

**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH WALES**

**FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND SOCIETY**

**A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of  
PhD in Business and Management**

**Human Resource Development in Palestinian Higher Education, with  
Special Reference to Evaluation of Employee Development and Training  
at the Al-Aqsa University, Gaza, Palestinian Authority.**

By  
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# **DECLARATION**

**This Thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of  
The PhD in Business and Management**

I declare that this Thesis is the result of my own independent work and investigation. I also declare that all sources are accordingly acknowledged in the References. The material contained within this Dissertation has not been previously submitted to any degree.

Dr. Mazen AlMajdalawi

Date: 10-03-2015

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## **DEDICATION**

To the memory of my late Parents, Mother Fatima Al-Majdalawi  
and Father Yousef Al-Majdalawi

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# Chapter One

## Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction

This thesis is undertaken to evaluate the development of human resource of Palestinian higher education with special reference to evaluating staff training and development at Al-Aqsa University. Training and development of both administrative and academic staff members in Al-Aqsa University (as well as in other higher education institutions in Gaza) is not up to the standard desired as a result of several factors. One such factors is that Gaza has been under siege for a long time and the few crossings to the outside world have been closed and difficult, or rather impossible for people to pass through. Another factor is that funding for training and development has run out which makes it rather difficult to undertake proper staff training. Favouritism (*‘Wasta’*, in Arabic) is another factor which plays an important role is selecting certain employees for training, and training is often general and does not link to employees’ training needs. Responses of the research participants (consisting of both academics and administrators) to the questionnaire items would shed light on evaluating the development of human resource in Al-Aqsa University. The pattern of these responses will help fill in the gaps in the training and development and human resource development (HRD) practices by the Al-Aqsa University Authorities.

Human Resource Development (HRD) is concerned with improving organisational performance as a result of the efficient development and utilisation of organisational human resources (Bartlett, 2001, 2007) in addition to furthering of and playing a role in preferred attitudes at work and personnel behaviour (Bartlett, 2001, 2007; Benson et al., 2004). HRD is one of the human resource management (HRM), according to the literature (Werner and DeSimone, 2012; Mathis and Jackson, 2012). An overview of issues relating

to HRM is addressed in the following chapter (Chapter Two). Issues relating to HRD are reviewed and discussed in Chapter Two of this research. HRD has three main functions: training and development, organisation development, and career development. All these functions are reviewed and discussed in Chapter Two. The main focus of the present research is on one function of HRD, namely, training and development of academic and administrative staff members of the Al-Aqsa University in Gaza Strip of the Palestinian National Authority, as well as investigating human resource development (HRD) practices in Al-Aqsa University. It also attempts to identify the gaps this research attempts to fill.

At this concluding stage of the Thesis, some gaps have been identified through the responses to the questionnaire items by the academic and administrative staff members of the Al-Aqsa University. These gaps are as follows: This Thesis shows that superiors (managers, supervisors, and head of departments) are neither encouraging nor supportive of their staff members (academic and administrators) to take advantage of training and development opportunities. This exposes the management's non-commitment to training and developing their staff members. Al-Majdalawi (2007), in his study; "Effectiveness of Staff Training, With Special Reference to Al-Aqsa University, Gaza, Palestine" reported existing training practices and indicated that the University is not fully committed to train and develop its staff, and was not undertaking training fully; thus, the University was not meeting its objectives and staff development objectives. It also seems that training and development programmes offered by the University were not up to the standard that increases staff job satisfaction. This may be due to training offered is in the main not much related to staff jobs to meet their needs and requirements to increase their skills and knowledge, and change their attitude to work. This dissatisfaction might be the case of another gap, that is, training does not motivate staff at work after training and does not help

them perform their job better. Another gap was that staff members do not often discuss their training programme objectives with their superiors. This also indicates management's non-commitment to training and development of their employees. Training seems to be more important to performance at work to administrators than academics. This may indicate that training programmes attended by the academics were not much related to their work or field of specialisation; hence; it was less important to them than to administrators. However, it is imperative to note that most academics referred to their training as off-the-job; it seems they referred to studying abroad to obtain their postgraduate degrees as off-the-job training. Furthermore, the present research is the first of its kind concerning training and development at the Al-Aqsa University.

One of most imperative gaps in our knowledge of HRD practices at the Al-Aqsa University is that the absence of HRD model or framework that can be employed to resolve HRD practices, and training and development practices. This gap is filled by way of proposing a Conceptual Model to Study the Effectiveness of Training and Development in a Palestinian context.

## **1.2 Research Questions**

- Does the Al-Aqsa University provide an excellent context to evaluate HRD practices and processes?
- *How does developing HRD conceptual model within the Palestinian context help the Al-Aqsa University (and possibly other Palestinian higher education institutions) develop their HRD practices in terms of increasing academic and administrative staff's knowledge, skills and attitudes and to boost their performance?*

## **1.3 Aim and Objectives**

The aim of this thesis is to: “Evaluate the human resource development of Palestinian higher education with special reference to evaluating the staff training and development at Al-Aqsa University.”

**The objectives are to:**

- 1- *Explore the modern concept of human resource development (HRD) practices adopted to achieve the process of developing skilled and proficient human resources;*
- 2- *Evaluate Human Resource Development practices and processes at the Al-Aqsa University; and*
- 3- *Develop a conceptual model of Human Resource Development within the Palestinian context, mainly drawing from Western and Arabic literature and the outcomes of the present research.*

#### **1.4 Background and Context**

In the Palestinian authority territories, mainly in the context of development within the higher education sector, neither adequate information exists nor is development. There is a substantial lack of research on development in this part of the Middle East. The higher education sector, like any other service sector within Gaza and the West Bank, is a major concern for the national authorities, especially in recent years due to sanctions imposed on these territories and the restriction of movement of the Palestinian nationals, and due to this gap in our understanding and significance of development within this key service sector, the idea of undertaking development evaluation research has materialised. It is hoped that the findings of this research will help identify these gaps in our understanding and identify the needs of training and development in this important sector and the improvement of development and training given to the staff. In reality, there is a pressing need to evaluate development at the higher education sector in order to highlight its points of strengths and points of weaknesses, and to develop these weaknesses in order to offer high quality development and training programme.(Teacher Creativity Centre 2010)

The researcher believes that exploring HRD within Al-Aqsa University provides an excellent context to evaluate HRD practices and processes at the Al-Aqsa University, to consider the impacts of research independent variables on the variables which relate to the



support of human resource management by HRD policy and practice at the Al-Aqsa University ;and to develop a conceptual model of Human Resource Development within the Palestinian context, mainly drawing from Western and Arabic literature and the outcomes of the present research.

This chapter focuses on three main issues concerning HRD, including Strategic Human Resource Development; International Human Resource Development; and HRD in Palestine

## **1.5 Strategic Human Resource Development**

Several strategic pressures have played a role in the increasing significance and strategic role of HRD, including the following (McLagan and Suhadolnik, 1989; Garavan et al., 1995; in Wilson, 2005b, p. 11):

- *accelerated rate of change;*
- *focus on quality;*
- *globalization of business;*
- *increased flexibility and responsiveness of organizations;*
- *increased pressure to demonstrate the contribution of human resources;*
- *new competitive structures;*
- *new methodology.*

Wilson (2005b) argues that with all such pressures it is evident that HRD plays a part in various ways and at all organisational levels to provide support.

SHRD is said to offer a “*proactive, value-adding, holistic, synergistic, and long-term perspective for “people-development” functions in all forms of organisations*” (Yadapadithya, in Yadapadithya and Stewart, 2005, p. 161). Yadapadithya and Stewart (2005, p. 161) argue that the key philosophy, that is, systems of beliefs and values, “*is to help all employees recognise and realise their full potential as human beings, so that*

*individuals, teams, and organisations can achieve their objectives both effectively and efficiently.”*

There are many definitions of SHRD provided by different authors. A number of them are provided in Appendix I.

SHRD transcends traditional HRD due to its impetus on transformative matters (Yadapadithya and Stewart, 2005). These authors argue that in SHRD, people development and the supporting learning processes are one of strategic potentials and characteristic competences of organisations which successfully undertake them. Yadapadithya and Stewart (2005) also indicate that learning and development initiatives are carried out with complete strategic intention, with an insight of how they add to the consistency of the knowledge creation, development, and application at levels in the organisation, matching an explicit learning philosophy integrated into the general organisational vision and mission. In a similar way, education, learning and development initiatives are assumed with an explicit strategic intention and with the unreserved commitment and involvement of those who are presumed to benefit from them (Yadapadithya and Stewart, 2005). Accordingly, SHRD is a strategically key partner undertaking the same level of significance like the conventional core organisational processes, such as finance, production, and marketing (Yadapadithya and Stewart, 2005).

The key aim of SHRD is to *“enhance resource capability in accordance with the belief that the human capital of an organization is a major source of competitive advantage”* (Armstrong, 2006, p. 534). Accordingly, SHRD concerns making sure that the right quality people exist to meet current and future needs, and this is realised through a coherent and wide-ranging framework for developing people (Armstrong, 2006). SHRD specific objectives are to develop intellectual capital and promote organizational, team and

individual learning by establishing a learning culture; an environment where personnel are motivated to learn and develop and where knowledge is dealt with systematically (Armstrong, 2006).

The main distinguishing characteristics of SHRD include the following (for details see Yadapadithya and Stewart, 2005, pp. 175-177):

1. *Business-led Approach.*
2. *Analysis of the External Environment.*
3. *Formal Policy Statement.*
4. *Top Management Support, Involvement, and Commitment.*
5. *Competence of the Line Manager.*
6. *Integration Between HRD and HRM Activities.*
7. *Marketing of HRD.*
8. *SHRD is Context-specific.*

To sum up, SHRD deals with the management of workforce learning for the long-term, bearing in mind the explicit corporate and business strategies, and really institutes strategic collaborations across the organisational spectrum extending from influencing people development policy decisions and the wide level to collectively with line managers and other staff practitioners (Yadapadithya and Stewart, 2005).

## **1.6 HRD in Palestine**

The human resource development system in Palestine consists of three levels: formal school education, higher education, and non-formal education and training. Formal school education consists of three stages: two years of preschool kindergarten; ten years of compulsory basic education, and two years of academic or vocational secondary education (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 9). The present Palestinian National Authority education system is illustrated in Figure 1.1.

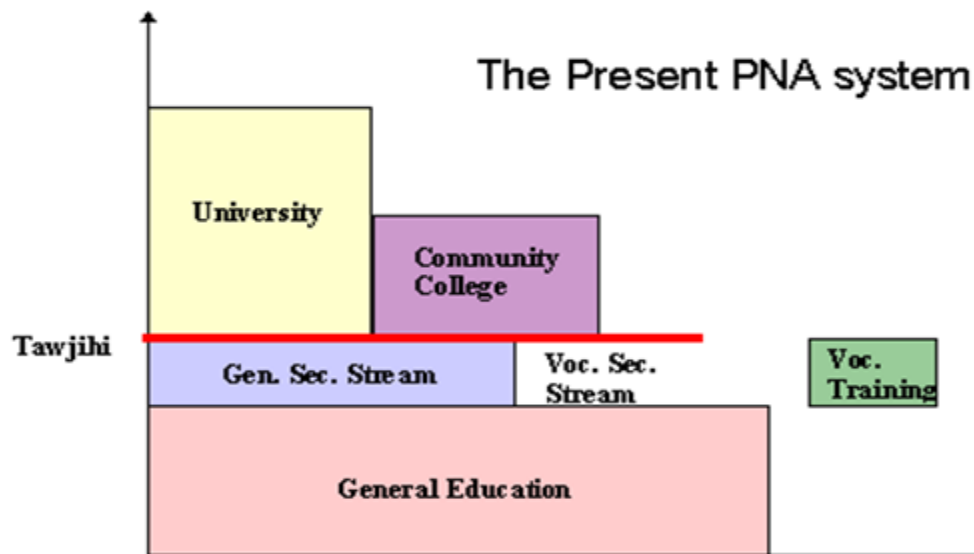


Figure 1.1. The present Palestinian National Authority educational system.  
 (Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education/Ministry of Labour. 2012).

Higher education includes colleges, university colleges, and open and traditional universities. Tertiary education encounters challenges in relation to financial sustainability, efficiency, relevance and quality of supply, and inequitable distribution of student aid programmes (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 9).

Non-formal education and training plays an vital role in the human resource development system, and is characterised by the diversity of parties that offer such type of education and training, the variation in length of the courses provided, and the conflicting values and degrees of recognition of the certificates awarded (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 9). Non-formal education and training comprises basic vocational training for youth, as well as rehabilitation training for young people, and adult further training and retraining (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 9).

## 1.7 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. Issues discussed above represent the first chapter of this thesis.

## Chapter Two: Human Resource Development: A Literature Review

An overview of HRM is first provided in this chapter, given the fact that HRD is one of the main functions of human resource management (HRM). Issues relating to HRD, including HRD stipulations, reviewing and discussing extant literature relevant to HRD, and HRD definition that fits the Palestinian context is suggested. Key terms associated with HRD, including training, training methods, types of training, education, learning, development, and distinction between learning, training, development and education, distinction between HRD and training and development (organisation development, and career development) are also reviewed and discussed. Issues relating to organisational culture and HRD are also reviewed and discussed. Further topics reviewed and discussed, such as, scope of HRD, HRD system in the Palestinian National Authority, national technical and vocational education and training strategy (NTVETS), goals of education development strategic plan, training needs assessment (TNA), methods of TNA, why undertaking a TNA, conducting TNA, evaluation of training, and evaluation models, Finally, the conceptual model to research the effectiveness of training and development is analysed and discussed.

## Chapter Three: Research Methodology

This chapter provides an overall background of the important issues relating to research methodology and research methods. This chapter identifies positivism (epistemology) and objectivism (ontology) as the two paradigms adopted for the operationalisation in the present thesis. The logic of the present thesis is also identified as deductivist. As regards the research methodology, the present thesis adopts the survey methodology, involving a single organisation investigative study (Al Aqsa University). In terms of research design, issues relating to questionnaire design, piloting, and questionnaire amendment in the light of the pilot study findings are discussed. This thesis adopts quantitative methods and

deductive approach as the research methods employed. Data and information gathered in response to answering questionnaire items by the study population are compiled and analysed and statistically analysed using ANOVA test, F-test, and student's t-test. Finally study values and ethics (validity and reliability, and ethical approach of the study) were discussed. Finally, a summary of the chapter findings is outlined.

#### Chapter Four: Analysis of Findings According to Academic Staff Members

This chapter deals with analysing research findings according to the posts occupied (academics and administrators). This separation according to posts was deemed important in order to identify areas of agreement as well as disagreement between the academics and the administrators. This would help compare and/or contrast the views of both groups of respondents. This chapter consists of four parts. In Part One, respondents' demographic characteristics are analysed and discussed. In Part Two, findings relating to training provided and evaluation of training programmes (training provided by the university, and evaluation of training programmes) are analysed and discussed.

In Part Three, findings relating to management support for training and development and perceived benefits of training (management support for training and development, and perceived benefits of training) are analysed and discussed).

In Part Four, findings relating to perceived importance of, and satisfaction with, pre and post-training activities (perceived importance of and satisfaction with pre-training activities, and perceived importance of and satisfaction with post-training activities) are analysed and discussed.

#### Chapter Five: Analysis of Findings According to Administrative Staff Members

This chapter deals with analysing research findings according to the posts occupied (academics and administrators). This separation according to posts was deemed important in order to identify areas of agreement as well as disagreement between the academics and the administrators. This would help compare and/or contrast the views of both groups of respondents. This chapter consists of four parts. In Part One, respondents' demographic characteristics are analysed and discussed. In Part Two, findings relating to training provided and evaluation of training programmes (training provided by the university, and evaluation of training programmes) are analysed and discussed.

In Part Three, findings relating to management support for training and development and perceived benefits of training (management support for training and development, and perceived benefits of training) are analysed and discussed).

In Part Four, findings relating to perceived importance of, and satisfaction with, pre and post-training activities (perceived importance of and satisfaction with pre-training activities, and perceived importance of and satisfaction with post-training activities) are analysed and discussed.

#### Chapter Six: General Discussion of the Thesis Findings

In this chapter, research objectives are reviewed and how they were achieved is outlined. The findings of the literature reviews in Chapter Two are discussed. Research methodology findings (Chapter Three) are also discussed. Gaps are identified in our knowledge concerning training and development in the Arab countries, given the few published research in the Arab countries relating to training and development. This review reveals that this area of research has lagged behind the Western and other European

countries, and Asia, and that the majority of the published research was concerned with management training and development rather than training and development of employees.

In this chapter research findings are also discussed. Issues relating to demographic characteristics of the respondents; training provided by the Al-Aqsa university, evaluation of training programmes, management support for training and development, perceived benefits of training, and perceived importance of and satisfaction with pre-training activities are discussed in the light of the literature reviewed in Chapter Two.

#### Chapter Seven: Conclusions, Recommendation and Contribution to Knowledge

In this chapter issues relating to the current state of the literature are discussed. It is concluded that almost all of the literature reviewed in this thesis has been written from a western point of view, and if there is any literature in any other context, it is heavily drawn on the western context. The main research conclusions are also identified in this chapter.

Finally, contribution of the present research to knowledge is discussed. The key contribution of the thesis is the development of a Conceptual Model to Study the Effectiveness of Training and Development in a Palestinian context, which can also be perceived in an Arab context.

Another important contribution is that the thesis attempts to investigate the identification of training and development needs of both academic and administrative staff of the Al-Aqsa University within a Palestinian context; being the first of its kind to be undertaken in a Palestinian University, taking advantage of the international, mainly western, developments in employee training needs identification and development.



## **Chapter Two**

### **Human Resource Development: A Literature Review**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter highlights HRD as the theoretical foundation of this thesis and also indicates that HRD is a part of the HRM functions. It also documents HRD stipulations. In Section 2.3, extant literature relevant to HRD is reviewed and documented, and HRD is defined and a definition of HRD that fits the Palestinian context is suggested. Key terms associated with HRD, including training, training methods, types of training, education, learning, development, and distinction between learning, training, development and education, distinction between HRD and training and development (organisation development, and career development) are also reviewed and discussed. Issues relating to organisational culture and HRD are also reviewed and discussed. Further topics reviewed and discussed, such as, scope of HRD, HRD system in the Palestinian National Authority (HRD strategies, levels of designing, planning, monitoring and evaluation of HRD strategies and policies), national technical and vocational education and training strategy (NTVETS), goals of education development strategic plan, training needs assessment (TNA), methods of TNA, why undertaking a TNA, conducting TNA, evaluation of training, and evaluation models, Finally, the conceptual model to research the effectiveness of training and development is analysed and discussed.

HRD is the key topic of this thesis. Accordingly, the theoretical foundation for this thesis is HRD. HRD is argued to be concerned with enhancing organisational performance as a result of the effective development and utilisation of organisational human resources (El-Sawad, 2002). It is also concerned with recruiting and retaining high quality employees

who are best suitable to meet organisation's objectives, defining and measuring levels of performance and presenting constant prospects for training and development (Thomson and Mabey, 2011).

Thomson and Mabey (2011, p. 7) indicate that HRD as a part of HRM stipulates the following:

- *“recruiting and inducting high quality people and developing them effectively;*
- *identifying and improving the skills and motivation of existing and longer serving employees;*
- *regularly analysing job content in relation to organizational objectives and individual skills;*
- *reviewing the use of technology and its use in replacing routine tasks;*
- *performance management and measurement through the identification of key tasks;*
- *focusing on people's skills and general intelligence rather than on educational attainment;*
- *identifying training needs;*
- *providing training to improve current performance and to enhance individual careers;*
- *providing opportunities for individual self-development and personal growth;*
- *helping employees to manage their own careers;*
- *encouraging employees to accept change as an organizational 'norm' and an opportunity.”*

Though it is a rather recent field of management practice and inquiry, HRD is a term that has been in recent use for the past twenty years (Joy-Matthews et al., 2004). In this chapter various issues relating to strategic human resource development at the national, international, social and individual levels in general will reviewed and discussed in general, and relate human resource development to education, higher education in general, and training and development in particular. Issues relating to organisational culture and HRD and how each has an impact on the other are also provided. Issues relating to training needs assessment, training evaluation and evaluation models are also presented in

this chapter. Issues relating to HRD, training and development in Palestine and in Gaza in particular are also reviewed in this chapter.

Prior to reviewing and discussing the above mentioned topics relating to HRD, an overview of HRM is provided. The literature (for example, Buhler, 2002; Sims, 2006, 2007, 2010; Werner and DeSimone, 2011; Jackson et al., 2012; Thomson and Mabey, 2011; Werner et al., 2012) argues that human resource development (HRD) is one of the primary functions of human resource management (HRM). HRD is argued to be at the centre of human resource management, and that some activities of HRM concern development oriented activities, including training and development, education, counselling, etc, whereas other HRM activities are concerned with welfare and administration (Geet and Deshpande, 2008).

## **2.2 Human Resource Management (HRM): An Overview**

Human resource management (HRM) has become the overriding approach to people management almost all over the world (Price, 2011), and has been around for around four decades. As regards its definition, there is no universally accepted definition of HRM, and the literature cites different definitions of HRM by different authors, and from different perspectives. Some of HRM definitions are listed in Appendix I.

The two most commonly acknowledged theoretical models of human resource management are the ‘**hard**’ and ‘**soft**’ approaches. These two forms have been classified by Storey (1989) which are exemplified by the Michigan (Fomburn et al., 1984) and Harvard (Beer et al., 1985) models, respectively. ‘Soft’ and ‘hard’ models are perceived as being different and conflicting, eventually, able to indicate completely conflicting sets of assumptions (Storey, 1992). ‘Hard’ human resource management approach concentrate on the “*resource side of human resources,*” and lays emphasis on costs in the form of

“‘headcounts’ and places control firmly in the hands of management” (Price, 2011, p. 29).

Price also argues that the role of management is to manage numbers efficiently, keeping the employees closely matched with requirements in terms of both bodies and behaviour. In other words, the researcher believes that employees are statistics to the management, who are under control by their supervisors and are managed rather than led.

In contrast, ‘soft’ human resource management approach highlights the ‘human aspects of human resource management, and is concerned with communication and motivation; hence, employees are led rather than managed, being involved in deciding and achieving strategic objectives (Price, 2011). Price (2011, p. 30) argues that softer models of human resource management characteristically indicate the human resource managers must become:

- *“Enablers: structuring organizations to allow employees to achieve objectives.*
- *Empowerers: devolving decision making to the lowest level.*
- *Facilitators: encouraging and assisting employees.”*

From this perception, managers are no longer supervisors, as is the case in the ‘hard’ HRM models, and organisations move away from rigid hierarchical structures and power distinctions to people assuming responsibility for their own work (Price, 2011).

Nonetheless, though HRM models have been described as either ‘hard’ or ‘soft’ models, it has been noted by Truss (1999) that although the approach of HRM is soft, the reality is to a large extent hard, in which the organisation’s interest prevail over those of the individual. Gratton et al. (1999), cited by Armstrong (2000, 2010) observed that there was a combination of hard and soft approaches in the eight organisations they investigated. This, according to Armstrong (2000, p. 12; 2010, p. 8), suggested to the Gratton et al. (1999, p.

57) that “*the distinction between hard and soft HRM was not as precise as some commentators have implied.*”

Examples of ‘soft’ HRM models include the Harvard Model (Beer et al., 1984) (American model) and the Warwick Model of HRM (British model). Examples of the ‘hard’ HRM models include the Michigan Model (Fombrun et al., 1984) (American model), the Guest Model (Guest, 1989, 1997), and the Storey Model of HRM (the latter two models are British models). Details of these models are provided in Appendix I.

Based on the analysis above it can be argued that HRM practices in Al-Aqsa University, if any, are geared towards a harder approach. This is due to the stark centralised control of all aspects of life in Gaza by the ruling Hamas leaders, and the implementation of stringent political and religious practices. In addition, the siege of Gaza offers the political establishment in Gaza the best opportunities to centrally control all activities in Gaza; political social, economic, educational, etc.

Further issues relating to HRM, for example, roles of HRM and Strategic HRM are provided in Appendix I.

### **2.3 Human Resource Development (HRD)**

HRD is said to be an emergent discipline and of mounting importance (Elliott and Turnbull, 2005), which is demonstrated by the concepts of learning organisation and the knowledge organisation that show the key requirement of developing all people within organisations (Wilson, 2005a). Furthermore, with the expansion in information and global communications, competitive advantage established on technology might only be sustained for short periods of time prior to rivals catching up (Wilson, 2005a). The key focus of HRD is on learning and learning is at the core of all HRD efforts, according to Werner and

DeSimone (2012, p. 4), who argue that a key focus at present is on workplace learning and performance. Workplace learning is “*the process used by individuals when engaged in training programs, education and development courses, or some type of experiential learning activity for the purpose of acquiring the competence necessary to meet current and future work requirements*” (Jacobs and Park, 2009, p. 134).

The term HRD, like other related terms, such as HRM, has been defined from different perspectives by different authors. McGuire (2011a, p. 2) argues that irrespective of the many attempts to define the field of HRD, agreement concerning a specific definition for what HRD is and includes is lacking, also indicating that attempts to define HRD have preoccupied HRD academics for a number of years and have resulted in much debate in the literature (McGuire and Cseh, 2006; McLean and McLean, 2001; Rouna, 2000; Weinberger, 1998). Abdullah (2009) argues that many attempts have been done by academics, researchers and professionals to define HRD, which have produced confusion in the literature, demonstrating the elusive nature of this concept; hence, a universal and distinct conceptual or theoretical definition of HRD has not yet been established.

The earliest definition of HRD is that presented by Harbison and Myers (1964, p. 2), who defined HRD as:

*“...the process of increasing the knowledge, the skills and the capacities of all the people in a society. In economic terms, it could be described as the accumulation of human capital and its effective investment in the development of an economy. In political terms, HRD prepares people for adult participation in the political process, particularly as citizens in a democracy. From the social and cultural points of view, the development of human resources helps people lead fuller and richer lives, less bound to tradition. In short, the processes of HRD unlock the door to modernization”.*

This definition, nonetheless, is very broad in prospect, given that it defines HRD relative to culture, economy and social as well as political contexts rather than individuals and

organisations (Abdullah, 2009, p. 487). Some parts of Harbison and Myers' definition might be relevant to the Palestinian context, while others are not. For example, HRD in the Palestinian context is the process of enhancing knowledge and skills as well as the competences and capabilities of all Palestinian people. As regards the economic perspective, HRD represents accumulating human capital and its useful investment in developing economy. However, this perspective may partially be relevant to the Palestinian context, given the sanctions imposed by the Israeli authorities, especially, against Gaza, which hinder useful investment in human capital in developing economy. In political terms, Harbison and Myers' definition does not fit into the Palestinian context, especially in Gaza, given the severe political situation and the absence of democracy, and affiliation to one certain group. As regards social and cultural perspectives, the situation in Gaza would not lead to developing human resources and to having good life; rather, they are bound more to traditions. To sum up, the processes of HRD in a Palestinian context do not unlock the door to modernisation.

Since 1970, a number of HRD definitions were offered in the literature by different authors. However, despite the many attempts to define the HRD, McGuire (2011) argues that there is no agreement about a specific definition of what HRD is and what it includes. One of the definitions of HRD is that of McLean and McLean (2001, p. 322), who define HRD as follows:

*“Human resource development is any process or development that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adults' work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of an organisation, community, nation or, ultimately, the whole of humanity.”*

McLean et al. (2008) argue that the definition above has opened a wider perspective for HRD, including community, nation, and region, and that HRD is recognised to have

impacted and can continue to impact society by focusing on some of the key concerns that influence individuals and communities. Some of the definitions reported in the literature, for example, are illustrated in Appendix II.

However, definitions above and those cited in Appendix II have all been presented to fit Western content and contexts, and adopting them as such to fit in the Palestinian context is to misrepresent HRD in the Palestinian context, given the differences in culture, norms, traditions and other factors that are different from those of the Palestinian society. Accordingly, to offer an HRD definition which fits the Palestinian context, the following definition at this stage of the thesis is suggested:

*“Human resource development (HRD) is the practice of the development of employees by means of giving access to education, learning, training and development to increase their knowledge and skills and change their attitude and behaviour, in order that these employees are assisted to release their capabilities for their benefit, for the benefit of their organisation and for the benefit of society at large.”*

It can be argued that four key constituents are associated with the concept of HRD in the suggested definition of HRD; that is, education, learning, training, and development. This is in agreement with the literature (El-Sawad, 2002; Reid et al., 2004; Armstrong, 2006) in relation to the four essential components associated with the concept of HRD, namely, training, education, development, and learning. The components of human resource development are summed up by Armstrong (2006, p. 534) as illustrated in Figure 2.1.



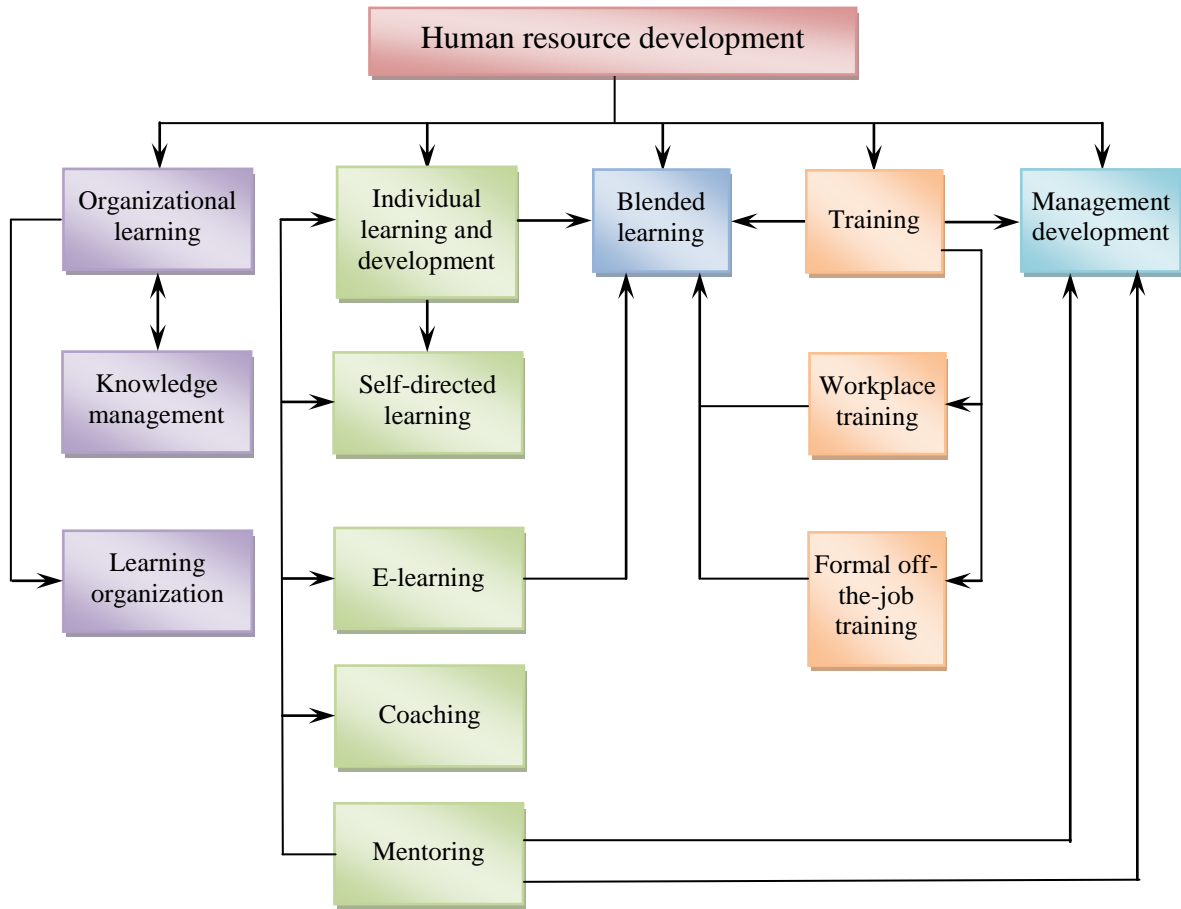


Figure 2.1. Components of human resource development.  
 (Source: Armstrong, 2006, p. 435).

It can be seen that HRD is an umbrella term which consists of various aspects of training and development, including, individual learning and development, training and types of training (workplace training and formal off-the-job training), coaching, mentoring, etc. These aspects are addressed later in this chapter. McLean and McLean (2001, p. 322) argue that, when focused more generally, HRD aims to develop employees' *“knowledge, expertise, productivity, and satisfaction, whether for personal of group/team, or for the benefit of an organization, community, nation, or, ultimately, the whole of humanity.”*

## 2.4 Training

Training is critical for employees to achieve the essential knowledge, skills and attitudes to perform their tasks more proficiently; in view of the fact that training is the process of supporting employees to obtain additional knowledge of their work as well as to learn or develop the necessary skills, attitudes and values that are related to the skilled carrying out of their tasks and duties (Tulsian and Pandey, 2009). The literature (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2001) indicates that in acquiring further knowledge and skills, attitudes are modified and result in better capability and general task performance. Training is argued to be a short-term preset established purpose process as well as being the processes through which instruction and direct learning required for job performance is provided and its efficacy evaluated; and being concerned with offering and developing certain skills for a specific purpose (DeB, 2006).

Training has been defined in different ways by different authors, though the majority of these definitions have a common theme, that is, modification of behaviour or attitude. For example, the Manpower Services Commission (1981, p. 62) defines training as:

*“a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organisation.”*

Armstrong (2006, p. 535) offers a similar definition: *“the planned and systematic modification of behaviour through learning events, programmes and instruction, which enable individuals to achieve the levels of knowledge, skill and competence needed to carry out their work effectively.”* Buckley and Caple (2009, p. 9) also offer a definition in the same vein of the two previous ones: Noe (2002, p. 4) also defines training in a similar way, referring to training as:

*“a planned effort by a company to facilitate employees’ learning of job-related competencies. These competencies include knowledge, skills, or behaviors that are critical for successful job performance.”*

For the purposes of the present thesis, the researcher suggests, at this stage of the thesis, a definition of training in a Palestinian context, based on Armstrong’ (2006) and Buckley and Caple’s (2009) definitions:

*“Training is a planned and structured endeavour to change employees’ knowledge, skills, and attitude as a result of learning practices in order to accomplish employees’ efficient performance in an activity or activities. The purpose of training, in terms of the work environment, is to help employees to attain competence with the intention that employees are capable of performing efficiently a given task or job, and to accomplish the levels of knowledge, skill and competence required by academic and administrative staff members to undertake their work effectively, taking into consideration Palestinian society’s culture in general, and of the organisation or agency where employees work.”*

Three terms are reported in the definitions of training; namely, knowledge, skills, and attitudes (KSA). Knowledge refers *“to specific facts, procedures, and skills that can be processed by an individual and or an organization (and that are typically acquired through the change process called learning”* (Allen, 2002, p. 10). Noe (2002, p. 457) offers two definitions, as follows: *“Facts or procedures. What individuals or teams of employees know or know how to do (human and social knowledge); also a company’s rules, processes, tools, and routing (structured knowledge).”* Noe’s definitions differentiate between human and social knowledge and structured knowledge. Walter (2002, p. 2) defines knowledge as: *“Factual information, concepts, procedures, rules, or principles that may be identified, defined, located, recalled, and applied to perform a required action.”* Swart et al. (2005, p. 239) refer to knowledge as *“the internalization, understanding and application of new information and concepts.”* Blackler (1995, p. 1032) argues that *“Knowledge is multifaceted and complex, being both situated and abstract, implicit and explicit, distributed and individuals, physical and mental, developing*

*and static, verbal and encoded.*” Accordingly, it can be argued that knowledge belongs to the cognitive sphere, given that it relies upon cognition; namely, considering or recognising facts and ideas which are pertinent to the main idea (Murray et al., 2011, p. 70). Blackler (1995) has identified five categories of knowledge: embedded knowledge (knowledge residing in systemic routines and exists as explicit practices and usually embedded in technology, and represented by knowledge-routinised organisations); embodied knowledge (knowledge deep-rooted in particular context and acquired by performance and represented by expert-dependent organisations); encultured knowledge, knowledge attained via a process of socialisation (‘shared understandings’) and represented by communication-intensive organisations; embrained knowledge (knowledge dependent on the conceptual understanding and cognitive skills of key members (i.e., conceptual knowledge or ‘know-how’), and usually associated with scientific knowledge, and represented by symbolic-analyst-dependent organisations; and, encoded knowledge (knowledge recorded by means of signs and symbols, including books, manual and code of practice, as well as incorporating electronic forms of knowledge in modern IT age.

The term ‘skill’ has been defined in many ways by different authors. Walter (2002, p. 2) defines skills as: *“Ability to perform a job-related action acquired through guided practice; a present observable competence that is a combination of relevant knowledge and physical or perceptual abilities.”* Botha and Coetzee (2007, p. 49) define skills as *“those aspects of behaviour that need to be performed to an acceptable level to ensure effective job performance.”* Swart et al. (2005, p. 239) refer to skills as *“the incorporation through practice of new ways of responding (i.e. mental, physical and social).”* Skills are either implicit or tacit. Skills are most often associated with the psychomotor domain, in view of the fact that learning a skill often needs manual abilities, though in terms of

teaching skills the cognitive and communication domains are also required (Murray et al., 2011, p. 70). Almost three-fifths of the participants in this thesis (58.3%) are academics (Chapter Five, Part One: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics); hence, cognitive and communication domains are essential to help them teach their students.

**Attitude** is defined by Walter (2002, p. 2) as a “*way of thinking or feeling; a mental disposition toward something that determined a person's response.*” Attitude is also defined as “*the adoption of new values, feelings and psychological orientation*” (Swart et al., 2005, p. 239). Attitudes are argued to be in the affective domain, as they entail feelings and emotions (Murray et al., 2011, p. 70).

Swart et al. (2005) maintain that while knowledge and skills are important, they conceivably are less important than trainees' attitudes. These authors recommend that trainees' superiors have to prepare trainees to contribute in a positive way to training so as to benefit the most from training, which can be attained rather easily via a pre-training event meeting during which the trainee and his/her immediate superior discuss different issues, such as trainee's expectations, how any newly acquired or improved knowledge or skill can be implemented, and how the training will be evaluated.

## **2.5 Training Methods**

Training can be delivered using three common categories or formats; on-the-job training, on-site but not-on-the-job training, and typically off-the-job training (Jackson et al., 2012). Landy and Conte (2010, p. 331), on the other hand, argue that training methods are in general classified into “*on-site and off-site programs, and each of these categories can be divided into several types.*”

On-site training, also referred to as on-the-job training (OJT), takes place at the workplace in which job is undertaken, whereas off-site training can take place on the organisation's grounds, though trainees do not experience training at their workplace (Healey and Marchese, 2012, p. 328)

On-the-job training (OJT) is carried out at the workplace with the resources employees utilise to undertake their job, in which a manager, or an employee selected by the manager, usually carry out training (Lussier, 2012). Landy and Conte (2010, p. 331) refer to OJT as "*assigning trainees to jobs and encourage them to observe and learn from more experienced employees*". OJT has several advantages, including the following (Sims 2006, p. 118):

- "*... providing hands-on experience under normal working conditions and an opportunity for the trainer - a manager or senior employee - to build good relationship with new employees ....*"
- "*... transfer of training is high, that is, because trainees learn job skills in the environment in which they will actually work, they readily apply these skills on the job.*"
- "*On-the-job training can save money, since it requires no special training equipment and makes a new hire at least partly productive right away*" (Sims, 2002, p. 182).
- "*Properly used OJT can be one of the most effective forms of training. That is why it continues to be one of the most widely used training methods in many organizations*" (Sims, 2002, p. 182).

Nonetheless, despite the fact that all types of organisations use this method of training, OJT is one of the most poorly implemented training methods. Three common drawbacks have been identified by Sims (2006, p. 118) and Snell and Bohlander, 2012, p. 306): the lack of a well-structured training environment; poor training skills on the part of managers or lead employees conducting the training; and, the absence of well-defined job performance criteria. In order to overcome such problems, HRD experts (cited by Sims,

2006, p. 118, and also indicated by Snell and Bohlander, 2012, p. 306) suggest the following:

1. *Develop realistic goals and/or measures for each OJT area.* The thesis findings analysed and discussed in Chapter Five and Chapter Six imply that the Al-Aqsa University management has not so far developed such goals and/or measures for training and developing their staff.
2. *Plan a specific training schedule for each trainee, including set periods for evaluation and feedback.* This suggestion is rather impossible in the case of the Al-Aqsa University, given the unavailability of funds for training and subsequent impossibility for preparing training schedule for individual trainees. The possible solution is plan training schedule for groups of staff in certain areas.
3. *Help managers to establish a nonthreatening atmosphere conducive to learning.* From the researcher's experience while working in the Al-Aqsa University, it can be argued that the work atmosphere in general is none threatening.
4. *Conduct periodic evaluations, after training is completed, to prevent regression.* The analysis and discussion of thesis findings (Chapter Five and Chapter Six) indicates that training is evaluated after training is completed. One of the study objective is to 'evaluate Human Resource Development at the Al-Aqsa University', which is achieved by means of analysing the research findings presented in Chapter Five.

There are several on-site training methods, for example, on-the-job training, apprenticeship, job rotation and job instructional training.

Apprenticeship training is reported to be an extension of OJT, and defined as: "A system of training in which a worker entering the skilled trades is given thorough instruction and experience both on and off the job, in the practical and theoretical aspects of the work" (Snell and Bohlander, 2012, p. 307). Apprenticeship training is not provided by the Al-Aqsa University, given that the thesis findings (Chapter Five) reported the provisions of three types of training (Type 1, initial or induction type of training when employees first joined the University, or when moved to a new job; Type 2, training related to employees' job (for example, as a lecturer, or administrator); and Type 3, any continuing types of training, such as using technology or for research development or other types of

professional engagement). However, it is possible that laboratory technicians might have provided with the three types of training, but not as apprenticeship training.

**Job rotation** is another common training method, being one technique which can break the boredom of an otherwise simple routine job (Mathis and Jackson, 2012). It is referred to as a “*temporary switching of job assignments*” (DuBrin, 2012, p. 238) and job rotation formal programmes often takes around one year (Fiester, 2008). DeNisi and Griffin (2013, p. 304) refer to Job rotation as involving “*systematically moving employees from one job to another*” (DeNisi and Griffin, 2013, p. 304), and as “*the process of shifting a person from job to job*” (Mathis and Jackson, 2012, p. 65). Adopting this training method is argued that employees acquire new skills and familiarise themselves concerning how other parts of their organisation operate (DuBrin, 2012). Job rotation has a number of advantages, such as providing experience in many jobs and allowing actual learning (Werner et al., 2012; Jackson et al., 2012), as well as averting employees from falling into a rut and feeling bored (DuBrin, 2012). Furthermore, in addition to learning new skills, it offers employees a prospect to learn further about how their organisation works (DuBrin, 2012). Another advantage of job rotation is that it increases job variety, though it usually does so by sporadically moving employees among jobs that involve different tasks at comparable skill levels (French et al., 2011), and that employees participating in job rotation develop a more extensive array of skills than they would by remaining in a single job (Landy and Conte, 2010). However, despite these advantages, job rotation has its disadvantages. For example, it involves no sense of full responsibility, as well as provides very short stay in a job (Jackson et al., 2012; Werner et al., 2012). In terms of the Al-Aqsa University, it can be argued that job rotation is not provided, given that employees may not move from one job to another with the University, and academic staff members are employed in faculties and



departments according to their qualifications. For example, academic staff members holding engineering post-graduate degrees (M.Sc. or Ph.D.) are employed by engineering departments and so on working for their department throughout their career unless they find a job in similar departments in other universities.

Other training methods and techniques used in on-the-job training include: job instruction training (JIT), and coaching and mentoring. On-the-job instruction occurs while the employee is working at the job site, and is generally provided by supervisors, who instruct employees in the proper way to carry out a task (Pynes, 2008). It is defined as “*a sequence of instructional procedures used by a trainer to train while they work in their assigned jobs*” (Werner and DeSimone, 2012, p. 168). Mathis and Jackson (2012, p. 109) argue that based on a guided type of training, that is, job instruction training, “*on-the-job training is most effective in logical progression o stages used.*” Saks and Haccoun (2010, p. 199) indicate that JIT is a formal, structured, as well as a organised approach to OJT which comprises four phases, including “*preparation, instruction, performance, and follow up.*” JIT, according to Lussier (2012, p. 251), is a widespread training method employed globally, due to its proven record of success. Nonetheless, in the case of the Al-Aqsa University, JIT might be offered to laboratory technicians and other types of technicians, by their superiors or a staff member who is responsible to provide JIT. Undergraduates employed by the University departments or units (such as research assistants or demonstrators) are also provided with JIT by their heads of department or by an academic staff member who provides JIT.

On-the-job training is either structured or unstructured. Unstructured OJT (also referred to as unplanned OJT) takes place when trainees are trained on job knowledge and skills from unplanned explanations or presentations by others, “*through trial and error questioning on*

*their own; or simply initiating the behaviour of others”* (Jacobs, 2003, p. 22). This type of training takes place on the work site, though it is not reasonably sequenced, according to (Rothwell and Kazanas, 2004, p. 155), who indicated that: *“Learners, typically new employees, are expected to learn by watching experienced workers or perform by actually doing the work.”*

Structured on-the-job training (also referred to as planned on-the-job training), on the other hand, is defined as: *“One-on-one training that occurs at or near the actual work setting and is delivered by a designated trainer who follows specific written guidelines; provides observable and measureable performance objectives and is developed and delivered in an orderly and systematic manner”* (Walter, 2002, p. 3). Structured on-the-job programmes are in general performed by an appointed trainer who is distinguished, paid and trained to provide proper instructional techniques (Werner and DeSimone, 2012). Rothwell and Kazanas (2004, p. 154) describe this type of on-the-job training as: *“planned instruction occurring on the job and during the work, centered about what workers need to know or do to perform competently.”*

The two terms ‘coaching’ and ‘mentoring’ are reported to have been often applied interchangeably by large numbers of large numbers of organisations (Ellinger et al., 2011). Nonetheless, Ellinger et al. (2011, p. 72) cited many authors (for example, Burdett, 1998; Minter and Thomas, 2000; Clutterbuck, 2004) indicating that various academics and ‘professional’ mentors and coaches argue that such learning facilitation activities are different.

Coaching entails a strong and influential relationship between a trained consultant and the manager, and involves the design and delivery of a planned activity aimed at improving the skilled performance of the manager (Sloman, 2001).

The literature identifies four categories or variants of coaching practice, that is, ‘coaching’, ‘executive coaching’, ‘business coaching’, and ‘life coaching’, as defined below (Hamlin et al., 2009, p. 18; Ellinger et al., 2011, pp. 73-74):

‘Coaching’ is a *helping and facilitative process* that enables individuals, groups/teams and organizations to acquire new skills, to improve existing skills, competence and performance, and to enhance their personal effectiveness or personal development or personal growth.

‘Executive Coaching’ is a *process* that primarily (but not exclusively) takes place within a *one-to-one helping and facilitative relationship* between a coach and an executive (or a manager) that enables the executive (or a manager) to achieve personal-, job- or organisational-related goals with an intention to improve organizational performance.

‘Business Coaching’ is a *collaborative process* that *helps* businesses, owner/managers and employees achieve their personal and business related goals to ensure long-term success.

‘Life Coaching’ is a *helping and facilitative process*-usually within a *one-to one relationship* between a coach and a coachee-which brings about an enhancement in the quality of life and personal growth of the coachee, and possibly a life changing experience.

As can be seen from these definitions, the coaching process common to all four variants is that of providing *help* to individuals and organisations through some form of *facilitation* activity or intervention. In the case of ‘executive’ and ‘life’ coaching, this is performed primarily (though not exclusively) in a *one-to-one* helping relationship (Hamlin et al., 2009). There is also a high degree of commonality between the variants of coaching regarding their respective purposes. Held in common to all variants is the explicit and implicit intention of helping individuals to improve their performance in various domains, and to enhance their personal effectiveness, personal development, and personal growth. In the case of ‘life coaching’ the personal growth aims may intentionally extend to include life changing experiences (Hamlin et al., 2009). The only significant difference between the four variants is the additional explicitly stated intention within the composite conceptualisation of ‘Coaching’ relating to helping individuals, groups and/or

organisations to acquire new skills, and to improve existing skills/competencies, which is a core purpose of contemporary HRD. As can be seen from the definition above, there are few substantive differences between the four variants of coaching in terms of their respective fundamental purposes and processes. However, as regards the situation relating to the present thesis, that is, HRD practices in the Al-Aqsa University, the first of Hamlin et al.'s (2009) and Ellinger et al. (2011) categories/variants of coaching; that is 'coaching' is a helping and facilitative process that enables individuals, groups/teams and organisations to acquire new skills, to improve existing skills, competence and performance, and to enhance their personal effectiveness or personal development or personal growth" is most suitable for the purposes of this thesis. Coaching in relation to the present case study is neither 'executive coaching', nor 'business coaching', nor 'life coaching'.

Mentoring, on the other hand, is a technique that involves a close relationship between two people. Nonetheless, the difference is that the mentor may not have a training specialism or that advice is limited to training and development (Sloman, 2001). Recent literature (for example, Bearman et al., 2010; Eby et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2010; Scandura and Pellegrini, 2010; Blinn-Pike, 2010; Campbell, 2010) indicates that many definitions of mentoring exist. Eby et al. (2010, p. 376) refer to Jacobi's (1991) work which lists fifteen different definitions. They (p. 376) also refer to Crosby (1999), who argues that one area of common difference among mentoring researchers is the requirement of emotional closeness as a component of defining mentoring. Some of the definitions of mentoring include the following: "*... a one-on-one relationship in which an expert or a senior person voluntarily gives time to teach, support, and encourage another.* (Santamaria (2003, in Inzer and Crawford, 2003, p. 31). Gitman and McDaniels (2009, p. 212) refer to

mentoring as a *“form of on-the-job training in which a senior manager or other experienced employee provides job – and career-related information to a mentee.”* Beattie et al. (2009), based on a number of European and North American definitions of the term mentoring, provided a comprehensive, non-definitive synthesis conceptualisation of ‘mentoring’, indicating that mentoring is *“a learning facilitation process conducted in a trusting and/or caring one to one relationship between two individuals, in which typically a more experienced person, the mentor, helps and supports less experienced person, the mentee or protégé, to (i) develop their skills and career; (ii) make a transition in knowledge, work and thinking; (iii) transition of period of change; (iv) improve performance at the individual, team and organisational level; (v) achieve their professional goals and full potential; and or (vi) meet personal growth and personal development needs.”* In the event that the Al-Aqsa University adopts mentoring of their employees, the University needs to implement the six provisions cited in Beattie et al.’s conceptualisation of mentoring.

Gitman and McDaniels (2009) argue that irrespective of the advantages of on-the-job training, organisations realise that it is required to train their workforce away from their workplace; given that this type of training is at times required to get employees away from their working environment to a location where the disturbance and activity of work are removed, a procedure that helps trainees to study theoretical information or to expose them to new and novel concepts (Beardwell and Holden, 2007). However, the problem arises when these concepts or learning experiences do not seem to be about the work circumstances (Beardwell and Holden, 2007).

Jackson et al. (2012) argue that this type might be suitable when intricate know-how has to be mastered or when workforce has to contemplate on particular interpersonal capabilities which might be noticeable in the usual work setting.

Off-the-job training depends on lateral transfer to the working situation, and can have a number of advantages (Reid et al., 2004), including the following: providing venues that contribute to learning away from the noisy rush of the work place; trainers are properly skilled; planned training methods; a carefully prepared programme at a measure directed by the trainees' needs; establishing safe and low-cost situations where to attempt and perform newly acquired skills and techniques; and using better range of training techniques, and the opportunity to highlight all four stages of the training cycles, mainly observation and conceptualisation.

Nonetheless, off-the-job training also has some disadvantages, for example, learning carried out in a specialised environment may hamper the trainee's capability for handling the actual situation (Reid et al., 2004); it can be perceived by both recipients and fellow employees as a waste of time and money (Beardwell and Holden, 2007).; and the costs are high, and knowledge learned off the job may not transfer to the work place (Jackson et al., 2012).

Off-site training methods include classroom lectures, programme instructions, linear programming, simulators, computer-based training, interactive E-learning (using teleconferencing, video conferencing) (Landy and Conte, 2010; Bohlander and Snell, 2010; Gitman and McDaniel, 2009). Gitman and McDaniel (2009, p. 212) maintain that off-the-job training often *"takes place in a classroom where cases, role-play exercises, films, videos, lectures, and computer demonstrations are used to develop workplace skills."*

**Classroom lectures** are defined by Landy and Conte (2010, p. 333) as follows: *"Training*

*method in which the trainer communicates through spoken words and audiovisual materials what trainees are supposed to learn; also commonly used to efficiently present a large amount of information to a large number of trainees.*” They are frequently supplemented with class discussion, case studies, and audiovisual materials (Landy and Conte, 2010). Gitman and McDaniel (2009) also refer to Web-based technology as to a greater extent being employed together with more conventional off-the-job training methods, adding that E-learning and e-training include online computer demonstration to learn new job tasks.

**Programmed Instruction** is: *“An approach in which trainees are given instructional materials in written or computer-based forms that positively reinforce them as they move through the material at their own pace”* (Landy and Conte, 2010, p. 333). This self-paced approach performs most effectively if it provides immediate feedback and reinforcement concerning correct and incorrect responses (Landy and Conte, 2010). This type of instruction can involve **linear programming**, which is a kind of *“programmed instruction in which all trainees proceed through the same material,”* or **branching programming**, which is also a kind of *“programmed instruction that provides a customized approach enabling each learner to practice material he or she had difficulty with when it was first presented”* (Landy and Conte, 2010, p. 333).

**Simulators** are defined as: *“Teaching tool designed to reproduce the critical characteristics of the real world in a training setting that produces learning and transfer to the job”* (Landy and Conte, 2010; p. 333).

## **2.6 Types of Training**

The literature reports different types of training. The most common types of training include induction training, refresher training (re-training), training for promotion,

apprenticeship training, and internship training. Apprenticeship training had been explained earlier in this chapter (Section 2.5, Training Methods).

Induction training represents the initial training provided to new employees in an organisation, which is important to ensure that the new employee's initial job is flawless (Bose, 2006). Grobler et al. (2006) argue that an effective induction programme decreases new employees' adjustment problems by creating a sense of security, confidence and belonging. Accordingly, several benefits result from an effective induction programme, including the following (Grobler et al., 2006, p. 209):

*“Higher job satisfaction; Lower labour turnover; Greater commitment to values and goals; Higher performance as a result of faster learning times; Fewer costly and time-consuming mistakes; Reduction in absenteeism; Better customer service through heightened productivity; Improved manager/subordinate relationships; and Better understanding of company policies, goals and procedures.”*

However, despite the fact that induction is provided for new employees, it is imperative to notice that induction is a *“never-ending process, introducing both old and new employees to the current state of organisation”* (Grobler et al, 2006, p. 210). Grobler et al. (2006) maintain that new employees, transferred/promoted employees, and all current employees will benefit from induction training.

Employee induction is of two types: *formal induction (planned and officially conducted by the organisation at set times* and *informal induction (unplanned and unofficially conducted by co-workers)* (Grobler et al., 2006, p. 212). Formal induction is one of the examples of off-the-job training methods, and can include training to obtain capability in a specific skills, such as, new computer system and apprenticeship training (Lee-Ross and Pryce, 2010).

There are also three key approaches which can be followed during the induction programme: verbal, written, and audiovisual (Grobler et al., 2006).



Refresher training (Re-training) is meant for current employees in an organisation; the main purpose of which is to make them acquainted with the most recent methods of performing their job and better their competencies further (Kumar, 2011). The importance of retraining has been highlighted in the literature four decades ago by Yoder (1972, p. 371) who argued that *“retraining programmes are designed to avoid personnel obsolescence.”* Current employees’ skills become obsolete given the technological changes and as a consequence of people to forget; hence, retraining is vital as a result of the following factors (Kumar, 2011, p. 152):

- (a) *“The workers require training to bring them up-to-date with the knowledge and skills and to relearn what they have forgotten.*
- (b) *Rapid technological changes make even the qualified workers obsolete in course of time because new technology is associated with the new work-methods and job requirements.*
- (c) *Refresher training becomes necessary because many now jobs are created due to changes in the demand for goods and services are to be handled by the existing employees.”*

As regards training for Promotion, Bose (2006) maintains that promotion training is provided to employees who are promoted to higher positions within the organisation. Promotion of employees within an organisation represents a major change in their responsibility and duties; hence, it is imperative that they are provided with adequate training to learn new skills to help them perform their new tasks effectively (Kumar, 2011). Kumar (p. 152) adds that the purpose of this type of training *“is to develop the existing employees to make them fir for undertaking higher job responsibilities. This serves as a motivating force to the employees.”*

Under internship training, educational or vocational institutes arrange with industrial organisations to provide practical knowledge to its students (Kumar, 2011), for example, engineering students are trained for certain period of time at large industrial organisations

to gain practical work experience. Internship training is not provided by the Al-Aqsa University.

## **2.7 Education**

Historically, education in the Arab and Moslem World was strongly associated with the mosque. A parallel can be seen in the Western countries in which, from an historical point of view, education was closely linked to the Church (Wislon 2005b). The number of people receiving education was rather limited in the Arab and Moslem countries, as it was the case in the Western countries. Much emphasis in the Arab and Moslem World was on teaching Arabic, memorising the Quran, and some elements of basic arithmetic. Craftsmen were trained by their master craftsmen, as their counterparts in the West. The term 'education' has been defined in several ways, for example, the Manpower Services Commission (1981, p. 17) defines it as:

*“activities which aim at developing the knowledge, skills, moral values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than a knowledge and skill relating to only a limited field of activity. The purpose of education is to provide the conditions essential to young people and adults to develop an understanding of the traditions and ideas influencing the society in which they live and to enable them to make a contribution to it. It involves the study of their own culture and the laws of nature, as well as acquisition of linguistic and other skills which are basic to learning, personal development, creativity and communication.”*

Buckley and Caple (2009, p. 10) refer to education as a: *“process and a series of activities which aim at enabling an individual to assimilate and develop knowledge, skills, values and understanding that are not simply related to a narrow field of activity but allow a broad range of problems to be defined, analysed and solved.”* Armstrong (2006, p. 526) defines education as *“the development of the knowledge, values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than the knowledge and skills relating to particular*

*areas of activity.*” Formal education is also one of the off-the-job training methods (Lee-Roos and Pryce, 2010).

## **2.8 Learning**

Learning is described as probably the most critical concept (Reid et al., 2004) and is difficult to define (Wiltsher, 2005). Wiltsher (2005, p. 202) argues that learning “*is part of the process of change and adaptations to different circumstances. It is to do with change.*” Reid et al. (2004) indicate that there is no unanimously accepted theory of learning maintaining that until recently the majority of authors in the field have thought in terms of the acquisition, frequently by means of some form of teaching process, of new knowledge and that this is categorically one adequate form of learning. For example, Wilson (2005b, p. 7), drawing from discussion in the literature, learning as *a relatively permanent change of knowledge, attitude and behaviour occurring as a result of formal education or training, or as a result of informal experiences.*” Buckley and Caple (2009, p. 6) define it at the individual level as: “*The process whereby individuals acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes through experience, reflection, study or instruction.*” Armstrong (2006, p. 38), on the other hand, offers the following definition: “*Learning is the process by which a person acquires and develops new knowledge, skills, capabilities and attitudes.*”

Learning can be formal or informal. Saks and Haccoun (2010, p. 44) argue that one of the traditional approaches to increase the acquisition of new knowledge in an establishment is by means of formal learning, maintaining that formal learning “*involves activities and events that are planned and designed by an organization with explicit goals and activities.*” Training and development is an example of this type of learning as well as being an important element of the knowledge-acquisition process in the majority of organizations (Saks and Haccoun, 2010). Wiltsher (2005, p. 202) refers to formal learning as “*learning*

*that takes place in a structured and intentional way,”* while Armstrong (2006, p. 565) defines formal education as: *“planned and systematic and involves the use of structured training programmes consisting of instruction and practice.”*

Informal learning, on the other hand, *“is not structured, though it may occur in a structured setting”* (Wiltsher, 2005, p. 202), which occurs when learning something new without intending to, and it is the kind of learning which takes place when picking up tips on doing something from observing an expert at work, or discovering a new piece of information via a casual conversation, and much of learning is informal.

Stern and Sommerlad (1999) maintain that informal learning takes place in the workplace, taking three forms: The workshop as a site for learning; the workshop as a learning environment; and learning and working are inextricably mixed.

The characteristics of formal learning are that: it is relevant to certain individuals rather than to others; all learners learn the same items; there may be variable gaps between existing and target knowledge; trainers deciding how learning will take place; variable times and often distant, problems may take place in transferring learning to work place; and often takes place in non-working venues (Armstrong, 2006, p. 565).

The characteristics of informal learning, on the other hand, are that: it is substantially pertinent to individual needs; learners learn in relation to their needs; there may be small gap between existing and target knowledge; learners determine how learning will take place; immediate applicability, that is, just-in-time learning; learning can be easily transferred; and it takes place in work setting (Armstrong, 2006, p. 565)

## **2.9 Development**

There is no consensus among authors concerning the definition of development (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2008). For example, development, as originally defined by the Manpower Services Commission (1981, p. 15), is: *“the growth or realisation of a person’s ability, through conscious or unconscious learning. Development programmes usually include elements of planned study and experience, and are frequently supported by a coaching or counselling facility.”*

This definition was consequently widened from ‘a person’s ability’ to ‘an individual’s or a group’s ability’ (Manpower Services Commission, 1981, p. 9); hence, indicating the growing concept of organisational learning: *“Development occurs when a gain in experience is effectively combined with the conceptual understanding that can illuminate it, giving increased confidence, both to act and to perceive how such action relates to its context.”* (Bolton, 1995, p. 15; quoted in Wilson, 2005b, p. 6).

Harrison (2002, p. 2) defines development as: *“Learning experience of any kind, whereby individuals and groups acquire enhanced knowledge, skills, values or behaviours. Its outcomes unfold through time, rather than immediately, and they tend to be long-lasting.”*

Development, as defined by Buckley and Caple (2009, p. 6) is: *“The general enhancement and growth of an individual’s skills and abilities through conscious and unconscious learning.”* Noe (2002, p. 282) offers another definition: *“Formal education, job experiences, relationships, and assessments of personality and abilities to help employees prepare for the future.”* Accordingly, perceived as future-oriented development involves learning which is not necessarily related to the employee’s present job (Noe, 2002). Noe (2002, p. 283) differentiates between training and development, as illustrated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Comparison between training and development

	<i>Training</i>	<i>Development</i>
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<i>Focus</i>	Current	<i>Future</i>
<i>Use of work experiences</i>	Low	<i>High</i>
<i>Goal</i>	Preparation for current job	<i>Preparation for change</i>
<i>Participation</i>	<b>Required</b>	<i>Voluntary</i>

(Source: Noe, 2002, p. 283).

It can be argued that development of employees prepare them for promotion into higher ranking jobs or for occupying future jobs in the organisation that is not yet existing; hence, development prepare employees for change. However, participation in development programme is voluntary rather than required as if the case in training.

Jackson et al. (2012) identifies a number of training and development formats, including the following: On-the-job training and development formats (e-learning and video teleconferencing, apprenticeships, Internships and assistantships, job rotation, and supervisory assistance and mentoring); Onsite, but not on-the-job training and development formats (corporate universities, programmed instruction on Intranet and the Internet, and interactive videos); and typically offsite training and development formats (formal courses, simulation, assessment centres and board games, sensitivity training, and wilderness trips). They argue that these formats have their advantages and disadvantages, as it is summed up in Appendix III).

## **2.10 Distinguishing between Learning, Training, Development and Education**

Garavan et al. (1995) argue that it is imperative to take into consideration the factors common to learning, training, development and education so as to distinguish between them. They also indicated that all four activities are concerned with learning, and that development seems to be the key process to which training and education contribute. This contribution is also argued to help the individual and the organisation, which leads to the

growth and recognition of the full potential of both individuals and the organisation (Garavan et al., 1995). Garavan et al. (1995, p. 3) conclude that “*all four should be seen as complementary components of the same process, i.e. the development of human potential or talent.*”

There are some differences between training and education, including the following (Pearlstein, 2001, p. 925; Gautam and Batra, 2011, p. 111): While training enhances job performance, education enhances knowledge; training focus on job skills (job experience; job focus), whereas education widens understanding (classroom learning); Training promotes experience (application), education conceptualises experience (classroom learning, theoretical orientation); Training asks about what a trainee can do with what he/she knows; whereas education asks how much a learner knows; while training uses knowledge to build skills (narrow perspective; specific domain), education provides base of knowledge (broad perspective; general domain); and while training necessitates knowledge to be implemented (application) in certain situations (specific tasks; job focus), education of necessitates wide generalisation of knowledge (general concepts).

Training and development, on the other hand, also have their distinguishing characteristics. For example, while the focus of training is on existing job, development focuses on existing and future jobs; the scope of training is on individual employees, the scope of development is on work group or organisation; the time frame of training is immediate, whereas the time frame of development is long term; and while the goal of training is to fix existing skill deficit, development prepares for future work (Gómez-Mejía et al, 2003, p. 260).

Garavan et al. (1995) summed up the important distinguishing features of learning, training, development and education, as presented in Appendix IV.

## **2.11 Distinctions between HRD and Training and Development**

There are a number of issues that differentiate human resource development from training and development (T&D). The literature clearly indicates that training and T&D is one aspect of HRD, the two other aspects are organisational development (OD) and career development (McLagan and Suhadolnik, 1981; Swanson and Holton, 2009; Werner and DeSimone, 2012). This clearly shows HRD as an umbrella that consists of more than one aspect; in other words, HRD is a more strategic and proactive approach in relation to the training function, which, according to Wilson (2005b), is perceived as comprising reactive, step by step interventions in response to particular problems. Harrison (2002) distinguished HRD from T&D, indicating that HRD is deemed to be more positive than training, given that it promotes involving many stakeholders rather than merely the training providers. HRD also entails that individuals have to be future-oriented; in other words, to foresee knowledge and skills required in the future not simply reacting after the problems take place (Joy-Matthews et al., 2004).

Training and development concentrates on changing or improving individuals' knowledge, skills and attitudes, and while training characteristically entails providing employees with the knowledge and skills to perform a specific activity or job, and possibly attitude might be attempted, developmental activities have a longer-term focus on preparing for future job tasks and in the same time increasing employees' competences to do their existing jobs (Werner and DeSimone, 2012).

## **2.12 Organisational Development**

Organisational development (OD), the second aspect of HRD, is both a professional field of social action and an area of scientific inquiry, and its practice covers a wide range of activities, with apparently continuous variations (Cummings and Worley, 2009). The



literature (for example, McLean, 2006; Cummings and Worley, 2009) indicates the absence of a standard definition of organisation development (OD) and many definitions of OD have been suggested in OD literature. Burke and Bradford (2005, p. 12) define OD as follows:

*“Based on (1) a set of values, largely humanistic; (2) application of the behavioural sciences; and (3) open systems theory, organization development is a systemwide process of planned change aimed toward improving overall organization effectiveness by way of enhanced congruence of such key organizational dimensions as external environment, mission, strategy, leadership, culture structure, information and reward systems, and work policies and procedures.”*

Based on and incorporating most of the views by other authors, Cummings and Worley (2009, pp. 1-2) offer the following definition of OD: *“Organization development as a system wide application and transfer of behavioural science knowledge to the planned development, improvement, and reinforcement of the strategies, structures, and processes that lead to organization effectiveness.”*

A most recent definition of OD is that offered by Anderson (2012, p. 3), as follows:

*“Organization development is the process of increasing organizational effectiveness and facilitating personal and organizational change through the use of interventions driven by social and behavioural science knowledge.”*

The definitions of OD, cited above, incorporate several topics concerning what amounts to OD. Such topics, according to Anderson (2012) indicate that an outcome of OD activities is organisational effectiveness and that they also each emphasise the applicability of knowledge acquired by means of the social and behavioural sciences, for example, sociology, business and management, psychology, etc., to organisational settings.

Worley and Feyerherm (2003) argue that for a process to be referred to as organisation development, it needs to focus on or lead to changing certain aspects of the organisation

system, there must be a learning or the transfer of knowledge or skill to the user system, and there should be evidence of improvement in or an intent of improving the effectiveness of the user system.

### **2.13 Career Development**

Career development, the third aspect of HRD, defined by Simonsen (1997, p. 6) as: “*an ongoing process of planning and directed action toward personal work and life goals. Career development is the outcome of the individual’s career planning and organisation’s provision of support and opportunities.*” Werner and DiSimone (2012, p. 12) provided a somewhat similar definition of career development: “*an ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each is which is characterized by a relatively unique set of issues, themes, and tasks*”, and comprises two distinctive processes: career planning and career management (Werner and DiSimone, 2012). Sims (2006) maintains that realising and finding means to influence careers of employees in a firm is an essential part of HRD, arguing that career development provides a future trend to HRD activities.

Contemporary successful organisations need to help employees to develop career plans, and such plans should be directly tied to the organisation; consequently, employees are less likely to leave their jobs (Sims and Sims, 2007). Assuming an interest in employees’ career can raise morale, increase productivity and support the firm to be more competent, and showing an interest in an employee’s career also has a positive impact of that employee and under such circumstances, employees reckon that the organisation considers them as part of an inclusive plan rather than just statistics (Sims and Sims, 2007). Sims and Sims (2007, p. 380) cite Winterscheid (1980) who indicates that, from the organisation’s perspective, career development has three key objectives:

- *To meet the immediate and future human resource needs of the organization on a timely basis.*
- *To better inform the organization and the individual about potential career paths within the organisation.*
- *To utilise existing human resource programs to the fullest by integrating the activities that select, assign, develop, and manage individual careers with the organization's plans.*

Career development is important for both the organisation and the employees. Despite the fact that the organisation's high priority concern of training and development, which is a short time aim of efficiency, human resource planning is undertaken to confirm that employees remain at work. Professional development is perceived as an encouragement to the employees (Jan, 2010). Career development of employees signifies raising their commitment level to the organisational development, and concurrently develops their awareness of the organisation vision. Embracing career development strategy improves organisational support and its authority, and while this strategy adds value to employees' expertise, it also augments the organisational survival value.

As regards its importance of individuals, career development is principally individuals' responsibility, since mainly the benefits of the process clearly appeared to serve the purpose of the individuals given that it in due course leads to career success (Jan, 2010).

Jan (2010, p. 105) defines career success as follows:

*“Career success from individual point of view include some physically intrinsic and extrinsic sign such as, advancement on the hierarchal career ladder, financial stability, value satisfaction and reaching the roughly estimated climax in professionalism.*

The realisation of individual goals pertaining to some or all of these characteristics of career success depends on the individual's career development strategy, given that the course “the individual follows in the process of career development determines his success ratio in work related and personal achievements” (Jan, 2010, p. 106). Simonsen (1997)

emphasises that if the employee's value come up against the organisational value, that employee remaining with that organisation is not a healthy relationship for both the organisation and the employee.

## **2.14 Organisational Culture and HRD**

The organisation can have an effect on employees' behaviour by means of reward structure, culture, and job design (Werner and DiSimone, 2012). In this section, the focus is on organisational culture. Reward structure and job design are outside the scope of the present research.

Organisational culture comprises the organisation's value system or philosophy, and the environment within the organisation is an important factor in the success of human resource development (Sims, 2006). Organisational culture can help identify where HRD programmes are required as well as it provide measures by which to evaluate the success of the measures which are implemented (Sims, 2006).

Werner and DiSimone (2012) argue that people who understand the culture of an organisation are better capable of properly interpreting organisational events, recognise what are expected of them, and behave in accurate ways in new or different situations. They also indicate that organisations having a strong culture attempt to perpetuate such culture by means of selecting employees who share the culture and also by socialising new recruits in order that they accept these norms and values. In terms of implications of organisational culture for HRD, Werner and DiSimone (2012) maintain that HRD can be an instrument through which a culture is perpetuated or changed, and HRD can also be influenced by the organisation's culture.

Mathis and Jackson (2012, pp. 7-8) assert that the capability of an establishment to utilise its human capital as a main competence depends partly on the organisational culture which the company is operating. They also argue that the culture of an establishment is perceived in the norms of expected behaviours, values, philosophies, rituals, and symbols used by its workforce, and that such culture evolves over a period of time. A culture is said to be stabilised in an establishment if the people in this establishment have shared experience for years; in contrast, to a somewhat new firm which have less than two years which may not have developed a stabilised culture. On this basis, it can be argued that the Al-Aqsa University has a stabilised organisational culture, given that it has existed since 2000 as a university with six colleges. Prior to 2000, it started in 1955 as an institute which awarded diploma degree for students, and developed in 1991 and became known as College of Education which granted bachelor degree in education (see Appendix I: The Al-Aqsa University: An Overview).

Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 66) identify four types of organisational cultures: The clan culture, the adhocracy culture, the hierarchy culture, and market culture. Details of these four cultures are provided in Appendix VI. Examining the content of Appendix VI indicates that the Al-Aqsa University culture can be perceived as a hierarchical organisational culture. Some of the features of the hierarchy culture apply to the Al-Aqsa University, especially the following features (Cameron and Quinn, 2006): A very formalised and structured place to work; procedures govern what people do; formal rules and policies hold the organization together; and the management of employees is concerned with secure employment and predictability. Furthermore, the University is a centralised system, and decisions are made by the top management, and lower management tiers and employees (academic staff and administrators) are implementers of these

decision. The Al-Aqsa University organisational structure represents a tall organisation with multilayer management hierarchy and consists of: the Trustees, The University Council, the Faculty Councils, as well as various administrative departments, finance department, and other departments such as libraries, deanery of higher studies and scientific research, and University Registration Department. At the lowest levels are administrative employees, technicians and academic staff members.

## **2.15 Scope of HRD**

Walton (1999) argues that not only the extent of HRD expanded from its initial focus on training and development within a business context; its scope has also been extended, and that the concept can be further recognised at societal, national and transnational levels.

### **3.15.1 HRD at Societal Level**

HRD deals with the process in which the people of a nation attained the knowledge and skills required to undertake both particular tasks as well as other social, cultural, intellectual and political roles in society (Horwitz et al., 1995, quoted in Walton, 1999, p. 74). Walton (1999, pp. 74-75), argues that, from an organisational perspective, as Horwitz et al. (1995) assert, this necessitates an integrated approach that takes into account HRD as:

- *“overcoming labour market segregation through addressing past inequalities based on race, gender and class;*
- *linked to human resource objectives which are, in turn, a function of an organisational strategy;*
- *an investment, not a cost.”*

However, Horwitz et al. (1995) were addressing this issue from a South African context, which accounted of certain emphasis on overcoming labour market segregation. This is not the case in the study area of the present thesis (Palestinian National Authority), given that most of the employees and staff members are recruited, to some extent, on their merits,

given the political environment of the Gaza Strip and the Israeli sanctions against Gaza Strip area, and how they may fit into the job advertised; there is no segregation based on colour, race, creed, or class. The other two accounts mentioned above apply to the organisation investigated (Al-Aqsa University) in the present thesis. Horwitz et al. (1995) also contend that there is a national need for human resource development strategy that distinguishes skilled, managerial and professional needs for career entry; this issue also applies to the organisation investigated in the present study.

### **3.15.2 National-Level HRD**

Walton (1999) indicates that national-level HRD is expressed as National Vocational Education (NVET). While NVET is important for a newly emerging small country like the Palestinian National Authority Area, to provide skilled and knowledgeable workforce required by the newly established institutions, it can be argued that such workforce plays a minor role in university daily life; what is needed is highly qualified teaching staff members and administrative staff members with university degree and above. People with Diplomas and NVQS might work as ancillary staff in laboratories and workshops, and their numbers tend to be rather small. However, having said this, all staff members, with higher university degrees or diplomas and NVQS, need training and encouragement to embark on lifetime learning to help them use their skills and knowledge efficiently and effectively.

### **3.15.3 Transnational HRD**

McGuire (2011b, p. 192) argues that managing and coordinating human resource activities across transnational organisation is distinctly complex and requires balancing a series of competing priorities in the geographic, business and functional context. Transnational companies are said to need geographic managers accountable for local responsiveness; business managers responsible for global efficiency and integration and functional

managers accountable for knowledge transfer and learning (Kidger, 2002). Neither transnational organisation, nor geographic, business and functional managers exist in a Palestinian context in general and in Gaza, in particular. Accordingly, this scope of HRD cannot be seen in the Gaza context, given the state of conflict and isolation of the area.

## **2.16 Human Resource Development Strategies**

Human resource development system and strategies are affected by a variety of factors, including the following (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 9):

1. *a highly unstable and unpredictable political environment, which greatly affects access to work and services, as well as the whole education system;*
2. *economic gloom, with Palestinians not in control of the factors causing it. The private sector, which drives economic growth, has been hit hard but is still resilient. Its participation in HRD is, however, quite limited. The economy is not able to generate new work opportunities for the fast-growing number of annual entrants to the labour force under the prevailing circumstances. The public and non-formal sectors have grown to saturation over the past few years. All this puts a heavy burden on the HRD system;*
3. *unemployment, poverty, decline in all health and education indicators, and the prioritisation of humanitarian and emergency programming rather than long-term development programming, where HRD would play a pivotal role.*

Despite the fact that TVET is a most important pillar in the Palestinian development priorities, this is not in reality effectively reflected either in budgets or in terms of willingness to take the essential steps to implement the TVET national strategy, which, according to Hashweh (2006), is not acceptable, especially in view of the fact that the future of the Palestinian economic development needs to move from an economy that is founded on exporting labour to Israel to an economy that exports goods and services to Israel and the rest of the world. To achieve this, a high-quality workforce is needed which is capable of competing which can only be developed and maintained through a well-developed TVET system (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 10).



## **2.17 Levels of Designing, Planning, Monitoring and Evaluating HRD Strategies and Policies**

Designing, planning, monitoring and evaluating HRD strategies and policies in the Palestine are accomplished at three levels: national macro-level, intermediate level, and institutional level.

At the **national macro-level**, the key organisations conducting these activities include the following:

A. *Higher Education.* The two organisations dealing with higher education are the Council for Higher Education, and the Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission. The Council for Higher Education has been supervising the development of higher education for a long time, and has been restructured to become more effective and responsive. The Council for Higher education mainly consists of members representing universities, and technical community colleges are only represented by one member (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 51).

The Accreditation and Quality Assurance Commission is rather new and assumes more responsibility for the accreditation of higher education programmes and institutions. Despite the fact that it is an independent commission, it can only present recommendations to the Minister of Education and Higher Education, who has the final say (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 51).

B. *Technical and Vocational Education Training:* The only body dealing with TVET is the Higher Council on TVET, which, technically, is an empowered body which can make decisions and ask ministries and other bodies to conform to and follow its directions (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 51).

Members of the above mentioned organisations are either volunteers or full-time staff; hence, the time and effort contributed by these members are rather limited. Nonetheless, there are no members working only on designing, planning, monitoring and evaluating HRD strategies and policies (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 52).

At the **intermediate level**, the key organisations conducting these activities at this level include the following (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 52):

- A. The Directorate of General Education at the Ministry of Education and Higher Education.
- B. The Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education at the Ministry of Education and Higher Education.
- C. The Directorate of University Education at the Ministry of Education and Higher Education.
- D. The Directorate of Vocational Training at the Ministry of Labour.
- E. The Education Department at UNRWA.

These organisations have hardly sufficient resources to manage the running of the education establishments they are responsible for. Furthermore, very little designing, planning, monitoring, and evaluation of HRD strategies and policies are assumed (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 52).

At the **institutional level**, the capacities of education organisations concerning the design, planning, monitoring and evaluation of HRD strategies and policies are rather diverse; though some of the organisations have excellent capacities. The social partners' capacities in this area are limited and leave a lot of room for improvement (Hashweh et al., 2006, p. 52).

Very recently, the Ministry of Education and Higher Education/Ministry of Labour (2012) indicated that currently a unified system for TVET is non-existent. Training and education is undertaken by different types of establishments which are run by the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (Vocational Secondary Schools and Technical Colleges), the Ministry of Labour (Vocational Training Centres), private organisations, and also by NGOs (50% of all TVET courses and programs) (Ministry of Education and Higher Education/Ministry of Labour, 2012).

## **2.18 National Technical and Vocational Education and Training Strategy (NTVETS)**

The NTVETS was carried out in a participatory process involving the Ministry of Labour, Ministry of Education and Higher Education, educational institutions and other stakeholders from the private sector (Ministry of Education and Higher Education Palestine, 2008). The Ministry of Education and Higher Education Palestine (2008) indicated that the stakeholders decided to: establish an integrated and demand-oriented TVET system which includes all educational and training institutions under a joint supervision system and institution; provide students and trainees with skills required for their entry into the labour market; and to provide equal opportunities for female students to involve themselves in the TVET system as students and employees.

The general objective of the Strategy is to arrive at a TVET System that is (Ministry of Education and Higher Education Palestine, 2008, p. 46):

- *Efficient: by achieving efficient coordination between the various education and training providers; especially in using the available resources in a well-organized way.*
- *Effective: through the development of human resources and developing curricula and systems (including criteria for licensing and accreditation).*
- *Relevant: by establishing a real partnership with industry and business especially in the design and training provision.*

- *Flexible: by adopting the modular curricula and introducing a flexible mobility between training levels and streams.*
- *Sustainable: through the provision of minimum governmental funding and diversifying sources of funding.*
- *Equitable: by providing equal education and training opportunity for all groups.*

The Ministry of Education and Higher Education has set the following four goals, in its Higher Education sub-sector (including Vocational Education), for the Education Development Strategic Plan (EDSP) period 2008-2012 (Ministry of Education and Higher Education Palestine, 2008, p. 61):

**Goal 1:** *To increase access of school-aged children and students of all education levels and improve the ability of the education system to retain them (**Access**)*

**Goal 2:** *To improve the quality of teaching and learning (**Quality**)*

**Goal 3:** *To develop the capacity for planning and management and to improve the financial and management systems used (**Management**)*

**Goal 4:** *To realize a gradual conversion of the HE Sector from a supply-oriented to a demand-oriented sector, which will gradually guarantee more compatibility between HE outputs and labor market(s) need from qualitatively and quantitatively (**Relevance**).*

## **2.19 Needs Assessment and Training Needs Assessment**

Needs assessment is reported to be a key step in the performance improvement business, which paved the way in designing and developing any HRD (or human performance technology) initiative (Gupta, 2007). Needs assessment, as defined by Gupta (2007, p. 1), “is a process for examining and framing people-related problems and performance improvement opportunities” and as defined by Kaufman et al. (1993, p. 88) is the “identification of needs[gaps between current results and desired results], and the placing of them in priority order in terms of what it costs to meet the needs versus the cost for ignoring them (where “cost” is both social and financial.” Another term, ‘needs analysis’ is also reported in the literature, and while some authors use both ‘needs assessment’ and ‘needs analysis’ interchangeably, others distinguish between them. For example, Kaufman

et al. (1993, p. 88) define ‘needs analysis’ as the: “*breaking down of an identified need to determine its basis and causes and the relationship among identifies needs.*” However, in the case of the present thesis, the two terms are not distinguished from each and are used interchangeably.

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Burner (2010, p. 165) argues that training needs assessment is the second step when a performance analysis produces a solution system which recommends training or educational intervention. Performance analysis is defined as: “*Process by which you partner with clients to identify and respond to problems and opportunities, and to study individuals and the organization and to determine an appropriate cross-functional solutions system. A systematic and systemic approach to engaging with the client; this is the process by which you determine when and how to use education and information resources*” (Rossett, 1999, p. 227).

While some authors (for example, Kaufmann et al., 1993; Barbazette, 2006) differentiated between ‘training needs assessment’ and ‘training needs analysis’, many others (for example, Holton et al., 2000, Wilson and Smilanich, 2005, Yueng and Hall, 2007;

Bowman and Wilson, 2008, Landy and Conte, 2010, Morrison et al., 2011), refer to both terms as synonyms and used interchangeably. Yueng and Hall (2007) argue that training needs assessment is also commonly known as training needs analysis.

A training needs assessment (TNA) is employed to determine whether training is the appropriate solution to a workplace problem (Cekada, 2010). Mathis and Jackson (2012, p. 260) argue that the assessment of organisational training needs is the diagnostic stage of a training plan, and such assessment takes into consideration matters relating to employee and organisational performance to establish whether training can help, adding the needs assessment measures the proficiencies of an organisation, a group of individuals, or an individual as they are associated with what is needed. Training needs assessment (TNA) is a term defined by Rossett (1999, p. 230), a distinguished authority on training needs assessment and also on performance analysis, as follows:

*“Systematic study that incorporates data and opinions from varied sources in order to create, install, and evaluate educational and informational products and services. The effort commences as a result of a handoff from the performance analysis and should concentrate on these needs that are related to skills, knowledge, and motivation. Also known as a needs assessment.”*

Leatherman (2006, p. 3) refers to a training needs assessment as that which *“identifies specific problems within an organization by using appropriate methods of gathering information (such as surveys, interviews, observations, etc.), determines which of the problems requires a training solution, and then uses the information to design training interventions that solve the original problem.”* Rossett’s (1999) definition of TNA is adopted for the purposes of the present thesis, given the link between performance analysis and training needs assessment. Finding of the present thesis (Chapter Four, Section 4.4) indicate the importance of training to respondents’ performance at work.

Tobey (2005, p. 2) argues that while training certainly without doubt provides skills and learning and development, training needs assessment is the initial process which makes certain that training is based on the organisation's needs, and that in the absence of needs assessment, trainers risk developing and delivering training which does not support organisational needs; hence, *does not deliver value to the organization or the client.*"

Training needs assessment employs a multi-method assessment procedure to generate data from different sources and stakeholder groups and consist of both qualitative and quantitative methods (Magyar, 2011). Rothwell and Kazanas (2011) maintain that five methods are characteristically employed in generating information concerning instructional needs; including, "interviews, direct observation of work, indirect examination of performance or productivity measures, questionnaires, and task analysis". They also refer to other possible data collection approaches, such as, key informant or focus groups, nominal group techniques, Delphi procedure, critical incident method, competency assessment, assessment centre, and exit interviews.

Undertaking interviews is a widespread method of needs assessment and allows an interviewer to gather data relating to a planned set of questions in the interviewees' own words (Zuniga, 2010). However, though using interviews has a number of benefits, it also has its limitations or pitfalls, as presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Benefits and pitfalls of interviews

<i>Benefits</i>	<i>Pitfalls</i>
<i>The interviewer collects qualitative information from individuals who are informed on the topic.</i>	There is no anonymity, which may be an issue in the workplace.
<i>Interviewer can probe deeper to further understand issues, allowing interviewees to expand on their answers.</i>	Interviews generally require more time and expense.
<i>Interviewees can say what they want to say in their own words and are not forced to choose from available options.</i>	Interviewees may not represent the larger group.
<i>The face-to-face interview allows for the full gamut of communication: nonverbal aspects, tone of voice, and body language.</i>	Interviewers may be biased and may present questions and analyze results in a skewed manner.
<i>Interviews often provide a richer data set.</i>	Interviewees may be reticent to disclose work-related information due to the sensitivity of the data.

Source: Zuniga (2010, p. 11).

Lack of anonymity in the Palestinian context, as well as other Arab cultural context, is an issue at workplace. In this context, Arab people abstain from holding face-to-face interviews, given that potential interview might not expand in their responses and do not want to criticise something related to their superior due to fear of any future repercussion or implications. The situation is even worse when the interviewer is a male and the interviewees are females, especially in some Arab cultures due to the prohibition of mixing of the genders. Under such circumstances interviewees might not say what they want to say in their own words.

Questionnaires and also employed in needs assessment given that a questionnaire enables individuals generate data from a large representative sample of the population concerned as well as providing reliability in accumulating the data (Zuniga, 2010). Nonetheless, though



questionnaires have some benefits they also they have their limitations of pitfalls, as indicated in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Benefits and pitfalls of questionnaires

<i>Benefits</i>	<i>Pitfalls</i>
<i>Generally questionnaires require less time from the respondent</i>	Variables may affect response rates, but sometimes people do not want to respond to electronic or written questionnaires.
<i>Questionnaires collect information from a large group of people.</i>	Spend time determining the purpose of the questionnaire to avoid collecting data that are not useful. Without understanding how the data will be used, questionnaires become fragmented and useless.
<i>Determining statistically significant results from quantitative data helps decision making to be more accurate.</i>	Ensure that someone with the know-how conducts survey design, implementation, and analysis. Without this, data may not be useful.

Source: Zuniga (2010, p. 11).

## 2.20 Conducting Training Needs Assessment

Bohlander and Snell (2010) argue that irrespective of who performs the organisation's training needs assessment, needs assessments must be carried out systematically by using the three different types of analysis: organisation analysis, task (job) analysis, and person (individual) analysis (a traditional systems approach, according to Wai, 2009), as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

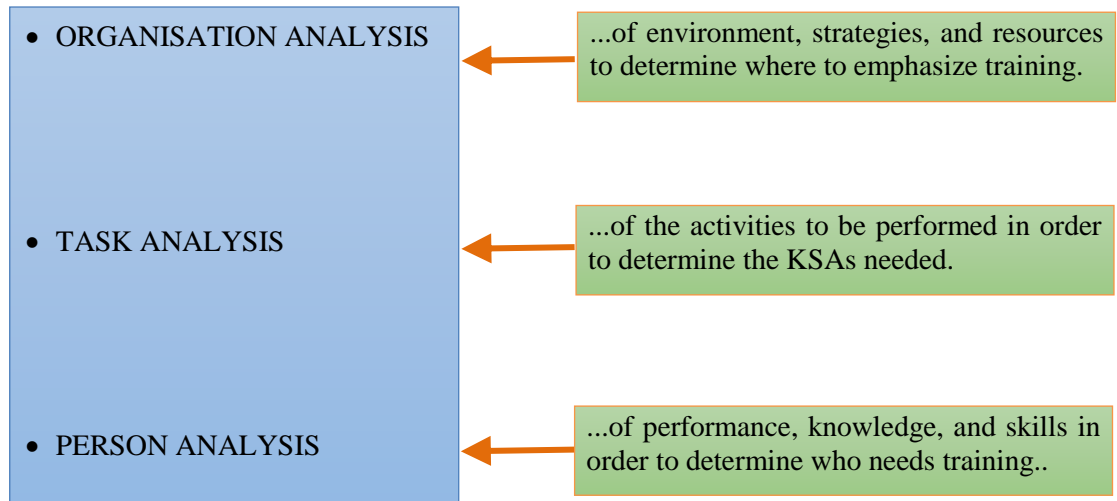


Figure 2.2. Needs Assessment for Training  
(Source: Bohlander and Snell, 2010, p. 309).

The sources of information for training needs assessment for three types of analysis are illustrated in Figure 2.3.

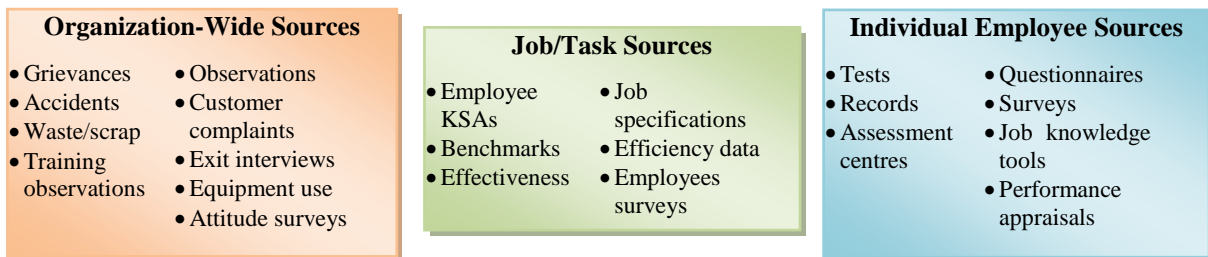


Figure 2.3. Sources of information for training needs assessment.  
(Source: Mathis and Jackson, 2012, p. 159).

Mathis and Jackson (2012) argue that training needs can be identified by means of analysing organisational outcomes and considering future organisational needs. They also indicated that a component of planning for training is the recognition of the knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs) which will be needed in the future, given that both jobs and the organisation change. The organisation analysis is also required to plan for employee demography as well as laws and regulations (Brown, 2002; Cekada, 2010).

It is argued in the literature that understanding how an organisation might be changing can show future skill needs, such as, how to install a new equipment or implement new processes, or whether standards or regulations change, or whether technology is changing, and other organisational issues, such as employees work in teams which require communication and interpersonal skills (Cekada, 2010). Labour pool is also said to be changing as a result of more employees age and women or other minorities become more prominent (Cekada, 2010). Understanding all future changes will help the organisation start to accommodate employees' needs and at the same time still satisfying the organisation's needs (Cekada, 2010). As regards laws and regulations, changes in existing safety and environmental regulations and as new laws may stipulate that the organisation provide training in particular fields.

The second approach to analyse training needs is to review the jobs involved and the tasks performed in such jobs (Mathis and Jackson, 2012). This stage is also referred to as 'Operations/Task Analysis' (Cekada, 2010). Training needs can be identified when requirements of jobs are compared with the knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs) of the employees (Mathis and Jackson, 2012). Any gaps identified in this comparison reveal a training need (Cekada, 2010). Sources of information for training needs assessment in this stage are identified in Figure 2.3. Another way to identify training gaps in the job or the task performed is to survey employees and have them anonymously evaluate their co-workers' skill levels and estimate the skill levels required to become successful (Mathis and Jackson, 2012).

The third means of identifying training needs is to focus on individuals and how they carry out their work. There are many sources which are useful for individual analysis, including the following (Mathis and Jackson, 2012, p. 162):

- *Performance appraisals*
- *Skill tests*
- *Individual assessment tests*
- *Records of critical incidents*
- *Assessment of center exercises*
- *Questionnaires and surveys*
- *Job knowledge tools*
- *Internet input*

Using performance appraisal data is the most common approach to undertaking individual analysis, and to appraise training needs their the performance appraisal process, the organisation first determines a worker's performance strengths and weaknesses in a formal review, followed by designing certain kind of training that helps the worker to overcome the weaknesses and augment the strengths (Mathis and Jackson, 2012). Other ways are to use both managerial and non-managerial input concerning what training is required, and using tests as a means of individual level analysis (Mathis and Jackson, 2012).

## **2.21 Evaluation of Training**

Training evaluation, according to Landy and Conte (2010, p. 339), "*involves the systematic collection of descriptive and judgemental information that can be used to make effective training decisions.*" These decisions comprise selecting, adopting, modifying, and financial evaluation of different training activities (Goldstein and Ford, 2003).

Simmonds (2003) argues that a great deal has been published about evaluation, and one of the essential foundations of the systematic approach to training is the need of evaluation of learning objectives. However, irrespective of such extensive literature on the subject of evaluation of training, evaluation has almost not been carried out to any level, in spite of the fact that evaluation been has documented extensively as encompassing immense importance (Simmonds, 2003). Thorne and Mackey (2007) also argue that despite the need for giving emphasis to evaluation of training, not every organisation focuses sufficiently on evaluation. This is applicable to Al-Aqsa University, in which evaluation of training, has not been carried out systematically. The findings of this thesis (Chapter

Four, Sections 4.53 and 4.54) indicated that most of the academics and many of the administrators involved in the study perceived evaluation of training as not important, which may indicate that their training was not undertaken by the University, or might indicate that these respondents were not aware of any evaluation efforts by the University.

Training evaluation involves two primary types; summative evaluation (judgement-oriented evaluation), and formative evaluation (improvement-oriented evaluation) (Patton, 1994; Rothwell et al., 2006). Formative and summative evaluations are both important (Zepeda, 2008).

Summative evaluation is performed at the closing stages of training course or programme in order to determine skills and knowledge or to assess the efficacy or value of a programme or a course (Rothwell et al., 2006). It provides information to decision makers who decide the whole value of the training programme. Summative evaluation is *“implemented for the purpose of determining the merit, worth, or value of the evaluand in a way that leads to a final evaluative judgement”* (Rus-Eft and Preskill, 2009, p. 19). Scriven (1991, p. 340) maintains that summative evaluation is undertaken after the training programme is completed, and for ongoing programmes, it is conducted after stabilisation, and to benefit certain external audience or decision makers. Summative evaluation is often, though not always, carried out by external evaluators (Rus-Eft and Preskill, 2009). Summative evaluations come in a range of forms and sizes, the four common types are: monitoring and auditing, outcome evaluation, impact evaluation, and performance measurement.

Zepeda (2008) maintains that the focus of formative evaluation is to determine the need for review or midcourse corrections. Noe (2002, p. 179) indicates that formative evaluation *“refers to evaluation conducted to improve the training process.”* It is performed during

training or development of a programme, and is carried out for internal staff of the programme with the aim to improve (Scriven, 1999). Formative evaluation is argued to help make sure that the training programme is well prepared and proceeds proficiently, trainees learn and are satisfied with the programme (Noe, 2002). Noe also indicates that it provides information relating to how to manage the programme better, and it generally involves collecting qualitative data, such as opinions, beliefs, and feelings concerning the programme (Noe, 2002).

There are a number of reasons why evaluation of training is carried out. Hayes and Ninemeier (2008, pp. 247-248) summarise these reasons as follows:

*“Assess the extent to which training achieved planned results. Identify strengths and weaknesses of training. Determine the success of individual trainees. Gather information to help justify future programs. Establish a database for future decisions. Determine trainees who are eligible for future training. Assess the costs and benefits of training. Reinforce major points for trainees. Assess trainees’ reactions to training. Assess Trainers’ reactions to training.”*

## **2.22 Evaluation Models**

There are several evaluation models which have been introduced to provide frameworks for conducting evaluation, including Kirkpatrick’s Model of evaluation, Phillips Five-Level ROI Framework, the Hamblin evaluation framework, the Easterby-Smith Evaluation Framework; the Inputs, Process, and Outputs (IPO) Model, and the Context, Inputs, Processes, and Products CIPD Model. The main focus will be on Kirkpatrick’s model due to the fact that the conceptual model proposed for the present research will be based mainly on this model. The Phillips evaluation framework will also be considered, though briefly, since it is similar to the Kirkpatrick’s model.

### 2.22.1 Kirkpatrick's Model

Kirkpatrick's (1959) model of evaluation follows the goal-based evaluation approach. It emphasises that the effectiveness of training programmes can be evaluated at four separate levels: reaction, that is, how participant trainees react to training; learning, that is the extent to which trainees change attitudes, improve knowledge, and/or strengthen skills; behaviour, the extent to which change in behaviour takes place; and results, the final results of training (Brewer, 2011). Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) maintain that these four levels signify a sequence of ways to evaluate programmes, and each of these four levels has important and has a bearing on the next level. The process becomes more difficult and time-consuming when a move from one level to the next takes place, though it provides further valuable information (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006).

**Reaction** indicates that evaluation “*measures how those who participate in the program react to it*”, calling it a measure of customer satisfaction, arguing that the reaction of trainees was obviously a measure of customer satisfaction (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006, p. 21). Bates (2004) maintains that measures at Level 1 have developed and are most frequently directed at measuring trainees' affective responses to the quality of training; for example, in terms of trainees' satisfaction with the instructor, or the relevance of training, such as in terms of work-related utility.

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) attributed the importance of measuring reactions at this level for a number of reasons; including giving evaluators useful feedback which help them to evaluate the programme, in addition to comments and suggestions for improving future programmes; telling trainees that the trainer are at hand to help them perform their jobs better and needing feedback to decide how effective they are; reaction sheets can provide quantitative information which can be given to managers and others concerned

about the programme; and reaction sheets can provide trainers with quantitative data which can be utilised to establish standards of performance for future programmes.

Methods, including questionnaires, interviews, group discussions, individual interviews or asking trainees to write a report can be employed at this level (Reid and Barrington, 1997). However, Reid and Barrington (1997) warn that care must be taken regarding the timing of these methods; indicating that trainees may provide a false impression if they are asked to complete a questionnaire at the end of the course, after they have enjoyed their training course; consequently, they may finish in a mood of elation that may not persist after returning to their jobs. Equally, trainees may not be in a position to know instantly whether what they have learned will be beneficial; as a result, it may be deemed necessary to wait some significant time prior to obtaining informed opinion (Reid and Barrington, 1997). Furthermore, Reid and Barrington argue that learning can on occasions be painful, and trainees may encounter difficulty or criticism and attempt to divert this to the training activities which may lead to expressing false impression.

**Learning**, as defined by Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006, p. 22), is “*the extent to which participants change attitudes, improve knowledge, and/or increase skill as a result of attending the program.*” Learning measures are quantifiable indicators of the learning which have taken place during the training (Bates, 2004, 2005). Assessment at Level 2 moves evaluation ahead of trainees’ satisfaction and tries to measure the level trainees have advanced in skills, knowledge or attitude; however, measurement at this level is difficult and laborious, compared to Level 1 (Haslinda and Mahyuddin, 2009). Methods employed range from formal to informal testing to team assessment and self-assessment, and when possible, trainees take the test or assessment prior to the training (pre-test) and



post training (post-test) to find out the extent of learning that has taken place (Haslinda and Mahyuddin, 2009).

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) indicate that trainers can teach three things: knowledge, skills, and attitudes; hence, measuring learning denote determining one or more of the following: Knowledge which was learned; skills which were developed or improved; and which attitudes were changed. They also indicate that it is imperative to measure learning given that no change in behaviour can be anticipated unless one or more of the three learning objectives have been attained.

Behaviour, as defined by Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006, p. 22), is “*the extent to which change in behaviour has occurred because the participant attended the training program.*”

For change to take place, four conditions are required (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006, p. 23): “*The person must have a desire to change; The person must know what to do and how to do it; The person must work in the right climate; and The person must be rewarded for changing.*”

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) indicate that the training programme can attain the first two conditions by means of creating a positive attitude toward the required change and through teaching the necessary knowledge and skills. The third condition (right climate) refers to the participant’s immediate supervisors, of which Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006, pp. 23-24), describe five types of climate: *Preventing, Discouraging, Neutral; Encouraging, and Requiring*. As regards the fourth condition, “*it can be intrinsic (from within) or extrinsic (from without), or both*” (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006, p. 24).

**Results** represents the final results which took place as a result of the trainees have attended the training programme, and can include “*increased production, improved quality, decreased costs, reduced frequency and/or severity of accidents, increased sales,*

*reduced turnover, and higher profits*” (Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick, 2006, p. 25).

Kirkpatrick’s four levels are summed up, as illustrated in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4. A summary of the four levels of Kirkpatrick’s model of evaluation

<i>Level</i>	Description
<b><i>Level 1: Evaluation</i></b> <b>— <i>Reactions</i></b>	Measures participants’ reaction to training. This is a perceptual level that collects data on whether participants liked the training and to determine if the participants believed the training was relevant to their work settings.
<b><i>Level 2: Evaluation</i></b> <b>— <i>Learning</i></b>	Attempts to measure the learning that has occurred related to training (Level 1). Seeks to assess whether or not participants have increased knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Pre-testing and post-testing measures are used in addition to perceptual reporting of training participants.
<b><i>Level 3: Evaluation</i></b> <b>— <i>Transfer</i></b>	Seeks to measure/determine if what was learned in a training program (knowledge, skills) has been transferred to the work setting.
<b><i>Level 4: Evaluation</i></b> <b>— <i>Results</i></b>	Seeks to measure/determine if there have been any results based on changed practices implemented in the work setting (e.g., increased production, decreased costs, etc.).

Source: Zepeda (2008, p. 47).

Bates (2005) argues that the Kirkpatrick’s four-level has been popular and has been used widely; its strength is due to its potential in simplifying the complex process of evaluation, as well as it addresses the need for training experts to understand training evaluation is a methodical way (Bates, 2005). Kirkpatrick’s model has been the most extensively realised and employed for the evaluation of training programmes (Brewer, 2011) This model has been employed for a long time due to its simplicity as well as being practical, effective, flexible and complete (Brewer, 2011). However, despite this popularity, the model has been subject to a number of criticisms. For example, Bersin (2008, p. 58) describes the model levels as not being a complete model, arguing that it does not endeavour to elucidate “*how training drives learning and how training drives impact.*” Bersin also indicates that Kirkpatrick misses other operational measures.

Laird et al. (2003, pp. 255-256) also criticised Kirkpatrick's model, arguing that it has not supported by research, the emphasis is on reaction measure, failure to update the model, not used, and can lead to incorrect decisions.

However, despite its popularity and extensive application, this model has been the target to criticisms by many critics. For example, Bates (2004) argues that the model has gone too far, whereas others (for example, Bimbrauer, 1987; Schumann et al., 2001; Watkins et al., 1998) refer to it as not going far enough. It has also been criticised as having defective assumptions (Allinger and Janak, 2004; Bates, 2004), or needing replacement (Holton, 1996a; Nickols, 2004). Holton (1996a, b) maintain that it is not a model, and is not even an evaluation, and even Kirkpatrick (1996) called it a framework, rather than a model.

As indicated earlier, a conceptual framework is proposed that fits with the Al-Aqsa University context and organisational culture. This framework is mainly based on Kirkpatrick's model, with further modifications, as explained in Section 3.24. The four levels of Kirkpatrick's model is only a part of the proposed framework.

### **2.22.2 Phillips Five-Level ROI Framework**

Phillips (1997) extended the Kirkpatrick's four-level model, by adding a fifth level, return on investment (ROI). Phillips (2003) argues that the concept of different levels of evaluation is valuable and informative in relation to understanding how the return on investment is calculated. This model "*serves as the framework for evaluation, defining the type of data collected, the sequence of collection, and the approximate timing*" (Phillips, 2003, p. 34). Table 2.5 summarises Phillips' five-level ROI framework.

Table 2.5. Five-Level ROI Framework

<i>Level</i>	<i>Brief Description</i>
<i>Level 1—Reaction and planned action</i>	<i>Measures participant's reaction to the program and outlines specific plans for implementation.</i>
<i>Level 2—Learning</i>	<i>Measures skills, knowledge, or attitude changes</i>
<i>Level 3—Job Applications</i>	<i>Measures changes in behavior on-the-job and specific application and implementation.</i>
<i>Level 4—Business Results</i>	<i>Measures business impact of the programme.</i>
<i>Level 5—Return on Investment</i>	<i>Compares the monetary value of the results and costs for the program, usually expressed as a percentage.</i>

Source: Phillips (1997, p. 43).

## **2.24 The Conceptual Model to Study Effectiveness of Training and Development**

The proposed conceptual model for the present study consists of four parts, as illustrated in Figure 2.4. The first part of proposed framework is based on Kirkpatrick's Four-Level Model. In this part participants' reaction, learning, behaviours, and results are measured. Kirkpatrick's model is adopted at this stage of the study as it has been reported in the literature as the most extensively realised and employed for the evaluation of training programmes, due to its simplicity as well as being practical, effective, flexible and complete, as highlighted in Section 2.22.1.

The second part of the conceptual framework attempts to measure top management support and commitment to training both academic and administrative staff members. Garavan et al. (2007) point out to the support for the idea that top management support and involvement in HRD as one of the main features of a strategically aligned HRD function, and that such support tends to enhance the importance of HRD and that it creates a substantial contribution to organisation's strategic plans.

The third part of the framework investigates the trainees' (academic and administrative staff members) willingness to train. The fourth and final part investigates trainers' commitment to training the University staff and also whether they are proficient and capable of delivering required training to the staff.

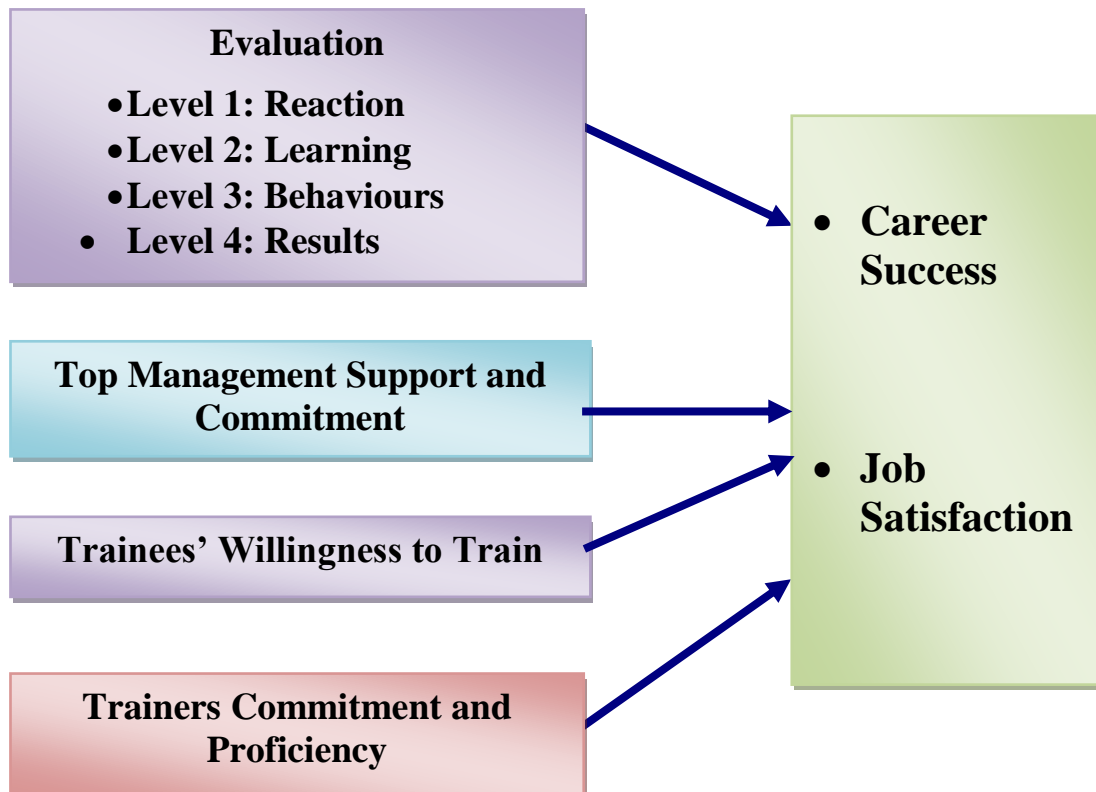


Figure 2.4. The Temporary proposed conceptual framework.

The above Proposed Framework is a temporary proposed conceptual framework and can be changed or amended in the light of the respondents when the data been collected.

Evaluation can serve a number of purposes within the organization. According to Phillips (2003, pp. 36-37), evaluation can help to do following:

- *Improve the quality of learning and outcomes*
- *Determine whether a program is accomplishing its objectives*
- *Identify the strengths and weaknesses in the learning process.*
- *Determine whether the program was appropriate for the target audience*
- *Establish a database, which can assist in making decisions about the programs*

- *Establish priorities for funding.*

One of the directions of human resource development introduced by Kumpikaite and Sakalas (2005) is the approach of the organisation to HR development, which can be perceived as Top Management Support and Commitment. Kumpikaite and Sakalas (2005) argue that in order for the human resource development system to be effective, the approach of the organisation (hence, top management) to human resource development must be positive; that is, there needs to be an environment of learning; strategies of the organisation and human resource development has to be concordant; and the organisation must focus on persistent changes and frequent learning and must use team-work methods.

As regards trainee's willingness to train, there are certain factors or causes that prevent employees from training. For example, employees might perceive training courses as not relevant to their jobs; or might think of the training department or trainers as incompetent, or unable to train employees professionally though the trainer is good but unable to convey information to trainees. It is possible that employees might perceive the HRD programme as not achieving its objectives (Phillips, 1996). Age can be a factor contributing to staff unwillingness to participate in training programmes. Older employees have been reported in the literature [for example, European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop), 2012] as not always perceiving the actual job-related and individual benefits of investing in their knowledge, skills and competences via training.

Trainer's commitment and proficiency (knowledge, skills and abilities, KSAs) are very important in training employees. Rae (2001, p. 21) argues the trainers should be or become committed to the training notions in which they are dealing as well as to the purpose of assisting people to learn. Rae also argues that a lack of such commitment

becomes evident to the trainees in a number of ways, such as “– *lack of enthusiasm, ineffective preparation and presentation, lack of sincerity and so on –and results, unless the learners are very committed themselves, in a diminution of the learning*” (Rae, 2001, p. 22).

Based on the proposed conceptual framework, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

**H<sub>1</sub>:** *The more training courses the staff have the more Job Satisfaction and/or Career Success.*

It is anticipated that staff job satisfaction is increased as a result of attending training courses relating to their job tasks, as their knowledge in their field of work will be updated. Staff job satisfaction will lead to carry out their tasks better which would lead to their success in their jobs and further their career as well as their promotion to senior positions within the University hierarchy; such as, academic staff will be able to occupy higher ranking positions, like assistant professorship or professorship status. This also applies administrative staff concerning their promotions.

**H<sub>2</sub>:** *Top Management Support or Commitment has a positive impact on training.*

Top management support or commitment to training represents an internal support for all of the organisation’s employees, and such support and commitment can have a positive impact on employees concerning their training and development. Without the top management support, willingness to train and develop employees will not be capable of learning and improving.

**H<sub>3</sub>:** *Trainees’ willingness to participate in training programmes has a positive impact on training outcomes.*

It is anticipated that employees who are willing to train will gain much more from their training than those who are not willing to do so.

**H<sub>4</sub>:** *Trainers’ commitment and proficiency has a positive impact on training outcomes. This issue is linked to Job Satisfaction and/or Career Success.*



# **Chapter Three**

## **Research Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter identifies issues relating to research assumptions, research paradigms, research logic, research methodology, research design, research methods, data compilation and analysis, validity and reliability, and research ethics. The research operationalisation is summed up in Table 3.1. Accordingly, issues relating to operationalisation for the purposes of the present thesis are discussed.

Specifically, this chapter is presented in various stages; namely, epistemology (positivism), ontology (objectivism), thesis paradigms (positivism, objectivism), study logic (deductivism, research questions (relatedness to research aim and objectives), Research Methodology (survey, single organisation investigative study – Al Aqsa University), research design (questionnaire), research methods (quantitative, deduction), Data compilation and analysis (frequency, graphics, statistical analysis), and values and ethics (validity and reliability, ethical approach of the study) (see Figure 3.1).

It is noticed, as Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1 reveal, that the present thesis is positivist (epistemology), objectivist (ontology), and deductivist (paradigm). Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1 also show that the research methodology adopted is survey, using questionnaires (research design), and quantitative (research methods). Data collected are also statistically analysed, and issues relating to validity and reliability, as well as research ethics (value and ethics) are addressed.

Table 3.1. Operationalisation of the Thesis

<b><i>Study Characteristics</i></b>	<b>Assumptions</b>	<b>Operationalisation in the Present Thesis</b>	<b>Study Population</b>
<b><i>Epistemology</i></b>	Positivism, Interpretivism	Positivism	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Ontology</i></b>	Objectivism, Subjectivism, Realism, Constructivism	Objectivism	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Paradigm</i></b>	Positivism, interpretivism, Objectivism, Subjectivism, Realism, Constructionism	Positivism, objectivism	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Logic</i></b>	Deductivism, inductivism,	Deductivism	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Research Questions</i></b>	Clarity of and relatedness of research questions to research aim and objectives	Relatedness to research aim and objectives	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Research Methodology</i></b>	Survey, Mixed Methodology	Survey, Single organisation investigative Study (Al Aqsa University)	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Research Design</i></b>	Questionnaires, Interviews	Questionnaire	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Research Methods</i></b>	Quantitative/Qualitative, Deduction, Induction	Quantitative, Deduction	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Data Compilation and Analysis</i></b>	Tabulating and diagrammatically illustrating responses to the questionnaire items, Statistical Analysis Packages (SPSS)	Presenting data collected as frequencies and percentages as tables and figures, statistical analyses ANOVA test, F-test, and student's t-test	Academics, Administrators
<b><i>Values and Ethics</i></b>	Validity and Reliability, research Ethics	Validity and Reliability, Ethical approach of the study	Academics, Administrators

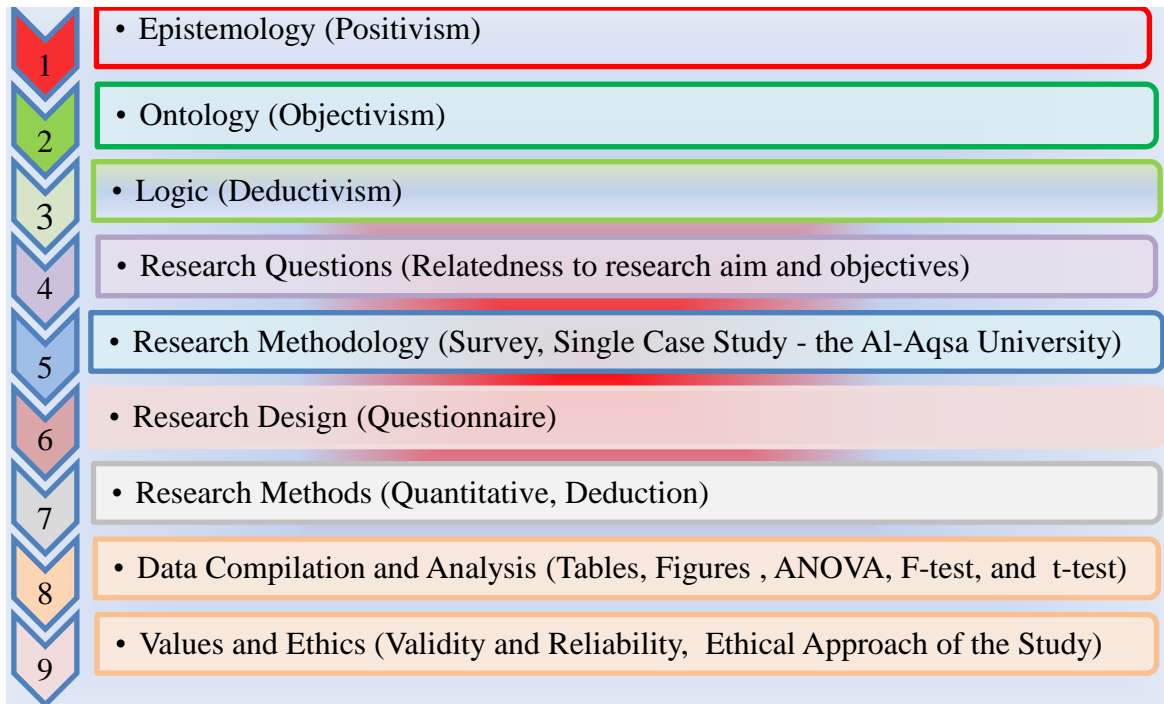


Figure 3.1. The research methodology

### 3.2 Epistemology

Epistemology denotes the difference between subject and object by contending with the modes of knowing; consequently, *“the emphasis is to understand the relationship between the knower and what there is to know. ... the posture of the knower must be one of objective detachment from the reality under investigation in order to analyse how reality is shaped and how it works”* (Guba and Lincoln, 2000, p. 108; Wolf, 2008, p. 24). Babbie (2010, p. 4, 2011, p. 4) refers to epistemology as follows: *“The science of knowing; systems of knowledge.”* Two major epistemological paradigms are positivism and interpretivism. As indicated above and also in Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1, the present thesis is positivist in its approach. Hence, the focus of this thesis is on positivism.

### **3.2.1 Positivism**

Bryman (2012, p. 28) defines positivism as “*an epistemological position that advocates the application of methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond.*”

Nonetheless, the term extends beyond this notion although the basic components vary among authors. Bryman (2012) and Bryman and Bell (2007) maintain that positivism is perceived to involve a number of principles; two of which relate to this thesis; that is, the principle of phenomenalism and the principle of deductivism. The present thesis is deductive, as illustrated in Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1.

### **3.3 Ontology**

Ontology, on the other hand, is a domain of philosophy which is related to “*the nature of what exists*” (Blaikie, 2010, p. 13). Bryman and Bell (2007) maintain that the questions of social ontology deal with the nature of social entities and that the key argument of orientation is the question whether such entities can and must be perceived as objective entities having a reality external to the social actors, or whether they can or have to be perceived as social interpretations made from the views and actions of the social actors. Given that the present study is quantitative in nature, then the assumption is that this thesis is objectivist. Accordingly, the focus of this thesis is on objectivism.

#### **3.3.1 Objectivism**

Objectivism is defined by Bryman and Bell (2007, p. 22) as “*an ontological position that asserts that social phenomenon and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors. It implies that social phenomena and the categories that we use in everyday discourse have an existence that is dependent or separate from actors.*”

Bryman and Bell (2007) perceive an organisation as a tangible object, having its rules and regulations, adopting standardised procedures for accomplishing doing things, as well as having an hierarchy, a mission statement, etc. Al-Aqsa University is a tangible object having all such features and characteristics. This could be the reason for adopting ontological objectivism for the purposes of this thesis.

### **3.4 Deductivism**

Deductive approach is described as a “*research process based on deductive logic, in which the researcher begins with a theory, then derives hypotheses, and ultimately collects observations to test the hypotheses*” (Rubin and Babbie, 2010, p. 40), which owes much to the scientific research, and involves developing a theory that is subjected to a comprehensive test (Saunders et al., 2007). As indicated earlier (Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1), this thesis is quantitative in nature, and according to Johnson and Christensen (2012), quantitative approach focuses on the deductive method of the scientific method. In this thesis, a questionnaire was used to achieve that thesis aim; that is, to evaluate the development of Palestinian higher education with special reference to evaluate the staff training and development at Al-Aqsa University and to see whether development has paid off to this University concerning the improvement of its staff’s knowledge and skills, and the patterns of responses to the various questionnaire item can be deduced or generalized to the whole target population, namely, the academics and administrators of the Al Aqsa University.

### **3.5 Research Questions (Relatedness to Research Aim and Objectives)**

Based on the research aim and objectives (Chapter One, Section 1.3), the following research questions have been formulated:

- Does the Al-Aqsa University provide an excellent context to evaluate HRD practices and processes?
- *How does developing HRD conceptual model within the Palestinian context help the Al-Aqsa University (and possibly other Palestinian higher education institutions) develop their HRD practices in terms of increasing academic and administrative staff's knowledge, skills and attitudes and to boost their performance?*

Furthermore, another set of research questions are also formulated, as follows:

- *What are the types of training provided to both administrative and academic staff members of the Al Aqsa University?*
- *Are these types of training relevant to the jobs and tasks assumed by the staff members?*
- *Are managers involved in discussing the objectives of the training programme with the staff members before attending the programme?*

### **3.6 Research Methodology**

Due to the quantitative approach of this thesis, a survey methodology was adopted to generate data and information which can be statistically analysed. This thesis also involves a single case, that is, the Al Aqsa University in relation to exploring human resource development, and training and development in this University.

#### **3.6.1 Surveys**

Surveys, according to Fink (2006, p. 1), are “*information collection methods used to describe, compare, or explain individual and societal knowledge, feelings, values, preferences, and behaviors.*” One way of adopting a survey is using a questionnaire (quantitative approach) which is filled in by the respondents (Fink, 2006). Saunders et al. (2007) indicate that survey strategy is generally associated with the deductive approach. It is adopted as the research strategy for the present thesis given that the research approach is quantitative which is deductive in its approach. Data and information generated through

responses to the questionnaire items add to our knowledge in relation to human resource development procedures and practices assumed by the Al Aqsa University as well as the extent of training and developing both administrative and academic staff members of this university. Such knowledge is almost lacking concerning the Al Aqsa University, and the thesis findings will add to our knowledge in this field of research.

There are several types of survey methods, including mail surveys, online surveys, face-to-face interview surveys, and telephone surveys. For the purposes of generating quantitative data in this thesis, questionnaires were sent to all academic and administrative staff through the Internet using their e-mail addresses. This meant that online survey was employed.

### **3.7 Research Design: The Questionnaire**

A questionnaire is described by Collis and Hussey (2009, p. 192) as “*a method for collecting primary data in which a sample of respondents are asked a list of carefully structured questions chosen after considerable testing with a view to eliciting reliable responses.*” The literature (De Vaus, 2002, Sarantakos, 2005) indicates that questionnaires are the most prevalent method employed for collecting survey data.

A questionnaire was designed to collect data and information about staff training and development at the Al Aqsa University. The final version of the questionnaire was sent to the administrative and academic staff members of the Al Aqsa University via their e-mail addresses. Given that the questionnaire were sent electronically, a design process for online questionnaire, described by Reynolds et al. (2007, pp. 46-48) was adopted for the purposes of the present thesis, as illustrated in Figure 4.2, which underlines the breakdown of activities which contribute to the generation of online questionnaire (Reynolds et al., 2007).

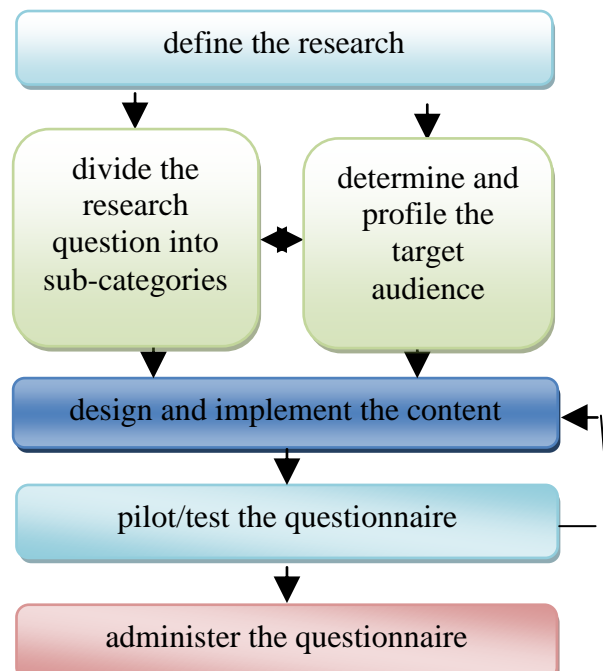


Figure 3.2. A design process for online questionnaire  
(Source: Reynolds et al., 2007, p. 46).

The first step undertaken by the researcher was to define the research question, that is, to identify the purpose of the questionnaire with the aim of “evaluating the development of Palestinian higher education with special reference to evaluate the staff training and development at Al-Aqsa University and to see whether development has paid off to this University concerning the improvement of its staff’s knowledge and skills, as well to write it out clearly. This, according to Reynolds et al. (2007, p. 47) “sets out the mission and objectives of the survey.” The objectives of this thesis, as outlined in Chapter One (Section 1.3) are to:

- 4- *Explore the modern concept of human resource development (HRD) practices adopted to achieve the process of developing skilled and proficient human resources;*
- 5- *Evaluate Human Resource Development practices and processes at the Al-Aqsa University, and*
- 6- *Develop a conceptual model of Human Resource Development within the Palestinian context, mainly drawing from Western and Arabic literature and the outcomes of the present research.*

The second step was to divide the research question into subcategories (Reynolds et al., 2007). In this step, the categories and subcategories of issues to be addresses by the online



questionnaire were listed and arranged in a logical order. This step was undertaken and the questionnaire was divided into seven parts, or categories; each category consists of a number of questions.

As regards the third step; that is, determining and profiling the target audience, the researcher has determined that target audience; the academics and administrators of the Al Aqsa University, and asks, in Part One of the questionnaires, questions relating to profiling the thesis population in terms of their age, gender, qualifications, length of service at the university, and their main area of work (academics or administrators).

As regards the fourth step, Designing and implementing the content, the researcher took into his consideration the questionnaire layout, and the structure of the questions themselves.

The researcher piloted and tested the questionnaire (the fifth step of Reynolds et al.'s (2007) design process for online questionnaire before sending the questionnaire to the thesis population, in order to identify potential for misunderstanding of questions or instruction. This step is discussed later in the chapter.

Finally, after having gone through all these steps, the questionnaire is amended in the light of the findings of the pilot study, and the final version of the questionnaire was e-mailed to the target population.

### **3.7.1 Questionnaire Piloting**

All research instruments, including questionnaires, need to be subjected to a pilot test (Taylor et al., 2006). It is imperative that researchers have to pilot their questionnaire prior to its distribution to the main target group (Green, 2000). Piloting, as Green (2000, p. 27) refers to, “*asking a small number of ‘similar participants to complete your questionnaire*

*and comment on the layout, the instructions for completion of the questionnaire, and the clarity of your questions.*” Piloting a questionnaire also enable the researcher to know the time it takes to answer the questionnaire items, as well as it helps clear out any ambiguities (Green, 2000).

Under ideal circumstances, a research instrument must be tested under conditions which are as near as possible to being identical with the impending fieldwork, and that using colleagues and friends is surely better than not having a pilot study; nonetheless, respondents involved in the pilot study need to be similar to those in the main survey Taylor et al., 2006). This is in agreement with Oppenheim’s (2000) view, who argues that theoretically the respondents in pilot studies have to be as similar as possible to the respondents participating in the main survey; in other words, they have to be a judgement sample. According to Beri (2008, p. 174), the key element of judgement sampling is *“that the units or elements in the population are purposively selected. It is because of this that judgement samples are also called purposive samples.”* Beri (2008) describes a judgement sample as non-probability sampling, given that the selection process is not based on the random method.

The initial draft of the questionnaire, agreed upon its content with the research supervisor was sent electronically (e-mail) to a small sample of academics and administrators at the Al Aqsa University and further copies were distributed another sample consisting of the researcher’s colleagues and friends in the UK who have attended training courses while they were at work abroad. The respondents were asked to comment on the representativeness and suitability of the questionnaire items.

The pilot study respondents were asked some questions relevant to the questionnaire items, as suggested by Bell (2005) and Taylor et al. (2006), including the following: Was it easy

to follow instructions; that is, were such instructions clear enough to follow? How long it took respondents to complete the questionnaire? Were the questionnaire items free from ambiguity? and if there were respondents were asked to indicate so and give reasons. How effective were the questionnaire design and format? Were there any questions or items that the respondents would have preferred not to have been included in the questionnaire? Do they think that some questions they found not meaningful? After receiving the questionnaires from the respondents, they were checked if any questions scored high percentages of “Don’t know”? Were there any questions left unanswered? The pilot study findings revealed some minor adjustment of some of the questionnaire items, which were amended in the light of the respondents’ comment. The final draft was thus prepared and was ready to send copies to all of the academics and administrative staff of the Al Aqsa University. This indicates that the whole of the target population of academics and administrators were involved in the study.

### **3.7.2 The Final Questionnaire**

A copy of the final version of the questionnaire is found in Appendix VII. The final version of the questionnaire consists of six parts. Part One consists of items relating to the respondents’ personal information, including: gender, age, qualification, length of service at the university, and main area of job (academic/administration) (Q.1-Q.5).

Part Two consists of items concerning training provided by the university. This part of the questionnaire consists of fourteen questions (Q.6-Q.19). Three questions relate to whether or not respondents have attended Type 1 training (induction), Type 2 training (training relating to respondent’s job), and Type 3 training (continuing types of training), and whether training was on-the-job or off-the-job. A sample of some of questions in this part is presented (other questions are listed in Appendix VII):

17. *If training was off-the-job, was it: local , or abroad*
18. *What kind of training materials did you receive?*
19. *How were training materials relevant to your job?*

However, as regards *Question 11 (Have you taken part in any other type of training not specifically referred to in the above categories, for example, professional or personal development?)*, if the answer is negative (No), the respondents were asked not to complete the questionnaire; only those who have taken part in training were asked to complete the questionnaire. The researcher specifically indicated that if the answer is 'No', then there is no need to continue further as he wants to find out more about the training which was undertaken.

Part three consists of twelve questions relating to the evaluation of training programmes (Q.20-Q.31). A sample of some of the questions asked includes the following:

20. *Were you clear about what you wanted to get out of the training before attending?*
21. *How informative were the pre joining instructions/information?*
22. *How relevant did you find the training?*
23. *In your opinion how professional/knowledgeable were the trainers?*
24. *When you returned to work did you use the new skills/knowledge/abilities immediately or did you have to wait to use them?*

Part four consists of five statements relating to whether the respondents agree or disagree with the management support for training and development (Q.32-Q.36). Two of these statements are listed below:

32. *My supervisor encourages and supports me to take advantage of training and development opportunities.*
35. *My supervisor jointly reviews progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals*

Part five consists of eight statements (Q.37-Q.44) concerning the respondents agreement/disagreement with perceived benefits of training. Three of such statements are presented below:

- 37. *Training leads to promotion/career advancement/higher pay.*
- 40. *Training helps me to perform my job better.*
- 44. *Training helps me to grow as a person.*

Part six consists of two subcategories; the first category comprises six items (Q.45-Q.50) relating to perceived importance of, and satisfaction with, pre-training activities. A sample of these statements is presented below:

- 46. *Having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods.*
- 50. *Setting objectives for performance improvement.*

The second subcategory consists of seven statements (Q.51-Q.57) relating to perceived importance of, and satisfaction with, post-training activities. A sample of these statements is presented below:

- 52. *Having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills.*
- 53. *Having the necessary resources (e.g., equipment, information) to apply new knowledge and/or skills.*

Before e-mailing the questionnaire to the target population, it was translated into Arabic, given that all respondents are Arabic speaking and hard for them to answer the questionnaire items written in English. The Arabic version was then translated into English to make sure of the authenticity of the Arabic version.

### **3.7.3 Selection of the Study Sample and Method of Distributing the Questionnaire**

In this section, the procedure of contacting the academic and administrative staff of the Al Aqsa University and the method of distributing the questionnaire are explained.

The first step I (the researcher) took was to contact the Public Relations Department of the Al Aqsa University after having obtained their telephone number from the University Website. I introduced myself to the staff of the Public Relations Department and asked for their help to forward an e-mail from me to all University Staff (academics and administrators), in which I have attached a questionnaire in Arabic Language, a letter in Arabic introducing myself and the University of Glamorgan, and the subject of the topic under investigation.

The Public Relations staff welcomed me and indicated their willingness and readiness to help me, especially when I explained to them that the research concerns their University and that they will benefit from it.

The Public Relations Department refers me to the Staff Affairs Department (HR Department) to follow up the matter. After I explained to them the situation, they also welcomed me and indicated their willingness to help me. Nonetheless, they apologised indicating that the University does not have such an advanced electronic system that enables them and me to send an e-mail to all academic and administrative staff members. Instead, they suggested an alternative solution that they have personal e-mails of all staff members found in their personal files and also there is also available electronic database of all staff e-mails. They also indicated that they can send me this list of e-mails, which would enable me to send the questionnaire to each staff member individually. I told them that is an excellent idea and asked them to send me the list and provided them with my e-mail address and my mobile phone number. Three days later I received an e-mail from an employee in Technology Information Department of the Al Aqsa University telling me that he was asked to send me the list of e-mail which consists of all staff e-mails. I

immediately contacted him and thanked him for his assistance. I also contacted the HR Department and thanked them for their help.

A few days later I sent the Arabic version of the questionnaire along with a letter, also in Arabic, intruding myself and the study topic under investigation to all staff members of the Al Aqsa University, through several e-mails, as I could not send them all in one e-mail due to the limited capacity of the e-mail.

Later on, I contacted the Public Relations Department asking for their help in prompting the University staff, using their internal communication channels, to respond to the questionnaire and to send completed questionnaire to me due to the benefits to the University. They promised me to do so.

In fact, I started receiving e-mails with completed questionnaire from the first day and this went on for two months on a daily basis. After the two month period, I terminated my e-mails, and thanked the Public Relations Department for their help and assistance. Then, I started analysing the questionnaires which I received over that two month period.

### **3.8 Research Methods**

Rubin and Babbie (2011) argue that various research purposes, and possibly various philosophical assumptions, can direct researchers to select between two overarching approaches, hitherto frequently complementary approaches to scientific enquiry; namely, quantitative methods and qualitative methods. McNabb (2010, p. 15) argues that the “*positivist approach is usually referred to as a quantitative research.*” The present thesis is positivist, deductive and quantitative in nature (see Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1); hence, the focus of this thesis is on the quantitative methods. Deductivism is discussed in Section 3.4.

### 3.8.1 Quantitative Methods

Quantitative research, as defined by Punch (2005, p. 3) “*is empirical research where that data are in the form of numbers.*” Blaxter et al. (2010, p. 65) argue that quantitative research have a tendency to involve relatively large-scale and representative sets of data, and is frequently, as they perceive it wrongly in their view, presented or perceived as being concerned with the collection of ‘facts’. In the present thesis, while all of the administrative and academic personnel were involved by sending them electronic questionnaire, only those who have taken part in training were considered, given that they answered positively to Q.11 of Part One of the Questionnaire, as indicated earlier in this chapter (Section 3.7.2).

Quantitative research methods were initially developed in natural sciences to investigate natural phenomena (Myers, 2009; Leimeister, 2010). Quantitative methods are at present well accepted in the social science, and examples include survey methods, laboratory experiments, formal and numerical methods such as mathematical modelling (Myers, 2009; Leimeister, 2010). In quantitative research the positivist paradigm is meaningful, in contrast to qualitative research which has a number of key epistemological paradigms (Straub et al., 2005; Leimeister, 2010). Quantitative researchers give emphasis to numbers more than anything else; in other words, the numbers amount to representing values and levels of theoretical constructs and concepts and the analysis of such numbers is perceived as strong scientific evidence of how a phenomenon works (Straub et al., 2005; Myers, 2009; Leimeister, 2010). In addition, the majority of quantitative researchers employ statistical tools and packages to analyse their data (Myers, 2009; Leimeister, 2010).

Quantitative methods are argued to highlight the generation of accurate and generalisable statistical outcomes and are usually more appropriate to nomothetic aims (Rubin and



Babbie, 2010). Nomothetic methods “*aim to identify general pattern of behaviour across people*” (Conner et al, 2007, p. 81). Thomas (2003) argues in the same vein, maintaining that quantitative methods are those that are characterised by using numbers and statistical methods, or seeking explanations and predictions that will generalise to other people and place. Thomas (2003) also maintains that researchers are not of the same opinion in defining quantitative methods.

Goertz and Mahoney (2012, p. 3), while considering what they called the two cultures; that is, quantitative and qualitative research, indicate that researchers frequently end up taking into consideration “*how lesser-known and implicit qualitative assumptions and practices differ from well-known and carefully codified quantitative ones.*” They add that such an approach is a consequence of the fact that when quantitative methods are compared to qualitative methods, quantitative methods “*are more explicitly and systematically developed in the social methods*” (Goertz and Mahoney, 2012, p. 3). Quantitative methods are also reported (Goertz and Mahoney, 2012) to be better known than qualitative methods, and that the quantitative culture is undoubtedly the more dominant of the two cultures within the majority of social science fields.

Weathington et al. (2010, p. 526) differentiated between quantitative and qualitative research on the basis of two points of distinction. Quantitative research, according to Weathington et al. (2010, p. 526), is designed to empirically establish the existence and magnitude of differences between individuals and/or groups of individuals, whereas qualitative research is characteristically more focused on sense-making in purer sense. The second point of distinction is that while quantitative research is as well characteristically designed to test predetermined hypotheses which are formed on the basis of existing theory

(a deductive process), qualitative research often serves to develop theory from the data which are collected (an inductive process) (Weathington et al., 2010, p. 526).

Based on the discussion above, this thesis is quantitative in nature, using questionnaires, to generate numeric data relating to the evaluation of staff training in Al-Aqsa University.

### **3.9 Data Compilation and Analysis**

Data provided by the study respondents in response to the questionnaire items were compiled and compiled data were presented in both tabulated and graphical forms. Discussion relating to the questionnaire development and the format of the final version of the questionnaire sent electronically to the academics and administrators of the Al Aqsa University is explained in Sections 3.7, 3.7.1 (questionnaire piloting) and Section 3.7.2. Samples of the questionnaire questions and items are also provided in Section 3.7.2. A copy of the final version of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix VII. Data in tables and figures were expressed as frequencies and percentages. Tables and figures helped in analysing the study findings, as shown in the following chapter; Chapter Four (Analysis of Findings According to Posts). Data and information provided by the academics and the administrators were presented separately in order to identify the pattern of responses of each group of respondents in terms of agreement or disagreement concerning the topics investigated.

#### **3.9.1 Statistical Analysis of Quantitative Data**

As indicated earlier (Section 3.8.1) responses to questionnaire items are statistically analysed, in line with the literature which indicates that the majority of quantitative researchers employ statistical tools and packages to analyse their data (Myers, 2009; Leimeister, 2010).

Responses to questionnaire items were also statistically analysed using SPSS analysis methods, including one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test, F-test, and student's t-test. ANOVA test, *F* test and *t* test were used in order to know whether or not there are any significant differences in responses to the various questionnaire items between the academics and the administrators, and also whether there are any significant differences in the responses of these two groups of respondents according to gender, age, and other variables.

ANOVA “*is a method that allows us to compare the mean score of a continuous (or ordinal variable with many scale points) variable between a number of groups*” (Muijs, 2011, p. 175). For example, in the case of the present study, we estimate the significance of comparing the means of academics and administrators attending different types of training (Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3). Andrew et al. (2011, p. 230) maintain that one-way ANOVA “*tests the significance of a group differences between two or more groups.*”

Lee et al. (2000, p. 486) indicate that in ANOVA the *F* test is employed to test whether the means of two or more groups are significantly different. They add that it operates by means of breaking down the variance of the two or more populations into components, which are then used to create the sample statistics—hence, the term *analysis of variance*.

Black (2010, p. 413) refers to the t-test of independent sample as “*a special case of one-way ANOVA when there are only two treatment levels ( $df_c - 1$ ).*” The *t* test is performed when the samples are unrelated, with different participants in each sample (Hinton et al., 2004). In the case of the present study the two unrelated samples are represented by academics and administrators; hence, the *t* test for two unrelated means (academics and administrators) was used. This test “*is used to determine if the means of two unrelated samples differ. It does this by comparing the difference between the two means with the*

*standard error of the difference in the means of different samples*” (Bryman and Cramer, 2009, p. 175). Results of the ANOVA test, *F*-test and *t*-test are presented in a tabulated form, analysed and discussed in Chapter Four.

## 3.10 Values and Ethics

### 3.10.1 Validity and Reliability

Issues relating to reliability and validity are considered in this section. Validity and reliability are identical concepts that present the standards by which researchers have to decide upon their selection of research methods (Taylor et al., 2006).

Due to the susceptibility of the measurement process to error, quantitative researchers have to assess whether the measurement procedures they want to use satisfactorily avoid systematic and random sources of error prior to implement their surveys (Rubin and Babbie, 2010). Rubin and Babbie (2010) argue that this characteristically necessitate assessing whether the measurement processes hold adequate levels of reliability and validity. Taylor et al. (2006, p. 2) indicate that by validity it is “*meant the success of a method in probing and/or assessing what it sets out to probe or assess;*” maintaining that if a method is valid then differences in the findings between individuals or groups can be regarded as representing the differences in the characteristics surveyed.

There are four key approaches for assessing validity: *face validity*, *content validity*, *predictive validity (criterion-related validity)* and *construct validity* (Taylor et al., 2006).

When a measure entails an attitude scale and its items can be seen as having a common pertinent theme, then the measure has *face validity* (Taylor et al., 2006). Another requirement the scale items should, between them, comprise all conceptual domain of the attitude under investigation; then the measure is argued to have *content validity* (Taylor et al., 2006). In situations where a measure logically has to be an indicator of an observable criterion, the measure’s validity can be evaluated by observing how good an indicator the measure is; this is referred to as *predictive validity* [also referred to as *criterion-related validity* or *concurrent validity*] (Taylor et al., 2006). The fourth type of validity is

*construct validity*, the real meaning of which is to scrutinise the extent of correlation between the measure in question and other measures for which the researcher can envisage the level of correlation on appropriate theoretical grounds (Taylor et al., 2006).

Reliability is described as the “*degree of consistency in measurement (impeded by random error)*” (Rubin and Babbie, 2010, p. 82). It is argued to have to do with the amount of random error in a measurement, and the more reliable the measure, the less random error in it; however, reliability does not guarantee accuracy (Rubin and Babbie, 2010). The most common and powerful method utilised to calculate internal consistency reliability is *coefficient alpha*. Internal consistency reliability is the “*degree to which scores among scale items, or scores among subsets of items, correlate with each other*” (Rubin and Babbie, 2010, p. 82), whereas coefficient alpha is the “*average of the correlations between the scores of all possible subsets of half the items on a scale*” (Rubin and Babbie, 2010, p. 83). To guarantee that the questionnaire employed is reliable, coefficient alpha was determined.

### **3.10.2 Ethical Approach of the Study**

Balxter et al. (2006) argue that carrying out ethically social research is the objective of social researchers, and that ethical issues takes place mostly in research designs that employ qualitative approaches to data collection. The present thesis employs only quantitative methods. Consequently, the confidentiality and anonymity of participants are observed, as their consent to participate in the study is obtained and are given the right to withdraw their participation. By doing this, their privacy is protected (Saunders et al., 2007). Confidentiality and anonymity are two imperative issues (Saunders et al., 2007). To achieve these two ethical issues, the researcher made every effort to protect the rights of his study participants, and secure their anonymity so that the participants will not

encounter any consequences which may hurt them in any way. Before carrying out questionnaire survey the researcher will obtain the Al-Aqsa University Authorities' consent to perform the field study and to have access to its staff.

Johnson and Christensen (2012, p. 99) refer to ethics as “*the principles and guidelines that help us uphold the things we value.*” They identify three basic approaches to ethics; namely, deontology, ethical scepticism and utilitarianism. The focus in this thesis is on the utilitarianism, which is defined by Johnson and Christensen (2012, p. 99) as follows: “*An ethical approach that says judgements of the ethics of a study depend on the consequences the study has for the research participants and the benefits that might arise from the study.*” Given that this thesis used a questionnaire, asking the respondents about their training and development, it can be argued that no consequences can be harmful to these respondents, since their anonymity is guaranteed, and the nature of questions were not in any form or shape harmful to the well-being of the respondents. Furthermore, the benefits that might arise from this thesis outweigh any consequences or repercussions to the respondents. Johnson and Christensen (2012, p. 100) illustrated this type of ethical approaches, as presented in Figure 3.3.

Johnson and Christensen (2012, p. 99) refer to deontological approach is an “*ethical approach which says ethical issues must be judged on the basis of some universal code,*” and ethical skepticism as an “*ethical approach that says concrete and inviolate moral codes cannot be formulated.*”

### **Costs Resulting From Study**

Harm to participants  
Expense of study  
Time required of participants  
Time required of researchers, etc.

### **Benefits Resulting From Study**

Benefits to participants  
Advancement of knowledge  
Benefit to society  
Improvement of educational system, etc.

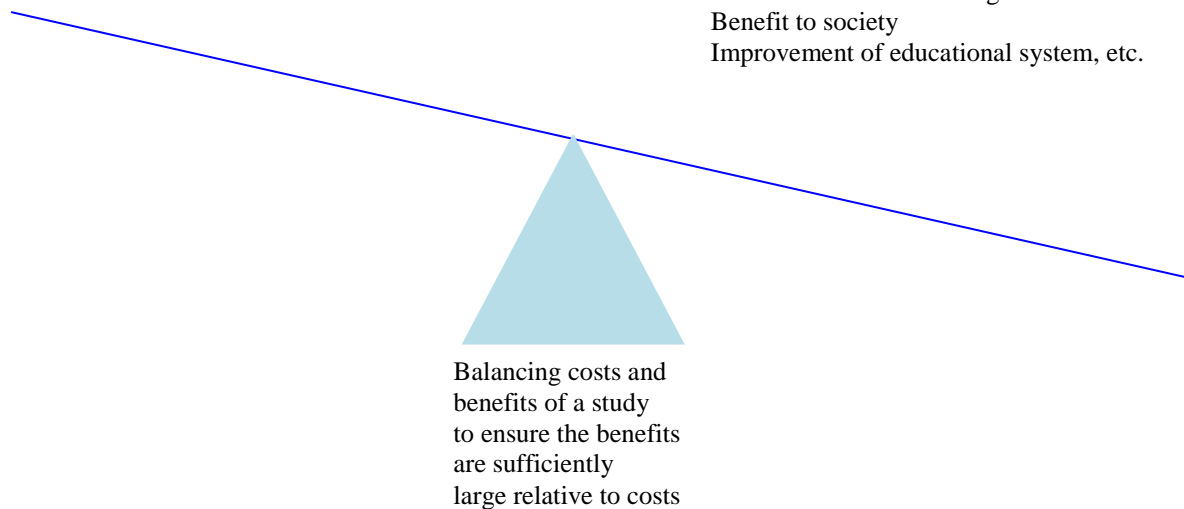


Figure 3.3. Utilitarian approach to judging the ethical acceptability of a research study.  
(Source: Johnson and Christensen, 2012, p. 100)

### **3.11 Summary**

This chapter provides an overall background of the important issues relating to research methodology and research methods. The discussion above identifies positivism (epistemology) and objectivism (ontology) as the two paradigms adopted for the operationalisation in the present thesis. The logic of the present thesis was also identified as deductivist. Research questions were formulated in relation to research aim and objectives. As regards the research methodology, the present thesis adopted the survey methodology, involving a single organisation investigative study (Al Aqsa University). In terms of research design, a questionnaire was designed, piloted, amended in the light of the pilot study findings, and translated into Arabic prior to its distribution to the target



population (Al Aqsa University academics and administrative staff members). As regards the research methods, this thesis adopted quantitative methods and deductive approach. Data and information gathered in response to answering questionnaire items by the study population were compiled and analysed and presented as frequencies and percentages as tables and figures, and statistically analysed using ANOVA test, F-test, and student's t-test. Finally study values and ethics (validity and reliability, and ethical approach of the study) were discussed. The focus in this thesis was on the utilitarianism, one of the three ethical approaches identified by Johnson and Christensen (2012); the other two include deontology and ethical scepticism.

In conclusion, this thesis is positivist, objectivist, deductivist, applying the survey research methodology and employing a questionnaire to collect data from the target population, as well as being quantitative in nature.

## Chapter Four

### Analysis of Findings According to Academic Staff Members

#### 4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to analyse the findings of the questionnaire survey relating to training provided by the Al-Aqsa University and the evaluation of training programmes, according to the responses of the academic staff members. In the following chapter (Chapter Five. Analysis of Findings According to Administrative Staff Members), analysis of the responses of the administrative staff members is undertaken.

A questionnaire was sent electronically to all academic staff members of the Al-Aqsa University. Of the 370 questionnaires sent to the academics, 290 were returned, of which 59 questionnaires were not valid, thus, rejected because they were only partially answered, and the main items relating to training and evaluation of training were not answered. 231 questionnaires were completed by the academics; thus, were considered valid. This number represents a return rate of 62.4%, which is a good response rate (Rubin and Babbie, 2011, p. 388). Response rate is defined as: *“The number of people participating in a survey divided by the number selected in the sample, in the form of percentage. This is also called the completion rate or, in self-administered surveys, the return rate: the percentage of questionnaire sent out that are returned”* (Babbie, 2010, p. 272). Shi (2008, p. 204) maintains that a 50% response rate is generally acceptable for mailed questionnaires. It is possible that most of the staff who did not participate might be those who have not been trained during the past five years, or might be reluctant to participate. The 62.4% response rate also means that more than three-fifths of the total number of academic staff participated in the study. Furthermore, based on the numbers of academic staff members of the Al-Aqsa University indicated in Chapter One (Section 1.5. The Al-

Aqsa University: An Overview) and the numbers of respondents academics, 62% of the academics have participated in the present thesis. This is high participations which allow generalisation of the findings to the whole population of the academic staff members.

Responses to the survey are analysed in four parts. Part One: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics. Part Two: Findings Relating to Training Provided and Evaluation of Training Programmes. Part Three: Findings Relating to Management Support for Training and Development and Perceived Benefits of Training. Part Four: Findings Relating to Perceived Importance of, and Satisfaction with, Pre- and Post-Training Activities.

### **Part One: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics**

The greater majority of the responding academics, 185, were males (80.1% of the responses), and the remaining 46 academics were females (19.9% of the responses) (Table 4.1, Figure 4.1). This indicates male dominance and that the majority of academic posts are occupied by male staff members.

Table 4.1. Distribution of the respondents, according to their job and gender

	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Male</i>	185	80.1
<i>Female</i>	46	19.9
<i>Total</i>	231	100.0

The majority of the academics involved in the study were between 31 and 40 year old (106, 45.9% of the responses) and over 40 year old (87, 37.7% of the responses). A minority of 17 academics (7.4% of the responses) were between 21 and 25 year old and 21 academics (9.1% of the responses) were between 26 and 25 year old (Table 4.2, Figure 4.2).

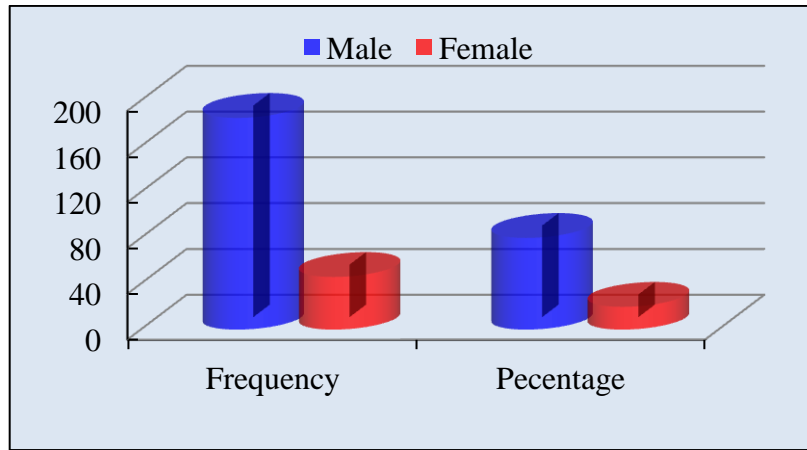


Figure 4.1. Distribution of academic staff respondents, according to their gender.

Table 4.2. Distribution of the respondent sample, according to their age

	21-25	26-30	31-40	Over 40	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	17	21	106	87	231
<b>Percentage</b>	7.4	9.1	45.9	37.7	100.0

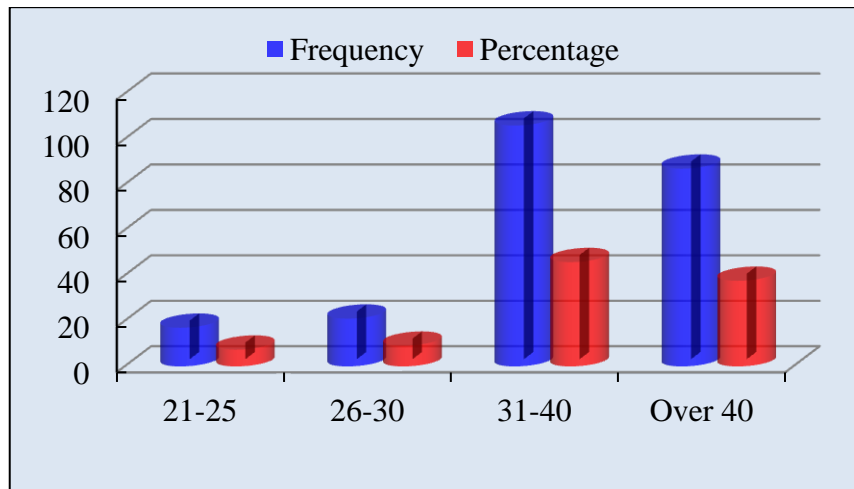


Figure 4.2. Distribution of the respondents according to their age.

As regards their qualifications, about two-thirds of the academics have a PhD degree (147, 63.6% of the responses) and the remaining 84 academics (36.4% of the responses) hold a Master's Degree (Table 4.3, Figure 4.3).

Table 4.3. Distribution of respondents according to their qualifications

	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
<i>Frequency</i>	0	0	84	147
<i>Percentage</i>	0	0	36.4	63.6

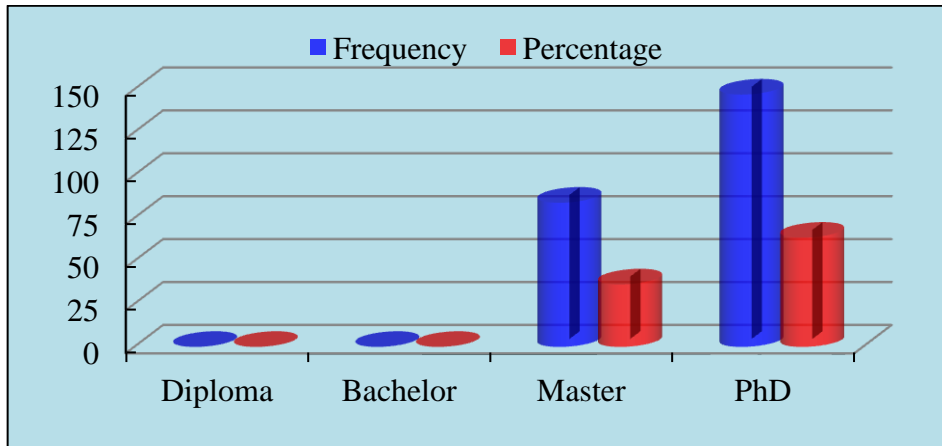


Figure 4.3. Distribution of respondents according to their qualifications.

In terms of the length of service at the University, the greater majority, 216, of the respondent academics (93.5% of the responses) had been working for the University for five or more years. A very small minority of two academics (0.9% of the responses) had been working for four years, and five others (2.2% of the responses) and eight (3.5% of the responses) have been working for 2 years and 3 years, respectively (Table 4.4, Figure 4.4). This indicates that the majority of academic staff members are well established.

Table 4.4. Distribution of respondents according to their length of service

	2 Years	3 Years	4 Years	5 Years and Over	Total
<i>Frequency</i>	5	8	2	216	231
<i>Percentage</i>	2.2	3.5	0.9	93.5	100.0

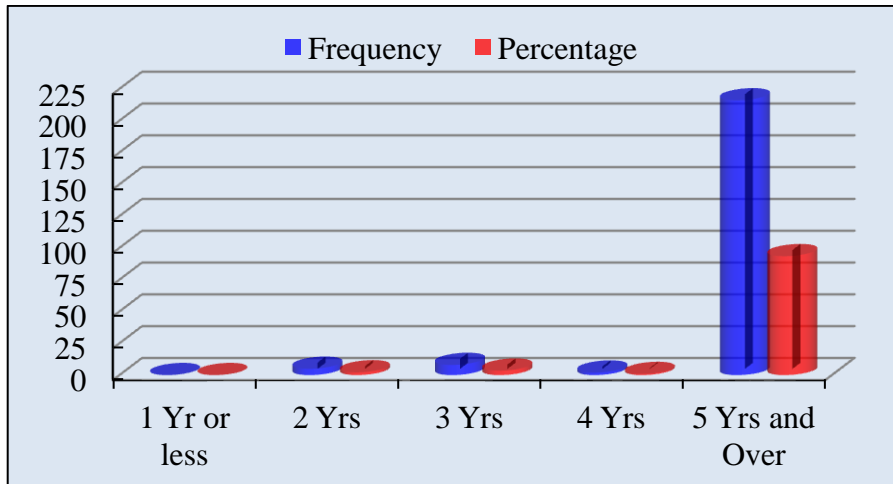


Figure 4.4. Distribution of respondents according to their length of service.

## **Part Two: Findings Relating to Training Provided and Evaluation of Training Programmes**

### **A. Training Provided by the University**

This part of the study analyses the pattern of responses to Part Two of the Questionnaire. Part Two consists of fourteen items. Responses to the questionnaire items relating to training provided by the Al-Aqsa University and the evaluation of training programmes are analysed in this chapter.

#### **4.2 Types of Training**

Respondents were asked three questions (Q6-Q8) concerning the type of training provided for them by the University. With regard to Type 1 Training (Q.6: *Have you attended any initial or induction type of training when you first joined the University, or when you moved to a new job?*), more than two-thirds of the academic staff, 158 out of 231 respondents (68.4% of the responses) indicated that they have attended Type 1 Training, whereas the remaining 73 respondent academics (31.6% of the responses) have not attended this type of training.

Table 4.5. Responses to attending Type 1 Training, Type 2 Training and Type 3 Training

		Yes	No	Total
<b><i>Type 1 Training</i></b>	Frequency	158	73	231
	Percentage	68.4	31.6	100.0
<b><i>Type 2 Training</i></b>	Frequency	159	72	231
	Percentage	68.8	31.2	100.0
<b><i>Type 3 Training</i></b>	Frequency	122	109	231
	Percentage	52.8	47.2	100.0

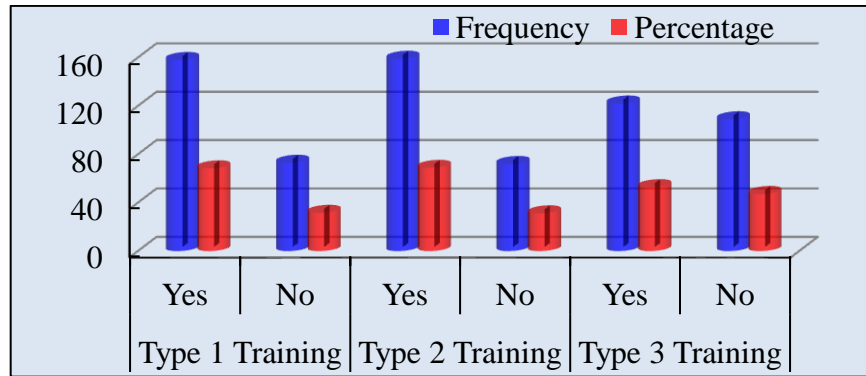


Figure 4.5. Pattern of responses to attending Type 1, Type 2 and Type 3 Training.

As regards attending Training Type 2 (*Q.7: Have you training related to your job (for example, as a lecturer, or administrator?)*), more than two-third of the academics, 159 (68.8% of the responses) indicated that they have attended this training (Table 4.5, Figure 4.5).

In response to attending Type 3 Training (*Q.8: Have you had any continuing types of training, such as using technology or for research development or other types of professional engagement?*), slightly more than half of the academics, 122 (52.8% of the responses) indicated that they had type 3 training; the remaining 109 respondent academics (47.2% the responses) indicated otherwise (Table 4.5, Figure 4.5).

### 4.3 Importance of Training to Performance at Work

The respondents were asked to rate the importance of training to their performance at work (*Q.9: How important do you think training provided by the university is to your performance at work?*). Data presented in Table 4.6 and illustrated in Figure 4.6 indicate that while about three-fifths of the academics, 136 out of 231 respondents (58.9% of the responses) indicated that training is either ‘very important’ or ‘important’, 40 academics (17.3% of the responses) referred to training as ‘not important’ to their performance at work, 35 respondents (23.8%) did not express their views (‘Neutral’).



Table 4.6. Responses to importance of training to performance at work

	Very Important	Important	Neutral	Not Important
<b>Frequency</b>	87	49	55	40
<b>Percentage</b>	37.7	21.2	23.8	17.3

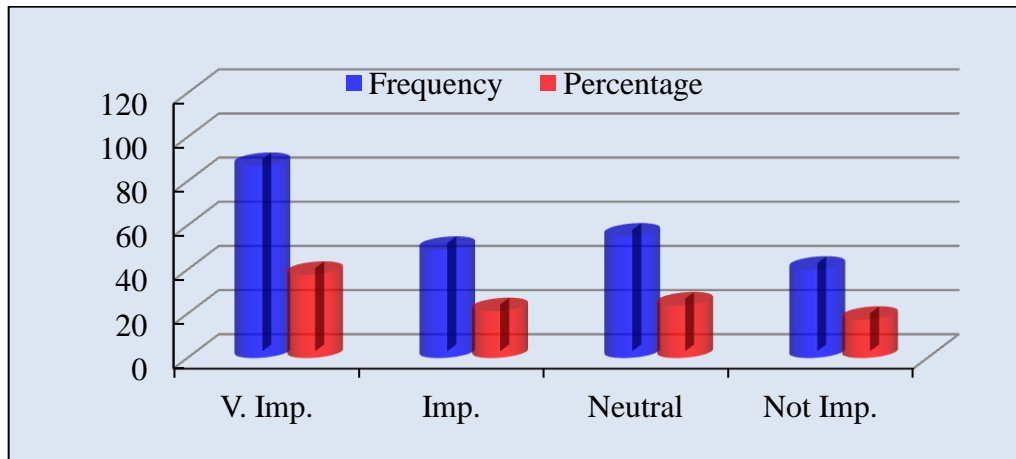


Figure 4.6. Pattern of responses to the importance of training to performance at work.

#### 4.4 Participation in All Types of Training

When asked whether they have participated in any of the three types of training, mentioned earlier during the past five years, (*Q10: Have you taken part in any of the 3 types training above within the last five years?*), about three-quarters of the academics, 169 (73.2% of the responses) indicated that they have participated in Types 1, 2 and 3 of training (Table 4.7, Figure 4.7). The remaining 62 academics (26.8% of the responses) did not participate in all three types of training.

Table 4.7. Responses to participating in all types of training

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	169	62	231
<b>Percentage</b>	73.2	26.8	100.0

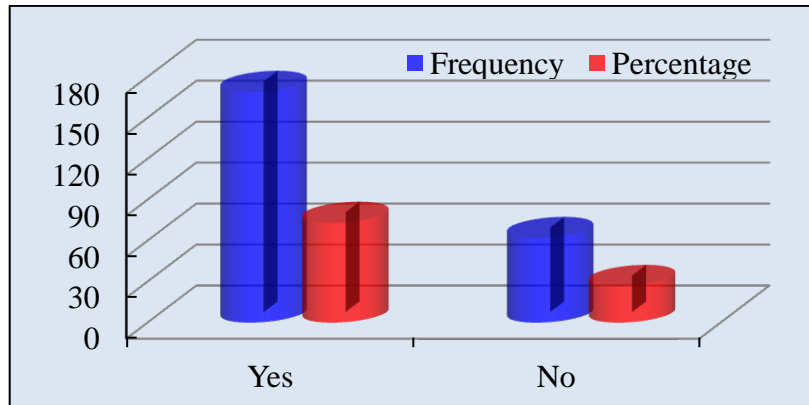


Figure 4.7. Pattern of responses to participating in all types of training.

#### 4.5 Participation in Other Types of Training

In response to whether the respondents have participated in other types of training other than the three types mentioned above (*Q11: Have you taken part in any other type of training not specifically referred to in the above categories, for example, professional or personal development?*), about two-thirds of the academics, 147 (63.7% of the responses) indicated that they have not participated in any other training (Table 4.8, Figure 4.8).

Table 4.8. Responses to participating in other types of training

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	84	147	231
<b>Percentage</b>	36.4	63.6	100.0

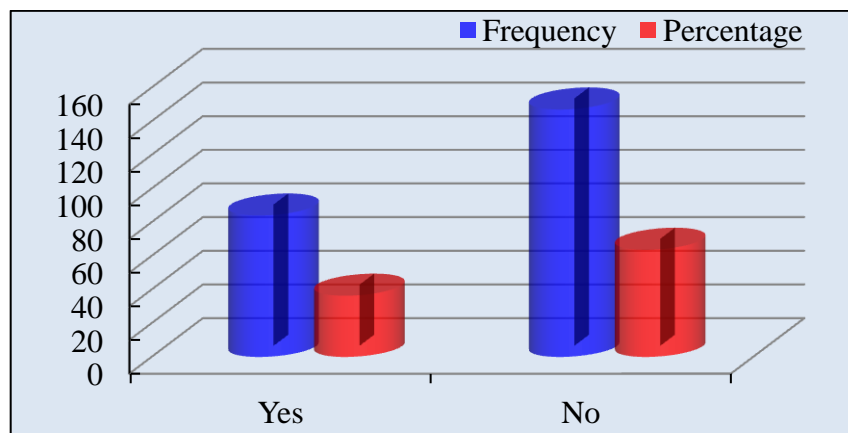


Figure 4.8. Pattern of responses to participating in other types of training.

## 4.6 Identification of Training Needs

The respondent academics were asked about how their training needs were identified (*Q.12: How was the training referred above identified?*). Data presented in Table 4.9 and illustrated in Figure 4.9 indicate that 98 academics' (33.7% of the responses) training needs were mostly identified by the University. While training needs of many academics (43, 18.9% of the responses), were identified by their heads of department, and more academics (51, 21.9% of the responses), have identified their training needs themselves. Managers' identifications of training needs was referred to 59 academics (25.4% of the responses).

Table 4.9. Responses to how respondents' training needs were identified

	Self	Manager	Head of Department	University
<b>Frequency</b>	51	59	43	78
<b>Percentage</b>	21.9	25.4	18.9	33.7

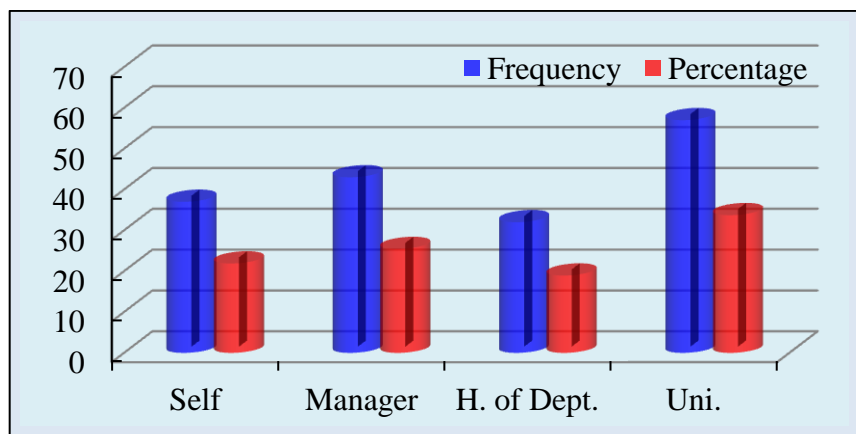


Figure 4.9. Pattern of responses to how respondents' training needs were identified.

## 4.7 University's Staff Appraisal System

The respondents were asked whether the University has its system of appraising its staff (*Q.13. Does the University have a system of staff appraisal?*). The majority of the

academics, 172 (74.6% of the responses) indicated that the University have a system for staff appraisal (Table 4.10, Figure 4.10).

Table 4.10. Responses to whether the University have a system of staff appraisal

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	172	59	231
<b>Percentage</b>	74.6	25.4	100.0

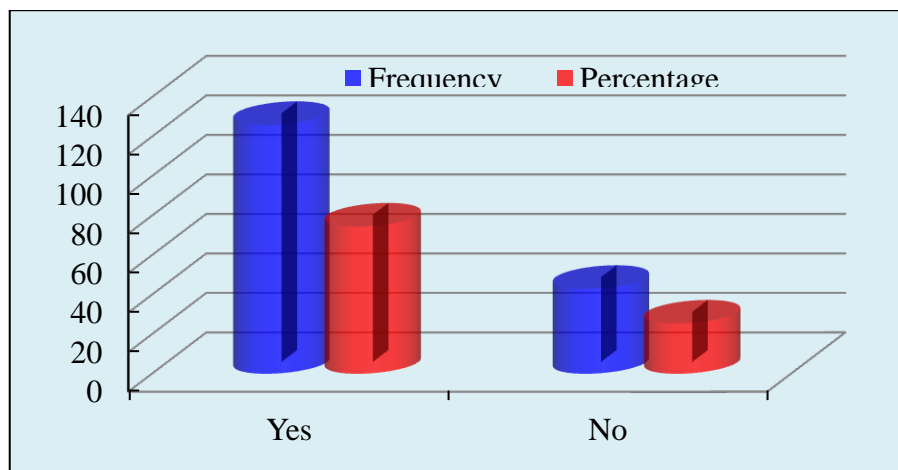


Figure 4.10. Pattern of responses to whether the University have a system of staff appraisal.

#### 4.8 Staff Discussion with Their Immediate Managers Concerning Their Development/Training Needs

The respondents were asked whether they have discussed their development/training needs with their immediate superiors in the past five years (*Q.14 and Q.15: Have you discussed your development/training needs with your immediate superior/head of department/manager in the last five years?*). Most of the academics, 144 (62.3% of the responses), indicated that they have discussed their training needs once with their superiors, and many others, 75 (32.5% of the responses) have discussed this issue with their superiors more than three times. Only 12 academics (5.2% of the responses) have discussed it twice and none of them have discussed it three times (Table 4.11, Figure 4.11).

Table 4.11 Responses to how often staff discuss their development/training needs with their managers

	Once	Twice	Three Times	More than three times
<b>Frequency</b>	144	12	0	75
<b>Percentage</b>	62.3	5.2	0.0	32.5

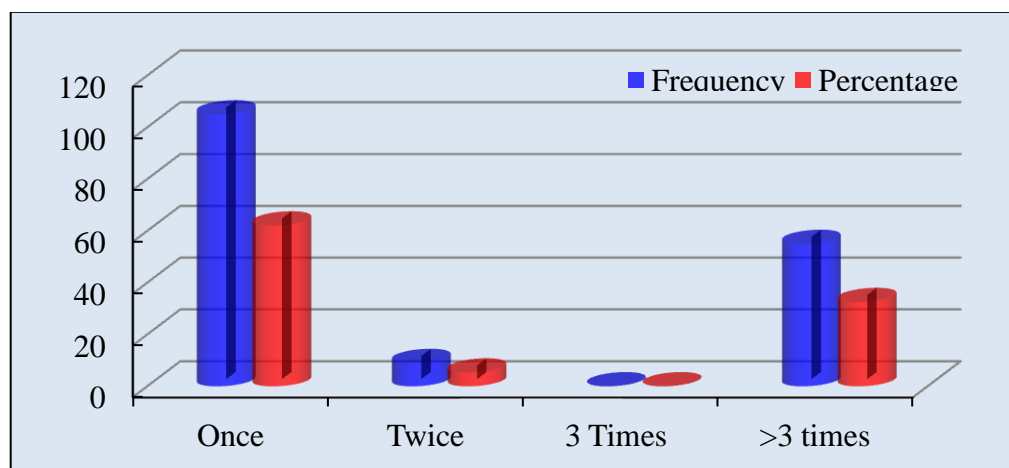


Figure 4.11 Pattern of responses to how often staff discuss their development/training needs with their managers.

## 4.9 Type of Training

The respondents were asked about type of training they had during the past five years (*Q.16: What kind of training have you attended?*). About three-quarters of the academics (170, 74.0% of the responses) indicated that they attended on-the-job training courses; the remaining 61 academics (26.0% of the responses) had off-the-job training (Table 4.12, Figure 4.12).

Table 4.12 Responses to types of training taken during the past five years

	On-the Job	Off-the-Job
<b>Frequency</b>	170	61
<b>Percentage</b>	74.0	26.0

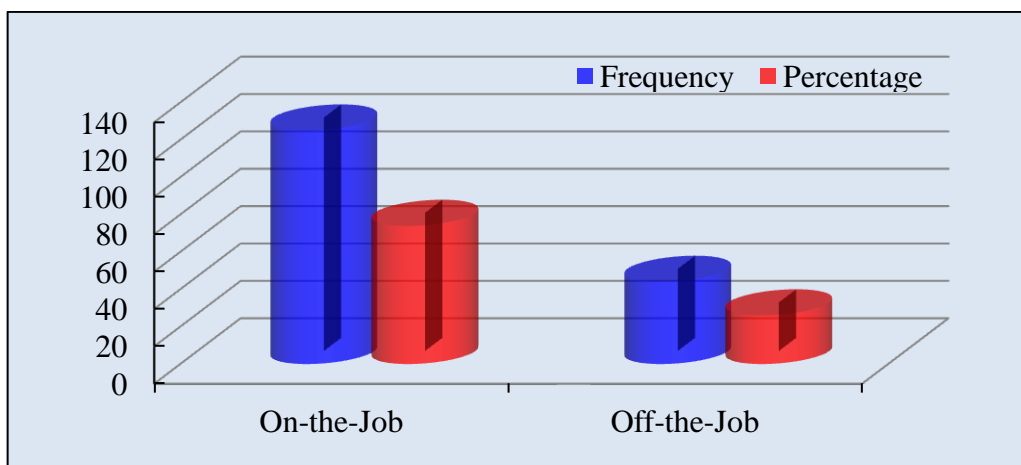


Figure 4.12. Pattern of responses to types of training taken during the past five years.

When asked whether off-the-training was locally attended or abroad (*Q17: If training was off-the-job, was it: local, or abroad?*), all academics (61 in total) indicated that they had their off-the-job training abroad.

#### 4.10 Types of Training Materials Received

When asked about the kind of training material they have received during training (*Q18: What kind of training materials did you receive?*), most of the academics, 90 (39.1% of the responses) have been provided with either ‘professional’ training materials or ‘academic’ training material (34.3% of the responses) (Table 4.13 Figure 5.13). Slightly less than one-fifth of the academics, 44 (18.9% of the responses) received ‘technical’ training materials, and some of them, 18 (7.7% of the responses) received ‘computer training’ materials.

#### 4.13 Responses to the type of training materials provided

	Academic	Technical	Professional	Computer Training
<b>Frequency</b>	79	44	90	18
<b>Percentage</b>	34.3	18.9	39.1	7.7

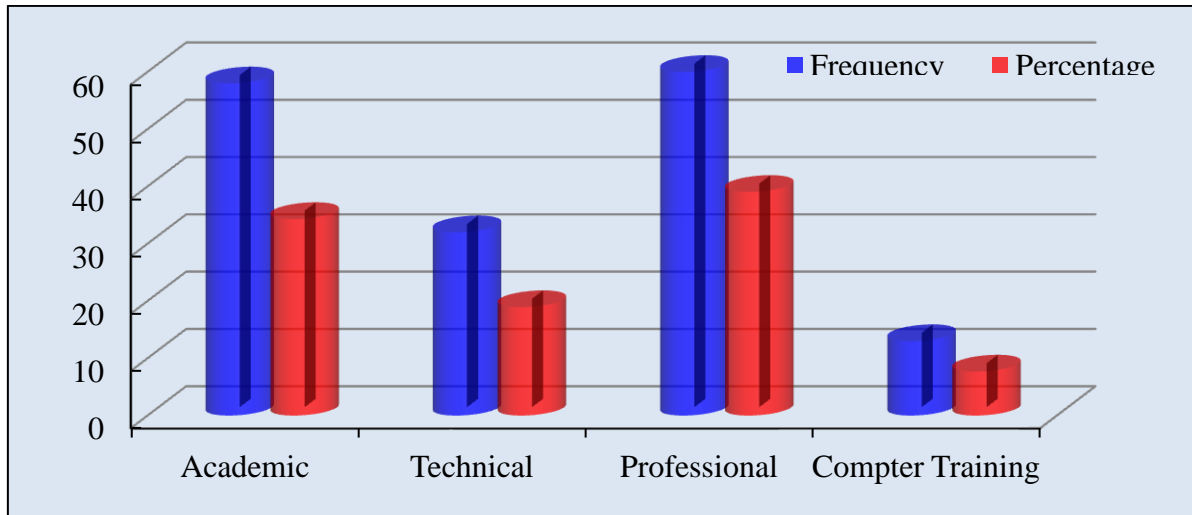


Figure 4.13 Pattern of responses to the type of training materials provided.

#### 4.11 Relevance of Training Materials to Respondents' Job

The respondents were asked about the relevance of the training materials to their jobs (*Q19: How were training materials relevant to your job?*). The majority of the academics indicated that the training materials were either 'very relevant', 135 (58.6% of this group of academics), or 'relevant', 52 (22.5% of this group) to their jobs. A minority of the academics indicated that such materials were irrelevant to their jobs, but many of them, 29 (12.4% of this group) indicated that they were 'not at all relevant' to their jobs (Table 4.14, Figure 4.14).

Table 4.14 Responses to the relevance of training materials to job

	Very Relevant	Relevant	Irrelevant	Not at All Relevant
<i>Frequency</i>	135	52	15	29
<i>Percentage</i>	58.6	22.5	6.5	12.4

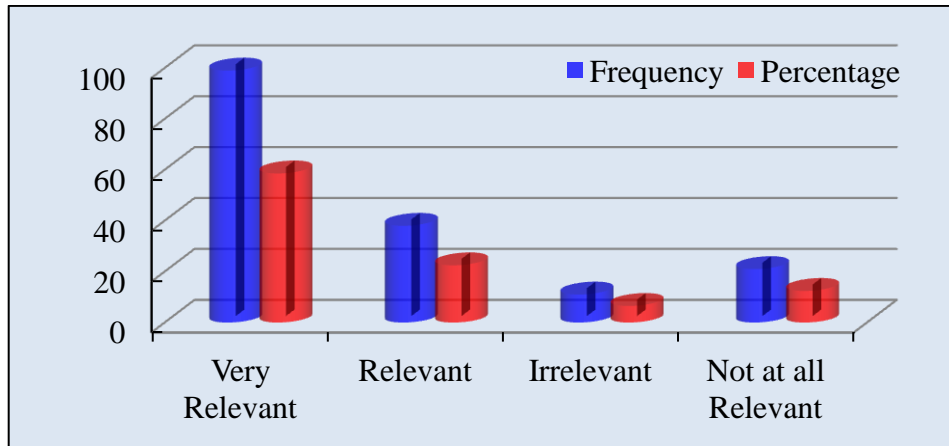


Figure 4.14 Pattern of responses to the relevance of training materials to job.

#### 4.12 Summary of Section A: Training Provided by the University

More of the academics who participated in the study indicated that they have attended Type 1, Type 2 and Type 3 training. As regards participation in all three types of training, many of the academics have attended all the three training types. The findings above also indicate that a number of the academics have attended other types of training. It seems that training needs were mainly identified the University for both academics and administrators. The majority of the academics indicated that the University have a system for their appraisal.

The findings presented above in this section indicate that the academics have discussed their development/training needs with their managers mainly on one occasion.

The majority of the academics have attended on-the-job training courses. All academics who have attended off-the-job training courses did so abroad.

As regards the type of training materials provided, most of the academics indicated that they have been provided with professional. 'Technical' training materials have been provided to the academics. Most of the academics thought that training materials were relevant to their jobs.



## B. Evaluation of Training Programmes

### 4.13 Clarity of What Is Wanted to Get out of Training Prior to Attending

The respondents were asked whether they were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before they attended training courses (Q20: *Were you clear about what you wanted to get out of the training before attending?*). Data presented in Table 4.15 and Figure 4.15 clearly indicate that the majority of both the academics, 201 (87.0% of the responses) were clear of what they wanted to get out of training prior to attending training courses. This was identified through appraisal, as indicated earlier in this chapter (Section 4.7).

Table 4.15. Responses to whether the respondents were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before attending training courses

	Yes	No	Total
<i>Frequency</i>	201	30	231
<i>Percentage</i>	87.0	13.0	100.0

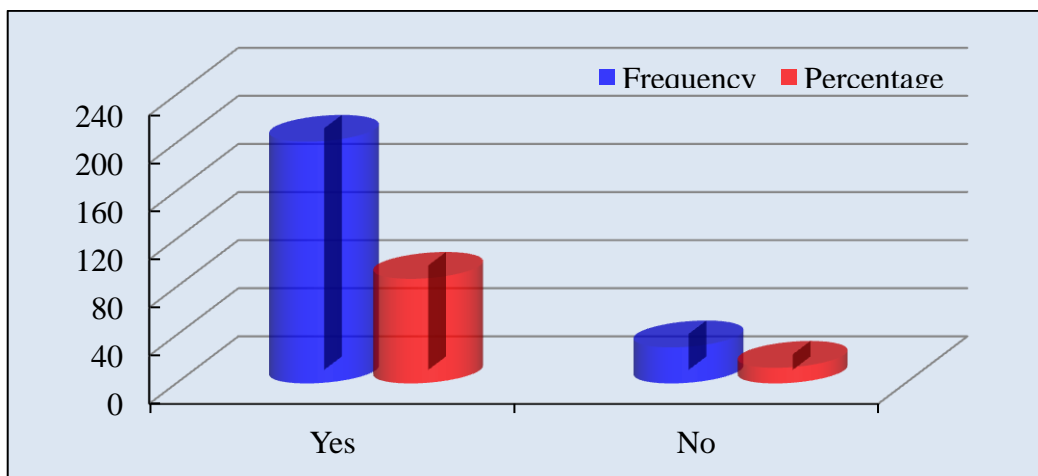


Figure 4.15. Pattern of responses to whether the respondents were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before attending training courses.

#### 4.14 Usefulness of Pre-joining Instructions/Information

The respondents were asked whether pre-joining instructions/information was informative (*Q21: How informative were the pre joining instructions/information?*). All academics indicated that pre-joining instruction/information was either ‘highly informative’ (85, 36.7% of the responses) or ‘informative’ (146, 63.3% of the responses) (Table 4.16, Figure 4.16).

Table 4.16 Responses to whether pre-joining instruction/information was informative

	Yes	No
<b>Frequency</b>	85	146
<b>Percentage</b>	36.7	63.3

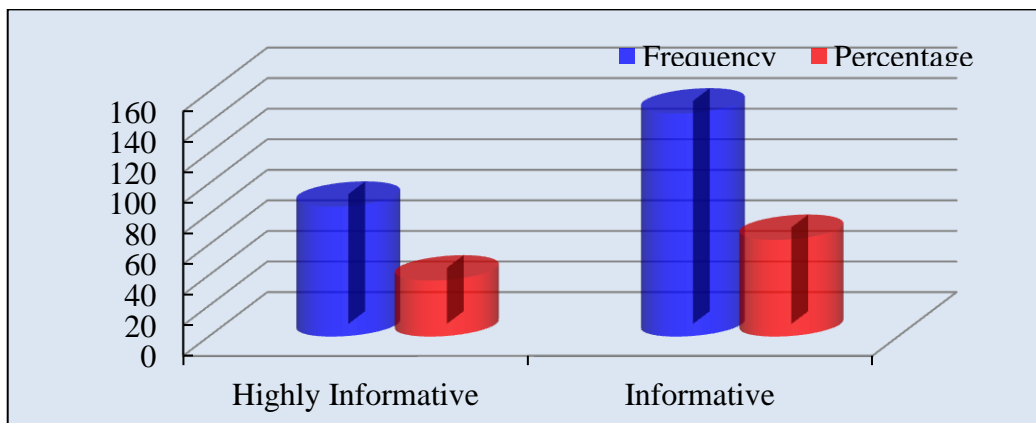


Figure 4.16 Pattern of responses to whether pre-joining instruction/information was informative.

#### 4.15 Relevance of Training

The respondents were asked about how relevant they found their training (*Q22: How relevant did you find the training?*). All academics who have attended training courses in the past five years found that their training either ‘highly relevant’, 52 (22.5% of the responses), or ‘relevant’, 179 (77.5% of the responses), (Table 4.17, Figure 4.17).

Table 5.17. Responses to the relevance of training

	Yes	No

<i>Frequency</i>	52	179
<i>Percentage</i>	22.5	77.5

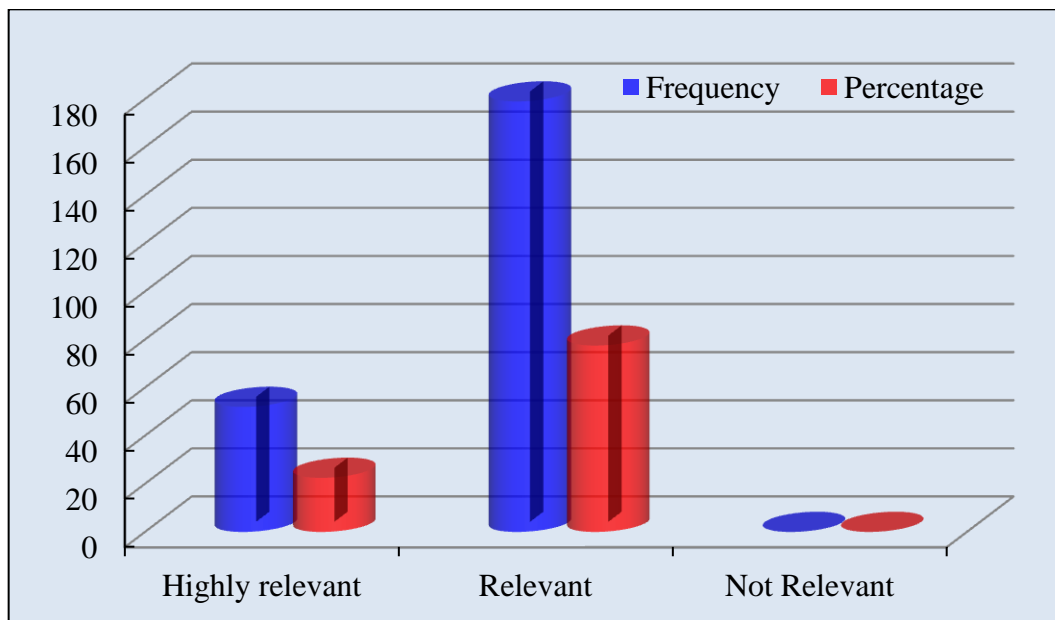


Figure 4.17. Pattern of responses to the relevance of training.

#### 4.16 Professionalism and Knowledge of the Trainers

When asked about their opinion of the trainers' professionalism and knowledge trainers (Q23: *In your opinion how professional/knowledgeable were the trainers?*), two-thirds of the academics who have attended training programmes during the past five years perceived their trainers as being either 'highly professional', 37 (16.0% of the responses) or 'professional', 116(50.3% of the responses) (Table 4.18, Figure 4.18). Slightly less than one-fifth of them did not express their views ('neutral'), and many others, 34 (14.8% of the responses), perceived their trainers as being 'not professional'.

Table 4.18 Responses to trainers' professionalism and knowledge

	Highly Professional	Professional	Neutral	Not Professional
<i>Frequency</i>	37	116	44	34
<i>Percentage</i>	16.0	50.3	18.9	14.8

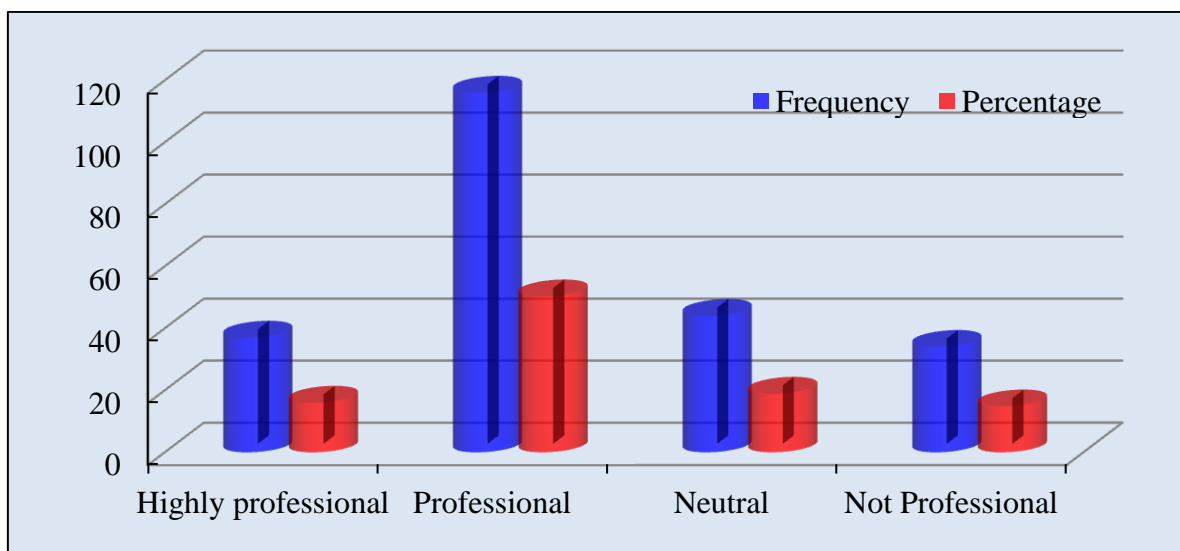


Figure 4.18 Pattern of responses to trainers' professionalism and knowledge.

#### 4.17 When the New Skills/Knowledge/Abilities Are Used

The respondents were asked whether they use new skills/knowledge/abilities (KSAs) immediately when the return to their work, use them later or not using them at all (*Q24: When you returned to work did you use the new skills/knowledge/abilities immediately or did you have to wait to use them?*). About two-fifths of the academics, 91 (39.6% of the responses) indicated that they used their new KSAs shortly after returning to work, whereas one-quarter of them, 58 (24.9% of the responses), used them immediately after returning to work (Table 4.19, Figure 4.19). Many academics also indicated that they used them 'some time after returning', 45 (19.5% of the responses) or 'a long time after returning' to work, and a minority of fourteen academics (5.9% of the responses) did not use them at all.

Table 4.19. Responses to when new skills/knowledge/abilities are used by the respondents after returning to work

	Immediately	Shortly After Training	Some Time After Returning	A Long Time After Returning	Not Using Them at All
<i>Frequency</i>	58	91	45	23	14

<b>Percentage</b>	24.9	39.6	19.5	10.1	5.9
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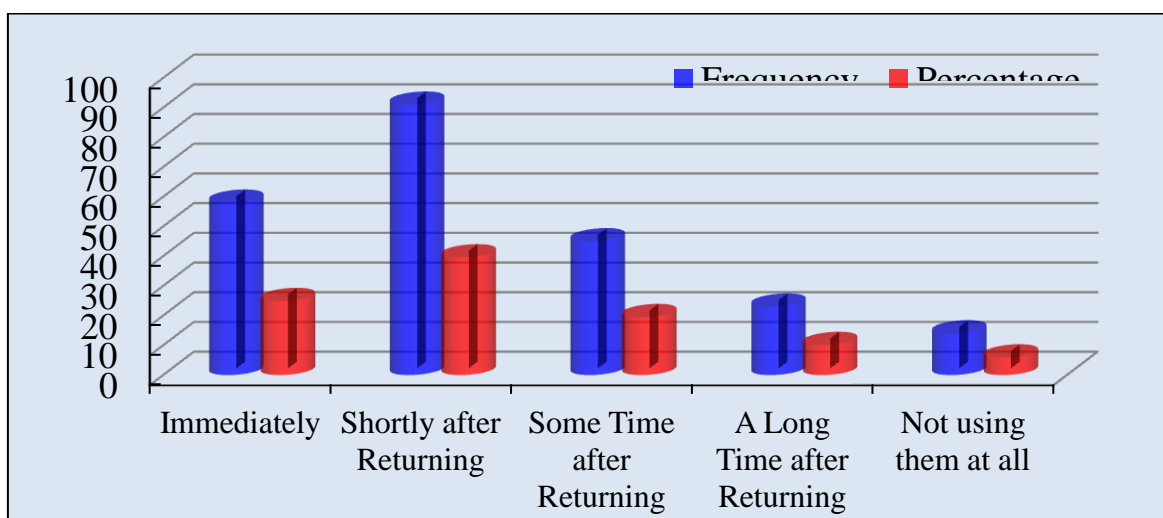


Figure 4.19. Pattern of responses to time when new skills/knowledge/abilities are used by the respondents after returning to work.

#### 4.18 Adequacy of the Length of Training Programmes

The respondents were asked whether the training programmes they attended were long enough (*Q25: Were the training programmes attended long enough?*). While around three-fifths of the academics, 126 (54.6% of the responses), indicated that the programmes were not long enough, more than two-fifths of the academics, 105 (45.4% of the responses), who perceived training programmes attended were long enough (Table 4.20, Figure 4.20).

Table 4.20. Responses to whether the training programmes were long enough

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	105	126	231
<b>Percentage</b>	54.6	45.4	100.0

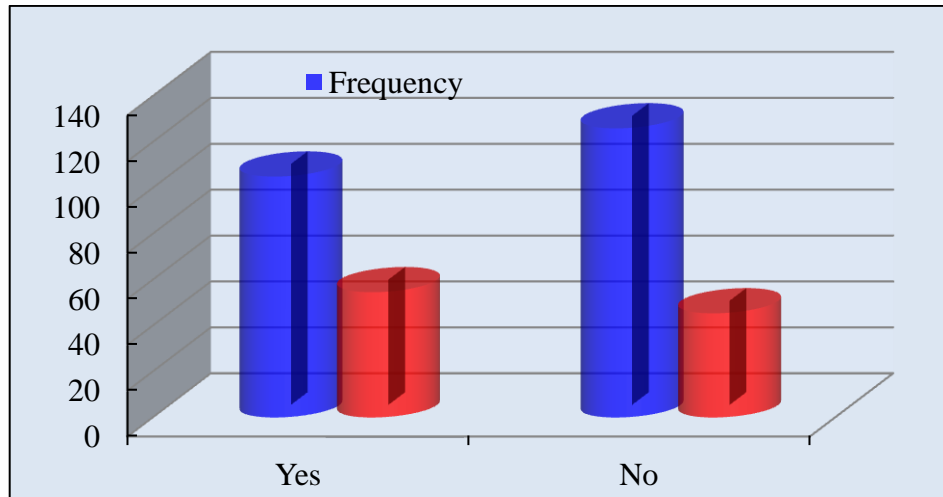


Figure 4.20. Pattern of responses to whether the training programmes were long enough.

#### 4.19 Discussing Training Programme Objectives with the Manager before Attending the Programme

The respondents were also asked if they have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme (*Q26: Did you discuss the objectives of the training programme with your manager before attending the programme?*). Around three-fifths of the academics 126 (58.6% of the responses), indicated that they have not discussed the objectives of training programmes with their managers before attending the programme (Table 4.21, Figure 4.21).

Table 4.21. Responses to whether or not the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	105	126	231
<b>Percentage</b>	41.4	58.6	100.0

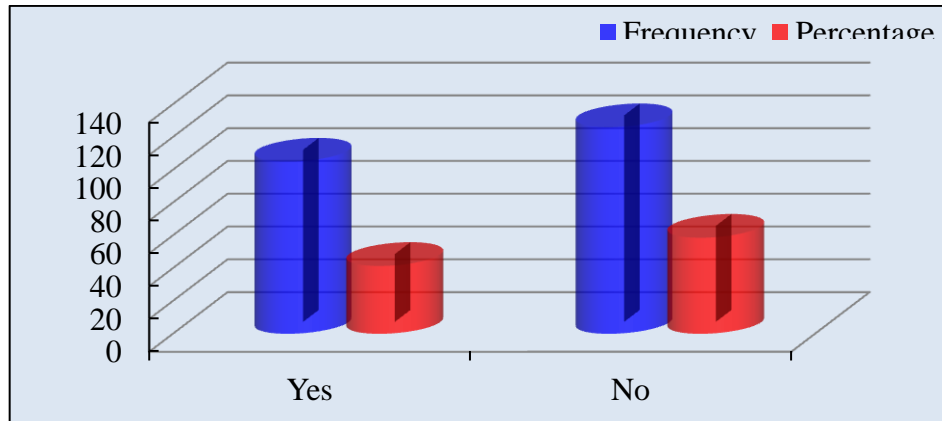


Figure 4.21. Pattern of responses to whether or not the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme

#### 4.20 Relevance of Training Programmes Objectives to Respondents' Jobs

When asked how the training programmes objectives were relevant to their job (*Q27: How relevant were the training programmes objectives to your job?*), the majority of academics indicated that training programme objectives were either 'very relevant', 156 (67.5% of the responses) or 'relevant', 31 (13.6% of the responses) (Table 4.221, Figure 4.22). Many academics, 32 (18.9% of the responses), thought of the objectives as 'neither relevant nor irrelevant' to their jobs, whereas none of the academics indicated that the objectives were 'not relevant' or 'very not irrelevant' to their jobs.

Table 4.22. Responses to relevance of the training programmes objectives to respondents' job

	Very Relevant	Relevant	Neither Relevant nor Irrelevant	Not Relevant	Very Not Irrelevant
<b>Frequency</b>	156	31	44	0	0
<b>Percentage</b>	67.5	13.6	18.9	0.0	0.0

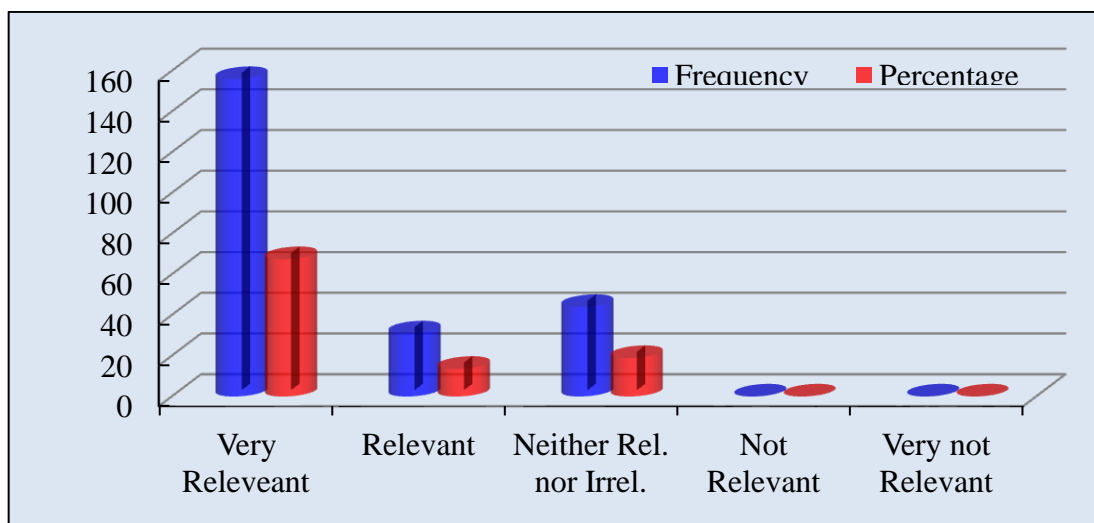


Figure 4.22. Pattern of responses to relevance of the training programmes objectives to respondents' job.

## 4.21 Respondents' Immediate Feelings of the Training Programmes

### Attended

The respondents were asked about their immediate feelings of the training programmes they attended (*Q28: What were your immediate feelings about the training programmes attended?*). Slightly more than two-thirds of the academics maintained that their immediate feeling of the training programmes attended were either 'very satisfactory', 103 (44.4% of the responses) or 'satisfactory', 53 (23.1% of the responses); the remaining respondents (32.5% of the responses) described their immediate feelings as 'neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory', and none of them described them as 'very unsatisfactory' (Table 4.23, Figure 4.23).

Table 4.23 Responses to respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended

	Very Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Neither Satisfactory nor unsatisfactory	Very Unsatisfactory
<i>Frequency</i>	103	53	75	0
<i>Percentage</i>	44.4	23.1	32.5	0



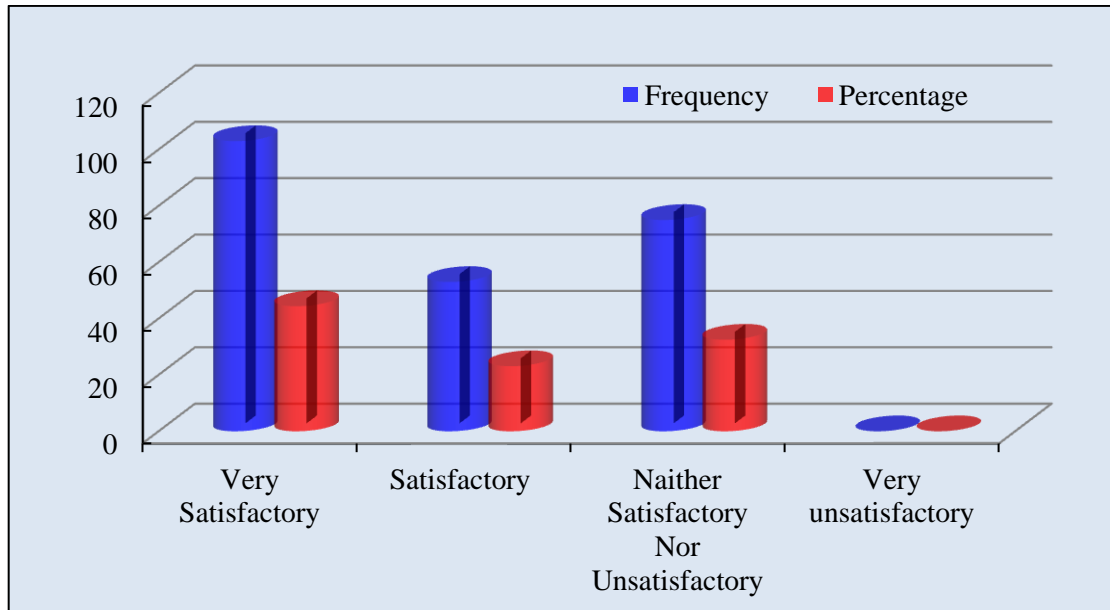


Figure 4.23 Pattern of responses to respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended.

#### 4.22 Changes in Respondent's Feelings about Training after Returning to Work

The respondents were asked whether their feelings changed once they were back in work (Q29: *Did these feelings change once you were back in work?*). Three-quarters of the academics, 173 (74.9% of the responses), indicated that their feelings about training have changed after returning to work (Table 4.24, Figure 4.24) the remaining one-quarter of the academics indicated that their feelings about training did not changed after returning to work.

Table 4.24. Responses to whether respondents' feelings about training changed after returning to work

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	173	58	231
<b>Percentage</b>	74.9	25.1	100.0

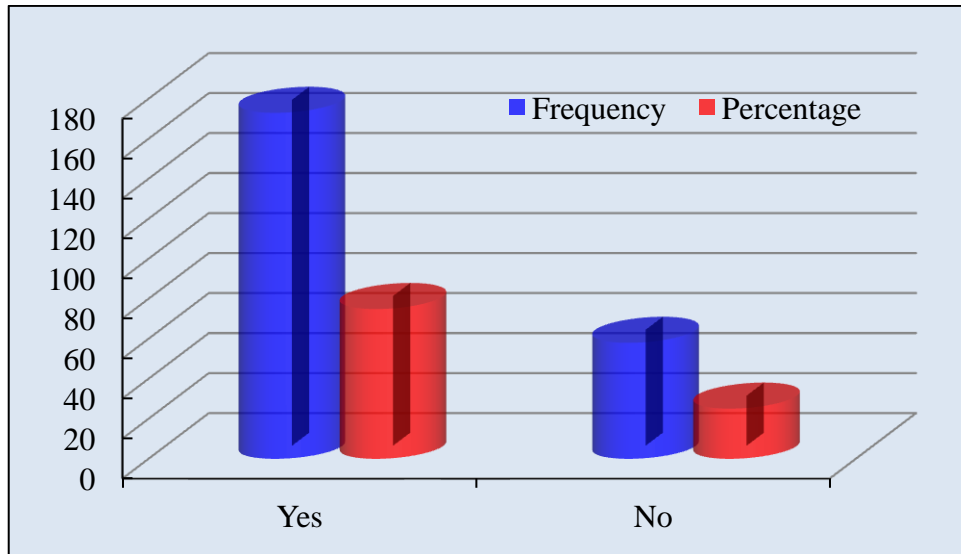


Figure 4.24. Pattern of responses to whether respondents' feelings about training changed after returning to work, according to the academics and the administrators.

### 4.23 Reflection upon the Benefits Gained from Training

The respondents were asked whether they have reflected on the benefits gained from their training (*Q30: Have you reflected upon the benefits you gained from the training programme(s)?*). Less than half of the academics 105 (45.6% of the responses), indicated that they have reflected on the benefits gained from their training, in contrast to more than half of the administrators, 89 (53.9% of the responses) who did so (Table 5.25, Figure 4.25).

Table 4.25. Responses to whether respondents have reflected on the benefits gained from their training

	Yes	No	Total
<i>Frequency</i>	105	126	231
<i>Percentage</i>	45.6	54.4	100.0

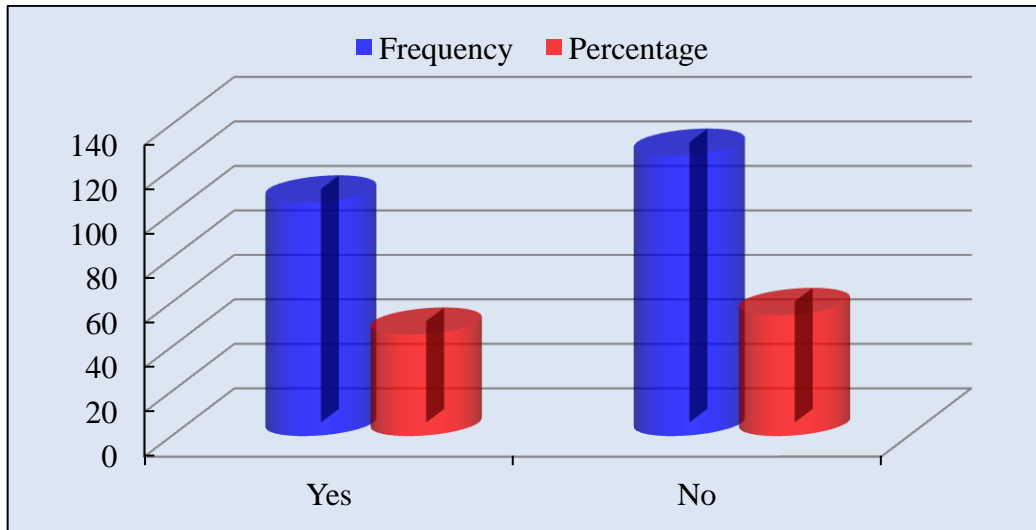


Figure 4.25. Pattern of responses to whether respondents have reflected on the benefits gained from their training.

In a follow up question asking those respondents who answered positively how they managed to reflect upon the benefits gained (*Q31: If the answer is 'Yes', how did you manage this?*), some academics indicated more than one way to manage their reflection of the benefits gained, whereas three-quarters of the academics who answered positively to Q.30, 79 out of 105 (75.3% of this group), indicated that they managed to reflect upon the benefits gained from training by means of discussion with their managers, and slightly more than one-quarter of them, 27 (26 % of this group), indicated that they have done so by discussions with their colleagues. Some of them, 15 (14.3% of this group) did so through self-assessment (Table 4.26, Figure 4.26).

Table 4.26 Responses to how respondents managed to reflect upon the benefits gained

	Discussion with Manager	Discussion with Colleagues	Self-Assessment
<b>Frequency</b>	79	27	15
<b>Percentage</b>	75.3	26	14.3

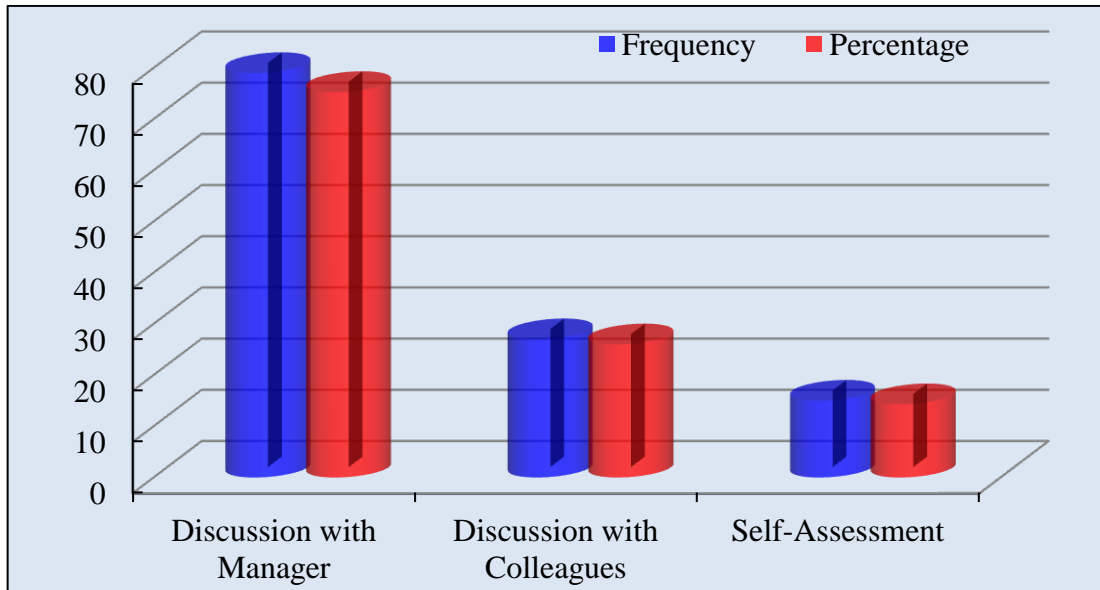


Figure 4.26 Pattern of responses to how respondents managed to reflect upon the benefits gained.

#### 4.24 Summary of Section B: Evaluation of Training Programmes

The majority of the academics agreed that they were clear about what they wanted to get out of the training prior to attending training course, and all academics also agreed that pre-joining instructions/information were informative and that training material were relevant to their job. Most academics maintained that their trainers were professionals.

Most of the academics used their new KSAs either immediately after returning to their jobs or sometime after returning to their job, but none of them used their KSAs immediately after returning to their job, but delayed using them shortly to a long time after returning to their job.

It seems that the length of training programmes was not long enough to most of the academics. The same can be said about discussing the objectives of training programmes with their managers before attending the training programmes. The majority of the academics agreed that training programmes' objectives were relevant to their jobs.

Most of the academics were in agreement that their immediate feelings of the training programmes attended were satisfactory, and that such feelings changed after returning to their work.

More than half of the academics seemed to have reflected on the benefits gained from training, and most of them have reflected upon the benefits gained mainly by discussing them with their managers.

Issues relating to Management support for training and development and perceived benefits of training are analysed in Part Three of this Chapter.

## **B: Management/Supervisor Support for Training and Development, and Perceived Benefits of Training**

Responses to the questionnaire items relating to management/supervisor support for training and development and perceived benefits of training are analysed in this part.

### **A. Management Support for Training and Development**

The respondents were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement/disagreement concerning five items. The respondents were asked to rate their agreement/disagreement using a five-point Likert scale: 1 (strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

#### 4.25 Supervisor’s encouragement and Support to Take Advantage of Training and Development Opportunities

The respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed that their supervisor encouraged and support them to take advantage of training and development opportunities (Q32: *My supervisor encourages and supports me to take advantage of training and development opportunities*). While less than half of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’, 66 (28.4% of the responses), or ‘disagreed’, 41 (17.8% of the responses), many academics did not express their view (neutral), 26 (11.2% of the responses). Furthermore, more than two-fifths of the academics ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ with this statement, .

Table 4.27. Responses to supervisors encouraging and supporting staff to take advantage of training and development opportunities

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	66	41	26	83	15
<i>Percentage</i>	28.4	17.8	11.2	36.1	6.5

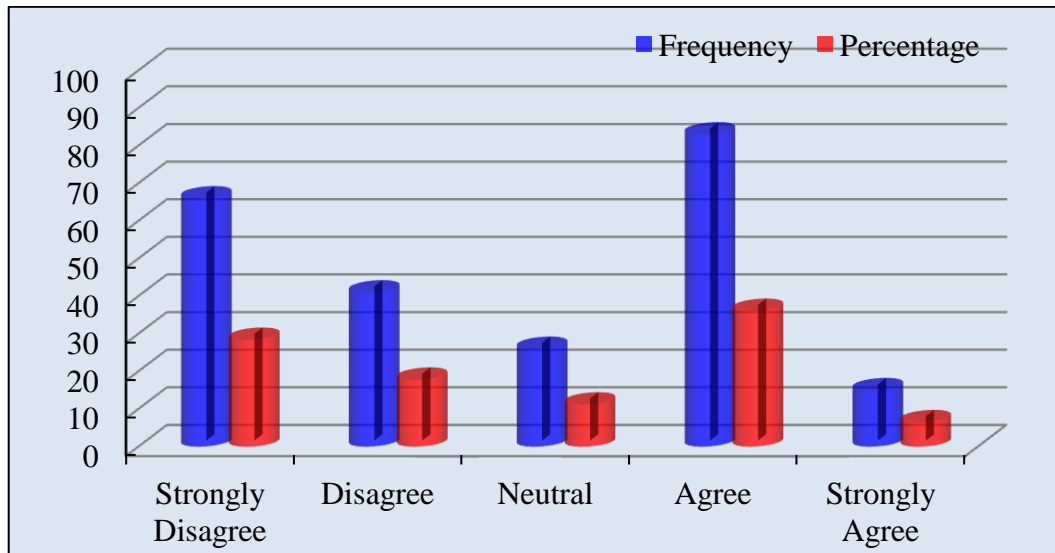


Figure 4.27. Pattern of responses to supervisors encouraging and supporting staff to take advantage of training and development opportunities.

## 4.26 Supervisors Discussion with Staff about Training and Development Needs

The respondents were asked whether their supervisors talk to them about their training and development needs (*Q33: My supervisor frequently talks with me about my training and development needs*). More than half of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’, 83 (36.1% of the responses), or ‘disagreed’, 41 (17.8% of the responses) with this statement, whereas none of the academics ‘strongly agreed’ with this statement and only 41 academics (17.8% of the responses) did not express their views (‘neutral’) regarding this statement (Table 4.28, Figure 4.28).

Table 4.28. Responses to supervisors talking to staff about their training and development needs

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	83	41	41	66	0
<i>Percentage</i>	36.1	17.8	17.8	28.4	0.0

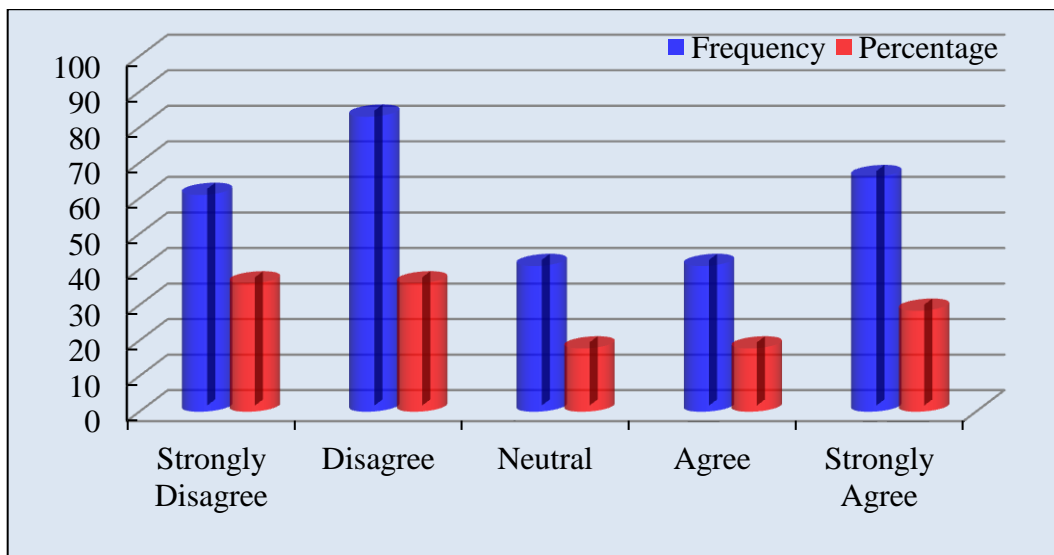


Figure 4.28. Pattern of responses to supervisors talking to staff about their training and development needs.

#### 4.27 Supervisors Jointly Arranging Tasks and Development Goals with the Staff

The respondents were asked whether their supervisors jointly arranged tasks and development goals with them (*Q34: My supervisor jointly arranges tasks and development goals with me*). While less than half of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’, 66(28.4% of the responses), or ‘disagreed’, 78 (33.7% of the responses), that their supervisors jointly arrange tasks and development goals with them, the majority of the administrators, 101 out of 129 (78.3% of the responses) ‘strongly disagreed’ with this statement; the remaining 36 administrators (21.7% of the responses) ‘agreed’ with it (Table 4.29, Figure 4.29).

Table 4.29. Responses to supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with their staff

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	66	42	78	45	0
<i>Percentage</i>	28.4	18.3	33.7	19.5	0.0

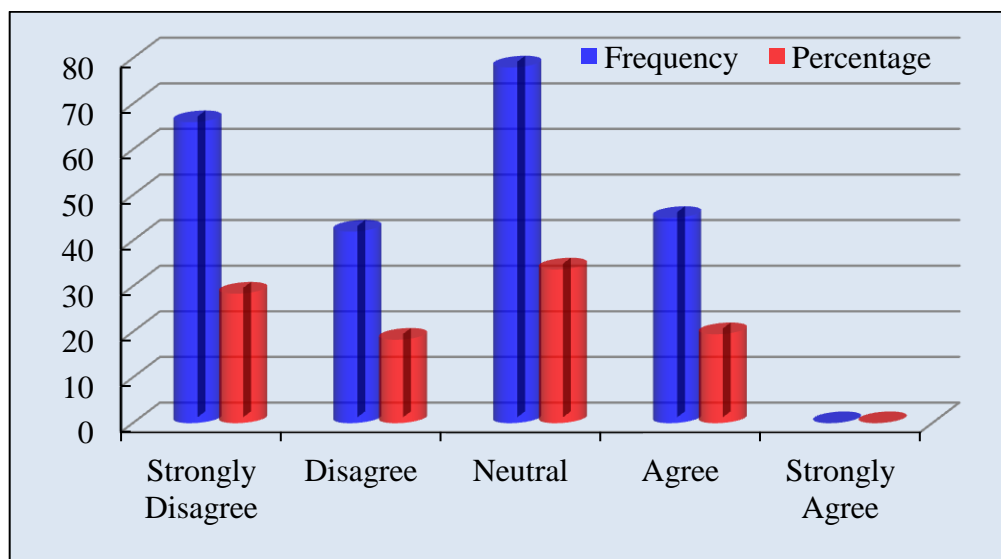




Figure 4.29. Pattern of responses to supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with their staff.

#### 4.28 Supervisors Jointly Reviewing Progress on Tasks and Development Goals at Timely Intervals

When asked whether their supervisors jointly review progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals with them (*Q35: My supervisor jointly reviews progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals*), about one-third of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’, 66 (28.4% of the responses), or ‘disagreed’, 13 (5.9% of the responses), and slightly less than one-third of them, 74 (32.0% of the responses), ‘agreed’ that their supervisors jointly review progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals (Table 4.30, Figure 4.30). The remaining one-third of the academics, however, did not express their views (‘neutral’).

Table 4.30. Responses to supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	66	13	78	74	0
<i>Percentage</i>	28.4	5.9	33.7	32.0	0.0

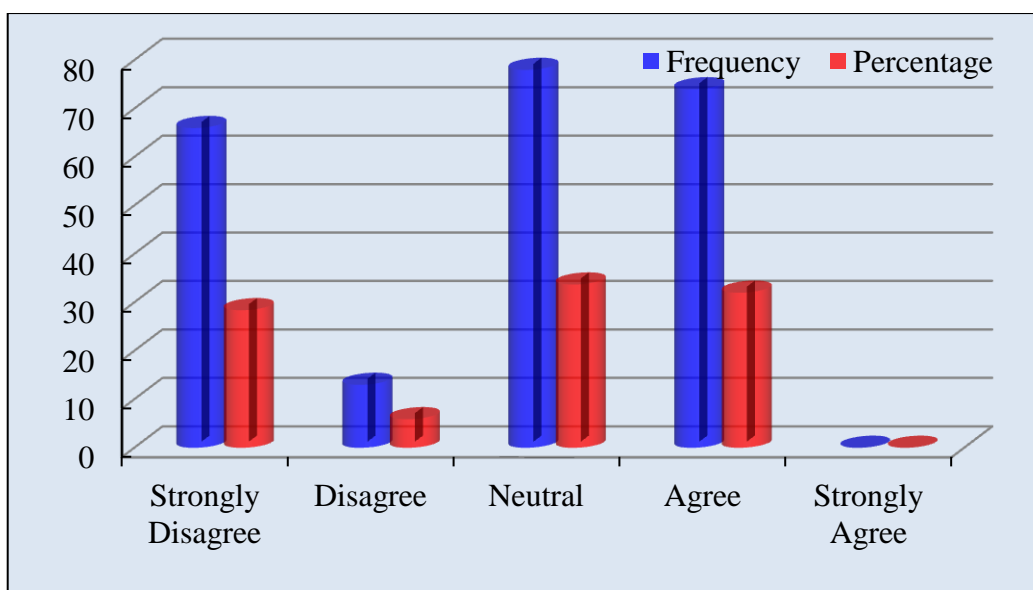


Figure 4.30. Pattern of responses to supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals

#### 4.29 Supervisor’s Effective Coaching and Guidance

The respondents were asked whether their supervisors coach and guide them effectively (*Q. 36. My supervisor coaches and guides me effectively*). About three-fifths of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’, 89 (38.5% of the responses), or ‘disagreed’, 56 (24.3% of the responses) that their supervisors coach and guide them effectively. About one-fifth of them, 45 (19.5% of the responses) ‘agreed’ with this statement, whereas many of them, 41(17.8% of the responses) did not express their views (Table 4.31, Figure 4.31).

Table 4.31. Responses to whether supervisors coach and guide employees effectively

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	89	56	41	45	0
<i>Percentage</i>	38.5	24.3	17.8	19.5	0.0

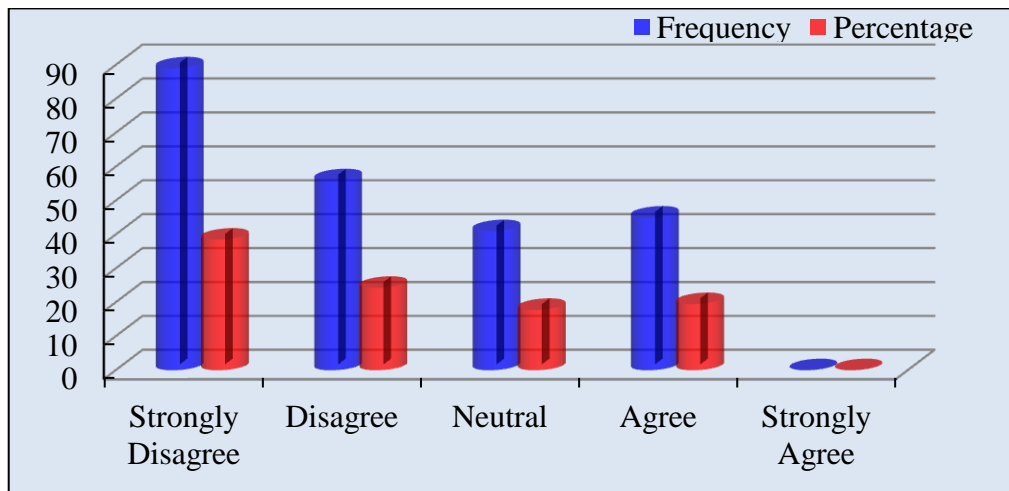


Figure 4.31. Pattern of responses to whether supervisors coach and guide employees effectively.

#### 4.30 Summary of Section A.: Management Support for Training and Development

Around two-fifths of the academics were dissatisfied with their supervisors' encouragement and support to take advantage of training and development opportunities. More than half of the academics were dissatisfied with their supervisors talking to them about their training and development needs. About two-fifths of the academics were dissatisfied with their supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with them, and one-third of them were dissatisfied with their supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals. Most of the academics were dissatisfied with their supervisors coaching and guiding them effectively.

Findings relating to the perceived benefits of training are analysed below.

## **B. Perceived Benefits of Training**

### **5.31 Training Leads to Promotion/Career Advancement/ Higher Pay**

When asked whether training leads to their leads to promotion, career advancement and/or higher pay (*Q37: Training leads to promotion/career advancement/higher pay*), more than half of the academics either 'strongly disagreed', 79 (34.3% of the responses), or 'disagreed', 69 (30.2% of the responses) that training leads to their promotion, career advancement and/or higher pay. A minority of 25 academics (10.7% of the responses) 'agreed' with this statement, whereas one-quarter of them, 58 (24.9% of the responses) did not express their views (Table 4.32, Figure 4.32).

Table 432. Responses to whether training lead to promotion

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	79	69	58	25	0
<i>Percentage</i>	34.3	30.2	24.9	10.7	0.0

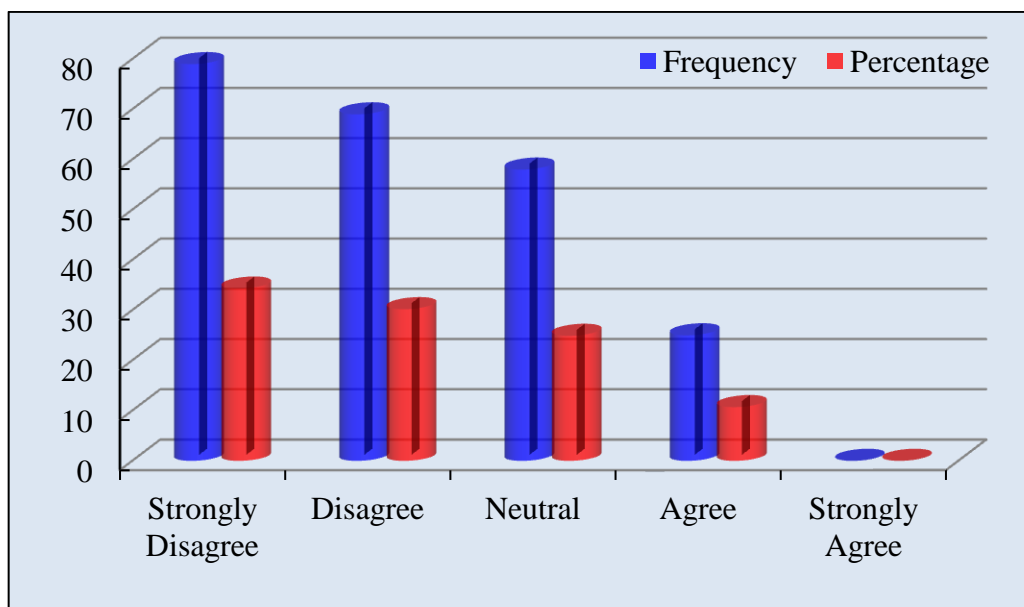


Figure 4.32. Pattern of responses to whether training lead to promotion.

### 4.32 Training Increases Job Satisfaction

The respondents were asked whether training increased their job satisfaction (*Q38: Training increases job satisfaction*). Less than two-fifths of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’, 29 (12.4% of the responses) or ‘disagreed’, 57(24.9% of the responses) that training has increased their job satisfaction, and less than one-third of them either ‘strongly agreed’, 15 (6.5% of the responses), or ‘agreed’, 60 (26.0% of the responses) with this statement. However, a large number of the academics, 70 (30.2% of the responses), did not express their views (Table, 4.33, Figure 4.33).

Table 4.33. Responses to whether training increased job satisfaction

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	29	57	70	60	15
<i>Percentage</i>	12.4	24.9	30.2	26.0	6.5

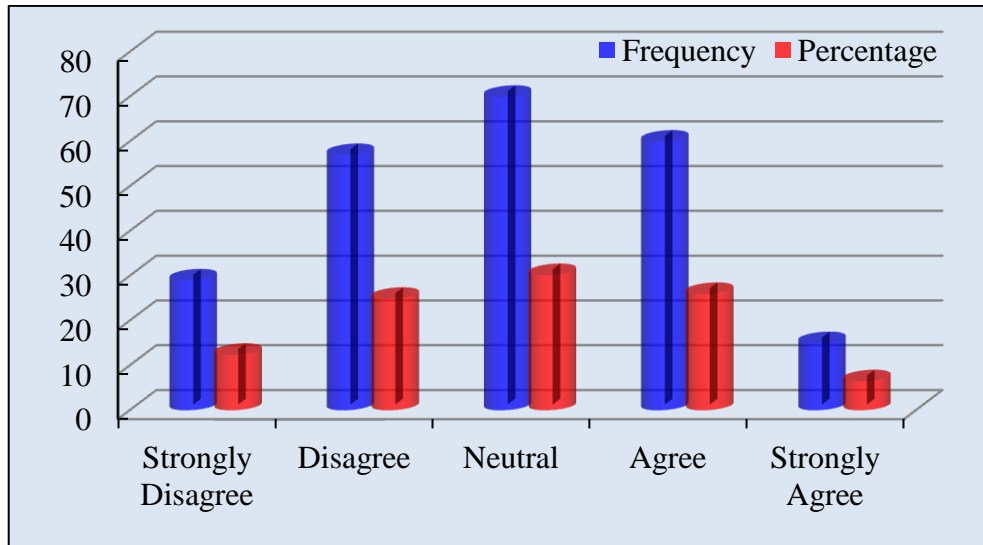


Figure 4.33. Pattern of responses to whether training increased job satisfaction.

### 4.33 Motivation at Work after Training

Respondents were asked whether they feel motivated at work after training (*Q39: After training, I feel more motivated at work after training*). More than half of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’, 60 (26.0% of the responses), or ‘disagreed’, 68 (29.6% of the responses), with this statement, whereas less than two-fifths of them ‘agreed’, 89 (38.5% of the responses). A small number, however, did not express their views (‘neutral’), 14 (5.9% of the responses), (Table 4.34, Figure 4.34).

Table 4.34. Responses to whether respondents felt motivated at work after training

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	60	68	14	89	0
<i>Percentage</i>	26.0	29.6	5.9	38.5	0.0

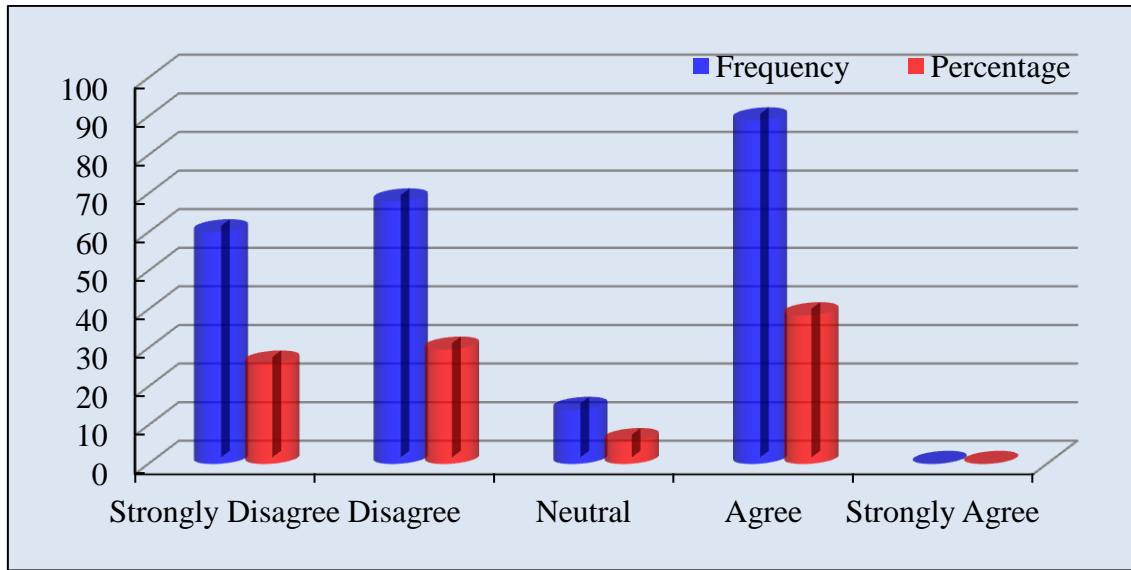


Figure 4.34. Pattern of responses to whether respondents felt motivated at work after training.

#### 4.34 Training Helps Me to Perform my Job Better

Respondents were asked whether training has helped them perform their job better (*Q40: Training helps me to perform my job better*). More than half of the academics ‘agreed’, 131 (56.8% of the responses), that training helped them perform their job better. about one-third of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’ or ‘disagreed’ with this statement (Table 4.35, Figure 4.35).

Table 4.35. Responses to whether training helped respondents perform their job better

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	45	29	26	131	0
<i>Percentage</i>	19.5	12.4	11.2	56.8	0

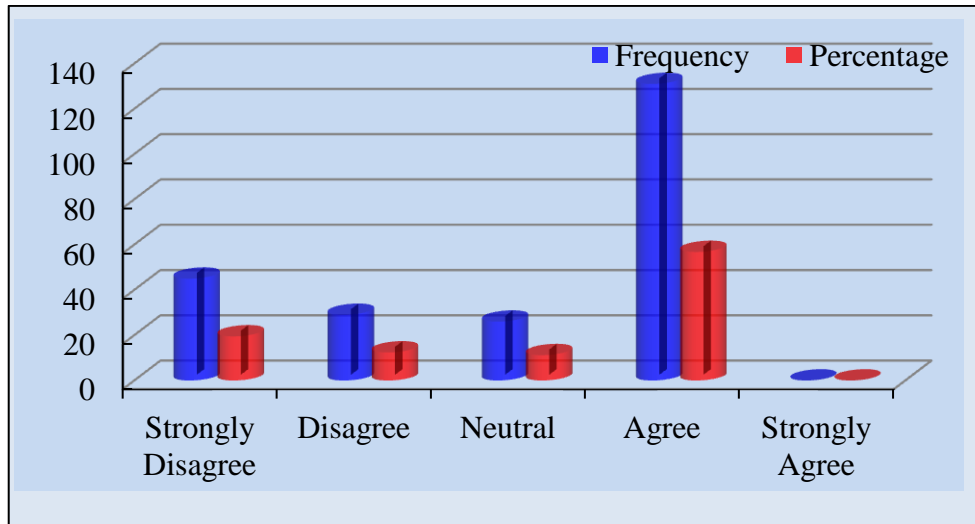


Figure 4.35. Pattern of responses to whether training helped respondents perform their job better.

#### 4.35 Training Improves Respondents' Promotion Potentials

When asked whether training improve their promotion potentials (*Q41: Training improves my promotion potentials*), most of the academics either 'strongly disagreed', 66 (28.4% of the responses), or 'disagreed' 83 (36.1% of the responses) that training has improved their promotion potentials. A minority of the academics, 27 (11.8% of the responses), did not express their views ('neutral') (Table 36, Figure 4.36).

Table 4.36. Responses to whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	66	83	27	55	0
<i>Percentage</i>	28.4	36.1	11.8	23.7	0.0



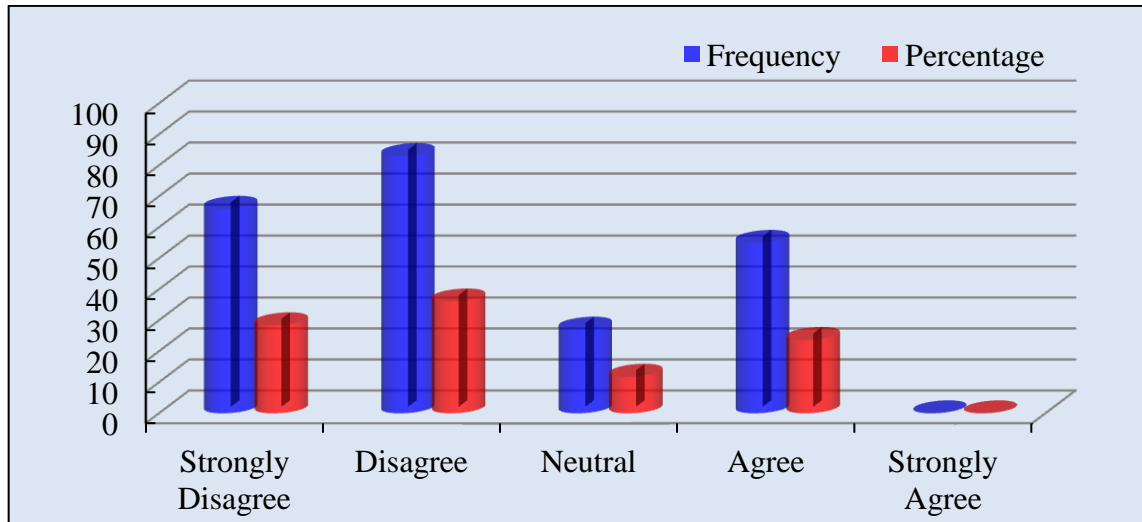


Figure 4.39. Pattern of responses to whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials.

#### 4.36 Feeling of Being Valued After Training

The respondents were asked whether training has helped them being valued by the University (*Q42: After training, I feel valued by the University*). The majority of the academics either 'strongly disagreed', 81 (34.9% of the responses), or 'disagreed', 82(35.5% of the responses) that training has helped them being valued by the University. (Table 4.37, Figure 4.37). However, almost one-quarter of the academics did not express their views, 53 (23.1% of the responses), and some 'agreed' with the statement, 15(6.5% of the responses).

Table 4.37. Responses to whether respondents felt valued by the University after training

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	81	82	53	15	0
<i>Percentage</i>	34.9	35.5	23.1	6.5	0.0

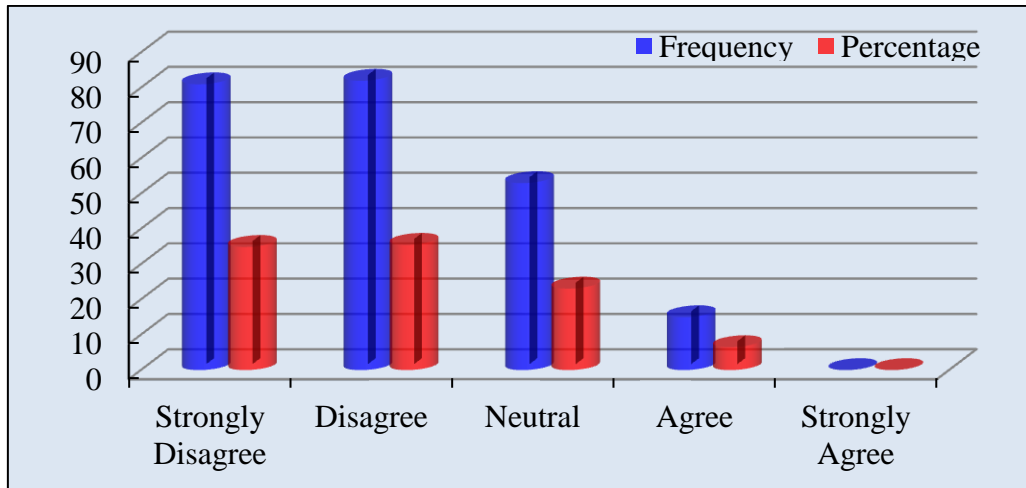


Figure 4.37. Pattern of responses to whether respondents felt valued by the University after training.

#### 4.37 Training Facilitates Career Progress

The respondents were asked whether training facilitates career progress (*Q43: Training facilitates career progress*). The academics were not decisive in their response to this question; slightly less than half of them (108, 46.7% of the responses) did not express their view ('neutral'), and less of half of them also either 'strongly disagreed' (66, 28.4% of the responses) or 'disagreed' (41, 17.8% of the responses) that training has facilitated their career progress. A minority of academics (16, 7.1% of the responses) agreed with this statement (Table 4.38, Figure 4.38).

Table 5.38. Responses to whether training facilitates career progress

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	66	41	108	16	0
<i>Percentage</i>	28.4	17.8	46.7	7.1	0.0

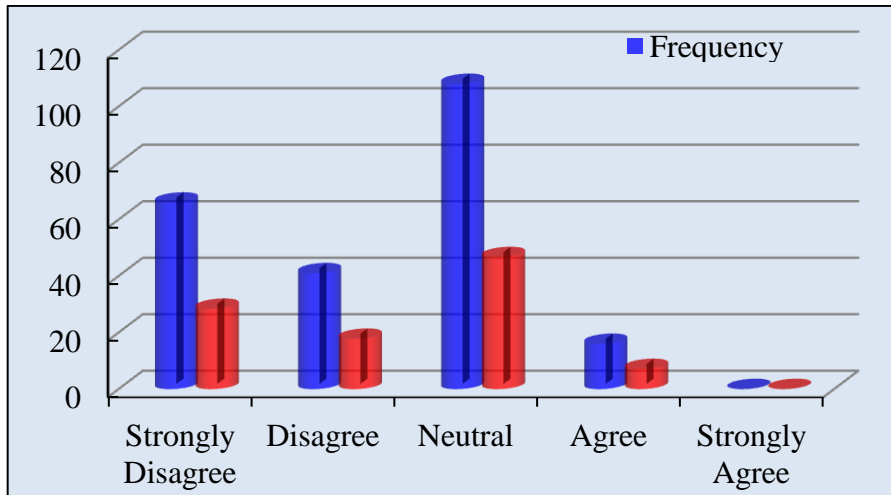


Figure 4.38. Pattern of responses to whether training facilitates career progress

#### 4.38 Training Helps Respondents to Grow as Individuals

When asked whether training has helped them to grow as persons (*Q44: Training helps me to grow as a person*), the academics differ in their response from the administrators. Most of the academics either ‘agreed’, 131 (56.8% of the responses) or ‘strongly agreed’, 15(6.5% of the responses), that training has helped them to grow as a person. However, one-quarter of the academics either ‘strongly disagreed’ or ‘disagreed’ with this statement (Table 4.39, Figure 4.39).

Table 4.39. Responses to whether training helped respondents to grow as a person

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	30	29	26	131	15
<i>Percentage</i>	13.0	12.4	11.2	56.8	6.5

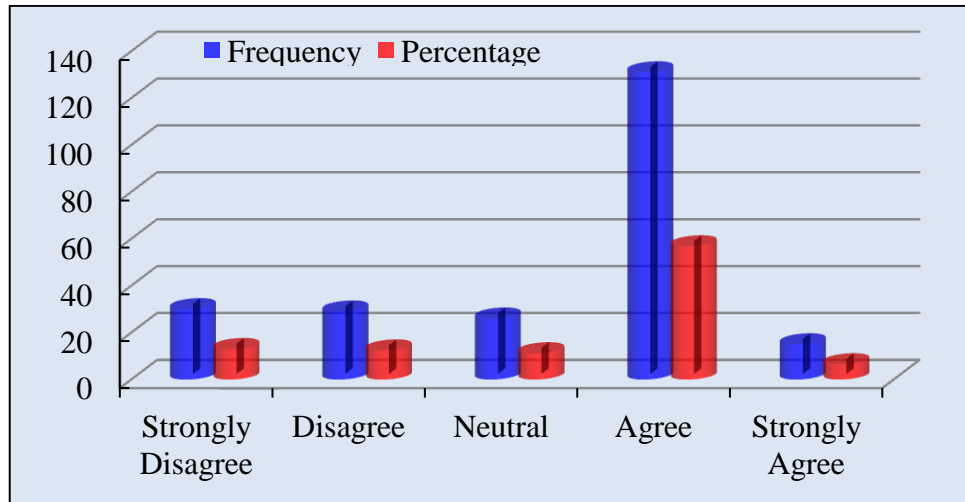


Figure 4.39. Pattern of responses to whether training helped respondents to grow as a person.

#### 4.39 Summary of Section B: Perceived Benefits of Training

Most of the academics (64.5% of the responses) disagreed that training leads to their promotion. About one-third of the academics disagreed that training increased their job satisfaction, and another one-third of them agreed with this statement. Most of the academics disagreed with their feelings were motivated at work after training. Most of the academics agreed that training helped them perform their job better. Most of the academics disagreed that training improved their promotion potentials, and the majority of them also disagreed that they felt valued by the university after training. Less than half of the academics disagreed that training facilitated their career progress; nonetheless, 46.7% of the academics did not express their views. Most of the academics agreed that training helped them to grow as a person.

In the following sections (Part Four), findings relating to perceived important of and satisfaction with, pre- and post-training activities are analysed.

## **Part Four: Findings Relating to Perceived Importance of, and Satisfaction with, Pre and Post-Training Activities**

Responses to the questionnaire items relating to perceived importance of, and satisfaction with, pre and post-training activities are analysed in this Section. This final part of the questionnaire consists of thirteen items; six items concern pre-training activities, and the remaining seven items relate to post-training activities.

### **A. Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Pre-Training Activities**

#### **4.40 Analysis of Strengths and Weaknesses to Determine Training Needs**

The respondents were asked about the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses in determining training needs prior to training (*Q45; Analysis of strengths and weaknesses to determine training needs*). Less than half of the academics indicated that this analysis is either ‘very important’, 44 (18.9% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 65 (28.4% of the responses). This issue was either ‘not important’ or ‘not at all important’ to more than one-third of the academics (Table 4.40, Figure 4.40). About 17.8% of the academics did not express their views about this issue (‘neutral’).

Table 4.40. Responses to the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	44	65	41	37	44
<i>Percentage</i>	18.9	28.4	17.8	16.0	18.9

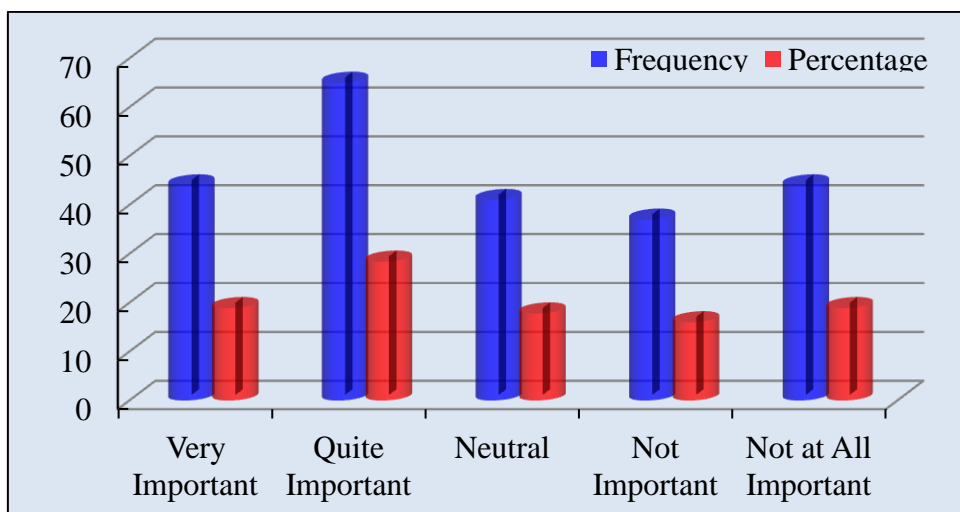


Figure 4.40. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs.

#### 4.41 Importance of Having the Opportunity to Decide About Training Content and Methods before Training

When asked how they perceived the importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before attending training courses (Q46: *Having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods*), less than one-third of the academics perceived this opportunity as either ‘very important’, 16 (7.1% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 52 (22.5% of the responses) (Table 4.41, Figure 4.41). About two-fifths of the academics perceived this opportunity as either ‘not important’, 66 (28.4% of the responses), or ‘not at all important’, 26 (11.2% of the responses). Many of the academics, 71 (30.8% of the responses), did not express their view concerning this issue (‘neutral’).

Table 4.41. Responses to the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training

	Very Important	Quite Important	Neutral	Not Important	Not at all Important
<i>Frequency</i>	16	52	71	66	26
<i>Percentage</i>	7.1	22.5	30.8	28.4	11.2

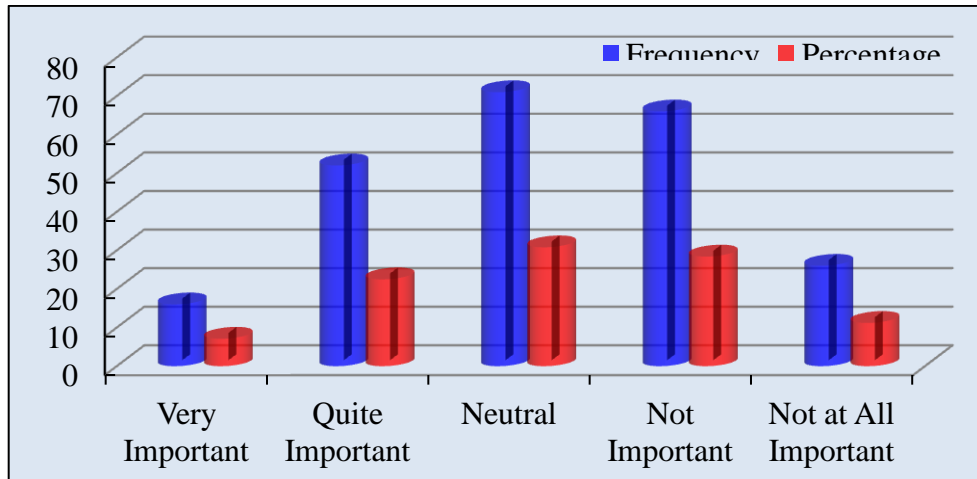


Table 4.41. Responses to the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training.

#### 4.42 Importance of Preparatory Reading/Pre-Course Activities

The respondents were asked about the importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities (*Q47. Preparatory reading/pre-course activities*). More than half of the academics perceived this issue as either ‘very important’, 71 (30.8% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 53(23.1% of the responses). Nonetheless, one-third of the academics, 78 (33.7% of the responses) indicated that this issue is ‘not important’. Many academics (29, 12.4% of the responses) did not express their views (‘neutral’) (Table 4.42, Figure 4.42).

4.42. Responses to the perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	71	53	29	78	0
<i>Percentage</i>	30.8	23.1	12.4	33.7	0.0

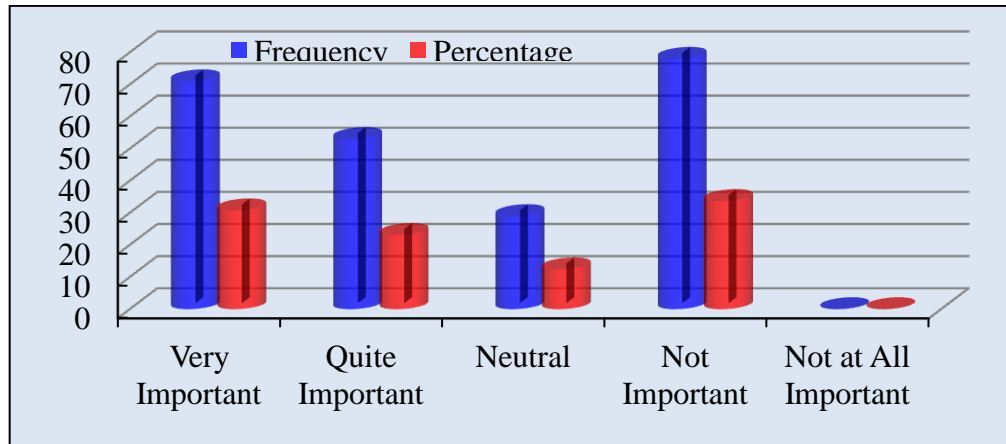


Figure 4.42. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities.

#### 4.43 Importance of Release Time to Prepare for Training Courses

The respondents were asked about the importance of release time to prepare for a training course (*Q48: Release time to prepare for a training course*). More than half of the academics thought that the release time to prepare for training courses is either ‘very important’, 60 (26.0% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 64 (27.8% of the responses) (Table 4.43, Figure 4.43). However, slightly less than one-quarter of the academics considered it as either ‘not important’, 55 (23.7% of the responses), or did not express their view, 52 (22.5% of the responses).

Table 4.43. Responses to the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	60	64	52	55	0
<i>Percentage</i>	26.0	27.8	22.5	23.7	0.0



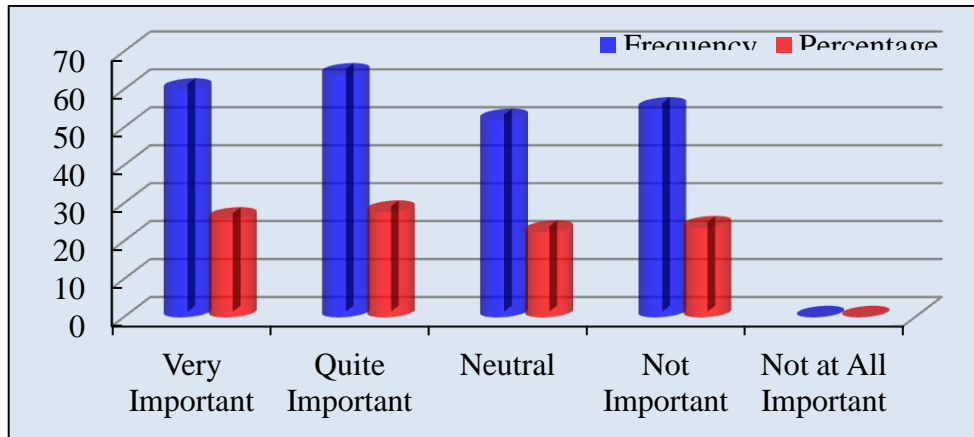


Figure 4.43. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course.

#### 4.45 Importance of Pre-course Briefing with the Manager/Supervisor

The respondents were asked about the importance of pre-course briefing with their manager/supervisor (49: *Pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor*). Less than half of the academics thought that pre-course briefing with their manager/supervisor is either ‘very important’, 16 (7.1% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 93 (40.2% of the responses) (Table 4.44, Figure 4.44). Furthermore, more than one-third of the academics perceived this issue as either ‘not important’, 70 (30.2% of the responses) or ‘not at all important’, 11 (4.7% of the responses), whereas many academics did not express their view (41, 17.8%).

Table 4.44. Responses to the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	16	93	41	70	11
<i>Percentage</i>	7.1	40.2	17.8	30.2	4.7

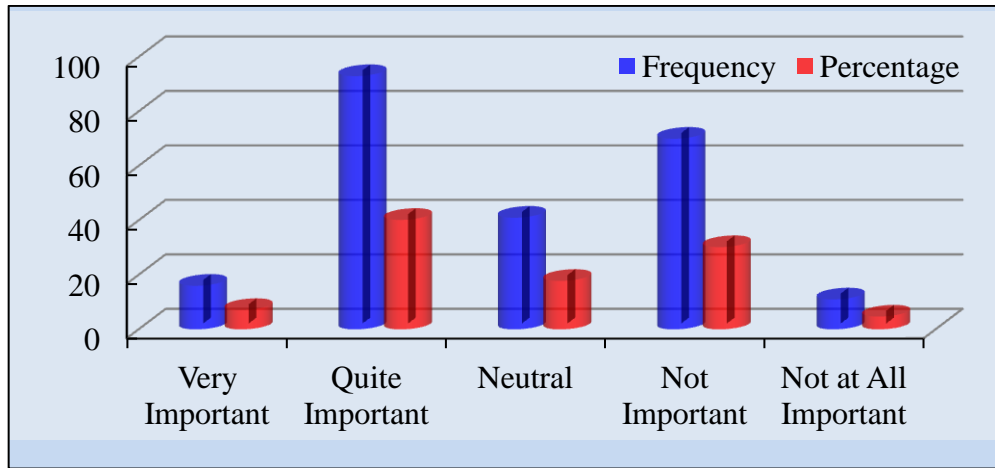


Figure 4.44. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor.

#### 4.45 Importance of Setting Objectives for Performance Improvement

The respondents were asked about the importance of setting objectives for performance improvement (*Q50: Setting objectives for performance improvement*). About one-third of the academics perceived setting objectives for performance improvement as either ‘very important’, 52 (22.5% of the responses) or ‘quite important’, 29 (12.4% of the responses) (Table 4.45, Figure 5.45). However, almost more than half of the academics, 124 (53.8% of the responses), did not express their view (‘neutral’). This issue was regarded as ‘not important’ by a minority of academics, 26 (11.2% of the responses) and as ‘not at all important’ by around one-fifth of the administrators, 30 (18.3% of the responses) (Table 4.45, Figure 4.45).

Table 4.45. Responses to the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	52	29	124	26	0
<i>Percentage</i>	22.5	12.4	53.8	11.2	0.0

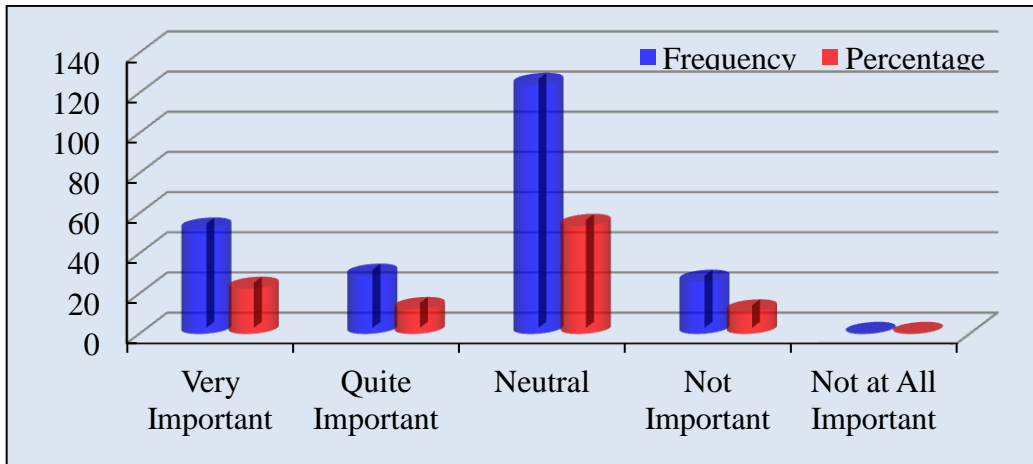


Figure 4.45. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement.

#### 4.46 Summary of Section A: Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Pre-Training Activities

Less than half of the academics indicated that it is important to analyse strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs. More than one-quarter of the academics referred to the importance of having the opportunity to decide about training contents and method before training. More than half of the academics (53.9% of the responses) indicated the importance of preparatory readings/pre-course activities, and less than half of the academics (47.3% of the responses) referred to the importance of pre-course briefings with their managers/supervisors. Around one-third of the academics (34.9% of the responses) referred to the importance of setting objectives for performance improvement. However, 53.0% of the academics did not express their views.

## B. Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Post-Training Activities

### 4.47 Importance of Follow-up Meetings with the Manager/Supervisor

The respondents were asked about the importance of a post-training follow-up meeting with their manager/supervisor (*Q51. Follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor*). More than half of the academics, 122 (52.7% of the responses) perceived this follow-up meeting with their managers/supervisors as ‘quite important’ (Table 4.46, Figure 4.46). More than one-quarter of the academics, 67 (29.0% of the responses), did not express their view (‘neutral’), and a minority of the academics, 14 (5.9% of the responses), perceived it as ‘not important’.

Table 4.46. Responses to the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor

	Very Important	Quite Important	Neutral	Not Important	Not at all Important
<i>Frequency</i>	0	122	67	14	28
<i>Percentage</i>	0.0	52.7	29.0	5.9	12.4

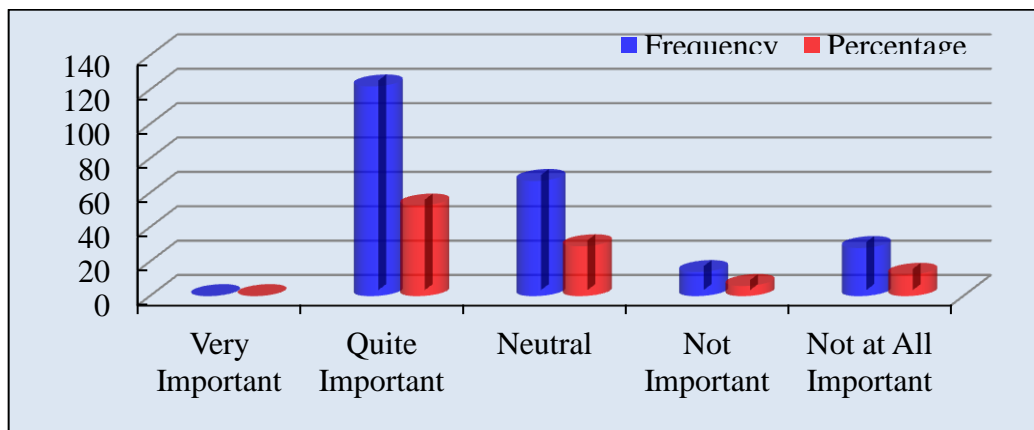


Figure 4.46. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor.

#### 4.48 Importance of Having the Opportunity to Use New Knowledge and/or Skills

When asked about having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills (*Q52: Having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills*), about one-third of the academics; 80 (34.9% of the responses), perceived this opportunity as ‘quite important’. More than two-fifths of the academics perceived it as either ‘not important’, 58 (24.9% of the responses), or ‘not at all important’, 41 (17.8% of the responses) (Table 4.47, Figure 4.47). Many academics, 52 (22.5% of the responses), did not express their views (‘neutral’).

Table 4.47. Responses to the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	0	80	52	58	41
<i>Percentage</i>	0.0	34.9	22.5	24.9	17.8

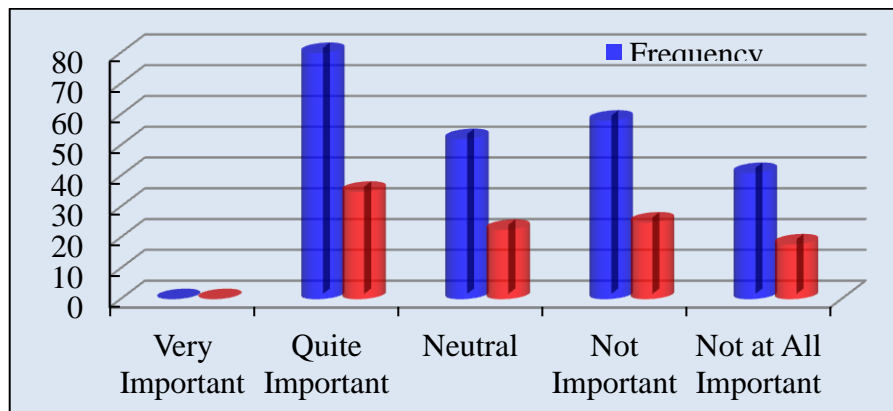


Figure 4.47. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills.

## 5.49 Importance of Having the Necessary Resources to Apply New Knowledge and/or Skills

The respondents were asked about the importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills (*Q.53: Having the necessary resources (e.g., equipment, information) to apply new knowledge and/or skills*). While slightly more than one-quarter of the academics thought that this issue is either ‘very important’, 14 (5.9% of the responses) or ‘quite important’, 52 (22.5% of the responses), slightly less than one-quarter of them perceived this issue as either ‘not important’, 13 (5.9% of the responses) or ‘not at all important’ 41 (17.8% of the responses), and the remaining slightly less than half of them, 111 (47.9% of the responses) did not express their view (‘neutral’) (Table 4.48, Figure 4.51).

Table 4.48. Responses to the perceived importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	0	80	52	58	41
<i>Percentage</i>	0.0	34.9	22.5	24.9	17.8

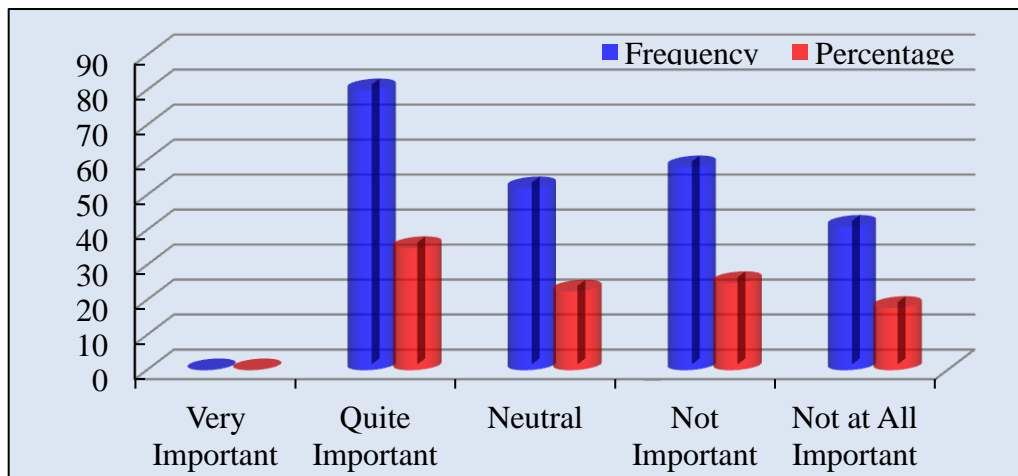


Figure 4.48. Responses to the perceived importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills.

## 5.50 Importance of Manager/Supervisor’s Support through Coaching and Feedback

The respondents were asked about the importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback (*Q54: Manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback*). Data presented in Table 4.49 and illustrated in Figure 4.49 indicate that while slightly more than one-fifth of the academics perceived manager/supervisor’s support through coaching or feedback as ‘very important’, 29 (12.4% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 52 (22.5% of the responses), more than two-fifths of the academics perceived it as either ‘not important’ or ‘not at all important’. Furthermore, many academics, 52 (22.5% of the responses) did not express their view (Table 4.49, Figure 4.49)

Table 4.49. Responses to the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	29	52	52	69	29
<i>Percentage</i>	12.4	22.5	22.5	30.2	12.4

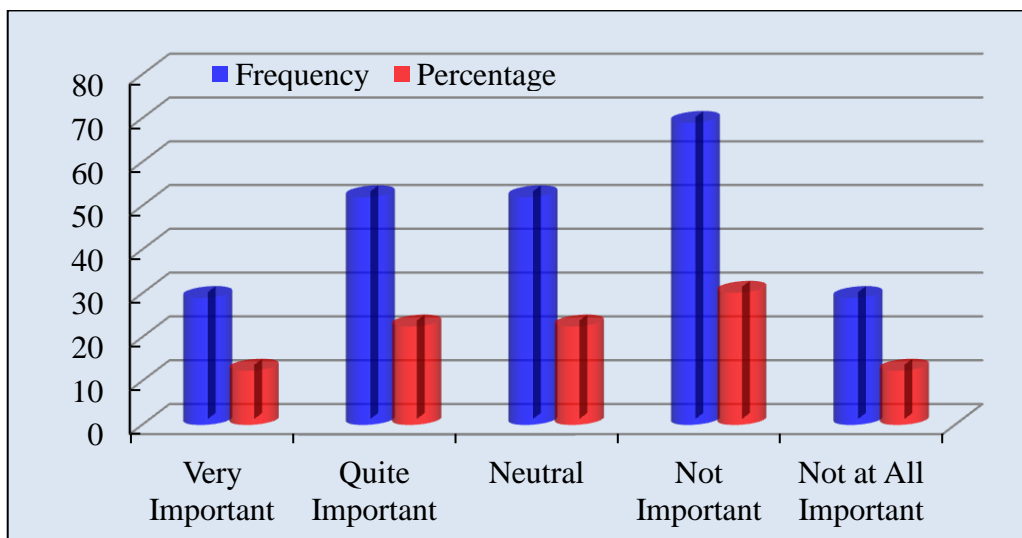


Figure 4.49. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback.

#### 4.51 Importance of Colleagues' Support to Practise New Skills

When asked about the importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills (*Q55: Support from colleagues to practise new skills*), slightly more than one-quarter of the academics perceived colleagues' support to practise new skills as either 'very important', 20 (8.6% of the responses), or 'quite important', 45 (19.5% of the responses (Table 4.50, Figure 4.50). More than two-fifths of the academics perceived it as either 'not important' or 'not at all important' and more than one-quarter of the academics, 67 (29.0% of the responses) did not express their view.

Table 4.4.50. Responses to the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	20	45	67	70	29
<i>Percentage</i>	8.6	19.5	29.0	30.2	12.4

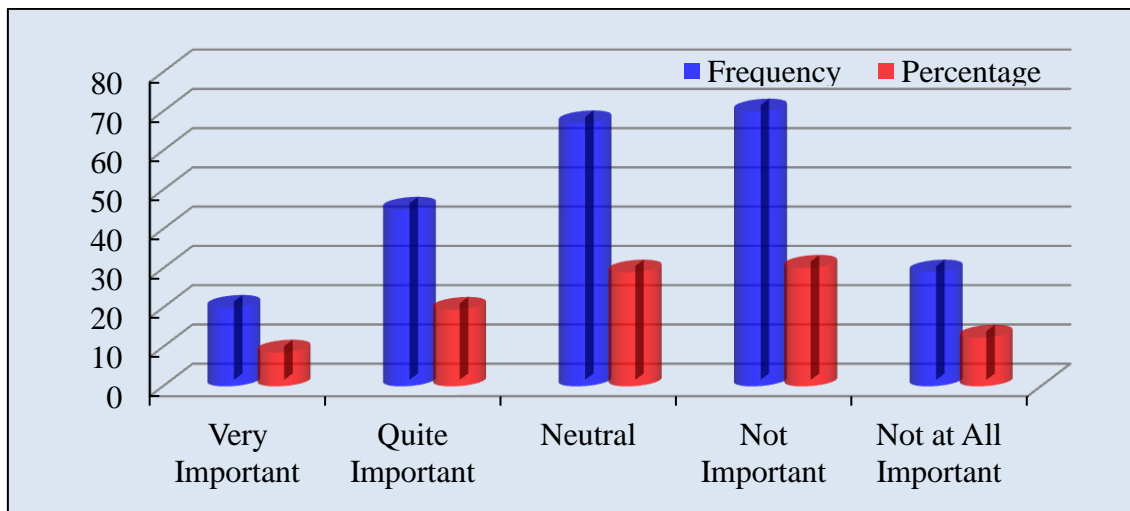


Figure 4.50. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills.



## 4.52 Importance of Being Evaluated on their Learning of Training Material

The respondents were asked about the importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material (*Q56: Being evaluated on the learning of training material*). Slightly more than one-third of the academics perceived being evaluated on learning of training materials as either ‘very important’, 29 (12.4% of the responses) or ‘quite important’, 52(22.5% of the responses (Table 4.51, Figure 4.51). More than two-fifths of the academics perceived it as either ‘not important’ or ‘not at all important’, whereas less than one-fifth of the administrators perceived it as ‘not at all important’. More than one-quarter of the academics, 53 (31.4% of the responses) did not express their view.

Table 4.51. Responses to the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	29	52	49	73	29
<i>Percentage</i>	12.4	22.5	21.3	31.4	12.4

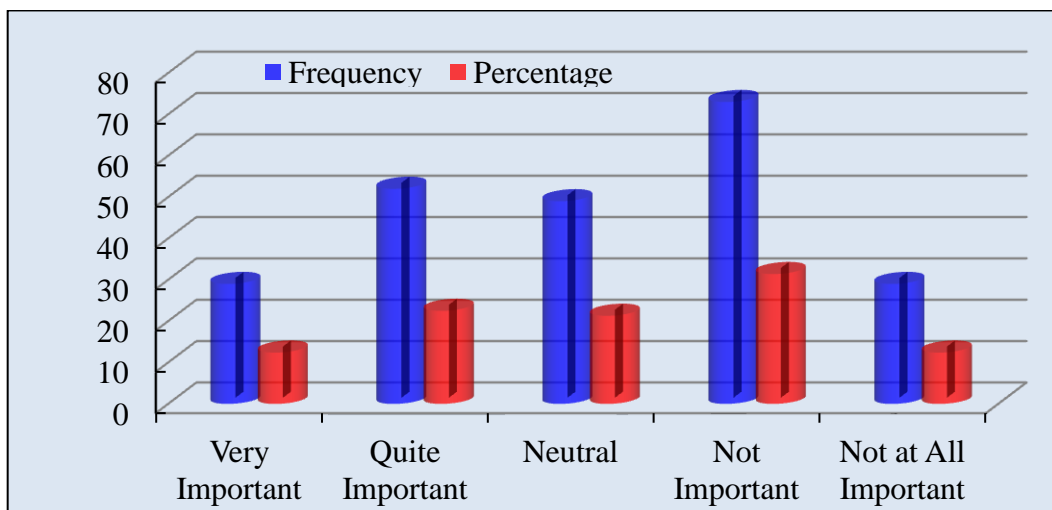


Figure 5.51. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material.

### 4.53 Importance of Material Being Evaluated on Use of Training on the Job

Finally, the respondents were asked to indicate the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job (Q57: *Material being evaluated on use of training on the job*). About one-third of the academics perceived this issue as either ‘very important’, 29 (12.4% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 52 (22.5% of the responses). More than one-third of the academics perceived this issue as either ‘not important’, 42 (18.3% of the responses), or ‘not at all important’, 41 (17.8% of the respondents (Table 4.52, Figure 4.52). Many of the academics did not express their views (‘neutral’), 67 (29.0% of the responses).

Table 4.52. Responses to the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	29	52	49	73	29
<i>Percentage</i>	12.4	22.5	21.3	31.4	12.4

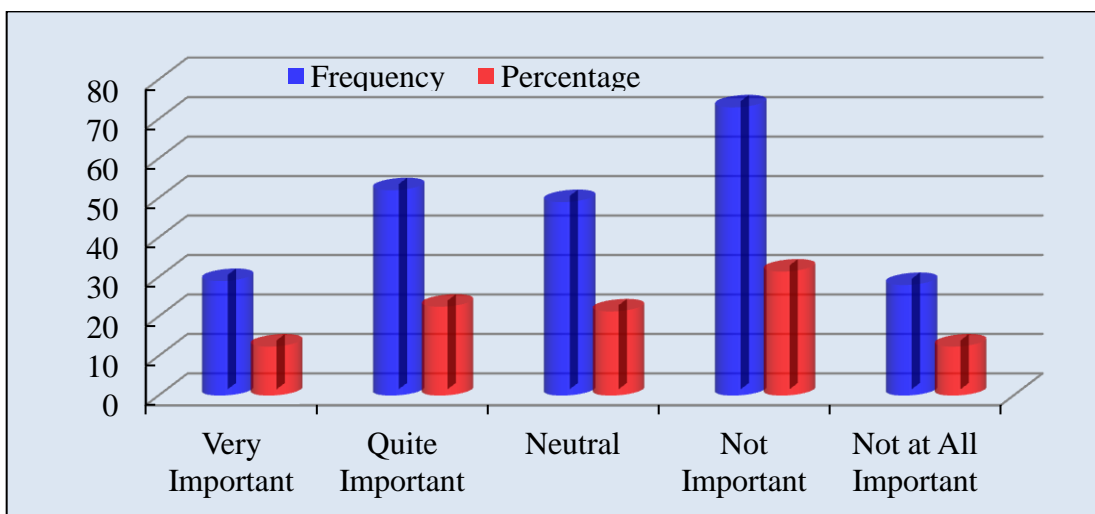


Table 4.52. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job.

#### **4.54 Summary of Section B: Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Post-Training Activities**

Around half of the academics (52.7% of the responses) thought that it is important to have follow-up meetings with their managers/supervisors; nonetheless, about 29.0% of them did not express their views. About one-third of the academics (34.9% of the responses) thought it is important to have the opportunity to use new knowledge/skills/abilities (KSAs), though. 22.5% of them did not express their views and 42.7% of them thought this issue as not important.

About 28% of the academics perceived the importance of having the necessary resources to apply new KSAs, whereas, about half of them (47.9% of the responses) did not express their view. About one-third of the academics (34.9%) referred to the importance of their managers'/supervisors' support through coaching or feedback.

Around 42% of the academics perceived the support from colleagues to practise new skills as not important, while 34.9% of them perceived the importance of being evaluated on the learning from training materials.. About 33.8% of the academics perceived it as 'not important'. Around 35% of the academics perceived the importance of being evaluated on the use of training on the job, while 36% of them perceived it as 'not important'.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS ACCORDING TO ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF MEMBERS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to analyse the findings of the questionnaire survey relating to training provided by the Al-Aqsa University and the evaluation of training programmes, according to the responses of the administrative staff members. In the following chapter (Chapter Six. Discussion of the study findings is presented) in which the pattern of responses to the questionnaire items by the academic and administrative staff members are compared and contrasted.

Responses to the survey are analysed in four parts. Part One: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics. Part Two: Findings Relating to Training Provided and Evaluation of Training Programmes. Part Three: Findings Relating to Management Support for Training and Development and Perceived Benefits of Training. Part Four: Findings Relating to Perceived Importance of, and Satisfaction with, Pre- and Post-Training Activities.

#### **Part One: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics**

Of the 396 respondents participating in the study, 165 (41.7% of the responses) were administrators.

Two-thirds of the administrators involved in the study, 110 (66.7% of the responses) were males and the remaining one-third, 55 (33.3% of the responses) were females (Table 5.1, Figure 5.1). This indicates that there is a higher representation of women in administrative jobs than in academic posts (see Chapter Four, Section 4.2).

Table 5.1. Distribution of the respondents, according to their job and gender

	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Male</i>	110	66.7
<i>Female</i>	55	33.3
<i>Total</i>	165	100.0

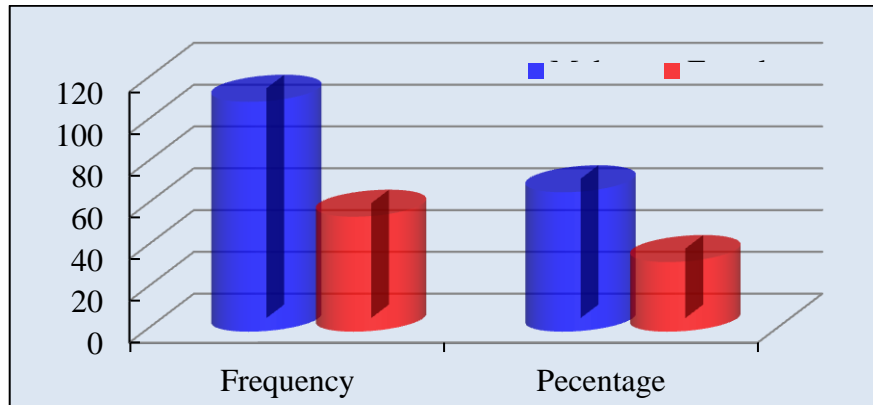


Figure 5.1. Distribution of respondents, according to their gender.

More than half of the administrators, (59, 35.8% of the responses) were between 31-40 years, or over 40 year old (33, 20% of the responses). However, two-fifths of them (66, 40% of the responses) were between 26 and 30 year old. A minority of seven administrators (4.2% of the responses) were between 21 and 25 year old (Table 5.2, Figure 5.2).

Table 5.2. Distribution of the respondent sample, according to their jobs and age

	21-25	26-30	31-40	Over 40	Total
<i>Frequency</i>	7	66	59	33	165
<i>Percentage</i>	4.2	40.0	35.8	20	100.0

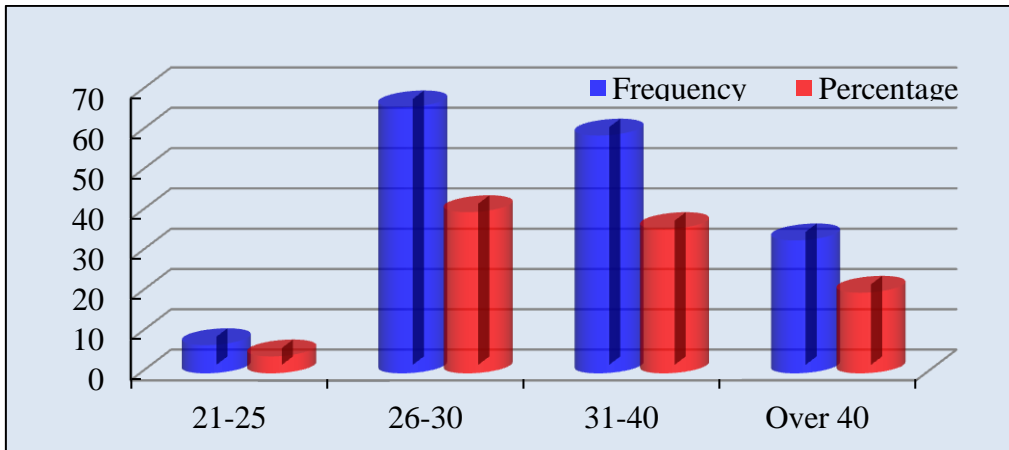


Figure 5.2. Distribution of the respondents according to their age.

The majority of the administrators, 134 (81.1% of the responses) held a Bachelor degree, whereas 18 administrators (10.9% of the responses) held a Master’s degree, and 13 others (7.9% of the responses) had a Diploma degree. None of the administrators had a PhD (Table 5.3, Figure 5.3).

Table 5.3. Distribution of respondents according to their s qualifications

	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	PhD
<b>Frequency</b>	13	134	18	0
<b>Percentage</b>	7.9	81.1	10.9	0

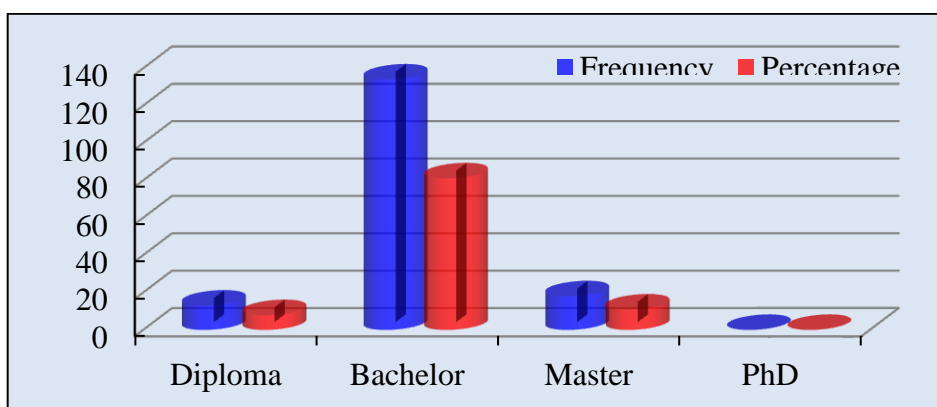


Figure 5.3. Distribution of respondents according to their qualifications.

In terms of the length of service at the University, the majority of the respondent administrators have worked for the University for 5 years or more, and only a small

minority of them have worked between one and three years. A number of the respondents, 17 (10.3% of the responses) have been employed for four years (Table 4.4, Figure 4.4). This also indicates that the administrators are long serving in their posts.

Table 5.4. Distribution of respondents according to length of service

	1 Year or less	2 Years	3 Years	4 Years	5 Years and Over
<b>Frequency</b>	8	4	8	17	136
<b>Percentage</b>	4.8	2.4	4.8	10.3	82.4

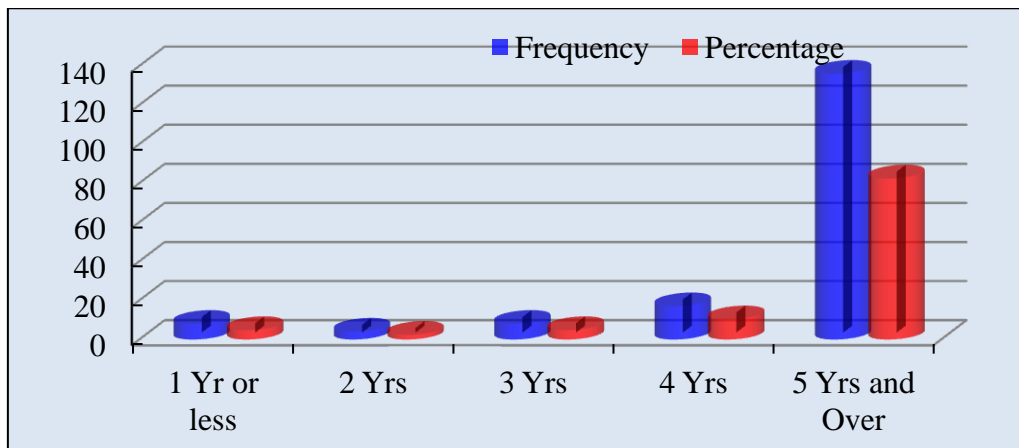


Figure 5.4. Distribution of respondents according to the length of service.

## **Part Two: Findings Relating to Training Provided and Evaluation of Training Programmes**

### **A. Training Provided by the University**

This part of the study analyses the pattern of responses to Part Two of the Questionnaire. Part Two consists of fourteen items. Responses of the administrative staff members to the questionnaire items relating to training provided by the Al-Aqsa University and the evaluation of training programmes are analysed in this chapter.

### **5.2 Types of Training**

Respondents were asked three questions (Q6-Q8) concerning the type of training provided for them by the University. With regard to Type 1 Training (Q.6: *Have you attended any initial or induction type of training when you first joined the University, or when you moved to a new job?*), over half of the administrators, 96 out of 165 respondents (58.2% of the responses) indicated that they have attended such training, whereas more than two-fifths, 69 of them (41.8% of the responses) have not attended this type of training (Table 5.5, Figure 5.5).

Table 5.5. Responses to attending Type 1 Training, Type 2 Training and Type 3 Training

		Yes	No	Total
<b><i>Type 1 Training</i></b>	Frequency	158	96	69
	Percentage	68.4	58.2	41.8
<b><i>Type 2 Training</i></b>	Frequency	125	40	165
	Percentage	75.8	24.2	100.0
<b><i>Type 3 Training</i></b>	Frequency	108	57	165
	Percentage	65.5	34.5	100.0



As regards attending Training Type 2 (*Q.7: Have you training related to your job (for example, as a lecturer, or administrator)?*), about three-fourths of the administrators have attended type 2 training and 40 of them (24.2%) have not attended such training (Table 5.5, Figure 5.5).

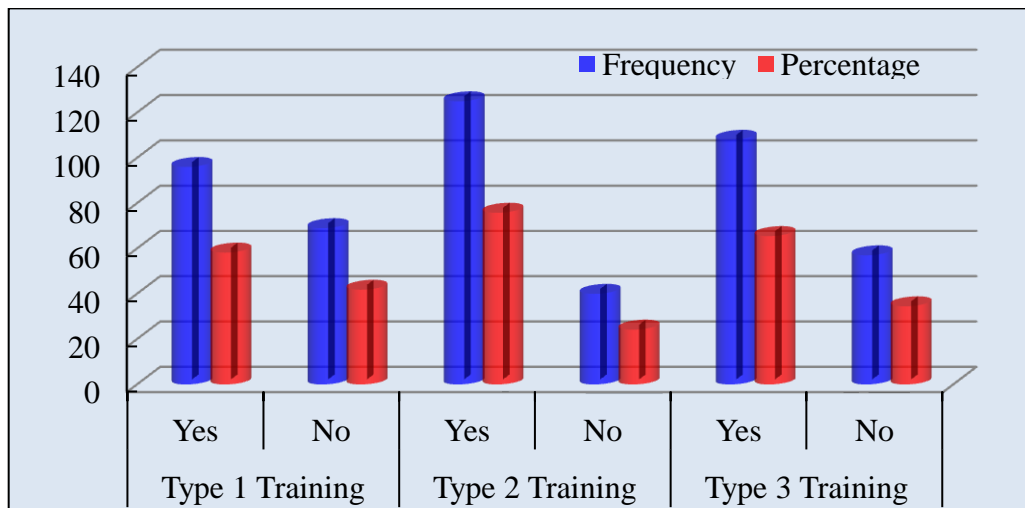


Figure 5.5. Pattern of responses to attending Type 1 Training, Type 2 Training and Type 3 Training.

In response to attending Type 3 Training (*Q.8: Have you had any continuing types of training, such as using technology or for research development or other types of professional engagement?*), slightly less than two-thirds of the respondent administrators, 108 (65.5% of the responses) indicated that they have attended type 3 training, whereas the remaining one-third of them, 57 (34.5% of the responses) have not attended such training (Table 5.5, Figure 5.5).

### 5.3 Importance of Training to Performance at Work

The respondents were asked to rate the importance of training to their performance at work (*Q.9: How important do you think training provided by the university is to your performance at work?*). Data presented in Table 5.6 and illustrated in Figure 5.6 indicate that the majority of the administrators, 140 (84.8% of the responses) referred to training as

‘very important’ or ‘important to their performance at work. None of the administrators referred to training as ‘not important’ to their performance at work, whereas 25 of them (15.2%) did not express their views (‘neutral’) (Table 5.5, Figure 5.6).

Table 5.6. Responses to importance of training to performance at work

	Very Important	Important	Neutral	Not Important
<b>Frequency</b>	120	20	25	0
<b>Percentage</b>	72.7	12.1	15.2	0.0

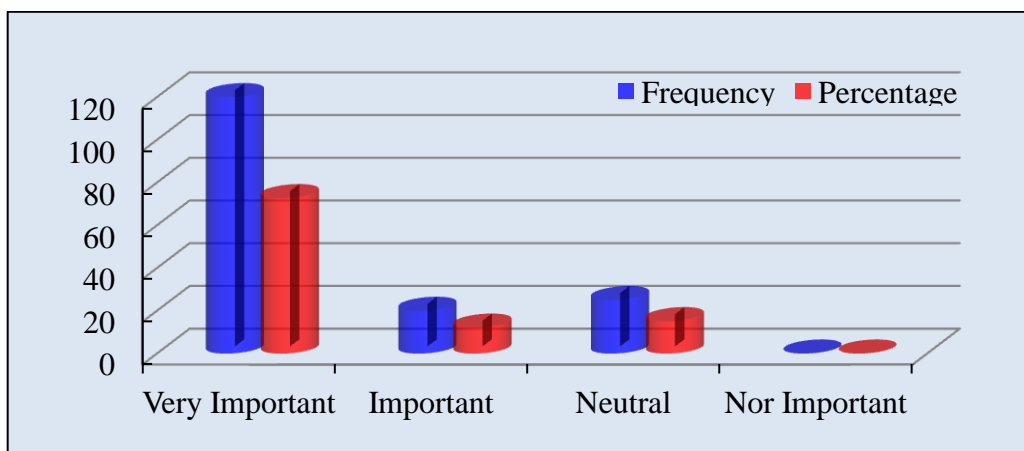


Figure 5.6. Pattern of responses to the importance of training to performance at work.

#### 5.4 Participation in All Types of Training

When asked whether they have participated in any of the three types of training, mentioned earlier during the past five years, (*Q10: Have you taken part in any of the 3 types training above within the last five years?*), about three-fifths of the administrators, 100 (60.6% of the responses) indicated so (Table 5.7, Figure 5.7). The remaining 65 administrators (39.4% of the responses) did not participate in all three types of training.

Table 5.7. Responses to participating in all types of training

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	100	65	165
<b>Percentage</b>	60.6	39.4	100.0

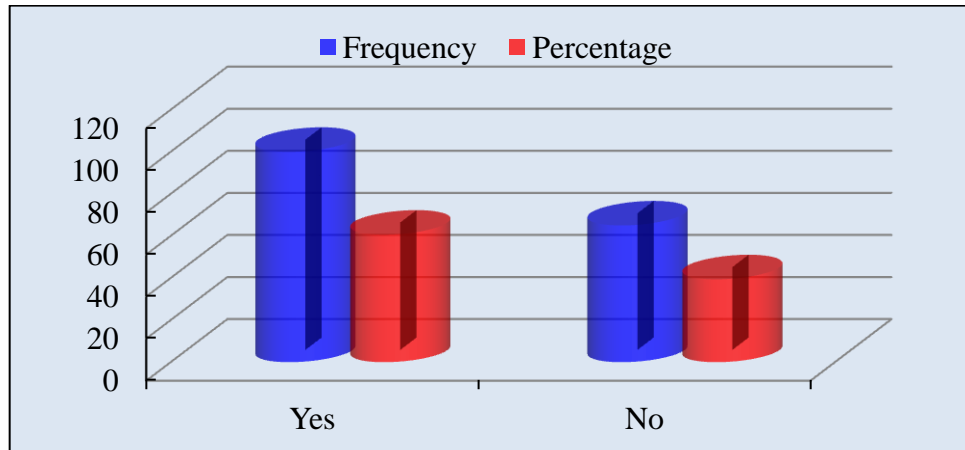


Figure 5.7. Pattern of responses to participating in all types of training.

## 5.5 Participation in Other Types of Training

In response to whether the respondents have participated in other types of training other than the three types mentioned above (*Q11: Have you taken part in any other type of training not specifically referred to in the above categories, for example, professional or personal development?*), two-thirds of the administrators who indicated that they have attended training courses other than the three types referred to earlier (Table 5.8, Figure 5.8). .

Table 5.8. Responses to participating in other types of training

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	111	54	165
<b>Percentage</b>	67.3	32.7	100.0

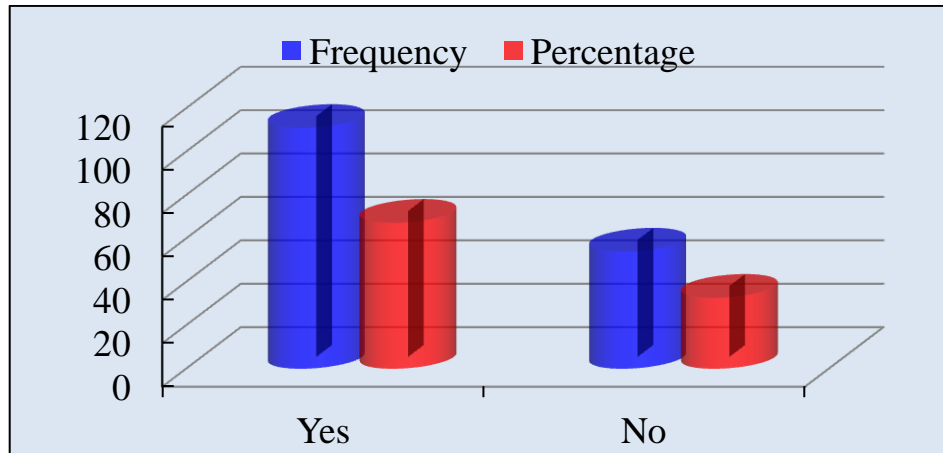


Figure 5.8. Pattern of responses to participating in other types of training.

## 5.6 Identification of Training Needs

The respondent administrators were asked about how their training needs were identified (*Q.12: How was the training referred above identified?*). Data presented in Table 5.9 and illustrated in Figure 5.9 indicate that most administrators' training needs (97, 59.1% of the responses) were mostly identified by the University. However, none of the administrators' training needs were identified by their heads of department. The data also indicate that many administrators, 28 (16.5% of the responses) have identified their training needs themselves. Managers' identification of training needs was indicated by around one-quarter of the administrators, 40 (24.3% of the responses).

Table 5.9. Responses to how respondents' training needs were identified

	Self	Manager	Head of Department	University
<b>Frequency</b>	28	40	0	97
<b>Percentage</b>	16.5	24.3	0.0	59.1

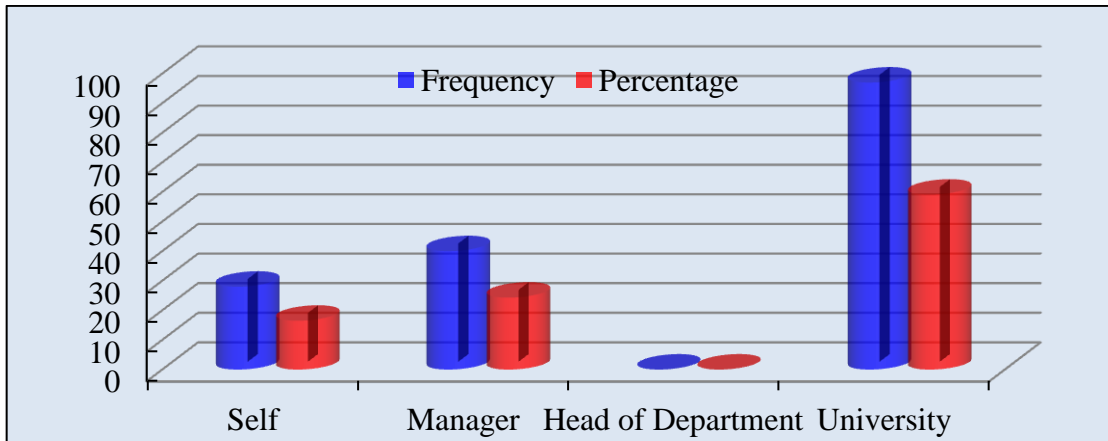


Figure 5.9. Pattern of responses to how respondents' training needs were identified.

### 5.7 University's Staff Appraisal System

The respondents were asked whether the University has its system of appraising its staff (*Q.13. Does the University have a system of staff appraisal?*). Most administrators, 109 (66.1% of the responses) indicated that the University does not have such a system (Table 5.10, Figure 5.10). The remaining 56 administrators (33.9%) indicated that the University has such a system.

Table 5.10. Responses to whether the University have a system of staff appraisal

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	56	109	165
<b>Percentage</b>	33.9	66.1	100.0

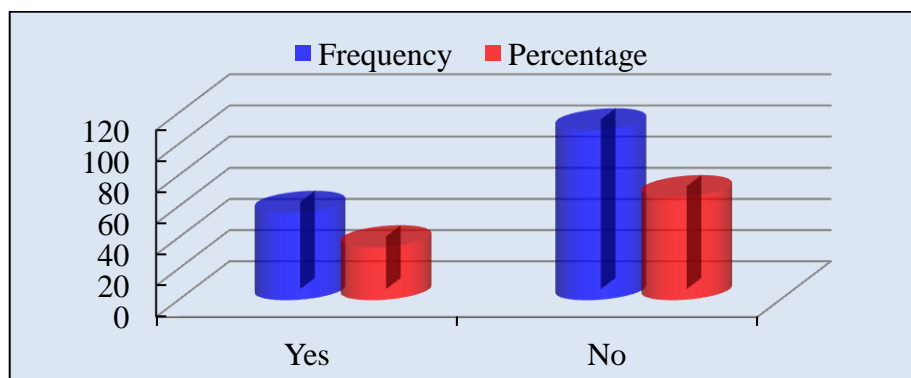


Figure 5.10. Pattern of responses to whether the University have a system of staff appraisal.

## 5.8 Staff Discussion with Their Immediate Managers Concerning Their Development/Training Needs

The respondents were asked whether they have discussed their development/training needs with their immediate superiors in the past five years (*Q.14 and Q.15*): *Have you discussed your development/training needs with your immediate superior/head of department/manager in the last five years?* Slightly more than one-third of the administrators, 59 (35.7% of the responses) have discussed their training/development needs more than three times, and more than one-quarter of them, 46 (27.8% of the responses) discussed this issue with their superiors only once. Many of the administrators have either discussed this issue with their superiors twice (29, 17.5% of the responses) or three times (31, 19% of the responses) (Table 5.11, Figure 5.11).

Table 5.11 Responses to how often staff discuss their development/training needs with their managers

	Once	Twice	Three Times	More than three times
<i>Frequency</i>	46	29	31	59
<i>Percentage</i>	27.8	17.5	19.0	35.7

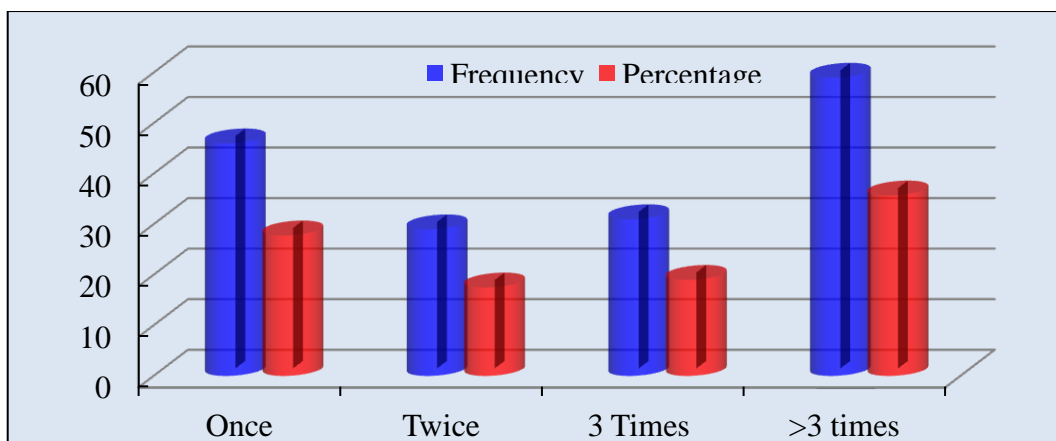


Figure 5.11 Pattern of responses to how often staff discuss their development/training needs with their managers.

## 5.9 Type of Training

The respondents were asked about type of training they had during the past five years (*Q.16: What kind of training have you attended?*). About half of the administrators either had on-the-job training, 81 (49.6% of the responses), or off-the-job training, 82 (50.4% of the responses) (Table 5.12, Figure 5.12).

Table 5.12. Responses to types of training taken during the past five years

	On-the-Job	Off-the-Job	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	82	83	165
<b>Percentage</b>	49.6	50.4	100.0

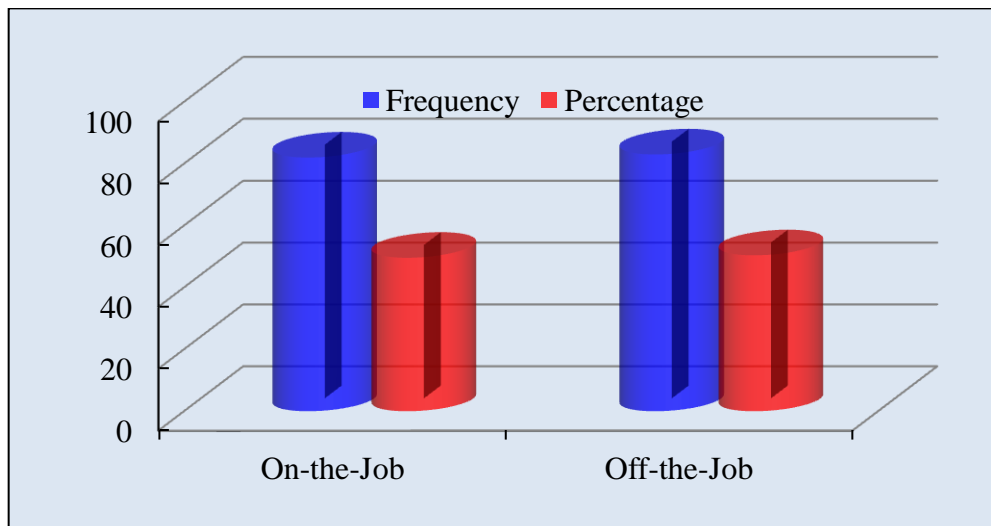


Figure 5.12. Pattern of responses to types of training taken during the past five years.

When asked whether off-the-job training was locally attended or abroad (*Q17: If training was off-the-job, was it: local, or abroad?*), the majority of the administrators who had off-the-job training (69, 82.8%) indicated that they were trained abroad; only 14 of them (17.2% of this group) were trained locally (Table 5. 13, Figure 5.13).

Table 5.13. Responses to places of off-the-job training

	Local	Abroad
<b>Frequency</b>	14	69
<b>Percentage</b>	17.2	82.8

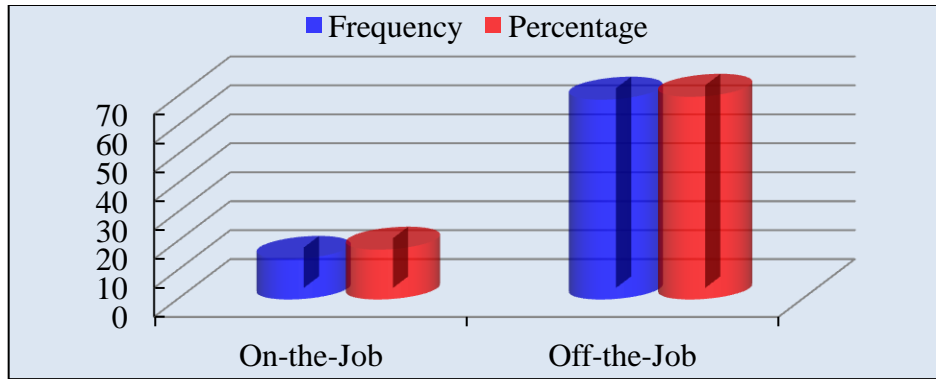


Figure 5.13. Pattern of responses to places of off-the-job training.

## 5.10 Types of Training Materials Received

When asked about the kind of training material they have received during training (*Q18: What kind of training materials did you receive?*), none of the administrators had ‘academic’ training materials, in contrast to around half of them, 82 (49.6% of the responses) received ‘professional’ training materials, and about one-third of them, 54 (33.0% of the responses) received ‘computer training’ materials (this was in the form of lecture notes or guidelines of how to use and operate computer programmes). 29 (17.4% of the responses) received ‘technical’ training materials (Table 5.14, Figure 5.14).

Table 5.14 Responses to the type of training materials provided

	Academic	Technical	Professional	Computer Training
Frequency	0	29	82	54
Percentage	0.0	17.4	49.6	33.0



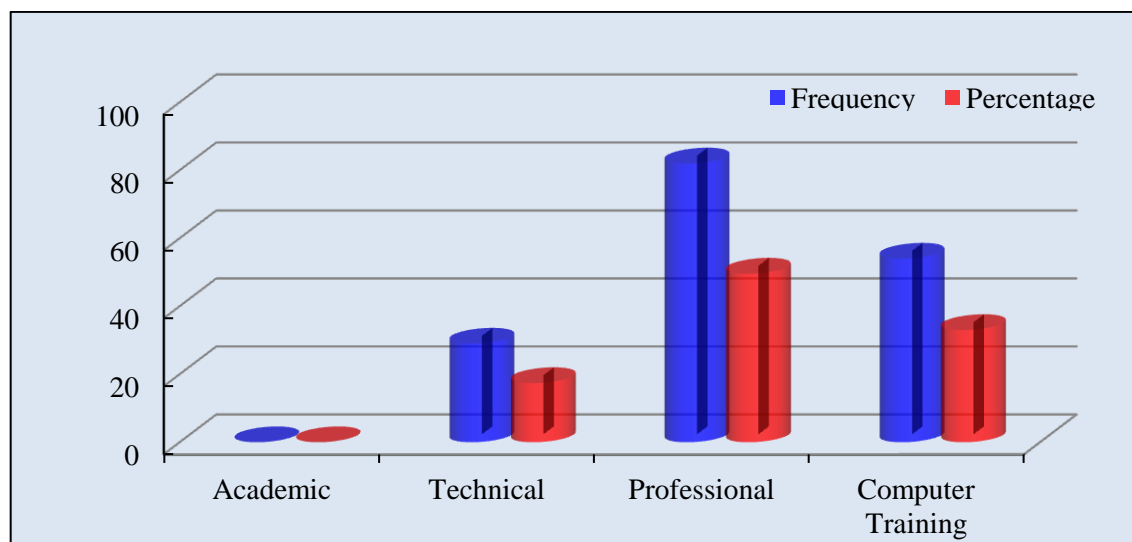


Figure 5.14 Pattern of responses to the type of training materials provided.

### 5.11 Relevance of Training Materials to Respondents' Job

The respondents who have attended training courses during the past five years were asked about the relevance of the training materials to their jobs (*Q19: How were training materials relevant to your job?*). Around two-thirds of the administrators indicated that the training materials were either 'very relevant', 72 (43.5% of the responses) or 'relevant', 36 (21.7% of the responses) to their jobs. The remaining one-third indicated that the training materials were 'not at all relevant' to their jobs, whereas none of them referred to such materials as 'irrelevant' (Table 5.15, Figure 5.15).

Table 5.15. Responses to the relevance of training materials to job

	<b>Very Relevant</b>	<b>Relevant</b>	<b>Irrelevant</b>	<b>Not at all Relevant</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	72	36	0	57
<i>Percentage</i>	43.5	21.7	0.0	34.8

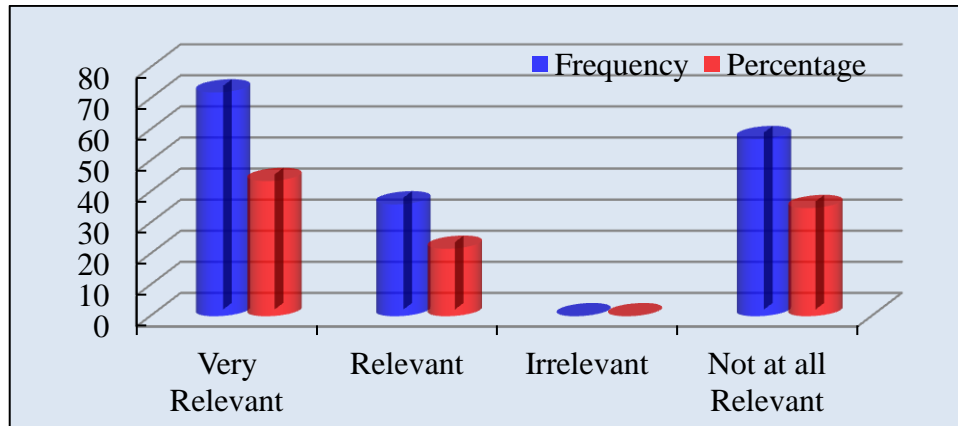


Figure 5.15 Pattern of responses to the relevance of training materials to job.

## 5.12 Summary of Section A: Training Provided by the University

More of the administrators participating in the study indicated that they have attended Type 1, Type 2 and Type 3 training. Administrators s have attended other types of training, and their training needs were mainly identified the University. The majority of the administrators seemed to be unaware of their University having a system for their appraisal. Administrators indicated that they have discussed their development/training needs with their managers mainly on one occasion. While half of the administrators have attended on-the-job training courses; the remaining half attended off-the-job training. Most of the administrators who have attended off-the-job training courses abroad.

As regards the type of training materials provided, most of the academics and the administrators none of the administrators have been provided with ‘academic’ materials, given that the nature of the jobs carried out by the administrators is not academic. Computer materials were provided to the administrators; possibly due to the fact that administrators are using computers more than academics to perform daily administrative jobs. Most of the administrators thought that training materials were relevant to their jobs.

## B. Evaluation of Training Programmes

### 5.13 Clarity of What Is Wanted to Get out of Training Prior to Attending

The respondents were asked whether they were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before they attended training courses (Q20: *Were you clear about what you wanted to get out of the training before attending?*). Data presented in Table 4.40 and illustrated in Figure 4.18 clearly indicate that the majority of the administrators, 139 (84.3% of the responses), were clear of what they wanted to get out of training prior to attending training course (Table 5.16, Figure 5.16). This was identified through appraisal, as indicated earlier in this chapter (Section 5.8).

Table 4.16. Responses to whether the respondents were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before attending training courses

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	139	26	165
<b>Percentage</b>	84.3	15.7	100.0

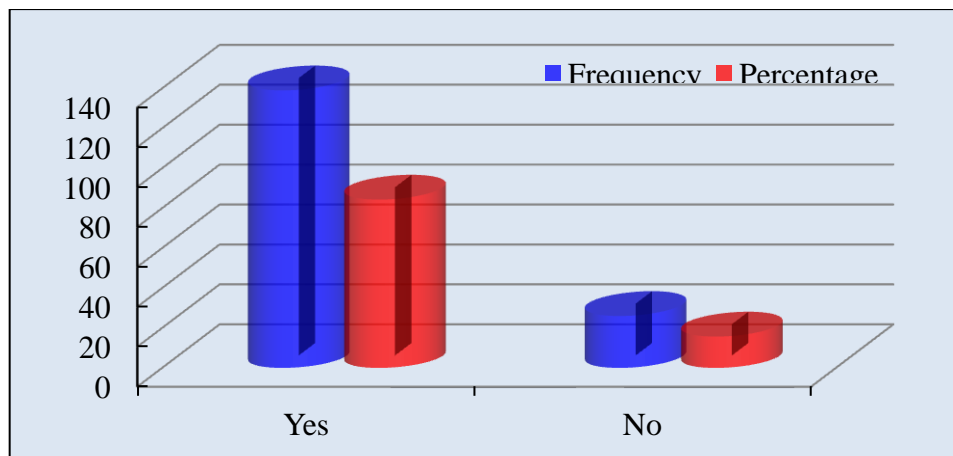


Figure 4.16. Pattern of responses to whether the respondents were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before attending training courses.

## 5.14 Usefulness of Pre-joining Instructions/Information

The respondents were asked whether pre-joining instructions/information was informative (*Q21: How informative were the pre joining instructions/information?*). The majority of the administrators indicated that pre-joining instruction/information was either ‘highly informative’, 57(34.8% of the responses) or ‘informative’, 83 (58.2% of the responses), though many of them, 17 (14.8% of the responses) did not express their views (‘neutral’) (Table 5.17, Figure 5.17).

Table 5.17. Responses to whether pre-joining instruction/information was informative

	Highly Informative	Informative	Neutral
<i>Frequency</i>	57	83	25
<i>Percentage</i>	34.8	50.4	14.8

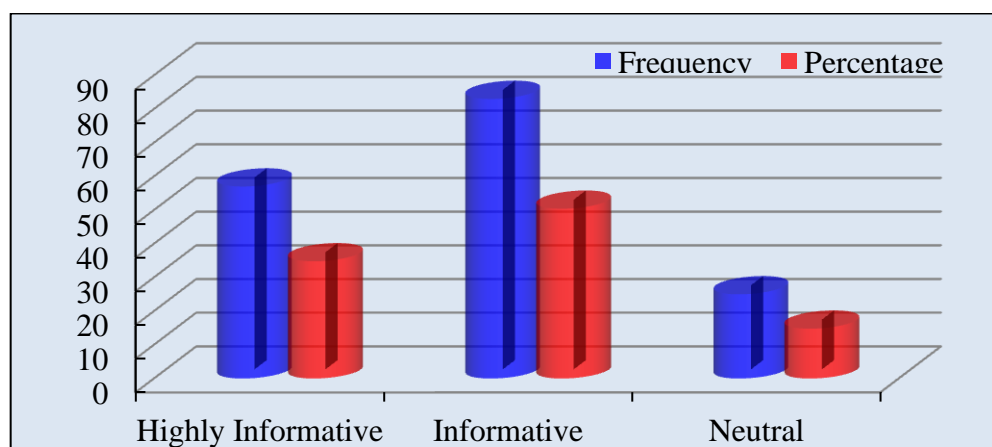


Figure 5.17 Pattern of responses to whether pre-joining instruction/information was informative.

## 5.15 Relevance of Training

The respondents were asked about how relevant they found their training (*Q22: How relevant did you find the training?*). About two-thirds of the administrators who have attended training courses in the past five years found that their training either ‘highly

relevant', 52 (31.3% of the responses) or 'relevant', 56 (33.9% of the responses), the remaining one-third, 52 (34.8% of the responses), found it 'not relevant' (Table 5.18, Figure 5.18).

Table 5.18. Responses to the relevance of training

	Highly Relevant	Relevant	Not Relevant
<b>Frequency</b>	51	56	52
<b>Percentage</b>	31.3	33.9	34.8

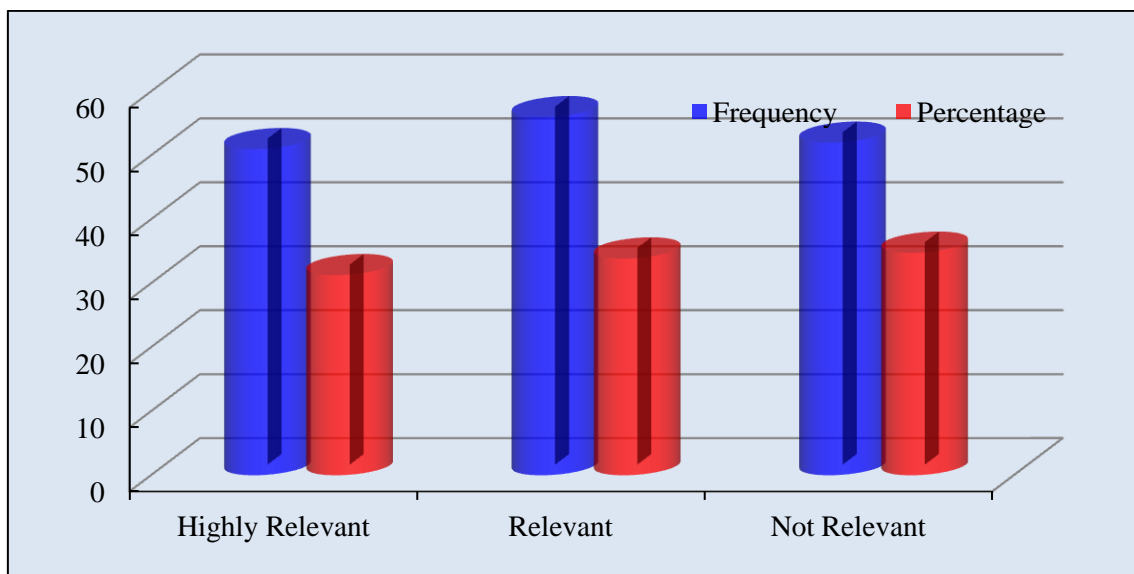


Figure 5.18. Pattern of responses to the relevance of training.

## 5.16 Professionalism and Knowledge of the Trainers

The respondent administrators were asked about their opinion of the trainers' professionalism and knowledge trainers (*Q23: In your opinion how professional/knowledgeable were the trainers?*). While about half of the administrators who have attended training programmes during the past five years perceived their trainers as being either 'highly professional', 30 (18.3% of the responses), or 'professional', 53 (32.2% of the responses), whereas the other half of them, 82 (49.6% of the responses), perceived their trainers as being 'not professional' (Table 5.19, Figure 5.19).

Table 5.19 Responses to trainers' professionalism and knowledge

	Highly Professional	Professional	Neutral	Not Professional
<b>Frequency</b>	30	53	0	82
<b>Percentage</b>	18.3	32.2	0.0	49.6

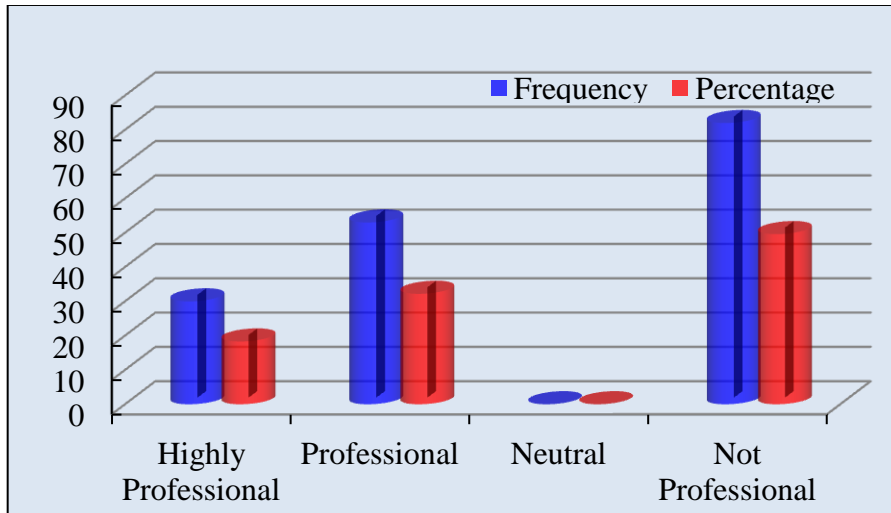


Figure 5.19 Pattern of responses to trainers' professionalism and knowledge.

### 5.17 When the New Skills/Knowledge/Abilities Are Used

The respondents were asked whether they use new skills/knowledge/abilities (KSAs) immediately when the return to their work, use them later or not using them at all (*Q24: When you returned to work did you use the new skills/knowledge/abilities immediately or did you have to wait to use them?*). None of the administrators used their new KSAs immediately, and while one-third of them (56, 33.9% of the responses) used them 'shortly after returning' to work, almost an equal number of them (54, 32.2% of the responses) have not used them at all (Table 5.20, Figure 5.20). One-fifth of the administrators (34, 20.9% of the responses) indicated that they used their new KSAs 'a long time after returning', whereas some others (21, 13.0% of the responses) used them 'some time after returning' to work.



Table 5.20. Responses to when new skills/knowledge/abilities are used by the respondents after returning to work

	Immediately	Shortly After Training	Some Time After Returning	A Long Time After Returning	Not Using Them at All
<b>Frequency</b>	0	56	21	34	54
<b>Percentage</b>	0.0	33.9	13.0	20.9	32.2

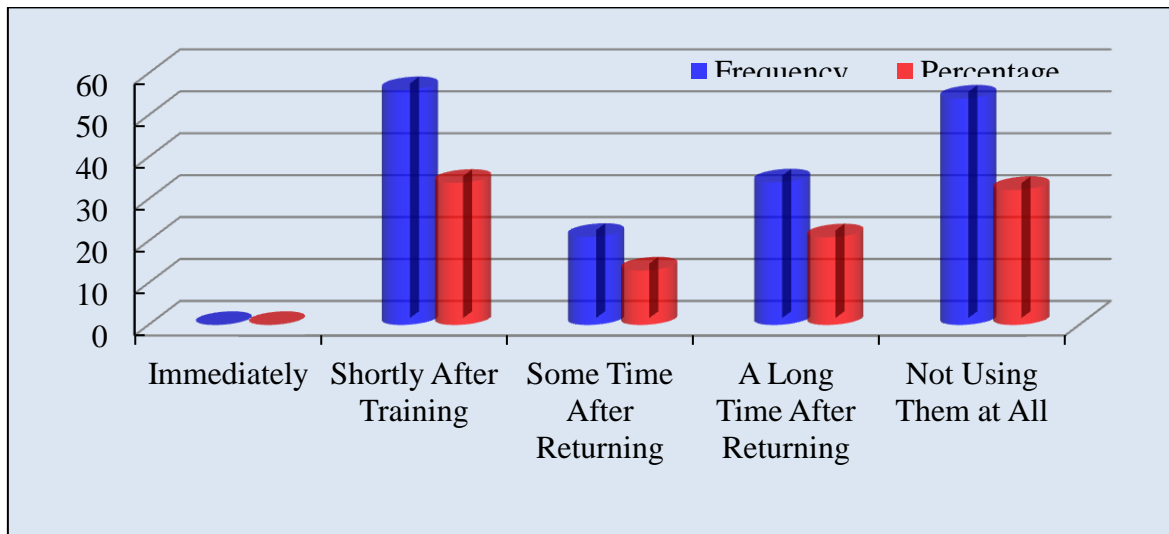


Figure 5.20. Pattern of responses to time when new skills/knowledge/abilities are used by the respondents after returning to work.

### 5.18 Adequacy of the Length of Training Programmes

The respondents were asked whether the training programmes they attended were long enough (*Q25: Were the training programmes attended long enough?*). The majority of the administrator, 136 (82.6% of the responses), indicated that the programmes attended were not long enough (Table 5.21, Figure 5.21). However, many respondents, 29 (17.4%) indicated that training programmes were long enough.

Table 5.21. Responses to whether the training programmes were long enough

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	29	136	165
<b>Percentage</b>	17.4	82.6	100.0



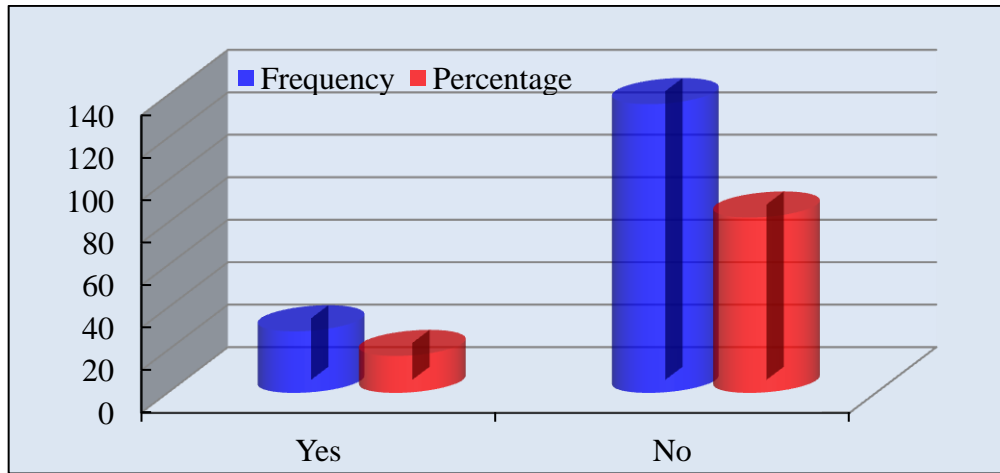


Figure 4.21. Pattern of responses to whether the training programmes were long enough.

### 5.19 Discussing Training Programme Objectives with the Manager before Attending the Programme

The respondents were also asked if they have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme (*Q26: Did you discuss the objectives of the training programme with your manager before attending the programme?*). Almost two-thirds of respondent administrators, 105 (63.6% of the responses), indicated that they did not have had such a discussion with their managers before attending the training programme (Table 5.22, Figure 5.22). The remaining 60 administrators (36.4%) indicated that they have had such a discussion with their managers before attending the training programme

Table 5.22. Responses to whether or not the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	60	105	165
<b>Percentage</b>	36.4	63.6	100.0

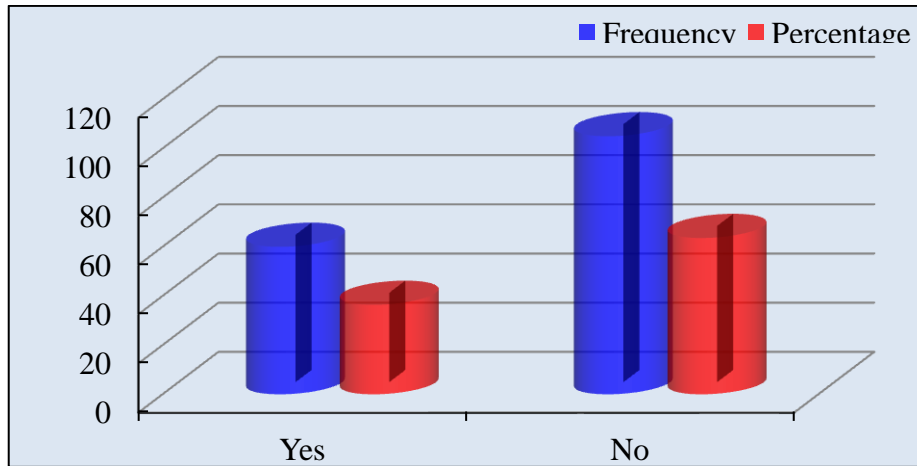


Figure 5.22. Pattern of responses to whether or not the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme.

## 5.20 Relevance of Training Programmes Objectives to Respondents' Jobs

When asked how the training programmes objectives were relevant to their job (*Q27: How relevant were the training programmes objectives to your job?*), about two-thirds of administrators indicated that training programme objectives were either 'very relevant', 76 (46.1% of the responses), or 'relevant', 36(21.7% of the responses), (Table 5.23, Figure 5.23). About one-third of the administrators thought that the objectives were either 'not relevant', 24 (14.8% of the responses), or 'very not relevant', 29 (17.4% of the responses).

Table 5.23. Responses to relevance of the training programmes objectives to respondents' job

	<b>Very Relevant</b>	<b>Relevant</b>	<b>Neither Relevant nor Irrelevant</b>	<b>Not Relevant</b>	<b>Very Not Irrelevant</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	76	36	0.0	24	29
<i>Percentage</i>	46.1	21.7	0.0	14.8	17.4

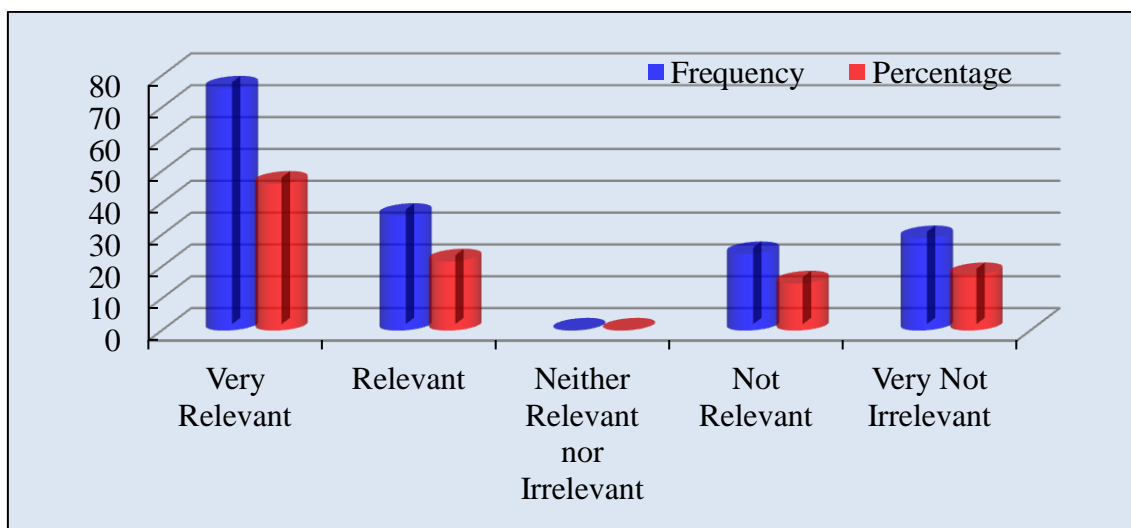


Figure 5.23. Pattern of responses to relevance of the training programmes objectives to respondents' job.

## 5.21 Respondents' Immediate Feelings of the Training Programmes

### Attended

The respondents were asked about their immediate feelings of the training programmes they attended (*Q28: What were your immediate feelings about the training programmes attended?*). Slightly less than two-thirds of the respondent administrators described their feelings as either 'very satisfactory', 72 (43.5% of the responses), or 'satisfactory', 36(21.7% of the responses). However, while many of them described their feelings as 'neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory', 28(17.4% of the responses), twenty-nine (17.4% of the responses) described their feelings as 'very unsatisfactory' (Table 5.24, Figure 5.24).

Table 5.24 Responses to respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended

	<b>Very Relevant</b>	<b>Relevant</b>	<b>Neither Relevant nor Irrelevant</b>	<b>Not Relevant</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	72	36	28	29
<i>Percentage</i>	43.5	21.7	17.4	17.4

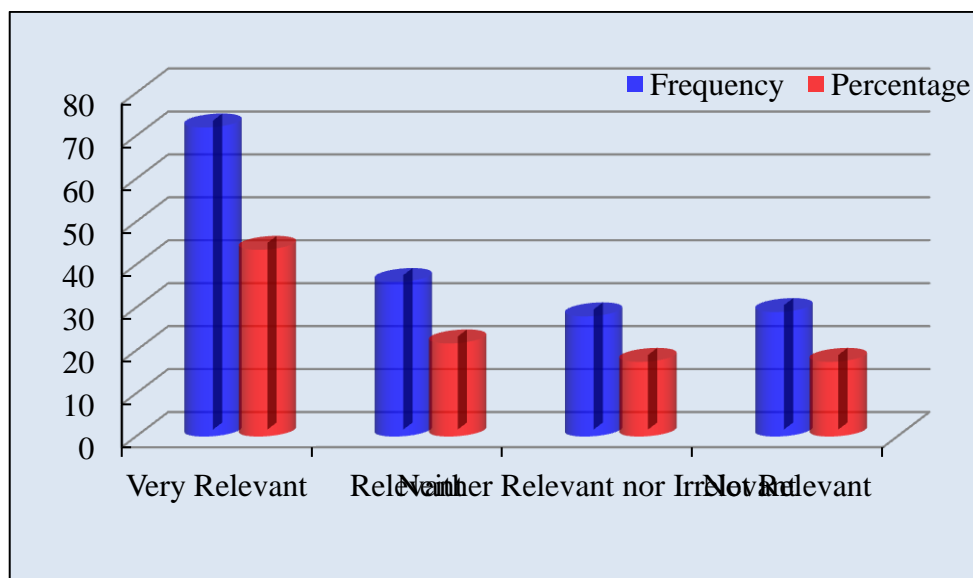


Figure 5.24 Pattern of responses to respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended.

## 5.22 Changes in Respondent's Feelings about Training after Returning to Work

The respondent administrators were asked whether their feelings changed once they were back in work (*Q29: Did these feelings change once you were back in work?*). Half of the administrators, 83 (50.4% of the responses), indicated that their feelings changed once they were back in work (Table 5.25, Figure 5.25). In contrast, the remaining half of the administrators indicated that their feelings about training did not change after returning to work.

Table 5.25. Responses to whether respondents' feelings about training changed after returning to work

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	83	82	165
<b>Percentage</b>	50.4	49.6	100.0

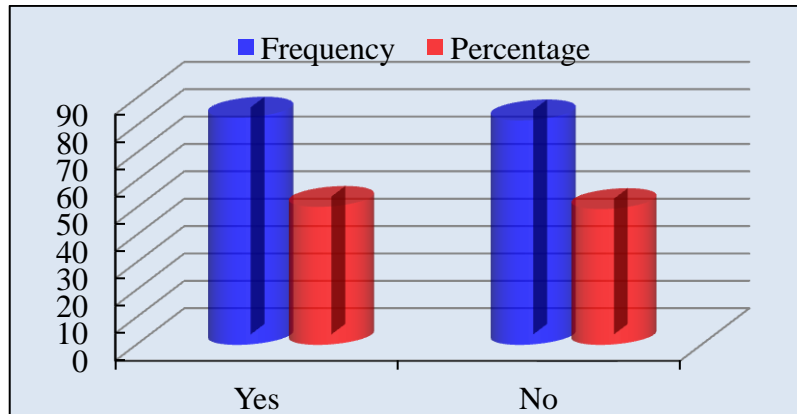


Figure 5.25. Pattern of responses to whether respondents' feelings about training changed after returning to work.

### 5.23 Reflection upon the Benefits Gained from Training

The respondents were asked whether they have reflected on the benefits gained from their training (*Q30: Have you reflected upon the benefits you gained from the training programme(s)?*). More than half of the administrators, 89 (53.9% of the responses) indicated that they have reflected on the benefits gained from their training (Table 5.26, Figure 4.26).

Table 5.26. Responses to whether respondents have reflected on the benefits gained from their training

	Yes	No	Total
<b>Frequency</b>	89	76	165
<b>Percentage</b>	53.9	46.1	100.0

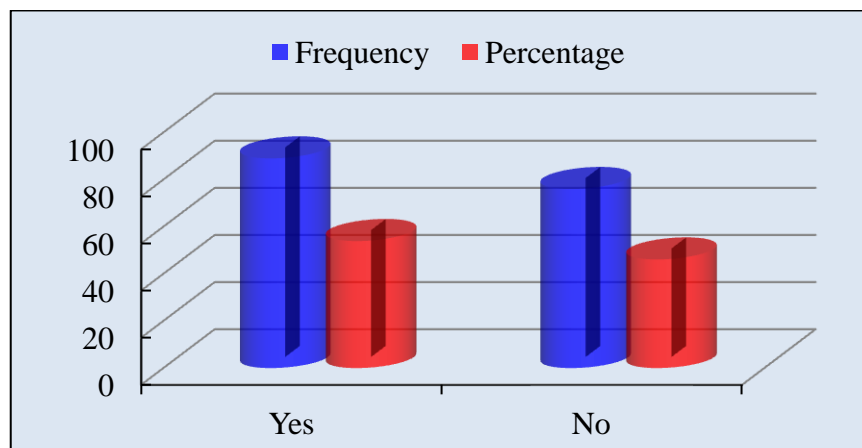


Figure 5.26. Pattern of responses to whether respondents have reflected on the benefits gained from their training.

In a follow up question asking those respondents who answered positively how they managed to reflect upon the benefits gained (*Q31: If the answer is 'Yes', how did you manage this?*), slightly more than two-thirds of those administrators who responded positively to Q.30, 42 out of 60 (67.7% of this group), indicated that they managed to reflect upon the benefits gained from training by means of discussion with their managers, and the remaining 29 administrators in this group (32.3% of the group) indicated that they did so through self-assessment; hence, none of them had any discussions with their colleagues about this issue (Table 5.27, Figure 5.27).

Table 5.27. Responses to how respondents managed to reflect upon the benefits gained

	Discussion with Managers	Discussion with Colleagues	Self Assessment
<b>Frequency</b>	60	0	29
<b>Percentage</b>	67.7	0.0	32.3

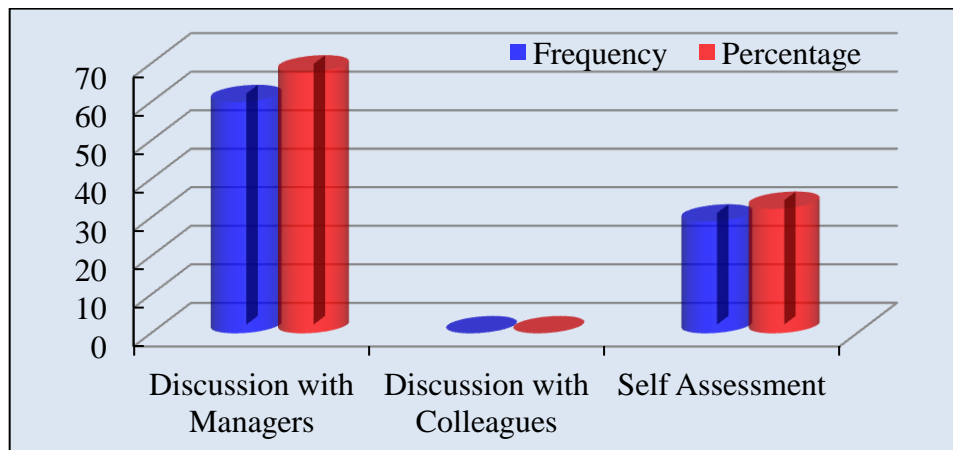


Figure 5.27 Pattern of responses to how respondents managed to reflect upon the benefits gained.

## 5.24 Summary of Section B: Evaluation of Training Programmes

The majority of the administrators agreed that they were clear about what they wanted to get out of the training prior to attending training course, and also agreed that pre-joining instructions/information were informative and that training material were relevant to their job. Half of the administrators maintained that their trainers were professionals.

None of the administrators used their KSAs immediately after returning to their job, but delayed using them shortly to a long time after returning to their job. It seems that the length of training programmes was not long enough to the majority of the administrators. The same can be said about discussing the objectives of training programmes with their managers before attending the training programmes. The majority of the administrators agreed that training programmes' objectives were relevant to their jobs.

Most of the administrators were in agreement that their immediate feelings of the training programmes attended were satisfactory, and that such feelings changed after returning to their work, especially by the academics. More than half of the administrators seemed not to have reflected on the benefits gained from training. It also seemed that most of the academics and administrators have reflected upon the benefits gained mainly by discussing them with their managers.

Issues relating to Management support for training and development and perceived benefits of training are analysed in Part Three of this Chapter.

## **B: Evaluation of Training Programmes**

Responses to the questionnaire items relating to management/supervisor support for training and development and perceived benefits of training are analysed in this part.

### **A. Management Support for Training and Development**

The respondents were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement/disagreement concerning five items. The respondents were asked to rate their agreement/disagreement using a five-point Likert scale: 1 (strongly Disagreed) to 5 (Strongly Agreed).

#### **5.25 Supervisor's encouragement and Support to Take Advantage of Training and Development Opportunities**

The respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed that their supervisor encouraged and supported them to take advantage of training and development opportunities (*Q32: My supervisor encourages and supports me to take advantage of training and development opportunities*). The majority of the administrators either 'strongly disagreed', 129 (78.3% of the responses), or 'disagreed', 6 (3.5% of the responses) that their supervisors encouraged and supported them to take advantage of training and development opportunities (Table 5.28, Figure 5.28). Less than one-fifth of the administrators only agreed with it.

Table 5.28. Responses to supervisors encouraging and supporting staff to take advantage of training and development opportunities

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	129	6	0	30	0
<i>Percentage</i>	78.3	3.5	0.0	18.3	0.0



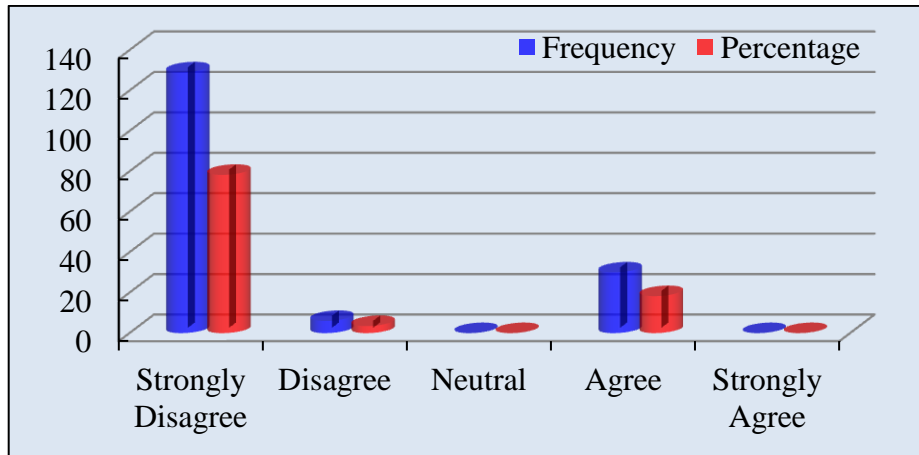


Figure 5.28. Pattern of responses to supervisors encouraging and supporting staff to take advantage of training and development opportunities.

## 5.26 Supervisors Discussion with Staff about Training and Development Needs

The respondents were asked whether their supervisors talk to them about their training and development needs (*Q33: My supervisor frequently talks with me about my training and development needs*). Slightly less than two-thirds of the administrators either ‘strongly disagreed’, 80 (48.7% of the responses) or ‘disagreed’, 26 (15.7% of the responses), with this statement. None of the administrators either ‘strongly agreed’ with this statement or expressed their views (neutral) (Table 5.29, Figure 5.29).

Table 5.29. Responses to supervisors talking to staff about their training and development needs

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	80	26	0	59	0
<i>Percentage</i>	48.7	15.7	0.0	35.7	0.0

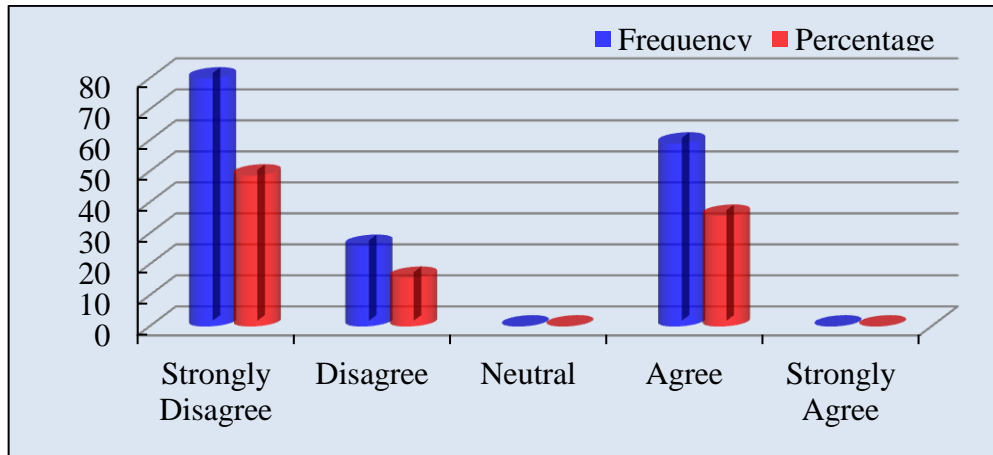


Figure 5.29. Pattern of responses to supervisors talking to staff about their training and development needs.

### 5.27 Supervisors Jointly Arranging Tasks and Development Goals with the Staff

The respondents were asked whether their supervisors jointly arranged tasks and development goals with them (*Q34: My supervisor jointly arranges tasks and development goals with me*). The majority of the administrators, 129 out of 165 (78.3% of the responses) ‘strongly disagreed’ with this statement; the remaining 36 administrators (21.7% of the responses) ‘agreed’ with it (Table 5.30, Figure 5.30).

Table 5.30. Responses to supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with their staff

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	129	0	0	36	0
<i>Percentage</i>	78.3	0.0	0.0	21.7	0.0

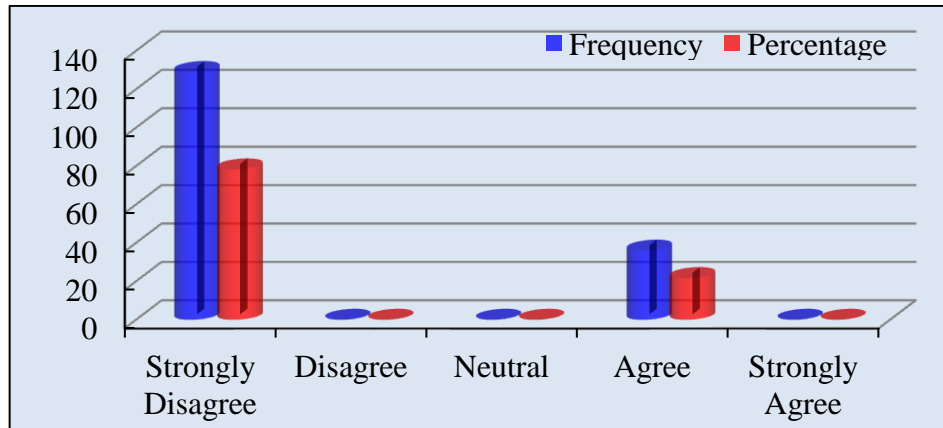


Figure 5.30. Pattern of responses to supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with their staff.

## 5.28 Supervisors Jointly Reviewing Progress on Tasks and Development Goals at Timely Intervals

When asked whether their supervisors jointly review progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals with them (*Q35: My supervisor jointly reviews progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals*), the majority of the administrators, 129 out of 165 (78.3% of the responses) ‘strongly disagreed’ with this statement; the remaining 36 administrators (21.7% of the responses) ‘agreed’ with it (Table 5.31, Figure 5.31).

Table 5.31. Responses to supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	129	0	0	36	0
<i>Percentage</i>	78.3	0.0	0.0	21.7	0.0

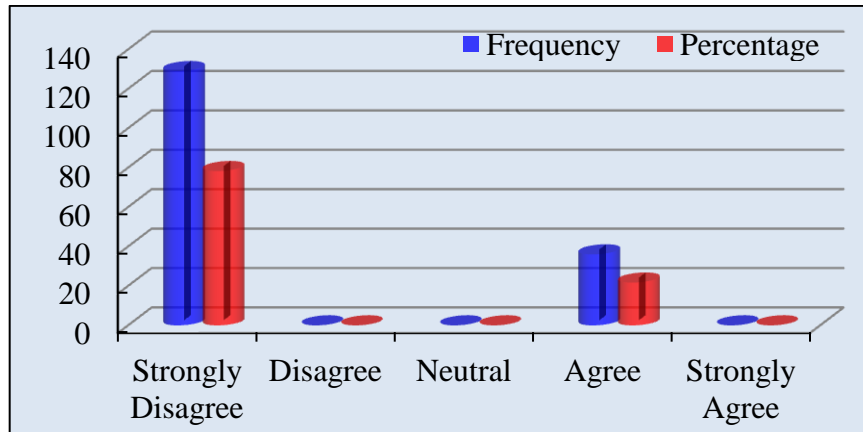


Figure 5.31. Pattern of responses to supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals.

### 5.29 Supervisor's Effective Coaching and Guidance

The respondents were asked whether their supervisors coach and guide them effectively (*Q. 36. My supervisor coaches and guides me effectively*). The majority of administrators, 129 (78.3% of the responses), 'strongly disagreed' with this statement; whereas the remaining 36 respondents either 'agreed', 22 (13.0 of the responses) or 'strongly agreed', 14 (8.7% of the responses) with this statement (Table 5.32, Figure 5.32).

Table 5.32. Responses to whether supervisors coach and guide employees effectively

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	129	0	0	22	14
<i>Percentage</i>	78.3	0.0	0.0	13.0	8.7

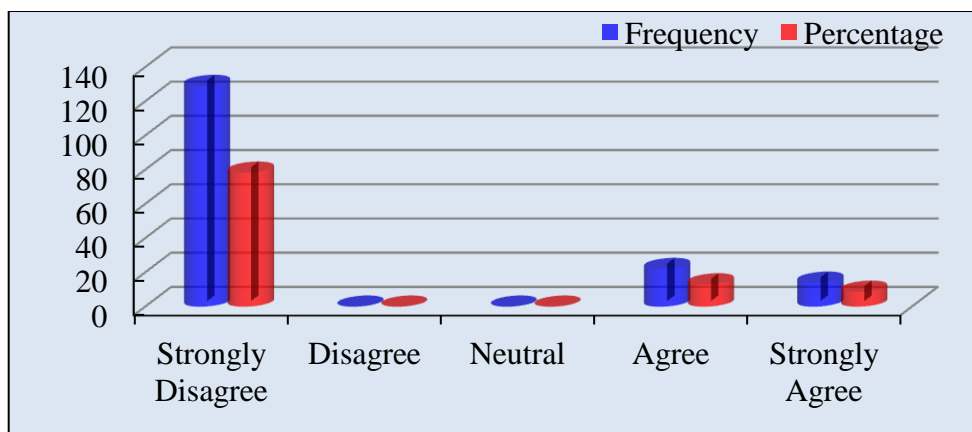


Figure 5.32. Pattern of responses to whether supervisors coach and guide employees effectively.

### **5.30 Summary of Section A.: Management Support for Training and Development**

The majority of the administrators indicated that they were dissatisfied with their supervisors' encouragement and support to take advantage of training and development opportunities. More than half of the administrators were also dissatisfied with their supervisors talking to them about their training and development needs. The majority of the administrators were dissatisfied with their supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with them. Around three-fifths of the administrators were dissatisfied with their supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals. The majority of the administrators were dissatisfied with their supervisors coaching and guiding them effectively.

Findings relating to the perceived benefits of training are analysed below.

## B: Perceived Benefits of Training

### 5.31 Training Leads to Promotion/Career Advancement/Higher Pay

When asked whether training leads to their leads to promotion, career advancement and/or higher pay (*Q37: Training leads to promotion/career advancement/higher pay*), two-thirds of the administrators, 111 (67.0% of the responses) ‘strongly disagreed’ that training leads to their promotion, career development and/or higher pay, in contrast to about one-fifth of them, 30 (18.3% of the responses) who ‘strongly agreed’ with the statement, and 24 others (14.8% of the responses) who did not express their views (Table 5.33, Figure 5.33).

Table 5.33. Responses to whether training lead to promotion, career advancement and/or higher pay

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	111	0	24	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	67.0	0.0	14.8	0.0	18.3

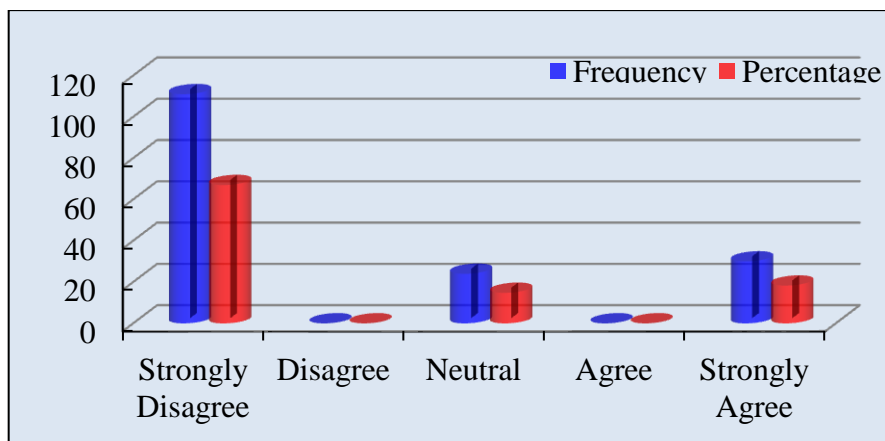


Figure 5.33. Pattern of responses to whether training leads to promotion, career advancement and/or higher pay.

### 5.32 Training Increases Job Satisfaction

The respondents were asked whether training increased their job satisfaction (*Q38: Training increases job satisfaction*). The majority of the administrators either ‘strongly

disagreed’, 103 (62.6% of the responses), or ‘disagreed’, 26 (15.7% of the responses) that training increased their job satisfaction; in contrast to the remaining 36 demonstrators who either ‘agreed’, 6 (3.5% of the responses), or ‘strongly agreed’, 30 (18.3% of the responses), with this statement (Table 5.34, Figure 5.34).

Table 5.34. Responses to whether training increased their job satisfaction

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	103	26	0	6	30
<i>Percentage</i>	62.6	15.7	0.0	3.5	18.3

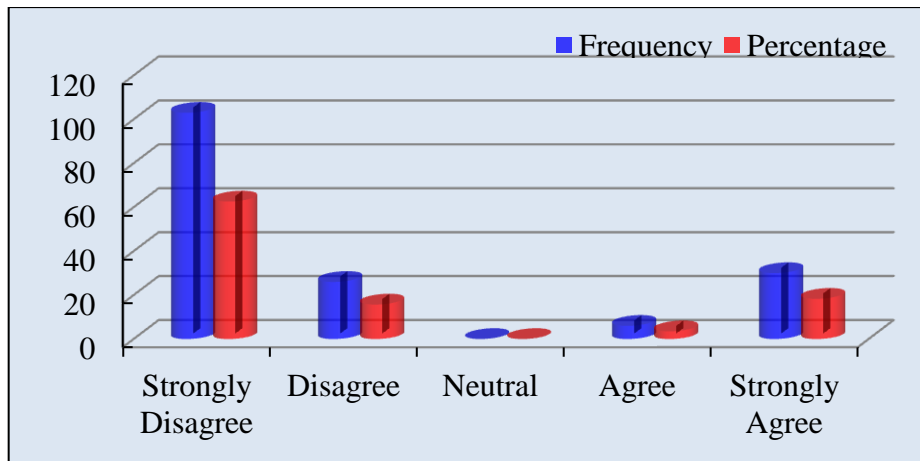


Figure 5.34. Pattern of responses to whether training increased their job satisfaction

### 5.33 Motivation at Work after Training

Respondents were asked whether they feel motivated at work after training (*Q39: After training, I feel more motivated at work after training*). More than three-fifths of the administrators ‘strongly disagreed’, 105 (63.5% of the responses) that they feel motivated at work after training, in contrast to about one-fifth of them who either ‘agreed’, 6 (3.5% of the responses), or ‘strongly agreed’, 30 (18.3% of the responses), with this statement.

Many administrators, 24 (14.8% of the responses), did not express their views ('neutral') (Table 5.35, Figure 5.35).

Table 5.35. Responses to whether respondents felt motivated at work after training

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	105	0	24	6	30
<i>Percentage</i>	63.5	0.0	14.8	3.5	18.3

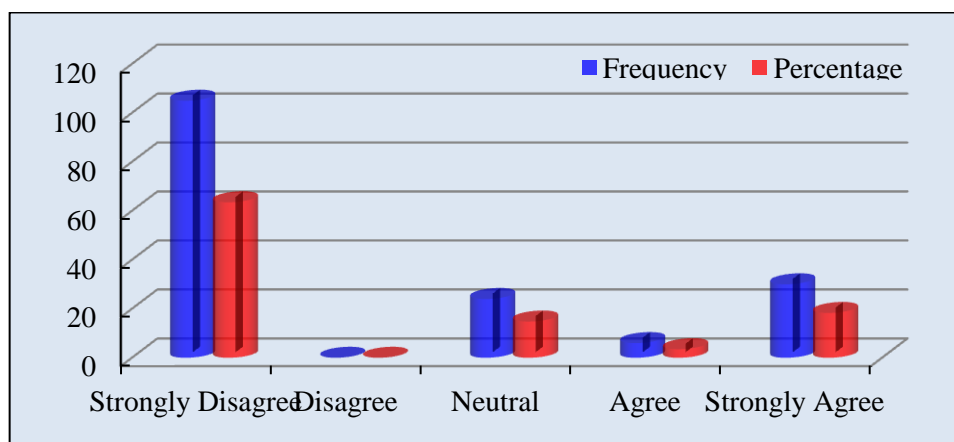


Figure 5.35. Pattern of responses to whether respondents felt motivated at work after training.

### 5.34 Training Helps Me to Perform my Job Better

Respondents were asked whether training has helped them perform their job better (*Q40: Training helps me to perform my job better*). The majority of the administrators either 'strongly disagreed', 100 (60.6% of the responses), or 'disagreed', 29 (17.4% of the responses), that training helped them perform their job better. However, about one-fifth of the administrators either 'agreed' or 'disagreed' with it (Table 5.36, Figure 5.36).

Table 5.36. Responses to whether training helped respondents perform their job better

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	100	29	0	6	30



<i>Percentage</i>	60.6	17.4	0.0	3.5	18.3
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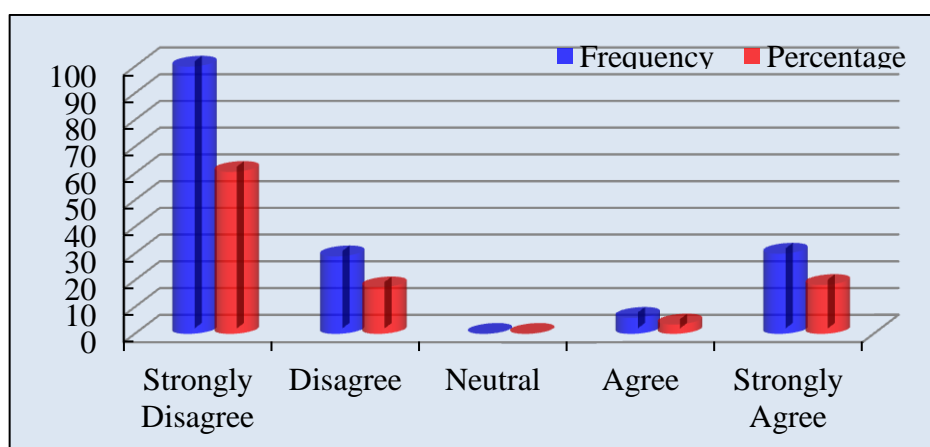


Figure 5.36. Pattern of responses to whether training helped respondents perform their job better.

#### 4.35 Training Improves Respondents' Promotion Potentials

When asked whether training improve their promotion potentials (*Q41: Training improves my promotion potentials*), the majority of the administrators either 'strongly disagreed', 75(45.2% of the responses), or 'disagreed', 54 (33.0% of the responses) that training has improved their promotion potentials. The remaining 36 administrators either 'agreed', 6 (3.5% of the responses) or 'strongly agreed', 30 (18.3% of the responses), with this this statement (Table 5.37, Figure 5.37).

Table 5.37. Responses to whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	75	54	0	6	30
<i>Percentage</i>	45.2	33.0	0.0	3.5	18.3

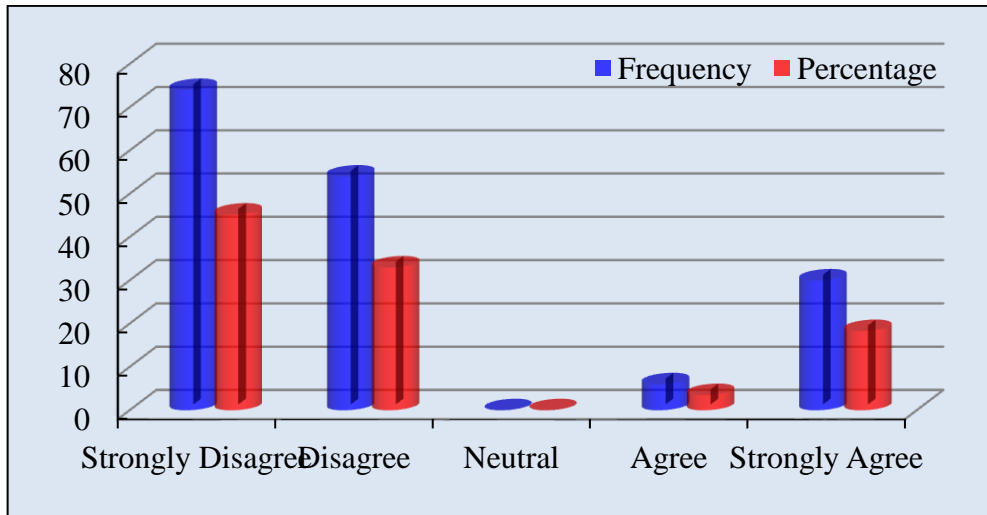


Figure 4.37. Pattern of responses to whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials.

#### 4.36 Feeling of Being Valued After Training

The respondents were asked whether training has helped them being valued by the University (*Q42: After training, I feel valued by the University*). The majority of the administrators either 'strongly disagreed', 121 (73.0% of the responses), or 'disagreed', 14 (8.7% of the responses) that training has helped them being valued by the University (Table 5.38, Figure 5.38). The remaining administrators, 30 (18.3% of the responses), indicated their 'strong agreement' with this item.

Table 5.38. Responses to whether respondents felt valued by the University after training

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	121	14	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	73.0	8.7	0.0	0.0	18.3

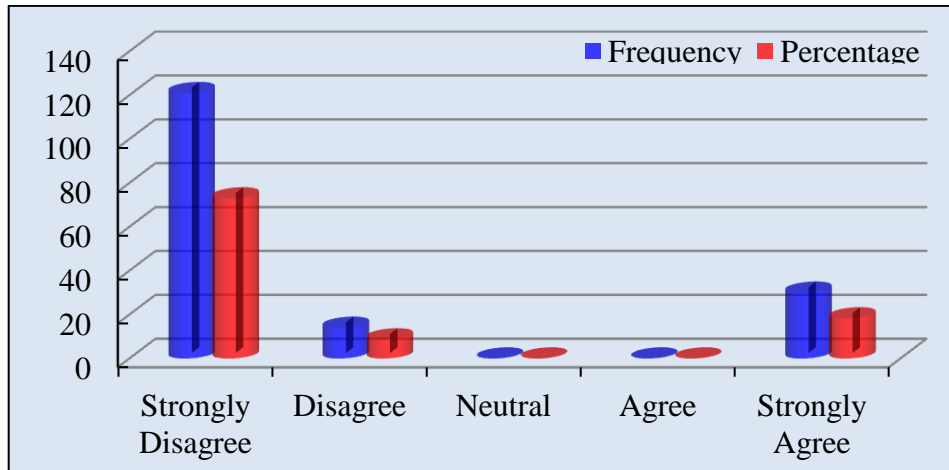


Figure 5.38. Pattern of responses to whether respondents felt valued by the University after training.

#### 4.37 Training Facilitates Career Progress

The respondents were asked whether training facilitates career progress (*Q43: Training facilitates career progress*). The majority of the administrators ‘strongly disagreed’ (103, 62.2% of the responses) or ‘disagreed’ (26, 15.7% of the responses) that training facilitates career progress. However, about one-fifth of the administrators (6 ‘agreed’, 3.5% of the responses; 30, 18.3% of the response) indicated their agreement with this statement (Table 5.39, Figure 5.39).

Table 5.39 Responses to whether training facilitates career progress

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	103	26	0	6	30
<i>Percentage</i>	62.6	15.7	0.0	3.5	18.3

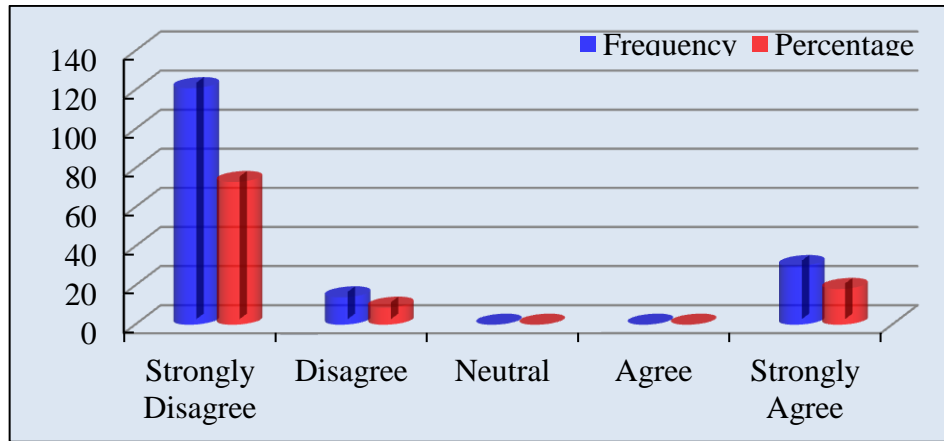


Figure 5.39. Pattern of responses to whether training facilitates career progress'

### 4.38 Training Helps Respondents to Grow as Individuals

When asked whether training has helped them to grow as persons (*Q44: Training helps me to grow as a person*), the majority of the administrators 'strongly disagreed', 129 (78.3% of the responses) that training has helped them to grow as a person (Table 5.40, Figure 5.40). In contrast, about one-fifth of the administrators (6 'agreed', 3.5% of the responses; 30, 18.3% of the response) indicated their agreement with this statement.

Table 5.40. Responses to whether training helped respondents to grow as a person

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<i>Frequency</i>	129	0	0	6	30
<i>Percentage</i>	78.3	0.0	0.0	3.5	18.3

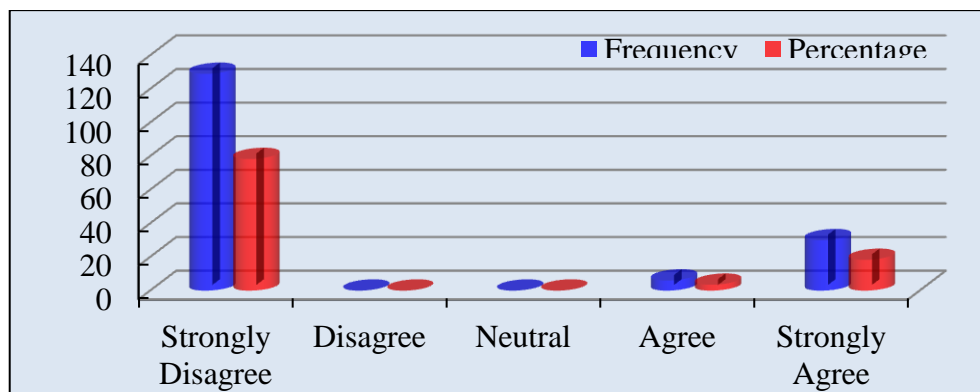


Figure 5.40. Pattern of responses to whether training helped respondents to grow as a person.



### **5.39 Summary of Section B: Perceived Benefits of Training**

Most of the administrators (67.0% of the responses) disagreed that training leads to their promotion.

The majority of the administrators disagreed that training increased their job satisfaction, the majority of the administrators disagreed with this statement, whereas 21.8% of them agreed with this issue. Most of the administrators (63.5% of the responses) disagreed with their feeling being motivated at work after training; about 21.8% of them indicated agreed with this issue.

The majority of the administrators (78.0% of the responses) disagreed that training helped them perform their job better, and that training improved their promotion potentials.

The majority of the administrators (81.7% of the responses) disagreed that they felt valued by the university after training. The majority of the administrators (87.3% of the responses) disagreed that training facilitated their career progress. the majority of the administrators (78.3% of the responses) disagreed that training helped them to grow as a person.

In the following sections (Part Four), findings relating to perceived important of and satisfaction with, pre- and post-training activities are analysed

## **Part Four: Findings Relating to Perceived Importance of, and Satisfaction with, Pre and Post-Training Activities**

Responses to the questionnaire items relating to perceived importance of, and satisfaction with, pre and post-training activities are analysed in this Section. This final part of the questionnaire consists of thirteen items; six items concern pre-training activities, and the remaining seven items relate to post-training activities.

### **A. Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Pre-Training Activities**

#### **5.40 Analysis of Strengths and Weaknesses to Determine Training Needs**

The respondents were asked about the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses in determining training needs prior to training (*Q45; Analysis of strengths and weaknesses to determine training needs*). The majority of the administrators indicated that such analysis is ‘very important’, 151 (91.7% of the responses). This issue is ‘not at all important’ to less than one-fifths of the administrators (Table 5.41, Figure 5.41.)

Table 5.41. Responses to the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	151	0	0	0	14
<i>Percentage</i>	91.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.3

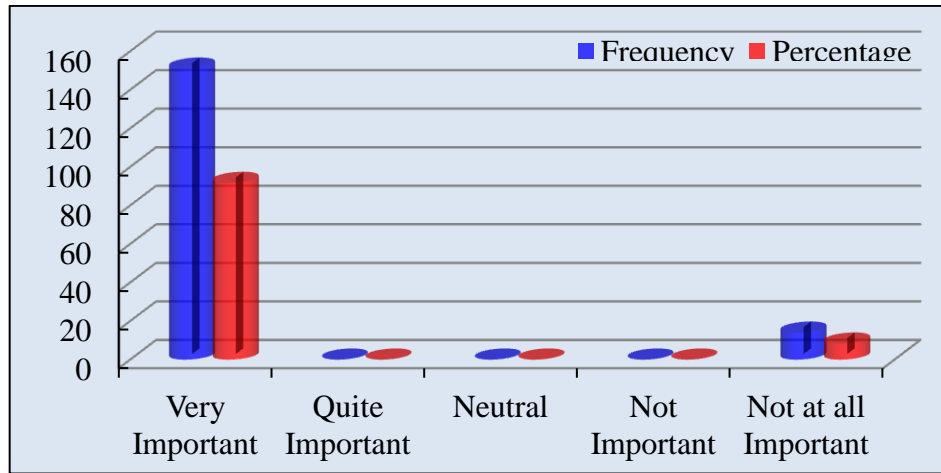


Figure 5.41. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs.

### 5.41 Importance of Having the Opportunity to Decide About Training Content and Methods before Training

When asked how they perceived the importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before attending training courses (Q46: *Having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods*), the majority of the administrators perceived this opportunity as either ‘very important’, 113 (68.7% of the responses) or ‘quite important’, 22 (13% of the responses), (Table 5.42, Figure 5.42). Many administrators (30, 18.3% of the responses) perceived it as ‘not at all important’.

Table 5.42. Responses to the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	113	22	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	68.7	13.0	0.0	0.0	8.3



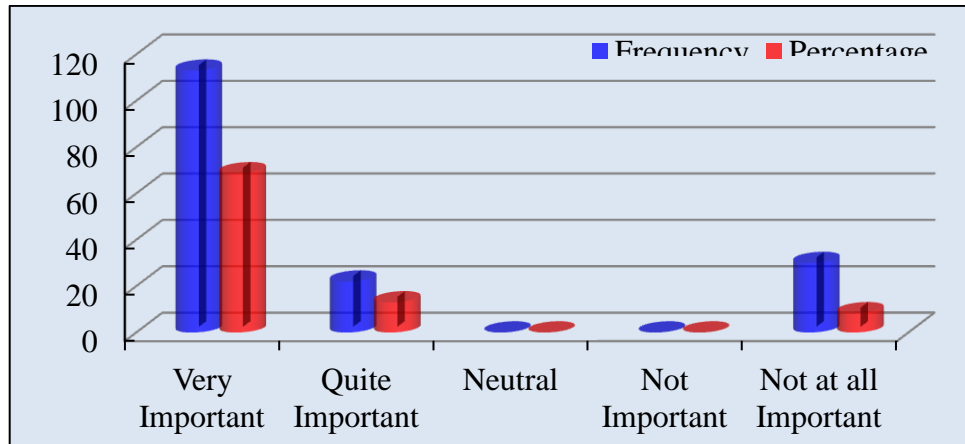


Figure 5.42. Responses to the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training.

#### 4.42 Importance of Preparatory Reading/Pre-Course Activities

The respondents were asked about the importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities (*Q47. Preparatory reading/pre-course activities*). The majority of the administrators perceived this item as ‘very important’, 111 (67.0% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 24 (14.8% of the responses) (Table 5.43, Figure 5.43). Nonetheless, around one-fifth of the administrators thought it is ‘not at all important’. However, 30 administrators (18.3% of the responses) perceived it as ‘not at all important’.

Table 5.43. Responses to the perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	111	24	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	67.0	14.8	0.0	0.0	18.3

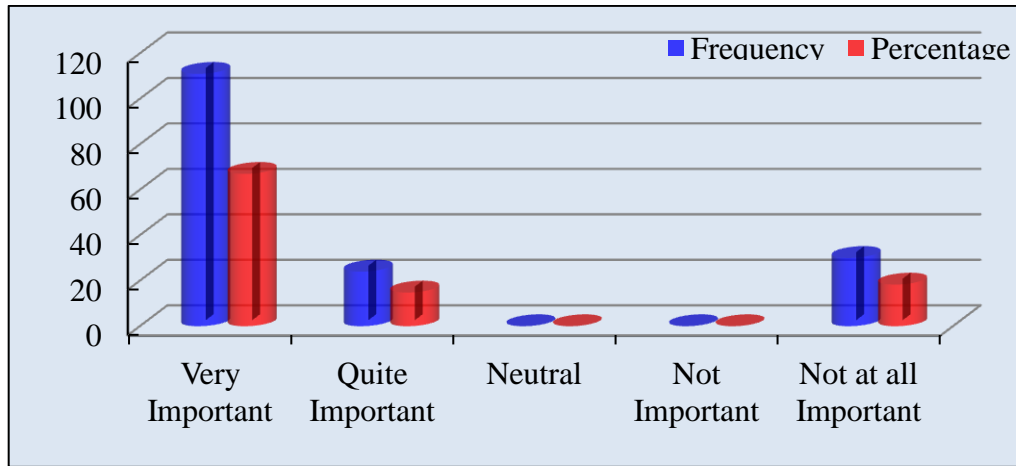


Figure 5.43. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities.

### 5.43 Importance of Release Time to Prepare for Training Courses

The respondents were asked about the importance of release time to prepare for a training course (*Q48: Release time to prepare for a training course*). The majority of the administrators thought it as either ‘very important’, 109 (66.1% of the responses) or ‘quite important’, 26 (15.7% of the responses) (Table 5.44, Figure 5.44). Slightly less than one-fifth of the administrators, 30 (18.3% of the responses), considered it as ‘not at all important’.

Table 5.44. Responses to the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	109	26	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	66.1	15.7	0.0	0.0	18.3

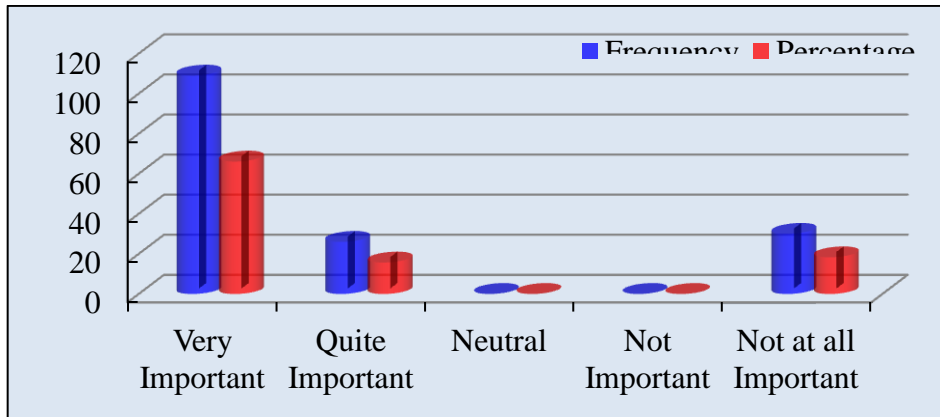


Figure 5.44. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course.

#### 5.44 Importance of Pre-course Briefing with the Manager/Supervisor

The respondents were asked about the importance of pre-course briefing with their manager/supervisor (49: *Pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor*). More than four-fifths of the administrators, 135 (81.7% of the responses), considered that it as ‘very important’ (Table 5.45, Figure 5.45). Less than one-fifth of the administrators, 30 (18.3% of the responses), perceived it as ‘not at all important’.

Table 5.45. Responses to the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor

	Very Important	Quite Important	Neutral	Not Important	Not at all Important
<i>Frequency</i>	135	0	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	81.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.3

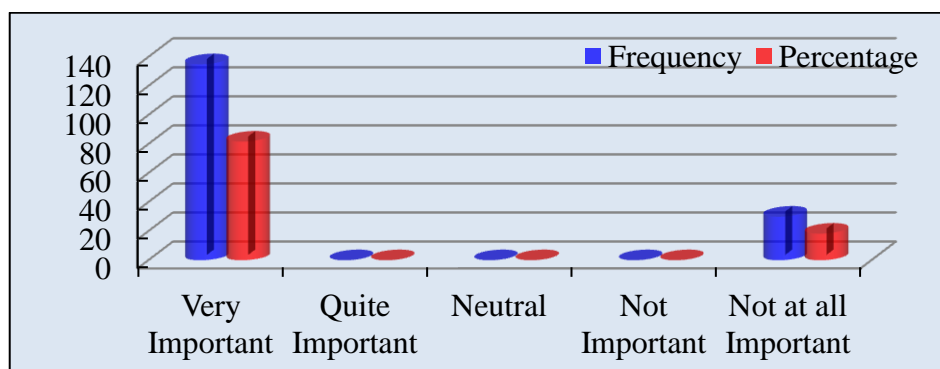


Figure 5.45. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor.

### 5.45 Importance of Setting Objectives for Performance Improvement

The respondents were asked about the importance of setting objectives for performance improvement (*Q50: Setting objectives for performance improvement*). The majority of the administrators perceived this issue as ‘very important’, 87 (53.0% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 48 (28.7% of the responses) (Table 5.46, Figure 5.46). This issue was regarded as ‘not at all important’ by around one-fifth of the administrators, 30 (18.3% of the responses).

Table 5.46. Responses to the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	87	48	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	53.0	28.7	0.0	0.0	18.3

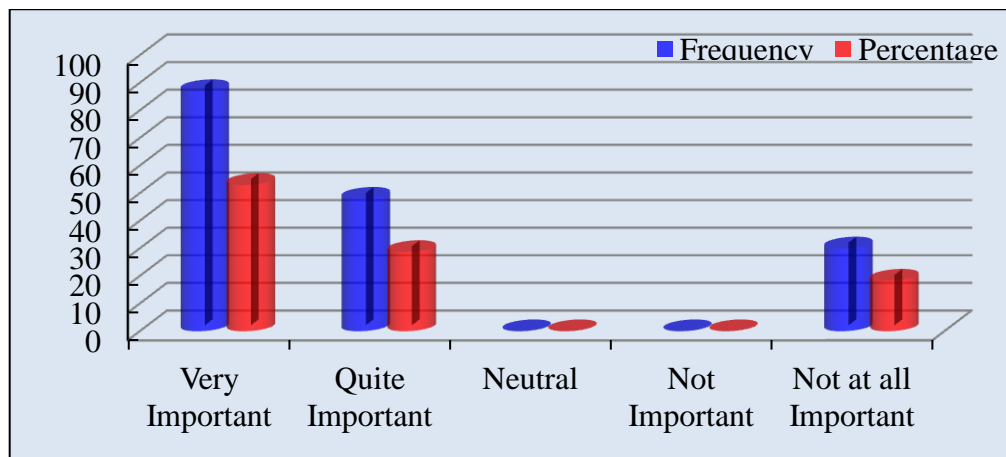


Figure 5.46. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement.

## 5.46 Summary of Section A: Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Pre-Training Activities

The greater majority of the administrators (91.7% of the responses) indicated that it is important to analyse strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs. The majority of the administrators (81.7% of the responses) referred to the importance of having the opportunity to decide about training contents and method before training, and also indicated the importance of preparatory readings/pre-course activities. The majority of the administrators (81.7% of the responses) referred to the importance of pre-course briefings with their managers/supervisors, as well as to the importance of setting objectives for performance improvement.

### B. Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Post-Training Activities

#### 5.47 Importance of Follow-up Meetings with the Manager/Supervisor

The respondents were asked about the importance of a post-training follow-up meeting with their manager/supervisor (*Q51. Follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor*). The majority of the administrators perceived it either as ‘very important’, 88 (53.0% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 47 (28.7% of the responses), (Table 5.47, Figure 5.47). About one-fifth of the administrators, 30 (18.3% of the responses) perceived it as ‘not at all important’.

Table 5.47. Responses to the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	88	47	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	53.0	28.7	0.0	0.0	18.3

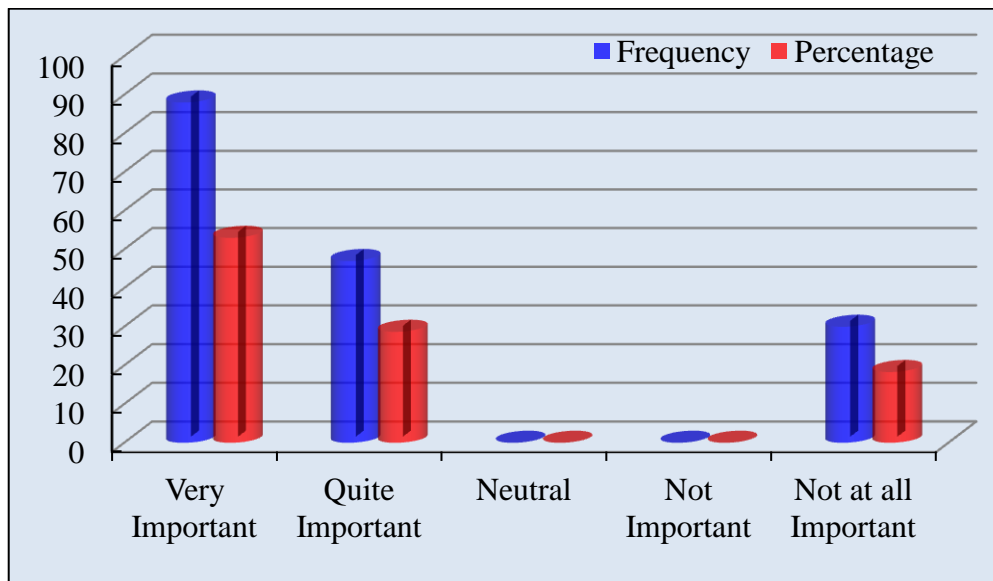


Figure 5.47. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor.

#### 5.48 Importance of Having the Opportunity to Use New Knowledge and/or Skills

When asked about having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills (*Q52: Having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills*), the majority of the administrators, 135 (81.7% of the responses) perceived it as ‘very important’, whereas the remaining 30 (18.3% of the responses), indicated that it ‘not at all important’ (Table 5.48, Figure 5.48).

Table 5.48. Responses to the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	135	0	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	81.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.3

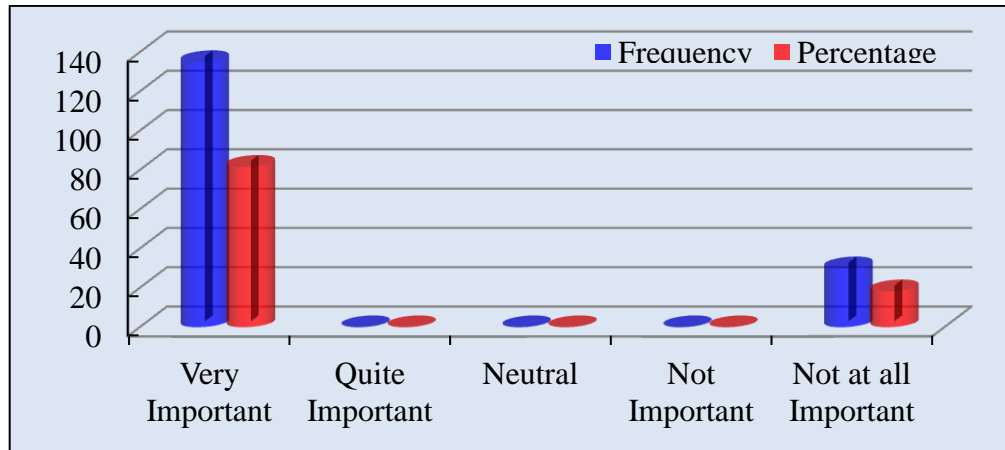


Figure 5.48. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills.

#### 5.49 Importance of Having the Necessary Resources to Apply New Knowledge and/or Skills

The respondents were asked about the importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills (*Q.53: Having the necessary resources (e.g., equipment, information) to apply new knowledge and/or skills*). More than four-fifths of the administrators perceived it as either ‘very important’, 109 (66.1% of the responses) or ‘quite important’, 26 (15.7% of the responses), whereas the remaining 21 administrators (18.3% of the responses) perceived it as ‘not at all important’ (Table 5.49, Figure 5.49).

Table 5.49. Responses to the perceived importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	109	26	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	66.1	15.7	0.0	0.0	18.3

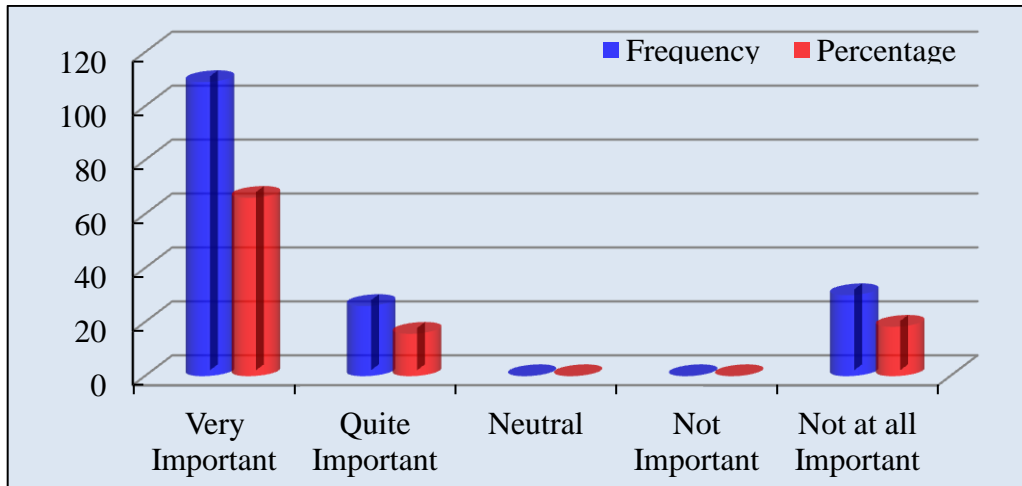


Figure 5.49. Responses to the perceived importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills.

### 5.50 Importance of Manager/Supervisor’s Support through Coaching and Feedback

The respondents were asked about the importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback (*Q54: Manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback*).

Data presented in Table 5.50 and illustrated in Figure 5.50 indicate that more than four-fifths of the administrators perceived this issue as ‘very important’, 113 (68.7% of the responses) or ‘quite important’, 22 (13.0% of the responses). Less than one-fifth of the administrators perceived it as ‘not at all important’.

Table 5.50. Responses to the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	113	22	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	68.7	13.0	0.0	0.0	18.3



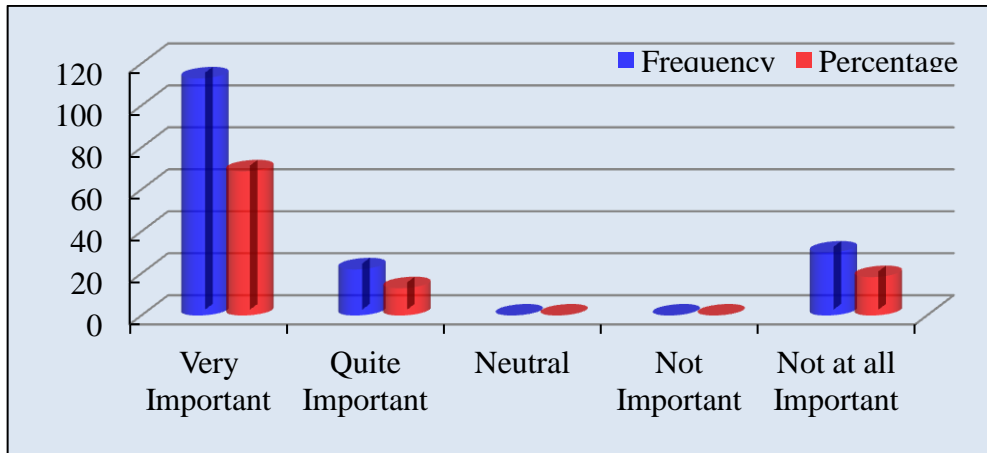


Figure 5.50. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback.

#### 4.51 Importance of Colleagues' Support to Practise New Skills

When asked about the importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills (*Q55: Support from colleagues to practise new skills*), more than four-fifths of the administrators perceived it as either 'very important', 88 (53.0% of the responses) or 'quite important', 47 (28.7% of the responses) (Table 5.51, Figure 5.51). Less than one-fifth of the administrators perceived it as 'not at all important'.

Table 5.51. Responses to the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	88	47	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	53.0	28.7	0.0	0.0	18.3

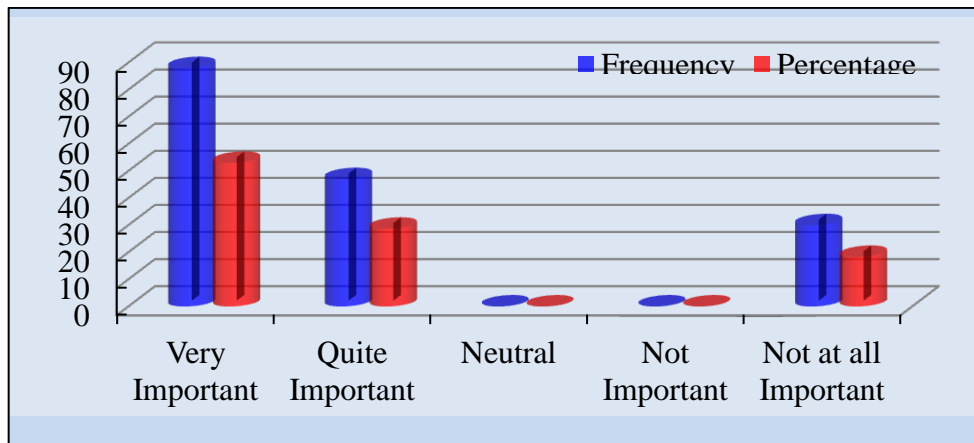


Figure 5.51. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills.

### 5.52 Importance of Being Evaluated on their Learning of Training Material

The respondents were asked about the importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material (*Q56: Being evaluated on the learning of training material*). More than four-fifths of the administrators perceived it as either ‘very important’, 88 (53% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 47 (28.7% of the responses) (Table 5.52, Figure 5.52). However, less than one-fifth of the administrators perceived it as ‘not at all important’.

Table 5.52. Responses to the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	88	47	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	53.0	28.7	0.0	0.0	18.3

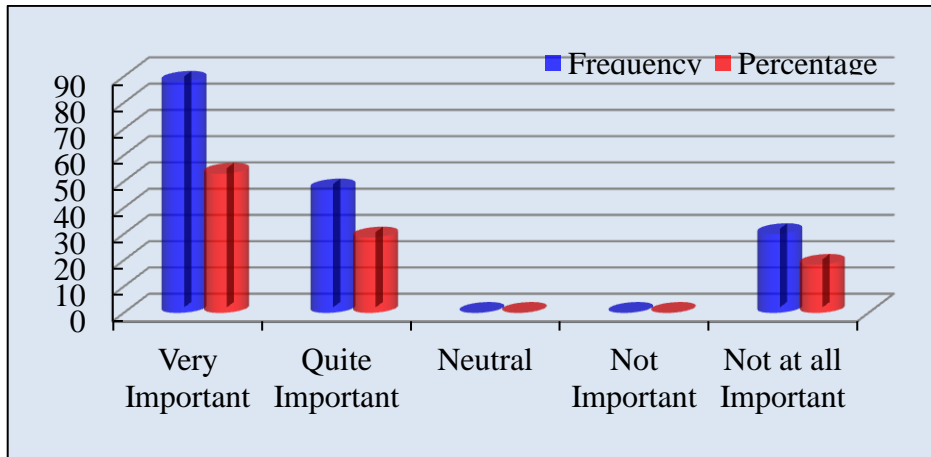


Figure 5.52. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material.

### 5.53 Importance of Being Evaluated on Use of Training on the Job

Finally, the respondents were asked to indicate the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job (Q57: *Material being evaluated on use of training on the job*). The majority of the administrators perceived it as either ‘very important’, 87 (53% of the responses), or ‘quite important’, 52 (22.5% of the responses), whereas 30 administrators (18.3% of the responses) perceived it as ‘not at all important’ (Table 5.53, Figure 5.53).

Table 5.53. Responses to the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job

	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Quite Important</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Not Important</b>	<b>Not at all Important</b>
<i>Frequency</i>	88	47	0	0	30
<i>Percentage</i>	53.0	28.7	0.0	0.0	18.3

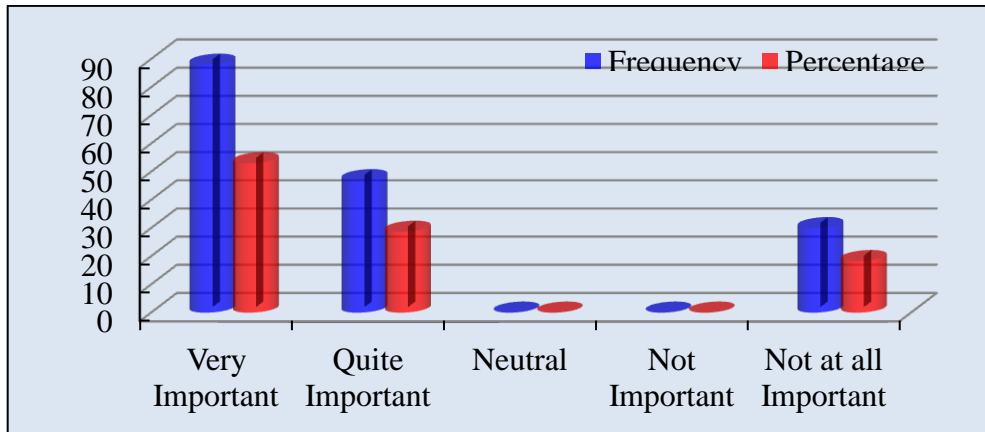


Table 5.53. Pattern of responses to the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job.

### 5.54 Summary of Section B: Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Post-Training Activities

The majority of administrators (81.7% of the responses) thought that it is important to have follow-up meetings with their managers/supervisors, and also thought that it is important to have the opportunity to use new knowledge/skills/abilities (KSAs). The majority of the administrators (81.7% of the responses) perceived the importance of having the necessary resources to apply new KSAs.

The majority of the administrators (81.8% of the responses) and referred to the importance of their managers’/supervisors’ support through coaching or feedback, and perceived the support from colleagues to practise new skills as important. They also perceived the importance of being evaluated on the learning from training materials

34.9% of the academics perceived the importance of being evaluated on the use of training on the job, 81.7% of the administrators perceived it as important. About 36.1% of the academics perceived it as not important.

## Chapter Six

### General Discussion of the Thesis Findings

#### 6.1 Introduction

The present study was carried out to investigate human resource development and training of administrative and academic staff members of Al-Aqsa University.

Training and development are imperative for the success of economic and social development. Attention has been given to training and development in Arab countries during the past three decades (Tarawneh, 2006). Arab countries, for example, Saudi Arabia (Mellahi and Wood, 2004), Kuwait (Al-Enezi, 2002); Oman (Budhwar et al., 2002); Algeria (Branine, 2004), Jordan (Durra, 1991; El-Said and Becker, 2003), and Libya (Aгнаia, 1996, 1997; Almhdie and Nyambegera, 2004; Weir et al., 2006), started intensifying their endeavours in this field, by means of giving priority to developing their human resources. Nonetheless, the bulk of the literature focuses on management development and training (MTD) (Aгнаia, 1996, 1997; Almhdie and Nyambegera, 2004; Weir et al., 2006; Al-Rasheed and Al-Qeasmeh, 2003;

Training and development are essential for the employees in any organisation to help them acquire specific skills and required knowledge and attitudes to facilitate performing their daily jobs more competently. Acquiring new skills and knowledge helps change attitudes and lead to better competence and general job (Gómez-Mejia et al., 2001).

In Arab countries, like in other developing economies, management and development training endeavours have attained mounting attention; nonetheless, such programmes often have brought about poor results and were unsuccessful in contributing to the effectiveness of the managers involved (Analoui, 1999; Analoui and Al-Madhoun, 2006). Al-Ali and

Taylor (1997) argue that the majority of training specialists and managers in Arab countries refer to training effectiveness in their countries as being in the main 'low'. As a result, the Palestinian Development Plan (PDP) (1998-2000) obtained financial support and aimed at the effective development of human resources for three years, according to the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation (MOPIC) (Analoui and Al-Madhoun, 2006, p. 9). Accordingly, a number of training programmes were launched, which, according to Analoui and Al-Madhoun (2006) were off-the-job training programmes. A large number of training programmes undertaken in the Palestinian Territories after the peace agreement were referred to as "*trying to solve managerial weaknesses*" (Al-Madhoun and Analoui, 2002). These comprise training programmes offered by several agencies, including government, international development agencies and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (Analoui and Al-Madhoun, 2006). However, such funds seemed to have dried up given that the Israeli Authorities have blockaded Gaza Strip and movement in and out the Gaza Strip almost came to stand still. The deposed Egyptian Authorities also prevented many Palestinians to enter into or leave Gaza at Rafah Crossing.

Several problems emerged which have impacted the training process in Palestine (Analoui and Al-Madhoun, 2006), for instance, the Centre of Palestine Research and Studies examined the training and development needs of the Palestinian National Authority in 1997, and reported that 75% of Palestinian managers indicated that further aid from international agencies should be allocated to activities concerning more effective HRD (Analoui and Al-Madhoun, 2006). The differences between managers' need for training and the poor results from training (transfer) indicate the problematic nature of the training programmes (Analoui, 1999). Analoui and Al-Madhoun (2006, p. 9) maintain that the

problem was not due to availability of funds; “*rather the suitability of methods of management training used and not adequately specifying the target groups and the need for their training.*” Analoui and Al-Madhoun (2006) maintain that training courses were in general lacking practical elements and their impact is not methodically evaluated.

However, while training has become a worldwide phenomenon in both public and private sectors, organisations and institutions in the Gaza Strip and the West Bank appeared to have ignored this vital phenomenon and only until recently have they perceived its significance as a means of raising the standard of employee and management competence and effectiveness. The lack of empirical evidence and this ignorance might be justified in the sense that the National Palestinian Authority is a recent establishment with its internal and external problems and difficulties that it is very difficult for organisations and institutions to cater for training needs and requirements of their staff and management. The National Palestinian Authority assumed power in 1995 after more than three decades of Israeli occupation and has inherited run down public institutions and establishments. What the Palestinian National Authority has inherited was a run-down system of VTET which was intended to train low skill workers for the Israeli labour market. This VTET system whose teaching was based on curricula which were at least 25 years old, or no curricula at all, which utilises equipment and buildings which were greatly redundant or obsolete. It was founded on teachers and trainers who themselves have received little training, in pedagogic and in vocational skills, and who only have the competence to training 3% of the student population in any given year.

This chapter provides a review of the research objectives and how they were achieved, as well as a general discussion of the literature reviewed in Chapter Two and Chapter Three. A general discussion of the research methodology is also undertaken (Chapter Four).

Conclusions of the main study findings (Chapter Five and Chapter Six) are also outlined, and some recommendations are suggested. Finally, main contributions of the present study to knowledge are outlined.

## **6.2 Review of the Study Objectives**

The aim of the present study was to “*Evaluate the human resource development in the Palestinian Higher Education with special reference to evaluate the Human Resource Development practices at the Al-Aqsa University*” (Chapter One).” This aim was to be achieved through three objectives.

### **Objective One:**

**To “explore the modern concept of human resource development (HRD) practices adopted to achieve the process of developing skilled and proficient human resources”**

This objective was achieved by undertaking a critical review and analysis of the literature pertinent to the evaluation of training and its effectiveness. The literature review provided a better perception of the documented views and perspectives of training and development and related issues. The relevant literature was reviewed across two chapters of the present study; Chapter Two and Chapter Three.

### **Objective Two:**

**To “evaluate Human Resource Development at the Al-Aqsa University”**

This objective was achieved by means of analysing the research findings presented in Chapter Four (Analysis of Findings According to Posts). Responses to issues relating to Respondents’ Demographic Characteristics, Training Provided by the University, Evaluation of Training Programmes, Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Pre-Training Activities, and Perceived Importance of and Satisfaction with Post-Training



Activities were discussed in Chapter Four in the light of the findings in the relevant literature.

### **6.3 Literature Review**

Literature relating human resource development (HRD), HRD models, Training, training methods, development, distinction between HRD and Training and Development (T&D), scope of HRD, and other issues relating to training and education in the PNA, training needs assessment (TNA), TNA models, reasons for undertaking TNA, conducting TNA, evaluation of training, training models, and conceptual model to study the effectiveness of T&D are reviewed and discussed in Chapter Three. Many definitions have been documented in the literature since the inception of the term ‘human resource development’ in the 1960s (Harbison, 1964) and in 1970 (Nadler and Nadler, 1970). Examining all these definitions (Chapter Three, Section 3.2.2), the researcher is inclined to adopt Werner and DeSimone’s (2012, p. 4) definition of HRD for the purposes on the present study: “*HRD can be defined as a set of systematic and planning activities designed by an organization to provide its members with the opportunities to learn necessary skills to meet current and future job demands.*” This is due to the fact that the Al-Aqsa University Management expends its utmost efforts, despite the financial hardship and political environment in the PNA area, to provide both academics and administrators with the opportunities to learn the required skills and acquire the knowledge to meet the University’s existing and future job demands.

One of the recent HRD models is that of Stewart in 2003, which is a modification of an earlier model by the same author in 1992. The 2003 model consists of two related key components: Interventions (education, training and development), and Learning (of individuals and organisations). Interventions, according to this model, is argued to

facilitate, direct and manage knowledge, skills and values, which eventually lead to changing behaviours.

The literature (for example, El-Sawad, 2002; Reid et al., 2004; Bohmetra, 2005) indicates that there are four key elements that are associated with the concept of HRD: education, training, development, and learning.

A few published research has been published in the Arab countries relating to training and development. This area of research has lagged behind the Western and other European countries, and Asia. The majority of the published research was concerned with management training and development rather than training and development of employees. Nixon (2005) maintains that an increased interest in the management training was noted in the beginning of the 1960s, but unlike Western industrial countries private sector organisations in the Arab countries expressed less interest in training than have public sector organisations. At the state level, the Arab countries recognised the positive impact of management development on organisational effectiveness and economic and social development, and consequently, the 1980s were acknowledged by these countries as “*the decade of administrative development*” (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995). Management training in Arabic institutes is established on models and practices found in similar institutes in Western industrial countries, particularly the US, the UK, and France (Nixon, 2005). There is an agreement among management training specialists and managers in the Arab Countries, that the effectiveness of training in general is low. For example, Atiyyah (1991) reviewed the relevant literature and found that the effectiveness of management training in Arab Countries was by that time to be generally estimated to be low. Atiyyah argued that the improvement of such effectiveness was hindered by the negative attitudes to training among Arab managers. External limitations and internal problems as well are

the key reasons for such low effectiveness. Atiyyah (1991, p. 22) concluded that “[W]hile some of these attitudes are found to have cultural or bureaucratic origins, low training effectiveness may itself generate and sustain such attitudes.” He (p. 22) attributed such low effectiveness to some factors, including: “*lack of rigorous need assessment, deficiencies in programme design and evaluation,, excessive reliance of conventional techniques, inadequate training materials and the shortage of qualified trainers.*” Abdulla and Al-Humoud (1995) found that all government organisations and 96% of the private and joint companies in Kuwait did not specific practices or procedures to determine training and educational needs of their managerial staff, arguing that such findings are markedly low in comparison to the situation in the USA in which one-third of small to large size companies and more than two-thirds of the largest corporations undertake systematic needs assessment procedures (Saari et al., 1988; Vicere and Freeman, 1990). In contrast to Kuwait, Wilkins (2001) found that around 82% of the organisations in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) have a formal process for the assessment of their employees’ training needs. Wilkins indicates that this figure compares to 80% in the UK, 85% in France, but lower in the majority of West European countries. Wilkins explained that the UAE and European companies employ a similar range of methods for determining training needs, such as business plans analysis, training audits, performance appraisal, requested by line managers and request from the employees. Agnaia (1996) found that in Libya, managers felt that country’s policy and laws ranked first as the actor having a massive impact of management training and development (MTD) achieving it objectives (83.3% of managers in the oil companies investigated), but ranked third with regard to the managers of non-oil companies (48.5%). Economic factors ranked second in oil companies (75% of the managers involved) and second in non-oil companies (60.6% of the managers involved) (Agnaia, 1996). Social environment ranked third in oil companies as having an

effect of MTD achieving its objectives (66.6% of the managers involved) and first regarding managers in the non-oil companies (60.6% of the managers involved).

Training and development in Jordanian banks was found to experience various problems and in most of these banks systematic employee training needs assessment and effective procedures for evaluation is lacking (Al-Tarawneh, 2006). Al-Tarawneh (2006) argues that organisations prefer to send their employees to external training providers; that is, off-the-job training, rather than train them inside organisations, that is, on-the-job training, adding that the most widely utilised delivery method is off-the-job training; that is, lectures, seminars and case studies. Al-Tarawneh (2006) also indicated that training and development is not typified by strategic human resource development measures and training and development plays a reactive rather than a proactive role in these banks.

Training is important for the survival of the organisation, and for such survival it is imperative that the workforce has to develop and advance through training. As regards what the term 'training' means, the literature (see Chapter Three, Section 3.2.1) provides many definitions, nonetheless, these definitions have a common theme, that is, training is a planned and systematic modification of behaviour through learning events, programmes and instruction to help individuals developing and progressing their knowledge and skills and to change their attitudes and behaviour at work. Accordingly, the present study adopts Armstrong's (2006) definition of training: *"the planned and systematic modification of behaviour through learning events, programmes and instruction, which enable individuals to achieve the levels of knowledge, skill and competence needed to carry out their work effectively."* This adoption is due to the fact that the Al-Aqsa University Management do their utmost to systematically modify their employees' (academics and administrators)

knowledge, skills, competence, and behaviour by offering them training courses and programmes.

The literature (see Chapter Three, Section 2.2.1.1) divides training methods into two categories: on-site training methods and off-site training methods. On-site training methods include several types: on-the-job training, apprenticeship, job rotation, coaching and mentoring. Some of these methods have been used by the Al-Aqsa University including on-the-job training methods and coaching (see Chapter Four, Section 4.10), as will be discussed later in this chapter (Section 5.6).

Off-the-job training (off-site training) methods also of several types, including classroom lectures, programme instructions, linear programming, simulators, computer-based training, interactive E-learning (using teleconferencing, video conferencing) (Landy and Conte, 2007; Bohlander and Snell, 2010; Gitman and McDaniels, 2009) (Chapter Three, Section 2.5). This type of training is undertaken either locally, for example, at a training centre or higher education institution, or abroad in which trainees are trained by international training agencies or attending workshops in another country. This type of training seems to be utilised by the Al-Aqsa University, either locally or abroad, as will be discussed later in this chapter (Section 5.6).

Literature reviewed in Chapter Two (Section 2.5) identifies induction training, refresher training (re-training), training for promotion, apprenticeship training, and internship training as the most common types of training. Induction training is claimed by some authors (Bose, 2006 and Grobler et al., 2006) as the initial training provided to new employees in an organisation. Nonetheless, Grobler et al. (2006) also indicate that induction training is also offered to old employees, including transferred/promoted employees and that all current employees also benefit from induction training. Induction is

either formal or informal; the former is planned and officially carried out by the organisation at fixed times, whereas the latter is unplanned and unofficially undertaken by fellow worker. Induction is also provided verbally, in a written form and/or audio-visually (Grobler et al., 2006). Refresher training (Re-training) is meant for current employees in an organisation; the purpose of which is to update them with the most recent methods of performing their job and better their competencies further (Kumar, 2011). Training for promotion is training is provided to employees who are promoted to higher positions within the organisation (Bose, 2006). Internship training is arranged by educational or vocational institutes with industrial organisations to provide practical knowledge to its students (Kumar, 2011). Apprenticeship is a type of on-the-job training, a formal programme adopted to teach a skilled trade (Goldstein and Ford; 2002).

Education is the second component of HRD. Like training and other terms, education has been defined in many ways, though such definition refer to a common theme that education is broader than training and is person-related rather than job related. The definition provided by Armstrong (2006) (Chapter Three, Section 3.2.2) has been adopted by the present study, that is, *“the development of the knowledge, values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than the knowledge and skills relating to particular areas of activity.”*

Learning, the third component of HRD, is argued to be a concept difficult to define, and the literature indicates the absence of a unanimously accepted theory of learning. Nonetheless, definitions provided in the literature refer to the acquisition and development of new knowledge, skills, capabilities and attitudes. The definition by Armstrong (2006) (Chapter Two, Section, 2.8) is adopted by the present study: *“Learning is the process by which a person acquires and develops new knowledge, skills, capabilities and attitudes.”*

The literature (for example, Stern and Sommerlad, 1999; Wiltsher, 2005; Armstrong, 2006) differentiates between two types of learning: formal and informal (Chapter Two, 2.8).

Development, the fourth component of HRD, is also defined in many ways by different authors. This indicates the absence of a unanimously accepted definition of this term.

The literature (for example, see Garavan et al., 1995) has differentiated between training, education, learning and development, as indicated in Appendix I.

The literature (Chapter Two, Section 2.3) differentiates between HRD and training and Development (T&D), indicating that T&D is one aspect of HRD; the two other aspect of HRD include organisation development (OD) and career development. Organisation development, the second aspect of HRD, is defined in different ways and, according to Cumming and Worley, 2009) each definition emphasises different aspects (see Appendix I). However, Cumming and Worley's (2009) definition (Chapter Two, Section 2.3) highlight several characteristics that differentiate OD from other approaches to organisational change and improvement, including, management consulting, innovation, project management and operations management, and also distinguish OD from related topics, such as, change management and organisation change. Career development, the third aspect of HRD, is not a new concept, being introduced in the early 1950s. It comprises two distinctive processes: career planning and career management.

The literature (Yadapadithya and Stewart, 2005) indicates that Strategic HRD deals with the management of employee learning for the long-term, in view of the explicit corporate and business strategies, and actually introduces strategic cooperation across the organisational spectrum extending from influencing people development policy decisions and the wide level to collectively with line managers and other staff practitioners.

The literature identifies three levels of the HRD scope: HRD at societal level (Horwitz et al., 1995; Walton, 1999) (not applicable to the case study); HRD at national level (Walton, 1999) (plays a minor role in the case study) and HRD at transnational level (not applicable to the Gaza context, due to the state of conflict and isolation of the area).

The HRD system in Palestine consists of three levels: formal school education, higher education, and non-formal education and training. Non-formal education and training plays a vital role in the HRD system, and is characterised by the diversity of parties providing this type of education and training, and comprises basic vocational training for youth, as well as rehabilitation training for young people, and adult further training and retraining (Hashweh et al., 2006). Designing, planning, monitoring and evaluating HRD strategies and policies in the Palestine are attained at three levels: national macro-level, intermediate level, and institutional level (see Chapter Two, Section 2.16).

The literature refers to training needs assessment (TNA) as being used to determine whether training is the appropriate solution to a workplace problem (Cekada, 2010), and also as the diagnostic stage of a training plan, and this assessment looks into issues concerning employee and organisational performance to establish whether training can help, and also measures the proficiencies of an organisation, a group of individuals, or an individual as they are associated with what is needed (Mathis and Jackson, 2011). Both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed as data collection methods in TNA. Two common quantitative methods include extant data (existing record, reports, and data, including job descriptions, competency models, benchmarking reports, annual reports, financial statements, strategic plans, and many other organisational records, and surveys (Toby, 2005). Both methods have their own merits as well as disadvantages (see Chapter



Three, Section 3.9). Qualitative methods include various types of interviews, such as face-to-face interviews, focus groups, and nominal group technique.

The literature identifies a number of TNA models, including the traditional models for conducting TNA, McClalland's 'open systems' model (McClalland, 1993), and Vaughn's model of instructional system development (ISD) models (Vaughn, 2005).

Needs assessments are performed systematically using three different types of analysis: organisation analysis, task (job) analysis, and person (individual) analysis (OTP analysis).

The literature indicates that training evaluation is both formative and summative evaluation; each comprising different measures or criteria (Cronholm and Goldkuhl, 2003) and both are important (Zepeda, 2008).

The literature also refer to a number of evaluation models, including Kirkpatrick's Model of evaluation (a goal-based evaluation approach), Phillips Five-Level ROI Framework (an extension of the Kirkpatrick's model), the Hamblin evaluation framework, the Easterby-Smith Evaluation Framework; the Inputs, Process, and Outputs (IPO) Model, and the Context, Inputs, Processes, and Products CIPD Model.

Finally, a conceptual model to study the effectiveness of training and development is proposed, consisting of four parts, and mainly based on Kirkpatrick's four level evaluation model and on Phillips five-level ROI framework.

#### **6.4. Research Methodology**

The present study is quantitative in nature. Accordingly, the research assumptions considered are epistemology, following the paradigm of positivism, and ontology, following the objectivism paradigm. A survey methodology was adopted in the present study, using a questionnaire. A questionnaire was designed, formulated, piloted and the

final version was e-mailed to all staff (academic and administrative staff) of the Al-Aqsa University. The research methods employed in the present study are quantitative methods, and a deductive approach was adopted.

## **6.5 General Discussion of the Thesis Findings**

Thesis findings analysed in Chapter Four and Chapter Five (Part One: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics) clearly demonstrated the underrepresentation of females in the Al-Aqsa University academic posts (around one-fifth of the respondent academics), but better represented among the administrative staff members (around one-third of the respondent administrators). Such low representation of females clearly indicates that the society in Gaza is still male-dominated society. Such male dominance can be attributed to certain social and religious doctrines, which necessitate the segregation of genders and allowing women to work in certain sectors of society; mainly teaching in girls' schools, or in the case of gender segregation at higher education institutions, qualified women are employed in girls' Colleges, as is the case in Saudi Arabia and other ultra conservative Arab and Muslim societies. However, having said this, it can be argued that higher education in Gaza, and other areas of the Palestinian Authority, is mixed and men and women study and work side by side; though to a certain limit, especially as academics and administrators. Traditions also play a major part in preventing women to take full responsibility in terms of choosing their careers. There are still some families in the Middle East who believe that women place is at home and to raise children and safeguard the family, and some new regimes in some Arab countries, known to have been relatively open societies, such as Tunisia, are trying to Islamise the state (Ehtishami, 2007). Arab society in Israel is still affected to a certain extent by patriarchal hegemony that authorizes men's domination of women (Abu-Baker 2012). Despite changes occurred in recent years,

Arab society in Israel continues to restrict Arab women's movements, lifestyles, work, and education (Abu-Rabia-Queder and Weiner-Levy 2013). Arab women often endure double discrimination in Israel by the Arab patriarchal society and by the State of Israel (Arar and Abu-Asbah 2010). Arab women relate to the acquisition of higher education as an opportunity for personal advancement, financial and social mobility, and avoidance of social inferiority (Abu-Baker and Azaiza 2010, Pessate-Schubert 2003). In recent years, Arab women's higher education has enabled them to integrate in employment outside the home; nevertheless, patriarchal domination has hindered any significant change in women's social status or the attainment of "masculine" positions (Arar and Abu-Asbah 2007). Audrey Addi-Racah (2006) found that Arab women hesitate to apply for promotion in their workplaces in order to avoid undermining male supremacy in the managerial hierarchy. According to Khawla Abu-Baker (2008), education failed to annul extant gender roles; the increase in numbers of Arab women in higher education and employment has not reduced the inferiority of their social and professional status. This reality creates an internal dissonance, so that despite the academic and functional achievements of women they still cannot achieve full self-realization and remain dissatisfied with their social role. Society expects women to succumb to the existing traditional patriarchal social order within the family, the workplace, political organizations, and society in general. This is evident in the fact that acquisition of education and promotion to professional posts has not altered the traditional division of gender power relations (Abu-Asbah 2005, Abu-Rabia-Queder and Weiner-Levy 2013).

Literature sees religion as a practice for maintenance of male supremacy in the family and society. Nohad Ali and Galit Gordoni (2009) found a relationship between increase in religiosity and lack of support in women's integration in society and establishing their

socio-economic status. Traditional and religious women are more likely to accept the patriarchal order and invest their resources to fulfill the traditional role for the best. However, education level has a positive (Ghanem et al. 2005) yet conditional (AbuBaker and Azaiza 2010) effect on the support of integrating women in the socio-economic circle.

The thesis findings also showed that the majority of the academics and the administrators, especially the latter, are young and have many years of future employment. They have also been working for the University for some long time.

Thesis findings also indicated that most of the academics (Chapter Four, Section 4.2) and administrators (Chapter Five, Section 5.2) have attended initial or induction type of training (Type 1) when they first joined the University, or when they moved to a new job. Induction training is important to new recruits as well as to employees moving up the employment ladder in their organisation as it has several benefits to the employee and the organisation, such as higher job satisfaction, and lower labour turnover (Grobler et al., 2006).

Thesis findings also indicated that more administrators than academics have attended training related to their job; for example, as lecturers or administrator, (Type 2 Training). This findings is not surprising in the greater majority of Arab Universities, including the Al-Aqsa University, given the fact that when new academics are recruited they start lecturing in the field of their specialisation, and their induction training, if given, is to acquaint them with their departments, colleagues and assistants; in other words, more socialisation than training. New administrators, on the other hand, are given some training by their superiors or peers about the tasks to be undertaken by them.

Thesis findings also indicated that more administrators than academics have attended Type 3 Training (continuing types of training, such as using technology or for research development or other types of professional engagement).

With respect to academics and administrators having attended Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3 Training; ‘t-test’ indicates a significant difference concerning Type 1 Training ( $p < 0.05$ ), but insignificant differences in relations to Type 2 Training and Type 3 Training ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.1), possibly due to the fact that percentages of academics and administrators attending these two types of training were rather close to each other, as indicated in Tables 4.5 and 5.5.

Table 6.1. ‘t-test’ analysis of academics and administrators having attended Training Types 1, 2 and 3

		t	Sig.
<b><i>Type 1 Training</i></b>	Equal variances assumed	-2.096	0.037
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.075	0.039
<b><i>Type 2 Training</i></b>	Equal variances assumed	1.509	0.132
	Equal variances not assumed	1.529	0.127
<b><i>Type 3 Training</i></b>	Equal variances assumed	2.527	0.120
	Equal variances not assumed	2.547	0.110

In terms of the academics and the administrators, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3 Training ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2. ANOVA test analysis of types of training between academics and administrators

	F	Sig.	F
<b><i>Type 1 Training</i></b>	14.276	0.000	14.276
<b><i>Type 2 Training</i></b>	9.600	0002	9.600
<b><i>Type 3 Training</i></b>	21.590	0.000	21.590

More administrators (84.7%) (Chapter Five, Section 5.3, Table 5.6) than academics (58.9%) (Chapter Four, Section 4.3, Table 4.6) indicated that their training is more important to their performance at work. This may reflect on the prerogative of the academics in Arab universities, who think that they know much about their work and do not need much or no training. University academic staff members in Arab University, and possibly in other non-Arab Middle Eastern countries, think of themselves as the ‘elite’ of the society. Such thinking is deep-rooted among many professions in these countries, such as medical doctors and consultants, engineers, and businessmen.

With respect to academics and administrators rating the importance of training to their performance at work, the ‘t-test’ indicates a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.3).

Table 6.3. ‘t-test’ analysis of academics and administrators perception of importance of training to performance at work

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
How important do you think training provided by the university is to your performance at work?	Equal variances assumed	-2.096	0.037
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.075	0.039

In terms of the academics and the administrators, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to rating the importance of training to their performance at work ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.4).

Table 6.4. ANOVA test analysis of types of training between academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
How important do you think training provided by the university is to your performance at work?	61.483	0.000

As regards academics and administrators having taken any of the three types of training mentioned above within the last five year, findings in Chapter Four (Section 4.4) and Chapter Five (Section 5.4) indicate that more academics than administrators have participated in all three types of training. The ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5. ‘t-test’ analysis of academics and administrators having taken any of training Types 1, 2 and 3.

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Have you taken part in any of the 3 types training above within the last five years?	Equal variances assumed	-2.656	0.008
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.612	0.009

In terms of the academics and the administrators, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to having taken any of the three types of training within the past five years the importance of training to their performance at work ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6. ANOVA test analysis of types of training between academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Have you taken part in any of the 3 types training above within the last five years?	23.693	0.000

The study findings also indicate that 67.3% of the administrators (Chapter Five, Section 5.6, Table 5.8) have taken part in any other type of training other than the ones referred to above, such as professional or personal development, whereas 36% of the academics have done so (Chapter Four, Section 4.4, Table 4.8). The ‘t-test’ indicated a significant

difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 4.17) regarding this item. This difference is clearly illustrated in Figure 6.7.



Table 6.7. 't-test' analysis of academics and administrators having taken any of training types 1, 2 and 3

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Have you taken part in any other type of training not specifically referred to in the above categories, for example, professional or personal development?	Equal variances assumed	6.352	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	6.378	0.000

In terms of the academics and the administrators, the 'F-test' does not show a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to having taken part in any other type of training other than the ones referred to above, such as professional or personal development ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.8).

Table 6.8. ANOVA test analysis of types of training between academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Have you taken part in any other type of training not specifically referred to in the above categories, for example, professional or personal development?	2.306	0.130

Respondents, both academics and administrators revealed that their training needs are identified by the university, as well as by their managers (Chapter Four, Section 4.6, Table 4.9; Chapter Five, Section 5.6, Table 5.9). Some academics indicated that training needs are identified by the heads of their departments (Table 4.9). Many academics (Table 4.9) and administrators (Table 5.9) maintained that their training needs were self-identified. Training needs identification is important, given that assessment of employees training needs is reported in the literature (Gupta, 2007) to be a key step in the performance improvement business that prepare the way for designing and developing any HRD (or human performance technology) initiative. It is also reported that a training needs

assessment (TNA) is utilised to determine whether training is the appropriate solution to a workplace problem (Cekada, 2010), and that assessing organisational training needs is the diagnostic stage of a training plan (Mathis and Jackson, 2012).

In terms of how the training referred to above was identified, the ‘t-test’ indicates a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 4.20) regarding this item. This difference is clearly illustrated in Figure 6.919.

Table 6.9. ‘t-test’ analysis of how training referred to above was identified, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
How was the training referred above identified?	Equal variances assumed	-2.919	0.004
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.893	0.004

In terms of the academics and the administrators, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to how training referred to above was identified ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.10).

Table 6.10. ANOVA test analysis of how training referred to above was identified, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
How was the training referred above identified?	5.51	0.019

It seems that while the majority of academic know that the University have a system of staff appraisal (Chapter Four, Section 4.7, Table 4.10), the majority of administrators were not aware of such appraisal system (Chapter Fiver, Section 5.7, Table 5.10). Performance appraisal is one of the many methods useful for individual analysis (Mathis and Jackson, 2012), and using performance appraisal data is the most common approach to undertaking individual analysis, as well as to appraise their training needs, the organisation first determines an employee’s performance strengths and weaknesses in a formal review,

followed by designing certain kind of training that helps the worker to overcome the weaknesses and augment the strengths (Mathis and Jackson, 2012). Furthermore, one of the performance appraisal uses are developmental uses, which include identifying strengths and areas of change, as well as training/development, coaching and career planning (Mathis and Jackson, 2009). Staff members who were not aware of such appraisal systems might have their performance being appraised for one reason or another, given that annual salary increase is an automatic process; and only those selected for a higher post have their performance appraised.

As regards whether the University have a system of staff appraisal, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.11) regarding this item. This difference is clearly illustrated in Figure 4.22.

Table 6.11. ‘t-test’ analysis of whether the University have a system of staff appraisal, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Does the University have a system of staff appraisal?	Equal variances assumed	-9.042	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-8.916	0.000

In terms of whether the University have a system of staff appraisal, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to how training referred to above was identified ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.12).

Table 6.12. ANOVA test analysis of how t whether the University have a system of staff appraisal, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Does the University have a system of staff appraisal?	11.944	0.001

It seems that academics and administrators have not communicated well with their superiors during the last five years, which might indicate that either the staff members were not much interested in communicating with their superiors to discuss their

training/development needs, or might indicate that the superiors were not committed to discuss their employees' training /development needs. This may also indicate that staff career development is not widely practised at the Al-Aqsa University, given that jobs for life is the norm in Palestinian universities, as is the case in the majority of Arab and Middle Eastern universities.

As regards how often staff discuss their development/training needs with their managers, the 't-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.13) regarding this item. This difference is clearly illustrated in Figure 4.25.

Table 6.13. 't-test' analysis of how often staff discuss their development/training needs with their managers, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
How many occasions in the past 5 years have you discussed your development/training needs?	Equal variances assumed	-4.427	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.517	0.000

In terms of whether the University have a system of staff appraisal, the 'F-test' shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with how often staff discuss their development/training needs with their managers ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.14).

Table 6.14. ANOVA test analysis of how often staff discuss their development/training needs with their managers, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
How many occasions in the past 5 years have you discussed your development/training needs?	8.949	0.003

The study findings also indicate that while 74% of the academics maintain that they have on-the-job training (Chapter Four, Section 4.9, Table 4.12) almost half of the administrators indicated so (49.6%; Chapter Five, Section 5.9, Table 5.12). The remaining half of the administrators and 26% of the academics indicated that they have off-the-job training.

With respect to types of training taken during the past five years (on-the-job or off-the-job) the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.15) regarding this item.

Table 6.15. ‘t-test’ analysis of types of training taken during the past five years, according to academics and administrators

		t	Sig.
What kind of training have you attended?	Equal variances assumed	-5.14	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.909	0.000

As regards the types of training taken during the past five years, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.16).

Table 6.16. ANOVA test analysis of types of training taken during the past five years, according to academics and administrators

	F	Sig.
What kind of training have you attended?	46.999	0.000

On-the-job training was the main type of training undertaken by most academics and half of the administrators. This is not surprising, given the political atmosphere within the Gaza Strip; an Israeli siege, and difficulty to cross to Egypt or other neighbouring countries. Academics and administrators who had off-the-job training abroad, might have thought of their study abroad to obtain a higher academic degree as an off-the-job training, or might have the opportunity to be trained in Egyptian or other Arab countries’ academic institutions.

With respect to whether off-the-job training was local or abroad, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.17) regarding this item.



Table 6.17. 't-test' analysis to whether off-the-job training was local or abroad, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
What kind of training have you attended?	Equal variances assumed	17.218	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	20.103	0.000

As regards to whether off-the-job training was local or abroad, the 'F-test' shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.18).

Table 6.18. ANOVA test analysis to whether off-the-job training was local or abroad, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
What kind of training have you attended?	76.836	0.000

Thesis findings also indicate that academics have received 'academic' training materials (Chapter Four, Section 4.10, Table 4.13) whereas administrators have received none of such materials (Chapter Five, Section 5.10, Table 5.13). This may suggest that academics have received relevant training material to their needs, given that both academics and administrators referred to the relevance of the training materials provided for them. Many of the academics and administrators have also received 'professional' training materials as well as technical training materials. This may also suggest the relevance of the training materials provided, since both academics and administrators need professional and technical training material to help them perform their jobs. Findings also indicated that many more administrators than academic have received 'computer' training materials, mainly as lecture notes or guidelines of how to use and operate computer programmes. This is possibly due to administrators have to use computers to perform daily administrative tasks, and that academics are more aware than administrators of using and

operating computers to obtain academic materials required preparing their lectures and to undertake research.

With respect to the kind of training materials received, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 4.32) regarding this item. This difference is clearly illustrated in Figure 6.19.

Table 6.19. ‘t-test’ analysis to the kind of training materials received, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
What kind of training materials did you receive?	Equal variances assumed	-10.475	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-11.109	0.000

As regards to the kind of training materials received, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.6.20).

Table 6.20. ANOVA test analysis to the kind of training materials received, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
What kind of training have you attended?	62.471	0.000

While the majority or most of the respondents referred to their training material as relevant to jobs; many of them, especially administrators regarded such materials as ‘not at all relevant’ to their jobs. These respondents are possibly those who have attended training courses not relevant to their jobs, mainly due to some social and cultural factors, such as favouritism and ‘Wasta’. The literature (for example, Agere, 2000) refers to favouritism, maintaining that training courses are sometimes become available, but the problem rests in selecting employees due to favouritism. Agere (2000) noted, has intervened in the selection process and led to the wrong people participating in training courses; thus, denying employees who actually need training. As regards ‘Wasta’, it can be argued that it



is commonplace practice in the Palestinian context, as it does in other Arab and Middle Eastern societies. Al Suwaidi (2008, p. 22), for example, states that Arabs are inclined to take advantage of their by way of what is called ‘Wasta’, that is, literally meaning ‘mediation’.

With respect to the relevance of training materials to the respondents’ job, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.21) regarding this item.

Table 6.21. ‘t-test’ analysis to the relevance of training materials to job, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
How were training materials relevant to your job?	Equal variances assumed	-4.578	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.37	0.000

As regards to the relevance of training materials to the respondents jobs, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.22).

Table 6.22. ANOVA test analysis to the relevance of training materials to job, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
How were training materials relevant to your job?	52.846	0.000

The majority of both academics (87%) (Chapter Four, Section 4.12) and administrator (84.3%) (Chapter Five, Section 5.12) agreed that they were clear of what they wanted to get out of training prior to attending training courses. This was identified through appraisal, as indicated earlier in this chapter (Section 4.8, and Section 5.8).

With respect to whether the respondents were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before attending training courses, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.23) regarding this item.



Table 6.23. 't-test' analysis to whether the respondents were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before attending training courses, according to academics and administrators

			<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Were you clear about what you wanted to get out of the training before attending?	Equal variances assumed		-3.091	0.002
	Equal variances not assumed		-2.654	0.009

As regards to whether the respondents were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before attending training courses, the 'F-test' shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.24).

Table 6.24. ANOVA test analysis to whether the respondents were clear of what they wanted to get out of training before attending training courses, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Were you clear about what you wanted to get out of the training before attending?	35.827	0.000

It seems that most of the respondents were satisfied with the professionalism and knowledge of their trainers, given that most of the academics and half of the administrators refer to their trainers as being highly professional or professional. In relation to the trainers' professionalism and knowledge, the 't-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.25) regarding this item.

Table 6.25. 't-test' analysis to trainers' professionalism and knowledge, according to academics and administrators.

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
In your opinion, how professional/knowledgeable were the trainers?	Equal variances assumed	-4.516	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.303	0.000

As regards to trainers’ professionalism and knowledge, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.26).

Table 6.26. ANOVA test analysis to trainers’ professionalism and knowledge, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
In your opinion, how professional/knowledgeable were the trainers?	85.895	0.000

As regards the time when the respondents used the new skills/knowledge/abilities (KSAs) acquired after returning to work; that is, transfer of training, most of the academics used acquired new KSAs either immediately or shortly after returning to their work, whereas around one-third of the administrators indicated that have used new KSAs only shortly after returning to work, though not immediately after joining their workplace. Transfer of new KSAs is argued to lead to major changes in job performance; hence, it is fundamentally the key goal of any training programme (Salvendy, 2012).

Other respondents indicated that they did not transfer new KSAs after training. This may certainly lead to knowledge decay, which is “*a measure of the degradation of knowledge integrity*” (Debenham, 2009, p 417). Neglect or intermittent use of knowledge and skills is argued to lead to poor performance (Kim et al., 2007). Kim (2008) maintains that knowledge and skills acquired by particular types of education or training can be forgotten as time passes; adding that forgetting, or knowledge decay, can bring about inconsistencies in trainee performance. There are three types of decreased abilities: inability to regain knowledge from memory, inability to perform cognitive processing, such as, making a decision, and inability to implement an action or procedure in a skilled manner (Sabol and Wisner, 2001). It can, thus, be argued that respondents who indicated that they did not

transfer new KSAs after training, might have forgotten what they learn while training and become unable to transfer KSAs obtained during training.

As regards when new skills/knowledge/abilities are used by the respondents after returning to work, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.27) regarding this item.

Table 6.27. ‘t-test’ analysis to when new skills/knowledge/abilities are used by the respondents after returning to work, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
When you returned to work did you use the new skills/knowledge/abilities immediately or did you have to wait to use them?	Equal variances assumed	-9.866	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-9.694	0.000

As regards to trainers’ professionalism and knowledge, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.28).

Table 6.28. ANOVA test analysis to when new skills/knowledge/abilities are used by the respondents after returning to work, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
When you returned to work did you use the new skills/knowledge/abilities immediately or did you have to wait to use them?	16.412	0.000

The majority of the administrators and about half of the academics complained about the duration of training programmes, referring to them as not long enough. The remaining respondents indicated otherwise. It seems that training programmes in most of the cases have not been planned and executed properly, leaving trainees not acquiring the knowledge and skills they want to have.

As regards to whether the training programmes were long enough, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.29) regarding this item.

Table 6.29. ‘t-test’ analysis to whether the training programmes were long enough, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Were the training programmes attended long enough?	Equal variances assumed	-6.026	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-6.295	0.000

As regards to whether the training programmes were long enough, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.30).

Table 6.30. ANOVA test analysis to whether the training programmes were long enough, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Were the training programmes attended long enough?	153.095	0.000

Thesis findings showed that most of the respondents have not discussed the objectives of training programme with their managers before attending the programme. It is important that employees have to discuss the objectives of training with managers before trainees attend training courses and programmes. Saks and Haccoun (2010) argue that managers can discuss the content and the benefit of a training programme before trainees attend the programme, as well as discussing the objectives of training programme in order that employees know what is expected and what they do. Nonetheless, it is up to the managers to inform trainees concerning the importance and relevance of training programmes (Saks and Haccoun, 2010). It seems that some managers have not discussed this issue with all their employees; hence, most of the respondents indicated that they have not discussed training objectives with their employees before the latter attend training programmes. In

contrast, most of the respondents indicated the relevance of training objectives to their jobs. It seems probable that these respondents were aware of the training objectives, which might have led them to indicate their relevance to their jobs.

In terms of whether or not the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme, the ‘t-test’ did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p>0.05$ ) (Table 6.31) regarding this item.

Table 6.31. ‘t-test’ analysis to whether the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Did you discuss the objectives of the training programme with your manager before attending the programme?	Equal variances assumed	-1.812	0.071
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.822	0.069

As regards to or not the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme, the ‘F-test’ shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p<0.05$ ) (Table 6.32).

Table 6.32. ANOVA test analysis to whether the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their manager prior to attending the programme, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Did you discuss the objectives of the training programme with your manager before attending the programme?	12.508	0.000

Most of the academics and the administrators indicated that their immediate feelings of the training programmes attended were either ‘very satisfactory’ or ‘satisfactory’. It seems that these employees have benefited from their training and felt that they have acquired the

knowledge and skills they lacked before training, and acquiring such knowledge and skills their attitude have been modified (Gómez-Mejia et al., 2001).

In terms of respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended the 't-test' showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.33) regarding this item.

Table 6.33. 't-test' analysis of respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
What were your immediate feelings about the training programmes attended?	Equal variances assumed	-3.247	0.001
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.999	0.003

As regards whether or not training programmes objectives were relevant to respondents' job, the 'F-test' shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.34).

Table 6.34. ANOVA test analysis of respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
What were your immediate feelings about the training programmes attended?	50.348	0.000

However, this satisfaction and change of feelings and attitudes seems more relevant to academics than administrators. In terms of whether respondents' feelings about training changed after returning to work, the 't-test' showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.35) regarding this item.

Table 6.35. 't-test' analysis of respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Did these feelings change once you were back in work?	Equal variances assumed	-5.203	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	-5.081	0.000



As regards to whether respondents' feelings about training changed after returning to work, the 'F-test' shows a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.36).

Table 6.36. ANOVA test analysis of respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Did these feelings change once you were back in work?	54.070	0.000

Less than half of the academics, 105 (45.6% of the responses), indicated that they have reflected on the benefits gained from their training, in contrast to more than half of the administrators, 89 (53.9% of the responses) who did so. Regarding whether the respondents have reflected on the benefits gained from their training, the 't-test' did not show a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.37.71) regarding this item.

Table 6.37. 't-test' analysis of whether respondents have reflected on the benefits gained from their training, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Have you reflected upon the benefits you gained from the training programme(s)?	Equal variances assumed	1.667	0.096
	Equal variances not assumed	1.666	0.097

In terms of whether respondents have reflected on the benefits gained from their training, the 'F-test' also did not show a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.38).

Table 6.38. ANOVA test analysis of respondents' immediate feelings of the training programmes attended, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Have you reflected upon the benefits you gained from the training programme(s)?	0.055	0.815

As regards how respondents managed to reflect upon the benefits gained from training, some academics indicated more than one way to manage their reflection of the benefits gained, whereas the administrators indicated one way or another. Three-quarters of the academics who answered positively to the previous question indicated that they managed to reflect upon the benefits gained from training by means of discussion with their managers, whereas slightly more than one-quarter of them indicated that they have done so by discussions with their colleagues., whereas some of them did so through self-assessment. As for administrators, slightly more than two-thirds of those who responded positively to the previous question indicated that they managed to reflect upon the benefits gained from training by means of discussion with their managers, and the remaining around one-thirds of them indicated that they did so through self-assessment; hence, none of them had any discussions with their colleagues about this issue.

As regards to how the respondents did manage to reflected on the benefits gained from their training, the ‘t-test’ did not show a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p>0.05$ ) (Table 6.39) regarding this item.

Table 6.39. ‘t-test’ analysis of how respondents managed to reflect upon the benefits gained

		t	Sig.
If the answer is ‘Yes’, how did you manage this?	Equal variances assumed	-1.628	0.105
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.564	0.120

In terms of how the respondents did manage to reflected on the benefits gained from their training, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p<0.05$ ) (Table 6.40).

Table 6.40. ANOVA test analysis of how respondents managed to reflect upon the benefits gained; according to academics and administrators

	F	Sig.
If the answer is ‘Yes’, how did you manage this?	30.230	0.000

It is evident from the thesis findings that the respondents disagreed that their supervisors encouraged and supported them to take advantage of training and development opportunities and that administrators were highly dissatisfied with their supervisors' encouragement and support to take advantage of training and development opportunities. This disagreement demonstrates that not all management were committed to training and developing their employees. As indicated in Chapter Three (3.1. Introduction), the management of the Al-Aqsa University does not help employees to manage their own careers; that is, they are not highly committed to train and develop their employees. It is apparent that one of the main distinguishing characteristics of SHRD; that is, top management support, involvement, and commitment, is somewhat not up to the desired standard (Yadapadithya and Stewart, 2005).

As regards to whether or not supervisors encouraged and supported staff to take advantage of training and development opportunities, the 't-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.41) regarding this item.

Table 6.41. 't-test' analysis whether or not supervisors encouraged and supported staff to take advantage of training and development opportunities

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor encourages and supports me to take advantage of training and development opportunities.	Equal variances assumed	8.831	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	9.081	0.000

In terms of whether or not supervisors encouraged and supported staff to take advantage of training and development opportunities, the 'F-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.42).

Table 6.42. ANOVA test analysis of how respondents managed to reflect upon the benefits gained; according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor encourages and supports me to take advantage of training and development opportunities.	30.343	0.000

Respondents also disagreed that their supervisors talk to them about their training and development needs. This finding is in line with the previous one; further evidence that managers are not committed to train and develop their employees. There is also disagreement about supervisors jointly arrange tasks and development goals with their employees. This is further evidence that the management is not committed to training and develop their employees.

As regards to supervisors talking to staff about their training and development needs, the ‘t-test’ did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.43) regarding this item.

Table 6.43. ‘t-test’ analysis whether or not supervisors talk to staff about their training and development needs; according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor frequently talks with me about my training and development needs.	Equal variances assumed	1.207	0.228
	Equal variances not assumed	1.187	0.236

Regarding supervisors talking to staff about their training and development needs, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.44).

Table 6.44. ANOVA test analysis whether supervisors talk to staff about their training and development needs; according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor frequently talks with me about my training and development needs.	6.455	0.011

While less than half of the academics disagreed that their supervisors jointly arrange tasks and development goals with them, the majority of the administrators strongly disagreed' with this statement.

As regards to supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with their staff the 't-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.45) regarding this item.

Table 6.45. 't-test' analysis whether or not supervisors talk to staff about their training and development needs; according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor jointly arranges tasks and development goals with me	Equal variances assumed	6.643	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	6.511	0.000

As regards supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with their staff, the 'F-test' did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.46).

Table 6.46. ANOVA test analysis whether supervisors talk to staff about their training and development needs; according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor jointly arranges tasks and development goals with me.	0.429	0.513

Most respondents, especially administrators, disagreed that their supervisors jointly review progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals. Further evidence that the management are not committed to train and develop their employees is that respondents disagreed that their supervisors coach and guide them effectively.

In terms of supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals, the 't-test' showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.47) regarding this item.



Table 6.47. 't-test' analysis whether or not supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals; according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor jointly reviews progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals.	Equal variances assumed	3.804	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	3.877	0.000

As regards supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals., the 'F-test' did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.48).

Table 6.48. ANOVA test analysis whether supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals; according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor jointly reviews progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals.	61.315	0.000

Most of the academics disagreed that their supervisors coach and guide them effectively, whereas the majority of the administrators disagreed with this statement. In terms of supervisors coach and guide employees effectively the 't-test' showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.49) regarding this item.

Table 6.49. 't-test' analysis whether or not supervisors coach and guide employees effectively; according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor coaches and guides me effectively.	Equal variances assumed	3.421	0.001
	Equal variances not assumed	3.302	0.001

In terms of supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals., the 'F-test' did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.50).

Table 6.50. ANOVA test analysis whether or not supervisors coach and guide employees effectively; according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
My supervisor coaches and guides me effectively.	5.125	0.024

Academics and administrators disagreed with training lead to promotion. Promotion training is provided to employees who are promoted to higher positions within the organisation (Bose, 2006), and promotion of employees within an organisation represents a major change in their responsibility and duties; hence, it is imperative that they are provided with adequate training to learn new skills to help them perform their new tasks effectively (Kumar, 2011). However, this is not the case in the Al-Aqsa University. As indicated in Chapter Three (Section 3.5. Types of Training), academic and administrative staff members seem not to have attended training for promotion programmes and courses, due to the fact that promotion of administrative staff members is a routine procedure or might be due to some sort of favouritism and affiliation to one group or another, whereas academic staff members are promoted in term of their academic publications and their contribution to teaching and supervising post-graduate students. As regards deans of faculties and heads of departments they might be appointed in such posts for some reasons other than their leadership qualities; for example, affiliation to certain political group, especially those in power.

In terms of training lead to promotion, according to the academics and the administrators, the ‘t-test’ did not show a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.51) regarding this item.

Table 6.51. ‘t-test’ analysis whether or not training lead to promotion; according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training leads to promotion/career	Equal variances assumed	0.828	0.408



advancement/higher pay.	Equal variances not assumed	0.772	0.441
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In terms of training lead to promotion, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.52).

Table 6.52. ANOVA test analysis whether training lead to promotion; according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training leads to promotion/career advancement/higher pay.	63.839	0.000

Academic respondents either disagreed or agreed that training increases their job satisfaction and many of them were undecided whether to agree or disagree. This may indicate that many of them are satisfied with this issue. In contrast, the majority of the administrators indicated their disagreement with this issue, which indicates that their training was not a factor for their satisfaction with their jobs. Employee satisfaction is a reaction to their training, that is, Level 1 of Kirkpatrick’s model, which measures trainees’ affective responses to the quality of training; such as, in terms of trainees’ satisfaction with the instructor, or the relevance of training, such as in terms of work-related utility (Bates, 2004).

In terms of training increased their job satisfaction, according to the academics and the administrators, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.53) regarding this item.

Table 6.53. ‘t-test’ analysis whether training increased their job satisfaction; according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training increases job satisfaction.	Equal variances assumed	6.669	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	6.327	0.000

In terms of training lead to promotion, the 'F-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p>0.05$ ) (Table 6.54).

Table 6.54. ANOVA test analysis whether training lead to promotion; according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training increases job satisfaction.	16.791	0.000

Many respondents, both academics and administrators disagreed that they felt motivated at work after training. Motivation is a complex experience, and has two elements; “*decisions about which behaviours to engage in and decisions about how much effort to expend*” (Jackson et al., 2012, p. 313). Academics and administrators at the Al-Aqsa University are not empowered to make any decisions; decisions are made at the highest management level; hence they do not seem to be motivated at work after training. They might probably think that training will provide them with some authority to make their own decisions; but, in reality, they remain powerless after training.

With regard to whether respondents felt motivated at work after training, according to the academics and the administrators, the ‘t-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.55) regarding this item.

Table 6.55. ‘t-test’ analysis whether respondents felt motivated at work after training; according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
After training, I feel more motivated at work after training.	Equal variances assumed	3.107	0.002
	Equal variances not assumed	2.881	0.003

In terms of whether respondents felt motivated at work after training, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.56).

Table 6.56. ANOVA test analysis whether respondents felt motivated at work after training, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
After training, I feel more motivated at work after training.	23.488	0.000

While most academics agreed that training helped them perform their job better, the majority of administrators indicated otherwise. It seems that academics attended training programmes that relate to their job, as indicated above, concerning Type 2 training; hence, they agreed that training helped them perform their job better. However, as regards the administrators, their disagreement with this issue does not tie with their responses concerning Type 2 training, for which they indicated that this type of training related to their job. It can be argued that these administrators, as indicated earlier in this chapter did not at all use new KSAs, or used them a long time after returning to work. This is why they disagreed that training helped them perform their job better. Such failure to use acquired KSAs after training or using them a long time after training has led to knowledge decay, which, as indicated earlier, might have resulted to poor performance (Kim et al., 2007), or that forgetting, or knowledge decay, can bring about inconsistencies in trainee performance.

As regards whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials, the 't-test' did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p>0.05$ ) (Table 6.57) regarding this item.

Table 6.57 't-test' analysis as to whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training helps me to perform my job better.	Equal variances assumed	1.093	0.275
	Equal variances not assumed	1.044	0.297

As regards whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials, the 'F-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p>0.05$ ) (Table 6.58).

Table 6.58. ANOVA test analysis whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training helps me to perform my job better.	6.834	0.009

The majority of academics and administrators disagreed that training improved their promotion potentials. They also disagreed, as indicated earlier, with training leading to promotion. This is not surprising, given that promotion of administrative staff members is a routine procedure or might be due to some sort of favouritism and affiliation to one group or another, whereas academic staff members are promoted in term of their academic publications and their contribution to teaching and supervising post-graduate students.

As regards whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials, the 't-test' did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.59) regarding this item.

Table 6.59. 't-test' analysis as to whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training helps me to perform my job better.	Equal variances assumed	1.093	0.275
	Equal variances not assumed	1.044	0.297

As regards whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials, the 'F-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.60).

Table 6.60. ANOVA test analysis whether training improved respondents' promotion potentials, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training helps me to perform my job better.	6.834	0.009

Academics and administrators disagreed that they felt valued by the University after training. This is evidence that the management were not committed to training and developing their employees and also not much concerned with their career development.

As regards whether respondents felt valued by the University after training the ‘t-test’ did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p>0.05$ ) (Table 6.61) regarding this item.

Table 6.61. ‘t-test’ analysis as to whether respondents felt valued by the University after training, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
After training, I feel valued by the University	Equal variances assumed	1.59	0.113
	Equal variances not assumed	1.47	0.143

As regards whether respondents felt valued by the University after training, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p>0.05$ ) (Table 6.62).

Table 6.62. ANOVA test analysis whether respondents felt valued by the University after training, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
After training, I feel valued by the University.	38.028	0.000

Thesis findings (Chapter Four and Chapter Five: *Training Facilitates Career Progress*) indicate that the majority of the administrators and less than half (46.7%) of the academics disagreed that training facilitated their career progress (career development). However, around 47% of the academics did not express their views about this issue. These findings tie up with those reported above concerning training improved their promotion potentials.

As regards whether training facilitates career progress the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p<0.05$ ) (Table 6.63) regarding this item.

Table 6.63. 't-test' analysis as to whether training facilitates career progress, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training facilitates career progress.	Equal variances assumed	2.571	0.011
	Equal variances not assumed	2.387	0.018

As regards whether training facilitates career progress, the 'F-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.64).

Table 6.64. ANOVA test analysis whether training facilitates career progress, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training facilitates career progress.	28.774	0.000

While most of the academics agreed that training helped them to grow as a person, the majority of the administrators disagreed with this issue. This might imply that academics benefited more from their training than administrators. As indicated above, academics used acquired KSAs due to training either immediately or a short time after training, whereas administrators did not; hence, this is a factor in academics agreement that training them to grow as persons more than did so for administrators.

As regards whether training helped respondents to grow as a person, the 't-test' showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.65) regarding this item.

Table 6.65. 't-test' analysis as to whether training helped respondents to grow as a person, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training helps me to grow as a person.	Equal variances assumed	10.589	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	10.074	0.000

As regards whether training helped respondents to grow as a person the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.66).

Table 6.66. ANOVA test analysis whether training helped respondents to grow as a person, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Training helps me to grow as a person.	16.116	0.000

The majority of administrators refer to analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs as very important. In contrast, less than half of the academics (47%) considered this issue as very important or quite important; and 35% of them perceived it as not important or not at all important, and 18% of them did not express their views. This pattern of responses indicates the importance of training needs assessment, given that needs assessment is a key step in the performance improvement business, which, as explained in Chapter Three (Section 3.19. Needs Assessment and Training Needs Assessment, paves the way in designing and developing any HRD (or human performance technology) initiative (Gupta, 2007). It also seems to be more important to administrators than to academics. Training needs assessment often involves administrators more than academics; this might be a factor that more administrators than academics perceived this issue as very important.

As regards the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.67) regarding this item.



Table 6.67. 't-test' analysis as to whether the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Analysis of strengths and weaknesses to determine training needs.	Equal variances assumed	7.722	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	7.594	0.000

As regards whether the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs,, the 'F-test' did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.68).

Table 6.68. ANOVA test analysis whether the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Analysis of strengths and weaknesses to determine training needs.	0.057	0.811

Thesis findings relating to the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training show that the majority of administrators perceived this issue as either 'very important' or 'quite important', whereas 30% of the academics perceived it as 'very important'/'quite important', and around 40% of them who perceived it as 'not important'/'not at all important', and around one-third of them did not express their views. This demonstrates that administrators would like to have an opportunity; but, the academics are either not aspired to have it or to show their indifference to such opportunity. It is argued that active participation of trainees leads to increasing trainees' interest and morale, as well as promoting the acceptability of training programme (Trehan and Trehan, 2011). However, this is not the case, given that training needs of both academics and administrators are identified by the university and managers, or by heads of departments regarding academics without being involved themselves with

such assessment, as indicated in Chapter Four (Section 4.6. Identification of Training Needs). Around 22% of the academics and 16.5% of the administrators indicated that their training needs are identified by them; that is, self-identified.

As regards the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.69) regarding this item.

Table 6.69. ‘t-test’ analysis as to whether the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods.	Equal variances assumed	9.747	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	9.255	0.000

As regards whether the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.70).

Table 6.70. ANOVA test analysis whether the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods.	11.768	0.001

The majority of the administrators perceived preparatory reading/pre-course activities as either ‘very important’ or ‘quite important’; whereas slightly more than half of the academics perceived it as ‘very important’/‘quite important’, and about one-third of them perceived it as ‘not important’/‘not at all important’. Some academics expressed their indifference by not expressing their views. This preparatory reading by trainees is important, as they might be aware of the training programme content; thus, can read about

the subjects or materials delivered during training. This will help them understand trainers and also helps them to discuss issues relating to their training with their trainers. Again, it seems that administrators are more interested in this issue than academics, possibly that academics are their academic activities necessitate them to look out for new developments in their area of specialisation to help them prepare their lectures and also to enable them to undertake research.

As regards the perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.71) regarding this item.

Table 6.71. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Preparatory reading/pre-course activities.	Equal variances assumed	4.462	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	4.317	0.000

As regards the perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities, the ‘F-test’ did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.72).

Table 6.72. ANOVA test analysis whether perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Preparatory reading/pre-course activities.	0.184	0.686

The same can be said about the following issues: perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course, the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor; the perceived importance of setting objectives for performance

improvement; and the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor.

With regard to the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.73) regarding this item.

Table 6.73. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Release time to prepare for a training course.	Equal variances assumed	4.208	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	4.005	0.000

In terms of the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course, the ‘F-test’ did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.74).

Table 6.74. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Release time to prepare for a training course.	5.558	0.019

In terms of the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.75) regarding this item.

Table 6.75. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor.	Equal variances assumed	8.571	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	8.086	0.000

As regards the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor, the ‘F-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.76).

Table 6.76. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor.	10.244	0.001

In terms of the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.77) regarding this item.

Table 6.77. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Setting objectives for performance improvement.	Equal variances assumed	4.229	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	3.953	0.000

As regards the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.78).

Table 6.78. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Setting objectives for performance improvement.	11.518	0.001

In terms of the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.79) regarding this item.

Table 6.79. 't-test' analysis of the perceived importance setting objectives for performance improvement, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor.	Equal variances assumed	6.093	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	5.737	0.000

As regards the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor,, the 'F-test' indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.80).

Table 6.80. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor.	11.130	0.001

While the majority of the administrators perceived having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills as 'very important', such an opportunity was not taken up by the majority of administrators, who either did not use new KSAs or used them after a long time after training, leading to forgetting them (knowledge decay). In contrast, around one-third of the academics perceived it as 'quite important', and around 43% of them perceived it as 'not important'/'not at all important', and around one-fourth of did not express their views. This also contradicts academics' claim that they have used them either immediately after training or after a short period of time after training.

With regard to the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills, the 't-test' showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.81) regarding this item.

Table 6.81. 't-test' analysis of the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Having the opportunity to use new	Equal variances assumed	11.451	0.000

knowledge and/or skills.	Equal variances not assumed	10.862	0.000
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In terms of the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.82).

Table 6.82. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills, according to academics and administrators

	F	Sig.
Having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills.	6.950	0.009

The majority of administrators perceived having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills as ‘very important/quite important’. It is possible that the unavailability of new resources that administrators did not use new KSAs or use them after a long time when such resources became available. In contrast, around 28% of the academics perceived it as ‘very important/quite important’, and around one –quarter of them perceived it as ‘not important/not at all important’. Furthermore, around half of the academics did not express their views. It seems that necessary resources, such as the Internet, computers and library were available to the academics; hence, they indicated that they used new KSAs either immediately after training or a short period of time after training.

With regard to the perceived importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.83) regarding this item.

Table 6.83. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills.	Equal variances assumed	8.940	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	8.501	0.000

In terms of the perceived importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills, the ‘F-test’ indicated a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.84).

Table 6.84. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills.	18.54	0.000

Thesis findings indicate that the majority of administrators perceived manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback as ‘very important/quite important’, in contrast to around one-third of the academics who perceived it as ‘very important/quite important’. Furthermore, more than two-fifths of the academics perceived it as ‘not important/not at all important’ and around one-quarter of them indicated their indifference to this issue by not expressing their views. It appears that most of the academics have not been coached by their head of department or the dean of their faculty; thus, they perceived it as not important. This also applies to support from colleagues to practice new skills, being evaluated on the learning of training material, and the material being evaluated on use of training on the job.

With regard to the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.85) regarding this item.

Table 6.85. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback, according to academics and administrators



		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback.	Equal variances assumed	8.733	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	8.440	0.000

In terms of the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback, the 'F-test' did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.86)

Table 6.86. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback.	2.998	0.084

Thesis findings indicate that the majority of administrators perceived manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback as ‘very important/quite important’, in contrast to around one-third of the academics who perceived it as ‘very important/quite important’. Furthermore, more than two-fifths of the academics perceived it as ‘not important/not at all important’ and around one-quarter of them indicated their indifference to this issue by not expressing their views. It appears that most of the academics have not been coached by their head of department or the dean of their faculty; thus, they perceived it as not important. This also applies to support from colleagues to practice new skills, being evaluated on the learning of training material, and the material being evaluated on use of training on the job.

With regard to the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.87) regarding this item.

Table 6.87. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Support from colleagues to practise new skills.	Equal variances assumed	8.893	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	8.533	0.000

In terms of the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, the ‘F-test’ did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.88)



Table 6.88. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Support from colleagues to practise new skills.	2.789	0.096

The study findings (Chapter Four and Chapter Five) show that academics' responses differ from the Administrators' responses as regards the importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills. While the majority of the administrators (81.7% of them) perceived colleagues' support to practise new skills as either 'very important' or 'quite important', slightly more than one-quarter of the academics (28.% of their responses) perceived it as either 'very important' or 'quite important'. This may indicate that most of the academics do not seek their colleagues' support to practice new skills, in contrast to the administrators' approach to this issue.

With regard to the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, the 't-test' showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (6.89) regarding this item.

Table 6.89. 't-test' analysis of the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Support from colleagues to practise new skills.	Equal variances assumed	8.893	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	8.533	0.000

In terms of the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, the 'F-test' did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.90147)

Table 6.90. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Support from colleagues to practise new skills.	2.789	0.096

As regards the importance of being evaluated on the learning of training, a similar trend of responses by academics and administrators to the above item is noted. While about one-third of the academics this issue as ‘very important’/‘quite important’, the majority of the administrators (81.7%) perceived it as ‘very important’/‘quite important’. This may indicate that most of the academics were reluctant to be evaluated on the learning of training.

With regard to the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.91) regarding this item.

Table 6.91. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Being evaluated on the learning of training material.	Equal variances assumed	8.359	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	8.195	0.000

In terms of the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material, the ‘F-test’ did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.92).

Table 6.92. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Being evaluated on the learning of training material.	0.544	0.461

As regards to indicating the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job, a similar trend of responses by academics and administrators to the above two items is noted.

With regard to the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job, the ‘t-test’ showed a significant difference between the academics and administrators ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 6.93) regarding this item.

Table 6.93. ‘t-test’ analysis of the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job, according to academics and administrators

		<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Being evaluated on the use of training material on the job.	Equal variances assumed	7.513	0.000
	Equal variances not assumed	7.332	0.000

In terms of the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job, the ‘F-test’ did not indicate a significant difference between the academics and the administrators with regard to this item ( $p > 0.05$ ) (Table 6.94)

Table 6.94. ANOVA test analysis of the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job, according to academics and administrators

	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Being evaluated on the use of training material on the job.	0.384	0.536

## **Chapter Seven**

### **Conclusions, Recommendation and Contribution to Knowledge**

#### **7.1 The Current State of Literature**

There is a wealth of literature, reviewed in Chapter Two and Chapter Two, relating to Human Resource Management (HRM) and Human Resource Development (HRD), respectively, and also other issues, such as training, education, learning, development, evaluation of training, models of evaluation of training, HRD models. Nonetheless, almost all of this literature has been written from a western point of view, and if there is any literature in any other context, it is heavily drawn on the western context. The same can be argued for HRM models and other aspects of HRM.

#### **7.2 Conclusions**

In this section, conclusions are drawn from the study findings analysed in Chapter Five and discussed in Chapter Six.

Female academics were underrepresented, making about 20% of the academic respondents. This points to a disparity in the number of females holding post-graduate degrees, compared to the larger representation of male academics holding post-graduate degree. Another reason might be that many females, due to religious practices, do not prefer mixing with male staff; hence, they opt to employment in other educational settings such as employed as teachers in girls' high schools.

As regards administrators, one-third of them were females; this may point to the fact that females prefer administrative work, given that they do not have to prepare for lectures and

tutorial when they go back home; hence, they would have more time to spend with their families and children and to cater for their domestic needs and requirement.

The majority of the academic respondents were between 25 year old and over 40 year old. These represent academic staff members with higher degrees, such as those with Master's degrees and Ph.D. degrees.

All academics were highly qualified, holding Master's Degrees and mainly Ph.D. degrees, in contrast to the administrators; the majority of whom had Diplomas or Bachelor Degrees, and only a minority had Master's Degrees.

The greater majority of the academics and most of the administrators were well established in their posts, with five years or more of service within the University.

Most of the academics (68.4%) and administrators (58.2%) indicated that they have attended initial or induction type of training (Type 1) when they first joined the University, or when they moved to a new job. More administrators (75.8%) than academics (68.8%) have attended training related to their job (for example, as a lecturer, or administrator) (Type 2 Training). More administrators (65.5%) than academics (52.8%) have attended continuing types of training, for instance, using technology or for research development or other types of professional engagement (Type 3 Training).

As regards the importance of training provided by the university to their performance at work, the study findings indicated that the administrators (84.7%) perceived their training as more important to their performance at work than the academics (58.9%).

In terms of taking part in any of the three types training (Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3) during the last five years, more academics (73.2%) than administrators (60.6%) indicated that they have participated in these three types of training.



In terms of respondents having participated in other types of training other than Types 1, 2 and 3, more administrators (67.3%) than academics (36.4%) have participated in other types of training.

With regard to identifying their training needs, more academics and administrators indicated that it was the university that has identified their needs, whereas almost equal proportions of both groups of respondents indicated that it was their manager who did so. While many academics indicated that their heads of departments have identified their training needs, none of the administrators said so. As regards self identification of training needs, more academics (21.9%) than administrators (16.5%) indicated that they themselves have identified their training needs.

With regard to whether the University have a system of staff appraisal; it appeared that the majority of the academics (74.6%) were aware of the existence of such a system, indicating that the University have a system of staff appraisal. In contrast, around one-third of the administrators indicated that the University have such system, where the majority of them did not know of its existence.

With reference to how often respondents discuss their development/training needs with their managers, it appears that more academics (62.3%) than administrators have done so once during the last five years. Many of the academics (32.5%) and the administrators (35.7%) indicated that they have done this more than three times during the past five years. None of the academics indicated that they have discussed their development/training needs with their managers three times, whereas 19% of the administrators have done so during the last five years. Much more administrators (17.5%) have discussed this issue with their managers, whereas only 5.2% of the academics have done that during the last five years.

The majority of the academics had on-the-job training (74%) and the remaining 16% had off-the-job training during the last five years. However, as regards the administrators, it seems that half of them had on-the-job training and the other half had off-the-job training during the same period of time.

As regards the places where off-the-job training was conducted, all academics in this group, and the majority of administrators in this group indicated that they had it abroad, whereas the remaining administrators (17.2%) did so locally.

While around one-third of the academics indicated that they had been provided with 'academic' training materials, none of the administrators indicated so. More administrators (49.6%) than academics (39.1%) indicated that they have received professional training materials. In a similar way, 33% of the administrators received computer training material, in contrast to 7.7% of the academics who received similar materials. Both academics and administrators appeared to have technical training materials almost equally.

As regards the relevance of training materials to their job, more academics (81%) than administrators (65.2%) indicated that these materials were 'very relevant' or 'relevant' to their job. Furthermore, while more than one-third of the administrators indicated that training materials were 'not at all relevant' to their jobs, in contrast to 12.4% of the academics who indicated so.

As regards whether pre-joining instructions/information were informative, all academics and the majority of administrators (85%) indicated so. Around 15% of the academics indicated their indifference in response to this issue.

All of the academics indicated that training was either ‘highly relevant’ or ‘relevant’, in contrast to less than two-thirds of the administrators who expressed similar views. The remaining administrators (34.8%) reported training as ‘not relevant’.

While around two-thirds of the academics indicated that trainers were ‘highly professional’ or professional, half of the administrators indicated so. The remaining half of the administrators found trainers to be not professional, and only 14.8% of the academics thought so.

As regards the time when the respondents used the new skills/knowledge/abilities (KSAs) acquired after returning to work, around two-thirds of the academics used acquired new KSAs either immediately or shortly after returning to their work, in contrast to around one-third of the administrators who indicated that have used new KSAs only shortly after returning to work, but not immediately so. However, about one-third of the administrators did not at all use new KSAs, whereas only 5.9% of the academics indicated so. More academics than administrators used them some time after returning to work, whereas more administrators than academics indicated that they used new KSAs a long time after returning to work.

The majority of the administrators (82.6%) indicated that their training programmes were not long enough, in contrast to just above half of the academics who indicated so. This means that more academics (54.4%) than administrators (17.4%) thought that training programmes were long enough.

As whether the respondents have discussed the objectives of training programme with their managers prior to attending the programme, most of the academics (58.6%) and the Administrators (63.5%) have not discussed this issue with their managers before attending the training programme. This means that many academics (45.6%) and administrators

(36.5%) have discussed this issue with their managers before joining the training programmes.

The majority of the academics (81%) and around two-thirds of the administrators indicated that training programmes objectives were either 'very relevant' or 'relevant' to their jobs. While 18.9% of the academics indicated that these objectives were 'neither relevant nor irrelevant' to their jobs, around 15% and 17.4% of the administrators indicated that these objectives were either 'not relevant' or 'very not relevant' to their jobs.

Around two-thirds of either the academics or the administrators indicated that their immediate feelings of the training programmes attended were either 'very satisfactory' or 'satisfactory'. While about one-third of the academics indicated that their feelings were 'neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory', around one-third of the administrators indicated that their feelings were 'neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory' (17.4%), or 'very unsatisfactory' (17.4%).

Three-fourths of the academics indicated that their feelings about training have changed after returning to work, in contrast to half of the administrators who indicated so. This means that half of the administrators' feelings about training have not changed after returning to work, compared to one-fourth of the academics who indicated that their feelings did not change.

More than half of the academics (54.4%) indicated that they have not reflected on the benefits gained from their training, whereas more than half of the administrators (53.9%) indicated that they have reflected on the benefits gained from their training.

Three-fourths of the academics who reflected upon the benefits gained from training indicated that they managed to do so mainly through discussion with their managers; some of them in this group managed to do so partly through discussion with colleague; and least

were those who managed to do so through self-assessment (14.3%). As regards the administrators, two-thirds of them managed to reflect upon the benefits gained through discussion with their managers and the remaining one-third through self-assessment.

While 46.2% of the academics strongly disagreed or disagreed that their supervisors encouraged and supported them to take advantage of training and development opportunities, 42.6% of them agreed/strongly agreed, whereas 11.2% of them did not express their views. This indicates that more than half of the academics were not convinced that their supervisors encouraged and supported them to take advantage of training and development opportunities. As regards the administrators, the majority of them (82%) strongly disagreed/disagreed with this issue, whereas the remaining 18% of them only agreed with this issue. It can be argued that administrators were highly dissatisfied with their supervisors' encouragement and support to take advantage of training and development opportunities.

As regards supervisors talking to staff about their training and development needs, academics strongly disagreed/disagreed (54%) than agreed (28%) with this issue. Similarly, more administrators (64%) strongly disagreed/disagreed than agreed (36%) with this issue.

While about 47% of the academics strongly disagreed/disagreed that their supervisors jointly arranging tasks and development goals with them, around 20% of them agreed and one-third of them did not express their views about this issue. In contrast, the majority of administrators (78%) strongly disagreed/disagreed whereas 22% of them agreed with this issue.

As regards supervisors jointly reviewing progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals, the academics were split almost equally between disagreeing (34%), expressing

no views (33.7%) and agreeing (32%) with this issue. In contrast, most of the administrators (61%) disagreed than agreed (39%) with this issue.

In terms of supervisors coaching and guiding staff effectively, less than two-thirds of the academics (63%) strongly disagreed/disagreed with this issue, whereas around 20% of them agreed and 18% did not express their view about it. In contrast, the majority of administrators (78.3%) strongly disagreed/disagreed whereas the remaining 13% of them agreed with this issue.

With regard to training leading to promotion, around two-thirds of both academics (64.5%) and administrators (67%) strongly disagreed/disagreed with this issue. However, one-fourth of the academics and around 15% of the administrators did not express their views. While around 11% of the academics agreed that training leading to promotion, 18% of the administrator strongly agreed with it.

In terms of training increases respondents' job satisfaction, 37% of the academics strongly disagreed/disagreed with this issue, whereas around 33% of them strongly agreed/agreed with it, and 30% did not express their views. The majority of the administrators (78%), on the other hand, strongly disagreed/disagreed with this issue, whereas 22% of them strongly agreed/agreed with it.

More academics (55.6%) strongly disagreed/disagreed than agreed (38.5%) that they felt motivated at work after training, and around 6% of them did not express their views. Most of the administrators (63.55) strongly disagreed than strongly agreed/agreed (38.5%) with this issue, and around 15% of them did not express their views.

More academics (56.8%) agreed than strongly disagreed/disagreed (32%) that training helped them perform their job better, and 11% of them did not express their views. As

regards administrators, more of them (75%) strongly disagreed/disagreed than agreed/strongly agreed (22%) with this issue.

Most of the academics (64.5%) and the majority of administrators (78%) strongly disagreed/disagreed that training improved their promotion potentials. In contrast, 23.7% of the academics agreed with this issue, and around 12% who did not express their views. 22% of the administrators either strongly agreed/agreed with this statement.

As regards being felt valued by the University after training, the majority of academics (70%) and of the administrators (82%) strongly disagreed/disagreed with this issue. Only 6.5% of the academics agreed and 18% of the administrators strongly agreed with this issue, whereas 23% of the academics did not express their views about it.

In terms of training facilitating career progress, the majority of administrators (78%) strongly disagreed/disagreed with this issue, in contrast to 46% of the academics who strongly disagreed/disagreed with it. However, a larger number of the academics (around 47%) did not express their views about it, and 22% of the administrators strongly agreed/agreed with it.

With regard to training helped respondents to grow as a person, the majority of the administrators (78%) strongly disagreed with this issue, whereas 63% of the academics and 22% of the administrators strongly agreed/agreed with it.

As regards the perceived importance of analysing strengths and weaknesses before training to determine training needs, the greater majority of the administrators (92%) indicated that this issue is very important, and only 8% of them thought is it not at all important. Less than half of the academics (47%) considered this issue as very important or quite important; and 35% of them perceived it as not important or not at all important, and 18% of them did not express their views.

With regard to the perceived importance of having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods before training, 82% of the administrators perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. In contrast, around 30% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 40% of them who perceived it as not important/not at all important. Many academics (around 31%) did not express their views.

As for the perceived importance of preparatory reading/pre-course activities, the majority of administrators (82%) perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. In contrast, around 54% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 34% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. Some academics (around 12%), however, did not express their views.

In terms of the perceived importance of release time to prepare for a training course, the majority of administrators (82%) also perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. Conversely, around 54% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 24% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. Many academics (around 23%) did not express their views.

With regard to the perceived importance of pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor, the majority of administrators (82%) also perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. In contrast, around 47% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 30% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. Many academics (around 12%) also did not express their views.



With regard to the perceived importance of setting objectives for performance improvement, the majority of administrators (82%) perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. In contrast, around 35% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 114% of them perceived it as not important. More than half of the academics (around 54%), however, did not express their views.

In terms of the perceived importance of follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor, the majority of administrators (82%) perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. More than half of the academics (53%) perceived it as quite important, and around 18% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. Many academics (29%), however, did not express their views.

In terms of the perceived importance of having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills, the majority of administrators (82%) perceived it as very important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. In contrast, around 35% of the academics perceived it as quite important, and around 43% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. Many academics (around 23%) did not express their views.

As for the perceived importance of having the necessary resources to apply new knowledge and/or skills, the majority of administrators (82%) perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. Conversely, around 28% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 24% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. A large number of academics (around 47.9%) did not express their views.

As regards the perceived importance of manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback, the majority of administrators (82%) also perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. In contrast, around 35% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 43% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. Many academics (around 23%) did not express their views.

With regard to the perceived importance of support from colleagues to practise new skills, the majority of administrators (82%) also perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. Around 28% of the academics, on the other hand, perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 43% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. A number of academics (around 29%) did not express their views.

In terms of the perceived importance of being evaluated on the learning of training material, the majority of administrators (82%) perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. In contrast, around 35% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 44% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. Many academics (around 21%), however, did not express their views.

As regards the perceived importance of the material being evaluated on use of training on the job, the majority of administrators (82%) perceived it as very important/quite important, and the remaining 18% perceived it as not at all important. Conversely, around 35% of the academics perceived it as very important/quite important, and around 36% of them perceived it as not important/not at all important. Many academics (around 12%), however, did not express their views.

### **7.3 Recommendations**

Based on the gaps identified in staff training and development, as indicated in the conclusions above, a number of recommendations are suggested to fill in these gaps in staff training needs and development.

Academics need to be provided with more training that at present, especially with reference to their research and development and other academic engagements, such as, more recent methods of teaching university students.

Heads of academic departments are recommended to be the authority that has to identify academics' training needs, rather than other university authorities.

Staff appraisal system should be made known and available to all staff members, both academics and administrators.

More off-the-job training opportunities should be made available to both academics and administrators whether in similar Palestinian higher education institutions, or abroad.

University training body has to make sure that all training materials are relevant to trainees' jobs. This would lead to increasing staff performance at work.

Staff training needs should be thoroughly identified so that training becomes relevant to their needs.

University departments and sections should encourage their staff to use new KSAs acquired immediately after returning to their work, or at least, very shortly after their returning to their job in order to overcome 'learning decay' if such KSAs are used a long time after training.

University authorities need to encourage staff to discuss the objectives of their training with their superiors before they attend the training programme.

Supervisors of academic staff need to encourage their staff and support them to take advantage of training and development opportunities. This also applies to supervisors of administrative staff.

Supervisors need to talk to their staff about training and development needs, and also need to coach and guide them effectively.

Staff need to be involved in deciding their training content and methods before attending the training programme.

It is also recommended that further research in this is to be carried out using multiple case approach (more than one university within the Palestinian National Authority area, and employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research (triangulation of methods). This will provide more in-depth data and information concerning training and development, and HRD approaches in the Palestinian National Authority area.

#### **7.4 Significance of the Research**

In the Palestinian Authority territories (Gaza and the West Bank), especially in the perspective of academic and administrative development within the higher education sector, there is neither information nor is development evaluated. In fact, there is a large gap in our knowledge of research on development in relation to higher education in these territories. As a result of this gap in our understanding and the significance of development within this key educational sector, the idea of undertaking a development evaluation research was realised.

It is also significant, and this significance is the most important aspect of this research, in that it contributes to knowledge via developing a conceptual model of Human Resource

Development within the Palestinian context, mainly drawing on the Western and Arabic literature and the outcomes of the present research.

## **7.5 Limitations of the Research**

The research may be limited due the field survey is to be undertaken in Gaza, and given the restriction of movement into and out of the Gaza Strip, the researcher was unable to travel and spend some time there for the distribution the questionnaires and collection of completed questionnaires. This restriction of movement also meant that it was not possible to undertake interviews (qualitative approach) with the University management. To overcome this limitation, the researcher sent the questionnaire electronically to all staff members of Al-Aqsa University (both academics and administrators), and this helped him to distribute the questionnaires and receive the completed ones electronically.

This thesis involves a single case study; the Al-Aqsa University. The case study method has its problems and limitations, such as the following (Krishnaswamy et al. 2006, p. 171):

- *Only a narrow experience is depicted in it; thus making it unsuitable to generalisation.* [While adopting quantitative research approach for the purposes of this study using a questionnaire; the researcher manages to overcome this limitation; given the fact that it is possible to generalise findings to other similar higher education institutions].
- *The relative importance of vital facts may be drowned in the large volume of data. There may be a general tendency for failure which testing the reliability of data.* [All data generated were in response to a questionnaire; given that the questionnaire items were, as indicated in Chapter Four of this thesis, pretested (subjected to a piloting study) and then revised them in the light of the findings of the pilot study to formulate the final version which was then ready for distribution to the study sample. The present thesis also used a survey method which uses statistical generalisation.

## **7.6 Contribution of the Study to Knowledge**

It was indicated that the present thesis is significant for a number of factors. One of such factors is the importance of human resources training and development, both to individual employees and to the organisation they work for. Organisations with trained and developed staff have relative productivity advantages over their competitors, and greater capacity of responding to external changes. The thesis is also significant in that the Palestinian Authorities have paid their utmost attention to training and developing their employees to create a skilful and competent workforce base.

The present thesis was also found to be significant as it contributed to the conceptual and theoretical knowledge in the field of employee training and development and proposing a conceptual framework for training and development of Al-Aqsa University staff members. A key contribution of the study was the development of a Conceptual framework to “Study the Effectiveness of Training and Development in a Palestinian context, which can also be perceived in an Arab context” (Chapter Two)

The proposed framework reported in Chapter Two consists of four parts. The first part of this model was based on western models (mainly based Kirkpatrick’s Four-Level Model and to some extent on Phillips Five-Level Framework). In this part participants’ reaction, learning, behaviours, and results, are to be measured. The second part of the conceptual framework attempts to measure top management support and commitment to training academic and administrative staff members. The findings of the present study identify a loophole in this regard, indicating that the management were not wholly committed to training their employees. The third part of the framework investigates academic and administrative trainees’ (academic and administrative staff members) willingness to train, while the fourth part investigates trainers’ commitment to training the University staff and also whether they are proficient and capable of delivering required training to the staff. It

was also suggested in the first draft of the framework that these four parts leads immediately to 'career success' and 'job satisfaction'.

After having obtained the responses of the study participants and drawn the study main conclusions, the framework proposed in Chapter Two has been amended to include the issues raised in the study findings as analysed and discussed in Chapters Five and Six and conclusions given above. In the final draft of the proposed framework, it is suggested that the four parts on the left of the framework need to lead to job satisfaction, academic survey, employee participation in identifying training needs and motivation at work. All these parts are envisaged to introduce human resource development (HRD) system in higher education in Palestine, as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

Another important contribution is that the study attempted to investigate the identification of training and development needs of both academic and administrative staff of the Al-Aqsa University within a Palestinian context, in addition to it being the first of its kind to be undertaken in a Palestinian University, taking advantage of the international, mainly western, developments in employee training needs identification and development.

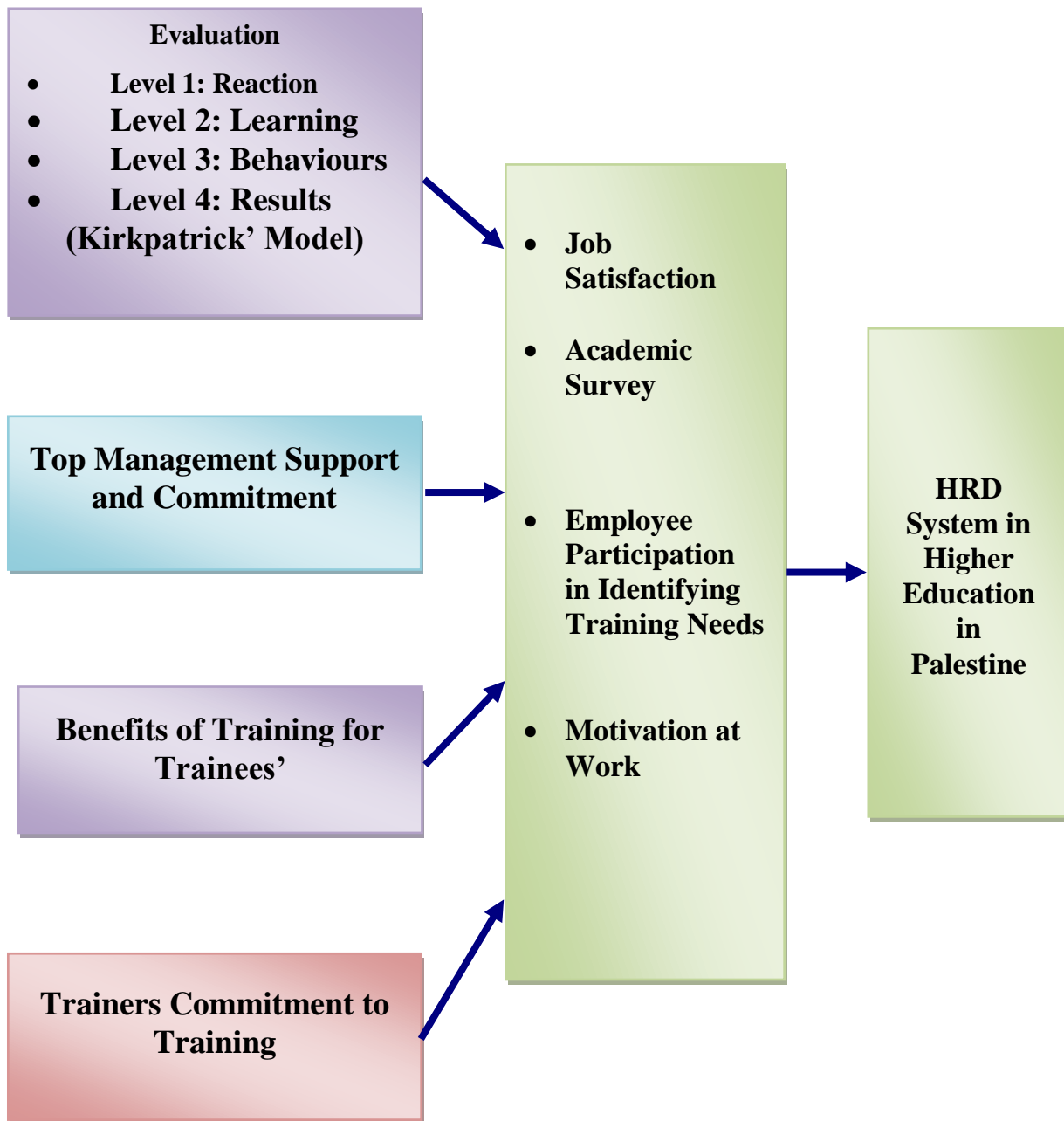


Figure 7.1. The amended proposed conceptual framework.



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## **Appendix I**

### **Human Resource Management**

#### **A. Definitions of HRM**

As indicated in Chapter Two (Section 2.2. Human Resource Management), there are many definitions of HRM and that no universally accepted definition of this term. Below are some of the many definitions of HRM.

Storey's (2001, p. 6) definition reflects a specific set of policies currently identified with 'high-commitment management' or 'high-performance work systems':

*“Human resource management is a distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through the strategic*



*deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce, using an integrated array of cultural, structural and personnel technique.”*

Conversely, Boxal and Purcell (2000, p. 184) provide a broader definition of HRM:

*“HRM includes anything and everything associated with the management of employment relationships in the firm. We do not associate HRM solely with a high-commitment model of labour management or with any particular ideology or style of management.”*

Beer et al. (1984, p. 1) define HRM as involving *“all management decisions and actions that affect the relationship between the organization and employees – its human resources.”*

Bratton (2003a, p. 3) provides another definition:

*“HRM is a strategic approach to managing employment relations which emphasizes that leveraging people’s capabilities is critical to achieving sustainable competitive advantage, this being achieved through a distinctive set of integrated employment policies, programmes and practices.”*

Watson (2003, p. 1) defines human resource management in a broader way, as follows:

*“The element of management work which is concerned with acquiring, developing and dispensing with the efforts, skills and capabilities of an organization’s workforce and maintaining organizational relationships within these human resources can be utilized to enable the organization to continue into the future within the social, political and economic context in which it exists.”*

Collings and Wood (2009, p. 5) define HRM from several perspectives, as illustrated below:

Table I.1. Definitions of HRM

<i>Definition</i>	<i>Implications</i>
Contested domain	HRM is a contested domain, with two rival paradigms, hard and soft HRM
Two sides of the same coin	Whether hard or soft, HRM is about the management of people in a particular, new way. This may involve the use of strategy to manage people, or simply reflect structural changes that have strengthened management at the expense of employees

‘New wine in old bottles’	HRM is little more than the extension of traditional personnel management
Collective noun	HRM is a commonly reflected description for a range of practices associated with managing work and employment relations

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## **B. Normative HRM and Descriptive Theories of HRM**

Normative HRM is the approach adopted by many organisations, and comprises two overarching notions: human resources policies are integrated with strategic business planning and implemented to support or change appropriate organisational culture (Gill, 1999); and human resources are a valuable source of competitive advantage employed most effectively through policies that promote commitment (Legge, 1995). Guest (1999, p. 179) maintains that normative theories of HRM are prescriptive in their approach which reflect *“the view either that a sufficient body of knowledge exists to provide a basis for prescribed best practice or that a set of values indicates best practice. One of these perspectives becomes conflated.”*

Guest (1999) argues that in his work (Guest, 1987), he tried to capture some of the spirit of the normative approach by looking for portray it within a rational context, specifying some of the links in order that the resulting model can in any case be tested — and possibly disproved. The key hypothesis, according to Guest (1999), is that in the event that an integrated set of HRM practices is applied with a perception of accomplishing the normative goals of high commitment to the organisation as well as high quality and flexibility, in that case higher worker performance results. Guest (1999, p. 179) adds that the *“assumption is that this will have a positive impact on organisational performance.”* He argues that in contrast to other approaches, such a normative viewpoint contends that specific practices and specific human resource management goals will constantly be excellent.

Guest (1999) identifies several problems with this perspective of human resource management; one of which is that it concentrates mainly on the internal characteristics of HRM without regard for broader strategic matters. In doing so, and in supporting a best set of practices while taking no notice of the array of pressures and subsequent business strategies, this perspective takes a substantial risk in implying ‘*on best way*’ (Guest, 1999,

p. 179). Another problem is that, while HRM goals can be practically defined, the related list of HRM policies is a long way from being clear, and anticipates either an obvious theoretical specifications or a much stronger empirical base (Guest, 1999, p. 179).

Descriptive theories of HRM, on the other hand, intend to describe the field in a broad approach; the two best known are those presented by Beer et al. (1985) (the Harvard model, described later in this chapter) and Kochan et al. (1986) from MIT. According to Guest (1999), there is an attempt in both cases to capture the broad field and to focus on some of the interrelationships. While Beer et al. (1984) listed four broad areas of HRM policy and practice and four strategic outcomes, Kochan et al. (1986) adopted a systems approach and described the interrelationships between levels. Guest (1999, p. 178)) maintains that both approaches are basically descriptive, *“mapping the field and classifying inputs and outcomes. Both can be developed into theory, but only at a very general level of specification.”* A strength and a weakness in this regard is the focus on an open systems approach that can correctly capture a component of reality but fails to present specificity (Guest, 1999).

### **C. HRM Models**

As indicated above, a number of HRM models have been introduced by various authors. Below, some of these models are reviewed and discussed.

## C.1 The Harvard Model (Beer et al., 1984)

This model, introduced by Beer et al. (1984) (Figure 2.1), is an analytical framework comprising six key elements: situational factors; stakeholder interests; human resource management policy choices, HR outcomes, long-term consequences; and a feedback loop through which outputs flow directly into the organisation and to the stakeholders. The situational factors are said to have an effect on the management’s preference of human resource strategy, and that this ‘normative’ model includes “*workforce characteristics, management philosophy, labour market regulations, societal values and patterns of unionization, and suggests a meshing of both ‘product market’ and socio-cultural logics*” (Evans and Lorange, 1989, in Bratton, 2003a, p. 19).

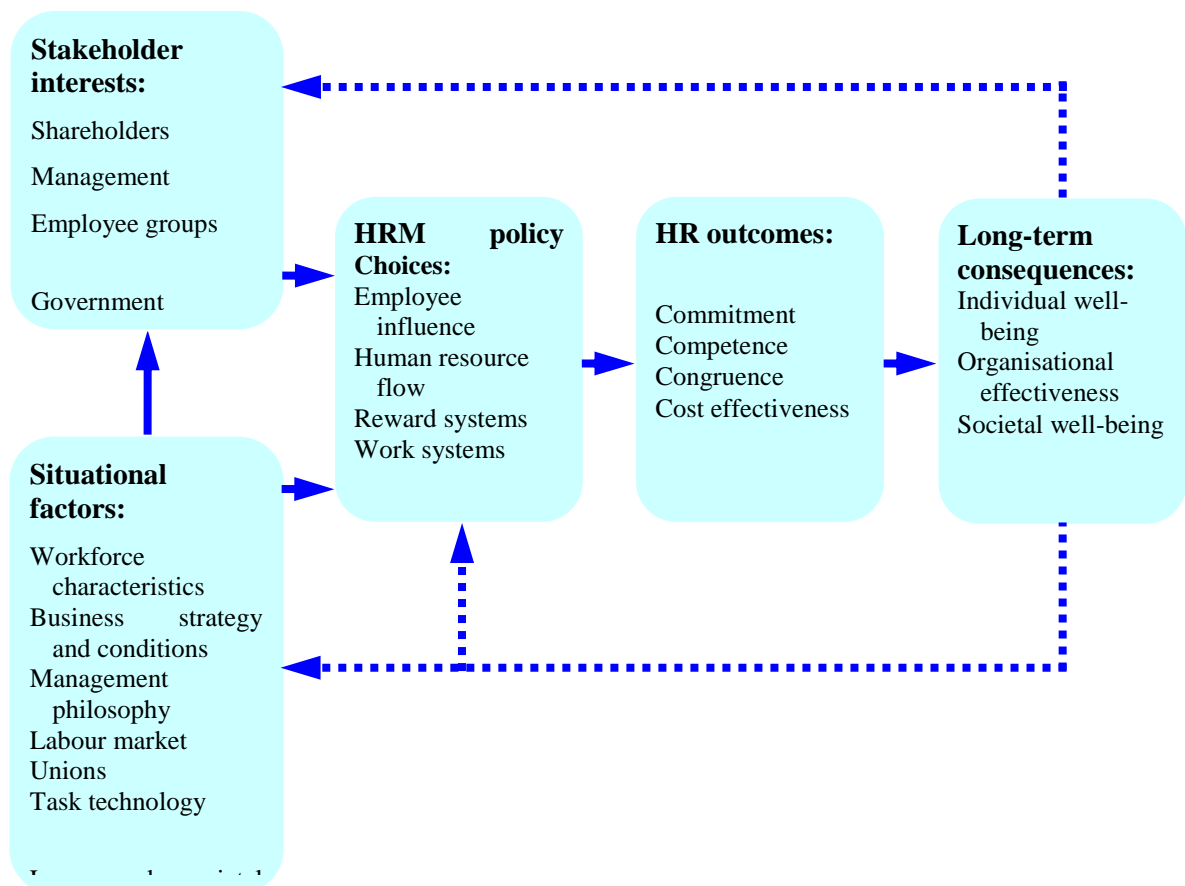


Figure I.1. The Harvard model of HRM  
(Source: Adopted from Beer et al., 1984, p. 16)

The stakeholder interests acknowledge the significance of ‘trade-off’, overtly or unreservedly, “*between the interests of owners and those of employees and their organizations, the unions*” (Bratton, 2003a, p. 19). In this model, people are at its centre,

with management taking decisions which affect people day after day. To this effect, Beer et al. (1984, p. 1) argue:

*“Human resource management involves all management decisions that affect the nature of the relationship between the organization and its employees — its human resources. General management make important decisions daily that affect this relationship.”*

With regard to human resource management policy choices, the emphasis is that management’s decisions and actions in human resource management can be realised completely only if it is understood that they stem from an interaction between control and choices. Policies included in this part of the model are human resource flows, reward systems, employee influence and work systems. These policies are said to bring about the ‘four Cs’, that is, human resource outcomes: commitment, competence, congruence, and cost effectiveness (Price, 2011).

The long-term consequences differentiate between three levels: individual well-being, organisational effectiveness, and societal well-being.

Beer et al. (1984) unequivocally refuse the notion that employment systems must be only reactive to technical, social, and economic factors, despite the fact that they (p. 101) recognise that *“most firms’ employment policies are less reflective of a coherent set of management attitudes and values than .... Of the economic environment in which that organization operates.”*

This model is claimed to be effectively inspired by behavioural research and theory and is placed in the ‘human relations’ tradition, which is humanistic and anti-authoritarian perspective, sustaining that the workforce will only implement the organisation’s objectives if they want to (Price, 2011). Price (2011, p. 35) goes on arguing that the workforce *“will not demonstrate enthusiasm and commitment if they are forced to comply. Accordingly, although strategic decisionmaking is channelled through top managers there is an emphasis on participation throughout the organization.”*

The HRM responsibility, according to this model is widened to include all managers, rather than human resource managers, given that the model applies HRM to any manager with employee responsibilities, and consider issues, for example, delegation, leadership,

participation, team-building and organisation from a non-specialist viewpoint (Price, 2011).

## C.2 The Michigan Model (Fombrun et al., 1984)

The HRM model, developed by Fombrun et al. (1984) underlines the interrelatedness and the rationality of human resource management activities (Bratton, 2003a). Fombrun et al. (1984) seem to bestow greater prominence to human resource system, relating human resource management activities to organisational strategy and structure. Millmore (2007, p. 52) indicate that in “*this model it is simple to ‘read off’ what an organisation should do in terms of the various HR activities when it is at a particular stage of development.*” One of the basic postulation, according to Ehnert (2009), is that human resource management should be brought into line with a firm’s strategy and organisational structure.

The human resource management cycle in Fombrun et al.’s (1984) model comprises four basic elements: selection, appraisal, development and rewards, as illustrated in Figure I.2. These four activities seek to increase organisational performance.

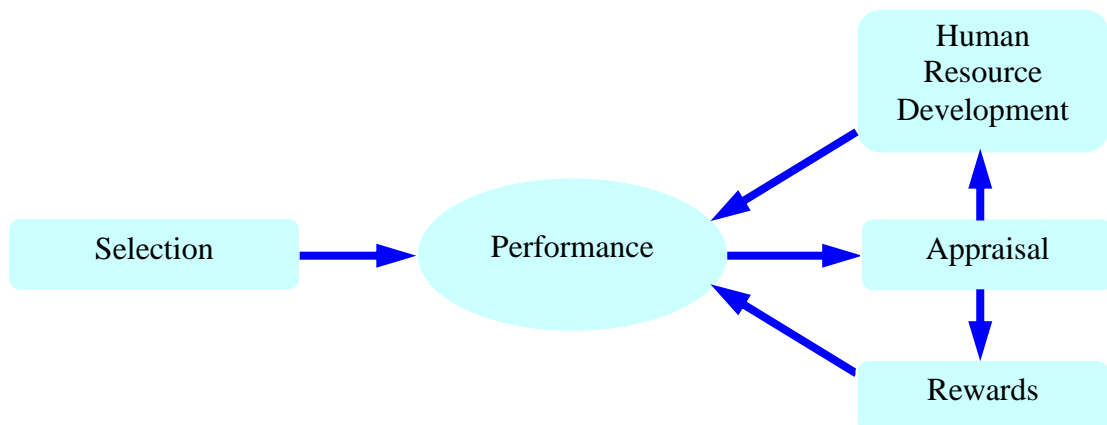


Figure I.2. The Fombrun et al. Model of HRM  
(Source: adopted from Devanna et al. 1984, p. 41).

Devanna et al. (1984, p. 41) argue that the cycle characterises sequential managerial tasks, and that the “*dependent variable is behaviour according to a dominant value and the system is ideally designed to have an impact on performance at both the individual and organizational levels.*” Devanna et al. (1984, p. 41) also indicate that performance is a function of all HR elements:

“*selecting people who are best able to perform the jobs defined by the structure, appraising their performance to facilitate the equitable distribution of rewards,*

*motivating employees by linking rewards to high levels of performance, and developing employees to enhance their current performance at work as well as to prepare them to perform in positions they may hold in the future.”*

However, Devanna et al. (1984) maintain that performance is not just a product of HR systems, but also of the other components, concluding (pp. 41-42) that “*strategy and structure also influence performance through the way in which jobs are designed, the way in which the organization is formally structured, and the choice of strategy meant to respond to environmental threats and opportunities.*”

Nonetheless, the weakness of this model is its noticeable prescriptive nature with its focus on four basic HRM practices, as well as it ignores various stakeholder interests, situational factors and the concept of management’s strategic choice (Bratton, 2003a). The model strength, on the other hand, “*is that it expresses the coherence of internal HRM policies and the importance of ‘matching’ internal HRM policies and practices to the organization’s external business strategy*” (Bratton, 2003a, p. 18). The HRM cycle is also a simple model which serves as a educational framework for explaining the nature and importance of major human resource practices and the interactions among the factors constituting the complex discipline of HRM (Bratton, 2003a).

### C.3 The Guest Model (Guest, 1989, 1997)

Guest (1989, 1997) developed a model which is more prescriptive theoretical framework which echoes the perception that a principal set of integrated human resource management practices can accomplish better-quality individual and organisational performance. The key hypothesis of this model is that if an integrated set of HRM practices is implemented in a consistent way, with a perception to realising the “*normative goals of high commitment, high quality, and task flexibility, then superior individual performance will result*” (Bratton, 2003a, p. 21). The model presumes that this will lead to better organisational performance (Bratton, 2003a).

This model consists of six elements, as illustrated in Table 2.1: an HRM strategy, a set of HRM policies, a set of HRM outcomes, behavioural outcomes, several performance outcomes, and financial outcomes. Guest’s model recognises the close links between human resource management strategy and wide-ranging business strategies, that is, differentiation, focus, and cost.

Bratton (2003a, p. 23) maintains that the strength in this model is that it obviously outlines the field of human resource management and categorises the inputs and outcomes. Bratton (2003a, p. 23) also indicates that the “*model is useful for examining the key goals usually associated with the normative models of HRM: strategic integration, commitment, flexibility and quality.*” Nonetheless, its weakness is that the model defines human resource management as a distinctive managerial style Bratton (2003a)

Table I.2. The Guest model of HRM

<i>HRM strategy</i>	HRM practices	HRM outcomes	Behaviour outcomes	Performance outcomes	<i>Financial outcomes</i>
	Selection		Effort/	High	<b><i>Profits</i></b>
<b><i>Differentiation</i></b>			Motivation	productivity	
<b><i>(Innovation)</i></b>	Training	Commitment		Quality	
				Innovation	
<b><i>Focus</i></b>	Appraisal		Cooperation		
<b><i>(Quality)</i></b>					
	Rewards	Quality		Low	<b><i>ROI</i></b>
<b><i>Cost</i></b>			Involvement	Absence	
<b><i>(Cost-reduction)</i></b>	Job design			Labour Turnover	
				Conflict	
	Involvement	Flexibility	Organizational	Customer complaints	
			citizenship	Labour turnover	
	Status and				
	security				

(Source: Guest, 1997, p. 273).

The Guest Model is unitarist, and indifferent on the values of trade unions; thus, it is similar to its American predecessors; viewing the employee relationship as a relationship between the employee (as an individual) and the organisation (Sharma, 2009).



## C.4 The Warwick Model of HRM

This model originates in the Centre for Corporate Strategy and Change, University of Warwick, mainly by Hendry and Pettigrew (1990). This model (illustrated in Figure I.3) draws greatly from Beer et al's (1984) model (the Harvard model) to enlarge the analysis of human resource management (Bratton, 2003a; Van Looy et al, 2003). It takes a process-oriented perspective of HRM in which the significance of context is stressed (Van Looy, 2003). It comprises five elements: outer context, inner context, business strategy content, HRM context, and HRM content.

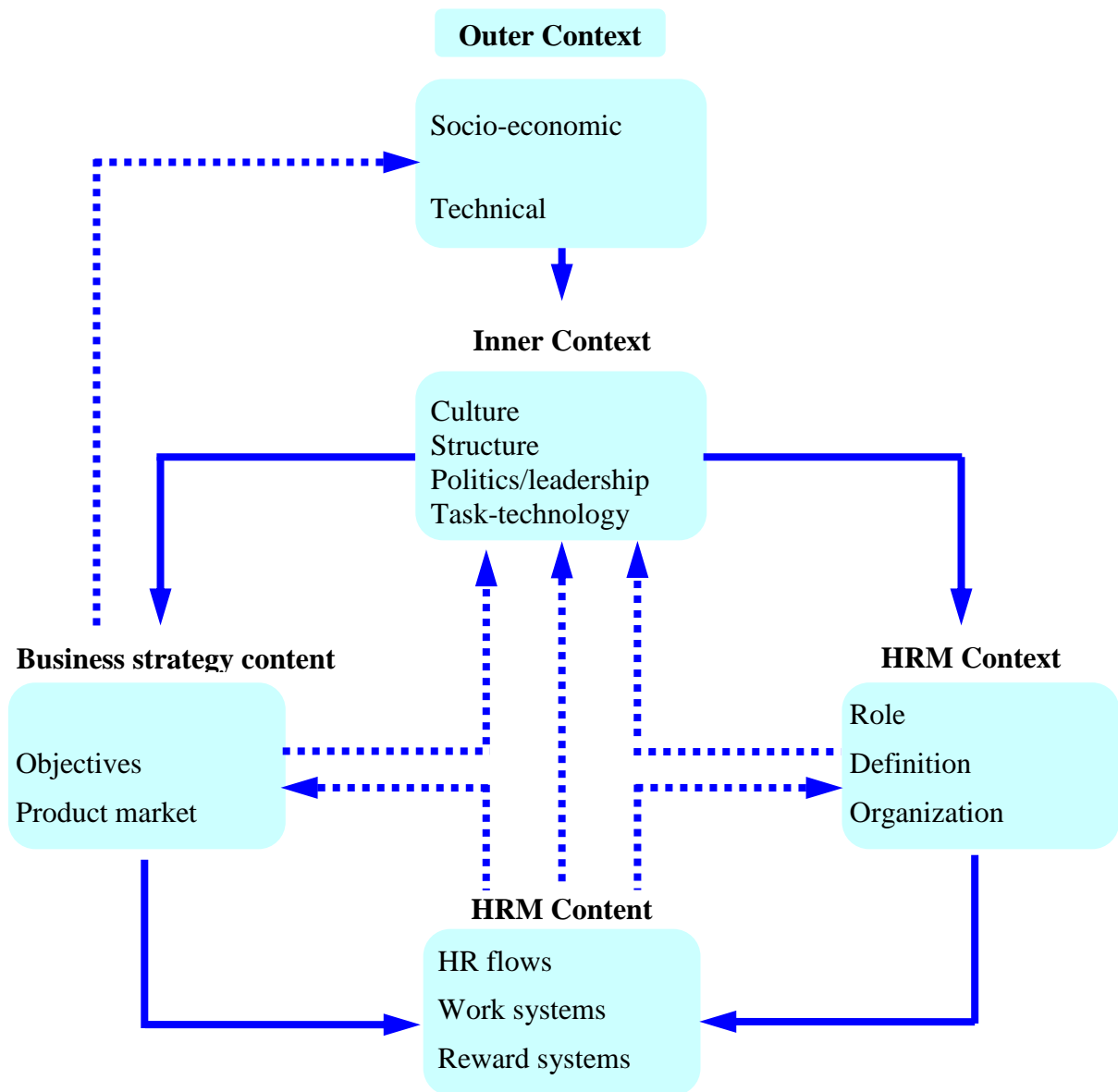


Figure I.3. The Warwick Model of HRM  
(Source: adopted from Hendry and Pettigrew, 1990)

The Warwick model acknowledges HRM business strategy and HRM practices, the external and internal context where such activities occur, and the processes by which this change occurs, as well as interactions between changes in context and content (Bratton, 2003a).

Hendry and Pettigrew (1990, p. 35) maintain that their model provides “*better descriptions of structures and strategy-making in complex organizations and of frameworks for understanding them [which] are essential underpinning for analyzing HRM.*”

### 2.3.5 THE STOREY MODEL OF HRM

The model is developed from the speculative accounts of what the human resource management paradigm may possibly comprise and from the literature on the ‘standard moderns’ (Bratton, 2003). This model depicts the differences between what Storey (1992) referred to as ‘personnel and industrials’ and the HRM paradigm, and consists of four parts (Table I.3): beliefs and assumptions, strategic aspects, line management, and key drivers.

#### D. Similarities and Differences between Personnel Management and HRM

Reference has often been made to personnel management in the preceding discussion and how some authors labelled HRM as a new name for personnel management, and how some other authors made the distinction between the two approaches. Armstrong (2006, p. 18) argues that despite the fact that the debate about the differences, if any, between personnel management and HRM has recently died down, particularly given the fact that the terms HRM and HR are currently in general use “*both in their own right and as synonyms for personnel management,*” understanding of the concept of HRM is improved by analysing what the differences are and how traditional approaches to personnel management have progressed to develop into current HRM practices.

While there are certain similarities between personnel management and HRM, there are also certain differences between the two paradigms. If we look back at Storey Model of HRM, we can see the differences between the two paradigms. Authors, for example, Armstrong (2006) have summarised both similarities and differences between personnel management and HRM. As regards the similarities between the two paradigms, Armstrong (2006, p. 19) highlighted the following:

Table I.3. The Storey model of HRM

	PIR and HRM: the Differences	
<i>Dimension</i>	Personal and IR	<i>HRM</i>
<i>Beliefs and assumptions</i>		
<i>Contract</i>	Careful delineation of written contracts	<i>Aim to go 'beyond contract'</i>
<i>Rules</i>	Importance of devising clear rules/mutuality	<i>'Can do' outlook; impatience with 'rules'</i>
<i>Guide to management action</i>	Procedures/consistency control	<i>'Business need'/ flexibility/commitment</i>
<i>Behaviour referent</i>	Norms/custom and practice	<i>Values/mission</i>
<i>Managerial task vis-à-vis labour</i>	Monitoring	<i>Nurturing</i>
<i>Nature of relations</i>	Pluralist	<i>Unitarist</i>
<i>Conflict</i>	Institutionalised	<i>De-emphasised</i>
<i>Standardisation</i>	High (for example 'parity' an issue)	<i>Low (for example 'parity' not seen as relevant)</i>
<i>Strategic aspects</i>		
<i>Key relations</i>	Labour-management	<i>Business-customer</i>
<i>Initiatives</i>	Piecemeal	<i>Integrated</i>
<i>Corporate plan</i>	Marginal to	<i>Central to</i>
<i>Speed of decision</i>	Slow	<i>Fast</i>
<i>Line management</i>		
<i>Management role</i>	Transactional	<i>Transformational leadership</i>
<i>Key managers</i>	Personnel/IR specialists	<i>General/business/line managers</i>
<i>Prized management skills</i>	Negotiation	<i>Facilitation</i>
<i>Key drivers</i>		
<i>Foci of attention for intervention</i>	Personnel procedures	<i>Wide-ranging cultural structural and personnel strategies</i>
<i>Selection</i>	Separate, marginal task	<i>Integrated, key task</i>
<i>Pay</i>	Job evaluation; multiple fixed grades	<i>Performance-related; few if any grades</i>
<i>Conditions</i>	Separately negotiated	<i>Harmonisation</i>
<i>Labour-management</i>	Collective bargaining contracts	<i>Towards individual contracts</i>
<i>Thrust of relations with stewards</i>	Regularised through facilities and training	<i>Marginalised (with exception of some bargaining for change models)</i>
<i>Communication</i>	Restricted flow/indirect	<i>Increased flow/direct</i>
<i>Job design</i>	Division of labour	<i>Teamwork</i>
<i>Conflict handling</i>	Reach temporary truces	<i>Manage climate and culture</i>
<i>Training and Development</i>	Controlled access to courses	<i>Learning companies</i>

(Source: adopted from Storey, 1992).

1. *Personnel management strategies, like HRM strategies, flow from the business strategy.*
2. *Personnel management, like HRM, recognizes that line managers are responsible for managing people. The personnel function provides the necessary advice and support services to enable managers to carry out their responsibilities.*
3. *The values of personnel management and at least the 'soft' version of HRM are identical with regard to 'respect for the individual', balancing organizational and individual needs, and developing people to achieve their maximum level of competence for both for their own satisfaction and to facilitate the achievement of organizational objectives.*
4. *Both personnel management and HRM recognize that one of their most essential functions is that of matching people to ever-changing organizational requirements – placing and developing the right people in and for the right jobs.*
5. *The same range of selection, competence analysis, performance management, training management development and reward management techniques are used both in HRM and personnel management.*
6. *Personnel management, like the 'soft' version of HRM, attaches importance to the processes of communication and participation within an employee relations system.*

As regard the differences between personnel management and HRM, Armstrong (2006, p. 19) highlights the following differences:

1. *HRM places more emphasis on strategic fit and integration.*
2. *HRM is based on a management and business oriented philosophy.*
3. *HRM attaches more importance to the management of culture and the achievement of commitment (mutuality).*
4. *HRM places greater emphasis on the role of line managers as the implementers of HR policies.*
5. *HRM is a holistic approach concerned with the total interests of the business – the interests of members of the organization are recognized but subordinated to those of the enterprise.*
6. *HR specialists are expected to be business partners rather than personnel administrators.*
7. *HRM treats employees as assets not costs.*

Banfield and Kay (2008, p. 40) summarise the main analytical differences between personnel management and human resource management, as illustrated in Table I.4.

Table I.4. A summary of the main analytical differences between personnel management and human resource management

<i>Personnel Management</i>	<i>Human Resource Management</i>
<i>Emphasis of collectivity</i>	<i>More emphasis on individuals</i>
<i>Generalised HR solutions</i>	<i>More tailored and bespoke solutions</i>
<i>Centralisation of HR responsibility</i>	<i>Greater devolution of authority and responsibility for managing people</i>
<i>Increasing role of HR specialists</i>	<i>Senior managers and those in line positions seen as key to delivering effective HR 'solutions'</i>
<i>Associated with maintaining status quo and stability</i>	<i>Associated with maintaining stability and driving through changes in structures, practices and capabilities</i>
<i>Associated with trade unionism and managing conflict</i>	<i>Associated with capabilities, performance and outcomes</i>
<i>'Can't do' mindset</i>	<i>'Can do' mindset</i>
<i>Thought to be reactive</i>	<i>Associated with a more proactive orientation</i>
<i>Associates employees primarily as an economic resource and a cost</i>	<i>Much more emphasis on employees as a source of resourcefulness</i>
<i>More operationally oriented</i>	<i>Operates at the strategic and operational levels</i>
<i>Lacking in sufficient integration of activities</i>	<i>Strong emphasis on vertical and horizontal integration</i>

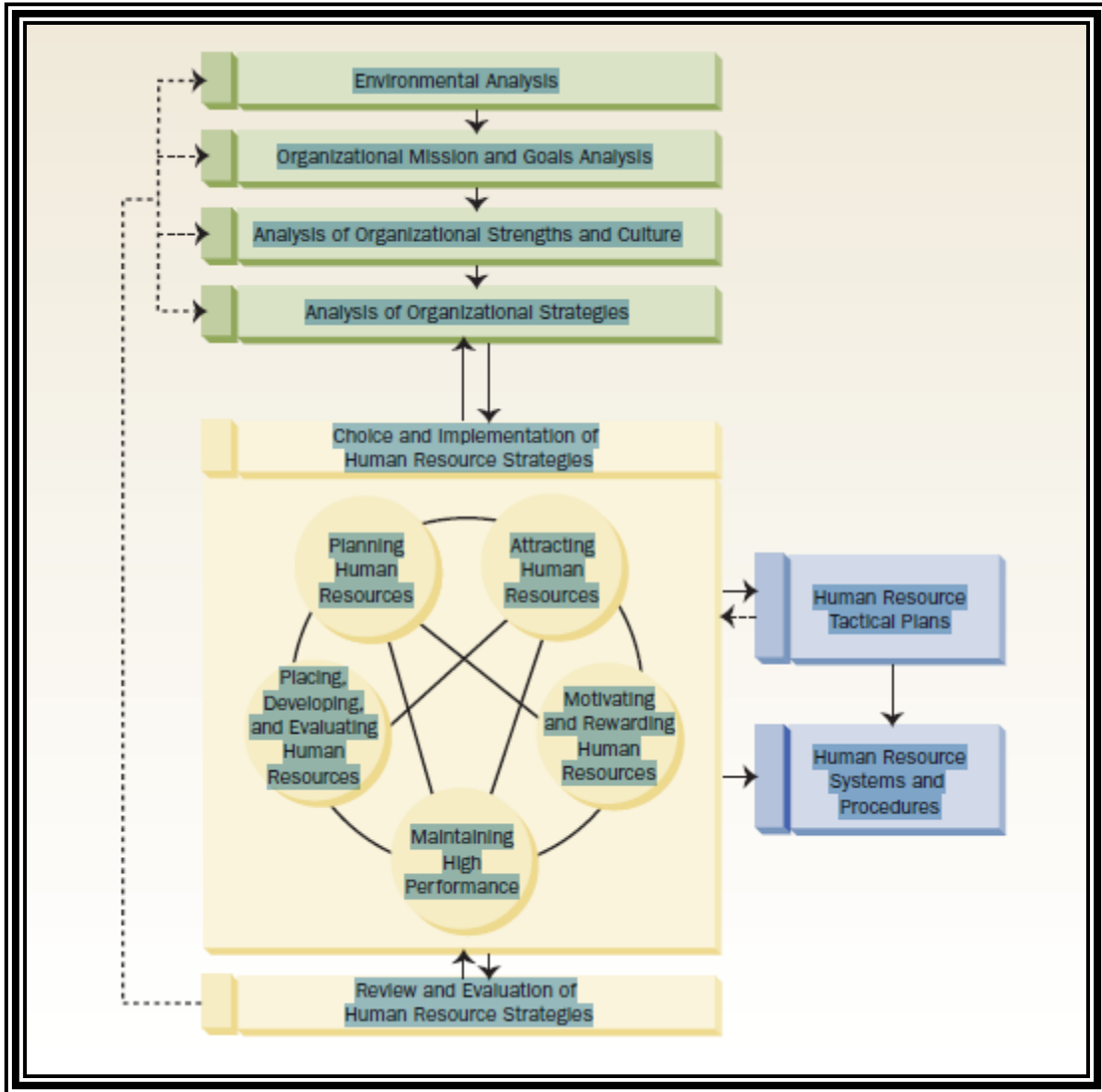


Figure I.4. A model of strategic human resource management  
 (Source: Schwind et al., 2005, p. 25).

## Definitions of Strategic HRM

Schwind et al. (2005, p. 24) define SHRM as: “*integrating human resource management strategies and systems to achieve overall mission, strategies, and success of the firm while meeting needs of employees and other stakeholders.*” Deb (2006, p. 47) defines this term as:

*“the pattern of planned human resources deployments and activities intended to enable organization to achieve its goals. It is not equivalent to commitment based human resource management in a universalistic, prescriptive fashion. Rather, it is concerned with not only how to support and organization’s intended strategies, but also the stability and specificity of the tasks required from human resources and make reasoned choices about the manner of interaction of an organization and its human resource management.”*

Sims (2006, p. 7) and Sims and Sims (2007, p. 323), on the other hand, define SHRM as: “*the linking of human resources with strategic goals and objectives in order to improve business performance and develop organizational culture that foster innovation and flexibility.*” Bratton (2003b, p. 37) also provides a similar definition, explaining SHRM as follows: “*The process of linking the human resource function with the strategic objectives of the organisation in order to improve performance.*”

Armstrong (2006, p. 115) offers a further definition, arguing that SHRM “*is an approach to making decisions on the intentions and plans of the organization in the shape of policies, programmes and practices concerning the employment relationship, resourcing, learning and development, performance management, reward, and employee relations.*” Armstrong adds that what comes out from this process is a flow of decisions in due course which shape the pattern adopted by the organisation for managing its human resources and that specify the areas in which particular HR strategies should be developed.

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## Appendix II

### Some Definitions of Human Resource Development Reported in the HRD Literature

Berghenegouwen (1990): *“HRD can be described as training members of an organisation in such a way that they have the knowledge and skills needed within the context of the (changing) objectives of the organisation.”*

Nadler and Nadler (1990, p. 1.3): *“organised learning experiences in a definite time period to increase the possibility of improving job performance growth.”*

Garavan (1991): *“HRD is the strategic management of training, development and management/professional education intervention, so as to achieve the objectives of the organisation while at the same time ensuring that the full utilisation of the knowledge in detail and skills of the individual employees.”*

Chalofsky (1992, p. 179): *“Human resource development is the study and practice of increasing the learning capacity of individuals, groups, collectives, and organisations through the development and application of learning-based interventions for the purpose of optimising human and organisational growth and effectiveness.”*

Watkins and Marsick (1997): *“HRD is the field of study and practice responsible for the fostering of a long-term, work-related learning capacity at the individual, group and organisational levels. As such, it includes – but is not limited to – training, career development and organisational development.”*

Armstrong (1999): *“HRD is concerned with the provision of learning, development and training opportunities in order to improve individual, team and organisational performance. It is essentially a business-led approach to developing people with a strategic framework.”*

Stewart and McGoldrick (1996, p. 1): *“Human resource development encompasses activities and processes which are intended to have impact on organisational and individuals learning. The term assumes that organisations can be constructively conceived of as learning entities, and that the learning process of both organisations and individuals are capable of influence and direction through deliberate and planned interventions. Thus, HRD is constituted by planned interventions in organisational and individual learning processes.”*

McCracken and Wallace (2000): *“HRD is the creation of a learning culture, within which a range of training, development and learning strategies both respond to corporate strategy and also help to shape and influence it.”*

Stewart (2003, p. 89) and Stewart et al. (2007, p. 66) argue that *“HRD is concerned with human behaviour and that developmental biology provides the best understanding of human behaviour that we have to inform the practice of HRD.”*

Vince (2003): *“HRD should be conceptualised as an approach that supports the impact that people can have on organising. The focus of HRD is on action, on developing the capacity to act, on generating credibility through action and on influencing and working with others in situations loaded with emotion and politics. The HRD function should be about discovering how an organisation has managed to become set in its ways, how to organise opportunities for change that can challenge a tendency to resist change and how to imagine and deliver processes that can underpin organisational development and transformation.”*

Slotte et al. (2004): *“HRD covers functions related primarily to training, career development, organisational development and research and development in addition to other organisational HR functions where these are intended to foster learning capacity at all levels of the organisation, to integrate learning culture into its overall business strategy and to promote the organisation’s efforts to achieve high quality performance.”*

Werner and DeSimone (2012, p. 4): *“HRD can be defined as a set of systematic and planning activities designed by an organization to provide its members with the opportunities to learn necessary skills to meet current and future job demands.”*

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## Appendix III

# Advantages and Disadvantages of Several Formats of Training and Development and Organisational Culture Profile

## Advantages and Disadvantages of Several Formats of Training and Development

<i>Type of Program</i>	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
<b><i>On-the-Job</i></b>		
<i>e-Learning and video teleconferencing</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bring employees together from many locations.</li> <li>• Speed up communications.</li> <li>• May reduce costs.</li> <li>• May be done on or off the job.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Start up and equipment costs are high</li> <li>• Require adaptation to a new learning format</li> </ul>
<i>Apprentice Training</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Does not interfere with real job performance.</li> <li>• Provides extensive training.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Takes a long time.</li> <li>• Is expensive.</li> <li>• May not be related to job.</li> </ul>
<i>Internships and assistantships</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitate transfer of learning.</li> <li>• Gives exposure to real job.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are not really full jobs.</li> <li>• Provide vicarious learning..</li> </ul>
<i>Job rotation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Give exposure to many jobs.</li> <li>• Allows real learning.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Involves no sense of full responsibility.</li> <li>• Provides too short a stay in a job.</li> </ul>
<i>Supervisory assistance and mentoring</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is often informal.</li> <li>• Is integrated into job.</li> <li>• Is expensive.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Means effectiveness rests with the supervisor</li> <li>• May not be done by all supervisors.</li> </ul>
<b><i>Onsite, but not On-the-Job</i></b>		
<i>Corporate Universities</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tailored to company needs</li> <li>• Support company vision and culture.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can be costly.</li> <li>• Require skilled management.</li> </ul>
<i>Programmed Instruction on an Intranet or the Internet</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduces travel costs.</li> <li>• Can be just-in-time.</li> <li>• Provides for individual learning and feedback.</li> <li>• Provides for fast learning.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No appropriate for some skills.</li> <li>• Is time-consuming to develop.</li> <li>• Is cost-effective only for large groups.</li> <li>• Often no support to assist when trainee faces learning problems.</li> </ul>
<i>Interactive videos</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Convey consistent information to employees in diverse locations.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Costly to develop.</li> <li>• Do not provide for individual feedback.</li> </ul>
<b><i>Typically Offsite</i></b>		
<i>Formal courses</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are inexpensive for many.</li> <li>• Do not interfere with job.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• .Require verbal skills.</li> <li>• Inhibit transfer of learning.</li> </ul>
<i>Simulation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• .Helps transfer of learning</li> <li>• Creates lifelike situations.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cannot always duplicate real situations exactly.</li> <li>• .Costly to develop.</li> </ul>
<i>Assessment centers and board games</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide a realistic job preview.</li> <li>• Create lifelike situations.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Costly to develop.</li> <li>• Take time to administer..</li> </ul>
<i>Role-playing</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is good for interpersonal skills.</li> <li>• Gives insights into others.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cannot create real situations exactly: is still playing.</li> </ul>
<i>Sensitivity training</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is good for self-awareness.</li> <li>• Gives insights into others.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• May not transfer to job.</li> <li>• May not relate to job.</li> </ul>
<i>Wilderness trips</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can build teams.</li> <li>• Can build self-esteem.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Costly to administer.</li> <li>• Physically challenging</li> </ul>

Source: Jackson et al. (2012, p. 292).

Jackson, S.E., Schuler, R.S. and Werner, S. 2012. *Managing Human Resources*. Eleventh Edition. Mason, OH: South-Western.

## Organizational culture profile.

<p><b><i>The Clan Culture</i></b></p> <p><i>A very friendly place to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. The leaders, or head of the organization, are considered to be mentors and, maybe even, parent figures. The organization is held together by loyalty or tradition. Commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefit of human resource development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation, and consensus.</i></p>	<p><b>The Adhocracy Culture</b></p> <p>A dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative place to work. People stick their necks out and take risks. The leaders are considered to be innovators and risk takers. The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to experimentation and innovation. The emphasis is on being on the leading edge. The organization's long-term emphasis is on growth and acquiring new resources. Success means gaining unique and new products or services. Being a product or service leader is important. The organization encourages individual initiative and freedom.</p>
<p><b><i>The Hierarchy Culture</i></b></p> <p><i>A very formulated and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do. The leaders pride themselves on being good coordinators and organizers, who are efficiency-minded. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is most critical. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long-term concern is on stability and performance with efficient, smooth operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost. The management of employees is concerned with secure employment and predictability.</i></p>	<p><b>The Market Culture</b></p> <p>A results-oriented organization. The major concern is getting job done. People are competitive and goal-oriented. The leaders are hard drivers, producers, and competitors. They are tough and demanding. The glue that holds the organization together is an emphasis on winning. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Competitive pricing and market leadership is important. The organizational style is hard-driving competitiveness.</p>

Source: Cameron and Quinn (2006, p. 66).

Cameron, K.S. and Quinn, R.E. 2006. *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*. Revised Edition. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

## Appendix IV

# Distinguishing Between Learning, Training, Development and Education

Garavan et al. (1995) argue that to distinguish between learning, training, development and education, it is imperative to take into account the factors that are common to these four terms. They also maintain that all these four activities are basically deal with learning. Nonetheless, they have important distinguishing features, as illustrated in Table I.1.

Garavan, T.N., Costine, P. and Heraty, N. 1995. The emergence of strategic human resource development. *Journal of European Industrial Training* **19**(10): 4-10.



Table IV.1. Distinctions between Learning, Training, Development and Education

<i>COMPARISON</i>	LEARNING	TRAINING	DEVELOPMENT	EDUCATION	
<i>FACTOR</i>				FORMAL	INFORMAL
<i>Focus of Activity</i>	On values, attitudes, innovation and outcome accomplishment	On knowledge, skills, ability and job performance	On individual potential and future role in workplace	On personal development and the experiences of life	On structured development of individual to specified outcomes
<i>Clarity of Objectives</i>	May be vague and difficult to identify	Can be specified clearly	Objectives stated in general terms	Objectives are unique to individual and may not be clearly articulate	Objectives stated in general terms
<i>Time Scale</i>	Continuous	Short Term	Long Term	Like Long	Specified period e.g. 10 years
<i>Values which Underpin Activity</i>	Assumes continuous change Emphasises break-through	Assumes relative stability Emphasises improvement	Assumes continuous change Emphasises maximising potentials	Assumes incremental change Emphasises improvement	Often assumes stability Emphasis on breakthrough
<i>Nature of Learning Process</i>	Instructional or organic	Structured or mechanistic	Instructional or organic	Instructional or organic	Structured or mechanistic
<i>Content of Activity</i>	Learning how to learn, values, attitudes relevant to work	Knowledge, skills and attitudes relevant to specific job, basic competencies	Interpersonal, Intra-personal and life skills	Life experience provides basis for education	Imposed and specified curricula
<i>Methods Used</i>	Informal learning methods, learner-initiated methods	Demonstration, practice, feedback	Coaching, counselling, guidance, mentoring, peer learning	Experience, observation, experimentation and reflection	Lectures, guided reading, debate, self-managed learning
<i>Outcomes of Process</i>	Individuals learn how to learn and create own solutions.	Skilled performance of tasks which make up job	Improved problem-solving decision- , making, intrapersonal/ interpersonal competence	Personal outcomes, internal to individual	External specified outcomes

Source: Garavan et al. (1995, p. 4).

## Appendix V

### Definitions of Organisation Development

The following definitions of organisation development are cited by Cumming and Worley (2009, p. 2, Table 1.1).

- Organization development is a planned process of change in an organization's culture through the utilization of behavioural science technology, research, and theory. (Warner Burke, 1982)
- Organization development refers to a long-range effort to improve an organization's problem-solving capabilities and its ability to cope with changes in its external environment with the help of external or internal behavioural scientist consultants, or change agents, as they are sometimes called. (Wendell French, 1969).
- Organization development is an effort (1) planned. (2) organization-wide, and (3) managed from the top, to (4) increase organization effectiveness and health through (5) planned interventions in the organization's "processes," using behavioural science knowledge. (Richard Beckhard, 1969).
- Organization development is a systemwide process of data collection, diagnosis, action planning, intervention, and evaluation aimed at (1) enhancing congruence among organizational structure, process, strategy, people, and culture; (2) developing new and creative organizational solutions; and (3) developing the organization's self-renewing capacity. It occurs through the collaboration of organizational members working with a change agent using behavioural science theory, research, and technology. (Michael Beer, 1980).
- Based on (1) a set of values largely humanistic; (2) application of the behavioural science; and (3) open systems theory, organization development is a system-wide process of planned change aimed toward improving overall organization effectiveness by way of enhanced congruence of such key organization dimensions as external environment, mission, strategy, leadership, culture, structure, information and reward systems, and work policies and procedures. (Warner Burke and David Bradford, 2005).

Cummings, T.G. and Worley, C.G. 2009. *Organisation Development and Change*. Ninth Edition. Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.

## Appendix VI

### The Final Questionnaire

Dear Participant

As a requirement for my Doctorate study at the University of Glamorgan, Wales, UK, I am carrying out a survey concerning staff training and development at the Al-Aqsa University. The general aim of the study is to *evaluate the Human Resource Development of the Palestinian Higher Education, with special Reference to Al-Aqsa University, Gaza, Palestine.*

Your participation in this survey is of paramount importance for the success of my study, and your responses to the items of the attached questionnaire are much appreciated. Please, I would like you to answer all of the questionnaire items. This will facilitate generating the required information to help me achieve my study aim and objectives.

May I also ask you if you would be happy to follow up if necessary with an Internet hook up, Skype, Conference Call, e-mail, etc., if I need to come back to you for any reason?

I would like to assure you that the information generated will be treated as strictly confidential and will not be used for any purposes other than the purposes of the study.

Thank you in advance and look forward to receiving your responses.

Yours sincerely,

Mazen Majdalani,  
Ph.D. Researcher,  
University of Glamorgan, Wales, UK

# The Questionnaire

Please read the following questions and tick the appropriate boxes. (Please tick only one option for each question)

## PART ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Gender  
Male  Female
- 2) Age?  
20 years or less  21-25years   
26-30 years  31-40 years   
Over 40
- 3) Qualifications  
Secondary Education  Diploma   
Bachelor Degree  Master's Degree   
Ph.D.  Others: Please indicate
- 4) How long have you been working with the University?  
One Year or less  2 years   
3 years  4 years   
5 years and over
- 5) What is the main area of your Job?  
Academic  Administration

## PART TWO: TRAINING PROVIDED BY THE UNIVERSITY

6. Type 1 Training: Have you attended any initial or induction type of training when you first joined the University, or when you moved to a new job?  
Yes  No
7. Type 2 Training: Have you training related to your job (for example, as a lecturer, or administrator)?  
Yes  No
8. Type 3 Training: Have you had any continuing types of training, such as using technology or for research development or other types of professional engagement?  
Yes  No
9. How important do you think training provided by the university is to your performance at work?  
Very Important  Important  Neutral   
Not Important  Not at all Important
10. Have you taken part in any of the 3 types training above within the last five years?  
Yes  No
11. Have you taken part in any other type of training not specifically referred to in the above categories, for example, professional or personal development?  
Yes  No

If yes can you say what this included: .....

If no, then there is no need to continue further as I want to find out more about the training which was undertaken.

12. How was the training referred above identified?  
Self   
Manager   
Head of Department   
University

13. Does the University have a system of staff appraisal?  
 Yes  No
14. Have you discussed your development/training needs with your immediate superior/head of department/manager in the last five years?  
 Yes  No
- If yes:  
 Informally  Formally
15. How many occasions in the last 5 years have you discussed your development/training needs?  
 Once  Twice   
 Three times  More than three times
16. What kind of training have you attended? (Tick all appropriate boxes)  
 On-the-job   
 Off-the-job
17. If training was off-the-job, was it: local , or abroad
18. What kind of training materials did you receive?  
 Academic   
 Technical   
 Professional   
 Computer Training
19. How were training materials relevant to your job?  
 Very relevant  Relevant   
 Neither relevant nor irrelevant  Not relevant   
 Not at all relevant
- Please comment: -----

### PART THREE: EVALUATION OF TRAINING PROGRAMMES

20. Were you clear about what you wanted to get out of the training before attending?

Yes  No

21. How informative were the pre joining instructions/information?

Highly Informative	Informative	Neutral	Not Informative	Not at All Information

22. How relevant did you find the training?

Highly Relevant	Relevant	Neutral	Not Relevant	Not at All Relevant

23. In your opinion how professional/knowledgeable were the trainers?

Highly Professional	Professional	Neutral	Not Professional	Not at All Professional

24. When you returned to work did you use the new skills/knowledge/abilities immediately or did you have to wait to use them?

- Immediately
- Shortly after returning to work
- Some time after returning to work
- A long time after returning to work
- Not using them at all after returning to work

25. Were the training programmes attended long enough?

Yes  No

26. Did you discuss the objectives of the training programme with your manager before attending the programme?

Yes  No

27. How relevant were the training programmes objectives to your job?

- Very relevant  Relevant
- Neither relevant nor irrelevant  Not relevant
- Very not relevant

Please comment: -----

28. What were your immediate feelings about the training programmes attended ?

- Very satisfactory  Satisfactory   
 Neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory  Unsatisfactory   
 Very unsatisfactory

Please indicate your reasons: .....

29. Did these feelings change once you were back in work?

- Yes  No

30. Have you reflected upon the benefits you gained from the training programme(s)?

- Yes  No

31. If the answer is 'Yes', how did you manage this?

- Discussion with your line managers  Discussion with a colleague   
 Self-assessment  Others (please satisfy)

#### PART FOUR: MANAGEMENT SUPPORT FOR TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

Please tick the appropriate box.

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

	1	2	3	4	5
32. My supervisor encourages and supports me to take advantage of training and development opportunities					
33. My supervisor frequently talks with me about my training and development needs					
34. My supervisor jointly arranges tasks and development goals with me					
35. My supervisor jointly reviews progress on tasks and development goals at timely intervals					
36. My supervisor coaches and guides me effectively					



## PART FIVE: PERCEIVED BENEFITS OF TRAINING

Please tick the appropriate box.

37. Training leads to promotion/career advancement/higher pay					
38. Training increases job satisfaction					
39. After training, I feel more motivated at work					
40. Training helps me to perform my job better					
41. Training improves my promotion potentials					
42. After training, I feel valued by the University					
43. Training facilitates career progress					
44. Training helps me to grow as a person					

## PART SIX: PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF, AND SATISFACTION WITH, PRE AND POST-TRAINING ACTIVITIES

Perceived Importance: 1 = Very Important, 2= Quite Important, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Not Important, 5 = Not at All Important.

Please tick the appropriate box.

<b>Pre-training Activities</b>	<b>Perceived Importance</b>				
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
45. Analysis of strengths and weaknesses to determine training needs					
46. Having an opportunity to decide about training content and methods					
47. Preparatory reading/pre-course activities					
48. Release time to prepare for a training course					
49. Pre-course briefing with the manager/supervisor					
50. Setting objectives for performance improvement					
<b>Post-training Activities</b>					
51. Follow-up meeting with the manager/supervisor					
52. Having the opportunity to use new knowledge and/or skills					
53. Having the necessary resources (e.g., equipment, information) to apply new knowledge and/or skills.					
54. Manager/supervisor support through coaching or feedback					
55. Support from colleagues to practise new skills					
56. Being evaluated on the learning of training material					
57. Material Being evaluated on use of training on the job					

58. Is there any other comment or observation you would like to add about your experience of training which has not been covered in the above?

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59. Would you be willing to take part in a follow up interview using internet technology to develop or clarify your experiences?

Yes

No

If so what is the best way to contact you?

.....

Thank you for your co-operation.

## The Final Questionnaire in Arabic Language

عزيزي المشارك

تم اعداد هذه الاستبانة كاحد متطلبات الحصول علي شهادة الدكتوراة من جامعة جلامورجان في ولاية ويلز ببريطانيا. و يقوم من خلالها الباحث بتنفيذ مسح حول مدي تطوير و تدريب العاملين في جامعة الاقصي لقد تم وضع الهدف العام من هذه الدراسة " تقييم تنمية الموارد البشرية في الجامعات الفلسطينية "

تعد مشاركتكم في تعبئة هذه الاستبانة في غاية الاهمية و تسهم بشكل فعال في انجاح الدراسة ونثمن عاليا الاجابات التي تضعونها لبنود الاستبانة و التي ستسهم فعلا في ايجاد المعلومات اللازمة لتحقيق هدف الدراسة.

كما يسعدني ان اتلقي منكم اي استفسارات من خلال المتابعة عبر الوسائط الالكترونية من برنامج الاتصال سكايب و او الايميل او غيره... ويمكن ان اتواصل معكم بالرد لاي استفسار.

احيطكم علما بان المعلومات الواردة في الاستبيان سيتم معالجتها في غاية السرية ولن تستخدم لاي غرض سوي غرض الدراسة.

اقدم لكم شكري و عرفاني مقدما و أتطلع إلى تلقي ردودكم

الباحث

مازن المجدلاوي

جامعة جلامورجان -ويلز-بريطانيا

الرجاء قراءة الاسئلة و اختيار الاجابة المناسبة (اختيار اكثر من اجابة يلغي الاستبانة)

الجزء الاول

البيانات الشخصية:

(1)الجنس  ذكر  انثي

(2)العمر

اقل من 20  21-25 سنة

26-30 سنة  31-40 سنة

40 فاكثر

(3)المؤهلات و الشهادات:

الثانوية العامة  دبلوم

بكالوريوس  ماجستير

الدكتوراه  غير ذلك ( برجااء مع التحديد).....

(4)فترة العمل في الجامعة:

سنة أو أقل  سنتان

3 سنوات  4 سنوات

5 سنوات و اكثر

(5) ما هي طبيعة عملك في الجامعة ؟

الكاديمي

اداري

الجزء الثاني : التدريب التي قامت به الجامعة

6) النوع الاول من التدريب: هل سبق و حضرت تدريبا عند التحاقك بالعمل بالجامعة او عند انتقالك لوظيفة داخلية جديدة؟

نعم  لا

7) النوع الثاني من التدريب: هل تلقيت تدريبا له علاقة بمجال عملك (مثل عمل محاضر او اداري)

نعم  لا

8) النوع الثالث من التدريب: هل خضعت لاي نوع من التدريب المستمر مثل توظيف التكنولوجيا او تطوير البحث العلمي او اي نوع من انواع التطور المهني؟

نعم  لا

9) حسب اعتقادك, ما مدي الاهمية للتدريب الذي تقدمه الجامعة لزيادة اداءك الوظيفي في العمل؟

مهم جدا  مهم  متوسط  ليس مهما  ليس مهما اطلاقا

10) هل شاركت في اي من انواع التدريبات السابقة في غضون الخمس السنوات الاخيرة؟

نعم  لا

11) هل شاركت في اي نوع من تدريبات اخرى لم يشار لها في الانواع السابقة مثل التنمية المهنية والذاتية؟

نعم  لا

اذا كانت الاجابة نعم ماذا تضمن هذا التدريب؟.....

اذا كانت الاجابة لا فلا داعي للاستمرار في اجابة الاسئلة المتبقية في الاستبيان. لان الغرض منها معرفة التفاصيل عن هذا التدريب الذي تم تنفيذه خلال الاعوام الخمسة السابقة.

12) كيف تم تحديد التدريب المذكور؟

شخصي

المدير

رئيس القسم

الجامعة

13) هل تملك الجامعة نظام تقييم الاداء؟

نعم  لا

14) هل قمت بمناقشة حاجاتك التنموية او التدريبية من خلال مسئولك المباشر في خلال الاعوام الخمس السابقة؟

نعم  لا

اذا كانت الاجابة نعم فهل كانت .....

بشكل رسمي  غير رسمي

15) كم مرة قمت بمناقشة حاجاتك التنموية و التدريبية خلال الاعوام الخمس السابقة

مرة  مرتين

ثلاث مرات  اكثر من ثلاث مرات

16) مانوع التدريب الذي حضرته

اثناء العمل

خارج اوقات العمل

17) اذا كان خارج اوقات العمل فهل كان؟

خارج البلاد,  محلي

18) ما هي طبيعة المواد التدريبية لتي حصلت عليه

اكااديمية

فنية

مهنية

تدريب علي الحاسوب

19) ما مدي العلاقة بين التدريب و وظيفتك



- |       |                          |                  |                          |
|-------|--------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| متعلق | <input type="checkbox"/> | متعلق جدا        | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|       | غير متعلق                | لا اعلم          | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|       |                          | غير متعلق اطلاقا | <input type="checkbox"/> |

ارجو اضافة ملاحظاتك:-----

الجزء الثالث: تقييم برامج التدريب

20) هل تم توضيح ما الذي ستحصل عليه من التدريب قبل حضورك التدريب؟

نعم  لا

21) الي اي حد كانت التعليمات ذات رسالة واضحة؟

واضحة جدا	غير واضحة	لا اعلم	غير واضحة	غير واضحة اطلاقا

22) هل كان التدريب ذو علاقة بالمحتوي؟

متعلق جدا	متعلق	لا اعلم	غير متعلق	غير متعلق اطلاقا

23) حسب رأيك, ما مدي الاحتراف و المعرفة للمدربين؟

محترف جدا	محترف	لا اعلم	غير محترف	غير محترف اطلاقا

24) عند عودتك لمهام عملك, هل استخدمت المهارات و المعارف و الامكانيات الجديدة مباشرة ام انتظرت حتي يتاح لك

استخدامها؟

مباشرة

بعد عودتي للعمل بقليل

بعد وقت ما من عودتي للعمل

بعد وقت طويل من عودتي للعمل

لم استخدمها اطلاقا بعد عودتي للعمل

25) هل كانت البرامج التدريبية كافية من حيث الوقت؟

نعم  لا

26) هل قمت بمناقشة الاهداف الخاصة ببرنامج التدريب مع مسئولك المباشر قبل حضورك التدريب

نعم  لا

27) الي اي حد كانت أهداف البرامج التدريبية لها علاقة بمهنتك؟

متعلقة جدا  متعلقة

لا اعلم  غير متعلقة

غير متعلقة اطلاقا

ملاحظات: -----

28) ما هو انطباعك الاول حول التدريب الذي حضرته؟

مرضي جدا  مرضي

لا اعلم  غير مرضي

غير مرضي اطلاقا

الرجاء ذكر السبب: .....

29) هل طرا تغيير علي انطباعك عند مزاوله عملك؟

نعم  لا

30) هل تم قياس اثر الفائدة التي حصلت عليها من برنامج التدريب؟

نعم  لا

31) اذا كانت الاجابة نعم ,كيف قمت بذلك

- المناقشة مع المدراء  المناقشة مع الزملاء  
 تقييم ذاتي  غير ذلك (الرجاء التحديد).....

الجزء الرابع: دعم الادارة للتنمية و التدريب

اختر الاجابة المناسبة

1=لاوافق بشدة 2= لاوافق 3=لا اعرف 4=وافق 5 =وافق بشدة

	1	2	3	4	5
32) لقد قام مشرفي بدعمي و تشجيعي للاستفادة من فرصة التنمية و . التدريب.					
33) لقد تحدث مشرفي معي مرارا عن حاجاتي التنموية و التدريبية. .					
34) مشرفي يتشاور معي لترتيب مهام و أهداف التطوير					
35) لقد قمت مع مشرفي بمراجعته مدي التقدم في المهام و الاهداف التنموية في مواعيد محددة.					
36) لقد قام مشرفي بارشادي و توجيهي بشكل فعال.					

الجزء الخامس : الاستفادة من التدريب

الرجاء اختيار الاجابة المناسبة.

37) التدريب ادي الي الترقية او النمو المهني او زيادة الاجر .					
--	--	--	--	--	--

38) ادي التدريب الي زيادة الرضا الوظيفي					
39) بعد التدريب اصبحت ذو دافعية اكبر للعمل .					
40) ادي التدريب الي قيامي بالعمل بشكل افضل .					
41) ادي التدريب الي تحسين فرص الترقية					
42) بعد التدريب ,تم تقديري من جامعه					
43) ادي التدريب الي تسهيل فرص التقدم لمهني .					
44) ساعدني التدريب علي النمو الذاتي.					

الجزء السادس: الفائدة قبل و بعد الأنشطة التدريبية

الفائدة: 1=مهم جدا 2=مهم 3=لا اعرف 4=غير مهم 5=غير مهم اطلاقا

أنشطة ما قبل التدريب	الفائدة				
	1	2	3	4	5
45)تحليل مواطن القوة و الضعف لتحديد الاحتياجات التدريبية					
46)الحصول علي الفرصة لتحديد محتوى و طرق التدريب					
47)الاعداد من خلال القراءة/انشطة قبل الدورة					
48)الاعلان عن الوقت الازم للاعداد للدورة لتدريبية					
49)ملخص قبلي للدورة مع المشرف او المدير					

(50) وضع الاهداف لتحسن الاداء					
أنشطة ما بعد التدريب					
(51) متابعة الاجتماعات مع المدير او المشرف					
(52) استغلال الفرصة لاستخدام المعارف و المهارات الجديدة					
(53) الحصول علي الموارد اللازمه مثل المعدات و المعلومات لتطبيق المعارف و المهارات الجديدة					
(54) المدير او المشرف يقدم الدعم من خلال التوجيه و التغذية الراجع					
(55) توفر الدعم من الزملاء لممارسة المهارات الجديدة .					
(56) يتم التقييم لمدي تعلمك للمادة التدريبية					
(57) تم تقييم استخدامك للمادة التدريبية اثناء العمل					

58-هل تود اضافة اي تعليقات او ملاحظات من خلال خبراتك التدريبية لم تشتملها الاسئلة السابقة

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59-هل تمنع في المشاركة عن طريق المقابلات باستخدام الانترنت من اجل الاستفادة و الاستيضاح من خبراتك؟

لا  نعم

اذا كانت الاجابة نعم ما هي افضل الطرق للتواصل معكم؟؟

.....

نشكر لكم حسن تعاونكم