Orthogonal factors are mathematically simpler to handle, while the oblique factors are empirically more realistic. There is no compelling reason to favour one method over another, and the choice should be made on the basis of the particular needs of a given research problem (Hedderon, 1987).

Varimax rotation is an orthogonal rotation method which minimises the number of variables which have high loading on each factor. This approach tends to have some high loading and some low loading in each column of the matrix (Kim and Mueller, 1978). Thus we have an easier interpretation of the factor rotation and hence this method is selected too.

Often the variables and factors do not appear correlated in any interpretable pattern but they are mostly correlated with many factors. Even though the factor matrix obtained in the extraction phase shows the relationship between the factor and the individual variables, it is often difficult to identify meaningful factors based on this matrix. One of the goals (as explained before) is to identify factors that are substantively meaningful (in the sense that they summarise sets of closely-related variables), so the rotation phase of factor analysis attempts to transform the initial matrix into one that is easier to interpret. Rotation does not affect the goodness of fit of a factor solution, that is the change in the factor matrix does not affect the communalities and the percentage of total variance. The percentage of variance accounted for by each of the factor, however, does change. Rotation redistributes the explained variance for the individual factors.

To sum up the above discussion, for a quick review and as a general guide, the classification of the types of factor analysis is presented below.

Steps in factor analysis

1. Preparation of correlation matrix

- (a) Correlation between variables
- (b) Correlation between units

2. Extraction of initial factors

- (a) Principal component solution
- (b) Classical or common-factor solution

3. Rotation to terminal factors

- (a) Un-correlated factors = Orthogonal factors or rotation
- (b) Correlated factors = Oblique factors or rotation

9.6 Factors related to T&D activities

In the following sections, reliability and factor analysis are conducted for all the measuring instruments. The steps involved in the process of computation in reliability and factor analysis are as follows:

1. Item-to-total correlation (ITTC) and Cronbach's alpha are computed.
2. Items with low ITTC are removed.
3. ITTC and Cronbach's alpha computation are repeated.

In this way reliability analysis was completed and then the factor analysis was carried out.

9.6.1 Reliability analysis

Reliability means the extent to which a variable or a set of variables are consistent in what it is intended for an instrument to measure. In other words, it is the ability of the measure to produce the same result when used constantly in the same environment (Hair et al., 1995). The most appropriate methodology for determining reliability of a multi-item scale are the coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) and correlation

(Nunnally, 1978). Therefore Cronbach's alpha reliability test was performed with each of variables that were included in each factoring process, then calculation of reliability estimates for each of the constituent dimensions rather than for the measure as a whole.

9.6.2 Purification of measures

Purification of measures is assessing according to their reliability and unidimensionally. The first step is to make an ITTC correlation for the variables in each of the proposed scales. Items with low correlation are deleted (if they do not represent an additional domain of interest) and the coefficient (Cronbachs' alpha) is calculated and presented for each dimension, which is done by the process of reliability analysis.

The second step is to make further analysis of the remaining items or variables, such as to assess and identify the underlying evaluative dimensions, which in turn allows the dimensions to be interpreted and described.

9.6.3 Reliability analysis of T&D activities

In Chapter 8, we discussed the strategic, organisation and implementation factors, each of which consists of sub-dimensions. These main dimensions are integral strategy, T&D plan and policy, top-management support, co-ordination with line managers, a supportive formal system, and the mechanism of T&D approaches.

As discussed before, reliability is the consistency of measurements, defined as the squared correlation between a latent variable and its measure. The most popular of cross-item reliability indices in social science research is the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient and the ITTC, which are explained fully in the following sections.

9.6.4 Reliability Analysis of T&D Measures

As indicated in Chapter 8 regarding the factors related to T&D activities, 40 items were used to measure those variables. An ITTC is calculated for each of the 40 items, in order to find out which item or variable does not have a strong relationship with the other variable. 12 variables were removed as they were found to score lower than the acceptable minimal score of ITT is 0.4, and then the process was repeated. Similarly the minimal acceptable level is 0.7 of Cronbach's alpha (Nunnally, 1978). In the final calculation, the lowest ITTC value was 0.4574 and Cronbach's alpha was 0.9438. This means a high degree of reliability, as shown in Table 9.1. The rest of the 28 items will be the subject of factor analysis in the following section.

Table 9.1 Reliability Analysis of Training and Development Measures

Items	Item-To-Total Correlation	N	Cronbach's Alpha
		85	.9438
Q47-1	.5831		
Q47-2	.6877		
Q47-3	.5803		
Q47-4	.6045		
Q54-1	.6627		
Q54-2	.6794		
Q54-3	.6326		
Q54-4	.6372		
Q54-5	.4574		
Q55-1	.5766		
Q55-2	.6137		
Q55-3	.6965		
Q55-4	.6400		
Q55-5	.6361		
Q71-2	.6962		
Q71-3	.4952		
Q71-4	.6116		
Q71-6	.5190		
Q71-7	.5773		
Q71-9	.5546		
Q71-10	.5879		
Q71-11	.6762		
Q71-13	.5328		
Q71-21	.5652		
Q71-22	.5948		
Q71-23	.5588		
Q71-24	.5348		
Q71-25	.5599		

9.6.5 Factor Analysis of T&D Measures

The use of factor analysis throughout this research is of an exploratory nature, in which we seek to reduce and simplify the large number of variables into some smaller number of common factors. This approach to factor analysis may be more useful to explain the underlying dimensions related to T&D activities.

In factor analysis throughout this study, various statistical criteria and tests were used in order to examine the appropriateness of factor analysis. These criteria and tests include: Correlation matrix, Bartlett's test of sphericity (BTS), Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, Eigenvalue, Communality value, Factor loading.

1. The main purposes of the first is to obtain factors that explain correlations between variables; these variables must be related to each other for the factor model to be appropriate. If there is no significant correlation between variables that are included in a factor analysis, then this means that they are unrelated and that one should not expect them to form one or more factors. Our analysis indicates that the correlation coefficients that constitute the correlation matrix are fairly robust.

In Section 9.4, we have discussed the requirements before conducting factor analysis, such as the level of measurements, sample size, Bartlett's test of sphericity (BTS), and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test. The two conditions, the level of measurements and sample size are met in this sample study.

2. The BTS was used to test the hypothesis whether the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. That is, all diagonal terms are 1 and all off-diagonal terms are 0. The larger the test statistic value for sphericity and the smaller the significance, the less likely the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. The result of BTS was large, with 1810.74, and the significance level was very small at .000 (as shown in Table 9.2).

3. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy is another criterion that was used to determine the appropriateness of the factor solution. KMO is an index for comparing the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients with the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficients. KMO takes a value between 0 and 1. The closer to 1 the KMO measure, the more comfortable the researcher is with a factor analysis. KMO test shows a sampling adequacy of .841 which is classified as “meritorious” (see section 9.4.4), thus supporting the factor analysis technique (see Table 9.2).

Table 9.2 Results of KMO and BTS

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.841
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1810.174
	df	378
	Significance	.000

4. Eigenvalues. A matrix is used as a means for finding out the number of factors to be taken out and the measure of variance accounted for by a given factor is called the eigenvalue (Hair et al., 1995). If the factors have a value greater than 1.0 they are considered significant. Thus, for this study only factors with eigenvalues greater than or equal to 1.0 are included in the factor solution. (see Table 9.3).

5. Communality value. Communality value is a specified size of the fellowship between an original variable and all other variables comprised in the analysis (Hair et al., 1995). That is, for each variable it is the proportion of the variance in the variable explained by all the factors. The communality of a variable can range from 0.0, indicating absolutely no association, to 1.0, indicating perfect association. The communalities range from .538 to .888 in this factor solution (see Table 9.3). Therefore, it could be concluded that the necessary degree of confidence in the factor solution is present.

Table 9.3 Factor Eigenvalues and percentage of variance for T&D Measures

Var.	Communality	Factor	<u>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</u>		
			Eigenvalue	%of Variance	%of Cumulative
Q47-1	.713	1	4.514	16.120	16.120
Q47-2	.761	2	3.806	13.593	29.713
Q47-3	.800	3	3.547	12.669	42.382
Q47-4	.570	4	3.218	11.492	53.874
Q54-1	.687	5	3.131	11.182	65.057
Q54-2	.758	6	2.173	7.762	72.819
Q54-3	.765				
Q54-4	.688				
Q54-5	.640				
Q55-1	.655				
Q55-2	.832				
Q55-3	.818				
Q55-4	.777				
Q55-5	.803				
Q71-2	.538				
Q71-3	.721				
Q71-4	.745				
Q71-6	.775				
Q71-7	.775				
Q71-9	.661				
Q71-10	.546				
Q71-11	.722				
Q71-13	.628				
Q71-21	.753				
Q71-22	.787				
Q71-23	.832				
Q71-24	.888				
Q71-25	.752				

6. Factor loading. Factor loading is the coefficient applied to express a standardised variable as a linear combination of the factors. It is the correlation between the factors and the original variables. When the absolute size of the factor loading is large, the loading in interpreting the factor matrix is more important, and when the sample is large, the loading is to be considered as less significant. There are some theoretical guidelines that a researcher may apply. Generally, a factor loading of + or - .30 is considered to meet the minimal level of significance; loading of + or - .50 or greater is considered significant (Hair, et al., 1995). The minimal acceptable loading level in this study is .40. According to Bryman and Cramer, (1990) items or variables which correlate less than 0.3 with a factor are not worth considering. Comrey (1973) provided a scale as a rough guide to use the value of factor loadings in naming factors as follows:

<u>Factor Loading</u>	<u>Rating</u>
0.71	Excellent
0.63	Very Good
0.55	Good
0.44	Fair
0.32	Poor

The result of the factor solution indicates medium to high factor loading, which ranges from .456 to .875 (see Table 9.4).

The factor score is the measure that specified the newly-derived factor. This measure (score) is a mixture of all the original variables which were important in making the new factor (Hair et al., 1995). The final contribution of the factor analysis is the creation of factor scores. For subsequent analysis, these scores were added to the working file to be used.

9.6.6 Factor Analysis Results

After examining the statistical criteria and tests, it was decided to carry out the principal component analysis as well as Varimax method rotation to see whether results were identical. Throughout the factor analysis in this study, principal component analysis and other factor extraction methods were used to test the consistency and the structure of the factor solution, but only factors extracted by principal component analysis are reported. The factor analysis was applied to the targeted variables (see Section 9.5), and it was expected that the large number of variables concerning them could be reduced to a few meaningful dimensions.

The results of the factor analysis is encouraging, with a six-factors solution out of the 28 items (variables) entered for factor analysis. The six factors account for 72.819% of variance. All the six factors have eigenvalues greater than 1, but high communalities and loading (see Table 9.3).

Reliability analysis was conducted to make sure of the reliability of the six-factor solution. Thus Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each factor. The alpha values range from 0.7007 to 0.9057. Thus, with an acceptable alpha value of 0.7, the result gives the researcher more confidence about the robustness of the factor solution, as shown in Table 9.4.

**Table 9.4 Results of Factor loadings and Reliability Analysis
for Training and Development Measures**

Items (Variables)	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Factor 1		.9041
Q55-1	.731	
Q55-2	.866	
Q55-3	.822	
Q55-4	.797	
Q55-5	.790	
Q71-2	.507	
Factor 2		.9057
Q71-21	.692	
Q71-22	.780	
Q71-23	.875	
Q71-24	.794	
Q71-25	.787	
Factor 3		.8752
Q54-1	.622	
Q54-2	.750	
Q54-3	.687	
Q54-4	.697	
Q54-5	.685	
Q71-9	.456	
Q71-13	.496	
Factor 4		.8306
Q47-1	.724	
Q47-2	.696	
Q47-3	.819	
Q47-4	.598	
Q71-9	.456	
Factor 5		.8907
Q71-4	.732	
Q71-7	.760	
Q71-10	.525	
Q71-11	.643	
Q71-21	.692	
Q71-24	.794	
Factor 6		.7007
Q71-3	.757	
Q71-6	.789	
Q71-13	.496	

9.7 Factor Analysis: Underlying Dimensions of Training and Development Activities in Kuwaiti Organisations

Strategic and organisational issues concerning T&D activities all seem to be inter-related. These aspects were separately analysed in Chapter 8. In this section, however, underlying dimensions of strategic and organisational will be analysed. As indicated in Table 9.3, six factors were generated to identify the underlying dimensions of strategic and organisational issues. Each factor was assigned a name and this process was not difficult, as each variable was highly loaded in one factor.

The first factor accounts for 16.120% of the variance of the rotated factors. The factor shows that this is the most important area in which top management contributed to T&D activities since all variables have a positive coefficient. Therefore, the factor was labelled Top Management Commitment, which indicates positive reliance of T&D activities on top management beliefs, which facilitate, make commitment, encourage, and link T&D with the development process.

The second factor is related to T&D activities' reliance on training plans and objectives, organisational perception and environment, such as T&D plan achievements, T&D objectives and encouraging of organisational culture and environment. It therefore seems appropriate to name this factor Mutual Support between Organisational Philosophy and T&D Activities. The second factor accounts for a further 13.593% of the total variance. This factor seems to contribute highly to variables associated with T&D functions and environment. Therefore it confirms that the T&D activities rely highly on how T&D aspects and environment operate.

The third factor concerns the line managers' attitude and the organisation perception of T&D activities. This accounts for 12.669% of the total variance. It is interesting to see that "line managers' understanding, facilitating, appreciating, attitude, and willingness to release employees to T&D programmes", "organisation environment and formal system encouraging T&D", and "emphasising a systematic training approach" tie together. It could be possible that the application of skills and knowledge of training programmes relies on how line managers perceived the importance of T&D activities in organisational growth. As a result, they would create the proper environment where the new skills could be applied. This factor contributes a very high level of unique variance to associated variables. Hence, this factor could be labelled Line management and organisation sharing support.

The fourth factor, which accounts for 11.492% of total variance, is related to integration functions and organisational support. The factor includes how the investigated organisations perceived the integration process of T&D activities with the organisation's strategy. It also includes the role of the organisation environment and formal system in the application of new skills and knowledge. The possible explanation for this tie could be that those organisations which emphasised a highly integrated process also have a supportive environment and formal system. This factor is labelled T&D Involvement in Organisation Strategy.

The fifth factor is related to the characteristics of T&D plans and objectives and level of authority. This factor correlates with T&D plans and policies aspects, such as flexible and workable plans, plans and policies inspired by the organisation's policies, whether T&D has achieved the actual training needs, and the objectives

related to the culture. This factor is also related to the level of authority that training personnel have. The possible explanation for this could be that setting T&D plans and objectives and integrating them with the organisation's policies link to the level of authority of the training personnel. This factor accounts for 11.182% of the total variance. It seems to be appropriate to label this factor T&D policies and plans.

The last factor (Factor 6) has only three variables, which account for 7.762% of the total variance. The variables associated with this factor are that T&D improve the overall performance and gives an opportunity to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge. It is also related to emphasis on a systematic approach to training. Therefore this factor can be labelled T&D Effects on Employees' self-development.

9.8 Regression analysis

Regression analysis has become one of the most widely used quantitative techniques in the analysis of data in the social sciences. Regression analysis is a powerful tool for summarising the nature of the relationship between variables and making predictions of likely values of the dependent variable. As regards this research, the regression analysis will be used on variables that were generated by factor analysis.

As the study has tried to predict and explain the relationship between dependent variables and independent variables, the use of multiple regression is an appropriate method (Hair et al., 1995). The literature is full of similar studies which tried to investigate this relationship using similar levels of measurements. In addition,

the assumption that the collected data came from a normal distribution was examined through a normal probability plot.

9.8.1 Size of sample and number of independent variables in regression models

The Coefficient of Determination (R^2) is influenced by the number of predictor variables relative to the sample size. Many rules of thumb have been suggested in the literature, ranging from the requirement to have 10 to 15 observations per predictor with an absolute minimum of 4 observations per predictor. In this study, the sample of 100 cases met the requirements to be used for developing models including all the independent variables simultaneously, as we would have 16.67 observations per predictor.

In the regression analysis in this section the stepwise variable entry method will be applied. This particular method uses a combination of both the backward and forward selection methods. The selection-enter and removal-exit criteria used in the analysis, were related to the probability of the F statistic, which tests the hypothesis that the coefficient of determination of the entered variable is significantly different to zero. In the process of entering variables to the regression equations, the stepwise method uses two main entry criteria, namely the minimum value of the F statistic (the default value for the F statistic in SPSS PC+ is 3.84) and the probability associated with the F statistic (which by default in SPSS PC+ is specified at the 0.05 level of significance). For a variable to enter the equation, the probability of F-to enter (coded as PIN) should be less than 0.05.

For a variable to be removed from the equation, the removal criteria are called FOUT (minimum F to remove a value) and POUT (maximum probability to remove). By default, the limits were the standard ones set by the SPSS software. In SPSS PC+, FOUT is 2.71 and POUT is 0.10. That means variables with F value smaller than 2.71 or greater than the probability level of 0.10 would be removed from the regression equations.

9.8.2 Procedure and results of regression analysis

In a stepwise method, the first variable is selected according to the selection criterion. Afterwards, the variable is examined according to the removal criterion, in order to check if it has to stay in the equation or be removed. Then the second variable enters, and the procedure goes on until no variable is meeting the entry requirements. After each step, variables already in the equation are examined for removal.

The previous sections in this chapter implied that top and line management, organisation culture, involvement of T&D in organisation strategy, T&D policies and plans, and T&D effectiveness were important explanations to conduct and implement a systematic approach to training. Thus, it might be expected that these factors should be more clearly related to the comparative rating of the organisation's training activities (CROTA), and also be more dominant explanations of T&D effectiveness and level of satisfaction within the Kuwaiti organisation.

First, factor scores that were generated by factor analysis were saved as new variables. Second, these new variables explaining factor results were tested with other variables such as organisation rating (CROTA), the effectiveness of T&D programmes in organisational growth and development, and the level of satisfaction with the effectiveness with the evaluation method.

The results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 9.5. The independent variables were generated by factor analysis on satisfaction of the evaluation process. Regression analysis literature revealed that the most important statistics to look for in the regression model tables are: (a) the coefficient of determination (R^2), which shows the percentage of the variation in the dependent variable explained by the independent variables in the model; (b) the adjusted R^2 , which takes also into account the effects of fitting too many predictive variables into the model; (c) the F statistic and its significance level, which indicates the model's predictive power; and (d) the Student's T statistics and Beta coefficients for each individual variable in the equation, indicating the relative contribution of each variable to the model's predictive power (Hair et al., 1995).

The results of this regression show that when the satisfaction level is taken as the dependent variable, three factors variables (which consist of several variables) enter the regression equation with highly significant explanatory power. As Table 9.5 shows, level of satisfaction is more closely related to the involvement of T&D with organisation strategy. The table also indicates that the satisfaction level is related to line management and organisation sharing support to T&D activities, and T&D policies and plans. Thus, these factors have a positive influence on satisfaction level.

The order in which the variables are listed in the tables refers to the order of entering the regression equations. The involvement of T&D with organisation strategy (Factor 4) was the variable entered into the equation in the first step. In the second step of the stepwise regression, line management and organisation sharing support (Factor 3) entered the equation, which also shows a positive relation with the level of satisfaction. In the third step, T&D policies and plans (Factor 5) entered the equation with a positive correlation with the level of satisfaction.

Table 9.5 Stepwise Regression of organisational factors on satisfaction level in Kuwaiti organisations

Dependent variable: Level of satisfaction with training evaluation process

Multiple R: .472 Stepwise method criteria: PIN: 0.05 POUT:0.1
R Square : .223
Adjusted R Square: .194
Standard Error : 1.17

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	3	31.369	10.456
Residual	80	109.333	1.367

F value = 7.651

Sign. F = .000

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Symbol	Variable	B	SEB	Beta	T	Sign. T
T&D & Org. Strategy (Factor 4)	Involvement of T&D with organisation strategy.	.439	.132	.392	3.332	.001
LM & org. support (Factor 3)	Line management and organisation sharing support.	.312	.129	.239	2.418	.018
T&D P&P (Factor 5)	T&D policies and plans.	.304	.130	.232	2.346	.021
(Constant)		2.930	.128		22.956	.0000

Table 9.6 shows the results of a regression of the independent variables that were generated by factor analysis on the effect of T&D programmes on individual/organisation growth and performance (which is highly associated with training outcomes as a result of applying a systematic approach to training). As seen in the regression analysis results, training programmes results (higher productivity and efficiency, eliminated problems, increased motivation, improved interpersonal and interdepartmental relations, improved quality, and effective utilisation of human resources) are closely related with organisational factors that have an impact on T&D activities in the investigated organisations. The order in which the variables are listed in the tables refers to the order of entering the regression equations.

Statistically, the most important and significant contributor to training's contribution to organisation/individual growth and development is the integration involvement of T&D with overall organisation strategy (Factor 4). This finding confirms the regression analysis results reported in Table 9.6. It has a positive influence and enters the equation in the first step. Top management commitment (Factor 1) entered the equation in the second step with a positive impact on T&D overall accomplishment. In the third step, line management and organisation sharing support entered the equation, which indicates a positive beta coefficient (Factor 3).

The next factor which entered the equation was T&D effects on employees' self-development (Factor 6); it also has a positive association with training impact. In the last step of the regression analysis, organisation philosophy and T&D mutual support (Factor 2) entered the equation, which indicates a positive coefficient.

Table 9.6 Stepwise Regression of organisational factors on T&D effects on organisation/individual performance/growth in Kuwaiti organisations

Dependent variable: T&D effects on organisation/individual performance/growth

Multiple R: .774 Stepwise method criteria: PIN: 0.05 POUT:0.1
 R Square : .600
 Adjusted R Square: .574
 Standard Error : .5368

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	5	33.219	6.644
Residual	77	2.184	.288

F value = 23.060

Sign. F = .000

----- Variables in Equation -----

Symbol	Variable	B	SEB	Beta	T	Sign. T
T&D & Org. Strategy (Factor 4)	Involvement of T&D with organisation strategy.	.387	.062	.448	6.196	.000
Top mang. commit. (Factor 1)	Top management commitment	.326	.059	.402	5.570	.000
LM & org. support (Factor 3)	Line management and organisation sharing support.	.311	.059	.382	5.297	.000
T&D effects (Factor 6)	T&D effects on employees development.	.218	.062	.255	3.533	.001
Mutual support (Factor 2)	Organisation philosophy and T&D activities mutual support.	.184	.059	.266	3.138	.002
(Constant)		3.505	.059		59.357	.000

As for organisational rating (CROTA) according to T&D activities conducted, in comparison with other organisations working in the same field of business in Kuwait, there seem to be a different set of factors explaining the concept. As the stepwise regression analysis results reported in Table 9.7 indicate, four factors entered the equation. Statistically, again the most important contributor to organisational rating is the involvement of T&D in strategic issues. This factor indicates that the process of integration of HRD strategy with organisational strategy is sharing support of organisational growth and ultimately achieving goals (Factor 4). That is to say, each integration process between both HRD and organisation strategies will result in effective investment of all the organisation's resources, which in turn influences the organisation's stability or growth in the market place.

The second factor that entered the stepwise regression is also related to strategic factors. This factor highlights another aspects of how training plans and policies are structured within the corporate setting (Factor 5). This factor is related to training policies and plans characteristics in term of flexibility, workability, integrity, and achievements. This factor also has a positive beta coefficient, indicating a positive relationship between the need for adaptable and workable training policies and plans and organisation rating.

The third and the fourth factors that entered the stepwise equation related to organisational factors, which are top and line management commitment and support. These factors show another issue related to building constructive T&D activities or practices and the implementation of these practices. This role is interactive between the two levels of management. The third factor is related to line management and

organisation sharing support indicating a positive relationship to organisation rating (Factor 3). The higher the level of mutual understanding, provision of coaching and mentoring, a positive attitude and creating the proper work setting to help individuals to apply newly acquired skills and knowledge, the more organisations are capable of conducting an effective training approach, and hence, the rating of organisations will be improved.

Table 9.7 Stepwise Regression of organisational factors on organisational rating in Kuwaiti organisations (CROTA)

Dependent variable: organisational rating

Multiple R: .694 Stepwise method criteria: PIN: 0.05 POUT:0.1
 R Square : .482
 Adjusted R Square: .456574
 Standard Error: 1.04

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	4	80.713	20.178
Residual	80	86.699	1.084
F value = 18.619			Sign. F = .000

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Symbol	Variable	B	SEB	Beta	T	Sign. T
T&D & Org. Strategy (Factor 4)	Involvement of T&D with organisation strategy.	.768	.114	.544	6.763	.000
T&D in corporate setting (Factor 5)	T&D plans and policies	.446	.114	.316	3.924	.000
LM & org. support (Factor 3)	Line management and organisation sharing support.	.333	.114	.316	2.934	.004
Top mang. Commitm. (Factor1)	Top management commitment	.247	.114	.175	2.173	.033
(Constant)		3.353	.113		29.694	.000

The fourth factor that entered the stepwise regression equation is the top management commitment (Factor 1). As the regression equations have a positive beta coefficient, the more top management were involved in training activities and provided the necessary commitment and support, the higher the organisation's rating regarding conducting T&D activities.

9.8.3 Some initial observations from regression tables

Some of the independent variables contributed to several of the regression equations having high Beta coefficients, such as: (1) T&D involvement in organisation strategy (Factor 4) and Line management support (Factor 3) as predictors of level of satisfaction, T&D achievements, and organisational rating (CROTA); (2) T&D policies and plans (Factor 5) as predictor of level of satisfaction and organisational rating; (3) Top management commitment (Factor 1) as predictor of T&D achievements and organisational rating. However, Factor 2, namely Mutual support between organisation philosophy and T&D activities, and (Factor 6) namely T&D effects on employees' self-development were only considered as predictors of T&D achievements. All regression coefficients indicated a positive association between the independent variable and the respective measurement.

9.9 Discussion

This section will focus on the relationship of these findings with other research, writers and authors' points of view on factors related to T&D activities. In fact, many organisations have been working for years to remodel their business strategies, corporate cultures, and HRM systems to accommodate a more diverse workforce (Arredondo, 1996; Cox, 1993): Recent research points to the trainee and the organisational context as key factor affecting transfer to the job setting (Brinkerhoff and Montesino, 1995).

9.9.1 Strategic linkage

Integral strategy is the key factors in the success of HRD, which also affects T&D activities along with their programmes, (Latham 1988; Hussey 1988)

Rosow and Zager (1988) suggested that the manager should have the power of influence and affect the formulation of corporate strategy, and T&D should be seen as an integral part of an organisation's investment plan (Taylor, 1996). Kozlowski and Salas (1997) emphasised the crucial role of the integration process in human resource systems. They stated that " organisations that integrate human resource planning and human resource systems with their long and short-term strategic plans are more likely to enact congruent contextual systems that support training and facilitate transfer". For any T&D programmes to be effective, it is important to link them appropriately with the strategy, objective, politics and the business plan of the organisation (Taylor, 1996; Robinson 1985).

Many reviewers and researchers have drawn attention to the need to devise training and human resource systems that are driven by the strategic requirements of the organisation and consider the contextual factors in HRM (McCain, 1999; Paget and Kottke, 1997; Winterton and Winterton, 1996; Taylor 1996; Jacobs and Jones, 1995; Torraco and Swanson, 1995; Johns, 1993; Goldstein, 1992; Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992; Jackson and Schuler, 1990). Winterton and Winterton (1996) also found that management development is more likely to improve performance when it is linked with organisation strategy. Fecteau et al., (1992) indicated that managers and supervisors who had completed a management training curriculum reported a higher motivation to learn the training content if they had positively considered a strategy for their careers. In the last 25 years, training activities has been increased in the U.K. as employers have realised the importance of well-trained human resources for the attainment of their goals (Robinson, 1985). A survey by the Harbridge Consultant Group (1991) found that in the years 1982-92, the proportion of UK business organisations in which management development was explicitly linked to corporate strategy increased from 33 to 54%. On the other hand, as mentioned in the chapter 3, organisations that ignore the strategic value and role that HRD plays in productivity improvement are limiting their opportunities, as well as placing their future in a compromising position, one in which sizable and meaningful gains in productivity will be marginal at best, (McCelelland, 1993). Taylor (1996) advocates creating understanding and awareness about the link between T&D and organisational goals among the trainees and managers, in order to create an atmosphere of commitment and motivation, since the learned skills can be seen as valued to the organisation.

Brown and Read (1984), and Latham and Crandal (1991) emphasised the importance of linking T&D to organisational strategy. Thus, without proper training plans and policies, T&D activities cannot address the actual organisational needs. Lack of proper guidelines and well-defined policies will result in the whole training effort being scattered and overlapped. The need to link the T&D policies and plans to the corporate strategy, policies and plans have been advised by writers like Michael (1993) and Temporal (1990). Tavernier (1971) states that any policy regarding training should be in harmony with the company's personnel policies on recruitment, salaries, promotion, and security of development. Thus T&D functions should be incorporated in the early stages of planning (Yeomans, 1982).

In this study, the researcher has shown that strategic factors related to HRD strategy and T&D policies and also the plans' dimensions have a positive impact on T&D effectiveness and organisation rating, according to T&D activities. Torraco and Swanson (1995) and Jacobs and Jones (1995) argued that HRD serves a strategic role by ensuring the competence of employees to meet the organisation's present performance demands, and stated that these could be achieved by providing education in the concepts and methods of strategic planning and systems thinking to those responsible for setting the strategic direction for the organisation, through direct participation of HRD professionals in the business planning process. A recent survey conducted by Watson Wyatt Strategic Rewards of 614 U.S. employers, indicated that the distinguishing factor between high-performing companies and all other organisations is the degree to which training is integrated into company strategy (Bailey, 1998).

Pettigrew et al. (1988) identified Business strategy influences T&D activities by (a) reducing the number of employees, (b) recruiting high quality staff, and (c) a tradition of high quality recruitment, retention and promotion which makes training in high-level skills more cost effective. Armstrong (1992) suggests some remedies to overcome certain obstacles regarding integration process of T&D, such as understanding how business strategy is formed, understanding key business issues such as growth or retrenchment, increasing competitive advantages, associating culture management with change, and establishing methods of linking business and HR strategy.

9.9.2 Management support and commitment

Management support plays a critical role in the success or failure of any T&D activity, and management commitment is necessary to support each aspect of the overall HR strategy. (Taylor, 1996; Armstrong, 1992; Sinclair and Collins, 1992; Latham and Wexley, 1991; Jones, 1990; Pettigrew et.al. 1988). This point makes it clear that top management has to provide all the facilities to personnel who are in charge of the T&D activities, in order to carry out those activities effectively and to create a proper and a supportive environment for implementation (Temporal, 1990). Dakin and Gough (1986) argued that MD and T&D designs must have top management support and focus on organisational culture and goals.

Thus, a positive attitude of training professionals is likely to influence a rational approach to training and have an impact on the success of any attempt to implement and conduct training programmes. Lewis and Seibold (1993) noted that

whether an innovation is successfully used depends on the attitudes of the individuals who implement it. In recent years, senior managers, consultants and organisational members have been actively collaborating in psychoanalytic change interventions designed to challenge and transform the underlying assumptions, values, beliefs, and principles that govern how people in the organisation behave towards each other (Argyris, 1993). The America @ Work study investigated a list of over 80 possible drivers of workforce commitment, and showed that a large majority of employers feel their organisations are ready to make the changes necessary to become competitive. In turn, employees have greater confidence in the ability of work groups to modify operations or take the needed action to deal with change issues (Stum, 1999). Andrew and Carla (1999) argued that line managers should create and sustain a cohesive, enthusiastic team which produces at or above the level expected by top management, and build a solid and productive workforce by training employees to be highly competent. Top-level managers reconnecting with people in their organisations by challenging mechanistic business assumptions and adopting a people-centred model of management is proved in a survey recently conducted in 20 large companies by Bartlett and Ghosal (1995). Several factors have been identified by Salinger (1987) which affect top management commitment. These are: no clear benefits of the T&D, rare evaluation and reward managers and supervisors for carrying out effective T&D activities, top management rarely plans and budgets systematically for T&D, managers do not usually take into account T&D activities in production planning, supervisors often find that production requirements preclude sending their employees to take T&D programmes, and unsystematic development of employees when managers and supervisors develop their employees mostly in short-term objectives.

Findings in this study also support the above arguments for the importance of management mutual commitment and support in T&D performance and goals, and therefore upgrade the rating of organisations in terms of T&D activities. Vestal et al. (1997) argued that the key task of top-level managers is to create a work environment that stimulates the company's valuable human resource to be more motivated, creative, and entrepreneurial than its competitors' employees. Other writers and authors emphasised that any systematic training approach often succeeded in making a significant impact on performance (1) if backed by the top management, (2) where training needs fit the company culture, strategies and objectives, and (3) it incorporates training requirements with business strategy and evaluation as interventions within the organisational structure (Beardwell and Holden, 1994; Armstrong, 1992; Fairbairns, 1991; Grove and Ostroff, 1990; Pettigrew et al., 1988; Brown and Read, 1984).

9.9.3 Supportive environment and formal system

The formal system and work environment may have a powerful influence on the effectiveness of training in a two-fold fashion. It may facilitate or inhibit trainees to attend, participate, learn, and apply new skills and information that they are being taught on the job. Alternatively, it will likely moderate the extent to which what was learned in training will be transferred to the job setting. Some recent research and theorising suggests that creating a sense of optimism and capitalising on motivational variables in training can enhance transfer of training back to the target environment (Holton, 1996; Karl and Ungsrithong, 1992). Therefore, a crucial point is that congruence between relevant organisational context factors at the higher level and

targeted training content will moderate training transfer and improve performance, whereas inconsistent content will have little likelihood for expression and transfer. Temporal (1990) argues that providing training alone is not enough, but a supportive environment has to be created where the newly acquired skills can be implemented. Kozlowski and Salas (1997) stated that the congruence of different individual factors with targeted training content will moderate training transfer. Rouiller and Goldstein (1993 p.5) examined the impact of the organisation's climate for transfer of training, defined as "those work group policies, practices, and procedures that affect how trainees perceive the worthiness of utilising their new skills". For employees, skill-based pay systems reward them for developing new skills and having the opportunity to perform a wider variety of jobs. Trainees will likely be more motivated to attend, learn, and apply training when doing so is consistent with the overall organisational reward system (Mathieu and Martineau, 1997).

As discussed earlier of this thesis, Kopelman, Brief, and Guzzo (1990) suggested that having sufficient supplies, materials, equipment, services, and resources necessary to perform one's job will yield higher employee motivation, whereas lack of these facilities would create frustration. In the same manner, Noe and Wilk (1993) found that constraints inhibited managers' participation in development activities. Mathieu and Martineau (1997, p.211) stated that "Trainees who come from work environments that are supportive of what is targeted in training will likely: (a) report greater pretraining motivation; and (b) evidence greater transfer of training, as compared with trainees who come from less supportive environments".

Thus, the present study has indicated that there is clear evidence that an organisation's formal system support has a positive influence on T&D performance and output, and the rating of organisations in term of T&D activities. To date, researchers have found environmental variables to have direct effects on T&D (eg. Tracey, Tannenbaum and Kavanagh, 1995)

9.9.4 Organisational culture

The crucial role that organisational culture plays, and its appropriateness, is influential for the organisation life cycle. Vestal et al., (1997) highlighted this role, and argued that the culture and all elements must be aligned with human resource strategies, to support successfully the organisation's strategy and mission. Temporal (1990) states that "an in-depth understanding of the organisation's culture is extremely important to those who are trying to make MD happen, without this knowledge and understanding MD initiatives could fail". He further suggests that MD must work with organisational culture and may be applied to help to foster changes in the organisation. The current interest in organisational culture has its roots in research in organisational culture, national culture, investment in HRM, and new explanation of corporate performance (Brown, 1995). Greengard (1998) states that resistance fades and true revolution begins when an organisation creates an effective technology plan, links systems and resources, and develops a culture that embraces change as a strategic advantage.

Training by itself is not sufficient to change a company's culture, but it can act as a change agent and signal a serious intent to change (Hussey, 1988). He further argues that chief executives who act in a monitoring role to ensure that a culture is maintained must take the initiative if they want to bring about a change. Thus, the extent to which the organisation culture is consistent with the training content may influence whether trainees adopt the content. At the organisational level, such variables as clarity of goals and policies, degree of commitment to goal achievement, emphasis on high performance standards, degree of perceived responsibility, extent to which people are recognised or rewarded for their work, and degree of teamwork or the extent to which members feel they belong to an organisation have been investigated as important dimensions of climate (Litwin and Stringer, 1968). Morgan (1986) argues that culture structures the environment and makes it possible for people to derive meaning from their work, to work comfortably with others, and to focus on key organisational tasks. Tracy, Tannenbaum and Kavanagh (1995) found that a transfer-of-training climate and continuous learning culture directly affected post-training behaviour. Ussem (1993), in his survey, found that firms with innovative and less resistant management culture invest more in training their main-line workers, and experience fewer problems in recruitment.

This study confirmed that both organisation philosophy and T&D activities are suitable partners as an important factor in terms of the application of T&D activities. Thus the study found that the organisations whose culture was perceived to be consistent with and supportive of learning points from the T&D programmes were more likely to show positive increases in performance on the job and, hence, improve organisational performance. The most recent America @ Work Study showed that

American companies generally are meeting their workers' expectations in terms of organisation culture, quality of leadership, and whether employees are encouraged to contribute ideas. (Stum, 1999).

9.9.5 T&D related productivity improvement

Training and productivity improvement share common goals, to develop the performance of an individual as well as organisation growth, thereby increasing efficiency, quality and output, while simultaneously reducing costs. McClelland (1993) stated that T&D is the foundation for improved performance and productivity. Without it, improvement efforts involving people would not be effective.

The results described support the substantial evidence of the value added by the application of T&D programmes for organisation development. It is clear from the results that training and productivity are logical extensions of each other, as indicated by a positive relationship between T&D effects on employees' self-development and T&D effects on individuals, as well as organisational performance, and hence the organisation's rating. The Watson Wyatt survey of 1,020 medium-to-large North American companies found that successful organisations use HR practices to help employees become more productive (Kirschner, 1998). The Watson Wyatt Strategic Rewards survey of 614 U.S. employers, cites 90% of responding employers using the promise of T&D to attract potential employees, and 94% of them use a training for retention initiative. That said, training ranks as the Number one attraction and retention tool, according to survey findings (Bailey, 1998). Hanover and Cellar (1998), whose study was conducted with a Fortune 500 consumer-products

organisation in the Midwest, examined the effects of a diversity training workshop on self-perceptions of behaviour and the importance of related management practices among 99 middle managers in a large corporation. The study found that those who attended the workshop did rate management practices related to diversity as more important and did perceive themselves as engaging in such practices more than did a control group. McClelland (1993) argued that it is improbable to produce improvements in human performance without relying on training.

9.10 Summary

In this chapter, the emphasis has been upon the factors which affect T&D activities within Kuwaiti organisations in both study sectors, namely government and private/joint venture sectors. The analysis of this chapter indicated that there were six factors that organisations considered being influential in T&D activities. These factors were common between the two sectors, and were labelled “Top management commitment”, “Mutual support between organisation philosophy and T&D activities”, “T&D involvement in organisation strategy”, “Line management and organisation sharing support”, “T&D policies and plans”, and “T&D effects on employees’ self-development”. Furthermore, statistical analysis carried out in this chapter highlighted that line management and integrated strategy were perceived as highly important by the investigated training personnel, as indicated that these two factors are sharing their effect on the three dependent variables, satisfaction level, training effectiveness, and organisational rating.

The chapter started by calculating item-to-total correlations for each variable. All retained variables have acceptable correlation values. Cronbach's alphas were also computed and found to be high. The results indicated that all measuring instruments have a high degree of reliability.

Factor analysis results indicated that more than half of the correlation coefficient in the correlation matrix of the included variables are over 0.3 and significant. The KMO measure of above 0.5 suggests that correlations between pairs of variables could be explained by other variables. The KMO have a reasonably good score of .841, and the BTS have a large value (1810.174), with a very high level of significance (0.000), which suggests the correlation matrix of the included variables is not an identity matrix. The communality values of individual variables appear to be large (above 0.5), suggesting that variables are correlated with all other variables. As can be noted from the tables, factors are also reasonably well clustered, and each factor underlies one aspect of organisational factors that affect T&D activities. Results indicated that the factor analysis solutions are reliable and robust, to the degree that they could be used for subsequent analysis.

In the second part of this chapter, the proposition was tested that organisational factors, namely integral strategy, management support, T&D policies and plans, organisation philosophy, and T&D effects, will determine T&D effectiveness and organisation rating (CROTA) in terms of T&D activities in both sectors. Regression analysis of independent variables indicated that six main factors generated by factor analysis partly explain T&D activities regarding effectiveness and organisational rating. Regression analysis results also indicated that factors that

explain organisational factors' influence on T&D activities are related with both sectors in Kuwait.

The analysis of stepwise regression results has shown that factors explaining level of satisfaction, T&D effectiveness, and rating of the organisation do not necessarily explain the same of the dependent variables. That is to say, organisations where the said factors have a strong relationship and are related with T&D activities appeared to deliver business benefits more effectively.

Chapter Ten

Conclusions, Recommendations, and Future Research

10.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to summarise the findings of the research in relation to existing theory and the model employed in this study. The implications of strategic and organisational issues and areas for further research are also discussed. The implications of the findings of the study will be discussed at two levels, namely government and organisations.

10.2 Kuwait Policy towards T&D Activities

The rapid development of economic and social activities witnessed a dramatic growth and expansion as a result of the growing international interest in oil and the Gulf crises. There is increase in interest from all over the world for T&D, Kuwait is not exceptional. The analysis of the administrative developments in Kuwait pre- and post- 1990 indicated that, since the Iraqi invasion, there have been some policy changes in relation to management development in general, and training and development in particular. It is noted that these policy changes have shown their effect in the short term, but the long-term prospects for T&D seem to be ambiguous. Analysis in Chapters Three and Four indicated that there is a clear trend in the increase of T&D activities in both sectors in Kuwait. Although, the role of HRD prior to the 1990s was relatively less important in Kuwaiti development plans, it came to be an important factor with the introduction of the new development strategy. This is emphasised in the national five-year plan (1995/1996-1999/2000), by preparing and

developing the national work force, by building a productive workforce with innovative and exploration competencies, and also increasing the efforts related to T&D activities. On the other hand, several projects related to HRD were conducted in co-operation with foreign agencies, in order to cope with the government five-year plans and strategy towards implementing privatisation.

However, the analysis further revealed that Kuwait may face some obstacles in their implementation in both sectors which might slow them down or prevent achieving their goals. These include, bureaucratic inflation, malfunctioning, overstaffing, inefficient current management T&D practices, shortage of qualified human resources in general and managers in particular, lack of investment in T&D programmes, the absence of an effective evaluation system, a shortage of degree of commitment and level of activity - which are below average in Kuwait, and the absence of a comprehensive administrative system (i.e., job description, performance appraisal, administrative procedures, T&D). The private/joint venture sector, in contrast, is mostly staffed by expatriates, since they have relatively longer work experience and are more cost-effective. It is also due to the unwillingness of the private/joint venture organisations to allocate sufficient budget for staff training, and they concentrate on short-term investment with quick return of profits. The Kuwaitisation policy of the Kuwaiti government is highly resisted. The educational system has been blamed. Most Kuwaitis are not well enough trained to be suitable for a particular job. With all these disqualifications they still demand higher wages and more facilities.

Analysis in Chapters Three and Four also indicated the main obstacles to administrative development in Kuwait. They are the unwillingness of management to change, in-effective measurement and evaluation systems, no strategic linkage between development planning and educational training policies, ineffective and unwillingness to invest in T&D programmes. Furthermore, organisations do not give enough attention to management development, and there has always been a strong tendency to use expatriate consultants for this purpose. It is also noted that there are no specific practices or procedures for determining training and education needs. Also noted, is that 90% of the government and 93% of the private/joint-venture organisations have no specific follow-up procedures for evaluating the effectiveness of MD programmes. The trainees were not much interested in training programmes or training incentives, training was concentrated on low to middle management. There were also shortages of training specialists, with weak co-ordination between the government organisations and the training establishments. Thus administrative behaviour was strongly influenced by family relationships and social relationship.

Analysis in Chapter Six indicated that the government and private/joint venture organisations are the major recipients of the economic sector in Kuwait. In the government sector, services and basic industries are the dominant operations (i.e. health, communication, electricity, education, and oil and petrochemicals). On the other hand, investment, industry, and banking dominate the Kuwaiti private/joint venture sector. However, industry is mostly small-scale and directed to provide the local market. Construction materials, consumer goods and metallurgy are among the major industries. The food industry is also fairly well developed. There has been a dramatic increase in the number of operations in the field of investment business in

Kuwait. The number of other business projects is comparatively small compared to some developing countries in Asia at the present, but it seems their importance will increase, given the current state of trends. At present, regarding the status of T&D in the corporate setting, the majority of the government sector organisations had a T&D department with less than 10 employees; in the private/joint venture sector only a third had a T&D department, and with less than 10 employees. The two sectors had T&D departments established for more than 6 years (see Tables 6.1 and 6.2).

10.3 Empirical Findings of the Study

The objective of this study has been to test the applicability of the Training for Impact model within Kuwaitis organisations (see Chapter Seven). The results of the 12 steps in this model, according to needs assessment and evaluation, are summarised in the following:

10.3.1 Identifying training needs

As to the first step in conducting T&D activities, results shows that the majority of the government organisations realised the need for T& D activities and these were actually carried out. Private/joint venture organisations, however, conducted T&D activities for selected and exceptional cases only, with few participating in their complete activities of identifying training needs.

10.3.2 Customer-focused

Training is not like other products you buy. Its benefits are hard to quantify, and it is difficult to know whether client (manager) got what he paid for. Therefore, the roll of a training department or HRD professionals has to know how to sell training to their clients and become customer-focused. This approach can be achieved by providing the clients with training programmes, which teach their employees to do something they do not already know how to do, how much training is really going to cost them, and to meet their expectations.

Conduct a collaborative relationship

During the second step, the majority of T&D personnel in both sectors had the full support of a collaborative relationship with their organisation clients (managers).

Conduct initial project meeting

In the third step, T&D personnel had only partial involvement with respect to the government and private/joint venture organisations for conducting the initial project meeting with their clients.

10.3.3 Performance analysis

The fourth step was to attain the desired performance. In regard to performance effectiveness assessment, both the private/joint venture and government organisations conducted this occasionally.

During the fifth step related to conducting a performance effectiveness assessment to assess the current situation with reference to the initial project meeting with their clients, was rare or irregular in both sectors.

The sixth step was to analyse whether these organisations were conducting a causal analysis of the actual performance with their clients. Both the sectors showed a rare application of this approach and it was also noticed that some of the private/joint venture organisations had never applied it.

10.3.4 Tabulation, interpretation, and feed-back

For the seventh step of tabulation and interpretation of the information collected regarding training needs assessment, responses varied between the two sectors. The government organisations conducted their approach constantly, whereas it was different in the case of private/joint venture organisations, with partial application of such an approach.

For reporting the results of the information collected in the previous steps to their clients, the government organisation respondents reported their results regularly, while the private/joint venture organisation respondents never reported their results to their clients.

10.3.5 Data collection methods

In regard to the data collection methods used by the organisations for T&D needs assessment, direct observation in the workplace was the mostly used method in collecting training needs data. Next comes a job description of individuals. It is noted also that private/joint venture organisations were better in adopting some of the data collection methods, such as direct observation in the workplace, assessment on a regular basis by performance appraisals, samples of administrative procedures (e.g. monthly reports), and group interviews with managers and supervisors. The survey method held the highest percentage score in the government organisations. That is to say, both sectors in Kuwait are adopting all the above-mentioned methods, and their responses were similar on some and differed on others.

10.3.6 Evaluation and follow-up

In the eighth step in terms of determination of the learners' degree of satisfaction with training, the results indicated that the majority of Kuwait organisations in both the sectors were applying a reaction level of assessment to training evaluation technique. This included trainees' evaluations of training, often assessed on "smile sheets" or "happy sheets" (i.e. completing a questionnaire at the end of the training programme/consulting the trainers or training providers).

Next came the ninth step regarding evaluation of learning, which includes tests of performance during training and tests administered at the end of training, and the trainer's sense of satisfaction with the programme. The majority of the government and private/joint venture organisations reported that their organisations were regularly operating a learning evaluation system.

Tracking evaluation, the tenth step, was the least used technique. In both sectors this was irregular or occasional and in some cases was almost neglected.

The following eleventh step related to collecting, tabulating and interpreting evaluation and tracking data. The majority of respondents in the government organisations were always or mostly collecting, tabulating and interpreting evaluation data, whereas in the private/joint venture organisations, the majority were partially involved in this process. The distribution was significantly different between the two sectors.

Finally, in the step twelfth, a process was used to involve the client in determining what the results mean and what actions are required, if any. The respondents indicated that a large proportion in both sectors never report back to their clients to present and discuss results from all evaluation data. Those replying mostly or always were few in both sectors.

10.3.7 Evaluation effectiveness

Satisfaction with the effectiveness of the evaluation techniques which had been used in assessing the T&D programmes differed in both the sectors. The majority of the respondents from the government organisations were satisfied, and highly satisfied, whereas those from private/joint venture organisations were dissatisfied and highly dissatisfied with the effectiveness of training evaluation techniques. The differences between the respondents in the two sectors were significant (see Table 7.6).

Further, the respondents indicated some of the obstacles responsible for the evaluation process being ineffective, within the investigated organisations. The most frequently stated are difficulties in measuring performance improvement in certain jobs (e.g. services). Difficulties in measuring the change of behaviour of individuals over a short period of time, and the absence of a follow-up process after the T&D programmes, were also major difficulties reported by many respondents in the government organisations. However, there were no statistically significant differences between the two sectors in Kuwait, except in certain cases for the measuring of performance improvements in certain jobs, and lack of financial resources. The difficulties of the absence of a job description, lack of available financial resources and lack of knowledge about the evaluation process were observed more in the government sector than in the private/joint venture organisations (see Section 7.3.1 and Table 7.7).

In conclusion, the first part of the study of the application of Training for Impact model emphasising training needs assessment, revealed that the initial stages (steps 1, 2, and 3) seemed to be more applicable within Kuwaiti organisations, than the latter steps relating to in-depth analysis (see Section 7.2.1.1 and Table 7.2). The second part indicated that the investigated organisations put more emphasis on evaluating T&D at the end of the training programmes, whereas little effort was given to follow-up evaluation. That is to say, lack of specific practices or procedures for determining training needs, and the absence of a systematic evaluation process, are serious drawbacks to the Kuwaiti organisations' T&D efforts (see Section 7.3 and Table 7.5).

10.4 How and where to begin?

A great deal is to be digested if we need to implement strategically the training efforts by linking them to business needs, and to measure for impact. The study suggests, firstly, to look at what is required in the way of skill and time. Secondly, to see what can be done if it is impossible to use every step of the impact approach. The following are required to use fully the impact approach. Enough time, if there are to be a limited number of meetings associated with the training project. Information to be available and sufficient for use in performance effectiveness assessment and causal analysis. Computer-tabulated questionnaire to measure results. Content analysed if results are measured by the use of the interview method. Above all, time is required to design, prepare and to deliver the training programme.

On the other hand, the T&D professionals' competencies are also required in the training for impact approach. The following competencies were recommended by Robinson and Robinson (1989). The consulting cluster of competencies involves negotiation skills, influencing skills, and skills in managing. Strategic cluster involves organisational knowledge and awareness, industry knowledge, and strategic planning skills. Diagnostic cluster involves questioning, data collection, and data analysis skills. Feedback cluster involves skills in data presentation and meeting facilities. Business knowledge cluster involves knowledge of the organisation, and economic, financial and social forces that affect it.

As we know resources are limited, the HRD professionals must be allocated a certain percentage to facilitate easy application of a particular model. The study suggests that it is better to be closer to a rational approach, as it is not possible to implement the entire approach as described earlier (Section 10.3). If not able to complete front-end work, HRD professional can at least do some measurement of results, such as phoning a sample of participants. Follow-up may be difficult so it is better to evaluate comprehensively and effectively at the reaction level of evaluation.

The following are some additional suggestions as to how to use bits and pieces of the impact approach if the entire process is impossible:

Identifying the client who really cares about what happens in this effort.

Demonstrating an understanding of each customer's business and of industry trends.

Using the opportunity to discuss a training project effectively by finding out more about the business context, the situation in which the training will be implemented.

Developing a partnership with those who have something to gain or lose from this training effort and partner with them for planning.

Using needs assessment to discover your client's specific needs. Setting objectives that are meaningful to the client and evaluating these objectives for organisational impact, concentrating on potential benefits to the organisation, such as in the area of increased revenues, greater productivity, improved customer service. Developing programmes and services for the specific client's needs and schedule.

Enquiring about the expected benefits due to this investment then, if profitable, proceeding. Asking about the specific outcomes that the manager expects as a result of training, during the meeting.

Focusing communication and promotional efforts on client benefits, not on programmes and service offered, by looking beyond the programme to find out what the manager expects to take place back on the job. Ensuring time to analyse the cost of the training programmes, and helping the manager articulate such desires.

Finally, when training is a result of a business problem, being certain to separate the symptoms of that problem from its causes.

10.5 Perception of T&D related Factors

10.5.1 Strategic perception

Analysis in Chapter Eight explored the factors related to T&D activities within Kuwaiti organisations. First, the strategic factors analysis revealed that most of the organisations had established strong links between HRD strategy and the overall strategy, and it is designed to meet current and future needs through investing in people. The majority of the government and half of the private/joint venture organisations had adopted a HRD strategy. These results are consistent with the previous findings of the existence of T&D departments. Among those with HRD strategy, the majority reported that the strategy was being derived from or linked to an organisational strategy. As regards the implementation of HRD strategy, the majority of respondents indicated that they have implemented this strategy. Interestingly, very few organisations reported rarely or never, in describing the implementation of the strategy. These findings indicate that both sectors in Kuwait give sufficient support to adoption and implementation of HRD strategy, and T&D programmes are closely linked to planned expansion. Even though most of the investigated organisations had HRD strategy, which was also derived from the overall

organisation strategy and implemented, they formed a weak link with T&D activities. It was possible to implement TNA and the evaluation process, but the unclear integration process provided ambiguous guidelines for those who implemented it. In the previous section, the results indicated that a rational approach is not well adopted and implemented due to the fragile way of addressing the actual training needs, with organisational objectives not properly integrated. Or the T&D activities are not evaluated regularly by top management, and training personnel are not involved directly in the formation of organisation strategy. Thus, the gap in between leads the training personnel to implement a training approach that does not achieve organisation goals, and there will be a vagueness about training effectiveness.

Further, the analysis indicated the difficulties that could be faced in integrating T&D activities into an organisation strategy. These include: addressing more immediate issues instead of the long term strategic T&D; lack of systematic analysis of the present performance improvements arising from T&D activities; personnel in charge of T&D having no influence on the formation of corporate strategy and much of T&D remaining focused on the needs of individuals rather than the needs of the organisation. Yet resolution of all these difficulties seems to be a strategic requirement for a successful linkage of T&D activities. The problem resulting from immediate priorities taking precedence over long- term strategic T&D was rated as the most common difficulty by both the sectors in Kuwait. Lack of systematic analysis as regards to the competencies that will improve business performance and personnel in charge of T&D not participating in the formulation of the corporate strategy were both major problems common to both the government and private/joint venture

organisations. Concentrating on the development of personnel instead of the organisation and lack of top management commitment were the least mentioned difficulties.

The study proposes that management should act strategically and invest time and money in T&D initiatives, and the necessity to address more T&D among the immediate issues. Both sectors should give more influence to training personnel in actively participating in the discussion of strategic issues. This could help HRD professionals by adding a valuable dimension to the strategic planning process by ensuring that planning is based on an accurate assessment of present and achievable levels of employees' performance. They would present unique perspectives in raising issues on the workforce that are central to the strategic planning process. Top management perceptions of T&D integration into the corporate strategy should be based on clear perception of T&D support in the organisation strategy to achieve business objectives. The role of top management in both sectors is not only to inform and provide lower management levels including personnel in charge of T&D activities, with information regarding strategic issues, but also to have an active role or participation in designing or formulating them. Top management should consider T&D activities as one of their priorities in the formulation of corporate strategy, which allows those personnel form a better involvement in the integration processes.

In order to highlight the effective role of T&D in organisation growth, a systematic analysis of current performance improvements arising from T&D activities is required. This will direct top management to perceive T&D as one of the other strategic issues. T&D should focus on the needs of the organisation rather than the

needs of individuals, because T&D impact on organisation effectiveness is more convincing to top management, and hence their giving full support to T&D in financial terms as well as in the integration process.

The problem arises when T&D activities are not linked to the business objectives of the organisation or business unit. To alleviate the problem, the study suggests that HRD professionals need to look at each business unit as their internal customer and senior management as their client. Their role as described by McCain, (1999) starts by identifying the client's strategies (e.g. reengineering, focusing on competencies, and entering new markets) that support the mission and set the direction for the organisation. Identifying such goals and objectives is essential to understand how management expects to make its strategy work and how the organisation or business unit believes it can deliver improved performance. Further actions by HRD professionals are as follows. Categorising operational goals by functions and conducting a business analysis, will help each operational goal become more measurable and specific. Understanding these operational goals and determining where the value can be added. Taking action, by turning efforts to actions, which will support the partnering and help clients to reach their operational goals and objectives. Responding through the appropriate design/development and implementation of courseware or other HRD interventions that relate to the HRD implications (providing coaching, training in interviewing techniques, training in workforce management/scheduling to reduce overtime). Finally, getting the readily available information, from such sources as the organisation's annual report and operation plan, and the organisation's goals and objectives.

The strategic factors continue to concentrate on related issues such as T&D policies and plans. It was found that the majority of the government and less than half of the private/joint venture organisations had a formal T&D policy in documented form. This would be expected from the previous findings, where only half of the private/joint venture organisations had a HRD strategy. Half of them stated that their HRD strategy was a part of their organisation strategy. In some organisations, the immediate priorities took precedence over long-term strategic T&D, especially when related to short-term investment. On the other hand, some of the organisations in both sectors claimed to have informal T&D policies. The reason behind this may be that most of these organisations preferred an informal policy because this could give them more flexibility and discretion. From these results and discussions, we have learnt that the private/joint venture organisations in Kuwait had only recently recognised the importance of the training function as a separate provision. The results further indicate that training personnel in Kuwaiti government organisations are more directly involved in formulating the T&D policies of their respective organisations, while in the private/joint venture sector, top management are more actively engaged in designing their T&D policies. It can be concluded that in government organisations training personnel are more engaged in T&D activities.

In regard to T&D plans, the majority of the government and less than half of the in the private/joint venture organisations had the same approach. Both sectors in Kuwait seem to have short-term T&D plans. Long-term planning for future investment in HRD, such as career development and long-term training programmes, was mostly avoided. That is to say, future vision and long-term planning for T&D are not given sufficient attention, although the majority of organisations in both sectors

had strategies, policies and plans related to T&D. The above findings show a weak linkage of T&D plans with organisation/personnel development plans, and that training personnel have no influence in formulating organisation strategy. The results further show that training personnel were directly involved in both determining and implementing the T&D plans of their respective organisations, whereas top and other senior managers were less involved in such processes. These findings support the previous results where both sectors have an independent T&D department/division within their organisation structure. Furthermore, the results indicate that the two sectors were interested to include all management and technical levels in their T&D plans, and private/joint venture sector organisations were giving more training in the technical/clerical fields. This is expected from their nature of work, since most of them are involved in investment, banking and industry.

Further results indicated that both sectors in Kuwait have linked their T&D policies and plans to the corporate formal system. There is coherence between Kuwaiti corporate formal systems and the nature of T&D programmes. As indicated by the majority of respondents from both sectors who had T&D policies and plans responded positively to the presence of a link between the process of development and change and the T&D programmes. T&D policies and plans were inspired by the organisations' policies and plans. They also believed that their T&D plans were accommodating all the T&D needs. However, according to the results, less than half of the respondents in the government and less than half of the private/joint venture sectors reported that their training policies are in harmony with their personnel policies (recruitment, promotion, etc.). Both sectors agreed that their T&D programmes related to the overall development plans; however, the majority of the

respondents in the government sector reported that their training policies were not in agreement with their organisation's personnel policies. This indicates the weakness of linkage, with no clear idea of the achievement or aim of T&D, and the way to attain them.

It was found that there is no significant difference between the two sectors in term of linking T&D policies and plans to their corporate formal system. However, the government sector in Kuwait seems to link T&D policies and plans to the corporate formal system more than the private/joint venture sector. As indicated, the T&D policies and plans were more inspired by the organisations' policies and plans and their T&D plans accommodate all training and development needs, as shown by the higher positive responses, compared with the private/joint venture sector. This is probably due to unavailability of T&D policies and plans in many private organisations. Compared to the other sector, in terms of linking the process of development and change to T&D programmes, the private/joint venture sector showed higher positive responses. T&D policies and plans were also more congruent with their organisations' personnel policies. These results indicate that the private/joint venture sector is more pro-active, innovative and willing to change in parallel with their required training needs to cope with these changes. For having rigid rules, being bureaucratic and less eager to change, government organisations are often criticised. Another interesting result is that through the integration between the T&D policies and personnel policies, the private/joint venture sector also showed as much awareness of their human resources regarding their career development and motivations.

The latter findings are also in conformity with the earlier results and would be explained by the fact that about half of the respondents from the investigated organisations in the government and in the private/joint venture sectors reported that they have access to their organisation's objectives and strategies. This can be expected from the high status of the personnel in charge of T&D within their organisations. As reported by the respondents, almost 96% of the training personnel were of middle or top management levels.

The results indicated that both sectors in Kuwait have adopted workable and measurable T&D policies and plans. Also, to achieve the goals of the organisations, T&D plays a role in supporting their strategies. Moreover, on these issues, the government sector showed a higher score than the private/joint venture sector. It could be said then that the government sector had designed and applied workable T&D policies and plans. The response showed that plans were seen to be relatively less effective in shaping T&D policies and plans in the private/joint venture sector.

The above findings confirmed that the government sector organisations T&D plans had better prepared and integrated into the overall organisation formal system and scored higher than those in the private/joint venture in this respect. This was mainly due to a weak link between the comprehensive analysis of organisational needs and T&D plans. The above discussion suggests that T&D functions in Kuwait were adopted in terms of HRD strategy. T&D policies and plans were in line with the directives of the organisations. However the study suggests that there is need for extra work to improve the quality of existing T&D policies and plans in order to give training personnel a more active participation in setting strategic functions. They can

be more involved in formulating T&D strategic issues and eliminate any obstacles facing the integration process with real support from top management, and hence this process will be more clear and effective. On the other hand, a workable plan must have two characteristics. First, it should be written. Second, it lists specific activities which will be undertaken to gain knowledge or skill in four areas (Hubbard, 1998). First is the current job, by identifying how to get ahead, analysing some aspects of current job that could stand improvement, and planning how it will improved. Second is the next job; everyone has, or should have, a flexible plan targeting his or her next career move. Identify next job requirements, in terms of knowledge or skills that do not currently exist, and plan how to acquire it. Third is the industry; in a complex and volatile industry there is always something changing, always something to learn. Finally, technology, both in the limited sense of the computer applications used in the job and in industry, and in the unlimited sense of what's out.

10.5.2 Organisational perception

The organisational factors also motivate training personnel to implement a rational approach to training, with the trainees participating in the training programmes and applying what they have learned in the work setting. Co-ordination and mutual understanding between training personnel, and line managers regarding T&D activities were supported by the majority of the training personnel in both the sectors in Kuwait. The results show that the line managers were co-operative and showed mutual understanding and willingness to solve any problem related to T&D activities; line managers were also appreciative and gave support, advice, mentoring, and were keen to work with training staff (internal/external). The results also showed

a lower perception in regard to the willingness of line managers to release their employees for training programmes as a result of the workload. However, Kuwaiti training personnel were inclined to support the view that the relationship between training personnel and other line managers is based on mutual understanding of the necessity of the development of the organisation's human resource.

Another organisational factor is top management commitment. The results generally show an optimistic perception of training personnel regarding this. It was reflected by the perception that top management provides all the facilities for T&D activities, including financial support and solving problems and conflicts that affect T&D activities. If top management's support and commitment to the T&D efforts were satisfactory, then in competition for training budget allocation, T&D activities might not be affected by more serious cuts in comparison with allocation of other budgets in difficult financial times. That is to say, top management commitment is highly perceived by training personnel in terms of their attitude and beliefs that without effective involvement at ground level, without the proper facilities (financial/technical) or personnel, training activities will be carried out in only a half-hearted and ineffective way.

However, the private/joint venture sector was more aware of the importance of the T&D functions and produced a higher positive score on several other related issues. Another reason is that most of the investigated organisations have established their T&D functions recently, therefore top management were not expecting a quick comprehensive outcome of a formal T&D system. The lower perception of top management attitude towards training budget allocation (especially in difficult

financial times) is probably due to the top management evaluating any activities in the organisation in terms of benefits and revenues only.

The study suggests that top management should support T&D in practice rather than by attitude only. It should play an active role in participation in T&D activities, policies and plans, and thus there is a need for involving training personnel more in formulating organisational strategy, for follow-up of the T&D process with regular meetings, for taking into consideration long-term investment in people, and finally for perceiving training as an investment rather than a cost.

Another related factor is a supportive formal system. The results show that the respondents in both the sectors held a high perception of the support of their formal system for T&D activities. The majority of them believed that there was a high incentive to encourage individuals in participation, such as monetary incentives, promotion, and solving problems or creating a productive environment. Other points of support are whether the environment and the formal system help employees to apply what they have learned in the training programmes. Perception of T&D programmes was high as the best method to learn through training. The level of authority to conduct T&D activities was seen as sufficient. The results also show that the majority of training personnel perceived a congruence and supportive link between T&D programmes and objectives and the organisation's culture (beliefs, values, understanding).

Again, as was found earlier, the majority of the investigated organisations in both the sectors which formally assessed their training needs tended to include all levels of assessment (task, person, organisation). In conclusion, the formal system in Kuwaiti organisations seems to provide trainees with the opportunity to apply what they have learned in their T&D programmes.

According to the typology approach to the selection of individuals for training, this depends on both the completeness of knowledge of cause-effect relationships, and the degree to which there are crystallised standards of desirable performance that can be used to evaluate outcomes. When there is a high degree of knowledge of cause-effect relationships and crystallised standards, organisations find it easier to use rational procedures in their attempts at management control. According to the study findings, even though there were incentives, the criteria for nominating individuals are not clear, thus there is a need for setting crystallised standards of desirable performance that can be used to evaluate outcomes, and putting it into practice for selecting individuals for promotion or other incentives, and also informing participants of this. A follow-up evaluation technique needs to be applied systematically in order to provide accurate information to fit these standards. Other incentives include skill-based payments, wages based on the general classification of jobs they perform, hours worked, and tenure with the organisation. Again, the employees could earn more by developing additional job-related skills through formal and on-the-job training experiences. There is a need to have an appropriate culture to inspire employees to give value in their attitude and behaviour, and thus encourage them to perform their job effectively.

10.5.3 Implementation perception

Another related crucial issue to a successful investment and application of T&D activities is the implementation factor. The allocation of training budget revealed that a higher percentage of government organisations had a separate budget for T&D. The private/joint venture organisations showed that more than half of them were allocating a training budget. The significant differences were due to the Kuwaiti government policy of supporting the government organisations, while the private/joint venture organisations were focusing on short-term investment and depending on hiring skilled, experienced and qualified individuals. Further, it was revealed that in the government organisations the training budget allocation was sufficient only to a lesser extent. The training budgets were allocated for most of the government organisations by the regulations and procedures of the Civil Service Commission (CSC), whereas with the private/joint venture sector, the majority of the respondents thought that the training budget was sufficient to a greater extent. This is an indication of the importance of T&D as a separate managerial function in the private/joint venture organisations.

A need for more financial support of T&D activities is suggested by a systematic analysis of performance development related to T&D. For convincing the top management how to improve business performance by training, the allocation of training budget decisions should come directly from training personnel, based on their views in regard to actual training needs, type of training required, and also training techniques needed. On the other hand, they must provide top management with complete information about the kind of training needed, for whom and how it will be of benefit. This concept could be approached by taking the actual business strategies

for the company and attaching the training necessary to achieve each strategy, along with projected cost. This requires conducting on-going research and study to understand the current and future operations of an assigned business unit (i.e. strategies, goals, objectives, customers, products). Any organisation regularly draws a skill profile of their employees. Matching the profile with skills the company will need in the future will help in drawing a skill gap, so it becomes clear where to allocate training money.

The following steps are also proposed to get the best investment in workforce development within the allocated training budget or when facing cost reduction. First, to provide the employees with enough training to carry out the basics of their duties, and then teach them how to find out about the more advanced features when they need them. Secondly, to make sure that only the people who really need the training are getting it. Thirdly, to use job aids instead of training (job aids are written instructions that employees take to job sites) for reference to answer questions on site. Fourthly, to let employees stumble through tasks they seldom need to do. Fifthly, to use on-the-job training, and the trainers should go through a training-the-trainer course, so that they can understand a good training technique and how to facilitate learning. Finally, to make sure that training is performance rather than knowledge-based, and where employees get time to practice their new skills when they get back to the job.

How T&D programmes should be delivered and under what kind of assistance is the next related issue in the implementation/development of T&D. The results show that the two sectors have responded differently. Many of the government

organisations have relied on external professionals regularly, whereas the private/joint venture organisations relied on them occasionally or never used this type of assistance. On the other hand, the majority of both sectors have never used external assistance to evaluate the T&D programmes and review the content. It is not surprising that the majority of government organisations believed that their T&D staff was not professionally trained. Also, there were insufficient T&D staff. The case was different in the private/joint venture organisations. Some of these preferred to be more involved in delivering and conducting T&D programmes with relatively small assistance from the outsiders, thus indicating that the line managers in private/joint venture organisations are engaged in the development and delivering of T&D programmes.

The outcome further indicated that both sectors offer in-house T&D programmes, along with or without a T&D department. However, observations revealed that private/joint venture organisations show less dependence than government organisations on in-house training to achieve human resources training needs. This could be attributed to few training programmes in the market to suit their business requirements, budget constraints, and preferring their employees to participate in real life situations as on-the job training (e.g. banking, investment). Thus we may conclude that both the sectors in Kuwait are more dependent on external training programmes than their own in-house training. The study recommends that line managers become certified trainers for several programmes the organisations have purchased from training suppliers. This arrangement thus avoids paying outside consultants to deliver the courses, and it gives line managers new skills.

In terms of implementation of T&D programme, the training technique used by the investigated organisations is another important point. From the results, the most commonly used training methods used by the investigated organisations in both sectors were: lecture, group discussion and audio-visual aids. These techniques are more applied in the government sector compared to in private/joint venture sector. As indicated by both sectors, management games, case study, role playing, special projects, field work visits, brain-storming and job rotation were less commonly used.

The training methods used in Kuwait were conventional to some extent, with little involvement of the trainees in the learning process, despite the training personnel's point of view. The respondents from the government and private/joint venture organisations had however expressed their disagreement with the argument that training providers use conventional training techniques. This study suggests assessing existing training systems, programmes and materials for overall effectiveness. There is tremendous diversity in the ways people learn; most people learn best visually. Therefore, training by technology is advisable. Especially when organisations find it too costly to maintain a full-time training staff, and for more flexibility and the least amount of time lost from work, then distance learning is the most effective solution, such as E-mail, CD-ROMS, Internet, and Video-conferencing. A recent survey by Omni Tech Consulting group indicates that among Fortune 1000 companies in US, 16% of all training is delivered through multimedia-based methods, and this figure is expected to double within two years (Bachler, 1997).

10.5.4 T&D effectiveness

The results of the last section of Chapter Eight showed substantial evidence of the value added by the application of T&D programmes to organisation development in both sectors in Kuwait. It was clear from the results that training and productivity are logical extensions of each other in the government and private/joint venture organisations, where they have agreed that T&D programmes have an impact on their productivity and efficiency. The results further indicated that T&D has achieved its basic mission and objectives, as demonstrated by eliminating problems, increasing commitment and motivation, fulfilling individuals needs and personal objectives, improving interpersonal and interdepartmental relations, improving quality of goods and services, and leading to effective utilisation and investment in human resources in the investigated organisations in both sectors. In addition, private/joint venture sector organisations scored higher than government organisations in terms of the effectiveness of T&D on their performance development (see Section 8.5 and Table 8.14). That is to say, in the Kuwaiti organisations where the aforementioned factors (strategic, organisation, implementation) are taken into consideration this will give T&D a greater role in their development and appear to deliver business benefits more effectively. On the other hand, organisations that ignore the value of such factors will find that the role that HRD plays is limiting their productivity improvement and opportunities, as well as placing their future in a compromising position. Therefore, those organisations that have attempted to run their T&D activities more effectively and efficiently as possible, have taken into consideration the fact that developing their human resources is a major issue in their overall development.

On the other hand, the overall outcome showed how training personnel in both sectors have rated their organisations in terms of training practices and related factors. The results show that more than half of the government organisations but less than half of the private/joint venture organisations have indicated that their organisations were excellent or good, in terms of T&D activities/practices.

Chapter Nine of this thesis explored factors related to T&D activities, and also their effects on training effectiveness in Kuwait. Factor analysis created six factor clusters which explain underlying dimensions of factors that influenced T&D activities within Kuwaiti organisations. These factors were common between the two sectors and were labelled “Top management commitment”, “Mutual support between organisation philosophy and T&D activities”, “T&D involvement in organisation strategy”, “Line management support”, “T&D policies and plans”, and “T&D effects on employees’ self-development”. However, although the two sectors in Kuwait share the same concept of the importance of each factor, detailed analysis of these factors and variables associated with each factor revealed that both sectors associate slightly different variables with these factors and put slightly different weights on them. The two sectors emphasised “top management commitment”, and “mutual support between organisation philosophy and T&D activities”, as giving support to T&D activities. Therefore, these factors play an important role in T&D activities (see Section 9.7, and Table 9.3).

Organisations performance related to T&D activities has attracted a great deal of attention but there is no consensus among researchers on which indicators may facilitate the best understanding of the issue. As discussed in the literature review and Chapter Three of this study, there are many indicators which have been used in previous studies. A main objective of this research, amongst others, is to explore performance issues in Kuwaiti organisations from an input-output perspective because only such an approach can provide a way of establishing connections between factors influencing Kuwaiti organisations' T&D performance aspects, level of satisfaction, and factors explaining organisational rating, with overall T&D performance of these organisations. This study identified several T&D effectiveness dimensions which indicate very strong causal connections between performance dimensions and organisation level of effectiveness with overall performance in Kuwait. Perhaps these dimensions would provide a useful insight into firms' performance and operation in the country. This implies that mainly these dimensions are considered by both sectors in assessing T&D effectiveness in Kuwaiti organisations, since they explain highly the level of T&D effectiveness in both sectors.

Regression analysis presented in Chapter Nine, Section 9.8, of this study revealed that to a certain extent, although there are some similarities, there are basic differences in factors explaining level of satisfaction, training effectiveness and factors explaining organisational rating, in both sectors in Kuwait. Results from the analysis indicated that: both sectors' dependence on the integration of involvement of T&D with overall organisation strategy; line management and organisation sharing support; and T&D policies and plans, explain a positive impact of level of satisfaction with training evaluation process.

Involvement of T&D with overall organisation strategy; top management commitment; line management and organisation sharing support; T&D effects on employees' self-development; and organisation philosophy and T&D activities mutual support were found to be predictors of training effectiveness on the organisations/employees performance.

With regard to organisational rating (CROTA), the regression analysis showed that the role of T&D involvement in organisation strategy; T&D policies and plans; line management and organisation sharing support; and top management commitment are positively related the organisations' overall performance in terms of T&D activities. That is to say, the higher the level of support and commitment of the organisation, the higher the impact of T&D on organisational performance.

From the theory-building point of view, an input-output approach to organisation performance proved to be a very useful instrument, and provided causal connections between factors (which were described earlier in Chapter Nine) and T&D effectiveness. This implies that, in the short run, both sectors' commitment to provide a proper support and create the productive environment for the T&D activities, with workable and flexible policies and plans, will influence the level of training effectiveness. This will increase the skills of employees, and hence give a better competitive position among other organisations in the market place. These factors, as discussed previously in this section, were considered to be the most important factors explaining both sectors' T&D effectiveness level. Therefore it can be concluded that T&D within Kuwaiti organisations, especially in the short run, should be treated as one of their priorities which provides a learning environment and long-term

integrating process between T&D activities and organisation strategy. This implies that, although in the short run, meeting special skills needed by both the sectors appears to affect financial and marketing performance, in the long run both sectors' general commitment would be a more important factor in determining the survival and long-term performance of these organisations. This, by increasing human resource productivity, and therefore the Kuwaiti organisations' overall performance, particularly among developing countries.

10.6 Policy implications

Although the findings of this study are too comprehensive to permit definite conclusions in all areas of T&D activities, the following suggestions give the main thrust:

At the government level, a willingness of general commitment with a manageable systematic approach would have more impact on T&D activities. This study found that the government long-term strategy, policies and attitudes towards T&D is an important aspect of T&D activities. These aspects should be formulated and identified consistent with the five-year plan and Kuwaitisation policy. Collaboration is essential for effective training and education. Policy makers should be aware that no single business, group of workers, educational institution or government agency can tackle the challenge alone. Government agencies at all levels can ensure that public investments in education and training meet actual market needs. This means providing reliable information to workers and employers, tailoring programmes to local conditions, and adopting performance-based funding that ensures training providers

are held accountable for the quality of their services. All partners need to be fully engaged, leaders from organisations, unions and academic institutions, government officials.

This joint committee should be under one authority at the macro level to meet regularly and be constantly in touch with each other and their organisations, in order to co-ordinate between the government and private/joint venture sectors, and control and follow-up all T&D aspects. Their primary mission would focus on setting out a comprehensive HRD strategy and policies, creating a training environment and a training culture where making development of people is as important as the development of the business, evaluating career paths and competencies, and developing a training system to support individuals in their career development. Other aspects would be focusing more time on the execution and evaluation of training, (great training schemes fail when they are not executed correctly or supported appropriately), promoting training systems and career development programmes for internal staff and for recruiting purposes (this will help to recruit people who want to learn and grow with the organisation), assuring and dedicating the resources to developing people for the long term. Also, taking into consideration that the current and future local market needs have to be tailored with the country's education system.

Organisations involved include: Civil Service Commission, Kuwait University, Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, Kuwait Institute for Scientific Research, Institute of Arab Planning, Kuwaiti oil companies, Institute of Banking Studies, Ministry of Planning, and large private consultancies. Policy makers should encourage such organisations to collaborate with each other effectively. They can thus

send a clear message to the public that collaboration is vital to the end the skills' shortage.

On the other hand, local organisation groups which have T&D experience would provide managerial resources and great synergy to other organisations in the Kuwaiti context. Specially, small and medium-size organisations which are seeking to get access to a more compatible performance and market share. Empirical findings of this research also suggest providing more autonomy in both sectors to their management in general and training personnel in particular within Kuwaiti organisations. It is also advisable to adapt new approaches and mechanisms and exchange experiences related to HRD and T&D which hve been developed by some other local organisations or neighbouring countries with a similar environment. Finally, both sectors should emphasise a long-term systems approach to training, involving management systems and HRD strategy development, rather than short-term expectations.

10.7 Limitations of the Study and Areas for Further Research

Every research project is limited by constraints imposed on the researcher and this study is no exception. These limitations are as follows:

First, this research links the private sector and joint venture sector together, due to the small size of these sectors, rather than taking each sector individually. There are some questions regarding how these organisations structure their T&D activities separately and how they are evaluated. A research project covering this area would be a valuable contribution.

Second, the sample study has been constrained to all Kuwaiti organisations regardless of the kind of business they conducted. The private and joint venture sector appears to be on the increase in the service business, especially financial, investment, and services business. A research sample taking each business individually would provide valuable insight into private and joint venture sector performance in general and T&D activities in particular.

Third, organisations sampled in the research design stage of this study included only large companies registered at the Kuwait Stock Market Exchange, as indicated in Chapter 4 of the thesis. A relatively larger sample, covering small and medium-size, and foreign joint venture organisations, would provide a valuable contribution to the theory. On the other hand, a larger sample targeting neighbouring countries would provide a basis of comparison, and a valuable theoretical contribution to points such as the mechanism of the approach to training adopted, developed or created by these countries.

Fourth, the research issues of this study included all systematic steps of a training approach as well as several related factors, as analysed in Chapters Seven, Eight and Nine. The issues related to T&D were tested in each sector. A research design targeting solely training needs assessment or evaluation and follow-up, and including trainees, top management, and trainers in the sample would also be a valuable contribution.

Fifth, this study examined only the relationships between organisational culture and T&D activities. A longitudinal study of culture in the Kuwaiti society might highlight some other points which are probably not covered in this study. Such research would also clarify the impact of culture on T&D activities and mechanisms.

APPENDICES

Appendix A Interview for the Attention of Training Personnel

Appendix B Questionnaire for the Attention of Training Personnel

Section One: The Demographic Profile

Q1. Nationality

1. Kuwaiti
2. Non Kuwaiti

Q2. Age

1. 20 to less than 30 years
2. 30 to less than 40 years
3. 40 to less than 50 years
4. Over 50 years

Q3. Sex

1. Male
2. Female

Q4. Specify the highest educational qualifications and speciality

1. High school or under
2. Diploma degree (post secondary)
3. University degree
4. Higher degree (master or Ph.D.)
5. Others-----.

Area of speciality -----.

Q5. What sector does your organisation belong?

1. Public sector
2. Private/joint venture sector

Q6. What kind of business does your organisation conduct?

1. Services
2. Banking
3. Insurance
4. Investment
5. Food
6. Industry
7. Real estate
8. Others-----

Q7. How long you have been in your current job?

1. Less than one year
2. 1 to 5 years
3. 6 to 10 years
4. 11 to 15 years
5. 16 to 20 years
6. More than 20 years

Q8. Job title or person to whom your department/division report:

1. Top management/Board of directors
2. General manager
3. Executives managers
4. Personal/Human resource department
5. Others-----

Q9. How many employees that your organisation employed in total?

1. Less than 100
2. 100 to 300
3. 301 to 500
4. 501 to 700
5. Over 700

Q10. Is there a separate department/division for training and development in your organisation?

1. Yes
2. No

Q11. If yes, since when has it been established?

- 1. Since less than one year
- 2. 1 to less than 2 years
- 3. 2 to less than 4 years
- 4. 4 to less than 6 years
- 5. Over 6 years

Q12. How many training staff is involved in training and development department/division?

- 1. Up to 5
- 2. 6 to 10
- 3. 11 to 15
- 4. 16 to 20
- 5. Over 20

Q13. If there is no a separate department/division for training and development, who is responsible for running T&D activities in your organisation?

- 1. Top management/Board of directors
- 2. General manager
- 3. Executives managers
- 4. Personal/Human resource department
- 5. Others-----

Section Two: current training and development practices in your organisation:

Training Needs Assessment (TNA)

Q14. How often does your organisation identify the actual business/organisation needs (current/future) that the requested training programme ultimately hopes to achieve?

- 1. Never
- 2. Rarely
- 3. Sometimes
- 4. Mostly
- 5. Always

Q15. If your answer is (Rarely, Sometimes, Mostly, Always) what approach (s) is/are usually apply in determining training needs (organisation, person and job analysis)?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----

Q16. How do you describe your relationship with the your client, who benefited from training programmes (individual(s), group(s) or department(s)) within your organisation?

Q17. What major issues do you discuss with your client in order to determine training needs of your organisation (future perspectives; desired /current performance (skills and knowledge required/ desired); cause analysis (gap between what should be happening and what is happening); tabulate, interpret and report the results)?

.....

Q18. What data collection methods do you use in order to determine training needs in your organisation?

- | | |
|---------|---------|
| 1. | 2. |
| 3. | 4. |
| 5. | 6. |

Evaluation and follow up:

Q19. How often does your organisation conduct a systematic evaluation process in order to determine the effectiveness of the training and development programmes (internal and external courses)?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q20. What are the training evaluation processes that your organisation conduct to assess the effectiveness of the training and development programmes (trainees' reaction, learning, and follow-up), and how?

1.
 2.
 3.
 4.

Q21. Do you collect, tabulate, interpret and report the evaluation data to your client? If yes, based on what sort of information?

1.
 2.
 3.
 4.

Q22. Are you satisfied with the effectiveness of the evaluation methods, which are used in assessing the T&D programmes in your organisation?

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly dissatisfied | 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Dissatisfied |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Don't know | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Satisfied |
| 5. <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly satisfied | |

Q23. If your evaluation process is not effective in your organisation, what might be responsible of this?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----
- 5.-----

Q24. If training and development practices (Training needs assessment and Evaluation and Follow-up) are not implemented systematically, what are the most three important reasons behind that?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----

Section Three: Factors affecting training and development activities in your organisation

Strategic factors We are interested to know about the training and development strategy, policy and plan that your organisation adopts.

Q25. Does your organisation have a clear and defined strategy related to Human Resources Development (HRD)?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

Q26. If yes, could you describe how HRD strategy is derived from or related to your organisation's overall strategy?

-
-
-
-
-

Q27. To what extent has Human Resources Development strategy been implemented in your organisations?

- 1. Never
- 2. Rarely
- 3. Sometimes
- 4. Mostly
- 5. Always

Q28. What are the main difficulties that might affect proper linkage of T&D activities with your organisation strategy?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----
- 5.-----

Q29. What is the nature and status of training and development policy in your organisation?

1. Formal/documented

2. Informal/not documented

Q30. If your organisation has a formal/documented T&D policy, what are the main guidelines of this policy?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----

Q31. Does your organisation have a training and development plan?

1. Yes

2. No

Q32. If yes, What is the time horizon of T&D planning?

1. Half-year

2. Annual

3. 2-3 years

4. 3-5 years

5. 5 years and more

6. All of the above

Q 33. To which of the following levels does your T&D plan relate?

1. Top management

2. Middle management

3. Lower management/supervisory

4. Technical/ Clerical

5. Other(please specify)-----

Q34. Could you describe your role in formulating strategy, policy, plan and budget related to training and development in your organisation?

Organisational factors

Q35. What is your evaluation of co-operation extended by the concerned managers in your organisation during the design and implementation of training and development activities? (Mutual understanding, support, managers' attitude and commitment).

Q36. What is your opinion, which reflects your personal evaluation of the top management commitment towards T&D activities in your organisation?

Q37. How would you describe the culture and philosophy of your organisation towards training and development activities?

Q38. What is your evaluation of your organisation formal system in supporting implementation of training and development activities?

Implementation factors

Training Budget: we are interested to know how training and development budget is allocated in your organisation?

Q39. Is there a specific budget devoted to T&D activities in your organisation?

1. Yes

2. No

Q40. If yes, is it sufficient to achieve T&D plans and objectives?

1. To a very small extent

2. To small extent

3. To a medium extent

4. To a great extent

5. To a very great extent

Q41. In spending on T&D programmes, indicate what management level do you think is given priorities?

- 1.----- 2.-----
 3.----- 4.-----

Q42. For the last three years, describe how your training and development budget has changed?

1. cancelled 2. decreased 3. Remain the same 4. Increased

Q43. What procedures does your organisation use to adopt and implement T&D programmes?

- 1.-----
 2.-----
 3.-----
 4.-----

Training providers/Trainer: we are interested to know how your organisation implements training and development programmes, by answering the following questions?

Q44. What sources of training are given priority by your organisation during the preparation or implementation of your T&D plans/programmes?

1. External management consultants providers
 2. Internal personnel and professionals

Q45. What are the main three factors that influence your choice between external training providers and internal professionals?

- 1.-----
 2.-----
 3.-----

Q46. If external management consultants providers are used, would you describe the extent of the assistance provided?

- 1.-----
 2.-----
 3.-----
 4.-----

Q47. Do you have a clear policy for selecting training providers (trainers/training centres)?

1. Yes 2. No

Q48. If yes, please specify three most important criteria of choosing particular training providers:

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----

Q49. What are the common training techniques applied either by your organisation or by external training providers in delivering T&D programmes?

- 1.----- 2.-----
- 3.----- 4.-----
- 5.----- 6.-----

Section Four: General Perception

Q50. In your opinion do you think there is a need for T&D in your organisation, if yes, in what degree?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----

Q51. What encourage individuals in your organisation to participate in training and development programmes?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----

Q52. In your opinion, do employees in your organisation have applied what they have learned in T&D programmes? What have made it possible or difficult?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----

Q53. What is your evaluation of the extent of T&D activities contributed to the individual performance and organisation growth in your organisation?

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----

Q54. In your opinion, what efforts are needed in your organisation to improve training and development activities?

- 1.-----.
- 2.-----.
- 3.-----.
- 4.-----.

Q55. In comparison with other organisations, how would you rate your organisation in term of training and development activities, and why?

- 1.-----.
- 2.-----.
- 3.-----.
- 4.-----.

Q56. Do you have any other comments, which you think may also be relevant to the research being undertaken?

-----.

**Questionnaire Concerning Training and Development
Activities in Kuwaiti Organisations**

Dear brother/sister
Peace, mercy and blessing be upon you

This questionnaire presents the field work of a Ph.D thesis, which the researcher is carrying out in the University of Bradford, United Kingdom. Through this thesis, the researcher is trying to become acquainted with training and development activities adopted by Kuwaiti organisations.

In addition, the researcher is trying to specify the actual practices of training and development activities that the Kuwaiti organisations are undertaking, and the most important related-factors which affect those activities. The aim is to promote those activities, and to make effective use of financial and human resources in the national organisations.

Your interest in reading the questionnaire, and answering its questions, represents a basic factor in fulfilling this study successfully.

The researcher extends his thanks in advance for your full cooperation.

NB: The information of this questionnaire will be processed automatically and confidentially by the researcher himself, and it will be not used except for the scientific research purpose only.

In case of inquires, please contact Tel. No. 4714475, or page 9196462.

Daily from 10 a.m. to 2 p.m. and from 4 p.m. to 8 p.m.

Researcher: ADNAN AL-ALI
Assistant Lecturer,
College of Business Studies
Public Authority for Applied Education and Training

Please put (✓) sign in the box which represent your answer to the following questions and statements by using the given scales (please note that T&D reverse to Training and Development).

Section One: The Demographic Profile

Q1. Nationality

1. Kuwaiti 2. Non Kuwaiti

Q2. Age

1. 20 to less than 30 years 2. 30 to less than 40 years
 3. 40 to less than 50 years 4. Over 50 years

Q3. Sex

1. Male 2. Female

Q4. Specify the highest educational qualifications and speciality:

1. High school or under 2. Diploma degree (post secondary)
 3. University degree 4. Higher degree (master or Ph.D.)
 5. Others-----

Area of speciality -----

Q5. What sector does your organisation belong?

1. Public sector 2. Private/joint venture sector

Q6. What kind of business does your organisation conduct?

1. Services 2. Banking 3. Insurance 4. Investment
 5. Food 6. Industry 7. Real estate 8. Others-----

Q7. How long you have been in your current job?

1. Less than one year 2. 1 to 5 years 3. 6 to 10 years
 4. 11 to 15 years 5. 16 to 20 years 6. More than 20 years

Q8. Please indicate your status within your organisation:

1. Top management 2. Middle management
 3. Lower management/Supervisory 4. Professional/technical
 5. Other (please specify)-----

Q9. Job title or person to whom your department/division report:

1. Top management/Board of directors
 2. General manager
 3. Executives managers
 4. Personal/Human resource department
 5. Others-----

Q10. For how many years have you worked in this organisation?

1. Less than one year 2. 1 to 5 years 3. 6 to 10 years
4. 11 to 15 years 5. 16 to 20 years 6. Over 20 years

Q11. How many employees that your organisation employed in total?

1. Less than 100 2. 100 to 300 3. 301 to 500
4. 501 to 700 5. Over 700

Q12. How many managers that your organisation employed?

1. Less than 5 managers 2. 5-10 managers 3. 11-15 managers
4. 16-20 managers 5. 21-25 managers 6. Over 25 managers

Q13. Is there a separate department/division for training and development in your organisation?

1. Yes 2. No

Q14. If yes, since when has it been established?

1. Since less than one year 2. 1 to less than 2 years
3. 2 to less than 4 years 4. 4 to less than 6 years
5. Over 6 years

Q15. How many training staff is involved in training and development department/division?

1. Up to 5 2. 6 to 10 3. 11 to 15
4. 16 to 20 5. Over 20

Q16. If there is no a separate department/division for training and development, who is responsible for running T&D activities in your organisation?

1. Top management / Board of directors
2. General manager
3. Executives managers
4. Personal / Human resource department
5. Others-----

Section Two: current training and development practices in your organisation:

Training Needs Assessment (TNA)

Q17. How often does your organisation identify the actual business/organisation needs (current/future) that the requested training programme ultimately hopes to achieve?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q18. If your answer is (Rarely, Sometimes, Mostly, Always) what approach (s) is/are usually apply in determining training needs?

1. Comprehensive analysis for the organisation (overall performance).
2. Person analysis (skills/knowledge/attitude).
3. Job analysis (functional activities).
4. All (1,2,3).
5. Others-----

Q19. How often does your organisation run T.N.A. on a regular basis?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q20. How often do the persons in charge of T&D activities identify and form a collaborative relationship with the client (individual(s), group(s) or department(s)) within the organisation?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q21. How often do you conduct an initial project meeting with the client to discuss the training project (current performance / future perspectives)?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q22. If your answer is (Rarely, Sometimes, Mostly, Always) do you discuss the Following issues?

1. The real cause (s) of the current/future performance.
2. Other secondary causes of the current/future performance.
3. Other individuals, groups or departments who need to be involved in the training programme.
4. All of the above.

Q23. How often does your organisation conduct a performance effectiveness assessment to determine what the situation should be after the training (desired performance) according to the information collected in the initial project meeting with the client?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q24. If your answer is (Rarely, Sometimes, Mostly, Always) according to which of the following:

1. Skills and knowledge required to perform successfully.
2. What the operational results should indicate (value/targets).
3. All of the above.

Q25. How often does your organisation conduct a performance effectiveness assessment to assess the current situation according to the information collected in the initial project meeting with the client?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q26. If your answer is (Rarely, Sometimes, Mostly, Always) according to which of the following

1. How the typical performers demonstrate the desired skills or knowledge.
2. What the operational indicators show as being true now.
3. What the greatest knowledge and skills deficiency are .
4. All of the above.

Q27. How often does your organisation conduct a cause analysis of the actual performance with the client ?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q28. If your answer is (Rarely, Sometimes, Mostly, Always) does the causal analysis include the determination of:

1. What is the primary cause of the gap between what should be happening and what is happening.
2. Are there any other structural, managerial or motivational reasons for the lack of desired performance.
3. All of the above.

Q29. How often does your organisation tabulate and interpret of the information collected (training needs assessment) in the previous steps ?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q30. How often does your organisation report the results of the information collected in the previous steps to the client ?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q31. How often are the following data collected methods used to determine training needs in your organisation?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
1. Surveys (questions and answers).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Interviews (face to face - telephone).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Direct observation in the workplace.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Assessment on a regular basis of performance appraisals in order to Determine what part should be developed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Determination through specialist training committee.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Through a job description for individuals in your organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Sample of administrative production (monthly reports,committees,missions)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Group interview with managers and Supervisors.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Others.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Evaluation and follow up:

Q32. How often does your organisation conduct a systematic evaluation process in order to determine the effectiveness of the training and development programmes (internal and external courses) ?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q33. How often does your organisation apply the training evaluation systems to assess the trainees' reaction to the training programmes (completing a questionnaire at the end of the training programme/consulting the trainers or training providers)?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q34. How often does your organisation apply the training evaluation system to assess what the trainees have learned (skills and knowledge) from the training programmes (testing the trainees /interviewing the trainees/ consulting the trainees supervisors)?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q35. How often does your organisation apply tracking systems to assess the training outcomes for : behaviour or skills, non-observable(e.g. analytical ability/changes in attitude and values) and operational results?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q36. If your answer is (Rarely, Sometimes, Mostly, Always) are the behavioural, non-observable and operational outcomes, referred back to the symptoms that initiated the project in the first place?

1. Yes 2. No

Q37. How often does your organisation collect, tabulate, and interpret evaluation and tracking data?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q38. If your answer is (Rarely, Sometimes, Mostly, Always) based on which of the following statements:

1. The result from the reaction and learning evaluation.
2. Has the training programme been able to bridge the knowledge and skill deficiency identified?
3. Has the behaviour of the participants changed in the desired direction?
4. Has the initial problem been solved and desired business need achieved?
5. All of the above

Q39. How often does your organisation report back to the client to give results from all evaluation data ?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q40. Are you satisfied with the effectiveness of the evaluation methods, which are used in assessing the T&D programmes in your organisation?

1. Strongly dissatisfied 2. Dissatisfied 3. Don't know
 4. Satisfied 5. Strongly satisfied

Q41. If your evaluation process is not effective, which of the following statements might be responsible, indicate your answer by using the following scale, where SD (Strongly disagree; D (disagree), N (neutral); A (agree); and SA (strongly agree).

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Difficulties in measuring the performance's improvement in certain jobs (e.g. services).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Difficulties in measuring the change of behaviour over a short period of time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The absence of job description.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Lack of available financial resources for evaluation process.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Lack of knowledge about evaluation process.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Participants can not apply what they have learned in T&D programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. The absence of follow up process after the T&D programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Others-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q42. If these practices (Training needs assessment and Evaluation and Follow-up) are not implemented systematically according to the previous steps, what are the most three important reasons behind that?

1.
 2.
 3.

Section Three: *Factors affecting training and development activities in your organisation*

Strategic factors *We are interested to know about the training and development strategy, policies and planning that your organisation adopts.*

Q43. Does your organisation have a clear and defined strategy related to Human Resources Development?

1. Yes 2. No

Q44. If yes, is it derived from or related to the organisation's overall strategy?

1. To a very small extent 2. To small extent 3. To a medium extent
 4. To a great extent 5. To a very great extent

Q 52. To which of the following levels does your T&D plan relate ?

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Top management | 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Middle management |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Lower management/supervisory | 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Technical/ Clerical |
| 5. <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify)----- | |

Q53. Who is directly in charge of carrying out your T&D plans ?

1. Top management.
2. Line managers.
3. Personnel/human resource department/division.
4. Training and development department/division.
5. Others-----

Organisational factors

Q54. We would like to assess the extent of the co-ordination and mutual understanding between training managers and line managers in your organisation in term of T&D activities. Read the following statements, and indicate your answer using the following scale.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. There is a relation between the training department, and line managers, based on mutual understanding and an exchange of ideas to solve problems related to human resources development.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Line managers facilitate management training And development activities, and provide coaching, mentoring and support.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Line managers appreciate the value of T&D and they are keen to work with internal and external training staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Line Managers' attitude towards T&D is characterised by high level of commitment, associated with high level of understanding of what T&D is trying to achieve.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Line managers are willing to release employees for training programmes despite to their workload.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q55. Please give your opinion which reflects your personal evaluation of the following statements related to top management commitment to T&D activities in your organisation.

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Top management believes that T&D activities are essential to the organisations overall performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Top management is committed to, supports, provides all the facilities to T&D activities including the financial support and solving Problems and conflicts which affect T&D activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Commitment from top management to T&D activities in your organisation, would result in effective use of time , effort, and money.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Top management encourages individuals to develop themselves and create the proper environment where the newly acquired skills can be implemented.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The top management's support and commitment to your T&D efforts are satisfactory.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Competition for training budget allocation in your organisation is not affected in more serious cuts in comparison with allocation in other budget difficult financial times.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Implementation factors

Training Budget: we are interested to know how training and development budget is allocated in your organisation by answering the following questions?

Q56. Is there a specific budget devoted to T&D activities in your organisation?

1. Yes 2. No

Q57. If yes, is it sufficient to achieve T&D plans and objectives?

1. To a very small extent 2. To small extent
 3. To a medium extent 4. To a great extent
 5. To a very great extent

Q58. Who is responsible for determining the budget for T&D department/ activities in your organisation?

1. Top management 2. Senior management
 3. T&D or personnel department 4. Line managers
 5. Financial department 6. Others

Q59. In spending on T&D programmes, indicate what priorities you think are to be given to the following, by using the scale below where;

	A very small extent	To small extent	To a medium extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
1. Develop and improve top management.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Develop and improve middle managers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Develop and improve supervisors.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Develop and improve professional positions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Develop and improve office workers and secretarial staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Develop and improve technical staff.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q60. How often does your organisation conduct an estimation of the investment rate of return on T&D programmes for the organisation?

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Mostly 5. Always

Q61. For the last three years, describe how your training and development budget has changed?

1. cancelled 2. decreased 3. Remain the same 4. Increased

Training providers/Trainer: we are interested to know how your organisation implements training and development programmes, by answering the following questions?

Q62. What sources of training are given priority by your organisation during the preparation or implementation of your T&D plans/programmes?

1. External management consultants providers
2. Internal personnel and professionals

Q63. What are the main three factors that influence your choice between external training providers and internal professionals?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

Q64. If external management consultants providers are used, indicate the extent of the assistance provided, by using the scale below:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
1. Make changes to external T&D programmes to suit the organisation needs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Design T&D programmes from the beginning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Provide the organisation with specialist experiences in T&D programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
4. Conduct the T&D programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Evaluate the T&D programmes and content.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Training and teaching in regular basis.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Others-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q65. Does your organisation offer its own in-house T&D programmes?

1. Yes

2. No

Q66. If yes, please estimate the percentage of your total training activities conducted by your own organisation's personnel/professional ?.

1. Up to 20%

2. 21-40%

3. 41-60%

4. 61-80%

5. Above 80%

Q67. Do you have a clear policy for selecting training providers (trainers/training centres)?

1. Yes

2. No

Q68. If yes, please specify three most important criteria of choosing particular training providers;

1.-----

2.-----

3.-----

Q69. If no such policy exists, please give the reasons;

1.-----

2.-----

3.-----

Q70. How often does your organisation use the following training techniques either by your organisation or by external training providers in carrying out T&D programmes?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
1. Lectures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Management games	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Case study	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Special projects	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Group discussion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Role playing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Brain storming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Field work visits	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Audio visual aids	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Job rotation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Training by computer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Others-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q71. To what extent do you agree or disagree to the following statements regarding T&D in your organisation by using the scale given:

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Without well organised T&D programmes your organisation could not carry out the necessary changes and development plans.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Your organisation links the process of development and change to T&D programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. T&D programmes in your organisation could improve employees capabilities and help the improvement of total organisation's performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The T&D policies and plans are translated into measurable, workable programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. If the T&D programmes are to be effective, they should be directed to enhance or change the culture of your organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. T&D programmes and the development of individuals in your organisation give an opportunity to learn the necessary skills and knowledge which are required to cope with change in technology and use modern management approaches.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Policies and Plans for T&D programmes and flexible and adaptable to changing of circumstances.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. The incentives in your formal organisation system encourage individuals to participate in T&D programmes (e.g. promotion).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Your organisation environment and formal system help employees to apply what they have learned in T&D programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. The level of authority that you have now is sufficient to conduct your job requirements for training effectively and efficiently.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Your policies and plans for T&D are inspired by the organisations' policies and plans.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Your organisation suffers from a shortage of qualified and professionally trained personnel in the T&D field.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. This organisation emphasises that its T&D programmes are built upon a systematic approach rather than an ad hoc process (personal).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	SD	D	N	A	SA
14. Most of the trainers/instructors in Kuwait are neither competent nor professional.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. What individuals have learned on external training courses can not be applied when they return to their work because these courses are not tailored to your actual organisation's needs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Training providers use conventional training techniques which do not involve the trainees in the learning process.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Your organisation's system approach to training often fails to make significant impact on performance, because it is introduced in a piecemeal fashion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Your T&D plan includes all training and development needs (technical, managerial).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. In your organisation, management training receives scant attention due to the strong belief among managers that the best way to learn about management is through experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Your training policies are in harmony with the organisation's personnel policies (e.g. recruitment -salaries - promotion - security of development etc)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. The T&D plan you have deployed has achieved to a great extent the actual training needs in your organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Your organisational culture (believes, values, understanding) and environment encourage T&D activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. T&D programmes in your organisation help in imparting organisation culture to employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Your T&D objectives related to your organisation's culture.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Your organisation realises that recent dramatic changes in technology and product/ services require more T&D programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q72. To what extent do T&D programmes affect your organisation performance in the following areas, indicate your opinion using the scale below;

	A very small extent	To small extent	To a medium extent	To a great extent	To a very great extent
1. Higher productivity and efficiency leading to organisation growth and success.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Eliminate the current problems and reduce complaints.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Increase commitment and motivation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Fulfil individuals needs and personal Objectives.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. prove interpersonal and interdepartmental relations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Improve the quality of goods and services.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Lead to effective utilisation and investment of human resources.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q73. What procedures does your organisation use to adopt and implement T&D programmes?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
1. Through a training committee responsible for determining training needs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. By advertising for all potential individuals who are interesting taking the initiative.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Through the direct request of the individuals themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Through the direct request of line managers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Through training needs assessments to suit each individuals to the appropriate training programmes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Others-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q74. What factors could prevent the implementation of what the individuals have learned in T&D programmes in your organisation?.

1. -----
2. -----
3. -----

Q75. According to your experience, how would you rate your organisation in term of T&D policies and practices, in comparison with other similar organisations in Kuwait?

1. Poor 2. Fair 3. Average 4. Good 5. Excellent

Q76. Do you have any other comments, which you think may also be relevant to the research being undertaken?

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