

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SATISFACTION WITH TRAINING  
AND THE ATTITUDE OF SOLDIERS TOWARDS CAREER  
EXPECTANCY AND JOB INVOLVEMENT**

By

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Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

**MAGISTER TECHNOLOGIAE**

**HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

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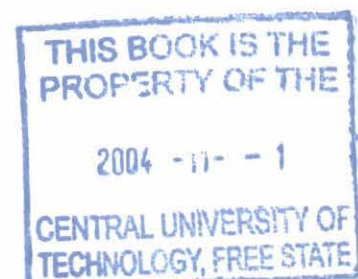
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## ABSTRACT

By

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### THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SATISFACTION WITH TRAINING AND THE ATTITUDE OF SOLDIERS TOWARD CAREER EXPECTANCY AND JOB INVOLVEMENT

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards career expectancy and job involvement at the Air Defence Artillery Formation of the SA Army is. The primary research question addressed by the study was: "What is the relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers, at the Air Defence Artillery Formation of the South African Army, towards career expectancy and job involvement?" The first sub-problem was to determine whether there is a relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards career expectancy. The second sub-problem was to determine whether there is a relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards job involvement. Sub-problem three was to determine whether there is a relationship between the attitude of soldiers towards career expectations and job involvement. Surveyed were, four hundred and sixty seven (476) full time soldiers from the Air Defence Artillery School and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment using a 51-item questionnaire. The satisfaction with training viewed as the independent variable divided in six sub-variables: planning, implementation, evaluation, vision and commitment, empowerment and general reactions. The Index of Organisational Reactions (IOR) scale (1996) measured career expectancy. The Lodahl and Kejner Job Involvement Scale (1965) assessed job involvement. Demographic data pertaining to gender, age, rank group, population group, and former force supplemented results. The researcher found that the satisfaction with training has a significant correlation with the attitude of soldiers regarding career expectancy and job involvement. Also found was a positive correlation between job involvement and career expectancy. Several recommendations for future research are given. This includes conducting a similar study at other units of the SA Army. Having established the importance of satisfaction with training, the researcher suggests that forging a link between training, career expectancy and work-related attitudes may well help the SA Army to move a step closer to a balanced and competent force; to explore further the use of job involvement and other work-related variables as potential outcomes of human resource development.

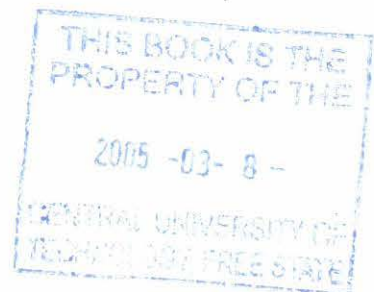
## DECLARATION

I, PIERRE JUAN DE MONTFORT, with identification number: 561128 5019 088 and student number: 9739874, declare that this research project is my own, unaided work, submitted, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree MASTER TECHNOLOGIAE: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT to the Technikon Free State, Bloemfontein, not submitted for a degree or examination at any other Technikon or University.



**PIERRE JUAN DE MONTFORT**

On this .....day of .....2003



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First, I give all glory to God, the source of my strength, for granting me both the mental and physical endurance to complete this monumental task. Then, I would like to thank my entire family, especially my loving wife Anna-Marie, for her love, patience, and understanding.

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## CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND

The institution of the new South African National Defence Force (SANDF) in April 1994 involved the integration of seven military forces. "Integration" comprised the combination and integration of the SADF, the armies of the "homelands" (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei, TBVC), the armed wings of the ANC (Umkhonto we Sizwe, MK), and the PAC (Azanian People's Liberation Army, APLA) and the "self-protection" units of the Inkata Freedom Party (IFP). This brought together different military, leadership, command, management, and social cultures. The White Paper on Defence (1996:21) indicates that the overall goal of integration is to establish a new defence force, which is professional, efficient, effective, and broadly representative.

The integration process complicated not just by political differences between the organisations involved; it also experienced vast differences in the standard of training between forces. The SADF was a regular force with a conventional army. The TBVC armies were small regular light infantry forces. Of the "non-statutory forces" (NSF), the armed wings of the ANC and PAC were strongly politicised, irregular forces, and the IFP "self-protection units" were local militias formed to protect their communities against attack by ANC supporters. The need for cultural transfer and the establishment of mutual national values within the framework of the military culture, traditions and ethics, also sets specific training requirements.

It is fair to assume that an organisation is only as good as its people. All organisations no matter how large or small have at least one thing in common: they must employ competent and motivated people. This need has become even stronger in the SANDF as it grapples with the challenges presented by integration, restructuring, downsizing, affirmative action, and representativity. To succeed the SANDF needs to include training as an important and effective part of its strategy, and developed its entire work force. According to Erasmus and Van Dyk (1999: IV) only people who are properly trained can be productive and contribute significantly to the success of an organisation. The White Paper on Defence (1996:10) state that, "Education, Training, and Development (ETD) within the SANDF are a cardinal means of building and maintaining a high level of professionalism".

## **1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY**

The White Paper on Defence (1996:21) acknowledges that the integration process has not been easy and trouble-free. According to Heitman (2003:54), integrating these contrasting groups into a conventional regular force was not a simple exercise, particularly given the added complication of the race issue. Inevitably, there were accusations of bias and racism regarding the ranks and posts assigned to members of the Non Statutory Forces (NSF). According to Heitman (2003:58), there is still some "hangover" from the process. There are a number examples of subordinates "carrying" under-qualified officers; over politicised officers with a sense of entitlement and little interest in their duties; and resentful white officers who cannot afford early retirement but have little interest in the future of the force. Those involved when black personnel

do not perform often incur the charge of racism. Large numbers of over-age and unfit black junior ranks from the NSFs cannot perform their duties. The government is reluctant to discharge these soldiers into an economy with high unemployment. The SA Army lost a number of experienced and well-trained soldiers due to policies of restructuring, downsizing, and affirmative action. The majority of the members that left the force indicated that they were no longer committed to be involved in their jobs and envisaged a restricted career future. The attitude of serving members attending training courses is a concern, as officers known to have cheated have passed and been appointed anyway (Heitman, 2003:58). The result is that less knowledge, skills and other competencies have carried over to the workplace.

Due to these challenges, the researcher concludes damage to the unwritten psychological contract between soldiers and the SA Army as well as a possible decline in job performance. Consequently, this disputes the performance and work attitude of soldiers, and creates perceptions of a constrained career future. Psychological contracts act as powerful determinants of organisational behaviour.

Human resource management practices are acknowledged as affecting the psychological contract. Training can be viewed as a human resource management practice that can be controlled or managed to elicit a desired set of unwritten reciprocal attitudes and behaviours, including job involvement. In return for demonstrations of these behaviours, employees have altered their view of what they feel is “owed” to them in return for their labour. Many employees have come to view training as “right of membership” and as a benefit of employment (Bartlett, 2001:338).

Bartlett (2001:338) suggests that human resource development managers have a role in defining and maintaining employee's psychological contracts. According to Schuler and McMillan (1984:241), training also recognises as a human resource management practice that contributes to gains in competitive advantage. Scott and Meyer (1991:298), postulate that contributions to productivity and organisational performance are the most dominant argument for justifying training.

However, conducting effective training programmes is no easy task. Tracey et al. (2001:7) point out variables outside the training context might influence the satisfaction with training. Given the difficulty in measuring performance, a more useful line of inquiry may be to examine the relationship between the satisfaction with training, and other internal factors such as attitudes, knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) found to influence employee behaviour.

Established is that all training programmes are efforts to change employee behaviour. In order to change any behaviour, however, we must first understand, the factors that cause employees to behave the way that they do. Armed with this knowledge, we can more accurately diagnose performance problems, understand what makes effective performance possible, and create training programs to create the behaviour we want.

DeSimone and Harris (1998:27) identify two forces that affect employee behaviour. It includes those within the employee, including motivation, attitudes and knowledge, skills, and abilities; and those found in the environment. An assumption is that internal and environmental forces interact and combine to produce a given behaviour.

This study focuses on the relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitudes of soldiers towards job involvement and career expectancy. Because of its assumed impact on performance job involvement is an important variable in explaining work-related behaviour. The intent of training is to improve performance. Job involvement is the extent to which people are attached to their jobs and the degree of importance that work holds in their life (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965:24). Bartlett (2001:336) proposes that, job involvement shares common elements with commitment to the organisation and career.

Nel et al. (2001:497) are of the opinion that training increases job involvement and provide the trainee with an avenue of growth, and say, in his or her own career future. Linked to training and development the organisation should invite soldiers to treat their relationships with the SANDF as a career. The White Paper on Defence (1996:84) indicated that training structured hierarchically to allow for career development.

Training influences the work attitudes of individuals in organisations. Therefore, exploring the relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitudes of soldiers towards the variables career expectancy and job involvement is potentially valuable in improving job performance and organisational effectiveness. To view training from this perspective indicates that it is involved in the process of social exchange operating within organisations and in the psychological contract that exist between employee and employer.

## 1.3 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

### 1.3.1 Research question

“Is there a relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitudes of soldiers towards career expectancy and job involvement?”

### 1.3.2 Objectives of the Study

The objective of the literature review was, to investigate the relationship between various aspects of the satisfaction with training and the attitude towards job involvement and career expectancy.

Empirically, the objective was, to investigate the relationship between various aspects of the satisfaction with training and the attitude towards job involvement and career expectancy.

The specific objectives for the study were:

- To determine whether there is a relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards career expectancy.
- To determine whether there is a relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards job involvement.

- To determine whether there is a relationship between the career expectancy and job involvement of soldiers.
- To determine whether there is a difference between men and woman regarding the satisfaction with training, job involvement, and career expectancy.
- To determine whether there is a difference between rank groups regarding the satisfaction with training, job involvement, and career expectancy.
- To determine whether there is a difference between age groups regarding the satisfaction with training, job involvement, and career expectancy.
- To determine whether there is a difference between race groups regarding the satisfaction with training, job involvement, and career expectancy.
- To determine whether there is a difference between former forces regarding the satisfaction with training, job involvement, and career expectancy.

### 1.3.3 The Definition of Key Terms

- Training. Training is the process of acquiring the knowledge, skills, and abilities necessary to perform a job (Lussier, 2000:267).
- Career Expectancy. Career expectancy, is the expectation that individuals have upon joining an organisation to have a career future, career prospects, career progress, and a job security in order to achieve their inherent potential, objectives and to enhance self-worth .
- Job Involvement. Job involvement is the extent to which people are attached to their jobs and the degree of importance that work holds in their life (Bartlett, 2001:240).

#### 1.3.4 The Importance of the Study

According to DeSimone and Harris (1998:8), there is a shift in human resource development models away from the traditional training function. The training function now includes career development. Four trends affect modern human resource development namely: a more diverse workforce; people does more knowledge work which requires judgement, flexibility, and personal commitment; people expect meaningful work and involvement; and a shift is occurring in the nature of the contract between organisations and their employees. There are few if indeed any studies that attempt to determine the relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitudes of soldiers toward career expectancy and job involvement.

Having established the importance of training, the researcher suggests that forging a link between the satisfaction with training, career expectancy, and work-related attitudes may well help the SA Army to move a step closer to a balanced and competent force.

The researcher is of the opinion, that if training and development of soldiers is in accordance with their career expectations, they will realise their full potential and become more involved in their jobs. In addition, it will contribute to realise the end-state of a single unified balanced and effective defence force.



## 1.4 GENERAL INDICATION OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 1.4.1 Design

The study uses a non-experimental quantitative research design. The interpretation of results considered the inherent weaknesses of the design, as well as the validity of conclusions drawn from the research results.

### 1.4.2 Sample

The target population of the study was the full time force soldiers of the Air Defence Artillery Formation of the SA Army, based on probability sampling. The Air Defence Artillery School and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment formed the sample frame of the study.

The sample frame consisted out of 258 members of the Air Defence Artillery School and 550 members of 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment. The units of analysis, that was drawn from the sample frame consisted out of 144 members (50%) from the Air Defence Artillery School and 332 members (61%) of 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment.

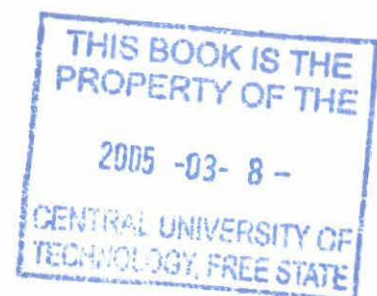
### 1.4.3 Measuring instruments

The measuring instrument, with consideration of the specific objectives and hypotheses of the study, was an attitudinal scale. The questionnaire consist out of attitude scales assessing the different concepts in the study, job involvement, career expectancy, and satisfaction with training and contains four sections with a total of 51 items. The items consist of statements with a Likert scale response format, upon which the respondent had to indicate his/her agreement with the statements.

### 1.4.4 Data Analysis

Measurement took place on an interval level using various statistical techniques. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient assessed the relationship between the satisfaction with training and career expectation, the relationship between the satisfaction with training and job involvement, and the relationship between career expectancy and job involvement.

The Scheffe comparison technique will determine whether the average self-ratings and the average rating of the different groups differ significantly or not, if normality of distribution is the case.



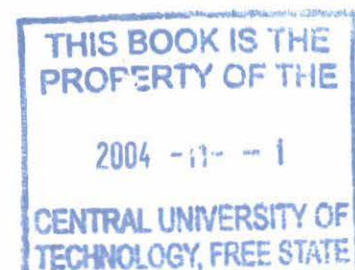
To determine which dimension of the satisfaction with training impacts on career expectations and job involvement, the multiple correlation coefficients  $R$  is determined with the aid of a regression analysis. The multiple correlation coefficients  $R$  indicate what the influence of the independent variable [aspects of training] is in the forecast of the dependent variable [career expectations and job involvement].

The T-Test measured differences between gender, rank, age, and former forces concerning satisfaction with training, career expectancy, and job involvement. One-way variance analysis (ANOVA) measured differences between population groups concerning satisfaction with training, career expectancy, and job involvement.

## 1.5 OUTLINE OF DISSERTATION

Besides this short introductory chapter, the report is organised into a further four chapters and appendices. Chapter 2, the literature review contains the theoretical framework that has informed this study. The research involved the constructs of training, career expectancy, and job involvement. A theoretical base for these constructs developed throughout the review and it culminated in a summary that draws on main conclusions from the material reviewed.

Chapter 3 discusses the methodology, which formed the basis of the research. The research strategy, sampling, measuring instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and sources of error is discussed.



Chapter 4 presented and interpreted the research results. The reporting started with a discussion of the sample profile and its characteristics. Briefly discussed are the representativeness of the sample and the validity of the questionnaire. The interpretations of findings draw the arguments together. The chapter indicated the major findings and possible support for the various research propositions.

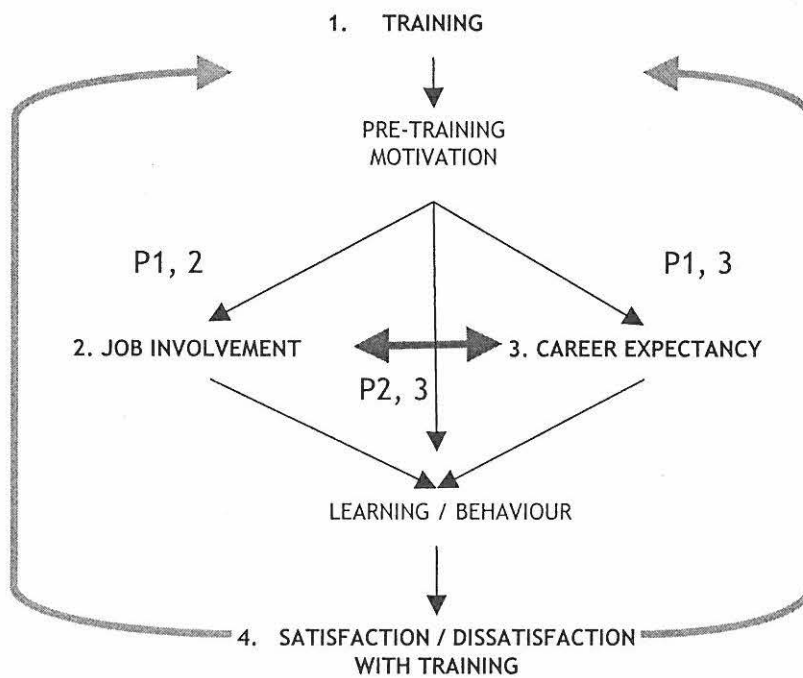
Chapter 5 presents the product of this endeavour. It argued the main findings obtained in the study by drawing together the results from the previous chapters. The researcher attempted to show the connections between results of the study and the literature reviewed in chapter 2. Made known are whether the results confirm or deviate from the expected. Shown are the possible limitations of the study. Given are recommendations on the implementation of findings, and possible policy implications. The chapter concludes with recommendations regarding further research, and larger relevance and value of the study.

## CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the theoretical framework that has informed the study. This review is organised around the key constructs of satisfaction with training, career expectancy, and job involvement as depicted in figure 2.1

Figure 2.1 – Conceptual Model of Constructs



Source: Own

Section one gives an overview of the training process. The text defines what training is. It explains training philosophy in order to reflect the vision and attitude towards training. Various training models put the training process into perspective. The training process is discussed describing three phases; planning, implementation, and evaluation which include feedback, and correction.

Section 2 introduces career expectancy. It defines the term career and clarifies what career expectancy is. Briefly mentioned are the different career stages. This is followed by the necessity to put the change in career expectancy and the self-managed career into perspective. The concept and perspectives of career expectancy is described and linked to the important role that satisfaction with training could play in career future. The section contains practical applications to explain the perceived situation at the SA Army units involved in the study.

Section 3, deals with job involvement as the degree, to which a person identifies with his or her job, actively participates in it, and considers his or her performance important to self-worth. Various definitions of job involvement are given. The possible link between satisfaction with training and job involvement is discussed. The relationship between job involvement and career expectancy is reviewed. The review attempts to link the different sections and put into perspective the role that satisfaction with training play in career expectancy and job involvement of soldiers at Air Defence Artillery Formation (ADA Formation).

## 2.2 TRAINING

### 2.2.1 Introduction

Organisations are concerned with productivity. An important influence on productivity is the quality of work life. A major investment necessary to improve quality of work life and productivity is training. Loedolff (1985:3) identifies five major forces that have an influence on training namely; organisational, economic, social, technological, and the learning situation. Therefore, in order to meet new challenges, even the best-educated employees need to increase and adapt their skills. Nordhaug (1989:373) notes, "Human resource development activities in organisations may have a substantial rewarding potential and are thereby an implicit part of reward systems". Scott and Meyer (1991:298) is of the opinion that many employees have come to view training as a "right of membership" and as a benefit of employment. According to Allen (1998:2) "Training is absolutely the fundamental point of getting more productivity. The only way you could really improve anybody, other than improving the method of how they work, is to train them". DeSimone and Harris (1998:26) postulate that "in order to change behaviour it is important to understand the factors that cause employees to behave in the manner that they do". The viewpoint of Cone (2000:1) is that, in any business, it is people who produce results. Ultimately, all training programmes are efforts to change employee behaviour. Bartlett (2001:338) view training as a management practice that can be controlled or managed to elicit a desired set of unwritten, reciprocal attitudes and behaviours, including job involvement, motivation, and organisational commitment.

The researcher concludes that the satisfaction with training will also impact on the work attitudes and behaviour of soldiers at the Air Defence Artillery Formation. Soldiers view training as a “right” and many see career training courses as something that they should attend in order to ensure career progress. To put the study into context it is necessary to give a broad overview of the training process.

### 2.2.2 Definition of Training

Training is a process to change employee’s behaviour at work through the application of learning principles. This behaviour change usually focuses on knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Anderson, 1994:9). Van Dyk et al. (1996:2) define training as a systematic and planned process to change the knowledge, skills and behaviour of employees in such a way to achieve organisational objectives. Bolton (1997:131) indicates that training is a planned process to modify knowledge or skills behaviour through learning experience, in order to achieve effective performance in an activity. Lussier (2000:267) view training as the process of acquiring the skills necessary to perform a job. Nel et al. (2001:467) regard training as a learning experience in that it seeks a relatively permanent change in an individual that will improve his or her ability to perform on the job.

The approach to training in the SA Army directs towards equipping its members with the necessary skills, knowledge, and attitudes for service (White Paper, 1996:83). As an individual’s career progresses, new skills and abilities are required (De Cenzo and Robbins, 1998:246).



This indicates that training refers to development possibilities within a job or position for a specific employee, with reference to the employee's personal growth and personal goals. Training is necessary to correct work procedure and to improve poor performance on the job. In the standing work procedure (Air Defence Artillery School, 2000:10) training at Air Defence Artillery Formation is defined as a systematic and planned process to improve the knowledge, skills and attitude of soldiers so that members can function effectively on the job, can be more involved in their jobs, and prepare them for a productive career in the SA Army. The focus, however, is on improving knowledge and skills, and unfortunately, neglects the affective objective of attitude towards or satisfaction with training to such an extent that it has a negative impact on training effectiveness.

Considering the abovementioned definitions the researcher concludes that training is a relative permanent change in behaviour as new knowledge, skills and attitudes achieves competency in, and/or improves job performance. Relative permanence indicates that it is important for the individual to pursue lifelong learning throughout his or her career to stay abreast of the latest developments and to prevent obsolescence. It is, therefore, imperative that individual soldiers remain satisfied with the training they receive.

### 2.2.3 Training Philosophy

The attitude of an organisation towards training reflects in its philosophy, and this governs the priorities, standards, and scope of its training activities (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:61).

Every organisation has a certain philosophy on training. This philosophy reflects the value that management attach to training (Van Dyk et al., 2001:83). The visibility of such a philosophy may have a positive effect on soldier's satisfaction with training. In practice, it manifests in the presence of a training mission. The training mission clearly states the organisations intent of utilising its human resource potential to the maximum. It centres on assumptions, principles, and a clearly defined training policy. Nel et al. (2001:475) argues that it is essential for an organisation to base its training policy on an integration of job content, management skills, and leadership training, in accordance with various career levels. All the employees of an organisation should receive training throughout their careers. Training gives employees the necessary skills that enable them to perform the work required within their functional areas.

The White Paper on Defence (1996:83) has established the broad philosophy within which training take place in the SA Army. Within this framework the following guidelines apply: training shall be competency based as far as practical, based on sound educational technology principles, training is used to improve the individuals performance and not as a disciplinary tool, training in the SA Army recognises the dignity of the individual and must be conducted in an environment conducive to

learning, training in the SA Army is based on clearly defined needs, linked to work or international standards, the training course content is being scientifically developed through course design, all training are reviewed periodically to make it more cost effective while maintaining or improving standards.

SA Army Order GS3/95 (1994:1) provides guidelines for the command and control over training activities at the Air Defence Artillery Formation. The policy states that all training takes place in two spheres namely the unit and the individual. The aim of training in the unit is to achieve the highest degree of preparedness to be effective, productive, and combat ready. Concerning the training of the individual, the aim is to equip the individual with the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes to fill his place as a soldier in peace and war.

The Air Defence Artillery Formation is totally committed to the idea of creating delighted learners. Policy regarding vision and commitment to training and empowerment includes to do things right the first time, every time. Officers and instructors should always demonstrate by their actions their personal commitment to learner satisfaction. When mistakes are made the focus are on the problem and not on the apportionment of blame. All learners and employees are treated with respect. Ensures that at all levels employees have a good understanding of products and services and it creates training opportunities to make it possible for employees to attend training at the proper time.

According to Nel et al., (2001:476) training can only take place effectively if executed within the context of a logical and systematic process. It is possible to achieve through the application of a suitable training model.

#### 2.2.4 Training Models

Literature indicates various training models. To outline some of these models is important, before discussing relevance to the SA Army. The Critical Events Model (Nadler, 1982:14), the High Impact Model (Chang, 1995:15), the PIE Model (Newby et al., 2000:66) is all models applicable to the training process of the SA Army.

Nadler (1982:14) describes the Critical Events Model (CEM). The model begins with the determination of needs, proceeds through objectives, content and strategies, and ends with evaluation. A model, which has gained popularity due to its simplicity and effectiveness, is the high impact model. Chang (1995:15) indicates a six-phase process, which focuses on providing effective and targeted training. In this model, each phase moves the training effort forward; in other words, the one phase is the input for the next. The six phases constitute: Identify training needs, map the approach, produce learning tools, apply training techniques, calculate measurable results and track ongoing follow-through. Newby et al. (2000:66) introduces the PIE model, describing three interrelated processes namely planning, implementation, and evaluation. The emphasis is on what learners and instructors can do to positively affect learning, and thus enhance the satisfaction with training.

The South African National Defence Force Training Manual (1993:3) describes the training model of the SA National Defence Force (SANDF) in five phases namely; determination of the need for training, design of training, presentation of training, evaluation, feedback and correction. The SA Army and subsequently the Air Defence Artillery Formation uses this training model as basis to approach training.

All the training models reviewed by the researcher have common steps namely; planning, implementation, and evaluation, which include feedback and correction. The training model of the SANDF also contains all the important common steps as described by (Nadler, 1982; Chang, 1995; and Newby et al., 2000).

## 2.2.5 Discussion of the Training Process

A discussion of the steps in the training process puts the study in perspective and serves as background that informs the study.

### 2.2.5.1 Planning

Planning is the process in which the instructor as manager looks at a task to be undertaken, set goals, and plans a strategy to achieve those goals in the most effective way possible (Buchel, 1993:7). Thorough planning is a vital requirement for any course as the achievement of the conditions and requirements of effective instruction and learning depends on it (Van Dyk et al., 1996:39).



Planning is the management task concerned with deliberately reflecting on the objectives of the organisation (Van Der Westhuizen, 1999:137). The quality of planning influences the success of the other steps in the training process. Planning is, in a certain sense, a bridging action between the present and the future.

Planning at the Air Defence Artillery Formation involves a systematic and logical process in which training goals are set, the best method to achieve these goals determined, the quality of facilities ensured, course material arranged, a proper system of course administration established, and training plans drawn up to facilitate the rest of the training cycle (Air Defence Artillery School, 2000: 2-1). Walkinshaw (1992:14) describes that planning consists out of the following steps; situational need analysis, target group analysis, formulating of learning objectives, structuring of contents, and the selection of training strategies and instructional methods. Each of these steps will subsequently be discussed.

### Situational need analysis

The starting point for the planning of organised learning events in an organisation is a comprehensive need assessment. Briggs (1977:21) describes needs assessment as a systematic process to determine goals, identify discrepancies between goals and the status quo, and establishing priorities for action.

Wexley & Latham (1985:22) identify three kinds of analysis: organisation, task, and individual. These analyses provide answers to the following three questions: Where in the organisation is training obligatory? What must a trainee learn in order to perform the job effectively? Who, needs training, and what kind? According to Loedolff et al. (1992:164), the purpose of a situational analysis is to assess the unique requirements of a situation. Sparg et al. (1999:23) is of the opinion “before setting up any programme, one will have to become aware of the need for training”.

### Target Group Analysis

Rothwell and Kazanas (1992:69-72) assess situation-related, decision-related and learner-related characteristics in order to define the target group. Identifying the target group is a critical element in the planning phase. Walkinshaw (1992:14) argues that training design places the student central in the learning process. It is therefore, not possible to design a programme for a certain group if the trainer does not have knowledge of the intended target group for the programme. According to Erasmus and Van Dyk (1999:126), defining the target group is an important component of the training needs phase. Target group analysis at the Air Defence Artillery Formation forms part of long-term career planning. Career interview on an annual basis is important. During career interviews, soldiers are informed on what training and development courses to take over the next few years.

## Formulating Learning Objectives

The next step in the planning process is the formulation of learning objectives. Mager & Beach (1985:108) suggest that learning objectives present a statement of instructional intent written in any form necessary to clarify the intention. According to Ribler (1985:111-112) the essential features of objectives are that it have to be observable and measurable. Humphrey and Halse (1991:5) indicate training objectives that specifically relate to the organisation overall objectives; ensure management's commitment and involvement in subsequent training programmes. The aim of teaching is to accomplish goals (Kruger and Muller, 1995:36).

Van Kavelaar (1998:19) is of the opinion that learning objectives force you to think about what you are doing and why you are doing it. Jerling (1999:66) argues that goals communicate general ETD outcomes that are long range, while objectives communicate specific outcomes that are short range and narrower in scope. Goals serve as the general framework for deriving specific learning objectives. Newby et al. (2000:72) articulate that objectives form the foundation of a lecture. They give direction to those designing lectures, those delivering lectures, and those receiving the lecture. It facilitates the degree to which the purpose of instruction is accomplished.



The researcher concludes that goals and objectives are key steps in shaping a training environment. Unless objectives are clear and logical, there is no way to measure success. There is a difference between outcomes and objectives. The course outcome states the desired end-state of the module or training programme (the destination) and that the learning event outcomes state the outcome for one event of 45 minutes. An objective on the other hand is a description of performance that learners must be able to exhibit before you consider them competent.

### Structuring of Contents

Once learning objectives have been determined, the knowledge and skills that the learner must be able to perform is known, and therefore the next activity should be the structuring of contents (Van Niekerk, 1991:53). The plan states, how the objectives are structured and translated into programme details (Humphrey and Halse, 1991:43-51).

Jerling (1999:118) states that sequencing is the process by which the content and learning experience are organised to facilitate the maximum learning in the shortest time. From the literature, it is clear that authors differ on the stage where structuring should be carried out, with which other activities it connects and how to execute it. Some see it as part of the process to determine needs while others sees it as a separate activity. It is, however, important to structure and sequence learning contents so that the training programme will progress in a logical fashion from start to end. This logical progression must also make sense to the learner.

The proper sequencing of instructional objectives is essential, as it can have a significant impact on the efficiency and effectiveness of training. At the Air Defence Artillery Formation, a core curriculum describes the contents of the course and indicates what both the instructor and student must achieve during the training programme.

### Selection of Training Strategies and Instructional Methods

According to Van Kavelaar (1998:27), an important principle for effective training is to get the learners actively involved. Instructional method is the way in which subject matter is presented to learners. When selecting a method, consider the subject, class size, resources such as time and space, and the learners. Erasmus & Van Dyk (1999:159) indicate that the selection of instructional strategies follow directly after completion of the lesson plan. In selecting instructional strategies, the learning circumstances dictate the methods used. This can result in a combination of methods and techniques. An instructional strategy refers to all instructional aids that can be used, learning activities that occur during the instructional period and all supporting resources used in the process.

Newby et al. (2000:90) are of the opinion that instructional methods and media are the tools used to create learning experiences. Instructional methods are the procedures selected to help learners achieve the learning objectives and media are carriers of information between a source and a receiver.

The researcher concludes that selecting methods, media, and materials are separate but interrelated decisions made in any order. Selected instructional materials depend on the methods or media used. Other times it is appropriate or necessary to select instructional materials prior to deciding on methods and media. Regardless of the order, of selection of these elements, consider the students, the objectives, the learning environment, and the available resources.

In establishing a learning environment and making resources available, the quality of training facilities, appropriate course material, and effective course administration is very important. It will be easier said than done for instructors to plan by the book and create a learning environment that is conducive for learning, if the quality of facilities and course material are not adequate.

From the discussion on planning, it is clear that effective planning is of paramount importance to put together a successful training programme, as it forms the basis for all the other management actions. Without proper planning, training will not have a clear mission. In its simplest form planning means setting instructional goals and deciding how best to achieve them. It involves identifying ways of achieving instructional goals and decision about the resources needed to implement the training programme such as training facilities, course material, course administration, information about training courses available.

### 2.2.5.2 Implementing

Planning go over into practice through the steps of organising, preparation, and presentation. Buchel (1993:4) states that organisation means putting the planning into action. Badenhorst et al. (1996:17) argue that organising involves the combination of human, financial, and physical resources in the most effective way to accomplish goals.

Smit and Cronjé (1999:209) indicate organising as the process of creating a structure for the organisation that will enable its people to work together effectively toward its objectives. Robbins & De Cenzo (2001:164), view organising as arranging and grouping jobs, allocating resources, and assigning work to accomplish activities as planned.

Once a training organisation and structure is in place, preparation for the implementation of the training programme can commence. The establishment of a suitable learning atmosphere is one of the main factors contributing to successful training (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:157). Newby et al. (2000:144) summarises preparation as four P's: prepare instructional materials; prepare learning environment; prepare learners; and proceed with the lesson. At this point, all those involved have been notified of the training programme, facilities have been made available, suitable course material has been arranged, course instructor's are ready and funding has been made available. The only steps that remain are to present the training.

Buchel (1993:39) is of the opinion that the training practitioner's role is to present the curriculum to learners in a clear, simple and thorough way so that they learn the content and understand how it relates to their existing knowledge. The learner must understand how and why different sections of the curriculum fit together. The implementation of the curriculum must be management in such a way that it is completed in the time available, that preparation is careful and effective, that presentation is flexible enough to accommodate learners that have been absent from the training programme for a period of time.

Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1997:38) implement plans by means of directing through: initiating actions, issuing orders, exercising control over the starting phase, guiding and developing personnel to be able to carry out the tasks, making decisions with the aim of providing guidance and indicating the course of action. Suggestions are made on how to empower learners and instructors in the class situation: tell them about their responsibility, give them authority equal to their responsibilities, set standards, give them feedback on their performance, give recognition, trust them, and treat them with dignity.

Jerling (1999:164) indicate that it is important to establish appropriate norms or ground rules for the training programme. The following group norms guide learning: encourage learners to express themselves honestly, respect confidentiality, urge risk-taking, expect participation, and promote the value of feedback, welcome questions and punctuality.

Van Dyk et al. (2001:286) give some hints for presenting instruction: During planning the trainer must ensure that, the content of the training programme corresponds with the set objectives and the expected learning outcomes and that the content satisfies the needs of the target group. The trainer must be clear on what type of behaviour is required of learners in terms of the objectives and the learning outcomes in other words the course objectives must be logical and clear. Further aspects considered include the learner's attitude, previous experience, and knowledge levels. The presentation needs a structure. A good learning structure gives rise to improved retention and evaluation. A structure can include an introduction, main element, and a conclusion.

SA National Defence Force Training Manual (1993:82-97) details an amount of activities that has an impact on the preparation and presentation of SA Army training programmes. Subjects discussed include: the preparation for training courses; the preparation of instructors and supervisors at a training institution, the production of course material; the layout and contents of training facilities, the nature and the handling of training documentation, the use of tasks books in training and, the use of a control / inventory list for the administrative control of training etc.

The Air Defence Artillery School Standing Work Procedure (2000:2-18) describes how the implementation of training in the Air Defence Artillery Formation should be effected. The preparation carried out before the beginning of a training programme is crucial for the successful presentation of a course. Preparation done before the start of the training programme will result in much less pressure on the trainers once the

course commences. Trainers, therefore, will be able to give added attention to the learners.

The researcher concludes that a professional approach to instruction is imperative for the successful implementation of any course. Training sessions must meet the expectations of learners. The presentation of modules and subjects must be according to the curriculum, block programme and weekly programme. Instructors must demonstrate the ability to apply the correct method of instruction, to create an effective learning atmosphere and effectively link theory to practice.

#### 2.2.5.3 Evaluation

In the rush to train and educate people, many organisations fail to treat the evaluation of training as a priority. At best, the evaluation of training has been a mechanical task with little analysis and usefulness. In the minds of many practitioners, evaluation view as a problem rather than a solution, an end rather than a means (Foxon, 1989:90). Boverie et al. (1994:1) argues that evaluating the effectiveness of costly training efforts is vital to the success of any program.

According to Boverie et al. (1994:2) it is important to remember that effective evaluation is multifaceted and that literature recognises the importance of evaluation in terms of customer orientation, satisfaction and economic returns. In other words, if customers do not perceive a return on investment, they may not be willing to continue to invest in training. Subsequently different perspectives of evaluation are referred to.

One of the most comprehensive and widely referenced models of evaluation is that of Kirkpatrick (1979:78-92). The four levels of this model are; reaction, learning, behaviour, and results. Reaction is the term that refers to how well the participants liked a particular training program. Evaluation of participants' reactions consists of measuring their feelings; it does not include a measure of actual learning (p.79). Learning is the "principles, facts, and techniques that were understood and absorbed by the participants (p.82). The third level in the evaluation model is transfer of learning (p.86). The fourth level of evaluation is results or impact on the organisation.

Attempting to measure results is not for the fainthearted! Although measuring training programs in terms of results may be the best way to measure effectiveness, Kirkpatrick (1979:89) points out "there are ... so many complicating factors that it is extremely difficult if not impossible to evaluate certain kinds of programs in terms of results." In the human resource development literature, there are relatively few examples of studies that have specifically attempted to assess the transfer of training skills or knowledge to the job. End-of-course evaluations from learners are helpful in improving a training program next time round (Stevenson, 1985:221).

The aim of training evaluation in the SA Army is to measure the output of a training programme in order to determine whether changes are needed (Walkinshaw, 1992:18). The design of a training programme must make provision for the evaluation of three aspects, namely learner evaluation, course evaluation and test evaluation.



Goldstein (1993:147) constitutes that evaluation is the systematic collection of information to make effective training decisions related to the selection, adoption, value, and modification of various instructional activities. McMillan (1997:75-291) focuses on what trainers do prior to, during, and after and instructional activity, rather than by the type of evaluation technique.

Jerling (1999:219) state that the purpose of evaluation is to establish the success of a course. She indicates that two types of evaluation can be distinguished, namely formative, and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation implies an uninterrupted process to evaluate a course while developed. Summative evaluation after the course conclusion is to assess the effectiveness of the course. Summative evaluation present on four levels, namely: reaction, learning, behaviour, and results. Summative evaluation corresponds with the Model of Kirkpatrick (1979). Mikkers and Verster (2000:3) broadened the viewpoint of Jerling and categorised evaluation in five ways namely, diagnostic, formative, summative, norm-referenced and criterion-referenced evaluation.

The researcher concludes that there are several components to an effective evaluation programme. It is necessary to measure the results of any training programme in order to determine its effectiveness in terms of the individual, group and organisation. In terms of the individual, it is important to measure the reactions to training; for example, does the learner have confidence in what he has learned? Is the learner satisfied with what learned? Are the courses useful in improving job

performance? How the courses rated overall? Is time of learners fully utilised during courses?

On the organisational level at the Air Defence Artillery Formation evaluation aims to improve the standard of training by ensuring that training directives are followed, the training plan executed as planned, and that the correct instructional techniques are used. By means of effective evaluation, it is possible to determine the gaps between actual performance and planned performance, and to launch corrections that will close this gap and improve the standard and effectiveness of training.

The approach to evaluation is one of honesty and fairness. Informal evaluations are done on a weekly basis to determine whether intermediate objectives is achieved and to indicate any shortfalls in training, and formal evaluation at the end of a training phase to determine if unit objectives have been achieved and if learners pass the specific phase. Unfortunately there is a widespread under-evaluation of training programs, and those programs that are evaluated are assessed in a disproportionate manner.

In the opinion of the researcher the majority of instructors at the Air Defence Artillery School do not perceive training programmes as an instructional system, nor do they fully understand what the evaluation of training constitutes. Although evaluation is a concept based on solid theoretical thinking its practice is not well developed.

Learning defined in terms of knowledge, and acquisition of skills, can occur only when individuals have both the ability (“can do”) and the desire (“will do”) to acquire new knowledge and skills. “Will do” factors, that may influence training and the satisfaction with training includes career expectancy and job involvement.

## **2.3 CAREER EXPECTANCY**

### **2.3.1 Introduction**

Organisations exist because they produce outputs that their customers want. What organisations produce is a direct result of work completed by their employees. “Workers and their organisations share a symbolic relationship; no organisation means no workers; no workers mean no organisation. In that sense, career is a joint responsibility of workers and their organisations if both are to succeed (Dubois, 2000:2)”. In order for people to do their career work effectively, they must possess and use a wide variety of knowledge and skills.

Virtually all the competencies people use to succeed in their career can also complete their day-to-day work. Therefore, organisations are wise to invest in training, helping their employees to acquire and use critical career competencies (Dubois, 2000:1).

### 2.3.2 Definition of Career

Career is a set of work-related experiences, behaviours, and attitudes encountered throughout working life (Griffin, 1993:623). It is a process by which individual's progress through stages, each characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes, and tasks (DeSimone and Harris, 1998:10), a sequence of positions held by a person during his or her lifetime (Robbins and Coulter, 1999:357). According to Gordon (1999:68) career involves two distinct processes: career planning and career development.

Career planning involves activities performed by an individual, with the assistance of counsellors and others to assess his or her abilities in order to establish a realistic career plan and future. Career development involves taking the necessary steps to achieve that plan. Dubois (2000:1) states that career is the process of determining what one's path through life will be, how that journey should or will be made, and how to manage the demands of one's life and work along the way .

Career expectancy therefore, can be termed as the expectancy that individuals have upon joining an organisation to have career prospects and a meaningful career in order to achieve their inherent potential and objectives and enhance their self-worth. Important indicators are; future with the organisation, career progress, job security, and job involvement.

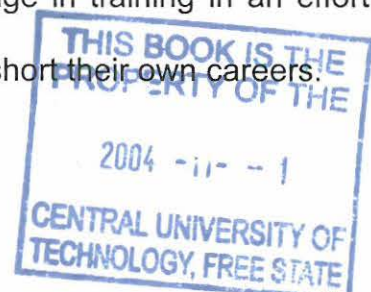
The researcher concludes that there is a relationship between career and training activities, as career plans can be implemented, at least in part, through the organisations training programs. Organisational roles and career stages within professions may also influence the satisfaction with training.

### 2.3.3 Career Stages

Griffin (1993:623) describes different career stages. Exploration is the first stage, which usually occurs during the first few years of an individual's adult life. Establishment is the second stage career during which an individual is likely to receive occasional promotions and reassignments. Maintenance is the midcareer stage during which some people continue on an upward career track, others reach a plateau. Stage 4 is the disengagement stage during which a person begins to plan for retirement and gradually psychologically withdraw from an organisation.

Evans (2000:6) discusses three career phases, namely, exploration, establishment, and mid-late career. Workers have to be more flexible and career moves may be from one career line to another. Therefore, mid and late-career stages is viewed as periods of mastery and maintenance.

In the opinion of Maurer (2001:4) rapid changes in the nature of work strongly suggest that workers in mid- and late-career stages need to be increasingly involved in continuous training at work. Those who do not engage in training in an effort to continuously update their knowledge and skills may cut short their own careers.



Dubois (2000:6) says, “People usually find themselves recycling through prior stages of their career work as they achieve, modify, discard, rework their goals, or as life circumstances surface that require changes to their paths. Completing career work successfully, which means completing the journey through life successfully, requires that people have and use, in appropriate ways, certain knowledge and skills”.

According to Maurer (2001:4) in a survey of human resource executives which asked them to describe the typical worker’s contribution over the course of his/her career, the most common response was a training dependent pattern, meaning that the worker’s value depended on whether he/she maintained skills.

The researcher concludes that the Air Defence Artillery Formation must, therefore, create and make training and development opportunities available to soldiers to acquire and use career work competencies in order to prevent obsolescence. Employees must be able to attend training at the right time, get opportunities to be involved in decisions about which training to undertake. Training should also create promotion opportunities for soldiers.

#### 2.3.4 Change in Career Expectancy

Robbins and Coulter (1999:357) explain that career training was designed by organisations to help employees advance their work lives within a specific organisation. The focus of such training programmes was to provide the information, assessment, and training needed to help employees realise their career goals.

Career expectation was also a way for the organisation to attract and retain highly talented people. Those are all but disappearing in today's workplace. Widespread internal changes in organisations have led to uncertainty and chaos as far as the concepts of a traditional organisational career.

In Maurer (2001:3) the view is confirmed that, within the workplace in prior decades, people were able to acquire a set of skills that built upon each other that could lead to advancement within traditional, linear careers. Often people could work for a firm or within a career line until retirement, and seniority and maturity were valued qualities. This allowed for gradual "gravitation" with time toward a job that suited the workers existing skills. However, in recent years we have seen a dramatic shift from these types of organisational careers toward a more "protean" or variable and ever-changing career.

Evans (2000:12) argues that the notion of a career uniquely as a vertical ladder (linear career) becomes increasingly simplistic and perhaps even dangerous. It is out of line with the growing reality of leaner organisational structures, of fast growth organisations where there are no ladders or where the ladders change with changes in strategic orientation, and it stalemates lower growth organisations where the ladders are blocked.

Bennet (Sunday Times Nov 18, 2001) pinpoints three trends changing the traditional career forever: (1) Globalisation – the social condition of work will be a growing competitive factor affecting everything from company performance to attracting and retaining staff. (2) Virtualisation – essentially the impact of information technology on where and when people work; the changing relationship between work and services, and (3) lifelong employment – evident, for instance, in the growth in teleworking, outsourcing, performance-related pay, and contract work.

Robbins (2001:69) is of the opinion that the unwritten psychological contract that exists between employers and employees has been seriously damaged, and the notion of an employee to be with a single organisation for most of his or her career has become increasingly obsolete. Downsizing, delayering, restructuring, reengineering, affirmative action and other organisational adjustments have brought one significant conclusion about career expectancy, the individual – no longer the organisation alone – is responsible for his or her career.

The opinion of Robbins is in step with current trends within the SA Army. Integration has led to the restructuring and transformation of the SA Army to include all population groups on a representative basis. Unfortunately, many of the soldiers who took the voluntary severance package (VSP) route were precisely those skilled and experienced officers whom the armed forces could not really afford to lose.



The researcher concludes that a linear career still apply largely at the Air Defence Artillery Formation as well as the rest of SA Army. Soldiers are secure of their jobs, and course attendance and promotions largely centres on the existing promotion policy. The situation, however, is busy changing to ensure a more representative force.

### 2.3.5 Self-Managed Career

As indicated in the discussion of changes in career development, a compilation of internal and external factors influences the face of careers. The viewpoint of Robbins and De Cenzo (1998:579) are that future success in job positions will require individuals to pursue lifelong learning. To read extensively and keep current on new concepts, practices, and changes in industry is expected. The regular attendance of company seminars, workshops, and evening college classes to upgrade skills is very important. The need to take occasional leave of absence from work, in order to go back to school for advanced certificates and degrees are possible. Nel et al. (2001:510) supports this view and add that it is of cardinal importance that employees know what they want and how they want to spend their working lives.

Robbins (2001:484) is of the opinion that there is a decline in formal training programs intended to guide an employee's career within a single organisation. Some employees, however, still value career planning and development. Organisations can increase employer commitment, loyalty, and job satisfaction by encouraging and guiding employees in developing a self-managed career plan, and by clearly

communicating the organisations goals and future strategy, giving employee's growth experiences, offering financial assistance to help employees keep their knowledge and skills current and providing paid time off for off-the-job training.

The researcher concludes that career planning is thus something increasingly done by individual employees rather than by their employers. It has become the employee's responsibility to keep her or his skills, abilities, and knowledge current. However, it remains very important that the Air Defence Artillery Formation give soldiers the opportunity to attend career promotional and other training courses to enable them to gain and sustain the knowledge and skills necessary for continued job performance and career growth.

The scope of this study, assumes that there is a direct link between training and career expectancy. It is impossible for any soldier at the Air Defence Artillery Formation to make any career progress without attending training courses. Promotion couples to the successful completion of certain career courses. Affirmative action and equal opportunities to balance representivity on all levels take preference. This has an effect on how soldiers perceive their career future, and has a direct influence on the motivation to attend and complete career courses. It also has an effect on job involvement, as members get frustrated and negative because of unfulfilled career expectations. It leads to a high rate of turnover as members leave the organisation. Therefore, the following questions are of importance: "How do you feel about your future with the organisation?" "How do your feelings about your future with the organisation influence your job involvement?" "What is the influence of hard work on

your career future?” “Do you feel that you are getting ahead in the organisation” and “How secure are you in your job?”

### 2.3.6 The Importance of Training in Career Expectancy

Kaye (1985:258) suggests that training may be considered an investment in human resources that will provide many important benefits and returns to the organisation. Yet organisations tend to plunge ahead with training because, after all, it seems like the right thing to do. The challenge for those who make decisions about employee training is to move beyond the realm of “it might do some good and it can’t do any harm.”

An important means to move beyond this sphere is to, approach training as a strategy for individual career development that will benefit both the individual and the organisation. If the link with career expectancy is forged, training is put in a framework of employee goals and organisational human resource needs. With such linkage, both the trainee and the organisation can make relevant decisions about the use of training time and financial commitment. When training is seen as part of career expectancy, it is no longer seen as an end in itself. Career expectancy linked to training allows an organisation to look backwards and forwards – to decide who must train in what areas, how, and what use will be made of the training.

Reid and Barrington (1997:263) indicates that the expectations of employee's influence the satisfaction with training. Although the individual soldier is co-responsible for his or her own career, the SA Army has the responsibility to maintain a well-balanced and capable force. It will not be able to do this without creating career and training opportunities for its members ("It is possible for me to attend training at the proper time", "I get enough opportunities to decide what training I would like to do" and "training has created promotion opportunities for me", "I am satisfied with the opportunities I get to learn new things").

Gryzb et al. (1998:4) is of the opinion that as individuals move through career stages various factors may influence their decisions to participate in training. The motivation to participate in training may also effect job involvement ("job involvement has an influence on my commitment to undertake and pass courses"). This perspective offer ways to think about the variety of learning needs that confront employees at different points in their careers and perhaps suggest ways to enhance the satisfaction with training by directly addressing pressing workplace or career issues.

Tait (1990) as quoted in Gryzb et al. (1998:3) compared reasons for training involvement for industry-based engineers, scientists, and technologists in three career stages and suggested there is developmental progression through the career stages. Houle (1980) as quoted in Gryzb et al. (1998:3) suggested that in hierarchical settings, and particularly in professions based on them, the line of advancement is more clearly apparent and can influence their desire for, and satisfaction with training.

Smuts and Queeney (1990) as quoted in Gryzb et al. (1998:3) suggested that professional development requires an understanding of the structural features of a profession and the role that training plays in career expectancy. This involves understanding the professions knowledge and skills, responsibilities and tasks, the division of labour, and various career stages (“I’m well informed on what training and development courses I must take over the next few years”).

According to Allen (1998:5), for training to be effective, employees should be convinced that it is important to them. If training is effective, employees will be satisfied with training and able to demonstrate that they have the skill and knowledge to perform their tasks. (“The training that I received enables me to work more effectively”, “My continued on-the-job training enables me to work more effectively”, “I have enough opportunities to apply the knowledge gained during training in my work”).

Carrel et al. (1998:347) argues that well-planned and executed career training programmes will benefit both the organisation and the employees in a number of ways. Higher levels of education have raised career expectations. Many workers hold their employers responsible for providing training opportunities so that those expectations may be realised. Because progression along the career path relates to job performance, an employee is likely to be motivated to participate in training and to perform at peak levels so that career goals may be accomplished. Perhaps the most meaningful aspect of career expectancy is the accumulation of work experiences and away-from-the-job training activities that broaden employee’s skills and abilities.

Effective training enables the employee to assume increasingly challenging job responsibilities and to perform at higher job levels. Training activities are core components of career management in organisations. Through training, employees gain skills, abilities, knowledge, and attitudes that help them perform more effectively in present and future jobs.

Gerber et al. (1998:149) suggest that there is a close link between training and career development, since training is a means that enable employees to achieve their own career goals. According to Nel et al. (2001:40) an employee's behaviour within an organisation is the function of his or her perception of the content of the psychological contract.

Bartlett (2001:338) is of the opinion that the unwritten psychological contract and the employment relationship – is a relationship embedded in the context of the social exchange theory. Psychological contracts describe individual's beliefs about their employment relationship and guide employee's beliefs about what they think they are entitled to receive because of real or perceived promises from their employing organisation. It is suggested that human resource development managers have a role in defining and maintaining employee's psychological contracts. To view training from this perspective indicates that it is involved in the process of social exchange operating within organisations and in the psychological contract that exist between employee and employer.

In summary, one key determinant of satisfaction with training results from participation. This section supports that training participation relates to the perceptions that training is available and that the organisation supports training for career advancement (Bartlett, 2001:339). If the link with career development is forged, training is put in a framework of employee goals and organisational human resource needs. With such linkage, both the trainee and the organisation can make relevant decisions about the use of training time and financial commitment. Because training in the career development context must take a long-term view and account for a vast array of individual needs, it is important to look beyond traditional methods. Most organisations insist on a fair return on training investment. If the bottom line concern results, rather than simply completion of a training activity, the career link to training is likely to enhance the chances of a favourable return. Training programs that tie directly to the training needs of individuals will move those individuals towards their own career goals. Carefully planned and selected training events of all kinds, instead of training "for the sake of it", leads to more cost effective training, and individuals, managers, and training practitioners will reap the rewards. Understanding what role training plays can lead to determining the relative influence of deterrents and motivational variables and ultimately provide programs that are more suitable to work performance and job involvement needs. Employees, who actively participate in decision-making and problem solving, are properly trained and have a career future, are progressively able to handle more complex and challenging situations. The potential of people is unlimited. Organisations cannot afford to ignore this valuable resource. The researcher concludes that continuous training is a core career competency.

### 2.3.7 Career Expectancy in the SA Army

Training plays a very important and direct role in the career development and the subsequent expectations of professional soldiers in the SA Army. Training is, directed at improving a soldier's job performance in his current position and prepares him for future positions.

According to Loedolff (1988:7), the SA Army acknowledges the fact that development does not only consist of a series of career courses but that it also entails an integrated system of related activities which is aimed at realising organisational goals and objectives. Career advancement and promotion to the next rank is, depended on the completion of certain career courses.

Without the successful completion of these training courses career progression is not possible ("The training that I have received created promotion opportunities for me"). Training is, therefore, an important tool for any soldier that wants to empower himself with knowledge and skills and put himself in a position where it is possible for him to advance and improve his working life. The opposite is also true; the soldier that is not motivated to do training and course qualify himself will not progress and realise his career goals. It is thus very important to assess the role of satisfaction with training in career expectancy in order to make the necessary changes to ensure continued satisfaction with training and the motivation to undertake training. As an individual's career progresses, new skills and abilities are required to ensure job performance and prevent obsolescence. Training is not only influenced by the expectations of



employees, but effective training will also impact on the eagerness of learners to undergo training to improve job performance and job involvement

According to Reed (2001:1) various measures have clearly demonstrated that course-based career interventions have been effective. Studies have found significant relationships between career courses and reduced career indecision. It reported a meta-analysis regarding the beneficial effects of career courses on career maturity and career decidedness.

The White Paper on Defence (1996:84) indicates that every member of the SANDF has an equal opportunity of attending applicable scheduled courses. Training structure hierarchically to, allow for career development. Training shall therefore qualify a member to raise to the highest level within his/her ability.

The Department of Defence (DOD) human resource procurement policy is a Voluntary Military Service System (White Paper on Defence, 1996:73). Policy in this regard based on a mixed system of career options. A small number of the highest-ranking leader group in both the officer's corps and the other ranks, with long experience and extensive training, serve until a retirement age. Lower ranks have limited periods of service coupled to their rank level and possibly, also their age; large numbers at the lowest rank levels serve for a short, fixed, limited period; recruiting for the long term and the medium term is principally from the short-term component.

The Flexible Service System for the Full-Time uniform component of the SA Army consists of three parts namely, Short, Medium, and Long Term Service. Short Term Service - the maximum term of service in this system is six years consisting of three terms of two years each. In this way, force levels can be increased or decreased swiftly to predetermined operational requirements. Investment per member is limited, except for junior leaders earmarked to serve more than one term. This system serves as a selection medium and feeder for the Medium Term Service. It has a high turnover to maintain youthfulness and offers only temporary career opportunities. Medium Term Service - the aim of this system is to produce human resources for the middle management echelon to facilitate upward mobility. With the exception of members in specialist classifications the first term is between three and ten years, although consecutive terms may be entered in to on specific conditions, subject to a selection process. This system also prepares a member for a permanent appointment in the long-term service. The training offered is advanced. Long Term Service - through which the top echelon of the SANDF is eventually staffed.

The training system and career development of the leader group soldiers at the Air Defence Artillery Formation is closely linked to the attendance of career courses. Private soldiers, however, are restricted to operator training and cannot make any career progress unless he/she attends a junior non-commissioned officer course at the Air Defence Artillery School or a junior leader course at the SA Army Gymnasium. A private soldier thus has a limited career path, which in turn has an effect on the career expectancy and the subsequent job involvement of these members.

## 2.4 JOB INVOLVEMENT

### 2.4.1 Introduction

Reviews of literature indicate that the main stream of research in the job involvement field has been arrived from the work of Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Kanungo (1982). The researcher sites this as the main reason for using sources dating back as far a 1965.

According to Hoole and Boshoff (1998:332), literature regarding job involvement is ambiguous, resulting in inclusive findings and contradictions in the assessment of job involvement. This implies that the job involvement is a wider construct than had been previously considered. This purpose of this section is to define the term job involvement, and to explore the relationship between job involvement, training and career expectancy.

### 2.4.2 Definition of Job involvement

Job involvement refers to the extent to which people are psychologically attached to their jobs and the degree of importance that work holds in their life (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965:24). Mckelvey and Sekaran (1977:282) define job involvement as merging a person's ego identity with his or her job.



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This concept has been the mainspring energising the symbolic relationship between job involvement, performance and the quality of work life. Individuals who have their ego development tied into the job have a higher stake at performing well as there is often a strong desire to satisfy the need for ego development and development by means of their jobs. Saal (1978:60) treat job involvement as an anchored ground attachment to the organisation as a whole. Kanungo (1982:341) defines job involvement as a generalised state of psychological identification with the job. Reichers (1985:465) definition of job involvement is centred on organisational commitment. Job involvement is a collection of multiple commitments to various groups that constitute the organisation. Blau (1986:577) defines job involvement in terms of an individual's self worth. Nunns and Argirys (1992:41) describe job involvement as a complex concept based on cognition, action, and feelings, also defined as a person psychological identification with his or her job. Indeed, high job involvement reflects the importance of a person's job to his or her self-concept.

Hoole and Boshoff (1998:332) state that job involvement is an important construct for both the individual and organisational perspectives. From the individual perspective job involvement has been linked to other concepts such as job satisfaction. From the organisational perspective, job involvement has been considered as an important activator of employee motivation (for example attitudes or opinions like; "I'm really a perfectionist about my work, I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job, I will stay overtime to finish a job, I usually show up a little early, to get things ready" etc).

Robbins (2001:69) sight job involvement as the degree, to which a person identifies with his or her job, actively participates in it, and considers his or her performance important to self-worth. Employees with a high level of job involvement strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) as quoted by Cook et al. (1981:120) inferred the following indicators of job involvement “I have other activities more important than my work, quite often I feel like staying at home, I avoid extra duties and responsibilities in my work, I used to care more about my work but now other things are more important, I’ll stay overtime to finish a job, the major satisfaction in my life comes form my job, I usually show up a little early, sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day’s work, I am a perfectionist about my work, I feel depressed when I fail at something connected to my job, I have other activities more important than my work, quite often I feel like staying at home from work instead of coming in, I avoid taking on extra responsibilities, I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me”.

The researcher concludes that job involvement is an attitude that refers to the extent to which people are psychologically attached to their jobs (i.e. identifies with his or her job, actively participates in it, and considers his or her performance important to self-worth), and the degree of importance that work holds in their life. Job involvement is a subset of attitudes, and it is assumed that there are various similarities between job involvement and other attitudes such as organisational commitment, and job satisfaction. The individual with ego needs has high career expectancy and uses job involvement to satisfy ego needs. However, to make career

progress possible, individuals need skills and competencies that enable them to perform well on the job. In order to get these skills and competencies, people need to be trained.

### 2.4.3 The relationship between Training and Job involvement

Mckelvey and Sekaran (1977:286) found that professional training is an important factor in job involvement. The potential relationship between training and job involvement is most likely moderated by other employee attitudes.

DeSimone and Harris (1998:43) proposed that career, and job attitudes can have a direct effect on the motivation to train (for example, "Job involvement has an influence on my commitment to undertake and pass courses").

A model (Noe & Schmidt, 1986 as quoted by DeSimone and Harris, 1998:43) suggests that career and job involvement factors do in fact influence motivation and learning in a training program. The researcher concludes that satisfaction with training could have an impact on job involvement and career expectancy.

According to Nel et al. (2001:343) "the success of many training programmes depends in part whether the individual is motivated to participate, learn, and use knowledge and skills to improve performance, job involvement and enhance career prospects".

Tracey et al. (2001:8) is of the opinion that individuals may be more likely to value training if they perceive training has relevance to their job and professional development. It is suggested that if individuals benefit from training they will be more involved in their jobs and committed to their organisation. Many training programmes either focus on modifying employee attitudes or use attitudes as a central component. Employee attitudes are an important factor in training programs and include work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction, organisation commitment and job involvement.

Bartlett (2001:341) indicates the relationship between training and the affective form of organisational commitment may be moderated by the extent to which people feel involved in their jobs. If individuals believe they possess the capacity to learn, it is likely that they will make an effort to acquire relevant skills and knowledge.

Tracey et al. (2001:10) found a significant relationship between perceptions of the satisfaction with (value) of training and commitment. This finding suggested that the investment and effort in providing useful training programmes might heighten an individual's awareness of the importance of training, as well as feelings of worth and value to the organisation, which builds commitment. If individuals are committed, due in part to perceptions of satisfaction with training, then it is likely that they will also have positive job involvement. Individuals who are highly involved in their jobs should value opportunities to participate in activities, such as training, designed to enhance their job situation.

The researcher concludes that training may influence job involvement when it is important for the individual to obtain certain knowledge and skills in order to function in a specific job. Although job involvement, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction assess distinct concepts, they are related. Job involvement means identifying with the job, while organisational commitment means identifying with the employing organisation and job satisfaction indicates the attitude towards the job. For the purpose of this study, the researcher assumed that if a relationship between training and job involvement does exist, it is likely to be moderated by organisational commitment.

Nunns and Argirys (1992:41) believe that job involvement is an important employee attitude as it has been associated with effective participation in decision making, and high quality manager-subordinate relationships. Job involvement identified as an important outcome of the leadership process. Subordinates who experience high quality relationships with their managers enjoy greater communication, trust, and influence in decision-making and discretion with their managers than those who experience low quality exchanges. In return, the subordinate commits himself to a greater degree of involvement and commitment to the function of a department. Such involvement exceeds that required by the member's employment contract (for example, "I'll stay overtime to finish a job, I usually show up for work a little early, to get things ready etc"). High job involvement reflects the existence of an effective leadership process. Furthermore high or low job involvement can influence employee behaviour in ways, which are either to the advantage or to disadvantage of the organisation.



Tracey et al. (2001:9) states that the job environment may have a substantial influence on an individual's motivation to learn and subsequent performance. The extent to which the job environment supports training can vary significantly across organisational settings. Thus, this variance must be taken into account in order to understand why training efforts succeed or fail. Three related dimensions of the job environment, represented by a single construct may influence an individual's satisfaction with training. The first dimension is managerial support. This dimension is part of an organisation's social system. The professional and personal relationships between managers and their subordinates can send strong messages about the value and importance of training. Managers who articulate their support for training can positively influence an individual's confidence in gaining relevant knowledge and skills from training opportunities and relay it to improve job performance and job involvement. This view supports that of Nunns and Argirys (1992:41). The second dimension of the job environment that may influence training is job support. The nature of work assignments and the design of jobs can create substantial demands and pressures on employees, which can have a significant impact on the extent to which they are prepared for training. If a job does not allow for flexibility and growth, then individuals may not have the confidence that training opportunities will be beneficial to create opportunities for career progress. The third dimension of the job environment that may influence training is organisational support. Formal organisational systems such as appraisals, reward, and career promotional opportunities, may play an important role in the satisfaction with training. When trainees understood they would be held accountable for learning, they reported greater intentions to use training on the job, and thus, increase their job involvement.

This discussion suggests that if the job environment provides support for training, if individuals are motivated and willing to undergo training it is likely that they will acquire new knowledge and skills and subsequently be more involved in their jobs and committed to their organisation. Recognition when performing well during training should encourage employees to repeat the achievement.

The researcher concludes that the use of formal procedures to account for newly acquired knowledge and skills may prompt individuals to believe that training is important to demonstrate back on the job. Moreover, if individuals believe there is a link between training, being involved in their jobs and the possibilities of career promotions they will be willing to make an effort to acquire desired knowledge and skills.

The Air Defence Artillery Formation in an attempt to ensure that training stimulates high job involvement should treat all its members with respect. At all levels of the organisation members should be empowered to use their initiative and own judgment. When mistakes are made, the organisations should focus on problem solving and not the apportionment of blame. It is also very important that individual leaders demonstrate by their own actions their personal commitment. The organisation as a whole must be committed to the idea of creating delighted learners that will value training.

#### 2.4.5 The Relationship between Job involvement and Career expectancy

According to Mckelvey and Sekaran (1977:281) job involvement is a means to promote productivity by creating work situations in which there would be better integration of individual and organisational goals. Job involvement may well enhance the individual's satisfaction, while at the same time increase productivity for the organisation. The concept of job involvement is one of the central measures, which assess the quality of work. Jobs requiring a high degree of involvement are vehicles through which employees can satisfy their need for career growth, especially in the areas of competence, achievement, and self-actualisation. Job involvement merges a person's ego identity with his or her job. This concept of job involvement has been the mainspring energising the symbolic relationship between job involvement, performance, and the quality of working life, because individuals who have their ego development tied into the job have a higher stake in performing well and there is often a strong desire to satisfy the need for ego identity and development in their jobs. For career-orientated individuals, career expectancy guides the sequence of jobs that develop their ego identity or self-concept.

Lussier (1996:182) argues that, "Generally, employees who are motivated will try harder to do a good job than one who is not motivated". However, performance is not simply based on motivation. DeSimone and Harris (1998:43) is of the opinion that the success of many training programmes and processes depends in part whether the individual is motivated to participate, learn, and use what is learned to improve performance, job involvement and to enhance career prospects. The reason a person

chooses to attend a training programme but then fails to use the acquired skills on the job may be rooted in the satisfaction with training. Training programmes designed with an eye toward satisfaction with training can address these issues.

DeSimone and Harris (1998:32) suggests that goal setting has become an integral part of training programmes, in order to help learners understand the desired result of a programme and to motivate them to achieve these results. An employee who establishes career goals is more likely to advance his or her career, especially if the goals are specific, challenging, and go together with regular feedback on progress toward the goals. The expectancy theory might have an implication on the design and effectiveness of training programmes in that employees will not be motivated to attend training unless they are satisfied with training, believe that their efforts will result in learning the new skills, that attending the program will increase their job performance and job involvement, and in doing so will help them obtain desired outcomes (for example, "I have enough opportunities to apply the knowledge gained during training in my work", "the training that I have received enables me to work more effectively", "my continued on-the-job training enables me to work more effectively" ). According to Smit and Cronjé (1999:319), the implications of the expectancy theory for management is that it should create a work environment conducive to hard work, set attainable goals and provide constant training. This should boost the confidence of employees and increase their expectations.

The researcher concludes that career expectancy has an influence on job involvement. The idea should be generated among employees that career growth is the result of high job involvement and performance. Employees should know that rewards link to job involvement and performance. Goals give us a sense of purpose- why we are working and need to be involved in a job and have certain career expectancies.

Tracey et al. (2001:8) feels that, job involvement is the degree to which the job situation is central to the individual. Individuals who are highly motivated in their jobs should value opportunities to participate in activities, such as training, designed to enhance their job situation. It follows that individuals with high job involvement will develop high level of motivation if the training is specific and relevant to their job i.e. if they are satisfied with training. The researcher concludes that the satisfaction with training outcomes play a role in the job involvement of individual's. The research carried out by Noe and Schmidt (1986) quoted in Tracey et al. (2001:8) support this relationship. Satisfaction with training may influence job involvement and participation in training when it is important to one's job. Robbins (2001:155) defines motivation as a process that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal. The concept of job involvement has been gaining steadily in importance because of its pivotal role in providing a link between productivity on the one hand and employee needs and the quality of working life (career) on the other.

The researcher concludes that job involvement is necessary to construct a work place where there is effective integration of the soldier's career goals. Job involvement is seen as a means through which soldiers at the Air Defence Artillery Formation can satisfy expectations for engaging in a satisfying career. Job involvement helps to integrate a person's self-worth with the sequence of positions held during a career.

## 2.5 SUMMARY

The review attempted to link the different sections and put into perspective the relationship between the satisfaction with training in career expectancy and job involvement. Section 1 gave a broad overview of the training process in order to put the rest of the study into context. The text defined what training is. It explained training philosophy in order to reflect attitude towards training. Various training models put into perspective the training process. The training model of the SA Army was described in three steps namely, (1) planning, (2) implementation, (3) evaluation, feedback and correction. The inputs to the process of training were the same in most of the literature reviewed. The biggest differences occurred in the transformation process where authors had slightly different approaches as how to achieve the desired result. The output in all the literature was the same namely that training employees enables them to perform a certain job more effectively in the work environment.

The researcher realised that developing and conducting effective training programmes is no easy task. A seemingly infinite number of variables and issues need careful consideration. The researcher confirmed that training influences variables outside the training context. This attention to factors beyond training activities should provide a much clearer understanding of the variables that may influence training effectiveness or what effect training has on these variables.

The researcher concludes that knowledge and skills are necessary for effective performance and that attitudes constitute important internal factors of behaviour. This review showed that the effectiveness of training has an effect on the attitudes of soldiers at the Air Defence Artillery Formation. To enhance the return on training investments it is crucial to look beyond the classroom in order to understand how and why training works or does not work. Because training attempts to change employee behaviour, it is important to understand the factors that influence learner behaviour and attitude.

In sections two and three the literature reviewed attempted to explain the constructs of career expectancy and job involvement and bring it into context with the influence that training has on it. A conclusion is that if soldiers complete career-training courses successfully, they will have raised career expectations such as enhanced career future, career prospects, career progress, and job security.

The researcher found that a person would not identify with his job, actively participate in it, or consider his or her performance important, if there is no career expectancy for that member. Soldiers will be actively involved in their jobs if job involvement leads to reward of, for example, a satisfying career with the organisation, and career progress.

The role of the SA Army has changed dramatically, and soldiers should not expect lifetime employment. Instead, work should be organised around the notion of “employability” and to succeed soldiers must become continuous scholars who respond to the needs of the SA Army. There is evidence that training, in combination with effective human resource practices, enhances performance and can result in financial benefits.

The researcher found that in hierarchical settings, such as the Air Defence Artillery Formation, the line of advancement is more clearly noticeable and can influence the desire for training. Career development requires an understanding of the structural features, and career profiles of soldiers as well as the role that training plays in it. This involves understanding the knowledge and skills, responsibilities and tasks, the division of labour, and various career stages. To respond to the demands of a fast-paced and ambiguous work setting continuing training activities must be responsive to the perceived needs, motives and expectations of the soldiers at the Air Defence Artillery Formation. Understanding what role with training plays can lead to determining the relative influence of deterrents and motivational variables and ultimately provide programs that are more suitable to work performance needs.



## CHAPTER 3 - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

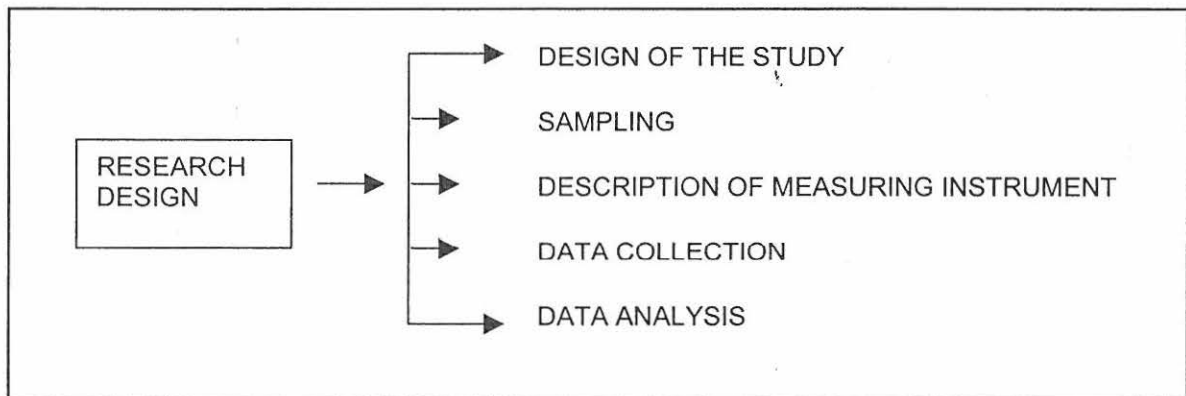
Chapter 3 documents the methods and procedures utilised to identify the relationship between the various aspects of satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards career expectancy and job involvement of members at Air Defence Artillery Formation of the SA Army.

The chapter presents a discussion of the design of the study. A description of the sample that include the sampling techniques employed and the criteria used in the choice of sample size is given. Discussed, is a description of the measuring instrument used in the assessment of the key constructs of the study. Full details of the data collection process that include gaining access to the subjects, data collection techniques and procedures used are given; the rationale behind the selection of data analysis procedures as well as actual procedures used are described; and possible sources of shortcomings and errors in the quality of data collected are discussed.

### 3.2 DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A non-experimental quantitative research design expanded on concepts, ideas, and constructs revealed in literature, to answer the research questions. The approach considered a correlation design, involving measurement at a single time. The structure of this research design was a framework of clearly formulated decision steps as depicted in figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 – Research Design Framework



Source: own

### 3.3 SAMPLING

In light of the size and complexity of the SA Army (total population), the participants (target population) were selected from two units of the ADA Formation namely, the Air Defence Artillery School and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment. The units (sample frame) are representative of the mainstream of SA Army units and selected because: (1) it

forms part of the Full Time Force Component of the SA Army. (2) All the members of these units are career soldiers. (3) Air defence artillery soldiers are dual trained (multi-skilled) and can be utilised as light infantry.

The abovementioned reasons make the sample representative of the total population (SA Army). The results, however, are not generalised to the total population. Representativeness implies that the sample has the same properties as the population from which it was drawn but in smaller numbers. Consequently, a representative sample is a miniature image, or likeness, of the population (Welman and Kruger, 1999:45).

The researcher identified all organisational levels and included all soldiers, irrespective of rank, age, gender, race, or former force in order to ensure a representative sample. Criteria for inclusion into the sample included: (1) Participants had to be staff of the Air Defence Artillery School or 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment. (2) Participants had to play an active role in the activities of the units. (3) Soldiers must have had at least one year of practical experience. (4) The literacy level of respondents needed to include the ability to read, and write and follow instructions.

Subsequently, the population sample frame that was available on January 01, 2002 from which units of analysis could be drawn consisted out of 258 members of the Air Defence Artillery School and 550 members of 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment. The units of analysis, that was drawn from the sample frame consisted out of 144 members which

is 50% from the Air Defence Artillery School and 332 members which is 61% of 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment.

According to Welman and Kruger (1999:50), no sample should be less than 15 units of analysis, but preferable more than 25. In total, 476 soldiers of the ADA Formation completed the measuring instrument. In order to ensure that each member had an equal chance of selection, the researcher used simple random probability sampling. First, a name list of all individuals at the respective units identified all the units of analysis in the sampling frame. A numerical number allocated every participant. Secondly, the mechanism selected a table of random numbers that showed no order, irrespective of whether you proceeded along its columns or its rows to choose the unit of analysis ensured that each number had an equal chance at selection. In other words, if you started at any given number, there is no way of predicting the value of the next number. Next, the numbers of the units of analysis (in the sampling frame) encountered on the table of random numbers was written down.

The advantage of a simple random sample is that it is representative of the population in the sense that it does not favour one unit of analysis (individual) over another (Welman and Kruger, 1999:51). The questionnaires was numbered and distributed according to the selected units of analysis.

### 3.4 DESCRIPTION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The measuring instrument, with consideration of the specific objectives and hypotheses of the study, was an attitudinal scale questionnaire comprising sets of items to measure the different degrees of attitudes towards the different constructs in the study, training, career expectancy, and job involvement.

Even though perceptions, attitudes, feelings, or reaction of men and women may have limits, Schneider et al. (1996:695), noted that significant correlations exist between employee reports of the practices and procedures under which they work, and judgements made by external observers. This suggests that people are an accurate gauge of the influence of one variable on other variables.

According to Welman and Kruger (1999:150) the rationale for including a questionnaire by means of group contact is; (1) working with captive audiences the procedure corresponded to the administration of a test. (2) Since a single person is required to give instructions in one hall, the cost per questionnaire is lower. (3) The researcher is in full control of the completion of questionnaires, so that no respondent has an excuse not to complete the questionnaire. Subsequently a response rate of 100% is ensured. Because of the presence of the researcher, queries about the completion of the questionnaire were answered immediately.

According to Mouton, (1996:153) lack of depth insider perspective sometimes leads to criticism of “surface level” analysis. Survey data are sometimes very sample and context specific. Another drawback to this method was that it is limited to few populations.

From the discussion of the constructs; job involvement, career expectancy, and satisfaction with training in the literature review certain prominent indicators surfaced that was important to determine whether there is a relationship between the constructs or not.

It was necessary to link the key concepts in the study to the actual phenomena. This linkage accomplished the constructing of a measuring instrument in which items were formulated to define all the constructs in the study operationally. The process of operationalisation involves compiling, for purposes of measurement, a list of characteristics denoted by the concept (Mouton, 1996:66). Thus, the constructed measuring instrument regarded the items as indicators of the list of denoted characteristics.

### 3.4.1 Job Involvement

The job involvement scale of Lodahl and Kejner (1965) as quoted in Cook et al. (1981:120) formed the basis for the construction of the indicators used in the present study. The indicators physical attachment to the job and the importance that work holds in life measured job involvement. These indicators pertained mainly to job involvement as an attitude.

Physical attached to the job was a good indicator of the degree of an individual's involvement in and his or her willingness to participate in the activities of the job. From the job involvement scale of Lodahl and Kejner (1965), the following items assessed physical attachment to the job: (1) the major satisfaction in my life comes from my job. (2) I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work. (3) I am really a perfectionist about my work. (4) I will stay overtime to finish a job, even if not paid for it. (5) I usually show up for work a little early, to get things ready.

The following items from the Lodahl and Kejner scale (1965) assessed the importance that work holds in life. (6) I have other activities more important than my work. (7) Quite often, I feel like staying home from work instead of coming in. (8) I used to care about my work, but now other things are more important to me. (9) Sometimes, I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work. (10) I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job.

The item format is such that each item rated on a four-point scale, namely strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree. Item scores ranged between four (strongly agree) and one (strongly disagree).

The Lodahl and Kejner Job Involvement Scale have 20 measures. This study used a shortened version of the scale that comprised ten items. According to Cook et al. (1981:120), the items in the Lodahl and Kejner scale (1965) showed low inter-item correlation (0.17), but relatively high item-whole correlations. In a study on 137 nurses the mean score was 43.37 (s.d. 6.52), and the Spearman-Brown internal reliability coefficient was 0.72. For 70 engineers the figures were 42.62 (s.d 7.83) and 0.080 respectively, and for a group of 46 students 48.06 (s.d 9.56) and 0.89.

Not reported are the means and standard deviations for the six-item version, though the Spearman-Brown coefficient recorded as 0.73, and the correlation's (including auto correlation) with the 20-item version was 0.87. Subsequent researchers have varied widely in their choice of scale items and response formats. Response dimensions differed from the original has been the rule, rather than the exception. Jones, James, and Bruni (1975) adopted a five-point scale. With a sample of 112 service and military engineering employees they obtained a mean of 17.56 (s.d 3.55) and an alpha coefficient of 0.62.

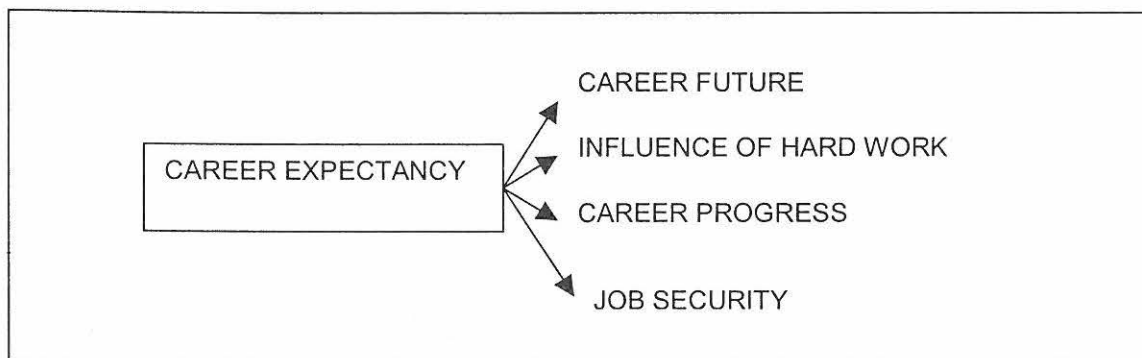


Using a seven-point response continuum, Morris and Snyder (1979) obtained a Spearman-Brown internal reliability coefficient of 0.77 with 262 non-academic university employees. In the study of Bartlett (2001:343) job involvement was measured by the six-item shortened form of the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) scale (alpha coefficient = 0.52). Other studies using versions of the job involvement scale included those by Abdel-Halim (1978), Aldag and Brief (1975, 1979), Feldman (1976, 1977), Saal (1978) Hall and Foster (1979).

### 3.4.2 Career Expectancy

The researcher regarded Smith's (1996, 1976) sub scale of career future on the Index of Organisational Reactions Scale quoted in Cook et al. (1981:39) as most typical of the construct of career expectancy. The following indicators measured career expectancy:

Figure 3.2 – Indicators for Career Expectancy



Source: own

The following items assessed Career expectancy: (1) Feelings about career future by “how do your feelings about your future with the organisation influence your overall attitude towards your job? “ (2) How do you feel about your future with this organisation? On a five-point scale, very unfavourable, slightly unfavourable, no influence one way or the other, favourable, and very unfavourable. (3) Feelings on the influence of hard work by “the way my future with the organisation appears to me now...” On a five-point scale, hard work seems very worthwhile, hard work seems fairly worthwhile, hard work seems worthwhile, hard work seems hardly worthwhile, hard work seems almost worthless. (4) Feelings about career progress by “do you feel you are getting ahead in the organisation?” On a five point scale; I’m making a great deal of progress, I’m making some progress, I’m not sure, I’m making very little progress, I’m making no progress. (5) Feelings about job security by “How secure are you in your present job?” On a five-point scale, I feel very uneasy about it, I feel fairly uneasy about it, I feel somewhat uneasy about it, I feel fairly sure of it, and I feel very sure of it.

“The Index of Organisational Reactions” constructed by Smith (1976) as quoted in Cook et al. (1981:39) consisted out of eight sub scales. The sub scale for career future measured career expectancy. Each item had its own five-alternative response, scored from one to five and averaged within a sub-scale. The Index of Organisational Reactions (IOR) is used extensively within Sears, Roebuck and Company, a large merchandise distribution organisation. A study on 340 blue-collar workers indicated a mean value of 3.09 for the career future scale. Dunham, Smith, and Blackburn (1977)

as quoted in Cook et al. (1981) have provided reliability and validity data for the eight sub-scales. Indicated in table 3.1 is the sub scale on career future.

Table 3.1 – Illustrative reliability and validity evidence for the IOR

Measures	Career Future	Cases
Median internal reliability across 5 samples	0.83	
Test-retest reliability across 6 weeks	0.76	128
Correlation with corresponding face values	0.67	622
Correlation with corresponding JDI sub-scale	0.39	622
Correlation with corresponding MSQ sub-scale	0.68	622

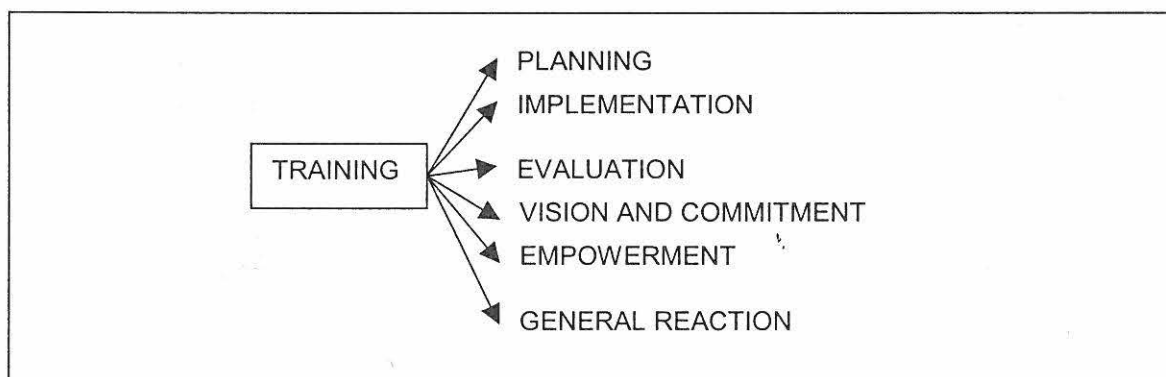
Source: Cook et al., 1981

Table 3.1 also sets out evidence for convergent validity in terms of three other measures. Responses on the Faces Scale, and result from relevant Job Description Index (JDI) and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) sub scales also entered in the analysis. These results are in the lower, three lines of the table. The same article examined the discriminant validity of the IOR with that of the JDI and MSQ, concluding that the IOR is the most successful in that respect. Correlations between IOR sub scales were relatively high, ranging from 0.32 to 0.77 with a median of 0.49. Factor analysis to confirm the intended structure of the scale was encouraging with career future recorded at an alpha coefficient of 0.78.

### 3.4.3 Training

Training viewed as the independent variable divided in six sub variables to reflect the complex role of and influences on this human resource development practice. The following indicators measured training:

Figure 3.3 – Indicators for Training



Source: own

#### 3.4.3.1 Planning

Planning is the process in which the instructor looks at a task to be undertaken, set goals, and plans a strategy to achieve those goals in the most effective way possible (Buchel, 1993:7). From the literature reviewed, the researcher concluded that the plan is the vehicle used to decide how to tailor the curriculum. Planning is a vital requirement for any course as the achievement of the conditions and requirements of effective instruction and learning depends on it. The plan is the link between the objectives, instruction, and evaluation.

Factors that have an influence on the planning cycle of the Air Defence Artillery School include the resources it has to carry out the training function. The quality of training facilities, the quality of course material and the standard of course administration is elements that contribute to the creation of an effective learning environment. These elements not addressed adequately, it is of little use to have professional instructors and very expensive main equipment. The annual plan should also include career course planning for the year. The literature review indicates that the Air Defence Artillery School and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment target group analysis forms a part of the long-term career programme. Career interview on an annual basis is important. During career interviews, soldiers are informed on what training and development courses to take over the next few years.

#### 3.4.3.2 Implementation

According to Badenhorst, (1996:17) organising involves the combination of human, financial, and physical resources in the most effective way to accomplish goals. Once a training organisation and structure is in place, preparation for and implementation of the training programme can take place.

The establishment of a suitable learning atmosphere is one of the main factors contributing to successful training (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:157). It is important that facilities at a training institution be of a high standard in order to contribute to the

creation of a suitable learning atmosphere in which learners will be motivated to learn.

Implementation can only be effective if soldiers are motivated to learn and the training has practical application. Soldiers are very reluctant to participate in training activities that holds no advantage to them. Van Dyk et al. (2001:286) suggested that the trainer must be clear on what type of behaviour is required of learners in terms of the objectives and the learning outcomes in other words the course objectives must be logical and clear.

The literature review indicated that a professional approach to instruction is imperative for the successful implementation of any course. Training sessions must meet the expectations of learners. The presentation of modules and subjects must be according to the curriculum, block programme and weekly programme. Instructors must demonstrate the ability to apply the correct method of instruction, to create an effective learning atmosphere and effectively link theory to practice.

#### 3.4.3.3 Evaluation

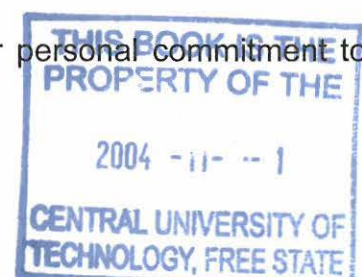
In the rush to train and educate people, many organisations fail to treat the evaluation of such training as a priority. At best, the evaluation of training has been a mechanical task with little analysis and usefulness. In the minds of many practitioners, evaluation is viewed as a problem rather than a solution, an end rather than a means (Foxon et al., 1989:90).

There are several components to an effective training programme. One of the most comprehensive and widely referenced models of evaluation is that of Kirkpatrick (1979:78-92). The four levels of this model are; reaction, learning, behaviour, and results. Reaction is the term that refers to how well the participants liked a particular training program. Evaluation of participants' reactions consists of measuring their feelings; it does not include a measure of actual learning.

The researcher concluded that there are several components to an effective evaluation programme. It is necessary to measure the results of any training programme in order to determine its effectiveness in terms of the individual, group and organisation. In terms of the individual, it is important to measure the reactions to training; does the learner have confidence in what he has learned? Is the learner satisfied with what learned? Are the courses useful in improving job performance? How the course/s rated overall?

#### 3.4.3.4 Vision and Commitment

The attitude of an organisation towards training reflects in its philosophy, and this governs the priorities, standards, and scope of its training activities (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:61). Philosophy reflects the value that management attach to training (Van Dyk et al., 2001:83). The Air Defence Artillery School and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment is totally committed to the idea of creating delighted learners and its policy include; to consistently do things right the first time, every time; that officers and instructors should always demonstrate by their actions their personal commitment to



learner satisfaction, when mistakes are made to focus on the problem and not the apportionment of blame.

The extent to which the work environment supports training can vary significantly across organisational settings. Managerial commitment is a part of an organisation's social system. The professional and personal relationships between managers and their subordinates can send strong messages about the value and the importance of training.

In the view of Bartlett (2001:339) perceived commitment to training from colleagues and senior staff has been shown to influence the decision to participate in training activities. Commitment to training from senior staff and supervisors, as well as from peers is important as social support may play a role in the frequency and duration of training experiences in which an individual participates.

Managers who articulated their commitment to training could positively influence an individual's confidence in gaining relevant knowledge and skills from training opportunities and thus motivate that person for training.



#### 3.4.3.5 Empowerment

Dubois (1994:1) suggested that organisations would be wise to invest in training, helping their employees to acquire and use critical career competencies. Organisations must create and make training available to workers to acquire career competencies. Perceived access to training can be thought of as the extent to which employees feel that they have access to training opportunities required for acquiring the knowledge, skills and abilities they need for their current position, and that minimal organisational constraints limit their participation in training (Bartlett, 2001:339).

According to Nunns and Argirys (1992:41) subordinates who experience high quality relationships with their managers enjoy greater communication, trust, has more influence on decision making than those who experienced low quality exchanges. In return, the subordinate is more involved and commitment to the function of his or her job department.

According to Loedolff (1988:7), the SA Army acknowledges the fact that development does not only consist of a series of career courses but that it also entails an integrated system of related activities which is aimed at realising organisational goals and objectives. Career advancement and promotion to the next rank is, depended on the completion of certain career courses. Without the successful completion of these training courses career progression is not possible (“The training that I have received created promotion opportunities for me”).

The researcher concludes that the equal opportunity and affirmative action plan of the SA Army which enforces a quota system of course acceptances for leader group members is a current challenge that influences the access to training at the Air Defence Artillery School. This has a detrimental effect on the career and promotion possibilities of certain race groups. Non-leader group members of all races have limited access to further training, other than training; they have received to acquire a mustering. There are limited career prospects, and training opportunities for the advancement and empowerment of private soldiers.

According to Bartlett (2001:338) many employees have come to view training as a “right of membership” and as a benefit of employment. Perceived access to training can therefore have a direct impact on the psychological contract and in the process of social exchange operating within organisations.

In the process of empowerment it was important for the Air Defence Artillery Formation; to treat all learners with respect; to ensure that at all levels employees have a good understanding of products and services; to create training opportunities and make it possible for employees to attend training at the proper time.

According to Tracey et al. (2001:8) individuals who are highly involved in their jobs should value opportunities to participate in activities, such as training, that are designed to enhance their job situation. According to Reed (2001:1) various measures have clearly demonstrated that course-based career interventions have been effective. Studies have found significant relationships between career courses and reduced career indecision.

It reported a meta-analysis regarding the beneficial effects of career courses on career maturity and career decidedness (for example, “I am well informed on what training courses I must take over the next few years”, “it is possible for me to attend training at the proper time”, and “I get enough opportunities to decide which training I would like to do”).

Literature gives suggestions on how to empower learners and instructors in the class situation: tell them about their responsibility, give them authority equal to their responsibilities, set standards, give them feedback on their performance, give recognition, trust them, and treat them with respect.

#### 3.4.3.6 General Reaction

Gryzb et al. (1998:4) is of the opinion that as individuals move through career stages various factors may influence their decisions to participate in training. The motivation to participate in training may also effect job involvement (“job involvement has an influence on my commitment to undertake and pass courses”).

According to Allen (1998:1), for training to be effective, employees should be convinced that it is important to them. If training is effective, employees will be able to demonstrate that they have the skill and knowledge to perform their tasks (for example, “The training that I received enables me to work more effectively, my continued on-the-job training enables me to work more effectively, I have enough opportunities to apply the knowledge gained during training in my work”).

DeSimone and Harris (1998:43) proposed that career, and job attitudes can have a direct effect on the motivation to train (“Job involvement has an influence on my commitment to undertake and pass courses”). Tracey et al. (2001:12) is of the opinion that individuals may be more likely to value training if they perceive training has relevance to their job and professional development. It is suggested that if individuals benefit from training they will be more involved in their jobs and committed to their organisation (“I have enough opportunities to apply the knowledge gained during training in my work”; the training that I have received enables me to work more effectively, “my continued on-the-job training enables me to work more effectively”).

### 3.5 DATA-COLLECTION PROCEDURE

The theoretical framework that informed the study was a literature search and review based on the aim and the problem statement of the study, as presented in chapter 2. The review was sufficiently comprehensive and used essential information resources. It offers a logically organised and integrated summary, and theories relevant to the aim of the study. Primary data comprised of an attitude scale questionnaire, used to collect individual-level data on the effect that training has on the attitudes of soldiers towards career expectancy, and job involvement.

The researcher made contact with the General Officer Commanding of the Air Defence Artillery Formation who authorised the study. An electronic message with respect to the visit programme informed the respective institutions.

The visit programme and information with respect to the study made available included: (1) A description and layout of the nature and extent of the proposed study. (2) Numbers proposed to participate in the study. (3) An explanation of the procedure, that was going to be followed during the completion of the questionnaires, with inclusion of dates, times, and groups. (4) Made available for enquiries, the full contact details of the researcher.

The University of the Free State Bio statistics department analysed the questionnaire for relevance, and clarity suggesting minor changes to the original questionnaire. Experts such as Dr Kaye van der Merwe of Technikon Free State validated the questions.

A pilot study conducted on December 03, 2001 used 35 members of the Air Defence Artillery School. Respondents completed the questionnaire on site at the selected units, under the supervision of the researcher, which maintained neutrality, and only handled queries about the completion of the questionnaire. The pilot study indicated that no changes to the revised questionnaire were necessary. The member's involved in the pilot study did not form a part of the main study.

The main survey with 476 respondents was carried out on site, on the following days: Air Defence Artillery School – January 04, 2002; 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment; 102 battery – January 7, 103 battery – January 8, 104 battery – January 9, Regimental Support Battery – January 10 and 101 battery on January 16, 2002.

## 3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

The primary question for this research was to determine, “Is there a relationship between the satisfaction with training on the attitudes of soldiers towards career expectancy and job involvement?”

According to Robbins (2001:33) it might be valuable to look at factors that are easily definable and readily available such as biographical data. Therefore, additional hypotheses to make supplementary analysis possible and to contribute to the overall result of the study were listed.

### 3.6.1 Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses guided the study:

#### Hypotheses 1

H0 There is no significant relationship between the various aspects of the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards career expectancy at the ADA Formation.

H1 There is a significant relationship between various aspects the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards career expectancy at the ADA Formation

## Hypotheses 2

H0 There is no significant relationship between the various aspects satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards job involvement at the ADA Formation.

H1 There is a significant relationship between the various aspects satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards job involvement at the ADA Formation.

## Hypotheses 3

H0 There is no significant relationship between the various aspects of job involvement and career expectancy of soldiers at the ADA Formation

H1 There is an agreement between the various aspects of job involvement and career expectancy of soldiers at the ADA Formation.

## Hypotheses 1.1

H0 There is no significant difference between the men and women of the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.



H1 There is a significant difference between the men and women of the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.

### Hypotheses 1.2

H0 There is no significant difference between the officers and other ranks of the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.

H1 There is a significant difference between the officers and other ranks of the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.

### Hypotheses 1.3

H0 There is no significant difference between age groups at the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.

H1 There is a significant difference between age groups at the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.



#### Hypotheses 1.4

- H0 There is no significant difference between the population groups at the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.
- H1 There is a significant difference between the population groups at the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.

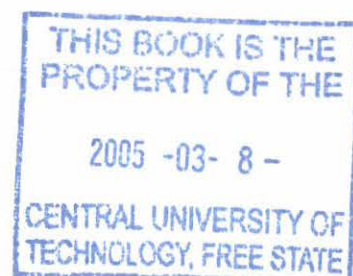
#### Hypotheses 1.5

- H0 There is no significant difference between the forces before and after 1994 at the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.
- H1 There is a significant difference between the forces before and after 1994 at the ADA Formation in their attitude towards career expectancy, job involvement, and satisfaction with training.

### 3.6.2 Statistical methods used in the study

The results in this study was analysed using parametric techniques. Parametric techniques was used because the sample size (N=476) was high, measurement took place on an interval level and the assumption of a normal distribution was made.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences 10 for Windows (SPSS) (Klecka, Nie and Hull, 1975) processed the data obtained from the pilot study. The purpose of the pilot study on a limited number of subjects from the same population as that for which the eventual study was intended, was, inter alia: (1) To detect flaws in the measurement procedure. (2) To identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items. (3) Allows noticing non-verbal behaviour on the part of the participants which possibly may signify discomfort about the content or wording of the questions. The results of the pilot study indicated a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of 0.9959. The data analysis of the main survey was carried out also using Statistical Package for Social Sciences 10 for Windows (SPSS) (Klecka, Nie and Hull, 1975). Measurement took place on an interval level using various statistical techniques.



The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient measured hypotheses 1, to determine the relationship between satisfaction with training and career expectancy; hypotheses 2, to determine the relationship between satisfaction with training and job involvement and hypotheses 3, to determine the relationship between career expectancy and job involvement. This is a technique used to test the direction and strength of the relationship between two variables. It uses the statistic  $R_s$  that fall between -1 and +1. If the  $R_s$  value is between -1 and -0.5, there is a strong negative correlation. If the  $R_s$  value fall between -0.5 and 0, there is a weak negative correlation. If the  $R_s$  value is 0, there is no correlation. If the  $R_s$  value fall between 0 and 0.5, there is a positive correlation. If the  $R_s$  value fall between 0.5 and 1, there is a strong positive correlation and is 1, there is a perfect positive correlation between two sets of data.

The T-Test calculated hypotheses 1.1, to determine the difference between men and women; 1.2, to determine the difference between officers and other ranks; 1.3, to determine the difference between age groups; and 1.5, to determine the difference between forces before and after 1994. The T-Test concerns a number of procedures concerned with comparing two averages. The test gives the probability that the difference between the two means is caused by chance. It is customary to say that if this probability is less than 0.05, that the difference is "significant", the difference is not caused by chance.

The One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tested hypotheses 1.4, to determine the difference between race groups. The analysis is used to determine if two or more groups means differ significantly. A restriction of this test, however, is that it does not indicate which groups differ from one another, even though it indicates whether there is significant statistical difference between groups.

The Scheffe comparison technique will determine whether the average self-ratings and the average rating of the different groups differ significantly or not, if normality of distribution is the case.

To determine which dimension of the satisfaction with training impacts on career expectations and job involvement, the multiple correlation coefficients  $R$  is determined with the aid of a regression analysis. The multiple correlation coefficients  $R$  indicate what the influence of the independent variable (aspects of training) is in the forecast of the dependent variable (career expectations and job involvement).

The statistical analysis did not separate Air Defence Artillery School and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment. Frequencies and percentages described the biographical information as well as all variables measured in Job Involvement, Career Expectancy and Satisfaction with Training.

### 3.7 SHORTCOMINGS AND SOURCES OF ERROR

By means of an attitude scales questionnaire the behaviour of subjects are not directly observed, but individuals respond in terms of the questions put to them. Therefore, these measuring instruments are susceptible to measurement reactivity, the consequences of which may vary from withholding of co-operation to deliberate deception.

The participant's awareness that they are completing a measuring instrument may have affected their responses to the subsequent completion of the questionnaire. Participants might have responded in a manner not consistent with their true opinion but what they think is the most suitable response.

Respondent bias may be possible due to biases introduced by unresponsive participants, by uncooperative ones answering at random, but also by respondents who give false information on purpose due to mistrust, fear, conformity or social status pressures. Moreover, one can add here answers based on the misunderstanding of a question or a word, or the difficulty experienced by respondents in expressing themselves.

### 3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter made clear the methods and procedures that were utilised to identify the possible relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers, at the Air Defence Artillery Formation Units in Kimberley, towards career expectancy and job involvement. A non-experimental quantitative research design expanded on concepts, ideas, and constructs to answer the research questions.

The approach considered a correlation study. The participants (target population) were selected from two units namely, the Air Defence Artillery School and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment. In order to ensure that each member had an equal chance of selection, the researcher used simple random probability sampling. The measuring instrument, with consideration of the objectives and hypotheses of the study, was an attitudinal scale questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted out of attitude scales items assessing the different constructs in the study.

The theoretical framework that informed the study was a literature review based on the aim and the problem statement of the study. Primary data comprised of an attitude scale questionnaire, used to collect individual-level data on the perceived relationship between constructs. The pilot study conducted indicated that no changes to the revised questionnaire were necessary. The member's involved in the pilot study did not form a part of the main study.

The data analysis of the main survey was carried out using the SPSS statistical package using parametric techniques. Measurement took place on an interval level using various statistical techniques. Possible shortcomings and errors were indicated. Following the analytical procedures outlined on this and preceding pages, the researcher was able to show quantitative data that fulfilled the objectives for this research. The chapters that follow record the results of the study by the presentation and the interpretation of data.



## CHAPTER 4 – RESEARCH RESULTS

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is an account of the results of the study according to the hypotheses stated in chapter 3. Results present in a table format and the variable numbers (Q/V) as used in the questionnaire show in all relevant tables.

The reporting starts with a discussion of the sample profile and its characteristics in order to understand the nature of the findings. Briefly discussed are the representativeness of the sample and the validity of the questionnaire.

The next part presents the description of results and the main trends and patterns in the data. The following results are discussed; the correlation between the satisfaction with training and job involvement, the correlation between the satisfaction with training and career expectancy, the correlation between job involvement and career expectancy, the difference in attitude between gender, rank groups, race groups, age groups, and forces before and after 1994 towards job involvement, career expectancy and the satisfaction with training.

The interpretations of findings draw the arguments together. Highlighted are the main findings both positive and negative. The chapter indicates the major findings and possible support for the various research propositions.

## 4.2 SAMPLE PROFILE RESULTS (REALISATION RATE)

Chapter 3 paragraph 3.3 describes the sample frame obtained from the Air Defence Artillery Formation of the SA Army. The units that took part in the study is Air Defence Artillery School (ADA School) and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment (10 AA Regt). The realisation rate from the sample frame depict in table 4.1.

**Table 4.1 – Profile result**

Number of respondents according to gender:

Unit	Male [1]	Female [2]	Total
Air Defence Artillery School	119 (83%)	25 (17%)	144 (30%)
10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment	284 (85%)	49 (15%)	332 (70%)
Total	403 (84%)	74 (16%)	476

Number of respondents according to different rank groups:

Unit	Major	Capt	Lieu	WO	S/Sgt	Sgt	Bdr	Gnr	Total
ADA School	4	10	9	7	12	16	40	46	144
10 AA Regt	0	12	5	0	14	24	63	215	332
Total	4	22	14	7	26	40	103	261	476

Number of respondents according to age:

Unit	< 24	>24	Total
ADA School	69 (48%)	75 (52%)	144
10 AA Regt	137 (41%)	195 (59%)	332
Total	206 (43%)	270 (57%)	476

Number of respondents according to race:

Unit	African	White	Coloured	Total
ADA School	56 (39%)	55 (38%)	33 (23%)	144
10 AA Regt	178 (53%)	66 (20%)	88 (27%)	332
Total	234 (50%)	121 (25%)	121 (25%)	476

Force affiliation before and after 1994:

Unit	Forces before 1994, SADF, TBVC, MK/APLA	Force after 1994 SANDF	Total
ADA School	44 (31%)	100 (69%)	144
10 AA Regt	108 (33%)	224 (67%)	332
Total	152 (32%)	324 (68%)	476

## 4.3 THE REPRESENTATIVENESS, VALIDITY, AND RELIABILITY OF RESULTS

Before reporting an account of the results, it was important to describe the representativeness, reliability and the validity of the results. This was necessary to provide the correct context in which the results could be interpreted and conclusions drawn.

### 4.3.1 Representativeness of the results

Although the units of the ADA Formation are representative of the mainstream of SA Army units, the results achieved during this study are representative only of the units, Air Defence Artillery School and 10 Anti-Aircraft Regiment. The researcher identified all organisational levels in a random sample and included all full time soldiers, irrespective of rank, age, gender, race, or former force, with one year of service, in order to ensure a representative group.

### 4.3.2 The reliability and validity of the results

The researcher determined whether results truly measured what it intended to measure by using reliability and validity tests. Cronbach's Alpha assessed internal consistency reliability.

An item analysis of the questionnaire resulted in an Alpha Coefficient for job involvement of .8049, career expectancy, 0.7748 and training of .9950. The overall reliability coefficient for the questionnaire of 0.9501 proved very satisfactory and point towards high reliability. The Alpha Construct validity was one approach used by the researcher to establish the validity of the results obtained during this study.

The identification of possible indicators that related to the constructs, theory, pre-designed scales and logical deduction assisted in designing the questionnaire. The questionnaire employed functioning scales for job involvement and career expectancy. The review of the literature assisted in designing the scale for training.

Content validity determined whether questions in the measurement instrument, measured the characteristic it supposed to measure. Experts such as Dr Kaye van der Merwe of Technikon Free State and the Biostats department of the University of the Free State validated the questions.

#### 4.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SATISFACTION WITH TRAINING AND THE ATTITUDE OF SOLDIERS TOWARDS CAREER EXPECTANCY

Table 4.2 – Relationship between training and career expectancy

Variables	CAREER	Planning	Implement	Evaluation	Vision	Empower	General
CAREER	1.000	.446(**)	.486(**)	.441(**)	.521(**)	.563(**)	.549(**)
Planning	.446(**)	1.000	.673(**)	.604(**)	.620(**)	.605(**)	.591(**)
Implement	.486(**)	.673(**)	1.000	.763(**)	.737(**)	.659(**)	.723(**)
Evaluation	.441(**)	.604(**)	.763(**)	1.000	.685(**)	.593(**)	.694(**)
Vision	.521(**)	.620(**)	.737(**)	.685(**)	1.000	.758(**)	.742(**)
Empowerment	.563(**)	.605(**)	.659(**)	.593(**)	.758(**)	1.000	.791(**)
General	.549(**)	.591(**)	.723(**)	.694(**)	.742(**)	.791(**)	1.000

Variables		TRAINING INDICATORS					
		Planning	Implement	Eval	Vision	Empower	General
C A R E E R	Q17 – Career future	.360(**)	.352(**)	.332(**)	.407(**)	.428(**)	.400(**)
	Q18 – Attitude job	.301(**)	.340(**)	.283(**)	.343(**)	.353(**)	.367(**)
	Q19 – Career prospects	.248(**)	.302(**)	.292(**)	.348(**)	.352(**)	.352(**)
	Q20 – Career progress	.389(**)	.419(**)	.382(**)	.461(**)	.529(**)	.501(**)
	Q21 – Job Security	.327(**)	.356(**)	.313(**)	.334(**)	.379(**)	.375(**)

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.2 present the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient of the relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards career expectancy.

The results indicate a significant relationship ( $p < 0.01$ ) between the indicators of training; planning, implementation, evaluation, vision, empowerment and general reactions and the attitude of soldiers towards career expectancy.

The table indicate a significant relationship between the satisfaction with training planning and the following items of career expectancy: career future, how feelings about future with the organisation influence attitude towards the job, career prospects, career progress and job security. Training planning include items on: quality of training facilities, quality of course material, standard of course administration and information on courses to take over the next few years.

The table show a significant relationship between the implementation of training and career expectancy at a level of significance,  $p < 0.01$ . Implementation correlates with career future, how feelings about future with the organisation influence attitude towards the job, career prospects, career progress and job security. Implementation include aspects such as: course objectives are logical and clear, training sessions meet or exceeds expectations, the effectiveness of the method of instruction, the ability of instructors to create an effective learning atmosphere, and how effective instructors are in linking theory to practice.

Training evaluation show a significant relationship with career future, how feelings about future with the organisation influence attitude towards the job, career prospects, career progress and job security. Soldiers reveal that to: have confidence in training; to be satisfied with what they have learned; to be able to use newly acquired knowledge, skills and abilities to improve job performance; and to be satisfied with the type of courses presented has a relationship with their career expectations.

The table reflect that soldier's attitude towards the vision and commitment of the organisation with regard to training, does have an significant relationship with their career expectations and subsequent satisfaction with training pertaining to: commitment to the idea of creating delighted learners; to consistently do things right the first time, every time; that officers and instructors should always demonstrate by their actions commitment to learner satisfaction and that when mistakes are made to focus on problem solving instead on the apportionment of blame.

The table indicate a significant relationship between career expectancy and training empowerment at a level of significance,  $p < 0.01$ . Empowerment includes items such as: treating learners with respect; a good understanding of products and services; empowering officers and NCOs to act on their own judgement; possibility to attend training at the proper time; enough opportunities to decide on which training opportunities to take and to make out whether training creates opportunities for promotion. Career progress ( $r = .529$ ) connects to training that creates opportunities, for promotion and participation in training.

Career expectancy has a significant relationship with general reaction to training at a level of significance,  $p < 0.01$ . It seems that on-the-job training and formal training courses enables soldiers to do their career work more effectively. The opportunity to learn new things has an influence on career expectancy, as it put members in a position to progress and to secure their career futures.

Findings conclude that there is a link between the way that soldiers feel about their future with the organisation, their satisfaction with training and their willingness to participate in training opportunities. There is a correlation between the satisfaction with training, and career future, that has an influence on the job involvement of soldiers. There is also a relationship between the effort at work and training. Satisfaction with training has an influence on career progress and, job security impinges on all the variables that relates to the satisfaction with training.

The results support the research hypotheses (H1) that there is a significant relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitudes of soldiers towards career expectancy. The nil-hypotheses (H<sub>0</sub>) that there is no significant relationship between training and career expectancy is rejected.



#### 4.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SATISFACTION WITH TRAINING AND THE ATTITUDE OF SOLDIERS TOWARDS JOB INVOLVEMENT

**Table 4.3 – Relationship between training and job involvement**

Variables	JOB	Planning	Implement	Evaluation	Vision	Empower	General
JOB	1.000	.313(**)	.399(**)	.459(**)	.483(**)	.463(**)	.514(**)
Planning	.313(**)	1.000	.673(**)	.604(**)	.620(**)	.605(**)	.591(**)
Implement	.399(**)	.673(**)	1.000	.763(**)	.737(**)	.659(**)	.723(**)
Evaluation	.459(**)	.604(**)	.763(**)	1.000	.685(**)	.593(**)	.694(**)
Vision	.483(**)	.620(**)	.737(**)	.685(**)	1.000	.758(**)	.742(**)
Empowerment	.463(**)	.605(**)	.659(**)	.593(**)	.758(**)	1.000	.791(**)
General	.514(**)	.591(**)	.723(**)	.694(**)	.742(**)	.791(**)	1.000

Variables		TRAINING INDICATORS					
		Planning	Implement	Evaluation	Vision	Empower	General
JOB INVOLVEMENT ITEMS	Q7 – overtime	.358(**)	.371(**)	.376(**)	.387(**)	.395(**)	.413(**)
	Q8 – life	.215(**)	.268(**)	.363(**)	.367(**)	.375(**)	.397(**)
	Q9 – early	.156(**)	.268(**)	.293(**)	.312(**)	.306(**)	.324(**)
	Q10 – awake	.133(**)	.173(**)	.203(**)	.199(**)	.199(**)	.263(**)
	Q11 – perfect	.052	.135(**)	.155(**)	.202(**)	.166(**)	.207(**)
	Q12 – depressed	.110(*)	.224(**)	.232(**)	.274(**)	.242(**)	.287(**)
	Q13 – activities	.145(**)	.214(**)	.290(**)	.269(**)	.230(**)	.263(**)
	Q14 – home	.239(**)	.277(**)	.288(**)	.298(**)	.319(**)	.327(**)
	Q15 – extra	.225(**)	.178(**)	.196(**)	.241(**)	202(**)	.245(**)
	Q16 – used to	.204(**)	.267(**)	.337(**)	.340(**)	.323(**)	.347(**)

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 4.3 present the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient of the relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitude of soldiers towards job involvement.

The result indicates a relationship between the satisfaction with training indicators, planning, implementation, evaluation, vision, empowerment and general reactions and the attitude of soldiers towards job involvement. General reactions towards the satisfaction with training seem to have the biggest impact on job involvement.

The table indicates that there is a significant relationship between the satisfaction with the planning of training and the following aspects of job involvement on a significance level of  $p < 0.01$  except where stated otherwise: staying overtime to finish a job; the major satisfaction in life comes from the job; showing up early for work; lying awake at night thinking ahead to the next days work; feeling depressed when failing at work ( $p < 0.05$ ); having other activities more important than work; feeling like rather staying at home instead of coming in to work; avoiding taking on extra duties and responsibilities; used to care more about work, but now other things are more important. Training planning has no significant relationship with being a perfectionist at work.

The table show a significant relationship between the implementation of training and job involvement. Course objectives that are logical and clear, training that meets or exceeds expectations, effective methods of instruction, instructors that have the ability to create an effective learning atmosphere, and instructors that are effective in linking theory to practice thus have a relationship with job involvement.

There is a significant relationship between the evaluation of training and job involvement at a significance level of  $p < 0.01$ . Soldiers indicate that confidence in what they have learned; satisfaction with what they learned; and the usefulness of training programmes in improving job performance has an influence on their job involvement.

The table illustrate a significant relationship between job involvement and, the vision and commitment to training. Results show that the vision and commitment of the ADA Formation to create delighted learners, to do things right the first time, the personal commitment of officers and instructors to learner satisfaction, the focus on problem solving and not the apportionment of blame has a significant link to the job involvement of soldiers.

Results in the table express a significant relationship between training empowerment and job involvement at a significance level of  $p < 0.01$ . Treating learners with respect, making sure that subordinates at all levels understand products and services, empowering officers and NCOs to act on their own judgement , making it possible to attend training at the proper time, and creating opportunities for promotion are accordingly important means to visibly empower people, and demonstrate how serious the organisation is about training.

The table demonstrate a significant relationship between job involvement and the general reaction towards training at a significance level of,  $p < 0.01$ . General reaction towards training includes the following aspects: that on-the-job training and formal training enables soldiers to do their work more effectively, being satisfied with training opportunities, job involvement has an influence on commitment to undertake and pass courses, getting opportunity to apply new knowledge in the work situation, during courses time is fully utilised, and the receipt of recognition when performing well during training.

The results endorse the research hypotheses (H1) that there is a significant relationship between the satisfaction with training and the attitudes of soldiers towards job involvement. The nil-hypotheses (H0) that there is no significant relationship between training and career expectancy is rejected.

#### 4.5.1 Regression analysis

Tables 4.4.a and b present regression analysis to determine which dimensions of the satisfaction with training impacts on respectively career expectation and job involvement.

**Table 4.4.a. – Career Expectancy**

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.613	.171		<b>3.585</b>	.000
Planning	9.725E-02	.061	.085	1.602	.110
Implement	6.296E-02	.080	.054	.790	.430
Evaluation	5.369E-03	.072	.005	.075	.941
Vision	.103	.072	.096	1.430	.153
Empowerment	.270	.072	.255	<b>3.772</b>	.000
General	.191	.073	.183	<b>2.607</b>	.009

Dependent variable: career expectancy

Training empowerment (3.772,  $p < 0.001$ ) and general reactions (2.607,  $p < 0.05$ ) to the satisfaction with training seems to have the biggest impact on career expectancy.

Table 4.4.b – Job Involvement

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
(Constant)	1.946	.089		21.834	.000
Planning	-4.535E-02	.032	-.079	-1.432	.153
Implement	-6.999E-02	.042	-.121	-1.685	.093
Evaluation	.126	.038	.216	3.369	.001
Vision	.105	.038	.195	2.787	.006
Empowerment	4.920E-02	.037	.093	1.318	.188
General	.146	.038	.280	3.834	.000

Dependent variable: job involvement

The predictors, training evaluation ( $t = 3.369$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), training vision ( $t = 2.787$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and general reactions ( $t = 3.834$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) seem to have the biggest impact on job involvement.

#### 4.6 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ATTITUDES OF SOLDIERS TOWARDS CAREER EXPECTANCY AND JOB INVOLVEMENT

Table 4.5 – The relationship between career expectancy and job involvement

		CAREER EXPECTANCY				
		Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20	Q21
JOB INVOLVEMENT	Q7 – Overtime	.213(**)	.254(**)	.244(**)	.229(**)	.217(**)
	Q8 – Life	.275(**)	.316(**)	.323(**)	.325(**)	.252(**)
	Q9 – Early	.150(**)	.184(**)	.189(**)	.228(**)	.167(**)
	Q10 – Awake	.171(**)	.225(**)	.164(**)	.276(**)	.100(*)
	Q11 – Perfect	.016	.079	.128(**)	.139(**)	.078
	Q12 – Depressed	.104(*)	.209(**)	.156(**)	.206(**)	.179(**)
	Q13 – Activities	.210(**)	.252(**)	.189(**)	.237(**)	.144(**)
	Q14 – Home	.286(**)	.311(**)	.246(**)	.326(**)	.294(**)
	Q15 – Extra	.152(**)	.204(**)	.161(**)	.188(**)	.164(**)
	Q16 – Used to	.353(**)	.326(**)	.357(**)	.333(**)	.260(**)

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.5 present the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient of the relationship between the career expectancy and job involvement of soldiers. Results in the table express a significant correlation between various aspects of career expectancy and job involvement (some  $p < 0.01$  and others  $p < 0.05$ ). Q7 – “I’ll stay overtime to finish a job”, Q8 – “The major satisfaction in life comes from my job”, Q9 – “I usually show up early for work to get things ready”, Q10 – “Sometimes I lay awake at night thinking ahead to the next days work”, Q12 – “Feeling depresses when failing at something connected to the job”, Q13 – “I have other activities more important than my work”, Q14 – “often I feel like staying at home from work instead of coming in”, Q15 – “I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work”, and Q16 – “I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me” has a significant relationship with career future, feelings about job involvement, career prospects, career progress and job security.

Results also indicate a significant relationship between Q11 and career prospects and career progress. There is no significant relationship between Q11 - “I’m a perfectionist about my work” and the following aspects of career expectancy: Q17 - career future ( $r = 0.016$ ), Q18 - feelings about job involvement ( $r = 0.079$ ), and Q21 - job security ( $r = 0.78$ ).

The outcome supports the research hypotheses (H1) that there is a significant relationship between the job involvement and career expectancy of soldiers of the ADA Formation. The nil-hypotheses (H0) that there is no significant relationship between job involvement and career expectancy is rejected.

## 4.7 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

**Table 4.6 – Difference between men and women**

GROUP STATISTICS					LEVENE TEST			T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS				
Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Std Dev	Var	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tail	Mean Diff	Std. Err Diff
JOB	Male	402	3.01	.486	Equal	.167	.683	.74	474	.456	4.58	6.14
	Female	74	2.96	.479	Not			.75	102	.452	4.58	6.07
CAREER	Male	402	2.90	.984	Equal	1.54	.215	.33	474	.741	4.06	.122
	Female	74	2.86	.878	Not			.35	109	.721	4.06	.113
TRAINING	Male	402	3.24	.791	Equal	5.54	.019	-.55	474	.582	-5.36	9.75
	Female	74	3.29	.649	Not			-.63	116	.530	-5.36	8.51

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). \* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.6 uses the T-test to determine whether there is a difference between the attitude of men and women towards job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training.

The table shows no significant difference between the attitude of male and female soldiers towards job involvement, career expectancy or the satisfaction with training. The results do not support hypotheses 1.1 (H1), which suggests that there is a significance difference between men and women in their attitude towards satisfaction with training, career expectancy and job involvement. The nil-hypotheses 1.1 (H0) stating there is no significant difference in the attitudes of men and women regarding satisfaction with training, career expectancy and job involvement is accepted.

**Table 4.7 – Difference between rank groups**

GROUP STATISTICS					LEVENE TEST			T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS				
Variables	Rank Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Var	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tail	Mean Diff	Std. Err Diff
JOB	Officers	37	3.08	.456	Equal	1.40	.236	1.11	474	.264	9.28	8.30
	Other	439	2.99	.487	Not			1.18	43	.244	9.28	7.86
CAREER	Officers	37	3.29	.715	Equal	6.99	.008	2.62	474	.009	.431	.164
	Other	439	2.86	.979	Not			3.40	48	.001	.431	.126
TRAINING	Officers	37	3.46	.631	Equal	4.50	.034	1.72	474	.085	.227	.131
	Other	439	3.23	.779	Not			2.05	45	.045	.227	.110

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level \* Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.7 present the T-test to determine whether there is a difference in attitude between different rank groups (officers and other ranks) towards job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training.

Results indicate no difference between officers and other ranks with regards to job involvement. There is, however, a difference between officers and other ranks with respect to career expectancy and satisfaction with training.

**Table 4.7.a. - Career Expectancy**

GROUP STATISTICS						LEVENE TEST			T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS				
Var	Rank Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error Mean	Var	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tail	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff
Q17	Officer	37	3.30	1.12	.185	Equal	4.70	.030	2.94	474	.003	.67	.227
	Other	439	2.63	1.34	.064	Not			3.41	45	.001	.67	.196
Q18	Officer	37	3.05	.970	.160	Equal	4.70	.031	1.59	474	.111	.31	.195
	Other	439	2.74	1.15	.055	Not			1.84	44	.071	.31	.169
Q19	Officer	37	3.11	1.28	.211	Equal	1.63	.202	.876	474	.381	.22	.246
	Other	439	2.89	1.44	.069	Not			.967	44	.339	.22	.222
Q20	Officer	37	3.51	1.26	.207	Equal	.19	.663	2.31	474	.021	.54	.232
	Other	439	2.98	1.36	.065	Not			2.46	43	.018	.54	.217
Q21	Officer	37	3.51	1.04	.172	Equal	7.76	.006	1.80	474	.072	.43	.237
	Other	439	3.09	1.40	.067	Not			2.31	47	.025	.43	.184



As indicated in the table statistical differences exist between the different rank groups when asked “Q17, how do you feel about your future with the organisation”, “Q20, do you feel that you are getting ahead in the organisation”, “Q21, how secure are you in your present job”.

**Table 4.7.b - Training**

GROUP STATISTICS					LEVENE TEST			T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS				
Var	Rank Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Var	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tail	Mean Diff	Std. Err Diff
Plan	Officers	37	3.68	.611	Equal	3.79	.052	4.31	474	.000	.613	.142
	Other	439	3.06	.844	Not			5.66	48	.000	.613	.108
Imp	Officers	37	3.40	.647	Equal	4.07	.044	.569	474	.570	8.14	.143
	Other	439	3.32	.850	Not			.716	47	.478	8.14	.113
Eval	Officers	37	3.70	.770	Equal	.720	.397	-.188	474	.851	-2.67	.142
	Other	439	3.72	.835	Not			-.202	43	.841	-2.67	.132
Vision	Officers	37	3.29	.770	Equal	3.23	.073	.750	474	.454	.115	.154
	Other	439	3.18	.911	Not			.864	44	.392	.115	.133
Emp	Officers	37	3.35	.752	Equal	4.07	.044	2.79	474	.005	.434	.155
	Other	439	2.92	.919	Not			3.30	45	.002	.434	.131
Gen	Officers	37	3.39	.755	Equal	4.65	.031	.743	474	.458	.118	.159
	Other	439	3.27	.942	Not			.895	46	.375	.118	.132

The table indicate that there is a significant difference between officers and other ranks with regards to the satisfaction with training -planning, and -empowerment. Planning include aspects such as being well-informed on what training and development courses to take over the next few years, the quality of training facilities, quality of course material and standard of course administration. There is a significant difference between officers and other ranks on issues of empowerment such as being treated with respect, getting enough opportunities to decide which training to do and training creates opportunities for promotion. There are no significant differences between officers and other ranks with regards to the implementation of training, training evaluation, and training vision.

The hypotheses (H1) that there is a significant difference between different ranks groups regarding job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training is acknowledged to a degree as there is a significant difference between rank groups with regards to the satisfaction with training. The nil-hypotheses (H0) that are no significant differences between different rank groups with regards to job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training is rejected.

**Table 4.8 – Difference between age groups**

GROUP STATISTICS					LEVENE TEST			T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS				
Var	Age	N	Mean	Std Dev	Var	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tail	Mean Diff	Std. Err Diff
JOB	<24	206	2.97	.50	Equal	.686	.408	-1.18	474	.235	-5.33	4.48
	>24	270	3.02	.47	Not			-1.18	428	.239	-5.33	4.52
CAREER	<24	206	2.89	.94	Equal	.349	.555	-.098	474	.922	-8.78	8.96
	>24	270	2.90	.98	Not			-.099	450	.921	-8.78	8.91
TRAINING	<24	206	3.33	.63	Equal	19.9	.000	2.05	474	.040	.14	7.12
	>24	270	3.18	.85	Not			2.13	473	.033	.14	6.83

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level \* Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.8 presents a T-Test result to determine whether there is a difference between age groups and their attitude towards job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training.

Results indicate no significant difference between the different age groups with regard to job involvement and career expectancy. There is a significant difference between groups with respect to the satisfaction of training.

Table 4.8.a – Training

GROUP STATISTICS						LEVENE TEST			T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS				
Var	Q4 - Age	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error Mean	Var	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tail	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff
Plan	<24	206	3.14	.776	5.41	Equal	7.00	.008	.616	474	.538	4.81	7.81
	>24	270	3.09	.893	5.43	Not			.627	438	.531	4.81	7.67
Imp	<24	206	3.46	.732	5.10	Equal	11.6	.001	3.03	474	.003	.232	7.66
	>24	270	3.22	.895	5.45	Not			3.11	450	.002	.232	7.46
Eval	<24	206	3.87	.688	4.79	Equal	19.9	.000	3.42	474	.001	.260	7.59
	>24	270	3.61	.908	5.53	Not			3.55	466	.000	.260	7.32
Vision	<24	206	3.28	.834	5.81	Equal	4.11	.043	2.08	474	.038	.173	8.30
	>24	270	3.11	.943	5.73	Not			2.11	471	.035	.173	8.16
Emp	<24	206	2.99	.797	5.55	Equal	15.6	.000	.758	474	.449	6.41	8.46
	>24	270	2.92	.995	6.05	Not			.780	472	.436	6.41	8.22
Gen	<24	206	3.35	.768	5.35	Equal	19.7	.000	1.60	474	.108	.138	8.58
	>24	270	3.22	1.03	6.28	Not			1.67	473	.095	.138	8.25

Results indicate a significant difference between the age groups with respect to the implementation of training on a significance level of  $p < 0.05$  and with regards to training evaluation on a significance level of  $p < 0.001$ . Training implementation includes the following aspects; Q26 - course objectives are logical and clear, Q27 - training sessions meet or exceeds my expectations, Q28 - rating the effectiveness of the method of instruction, Q29 - instructors have the ability to create an effective learning atmosphere and Q30 - the instructors are effective in linking theory to practice. Training evaluation include; Q31 - I have confidence in what I have learned, Q32 - I am satisfied with what I have learned, Q33 - courses are useful in improving my job performance, and Q34 - how would you rate courses overall.

The hypotheses (H1) that there is a significant difference between age groups regarding job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training is confirmed as there is a significant difference between age groups with regard to the satisfaction with training. The nil-hypotheses (H0), that there are no significant differences between age groups with regards to satisfaction with training, are rejected.

**Table 4.9 - Difference between race groups**

Variable	Race	N	Mean	Std Dev	ANOVA	F	Sig
JOB	African	234	3.03	.487	Between groups	1.328	.266
	White	121	2.94	.465	Within Groups		
	Coloured	121	2.99	.498			
	Total	476	3.00	.485			
CAREER	African	234	2.95	1.02	Between groups	1.000	.369
	White	121	2.81	.881	Within Groups		
	Coloured	121	2.86	.940			
	Total	476	2.89	.968			
TRAINING	African	234	3.16	.895	Between groups	3.282	<b>.038</b>
	White	121	3.37	.556	Within Groups		
	Coloured	121	3.29	.671			
	Total	476	3.25	.770			

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level \* Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.9 presents a one-way ANOVA result to determine whether there is a difference between different race groups and their attitude towards job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training.

Results indicate that there is not a significant difference between the different race groups with regards to job involvement and career expectancy. The table shows that there is a difference between race groups regarding the satisfaction with training (sig. 0.038,  $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table 4.9.a. - Scheffe comparison test**

Dependent Variable	Race Group		Sig	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Planning	African	White	<b>.001</b>	<b>-.5872</b>	<b>-.1292</b>
		Coloured	.113	-.4240	3.399E-02
	White	African	<b>.001</b>	<b>.1292</b>	<b>.5872</b>
		Coloured	.314	-9.9693E-02	.4261
	Coloured	African	.113	-3.3994E-02	.4240
		White	.314	-.4261	9.969E-02
Implement	African	White	.142	-.4137	4.435E-02
		Coloured	.168	-.4054	5.262E-02
	White	African	.142	-4.4353E-02	.4137
		Coloured	.997	-.2547	.2712
	Coloured	African	.168	-5.2618E-02	.4054
		White	.997	-.2712	.2547
Evaluation	African	White	.508	-.3362	.1198
		Coloured	.326	-.3672	8.883E-02
	White	African	.508	-.1198	.3362
		Coloured	.959	-.2928	.2308
	Coloured	African	.326	-8.8834E-02	.3672
		White	.959	-.2308	.2928
Vision	African	White	.720	-.3298	.1661
		Coloured	.732	-.3277	.1682
	White	African	.720	-.1661	.3298
		Coloured	1.000	-.2826	.2867
	Coloured	African	.732	-.1682	.3277
		White	1.000	-.2867	.2826
Empowerment	African	White	<b>.006</b>	<b>-5.780</b>	<b>-7.9414E-02</b>
		Coloured	.673	-.3397	.1589
	White	African	<b>.006</b>	<b>7.941E-02</b>	<b>.5780</b>
		Coloured	.125	-4.7912E-02	.5245
	Coloured	African	.673	-.1589	.3397
		White	.125	-.5245	4.791E-02
General	African	White	.275	-.4225	8.787E-02
		Coloured	.493	-.3788	.1316
	White	African	.275	-8.7871E-02	.4225
		Coloured	.935	-.2493	.3367
	Coloured	African	.493	-.1316	.3788
		White	.935	-.3367	.2493

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level \* Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 9.a present a Scheffe comparison test to indicate whether the average self-ratings and the average rating of the different groups differ. The table indicate a significant difference between Africans and Whites with regards to the planning of training and empowerment. There is no significant difference between groups with regards to the implementation, evaluation, vision or general reaction to training.

The hypotheses (H1) that there is a significant difference between race groups regarding job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training is partly accepted, as there seems to be a difference between groups concerning training planning and empowerment. The nil-hypotheses (H0) that are no significant differences between population groups are rejected.

**Table 4.10 – Difference between forces**

GROUP STATISTICS					LEVENE TEST			T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS		
Var	Former force	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Var	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tail
JOB	Before 1994	152	2.99	.449	Equal	2.46	.117	-.322	468	.748
	After 1994	318	3.00	.501	Not			-.335	328	.738
CAREER	Before 1994	152	2.88	.942	Equal	.580	.447	-.140	468	.889
	After 1994	318	2.89	.980	Not			-.142	308	.887
TRAINING	Before 1994	152	3.12	.796	Equal	.625	.430	-2.391	468	.017
	After 1994	318	3.31	.753	Not			-2.344	283	.020

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level \* Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.10 presents a T-test result to determine whether there is a difference between different forces and their attitude towards job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training.

Results indicate no significant difference between forces before and after 1994 with regards to job involvement and career expectancy. There is a difference between forces with respect to training ( $r = 0.017, p < 0.05$ ).

**Table 4.10.a - Training**

GROUP STATISTICS					LEVENE TEST			T-TEST FOR EQUALITY OF MEANS		
Var	Q6 - Former force	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Var	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. 2-tail
Planning	Before 1994	152	3.06	.839	Equal	.136	.712	-.958	468	.339
	After 1994	318	3.14	.848	Not			-.961	300	.337
Implement	Before 1994	152	3.18	.865	Equal	1.21	.270	-2.53	468	.012
	After 1994	318	3.39	.816	Not			-2.48	282	.014
Evaluate	Before 1994	152	3.55	.903	Equal	5.27	.022	-3.09	468	.002
	After 1994	318	3.80	.785	Not			-2.95	263	.003
Vision	Before 1994	152	3.05	.887	Equal	.456	.500	-2.35	468	.019
	After 1994	318	3.26	.899	Not			-2.36	301	.018
Empower	Before 1994	152	2.86	.925	Equal	.025	.874	-1.58	468	.113
	After 1994	318	3.00	.908	Not			-1.57	292	.116
General	Before 1994	152	3.13	.972	Equal	.720	.397	-2.41	468	.016
	After 1994	318	3.35	.901	Not			-2.35	278	.019

\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level \* Significant at the 0.05 level.

The table indicates a difference between forces with regards to the implementation, evaluation, vision, and general reaction to training. There is no significant difference with respect to training planning and empowerment.

The hypotheses (H1) that there is a difference between forces before and after 1994 regarding job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training is confirmed to some extent as there is a difference in attitude towards the satisfaction with training. The nil-hypotheses (H0), which are that there are no statistically significant differences between forces before and after 1994 pertaining to job involvement, career expectancy and satisfaction with training, are rejected.

## 4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter gave an account of the research results. Results were presented using various tables. The representativeness of the sample and the validity of the questionnaire were argued in brief detail. The main trends and patterns in data with reference to the research hypotheses was examined and documented. The next chapter will bring the study to a close, discussing the main findings, drawing conclusions and making recommendations.



## **CHAPTER 5 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to present a summary of the findings, the conclusions, and recommendations with due consideration of the objectives of the study. This chapter consists out of the observations and conclusions made from the study. It argues the main findings obtained in the research by drawing together the results. The researcher show the connections between results of the study and the literature reviewed in chapter 2. The chapter reveals the possible limitations of the study and makes recommendations on the implementation of findings. The chapter concludes with recommendations regarding further research, and larger relevance and value of the study.

### **5.2 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS**

#### **5.2.1 The Relationship between Satisfaction with Training and Career Expectancy**

The main finding was that there is a significant relationship between the satisfaction with training and the career expectancy of soldiers at the Air Defence Artillery Formation.

### 5.2.1.1 Planning

A finding was that a significant relationship between the planning of training and the career expectations of soldiers exist. Aspects of planning included, the quality training facilities, course material, and course administration, and information available on training programmes.

According to Reed (2001:1-11) there is a significant relationship between career courses and reduced career indecision. Carrel et al. (1998:347-350) argue that well-planned career training programmes benefit both the organisation and the employee in a number of ways, for example, higher levels of education raise career expectations. The literature review, indicate that available resources, the quality of training facilities, appropriate course material, and effective course administration is important aspects in the planning of training. Gryzb et al. (1998:1-18) suggest that professional development require an understanding of the structural features of a profession and the role that training plays in career expectancy. This involves understanding the professions knowledge and skills, responsibilities and tasks, the division of labour, and various career stages.

#### Conclusions:

- In order to make career progress possible, soldiers must have information on what training courses to take over the next few years.
- Organisational support for training, and the way in which leaders plan, support improvement, and show involvement by providing appropriate resources and

assistance in the form of adequate training facilities, well-prepared course material, and proper courses administration has a link with the career expectancy of soldiers at the ADA Formation.

- Planning impinges on the career future, job involvement, career prospects, and the job security of soldiers at the ADA Formation.

#### 5.2.1.2 Implementation

The main finding was that the attitude of soldiers towards the implementation of training has a significant relationship with their career expectancy.

The literature review indicates that a professional approach to instruction is essential for the successful implementation of any course. According to Erasmus and Van Dyk, (1999:157) the establishment of a suitable learning atmosphere is one of the main factors contributing to successful implementation of training. Reid and Barrington (1997:263) indicate that the expectations of employee's have an influence on their satisfaction with training. Van Dyk et al. (2001:286) suggest that trainers must be clear on what type of behaviour is required of learners in terms of learning outcomes.

#### Conclusions:

- Instructor's should have or develop the ability to create an effective learning environment.
- Effective training enables the employee to assume increasingly challenging job responsibilities and to perform at higher job levels.

- Training activities are core components of career management in organisations.
- Through training, employees gain skills, abilities, knowledge, and abilities that help them perform more effectively in present and future jobs during their career.
- Implementation of training will only be effective if soldiers are motivated to undergo training and if training has practical application.
- Soldiers are normally reluctant to take part in training activities that holds no advantage to them i.e. impact on their career.
- It is vital that training programmes meet the expectations of all soldiers. One line of attack in meeting those expectations is to ensure that the method of instruction is effective, and that instructors are effective in linking theory to practice. If instructors should, fail at this challenge the chance is poor that newly acquired knowledge and skills will transfer to the workplace. It could also have a negative effect on attempts to sustain satisfaction with training, to positively affect feelings about career future, and to influence the attitude of soldiers towards increased job involvement.
- To motivate soldiers to undertake training programmes make sure that course objectives are logical and clear. Logical and clear course objectives take care that soldiers balance the importance of training with their career expectations.
- In addition to the opportunity for soldiers to gain new knowledge, skills, and abilities, the expectations of soldiers correlate with aspects of enhanced career prospects, possible career progress by means of promotion, and constant job security.

### 5.2.1.3 Evaluation

A finding was that satisfaction with training evaluation has a significant influence on career expectancy of soldiers at the ADA Formation. Soldiers reveal that to have confidence in training; satisfaction with what they have learned; to be able to use newly acquired knowledge, skills, and abilities to improve job performance; and to be satisfied with the type of courses, has a relationship with their career expectations.

According to Boverie et al. (1994:1-18) it is important to remember that effective evaluation is multifaceted. Literature recognises the importance of evaluation in terms of customer orientation, satisfaction, and economic returns.

A conclusion is that on the way to sustain the satisfaction with training it is important to assess the reaction of soldiers towards training and its possible impact on career expectancy.

### 5.2.1.4 Vision and Commitment

A finding was that the vision and commitment of the organisation with regard to training have an influence on the career expectations of soldiers and their subsequent satisfaction with training. This relate to: commitment to the idea of creating delighted learners; to consistently do things right the first time, every time; that officers and instructors should always demonstrate by their actions commitment to learner satisfaction and that when mistakes are made we focus on problem solving

instead on the apportionment of blame.

The attitude of an organisation towards training reflects in its philosophy, and this governs the priorities, standards, and scope of its training activities (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 1999:61). Philosophy reflects the value that management attach to training (Van Dyk et al. 2001:83). Findings corresponds with the opinion of Kaye (1985:258-263) to approach training as a strategy for individual career development that will benefit both the individual and the organisation.

#### Conclusions:

- Any organisation should have a clear vision about training and commit to achieve it by means of an unambiguous philosophy and mission towards training.
- The visibility of vision and commitment to training demonstrated by the organisation possibly will have a positive effect on soldier's satisfaction with training and their perspective of career expectancy.
- Social support for training is an important component in the development and maintenance of career commitment.
- Career training will benefit both the organisation and the employee if a stronger link develops between career future and the satisfaction with training.
- Senior management must visibly show their commitment to training.
- Employees who actively participate in decision-making and problem solving, are suitably trained, are progressively able to handle more complex and challenging situations might have a secure career future with a specific organisation.

#### 5.2.1.5 Empowerment

A finding was that there is a significant relationship between empowerment and career expectancy. There is a connection between career future, career prospects, career progress, job security, and training, which create opportunities for promotion and participation in training. Empowerment includes items such as treating learners with respect; a good understanding of products and services; empowering officers and NCOs to act on their own judgement; attending training at the proper time; enough opportunities to do training and to make out that training creates opportunities for promotion.

From literature, Loedolff (1988:7-13), postulate that career progress and promotion to the next rank depend on the completion of certain career courses. Dubois (1994:1-10) suggested that organisations would be wise to invest in training, helping their employees to acquire and use critical career competencies. Gerber et al. (1998:149) suggest that there is a close link between training and career development, since training is a means to empower employees to achieve their own career goals. Bartlett (2001:335-352) agrees that, organisations must create and make training available to workers to acquire career competencies and adds, that many employees have come to view training as a “right of membership” and as a benefit of employment. Nel et al. (2001:40) postulated that an employee’s behaviour within an organisation is the function of his or her perception of the content of the psychological contract.

Robbins (2001:69) is of the opinion that there is serious damage to the unwritten psychological contract between employer and employee, and the notion of an employee to stay with a single organisation has become increasingly obsolete.

#### Conclusions:

- Perceived access to training can have a direct impact on the psychological contract and in the process of social exchange operating within the ADA Formation.
- Efforts to ensure an understanding of products and services, access to and participation in training and opportunities for promotion go a long way towards empowering members and the enhancing career expectancy.
- Training relates to getting ahead in the organisation. Progress i.e. promotion to the next higher rank, is depended on the completion of certain career courses. Without the completion of these training programmes, career progress is not possible. The training system and career expectancy of leader group soldiers at the ADA Formation, therefore, closely link to the participation in training.
- Challenges that influence the access to training at the ADA Formation are the affirmative action plan of the SA Army that enforces a quota system on course acceptances for leader group members. This has a detrimental effect on the career and promotion possibilities of certain race groups.
- Affirmative action and transformation has an influence on feelings about job security.



- Non-leader group members of all races have limited access to training opportunities. The result is a limited career future, slender prospects, and slow if any progress.
- Training empowers people and put them in a position whereby they can make career progress. In order to make career progress individuals need competencies that enable them to perform well on the job. It is possible to acquire these competencies through training.
- In the SA Army downsizing, restructuring, reengineering, affirmative action and other organisational adjustments have brought one significant conclusion about career expectancy, the individual – no longer the organisation alone – is responsible for career planning and development.

#### 5.2.1.6 General Reaction

Findings indicate that there is a significant relationship between career expectancy and the general reaction to training.

From literature, Gryzb et al. (1998: 1-18) is of the opinion that as individuals move through career stages various factors influence may influence their decision to participate in training. The motivation to participate in training may also effect job involvement. This perspective offer ways to think about the variety of learning needs soldiers face at different points in their careers and perhaps suggest ways to increase the satisfaction with training by directly addressing pressing career issues.

The viewpoint of Robbins and De Zenco (1998:579) are that future success in job positions will require individuals to pursue lifelong learning. According to Allen (1998:1-6), for training to be effective, employees should be convinced that it is important to them. If training is effective, employees will be able to demonstrate that they have the skill and knowledge to perform their tasks. DeSimone and Harris (1998:43) propose that career, and job attitudes can have a direct effect on the motivation to train. Tracey et al. (2001:5-23) is of the opinion that individuals may be more likely to value training if they perceive training has relevance to their job and professional development.

#### Conclusions:

- It is conclusive that on-the-job and formal training enables soldiers to do their career work more effectively.
- The opportunity to learn new things has an influence on career expectancy, as it place members in a position to progress and to secure their career futures.
- It seems job involvement has an influence on commitment to undertake training when linked to career expectancy. This suggests that it is very important to ensure that the soldier has the opportunity to attend career promotional courses.
- It is important to design and apply a recognition system that sustains involvement and empowerment.
- The opportunity to apply knowledge gained during training in the work situation is important for the career-minded soldier. This suggest that if the work environment provide support for training, and if individuals are motivated to

undergo training it is likely that they will acquire new knowledge and skills and subsequently be more involved in their jobs and committed to their future with the organisation.

- It is clear that soldiers should have opportunity to transfer their knowledge to the work environment. This will help to ensure continued satisfaction with training.
- Career expectancy has an attachment with receipt of adequate recognition when performing well during training. Recognition when performing well during training will ensure that soldiers continue to seek opportunities to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities.

### **5.2.2 The relationship between satisfaction with training and job involvement**

The main finding is that there is a significant relationship between the indicators of training namely, planning, implementation, evaluation, vision, empowerment, general reactions, and the attitude of soldiers towards job involvement. Overall results confirm that the satisfaction with training has a significant influence on the job involvement of soldiers at the ADA Formation.

Literature indicates a positive relationship between training and job involvement. Mckelvey and Sekaran (1977:281-305) found that professional training is an important factor in job involvement. According to Nunns and Argirys (1992:40-45) subordinates who experience high quality relationships with their managers enjoy greater communication, trust, has more influence on decision making than those who experience low quality exchanges. In return, the subordinate is more involved and

commitment to the function of his or her job department. DeSimone and Harris (1998:43) proposed that job attitudes could have a direct effect on the motivation to train. Tracey et al. (2001:5-23) is of the opinion that individuals may be more likely to value training if they perceive it has relevance to their job. Job involvement is the degree to which the job situation is central to the individual. Individuals who are highly motivated in their jobs should value opportunities to participate in activities, such as training, designed to enhance their job situation. It follows that individuals with high job involvement will develop high level of motivation if the training is specific and relevant to their job i.e. if they are satisfied with training. Bartlett (2001:335-352) found that social support for training is an important component for the formation and maintenance of commitment. Robbins (2001:155) defines motivation as a process that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal. The concept of job involvement has been gaining steadily in importance because of its pivotal role in providing a link between productivity on the one hand and employee needs and the quality of working life (career) on the other.

#### Conclusions:

- First, job involvement relates to participation in training. If individuals are committed to their organisation, due in part to perceptions of the value of training, then it is likely that they will also have positive job involvement.
- Individuals who are highly involved in their jobs ought to value opportunities to participate in activities, such as training, designed to enhance their job situation.
- When it is important to have certain knowledge and skills to be able to function in a specific job, satisfaction with training may influence job involvement.

- Individuals that are motivated and willing to undergo training are likely to acquire new knowledge and skills and can subsequently be more involved in their jobs.
- The use of formal procedures to account for newly acquired knowledge and skills may prompt individuals that training is essential.
- The carry over of training to the job situation is imperative. Moreover, if individuals believe there is a link between training, being involved in their jobs and the possibility of career progress they will be willing to make an effort to acquire desired knowledge and skills.
- The expectancy theory has implications for the design and effectiveness of training programmes. Employees will not be motivated to attend training unless they believe their effort will increase job performance and job involvement, and in doing so help them obtain desired outcomes.
- The indication is that if soldiers are satisfied with opportunities to learn new things, when their time is fully utilised during training, and if they get an opportunity to apply knowledge, gained during training in the work situation it will likely increase their job involvement and subsequent commitment to the organisation.
- Results show that recognition when performing well during training is important to enhance the satisfaction with training and resulting increased job involvement.
- The satisfaction with training outcomes play a role in the job involvement of individual's. Satisfaction with training may influence job involvement and participation in training when it is important to one's job.

- Job involvement is necessary to construct a work place where there is effective integration of the soldier's career goals.
- Job involvement is a means through which soldiers at the Air Defence Artillery Formation can satisfy expectations for engaging in a satisfying career. Job involvement helps to integrate a person's self-worth with the sequence of positions held during a career.
- When trainees understood that they are accountable for learning, they reported greater intentions to use training on the job, and thus, increase their job involvement. This implies that soldiers take cues from both their colleagues and their supervisors and officers with regard to the importance of training, and these perceptions may influence their attitude and participation.

### **5.2.3 The relationship between job involvement and career expectations**

Results show that there is a positive relationship between career future, feelings on how career future influences the overall attitude towards the job, career prospects, and job security with job involvement.

Literature also suggests an agreement between job involvement and career expectancy. Mckelvey and Sekaran (1977:281-305) defines job involvement as merging a person's ego identity with his or her job. Jobs requiring a high degree of involvement are vehicles through which employees can satisfy their need for career growth. Smit and Cronjé (1999:305-323), argues that higher order needs such as career expectancy needs can be satisfied by performance and job involvement. The

reinforcement theory puts forward career progress as a reward used to reinforce positive job involvement. According to Robbins, (2001:69) employees with a high level of job involvement strongly identify with and really care about the kind of work they do.

#### Conclusions:

- The concept of job involvement is one of the central measures, which assess the quality of work life (career) and merges a person's ego identity with career expectancy.
- By being involved in their jobs, soldiers can satisfy their need for career growth and enhance their career- future, prospects, progress, and job security with the organisation.
- There is a symbolic relationship between job involvement, performance, and the quality of working life. Individuals who have their ego development tied into their job have a higher stake in performing well and there is often a strong desire to satisfy the need for ego identity and development in their jobs.
- Career future influences job involvement and has a correlation with the commitment to training. This propose that progression along a career path related to job involvement and that an employee is more likely to be satisfied with training and therefore perform at peak levels in an attempt to accomplish career goals, if career future is encouraging.

- It is important for the ADA Formation to maintain a healthy employment relationship between itself and soldiers. Job involvement is necessary to construct a workplace where there is an effective integration with the career expectancy of soldiers.
- The individual who uses job involvement to satisfy his ego needs has high career expectations. For career-orientated individuals, careers guide the sequence of jobs that develop their ego identity or self-concept. It seems important to generate the idea among employees that career growth is the result of job involvement.
- Goals give a sense of purpose, why work, and need to be involved in a job and have career expectancies. A person will not identify with his job, actively participate in it, if there is no career expectancy. Soldiers will be actively involved in their jobs if it leads to reward such as a satisfying career with the organisation.

#### **5.2.4. The difference between male and female soldiers with regards job involvement, career expectancy, and satisfaction with training**

The main finding and conclusion is that there is not a significant difference between the attitudes of male and female soldiers regarding job involvement, career expectancy and the following aspects of the satisfaction with training: planning, implementation, evaluation, empowerment, and general reaction.



### **5.2.5 The difference between officers and other ranks concerning job involvement, career expectancy, and satisfaction with training**

The main finding is that there is no significant difference between officers and other ranks concerning job involvement. There is, however, a difference between officers and other ranks with respect to career expectancy and satisfaction with training.

#### **Conclusions:**

- There is a difference between officers and other ranks about their future with the organisation. The fact that private soldiers do not have a possibility of obtaining a rank contributes to limited career possibilities and future with the organisation.
- There is a difference between officers and other ranks about getting ahead in the organisation. Progress depends on whether a soldier is leader group or not. Private soldiers do not get the opportunity to attend promotional courses and will therefore not receive a next higher rank or a regular increase in pay.
- There is a difference between officers and other rank about job security.
- There is a difference between officers and other ranks about the planning of training and empowerment.

### **5.2.6 Difference between age groups with regard to job involvement, career expectancy, and satisfaction with training**

The main finding and conclusion is that there is no significant difference between age groups towards job involvement and career expectancy. There is a difference between age groups on the satisfaction with training.

### **5.2.7 Difference between different race groups concerning job involvement, career expectancy and the satisfaction with training**

The main finding and conclusion is that there is not a significant difference between race groups about job involvement and career expectancy. There is however a difference between groups concerning the satisfaction with training. Africans and Whites differ relating to the planning of training and empowerment.

### **5.2.8 Difference between former forces regarding job involvement, career expectancy, and satisfaction with training**

The main finding and conclusion is that there is not a significant difference between race groups about job involvement and career expectancy. There is however a difference between group concerning the satisfaction with training.

### 5.3 LIMITATIONS

The results of this research interpreted with recognition of the studies limitations. These limitations link with the sources of error mentioned in chapter 3 of the study. The generalisation of the results is limited to the degree to which other populations resemble the one studied. It is possible that a sample of soldiers will yield unique results in that warfare is a male dominated profession, has mandatory training, and experiences higher turnover rates than many other professions.

The sample was also limited to two units in the SA Army. In addition, as respondents were full-time soldiers, employed at full time force units, the findings may not apply to soldiers in other settings. The survey nature of this study introduces limitations that are inherent in the research design, including the possible ambiguity of individual questions, answers that not clarified memory lapses, variation in individual motivation, and variations in the knowledge of respondents. This noted as being especially relevant for studies of the perceptions of work-related practices. The concern that all measures gathered from the same source in a single questionnaire raises concerns of common method variance. Finally, acknowledged is that job involvement has multiple determinants.

## 5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Job involvement refers to the extent to which people psychologically attach to their jobs and the degree of importance that work holds in their life (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965:24-33). The researcher recommends that the ADA Formation attempt to restore the individual's soldier perception of the unwritten psychological contract. Nel et al. (2001:40) indicated that an employee's behaviour within an organisation is the function of perception of the content of the psychological contract. Officers commanding have a role in defining and maintaining employee's psychological contracts. For example, install in soldiers the perceptions that training is available and that the organisation supports training for career advancement. According to Bartlett (2001: 335-352) motivation to learn can be enhanced with information and descriptions from management and supervisors on training opportunities, content and benefits.

Job involvement is necessary to construct a work environment where there is effective integration of the soldier's career goals. See job involvement as a means through which soldiers at the ADA Formation can satisfy expectancies engaging in a satisfying career. Use job involvement to integrate a person's self-worth with the sequence of positions held during a career.

A stronger link forged between training and career development puts training in a framework of soldier's goals and organisational human needs. With such linkage, both the trainee and the organisation can make relevant decisions about the use of training time.

Training in the career development context must take a long-term view and account for a vast array of individual needs, it is important to look beyond traditional needs.

The ADA Formation must conduct a skills audit by confirming or performing a strategic analysis, confirming organisational structures and functions, drawing up a skills matrix and job profiles for each available post at both units. An effective and accurate skills audit will indicate what skills, knowledge and attitudes each soldier needs to function effectively on the job. The skills audit should also be the starting point for career planning, development and formal training courses presented at the ADA School.

Soldiers can benefit in many ways being involved in his or her career because the person can make conscious and informed decisions about the future. This ensures that his or her needs are taken into consideration when decisions about promotion or career shifts are made. This reduces frustration, anxiety, and uncertainty as the ADA Formation restructure, fine-tune, downsize, or merge. Moreover, this gives soldiers an opportunity to gain important and useful life skills, which include dealing with linguistic and cultural diversity; measuring success; self-worth and rewards.



Career management benefits the ADA Formation, because it increases the probability that the right people will be available at the right time and place to meet organisational staffing requirements. It also ensures that the demands of affirmative action and employment equity can be addressed, which, in turn, enhances motivation, sense of commitment and loyalty. In the end, soldiers are likely to project a positive image of the ADA Formation.

Job design is the system for transforming inputs into outputs. It focuses on increasing performance through job design improvements. Job design focus on the premise, that the work itself can be a powerful influence on motivation, performance, involvement, and satisfaction. Allowing soldiers to help design their jobs can motivate them to perform at higher levels. Launch job enrichment programmes aimed at various psychological needs of soldiers. It contributes to organisational development and therefore improves the quality of work life. Commanders can enrich the jobs of soldiers by delegating more variety and responsibility by giving them challenging assignments that would help them to grow and develop new skills. At all levels of the organisation, officers and NCO's are empowered to act on their own judgement within the framework of the commander's intention.

It is important that the ADA Formation devise an effective recruitment and selection system for private soldiers who want to become either NCO's or officers. Trained and competent people should do selection. It is the responsibility of the senior leader group to employ the best candidate. Eradicate favouritism and nepotism completely.

The affirmative action programme must be transparent so that all soldiers see that the organisation is sincere. Develop a two-week training and evaluation programme designed as a selection tool. The panel of interviewers must consist out of men and women of the highest integrity.

Soldiers (human resources) are the most precious asset of the ADA Formation. Therefore, they must get enough opportunity to grow within the organisation. The researcher recommends the drafting of career and development programme for all the different ranks. This programme indicates what, when, where, by whom etc. career courses must be attended. In conjunction with the programme, specified are the different military term systems and minimum promotional requirements. At the end of the different military term stages, a career board indicate to the individual soldier what their career expectancy is. Each individual soldier must have a career interview on a yearly basis. During this annual interview the unit commander discuss and inform on items such as training courses to take over the next year, career future, career progress etc. the hallmark of this integrated human resource career and training approach is an active effort by senior personnel to identify, develop and utilise the full human potential of the organisation.

A challenge is for the ADA Formation to be able to empower officers with skills to move a soldier from being directed to being empowered. The following may bring this about, the creation of conditions where soldiers are willing, able and allowed to perform job related activities, the removal of obstacles obstructing personal growth.

There is a need to assist soldiers to achieve more accurate, more inspiring, and more empowering views of reality. The creation and encouragement of opportunities for self-development and continual learning is essential to success.

The ADA Formation can do many things to facilitate career development. To this end, computerise the skill inventories of each soldier. When a job opening occurs, identify all soldiers who have certain skills for further training and possible career promotion. Use various methods to affect this training. For example, formal career courses, short seminars, courses with other defence forces, and tertiary education.

Senior staff should realise that career development activities represent an important investment in organisations interested in developing their employee is so that they can make their maximum contribution over the long term. Training courses should fit the needs of the organisation. Training seen as part of career expectancy no longer is an end in itself. Career expectancy linked to training will allow the ADA Formation to move backwards and forwards – to decide who to train in what area, how to train, and what use will be made of the training.

The researcher recommends the scientific revision of all training programmes at the ADA School. Training programmes presented by the ADA School should fit in, not duplicate, the general courses presented by the SA Army. It is therefore important to redesign all courses and curricula in a scientific manner to fit in with the career development programme and the requirements of the national qualifications framework (NQF).



It is important that soldiers should not expect lifetime employment, but instead, work should be organised around the notion of employability and to succeed soldiers must become continuous scholars who respond to the need of the SA Army.

Soldiers should be encouraged to improve their skills through courses designed to advance them in their profession. It must be possible for all soldiers to attend training at the proper time and receive enough opportunities to decide which training to do.

Improve the quality of training facilities as a matter of urgency. Instructors will not be able to create an effective learning atmosphere if the environment is not conducive. Upgrade all classrooms and fit it with the latest technology writing services, projectors, air conditioning etc. This recommendation is because main equipment costs millions to procure and maintain.

Upgrade the standard of course material issued to learners coming on courses at the ADA School. Learners need to be responsible for any material lost or damaged and for the replacement or repair thereof. The standard of course material such as books must compare to SA Army standard.

Create a brochure that indicates what products and services the ADA school present. Use this brochure during recruitment drives to “sell” the ADA corps and to welcome new recruits. It is imperative that soldiers have a good understanding of the products and services of the ADA School.

Do on-the-job training with all officers and instructors on the method of instruction in order for them to have the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes to create an effective learning atmosphere.

Make sure that officers and instructors have the ability to link theory to practice in an effective manner. Other methods such as formal courses in educational technology can provide officers and instructors that demonstrate by their action their personnel commitment to learner satisfaction.

A remedy for lack of ability is retraining. When accident rates or injuries become more severe, or performance drops, retraining might become necessary. Retraining involves providing additional or related training. The main purpose of retraining is to overcome all limitations that are causing a soldier to perform at less than the desired level.

Improve the level of reward by recognising soldiers when they successfully achieve organisational and personal goals such as doing well on a training course. Recognition can include public statements and awards, as well as private statements of praise and congratulations.

Supervisors must understand, interact with, and motivate soldiers that are increasingly from all the different population groups and retain a strong ethnic identity. Commanders should acknowledge and respect cultural differences. Cross-cultural training prepares soldiers to work with others. Diversity training must seek to eliminate stereotypes, and practices that inhibit personal development. Therefore, allow soldiers to contribute to organisational goals regardless of their race, sexual orientation, religious orientation, and cultural background.

For training to be effective, commanders should convince soldiers that it is important to them. Explain the goal of the training so that it is logical and clear. Give training that is relevant to the workplace. Keep training simple yet thorough. Summarise the main points and objectives of the training. Involvement is essential in any training program. Commanders must encourage participation. Establish a one-on-one relationship with all learners that participate in training.

Encourage discussion questions by providing an open communication environment that encourages participation. Ask learners for their comments and suggestions on training issues. If training is effective, soldiers will be able to demonstrate that they have the skill and knowledge to perform their tasks.

Training becomes more effective when linked specifically to the employee's roles, when soldiers can immediately apply learning, and when soldier's can see direct links to their on-the-job performance. Additionally, it is more valuable when those trained have a role in determining the nature and content of training.

Training is also more valuable when the environment supports what is learned and when commanders play an active role in the training and follow-up activities. Instructional technologists are encouraged to concentrate upon learner interests, needs, and logistical considerations incorporated into the design of training programmes themselves.

## **5.5 FURTHER RESEARCH**

Further research should explore the use of job involvement and other work-related variables as potential outcomes of human resource development. This type of research would be well suited to longitudinal studies employing both quantitative and qualitative techniques. Ideally, studies would involve larger samples and a wider range of units in both the SA Army and the other arms of service. It is with such efforts that training can develop into a major force in the continued search for a greater understanding of the role of training human resources for achieving organisational success.

## 5.6 LARGER RELEVANCE AND VALUE OF THE STUDY

These findings have numerous implications for those employed in management and administrative positions within the SA Army and for training practitioners. Training practitioners should consider desired work-related attitudes such as job involvement to be an additional outcome of training and development activities. Results indicating that training can play a role in the development and maintenance of career expectancy and job involvement should encourage commanders on all levels to explore the role of involvement and its relationship to improvements in retention and productivity. This could also suggest that training practitioners adopt a wider perspective toward training outcomes.

The findings in this study illustrate that training practitioners can play a constructive role in establishing a positive perception towards training and development within organisations. Management action might influence the attitude of employee toward training. The finding that these attitudes relates to involvement ought to encourage those responsible for recruitment, selection, and initial socialisation of newly hired soldiers to add information on the amount and type of training provided and the level of staff support toward training.

Even though job involvement and career expectancy are diverse constructs with a large body of empirical literature, training practitioners can focus on a few key elements. First, training practitioners should concentrate on the job-related antecedents to involvement and career expectancy rather than personal or situational

characteristics over which they have little control. Training practitioners might play a role in increasing job challenge, role clarity, and participation in decision making about training. They can also communicate that the organisation depends on the continued efforts of each soldier.

Finally, note that training is one of many organisational processes that can assist in the development and maintenance of job involvement and career expectancy. However, the relationship between training and involvement and career explored in this study should not result in training practitioners believing that training alone has an agreement with the constructs. In fact, these results highlight that training is one component of a complex set of management practices that together influence the attitudes and behaviours of soldiers.

The study suggests that training practitioners capitalise on existing empirical work, as well as adopt new research methods to demonstrate to organisational decision makers that training contributes to desired workplace attitudes, including job involvement and career expectancy.

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