TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE ABU DHABI POLICE

A Thesis Submitted For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Training Needs Analysis (TNA) is often considered the most important step among the stages in the training cycle and, therefore, should precede any training intervention. However, in spite of the importance of TNA, the literature contains little empirical work on the topic. This study investigates the current practice of TNA within the Abu Dhabi Police (ADP), in order to identify the different barriers to its effective implementation, and to develop a suitable framework that can not only be applied to the Abu Dhabi Police, but also has wide applicability to other public sector organisations. Four areas are examined, these being: current practices of TNA, training decisions, effectiveness of TNA, and the barriers to its implementation. The study adopts a phenomenological approach, using inductive qualitative data in the main. The research population is categorised into three groups: a) policy-makers, top management, and academics, b) trainers, and c) trainees. In total, 51 individuals from the ADP are interviewed.

The results show that TNA in the ADP is generally conducted formally on a regular basis. To a certain extent, all the methods are in use by the ADP in identifying its training needs, and the overall perceptions of the respondents regarding TNA practices are high. However, the study has identified some barriers to the implementation of effective TNA practices in the ADP. It is to be noted here that lack of expertise of the trainers; nepotism, kinship and personal relations between the supervisors and the employees, disrupt the training selection process in the ADP.

Based on the findings this study has suggested some recommendations. This study hopes to contribute to, and extend, the body of knowledge on TNA by developing a novel, holistic conceptual framework, which provides general guidelines for TNA practitioners in the public sector of the UAE to ensure the successful and effective implementation of TNA. Additionally, it will contribute to the body of knowledge of TNA in the Middle East generally, and TNA in the Middle Eastern public sector, being the first exploratory empirical study conducted in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) as far as the author believes.

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DECLARATION

This is to declare that this thesis is my original work and written by me. I am solely responsible for the whole work. All the verbatim extracts have been distinguished and the sources have specifically acknowledged in the thesis. I also declare that this thesis has not been submitted to any other institution within a degree programme and any mistakes in this thesis are of my sole responsibility.

(ALI HAMAD BADI GHUFLI)

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my late Brother Salem Hamad AlGhufli (Allah May Have Mercy on Him) whom I sadly lost during my PhD studies. Without his encouragement and support during my life, I would not have been capable of achieving anything today. May Allah rest his soul in heaven. This thesis is also dedicated to my parents, father, mother, wife, daughter, (who gave me all the way mental support to come and finish my PhD in London), brothers and sisters, and to all my family members for their love, prayers, and endless support.

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ABBREVIATIONS

HRM	__	Human Resource Management
T&D	__	Training and Development
HRD	__	Human Resource Development
UAE	__	United Arab Emirates
KSAs	__	Knowledge, Skills and Abilities
TNA	__	Training Needs Analysis
ADP	__	Abu Dhabi Police

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1   Introduction

People in the organisations are valuable assets that help the organisation to implement and achieve its corporate strategies and objectives successfully. They are the source of getting the work done effectively and efficiently, and the source of innovation and creativity. In order for an organisation to achieve its objectives and goals, it needs to consider the important role of its people; it needs a highly competent, skilled and trained workforce. The need to compete from the inside out has made organisations aim to increase the power of their people-related processes to build and sustain competitive advantage as the ultimate organisational objective, thereby outperforming competitors. Moreover, to maintain a competitive advantage and organizations must ensure that their workforce continually learns and develops. Thus, modern organisations invest a huge amount of money in training and learning programs (Salas *et al.*, 2012). Before sending them in training programs it is very important to identify the needs of the employees. Training Needs Analysis (TNA) is a valuable tool to provide a detailed picture of an employee's knowledge, skills and abilities. Consequently, TNA has become a popular technique in the Human Resource Development (HRD) profession. When properly designed and administered, a TNA can provide a detailed picture of an organisation's knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) base while simultaneously focusing attention on areas where training programmes are most needed or, depending on the nature of the business, required. This, in turn, permits the organisation to allocate funds for training and development (T&D) where they will have the greatest impact, thereby providing a positive return on the firm's investment. In the United States alone, organisations individually spend about $135 billion on training annually (Patel, 2010).

1.2   Training and Training Needs Analysis

The significance and value of training has long been recognised. Consider the popular and often repeated quotation, "Give a person a fish and you feed him for a day. Teach a person to fish and you feed him for a lifetime". This simple but profound saying is attributed to the wisdom of Confucius who lived in the 5th century BC. Given today's business climate and the exponential growth in technology with its effect on the economy and society at large, the need for training is more

pronounced than ever (McClelland, 2002). Training is responsible for building skilled, qualified and capable people, which helps organisations to improve their performance and adapt to any new change.

1.2.1 Training

There is no single definition of training. The simplest definition of training in the traditional training theory is the acquisition of knowledge and skills for presently known tasks. Training serves to help increase upward mobility within the organization, to adjust workers to the technological changes affecting the workplace, and often simply to introduce people to the world of work at the entry level. As of Buckly and Caple (2009, p.9) *"It is a planned and systemic effort to modify or develop knowledge, skill and attitude through learning experience, to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to enable an individual to acquire abilities in order that he or she can perform adequately a given task or job and realize their potential"*

Therefore, training is an important activity within an organisation and that it is aimed at effecting positive changes in the trainees in terms of their knowledge, skills and attitudes, consequently improving their performance levels. In other words, training is a planned and continuous process for the existing and new employees, designed to meet the present and future skill and knowledge needs of individuals. Through the training knowledge is increased, skills and improved, performance is bettered, and productivity at work is enhanced.

Despite the importance of training for improving organisational performance and increasing productivity, however, if the training itself is not approached systematically, it will not be effective. This need for a systematic approach means that certain steps must be followed, starting with an identification of the actual training needs. Once these are established, the design and development of an appropriate training plan to serve the needs is the next stage, which is followed by the implementation of the training according to the plan, and finally by an evaluation of the training programme to determine whether the original needs have been achieved. Execution along these lines is believed to ensure training effectiveness (Blanchard and Thacker, 2012).

1.2.2 Training Needs Analysis

Scholars generally recognise that the first important phase in planning and developing a training programme is the determination of the needs for such a programme within an organisation (Chen and Hung, 2012; Rossett, 2009; Sleezer *et al.,* 2008; Vijayalakshmi and Vaidhyasubramaniam, 2012).

Need assessment is a critical ingredient of all training and development programs. Indeed, without this step, there can be no solid prognosis of the training requirement and no basis on which to determine after the event, whether the whole training process was correctly designed. Thus, the professionals who plan training and human performance improvement efforts are responsible for appropriately identifying needs and then planning programmatic responses.

There are many definitions of TNA. Scholars viewed TNA as the starting point in the training process. It is the phase in which an organization's needs are identified, forming the foundation of an effective training effort. The needs assessment tells where and what kind of training programmes are needed, who needs to be included, conditions under which training will occur, and criteria to guide programme evaluation. Therefore, TNA is an on-going process of gathering data to determine what training needs exist so that training can be developed to help the organisation accomplish its objectives. Furthermore, the idea behind TNA is that only when there is a match between training needs and the content of training, can outcomes that are beneficial for organisational performance be realized (Van Eerde *et al.,* 2008).

1.3 Different Training Needs Analysis Models

Leigh *et al*. (2000) acknowledged that dozens of TNA models have existed for the past four decades and that each differs in terms of its levels of concentration. However, in terms of both their theory and practice, the TNA models have not seen significant changes over the past 30 to 40 years. In general, TNA models can be grouped into two major categories: *the Organisation-Task-Person analysis framework* (referred to as the 'O-T-P' model in this research) and Mager and Pipe's "*Performance Analysis Model*". The former is more popular among academics, and many models developed by them are based on this foundation. The latter is popular among practitioners, and gaps between expected and current performance are

considered as needs for training. Furthermore, these two theoretical models of TNA have dominated the training literature for over four decades. Within the O-T-P model in particular, decisions are made as a result of integrating macro and micro analyses, in which there is an investigation of training needs to meet organisational needs, task or job needs, and finally, the particular needs of the individual. In contrast, the performance analysis model focuses on identifying the areas of discrepancy between desired and actual performance, and subsequently on analysing the causes of such discrepancies. Also, compared to the performance analysis approach, the Organisation-Task-Person approach tends to be more strategic to organisational missions, and needs for the future are also analysed as part of analysis. This study considers the O-T-P model because in the academic literature, it is believed to be the core framework for needs assessment and the one on which most of the models developed since have been based, even though it was first published as long ago as 1961.

1.4   Research Problem

Despite the crucial nature of needs assessment in training design and development, numerous studies have suggested that many training programmes are inadequately planned, and in particular, are designed without the proper assessment of training needs. Saeed (2010) adds, most of the firms do not assess the training needs and those which assess actually do not assess. The roots of this failure mostly reside in the subjectivity of the approaches and methods used for assessment of training needs. Selection of jobs, people and tasks for training as well as the content carries a high degree of subjectivity, on the part of both trainer and the management. Unfortunately, this subjectivity is not innocent in nature and bites the organization very badly in the long run as well as in the short run. Most managers view the planning of training programmes as simply telling the training department that training is needed, and that they accord little importance to the assessment of training needs. Furthermore, the literature on TNA shows that, most Arab countries have difficulty in identifying the training required for their employees. Arab organisations are characterised by the absence of job descriptions, and clear performance appraisal mechanisms, and that the approach used for assessing the development needs of employees is impressionistic rather than systematic.

Studies in how TNA is actually conducted illustrate that *ad hoc* processes remain the norm and there continues to be a gap between recommendations from researchers and what is actually practised (Taylor *et al.,* 1998). As O'Driscoll and Taylor (1992) themselves recognised, while there has been much discussion of the theory-practice gap in TNA, few direct empirical investigations have actually been conducted. Arthur *et al.* (2003) remarked that studies conducting needs assessments represented only 6% of the data within their meta-analysis of training effectiveness. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) further emphasised this dearth of research in their review of the field of training. It is interesting to note that whereas most training researchers believe and espouse that training needs analysis is the most important phase in training, this phase remains largely an art rather than a science.

Moreover, existing literature regarding TNA shows that most studies conducted on organisations' training/TNA practices have been undertaken overseas (UK, Europe, the USA and the Far East). Due to cultural and national differences, however, these findings might not reflect the TNS practices in the Middle East, and specifically in the UAE. Of the studies that have been conducted in Middle East (Abu-Doleh 2004; Altarawneh, 2005), none has focused particularly on TNA and the organisations used as case studies were limited to the manufacturing and service sectors. Hence, the findings can hardly be generalised to the specific situation of TNA as practised in public sector organisations in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), such as the Abu Dhabi Police (ADP).

In fact, TNA is a global trend in public service. For example, the Louisiana state government in the US has adopted a large-scale performance-driven training needs assessment project designed to identify the performance improvement training needs of its employees (Holton *et al.,* 2000). And the state of Idaho has also applied TNA to develop a comprehensive management development programme (Patton and Pratt, 2002). In Africa, the Government of Somalia has applied TNA in its Ministry of Agriculture and constituent agencies, and three Egyptian public organisations have adopted TNA to identify leadership training and development needs (El Baradei and Newcomer, 2008). In the Far East, the public administration in Taiwan has implemented a more systematic approach to TNA, the organisation-task-person (O-T-P) model in the Taiwan Coast Guard (Chen and Hung, 2012). The Pakistan

corporate sector has also adopted TNA to identify the managers' training needs (Sherazi *et al.*, 2011). However, TNA has not been extensively studied in the UAE public sector, and consequently, this study is a welcome one, in its choice of the application of TNA in the ADP.

Undoubtedly, from the above discussion of related literature, a gap is seen to exist in the literature, because previous studies fail to provide a comprehensive understanding of the factors that impact upon the TNA process as most are focused on whether or not formal TNA procedures have been adopted, rather than exploring the nature of the decision processes utilised. It is true that some studies have emphasised the importance of TNA in the planning and design of training programmes (Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Palmer, 2005), but these studies lack clarity about how the TNA process could be managed effectively and leveraged for business advantage. Moreover, little systematic empirical research has been directed toward a thorough examination of the barriers affecting the success of TNA practice. This highlights the need for further empirical work to provide greater understanding of the TNA process and the benefits that can result from appropriate implementation of TNA in the T&D cycle. As a result, this study seeks to understand the role of the existing TNA process within the ADP, and identify the barriers that affect its effective operation.

1.5   Aim and Objectives of the Study

This research aims to investigate the nature of TNA and the barriers that influence its effectiveness within the context of the ADP. Having done this, the study aims to develop a suitable framework that can be applied not only to the ADP, but which also has wide applicability to other public sector organisations in the UAE. Therefore, this study is specifically concerned with achieving five research objectives. Specifically, these are:

❖ To conduct a critical literature review in the area of training in general, with particular emphasis on TNA in order to examine how TNA could be effectively approached and implemented within an organisation and to identify the barriers in conducting an effective TNA.

❖ To propose a conceptual framework, based on the extensive review of the related literature, which can provide a better understanding of TNA practice.

❖ To explore the current practice of TNA within Abu Dhabi Police.

❖ To identify, the stakeholders involved in the TNA process and explore the impact and effectiveness of TNA.

❖ To offer appropriate recommendations and suggestions for effective TNA practice, and to overcome the problems, as well as, to contribute to the literature.

1.6   Research Questions

According to the main aim of this study, the overall question is

"How is the TNA process implemented in the public sector?"

The research question leads to sub-questions:

Q.1 What is the type and nature of the existing TNA process in the ADP?

Q.2 What is the strategic direction underpinning TNA?

Q.3 What is the degree of involvement of the stakeholders in the TNA process?

Q.4 What is the decision-making process used by the ADP, when implementing the TNA process?

Q.5 What are the emerging challenges and barriers to effective TNA?

1.7   Significance of the Study

This study is significant for two particular reasons:

▪ *Academic Insight*

This study supports continuing efforts to bridge the gap between academic knowledge, and the practical understanding of the key features of the TNA process in the public sector of the Arab world. Therefore, this study is considered as a step towards theory building relating to TNA in the UAE. As far as the researcher is aware, this study is the first to compare and contrast approaches to the TNA process adopted by developing and developed countries. Also, this study contributes to the knowledge of TNA as being the first exploratory empirical study conducted in the UAE as far as the author believes.

- *Policy Development*

This research informs the policy-makers of the current practice of TNA. It also raises awareness of the importance of the TNA as an important strategic function, which could help organisations to achieve corporate strategies, and it gives a better understanding of how TNA could be effectively approached and implemented.

Having identified and analysed the current status of the TNA process, with reference to the best practice and emergent academic research, this study provides useful guidelines to assist organisations in shifting the role of their TNA functions from one in which they adopt reactive roles to one where they play proactive strategic roles, and in deriving a better understanding of the role of TNA in organisations' development and success. Based on the above, the study will enlighten the ADP with regard to effective TNA. All recommendations will take account of the socio-cultural factors at work within the UAE.

1.8   Rationale of the Study

The ADP, as one of the most active governmental organisations in Abu Dhabi, has been embraced as a legitimate partner by the community, and the organisation pursues efficiency and effectiveness through its use of the latest technological advancements and systems management practices (Abu Dhabi Police, 2012). The ADP's vision is to ensure continuity of Abu Dhabi Emirate as a community that enjoys security and safety through the provision of high quality police services to citizens, residents of the emirate, and its visitors. Thus, one of the ADP's main priorities is "making the most of our people" (Abu Dhabi Government, 2012).

The review of the relevant literature shows a real need for this study of the police. Police service, even of the simplest kind, is unlikely to be of a high quality unless police officers have special training. The purpose of training is to make sure the officer performs all tasks with ease and in such a way as to ensure his safety and the safety and satisfaction of the public. The training of police has taken on a significant role in the process of facilitating change within police organisations around the world. Changes in the law, equipment, and criminal behaviour all require new skills and training (Glenn *et al.*, 2003). There is an obvious need for police officers to

acquire knowledge of the latest legal decisions, technological advances, and tactical developments in the field, and to remain proficient in a number of job-related skills (Birzer and Tannehill, 2001). Moreover, police organisations are amongst the most diverse organisations and yet they need to be very focused, active and effective, and objective-oriented. The Abu Dhabi Police therefore, considers that its employees should have the ability and the confidence to cope with critical situations. Indeed, human resources have to be equipped with the necessary level of professional qualifications to face the challenges of their jobs, and training is the basic strategy to achieve this. Consequently, this thesis seeks to understand the nature of TNA, the utilisation of TNA, and the barriers that affect TNA in the context of the Abu Dhabi Police.

1.9   Organisation of the Thesis

The structure of this PhD thesis follows the methodology recommended by Phillips and Pugh (2010) in their seminal book "How to get a PhD". They proposed that the PhD thesis should consist of four elements namely: (a) background theory, (b) focal theory, (c) data theory, and (d) novel contribution. Therefore, this thesis is comprised of seven chapters as shown in Table 1.1. The details of the contents of the chapters are as follows:

Table 1.1: Thesis Outline

Chapter One	Introduction
Chapter Two	Training and Training Needs Analysis: An Analytical Review
Chapter Three	Conceptual Framework of the Study
Chapter Four	Abu Dhabi Police: A Brief Overview
Chapter Five	Research Methodology
Chapter Six	Data Presentation, Discussion, and Analysis
Chapter Seven	Research Contributions, Recommendations and Conclusion

- *Chapter One: Introduction*

The first chapter serves as an introduction to the thesis, providing background and outlining the broad field of study. It gives definitions of the key concepts, the research problem, the rationale for the study, and the aim and objectives of the study. It also justifies the effort being put into the study by reference to the significance of the research, and considers its value and originality.

- *Chapter Two: Training and Training Needs Analysis: An Analytical Review*

Chapter Two aims to build a theoretical foundation for the research through a review of the existing relevant state-of-the-art literature. It critically reviews the relevant academic literature on training and training needs analysis. It examines various definitions of training and training needs analysis, and describes and investigates various aspects of training and training needs of modern organisations. It also considers the link between training and development. Issues concerning TNA and the various models of TNA that have been proposed are discussed, and finally, the key features of these models are considered before a comparative analysis of them is made. The chapter draws on literature relating to TNA practices in different parts of the world, and the studies reviewed are compared on the basis of their findings to determine whether they fulfilled their purposes.

- *Chapter Three : Conceptual Framework of the Study*

Chapter Three presents the proposed conceptual research framework to underpin the research into TNA. Based on the extensive review of relevant TNA literature, the framework highlights and explains the key factors that support TNA effectiveness from a theoretical/conceptual perspective.

- *Chapter Four : Abu Dhabi and Abu Dhabi Police: A Brief Overview*

Chapter four provides a general background of the context of the study the United Arab Emirates. It consists of a brief description of the geography and climate, the characteristics of population, the economy, the public sector. It also, presents an overview of the Abu Dhabi Police, including a description of its structure, and principal activities.

- *Chapter Five: Research Methodology*

The methodology adopted for the study is presented in detail in chapter five. In doing this, the chapter defines and discusses the research paradigm followed, and it then elaborates the methodology adopted, its philosophy, its approaches, strategy, sources of data, data collection, and data analysis techniques. When discussing the data collection method, the chapter also includes issues relating to sampling, the selection of samples, and the different sample sizes and groups. It gives a justification for the sample size chosen, and proceeds to discuss the collection of primary and secondary data, and the techniques used for data analysis. This includes the steps followed in the analysis, and the coding procedure.

- *Chapter Six: Data Presentation, Discussion, and Analysis*

Chapter six deals with the presentation of primary data. Data are presented here under the four main themes of the study on the basis of the key points derived the from coding procedure. This chapter also presents a summary of the major findings, associated with discussions and analysis relating to the TNA process. In particular, issues relating to the effectiveness of TNA practices at ADP, the barriers that affect the success of the TNA, are considered. Based on the interpretations made in this chapter, finally a revised holistic framework for TNA is offered.

- *Chapter Seven: Research Contributions, Recommendations and Conclusion*

The final chapter presents the conclusions reached by the study. An overall summary of the thesis is provided, which begins with a précis of the key findings, research contributions and recommendations of the study. It ends by acknowledging the research limitations, identifying areas for further study, and offering some concluding remarks to the research.

Chapter Two

Training and Training Needs Analysis: An Analytical Review

2.1   Introduction

As argued in Chapter One, more attention needs to be paid to training and to the TNA process. Therefore, this chapter analyses critically the literature and identifies the research issues related to training and TNA. TNA can be considered the most important phase in ensuring the effectiveness of any planned training. Hence, the chapter begins by giving a broad picture of the topic, in which it presents several definitions of training in various contexts, discusses training and its importance for an organisation, considers different types of training, and distinguishes training from other progressive functions like education and development. It briefly explains the systematic approach to the training process and the relevance of TNA within this system. After showing the position of TNA within the training process, this chapter provides an overview of TNA and investigates the issues associated with the process. Therefore, it explains and discusses the concepts, types, purposes of TNA, shows when to perform a TNA, and the responsiveness of TNA. The goal is to explore the nature of these concepts and to address the important elements of TNA.

This chapter also includes important sections that contribute towards the shaping of the conceptual framework used in the study. It discusses the various TNA models that have been dominant in the literature for over four decades. Methods, sources of data involved in performing the analysis, and criteria when choosing data collection methods are presented. Various findings from previous studies are also provided to demonstrate the reality of TNA practice within organisations. This particular section is important in order to see the extent to which espoused TNA theories find their relevance and usefulness to human resource practitioners.

2.2   Training: Definitional Issues

Training is a difficult term to define, the word being used in English in several senses, including: 'to draw along', 'to allure', 'to cause to grow in the desired manner', to prepare for performance by instruction, practice, exercise, etc. (King, 1964, p.125). However, gradually the term has become much broader, such that it encompasses activities ranging from the learning of a simple motor skill up to the acquisition of complex technical knowledge, the learning of elaborate administrative

skills, and even the development of attitudes toward intricate and controversial social issues.

Table 2.1: The Common Definitions of Training

Training Definitions	Authors
"Training is the systematic development of the attitude and skill behaviour pattern required by an individual in order to perform adequately a given task. Training is designed to change the behaviour of the employee in the work place in order to stimulate efficiency and higher performance standards."	Oliseh (2005 p.112)
"It is a learning process that involves the acquisition of knowledge, sharpening of skills, concepts, rule, or changing of attitudes and behaviours to enhance the performance of employees."	Giri (2008 p.3.6)
"It is the use of systematic and planned instruction activities to promote learning".	Armstrong (2009, p.675)
"It is a planned and systemic effort to modify or develop knowledge, skill and attitude through learning experience, to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to enable an individual to acquire abilities in order that he or she can perform adequately a given task or job and realize their potential"	Buckley and Caple (2009, p.9)
"Training is the process of developing qualities in human resources that will enable them to be more productive and contribute more in the achievement of organisational goal".	Ghuman (2010, p.334)
"Training can be defined as an organised process concerned with the acquisition of capability or the maintenance of existing capability."	Alkinani (2013, p.48)

From an economic viewpoint, it is understandable that training is one technique used to resolve national problems (Akhorshaideh, 2013). In the same way, Chan and Lim (2003) point out that training can be considered as skill improvement whereby the learning of a new skill or the achievement of new knowledge to improve an individual's abilities adds value to the economy. Therefore, whatever the definition of training advanced by researchers, it seems that there is agreement between the writers about training being a systemic process, with aims of imparting both knowledge and skills, and changing the attitudes of an individual. In other words,

training is a planned and continuous process designed to meet an individual's present and future training needs through increasing knowledge and improving skills, which in turn improve employees' performance and increase productivity at work. With this perspective, we can say that training is a business investment aimed at building teamwork capacity to either reduce or eliminate the gap between the present work performance and the proposed and achieved goals by workers.

2.2.1 Types of Training

Training has many meanings, which are best appreciated through examining the goals associated with it. Some training provides individuals with the skills they need to relate to other people. Other training delivers an assortment of competencies and values required to practise in a profession. Ghuman (2010) referred to training with different goals as different types of training, and in this respect, he classified types of training as follows:

- *Business Function Training*: this training is conceived to develop knowledge and skills relating to different business functions.

- *Technical Skills Training*: this training is aimed at developing skills that are necessary to do a particular job.

- *Performance Management Training*: this training helps an employee improve his/her work performance by upgrading the skills that can enable him/her do a quality job, reduce wastage, etc.

- *Interpersonal Skills*: this training is employed to develop leadership skills, coaching competence, communication skills , and other interpersonal skills.

- *Problem-solving/Decision-making Training*: this training enables an individual systematically solve his/her problems by learning how to define problems.

- *Mandatory Training*: this training is undertaking in the areas that are mandatory as per the provisions of law.

- *Personal Training*: this training enables an individual manage his/her life and career in a better manner.

2.3   The Training Process

Noe (2010) considers training as one of the most vital elements for the prosperity of an organisation in the contemporary world of change. Once the organisation has identified a problem which is declared important enough to consider and resolve, it should go through a series of integrated questions/steps before it trains its employees.In this matter, Saeed (2010) stresses that most training theorists and practitioners agree that the training process has at least four steps or phases, these being: assessment, design and development, delivery and follow up, and evaluation. These steps are more popularly known as the 'training cycle' (see Figure 2.1) and many training scholars agree that these steps are necessary to ensure training effectiveness (e.g. Blanchard and Thacker, 2012; Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Noe, 2008).

Figure 2.1: The Systematic Training Cycle
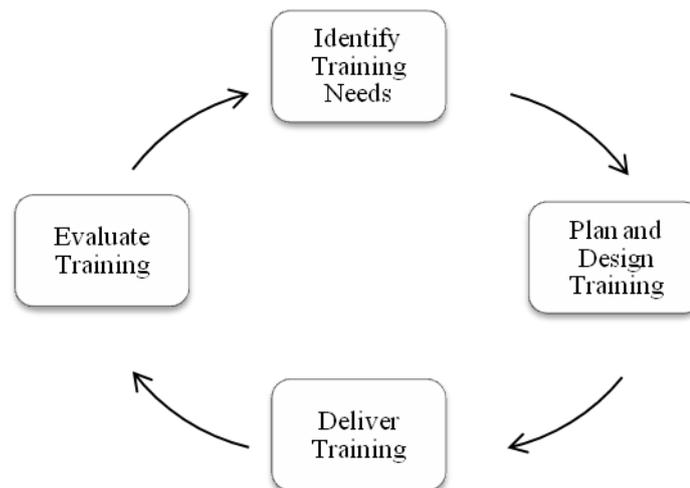
Source: Balderson (2005)

Each phase is important, but the needs assessment phase is the most critical. Errors at this stage put all subsequent stages off target. According to Lee and Owens (2004), in order to support this crucial phase, one third of the project time should be devoted to it, as seen in Figure 2.2. This further illustrates the need for a thorough analysis of the entire system to correctly diagnose the problem and identify the correct intervention (Roberts, 2006).

Figure 2.2: Training Process and Time Ratio
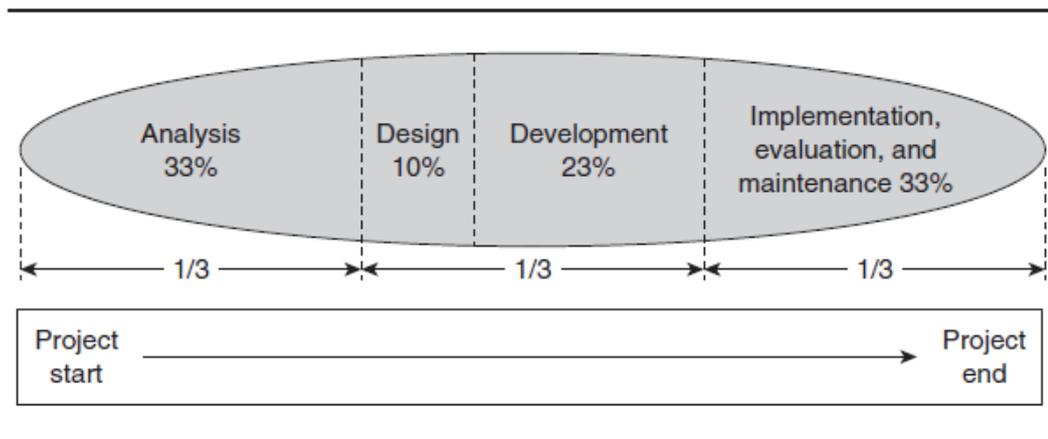
Source: Roberts (2006)

The steps involved in the training cycle are now discussed separately to better illustrate the systematic process of developing and implementing a training programme.

- *Identify Training Needs*

Firstly, an assessment of the training needs of an organisation is undertaken in order to determine whether training is the best solution to address the presenting issues. In general, this analysis consists of analysing the organisation as a whole (e.g. goals, objectives, support for training), the tasks of the job(s) in question, and the employees performing the job(s) (Arthur *et al.,* 2003; Noe, 2010; Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Miller and Osinski (2002) find need assessment as the critical activity for the T&D function. Often training programmes fail due to an inadequate analysis phase.

- *Plan and Design Training*

Secondly, the plan for, and design of the training is decided. Designing the specific training and evaluation methods to be used involves ensuring a learning environment that enables transfer of training and developing evaluation methods that accurately reflect the effectiveness of training (e.g. summative or formative evaluation) (Kissack and Callahan, 2010).

- ▪ *Training Techniques*

Thirdly, a variety of training techniques can be used while implementing a training and development programme. Some traditional methods include: lecture, audio-visual, on-the-job training, simulations, case studies, business games, role plays, and behaviour modelling (Noe, 2010). However, as technology continues to improve, newer methods, such as the internet, laser discs, CD-ROMs, DVDs, and interactive videos, are being utilised for these purposes (Mishra, 2011).

- ▪ *Evaluate Training Outcomes*

Finally, the evaluation of a T&D programme refers to the consistent monitoring of its outcomes, both during and after the programme to determine its level of success (Arthur *et al.*, 2003; Noe, 2010). As Noe (2010, p. 7) states, *"evaluation plays an important part in planning and choosing a training method, monitoring the training programme, and suggesting changes to the training design process"*. Thus, continuous evaluation of how training is progressing, evolving, and working is necessary.

The cycle begins with an identification of training needs. The outcome of this step could result in either training or non-training solutions. If the 'needs' can be satisfied only through training, then the process will move (Jamil, 2006). Therefore, the identification of training needs, if done properly, provides the basis on which all other training activities can be considered (Mishra, 2011). Boydell and Leary (1998, cited in Mishra, 2011, p 3) emphasise *"the importance of building a good foundation by clearly and precisely identifying and analysing the needs that the training will address"*. Therefore, training design and delivery can be effective and attractive only when the identification of training needs matches closely with the strategic goals of the organisation, the organisational learning culture and management style, individual learning styles, and the budgetary support(Mishra, 2011).

2.4   Training Needs Analysis

Brown (2002) suggested that conducting needs assessment is fundamental to the success of a training programme. However, it is frequently the case that organisations develop and implement training without first undertaking a needs analysis. These organisations run the risk of overdoing training, doing too little training, or missing the point completely. Therefore, we can say that TNA has one principal strategic goal which is to identify training needs as they currently exist or have the potential to exist at a future time, and to design and develop the ways and means of addressing and satisfying those needs in the most cost-effective and efficient manner possible. This emphasises the positive impact of TNA as an important part of the decision-making process within an organisation, and the opinion is probably due to the useful information that TNA provides to guide the planning and implementation of training programmes.

2.4.1   The Key Concept of Training Needs Analysis

For a better understanding of the meaning of TNA, Table 2.2 documents the definitions of several terms from the TNA family such as need, needs assessment, needs analysis, training needs assessment, and training needs analysis. A discussion of these terms follows.

Table 2.2: Key Terms of TNA and Their Definitions

Terms and definitions	Author(s)
1. Need	
"Need is the gap between current and desired (or required) results, or (stated another way) the gap in results between 'what is' and 'what should be.'"	Kaufman (1994, p 14)
"A learning or performance gap between the current condition and the desired condition is called a need."	Gupta,(2007, p 14)
"In its simplest form, a need is a measured discrepancy between the current state (what is) and the desired one (what should be)."	Altschuld and Lepicki (2010, p 772)

2. Training needs	
"Let us examine the phrase 'training need'. The word 'need' implies that something is lacking - there is a shortfall somewhere. The word 'training' further implies that this lack can be supplied by systematic training. It can thus be said that a training need exists when the application of systematic training will serve to overcome a particular weakness."	Boydell (1976, p4)

3. Needs assessment	
"Needs assessment is a process for identifying needs and placing them in priority order on the basis of what it costs to meet the need versus what it costs to ignore it."	Kaufman (1994, p 14)
"An effort that analyses and diagnoses the organisation, task and person, to determine if a cure is necessary and what cure is the most likely to produce the desired results."	Goldstein (1986) cited by Al - Khayyat (1998, p 20)
"A means of determining the training and development systems and programmes needed by the organisation, employee groups, or individual employees to make the organisation competitive in its industry, improve productivity, build employee morale and job satisfaction, and improve promotion potential and foster career development. Needs assessment identifies gaps in capabilities, abilities, and on-the-job results (performance) and places the identified needs in priority order for resolution."	Tracey (2004, p 457)
"Needs assessment is a process for figuring out how to close a learning or performance gap. It involves determining what the important needs are and how to address them."	Gupta (2007, p 14)
"A needs assessment is a formal process to obtain information on the two states (current versus desired), compare them, identify gaps, and arrive at needs-based priorities for organisational actions."	Altschuld and Lepicki (2010, p 774)

4. Needs analysis	
"The process of determining the reasons for and causes of a need so that appropriate interventions may be identified and later selected."	Kaufman (1994, p 14)
"Breaking down a need to identify its causes and its relationships with other needs. It is one of the means of identifying current or projected skills or deficits among employees. It may involve the use of assessment centres, individual interviews, psychological tests, and so on."	Tracey (2004, p 457)

5. Training needs assessment	
"A training needs assessment identifies specific problems within an organisation 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."	Leatherman (2007, p 3)
"Training needs assessment is a study to design and develop instructional and informational programmes and materials, after the performance analysis has determined that training or informational materials are indeed appropriate."	Rossett (2009, p 31)
6. Training needs analysis	
"The first step in the training process. Designed to identify performance gaps that can be remedied by training. It consists of surveillance, investigation, and data analysis."	Tracey (2004, p 678)
"a process to determine where training is needed, what needs to be taught and who needs to be trained"	(Goldstein, 1993 in Salas and Canon-Bowers, 2001, p 475)

Source: Author-modified based on Iqbal and Khan (2011, p448-449)

Kaufman (1994), in his definition of need, categorised the gaps in results into three groups. The first category is of gaps in 'outcomes', which corresponds with 'mega-level results' (relating to societal payoffs). The second category is of gaps in 'outputs', which corresponds with 'macro-level results' (relating to what the organisation delivers outside of it). And the final category is of gaps in 'products', which corresponds with 'micro-level results' (relating to individuals or small groups). Kaufman's (1994) definition of need is consistent with the extant literature (see, e.g. Gupta et al., 2007, p. 14; Altschuld and Lepicki, 2010, p. 772). However, Gupta et al. (2007) mention learning and performance gaps particularly.

The definition of needs assessment given by Kaufman (1994), revolves around the concept of difference between 'what is' and 'what should be' which focuses on the assessment/identification of needs. While the definition of Goldstein clearly

communicates that, the process of needs assessment provides backward linkage to the mechanism of needs analysis that requires groundwork to be done before its application. The definitions of needs assessment provided by Gupta*et al.* (2007, p. 14), Altschuld and Lepicki (2010, p774), and Tracey (2004, p 457) discuss the concept in a similar way to Kaufman (1994). However, Gupta*et al.* (2007) reiterate learning and performance gaps, and Tracey (2004) states many favourable outcomes of needs assessment. On the other hand, needs analysis definitions by Kaufman (1994) and Tracey (2004), emphasise needs analysis as a process of examination of and dedication to, causes that give rise to these needs.

Kaufman's (1994) definition of needs analysis endorses the relationship between needs assessment and needs analysis, since if one ignores the former, the question remains of 'what to analyse?'The literature provides further evidence of the relationship between assessment and analysis of needs by using them simultaneously. In addition, Tracey's (2004, p 457) definition of needs analysis also suggests the methods of analysis, such as assessment centres, individual interviews, and psychological tests.

Rossett (2009, p 31) defines training needs assessment as *"Training needs assessment is a study to design and develop instructional and informational programmes and materials, after the performance analysis has determined that training or informational materials are indeed appropriate"*. Leatherman (2007) also emphasises both the assessment and analysis, suggesting that the process of TNA starts with investigating and examining the problem in detail, which in itself is an analysis, and then assessing the problem to find out what type of training can solve it. Tracey (2004) emphasises that TNA is the starting point of the training process, and is designed to identify performance gaps by investigation and data analysis. The investigation in a TNA, according to Goldstein (1993), is conducted to determine the what, when, where, how, and by whom training might be best employed.

The purpose of such a comprehensive description of the definition of TNA is to diffuse confusions regarding simultaneous and interchangeable uses of the terms training needs assessment and training needs analysis. Chiu *et al.* (1999) stated that

in the US, TNA means Training Needs Assessment while, in the UK, it is known as Training Needs Analysis. Even though there are many labels, all of them do refer to a systematic effort, by which data is gathered to investigate and identify performance problems, in order to come to a decision whether or not they could be potentially solved by training activities (Chiu et al, 1999). Moreover, training needs assessment and training needs analysis should be performed at one time or as one process, which is why theorists and practitioners agree to start the training process with a combination of assessment and analysis of training needs (Elbadri, 2001). In this study, the researcher believes that both of these terms are closely related and designed to identify training issues and problems within an organisation, so the two terms may be used interchangeably in this research.

2.4.2   The Purposes of Training Needs Analysis

Many authors have stressed the importance of TNA in planning and designing any training programme. According to McConnell, (2003, p.44) "The benefits of training are apparent: trainees are provided with the knowledge and skills needed to ensure optimal performance outcomes; a reserve of workforces qualified to meet the organization's operational objectives and needs can be developed from inside the organization; and training contributes to optimistic morale, individual development and satisfaction". Thus, probably because the TNA process provides valuable information that is able to guide the planning and implementation of training initiatives. Jamil (2006) reports the various purposes of TNA as follows:

- *It ensures a particular need or problem can be achieved or solved by providing training*

TNA allows a thorough analysis of a need or a problem, and determines whether solutions in this respect can actually be found through training because training is not always the answer. For example, training cannot solve problems caused by poor system design, insufficient resources or understaffing (Sorenson, 2002). In such cases, increasing an employee's knowledge and skills would not resolve the problem or deficiency, so training would waste valuable resources and time. Moreover, sometimes employees' poor performance is not the outcome of a lack of KSAs but because of other reasons such as faulty equipment, poor systems, inadequate facilities, improper rewards or punishment systems implemented in the

organisations. Training can solve employees' performance problems only if the problems are due to the employees' lack of KSAs (Brown, 2002). A TNA, can therefore, reveal not only training needs, but other problems, and therefore it can be seen as a good diagnostic tool in an organisation. Often, however, it reveals the need for well-targeted training (McArdle, 1998), and by conducting an effective assessment, a company verifies that training is the appropriate solution to a performance deficiency. Moreover, Cekada (2010) states that those who undertake the assessment must have a clear understanding of the problem and must consider all solutions, not just training, before they present their findings to management and determine the best solution.

- ▪ *It ensures strategic training*

Overall definitions of TNA offered by many authors indicate clearly that TNA is conducted so that training developed by organisations will enable them to achieve their strategic objectives (Jamil and Som, 2007). Moreover, the rational of TNA process for an organisation is to determines how to develop or acquire the human skills in order to achieve organisation's goals. Brown (2002, p565) defined TNA as *"an on-going process of gathering data to determine what training needs exist so that training can be developed to help the organisation accomplish its objectives."*

From the definition obviously show that the purpose of TNA is to ensure that objectives of training are aligned with the ultimate objectives of the sponsoring organisations. Thus, McClelland (1993, p12) argues that TNA has one principal strategic goal which is *"to identify training needs as they currently exist or have the potential to exist at a future time, and to design and develop the ways and means of addressing and satisfying those needs in the most cost-effective and efficient manner possible"*.

Daniels (2003) has claimed that many organisations' investments in training fail to bring returns, and has suggested that this is probably due to the organisations' failure to connect training efforts with their goals and strategies. Mistakes such as this could be minimised if training practitioners are aware of the importance of TNA, since if performed properly, TNA forces practitioners to determine the potential contribution of every training programme to the achievement of organisational objectives. If

practitioners fail to see the linkage, training initiatives find their basis in 'wants' rather than true 'needs'.

The strategic nature of TNA can also be based on the way in which the famous tripartite-level of TNA is structured. In order for training to be able to contribute to the achievement of organisational objectives, TNA must first examine the context of the organisation, and this is known as Organisational Analysis. In the first level of analysis, needs analysts must examine all components of the organisation. The three steps involved in this level include the specification of goals, determination of training climate, and identification of external and legal constraints that would affect training efforts (Goldstein and Ford, 2002). Only after this level is analysed can the other two levels of analysis (job analysis and individual analysis) be approached. In other words, organisational analysis provides a guide to determining what training is needed and to whom it should be offered to enable the organisation to achieve its objectives. Training conducted without the TNA being performed as an initial exercise would probably lack strategic value.

- ▪ *It determines the 'where', 'what' and 'who' decisions of training*

TNA is seen as providing key data for answering where training should be directed in the organisation, who should receive training, and what the content of such training should be (Goldstein, 1980; Wexley, 1984; Holden, 1991). Information regarding these three questions is important in designing an effective training programme. 'Where' is identified in the organisational analysis, and it is important to ensure this is done, as it is not uncommon in organisations to direct training to the wrong place, and to provide training to employees who actually do not need it. The implication of teaching KSAs to participants who are not interested or find no relationship between these and their job is that their learning motivation may be affected, and the money spent on training completely wasted. Therefore, the role of TNA is to ensure that only the right training is provided to the right employees since training that is perceived to be relevant is more likely to create interest (Blanchard and Thacker, 2004). TNA also enables programme developers to create a programme that is suitable to the target participants' learning needs, learning styles, and job levels.

▪ *It provides a benchmark for evaluating training*

Training itself is considered successful if it achieves its objectives, and clearly, in order for this to happen, the objectives must be determined in advance during the TNA stage, as it is they that subsequently provide the basis for evaluating the effectiveness of the training programme. TNA ensures the possibility of evaluation by requiring analysts to decide what the training programme intends to achieve. According to Jamil (2006), analysts should also ensure that the objectives set in the TNA stage are specific, measurable, attainable, reasonable and to be achieved within a certain timeframe (SMART). Evaluation of training is easier if the objectives it seeks to achieve fulfil the five criteria stated.

▪ *It maximises the possibility of training transfer*

The process of TNA does not only involve making decisions regarding what type of training is needed by which employees, but also involves other related aspects of the training to increase the possibility of KSAs learned in the training to be applied in the participants' jobs (Noe, 2005). For example, Goldstein and Ford (2002) in their TNA model proposed that measures such as establishing relationships with top management as well as the staff was very important and had to be done before analysts commenced the TNA process. Furthermore, the climate of an organisation needs to be analysed to ensure that employees can successfully apply the KSAs they gain from a training programme.

2.5   Training Needs Analysis Models

There are many models showing how to conduct TNA in the literature. However, Taylor*et al.* (1998) suggested that TNA models can be grouped into two major categories. The first category is the *"organisation-task-person analysis framework"*, and the second is "*Performance Analysis Model*". However, there are different other models as well.

According to Taylor*et al.* (1998) theMcGehee and Thayer (1961) organisation-task-person analysis framework (referred to as the 'O-T-P' model in this research) is more popular among academicians, and many models developed by them are based on this foundation. The Performance Analysis Model, on the other hand, is popular among practitioners, and gaps between expected and current performance are

considered as needs for training. The former model has an emphasis on training, whereas the latter has its stress on performance.

Taylor *et al.* (1998) stated that while performance analysis links training needs more explicitly with desired work behaviour than the O-T-P model, it still suffers from other limitations. One is that the model focus excludes training opportunities for continuously improving performance beyond expected levels or that of exemplar individuals or groups. Secondly, it assumes that causes of performance discrepancies are either lack of knowledge/skills or work environment variables, but not both, which is often the case. Thirdly, it fails to distinguish between job behaviour and the organisationally-relevant results of job behaviour. These factors represent a limited conceptualisation of the performance domain. Binning and Barrett (1989) under-emphasise the importance of determining which behaviour is critical for achieving organisational results and the need to account for external influences on these results. Fourthly, and most importantly, the Performance Analysis Model fails to specify how information can be collected for analysing the causes of performance problems and determining whether training is needed.

In contrast, the Organisation –Task –Personal*,* as noted by Clarke (2003), integrates a macro and micro analysis of training needs, which allows the identification of organisational needs, task or job needs, and the particular needs of the individual or person. This is accomplished by establishing the level at which each employee is performing in relation to performance standards, usually through performance appraisals or proficiency tests and specific needs analysis techniques. Information sources for each of these three major analyses were identified by McGehee and Thayer (Taylor*et al.,*1998), and accordingly, this study considers the O-T-P framework provided by these researchers.

The following sections discuss the most important TNA models in the literature for the first group, which are those of: Ostroff and Ford (1989), Latham (1988), Goldstein and Ford (2002), Gupta (2007), and Kissack and Callahan (2010).

2.5.1 Mcgehee and Thayer's Frameworks

Holton *et al*. (2000) and Brown (2002) stressed that a thorough needs analysis examines training needs on three levels: Organisational, Tasks, and Individual. Therefore, to design training programmes that satisfy both organisational and human assets, the training programmes must be based on organisational, operational, and individual analyses together with the use of appropriate methods and techniques to collect data from all three levels Jamil (2006).

- *Organisational Analysis (O)*

According to McGehee and Thayer (1961), organisational analysis involves determining where within an organisation, training emphases could and should be placed. In order to do this, organisational objectives, human resources, efficiency indices, and climate are analysed. According to Noe (2005), organisational analysis also involves the consideration of strategic company directions, of whether managers, peers and employees support training activity,and of what training resources (budget, time, expertise for training) are available. It provides an important consideration of whether or not the proposed training will be compatible with the organisation's mission, strategy, goals, and culture (Erasmus *et al.,* 2000; Goldstein, 1993; Van Dyk *et al.,* 1997). Furthermore, the organisational analysis consists of considering how personnel training can help to attain organisational goals and where in the organisation, training is needed. It identifies the knowledge, skills, and abilities that employees will need for the future, as the organisation and the jobs of its employees evolve or change (Miller and Osinski, 2002).

- *Task/Operations Analysis (T)*

According to McGehee and Thayer (1961), task analysis identifies the nature of the tasks to be performed on the job and the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) needed to perform these tasks. Therefore, operations/task analysis looks at the knowledge and skills requirements of each specific job and compares these requirements to employees' actual knowledge and skills. Any gaps reveal a training need (Cekada, 2010). Also, Harrison (1997), in Marchington and Wilkinson (2000: p 187), defines job analysis as: *"a process of identifying the purpose of a job and its component parts, and specifying what must be learned in order for there to be effective work performance".*

Therefore, job analysis is about collecting, recording, tabulating and analysing duties and tasks, identifying the competencies that are necessary for employees to perform their jobs, and identifying job performance standards, knowledge, skills and abilities essential to perform these tasks. Brown (2002) stated that task analysis begins with job requirements and compares employee knowledge and skills to determine training needs. Examining job descriptions and specifications provides necessary information on expected performance and the skills employees need to accomplish their work. Any gaps between performance and job requirements indicate a need for task training. This analysis answers the question of what job needs training and where.

- ▪ *Person/Individual Analysis (P)*

According to McGehee and Thayer (1961), person analysis focuses on identifying who should be trained and what training is needed by individuals. Consequently, individual analysis targets individual employees and how they perform in their jobs. According to Latham and Wexley (1991), and Stone (2002), individual analysis examines employees' performance and compares it with the established standards, in order to determine the training needs for each employee. Thus, it focuses on how well employees perform their jobs and what skills, abilities and knowledge they use to conduct those jobs. Basically, person analysis answers the questions of which people need training and what kinds of training they need. In order to answer such questions we need to find what specific skills and knowledge are to be developed if the employee is to perform his/her job well. Table 2.3 summarises the three-level analysis of TNA.

Table 2.3: Levels of Analysis of TNA

Level of Analysis	Description
Organisational Analysis	Examines company-wide goals and problems to determine where training is needed
Task Analysis	Examines tasks performed and KSAs required to determine what employees must do to perform successfully
Person Analysis	Examines knowledge, skills and current performance to determine who needs training

Source: Landy and Conte (2009: p 319)

McGehee and Thayer (1961) proposed that all three levels were inter-related and that organisational objectives served as an overarching umbrella cascading down to the lower levels (Jamil, 2006). Utilising a variety of data collection methods to accomplish the needs assessment, organisation, operational (or task), and person analyses are conducted (McGehee and Thayer, 1961). An organisation analysis measures and studies the institution's strategic objectives, strategic direction, overall support for training, and training resources (Moore and Dutton, 1978). Task analysis assesses the competency level required to perform the job, the environment in which the job is performed, the actual activities of the job, and the knowledge, skills, and abilities required to perform the job (Moore and Dutton, 1978). Finally, a person analysis measures the trainee's personal characteristics, their cognitive abilities in respect of the job, the expectations placed on them (both current and future), the incentives they receive, and the feedback they receive (Herbert and Doverspike, 1990).

Noe (2008) maintains that these three analyses need not be done in any particular order, but in general, companies will conduct an organisation analysis first because this assessment decides whether or not training is aligned with business strategies. That information is necessary for the training programme to move forward. Task analysis and person analysis are generally done together *"because it is difficult to determine whether performance deficiencies are a training problem without understanding the tasks and the work environment"* (Noe, 2008, p 98).

2.5.2 Content-Levels Approach

Ostroff and Ford (1989) expanded the McGehee and Thayer (1961) framework and developed a 'content-levels approach' based on systems theory. Ostroff and Ford expand this framework by including a 'levels' dimension (consisting of organisational, sub-unit, and individual) as well as an 'application' dimension.

The framework presents a nine cell matrix, which combines the dual perspective of content (organisation, task, person) and levels (individual, sub-unit and organisational). Each cell represents the intersection of two factors and suggests certain issues which should be addressed in a more comprehensive approach to needs assessment (Harnisch, 2007). Nelson *et al.* (1995) assert that this approach

essentially expands each of the content areas vertically across the various levels of an organisational system. Although such an approach necessitates a much more complex analysis of each of the three content areas, Ostroff and Ford (1989) predict that it will result in a much more complete and systematic assessment of training needs (Nelson*et al.,* 1995; Harnisch, 2007).

2.5.3   Latham's Model

Latham (1988) added a fourth macro-type dimension to the McGehee and Thayer (1961) framework. According to him, needs assessment involves four steps in the process of identifying training needs. Three of the steps in his model are similar to those in the McGehee and Thayer (1961) framework, namely, organisational analysis, task analysis, and person analysis. However, the Latham model differs from that of McGehee and Thayer (1961) by linking person analysis to a new step entitled 'Demographic Analysis', where the training needs of the population of workers are identified (Latham, 1988; Latham*et al.,* 1998).

- *Demographic Analysis*

According to Latham*et al.* (1998) demographic analysis identifies the needs of the different populations of workers in the organisation. They underline the necessity of this step by referring to the recent demographic changes experienced by organisations, which affect training. Such changes include the increase of minorities, women, and older employees in the workplace, but also the growing number of entry-level workers with few basic skills and poor literacy levels, for which special training programmes may have to be designed.

2.5.4   Goldstein and Ford's Model

Goldstein and Ford (2002) add preliminary steps in the TNA process before the three common levels of analysis. Their model involves five levels of analysis, namely Organisational Support, Organisational Analysis, Requirement Analysis, Task and KSAs Analysis, and Person Analysis. Three of the five levels (Organisational Analysis, Task and KSA Analysis, and Person Analysis) are present in the McGehee and Thayer (1961) model. However, this model is different in terms of its emphasis on the importance of the preliminary preparations that needs analysts should take in

order for the TNA to be conducted successfully. The following is a brief description of the two new levels in the Goldstein and Ford Model:

- *Organisational Support*

The first level of the model is organisational support and at this point the needs analysts must gain the support of the entire organisation, which involves establishing relationships with top management, organisational members across the various levels, and forming a liaison team to facilitate the whole process of TNA.

- *Requirement analysis*

As the task of KSA analysis and person analysis can be quite difficult and complicated, Goldstein and Ford (2002) stressed the critical importance of good preparation before actually progressing to the next levels. In requirement analysis, they proposed a series of detailed steps that analysts should take to prepare for the next levels, which include defining the target job and understanding how it fits within the organisational context, choosing the most suitable method to collect data in the two levels, determining those who have the data and how their participation can be obtained, determining points of contact in the organisation to ease data collection, anticipating problems to be resolved, and developing a standard protocol to be followed in collecting the data (Goldstein and Ford, 2002).

2.5.5   Hierarchy of Needs Assessments Approaches

Gupta (2007) proposes a hierarchy of needs assessments approaches, which are in descending order: 1) Strategic needs assessment, which focuses on learning and performance gaps within the context of an organisation's business strategy; 2) Competency-based assessment, which focuses on determining the competencies needed for specific job functions. Competencies are the knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, motivations, and beliefs that people must have to be successful in a job; 3) Job and task analysis, which focuses on information about the scope, responsibilities and tasks of particular job functions; and 4) Knowledge and skills assessment, which focuses on the knowledge and skill needs that may exist.

2.5.6   Kissack and Callahan's Model

Kissack and Callahan (2010) add a fourth step entitled 'culture analysis' to the traditional McGehee and Thayer (1961) framework. They emphasise that including a culture analysis in the needs assessment phase creates awareness for trainers and organisations alike, of potential problems and incongruence between the programme and the organisation which may inhibit and undermine the success of the programme. Moreover, they claim that organisational culture and training and development programmes are inextricably linked with one another (Kissack and Callahan, 2010).

- *Culture Analysis*

Kissack and Callahan (2010) stressed that the best time to conduct a culture analysis is in conjunction with the organisation analysis. This step involves the evaluation of an organisation's strategic direction, a review of the training resources at the organisation's disposal, and the support for training by managers, peers and employees. Analysing the organisational culture at this point alerts trainers to a number of different issues which may have gone unnoticed in the absence of a culture analysis. They argue that an explicit culture analysis provides information that can ultimately determine the success or failure of the programme (Kissack and Callahan, 2010).

2.6   Comparative Overview of the Existing Training Needs Analysis Models

The earliest and most classical works to influence TNA, and in fact the entire field of T&D were written by McGehee and Thayer (1961) (Goldstein, 1989). In the opinion of these scholars, TNA was a research activity that had to be conducted in a systematic and continuous manner, and in which there was no place for the use of any intuitive top management approaches in determining training needs.

McGehee and Thayer (1961) introduced the tripartite levels of the TNA framework and this framework has been a great influence to other subsequent models of TNA (Taylor *et al.,* 1998). Although the needs analysis will usually consist of three distinct investigations, McGehee and Thayer argue that these should be interrelated so that

they build on each other to produce a complete training needs statement (Goldstein and Gessner, 1988). In addition, McGehee and Thayer (1961) produced a long list of techniques that can be used for analysis at individual level. However, Tovey (1997, p 43) indicates that each method has its own strengths and weaknesses and should be chosen carefully to get the most reliable and valid results within the constraints of available time, the access to people, and money.

Latham (1988) has noted that, when determining training needs based on future strategic objectives, minimising employees' future technical obsolescence has become an ethical responsibility for organisations. He also added another component, which he called 'demographic analysis', in response to some studies which indicated that differences seem to exist in the need for training across groups of employees of different ages, management levels, gender and races. While Latham proposed that this should be considered as a fourth type of analysis, it might more logically be viewed as an extension of organisational analysis (Taylor*et al.,* 1998).

In addition, Ostroff and Ford (1989) have tried to expand on the O-T-P model, with particular emphasis on the organisational aspects and integration between the different levels.Theyargued that TNA has concentrated on individual training needs and that the O-T-P framework should be expanded to include multiple levels of analysis. However, whilst their approach has gained in popularity in some circles, the principles laid down by McGehee and Thayer in 1961 hold good today.

The significant logistical difficulty of managing such analysis is associated with the fact that Ostroff and Ford (1989) provide no examples, tools, or methods regarding the application of their model (Watkins *et al.,* 1998). The Ostroff and Ford 1989 content-level-application matrix, like its predecessor, focused primarily on individual, small-group, and organisational processes and inputs rather than on the use of TNA (Leigh *et al.,* 2000)

Goldstein and Ford (2002) also elaborated the O-T-P model by adding two preliminary steps. In these, they take into consideration the steps for preparation that analysts must follow in order for the TNA exercise to be successful. At the same time, Gupta (2007) proposes a hierarchy of needs assessments approaches. However,

these four levels can be integrated in the McGehee and Thayer (1961) O-T-P framework. The strategic level may be considered as a part of the organisational analysis, the competency-based assessment and job and task analysis are included in the O-T-P's task analysis phase, and the knowledge and skills assessment is comprised in person analysis. Finally, Kissack and Callahan (2010) also added another component to the existing O-T-P model, which is entitled 'culture analysis'. They emphasise that organisational analysis should expand to include another dimension, that being an analysis of culture, but that this should be conducted at the same time as the organisational analysis. This can, of course, be viewed purely as an extension of the organisational level.

Therefore, while these various elaborations on the original O-T-P model have been important, the overall O-T-P approach remains essentially as a typology of TNA techniques and sources of information, with considerable overlap across the three categories of analysis (Moore and Dutton, 1978).

2.7 Sources and Methods of Data Collection in Training Needs Analysis

The literature maintains that the diagnosis of training needs is a process of information gathering and analysis, which requires data sets in order to understand how an individual's knowledge, skills, and attitudes are translated into varying behaviours and achievements (Leat and Lovell, 1997). Given this consensus, Moore and Dutton (1978) conducted a thorough review of TNA techniques and sources of information reported in the literature, categorising them within the O-T-P model. The following sections briefly explain these data source and methods.

2.7.1 Sources of Data in Training Needs Analysis

Various sources of data can be used as indicators of training needs. In 1978, Moore and Dutton produced an article accumulating numerous TNA data sources. They categorised these sources according to the tripartite-level of analysis. The main sources are shown in Table 2.5.

Perhaps the most common and important source of data are the immediate supervisors of employees who are included in the needs assessment (Stanley, 2002). The close proximity to employees gained by supervisors in their daily interactions may give them the chance to study the strengths and weaknesses of their subordinates. Nevertheless, there are those who are opposed to relying on supervisors due to the inaccuracy of data they might provide. Ford and Noe (1987), for example, suggested that a manager's attitude towards training may affect his or her view of the amount and type of training needed, so that his/her suggestions might be of questionable value (Wright and Geroy, 1992). Graham and Mihal (1986, in Wright and Geroy, 1992) also stated that managers' requests tended to be 'wish lists' rather than genuine 'needs' and that one out of every four programmes they recommended would be unnecessary and a waste of training funds.

Asking employees to self-assess their training needs is also a common method in determining training requirements in most organisations. Organisations produce an annual training plan and employees can request training that they believe is relevant to their job circumstances, and hence, needs (Rossilah, 2002). Those who are in favour of this method of needs identification believe that self-assessment of performance and training needs has several advantages such as: employees themselves are considered to be the best source of information regarding their needs, self-assessment encourages employees to take responsibility for their own development, this method permits faster and more economical approaches to collecting data compared to other methods, and employees' motivation to attend training is enhanced, thereby encouraging transfer of training (Clarke, 2003; Mathieu *et al.,* 1992 in Clarke 2003; Graham and Mihal, 1986).

Table 2.4: Sources of TNA Data

Data Sources Recommended	Training Need Implications
Organisational Level	
1. Organisational Goals and Objectives	Where training emphasis can and should be placed. These provide normative standards of both direction and expected impact which can highlight deviations from objectives and performance problems.
2. Manpower/Labour Inventory	Where training is needed to fill gaps caused by retirement, turnover, age, etc. This provides an important demographic data base regarding possible scope of training needs.
3. Skills Inventory	Number of employees in each skill group, knowledge and skill levels, training time per job, etc. This provides an estimate of the magnitude of specific training needs. Useful in cost benefit analysis of training projects.
4. Organisational Climate Indices (examples: labour-management data, grievances, turnover, absenteeism, suggestions, productivity, accidents, short-term sickness, observation of employee behaviour, attitude surveys, and customer complaints)	These 'quality of working life' indicators at the organisation level may help focus on problems that have training components.
Operational Level	
1.Job Descriptions	Outlines the job's typical duties and responsibilities but not meant to be all-inclusive. Helps define performance discrepancies.
2.Job Specifications	Lists specified tasks required for each job. More specific than job descriptions. Specifications may extend to judgments of knowledge and skills required of job incumbents.
3.Performance Standards	Objectives of the tasks of job and standards by which they are judged, and may include baseline data as well.
4.Review Literature Concerning Job (examples: research in other industries, professional journals, documents, government sources, PhD theses).	Possibly useful in comparison analyses of job structures but far removed from either unique aspects of the job structure within any specific organisation or specific performance requirements.
Individual Level	
1.Performance Data or Appraisals as Indicators of 'sickness'(examples: productivity, absenteeism or tardiness, customer complaints, waste, product quality, and down time).	Include weaknesses and area of improvement as well as strong points. Easy to analyse and quantify for purposes of determining subjects and kinds of training needed. These data can be used to identify performance discrepancies.
2.Tests (Job knowledge, skills, achievement).	Can be tailor-made or standardised. Care must be taken so that they measure job-related qualities.
3.Attitude Surveys	On the individual basis, useful in determining morale, motivation or satisfaction of each employee.
4.Assessment Centres	Combination of several techniques into an intensive assessment programme.

Source: Moore and Dutton (1978, 534-40)

Despite the advantages of the self-assessment method, not everybody favours this approach. Issues concerning the reliability and accuracy of data provided by employees themselves are widely discussed in literature (see for example, Mabe and West, 1982 in Clarke, 2003). Blanchard and Thacker (2012) stated that employees tended to over-rate their capabilities. McEnery and McEnery (1987) found in their study that training needs self-assessed by employees were incongruent with the training needs actually believed to be present by their supervisors. Nowack (1991 in Chiu *et al.,* 1999) agreed that employees sometimes requested training that they 'wanted' but did not 'need'. This is in line with the opinion expressed by Graham and Mihal (1986) that employees tended to desire training that was not strategically relevant to organisations' needs.

Clients can also be an important source of information, especially data regarding the overall efficiency of organisations or regarding particular employees' performance. Wright and Geroy (1992) suggested that clients' opinions should be gathered in the TNA process since they are the ultimate reason why training is provided in the first place. It is also common for organisations to compare themselves with their best relevant competitors. Known as benchmarking, it is one of the most common management tools and has gained popularity in the late twentieth century. Many companies look at other companies' training practices to determine what training to offer to their employees and what training is the most popular in the industry. An example of a benchmarking effort was one organised by the American Society of Training and Development (ASTD). The ASTD designed a common survey instrument to be completed by its company members asking for information such as their training costs, size of workforce, administration, and programme development and delivery. The participating members then shared this information. Examples of mega companies that participated include Chevron, Federal Express, and Xerox (Noe, 2005).

2.7.2 Methods of Data Collection in Training Needs Analysis

A useful reference regarding TNA data sources and methods is given by Moore and Dutton (1977). They reviewed a series of literature sources and accumulated various TNA data resources, measures, and research techniques with the intention of examining any mismatches between the theory and practice of TNA. However,

Moore and Dutton (1977) expressed concern regarding the use of such data in TNA on the grounds that the data had originally been collected for other purposes, and therefore, may not have been totally suitable and accurate for use in identifying TNA concerns such as: what is the performance problem, whose performance is affected, is it caused by the lack of KSAs, can it be solved by training, and which employees really 'need' to be trained?

Examples of data gathering methods that can be used in TNA activities (see Bee and Bee, 2003; Brown, 2002; Jamil and Som, 2007; McClelland,1994a; 1994b; 1994c; 1994d) are described in Table2.6, which also shows the advantages and disadvantages of each method followed by description of them. Table 2.5, also illustrates that each method has special characteristics that can affect both the kind and quality of the information obtained.

Table 2.5: Advantages and Disadvantages of Needs Assessment Methods

Advantages and Disadvantages of Needs Assessment Methods		
Method	**Advantages**	**Disadvantages**
Surveys/ Questionnaire	May be in the form of surveys or polls of a random or stratified sample or an entire population. Can use a variety of question formats: Open-ended, projective, forced-choice, priority ranking.	Can reach a large number of people in a short time. Are inexpensive. Give opportunity of response without fear of embarrassment. Yield data easily summarized and reported.	Make little provision for free response. Require substantial time for development of effective survey or questionnaire. Do not effectively get at causes of problems or possible solutions.
Interviews	Can be formal or casual, structured or unstructured. May be used with representative sample or whole group. Can be done in person, by phone, at the work site, or away from it.	Uncover attitudes, causes of problems, and possible solution. Gather feedback; yield of data is rich. Allow for spontaneous feedback.	Are usually time-consuming. Can be difficult to analyse and quantify results. Need a skilful interviewer who can generate data without making interviewee self-conscious or suspicious.

Performance appraisals	May be conducted informally or systematically. Conducted by manager; appraisal developed by HR. Should be conducted on a regular basis and separately from merit discussions.	Indicate strengths and weaknesses in skills, and identify training and development needs. Can also point out candidates for merit raises or promotions.	Can be costly develop the system, implement the appraisals, and process the results. May enable managers to manipulate ratings to justify a pay rise. May invalidate the appraisal because of supervisor bias. May be prohibited for union employees
Observations	Can be technical, functional or behavioural. Can yield qualitative or quantitative feedback. May be unstructured.	Minimize interruption of routine work flow or group activity. Generate real-life data.	Requires a highly skilled observer with process and content knowledge. Allow data collection only in the work setting. May cause "spied on" feeling.
Tests	Can be functionally oriented to test a board, staff or committee member's understanding. Can be administered in a monitored setting or "take home"	Can be helpful in determining deficiencies in terms of knowledge, skills, or attitudes. Easily quantifiable and comparable.	Must be constructed for the audience and validity can be questionable. Do not indicate if measured knowledge and skills are actually being used on the job.
Assessment centres	For management development. Require participants to complete a battery of exercises to determine areas of strength that need development. Assess potential by having people work in simulated management situations.	Can provide early identification of people with potential for advancement. More accurate than "intuition." Reduce bias and increase objectivity in selection process.	Selecting people to be included in the high-potential process difficult with no hard criteria available. Are time-consuming and costly to administer. May be used to diagnose development needs rather than high potential.
Focus Groups	Can be formal or informal. Widely used method. Can be focused on a specific problem, goal, task or theme.	Allow interaction between viewpoints. Enhance "buy-in"; focus on consensus. Help group members become better listeners, analysers, problem solvers.	Are time-consuming for both consultants and group members. Can produce data that is difficult to quantify.

Document Reviews	Organisational charts, planning documents, policy manuals, audits, and budget reports. Include employee records (accidents, grievances, attendance, etc...) Also include meeting minutes, programme reports, and memos.	Provide clues to trouble spots. Provide objective evidence or results. Can easily be collected and compiled.	Often do not indicate causes of problems. Reflect the past rather than the current situation. Must be interpreted by skilled data analysts.
Advisory Committees	Secure information from people who are in a position to know the training needs of a particular group. Supply data gathered from consultants by using techniques such as interviews, group discussions, and questionnaires.	Are simple and inexpensive. Permit input and interaction of a number of individuals with personal views of the group's needs. Establish and strengthen lines of communication.	Carry biased organisational perspective. May not represent the complete picture because the information is from a group that is not representative of the target audience.

Source: Brown (2002, p 575-76)

2.7.2.1 Criteria in Choosing Methods

There are a few criteria normally considered when choosing data collection methods, and suggestions made by Newstrom and Lilyquist (1979), Steadham (1980), and Brown (2002), can be used as references. For example, Newstrom and Lilyquist (1979) in their article, provide five criteria for differentiating among needs assessment methods. They are: employee involvement, management involvement, time required, cost, and the relevance of data gathered. Steadham (1980) reviewed the criteria normally considered by organisations in choosing data gathering methods in TNA. He includes: resources (time, money, people) availability in the organisation, health of the organisation, persons to be involved, desired outcomes, extent to which needs are already known, decision-makers' preference, time lag between collection/ action, degree of reliability and validity needed, confidentiality, and training needs analysts' favourite method. Brown (2002) asserts that analysts need to consider the following when choosing which technique to use: nature of the problem, budget, perception towards TNA in the organisation, staff availability, timeframe, etc. The relevance and importance of each criterion depends on the organisation itself and the purpose of a particular TNA.

2.8   Early Studies on Training Needs Analysis Practices

The problem of the informal practice of TNA in organisations has long been an issue. In 1952 Mahler and Monroe (quoted from Moore and Dutton, 1978) conducted a survey to identify TNA practices in industry and found that only one in ten companies involved in the survey conducted a systematic approach to TNA. Judgmental approaches like management requests and talks with supervisors were found to be the most popular ways of determining training needs. Now, 50 years on, the situation has changed little. Table 2.6 shows the findings from several researchers regarding TNA practices in various types of organisations.

Table 2.6: Various Research on TNA Practice

Author(s)	Research Findings
Durra 1991, Jordon	The results indicate that 75% of organisations involved focused in the main on occupational levels (34.8%) of TNA. The researcher found that 62.5% of training officers use 'observational' methods to collect data about training needs. This is due to the fact that the training officers come from the Ministry of Social Development in which they spend a lot of their time on field visits. In addition, he found that only 10% of training officers conducted training, the majority do administrative work. Around 31% of them had only one year of experience in training, and 20% had only high school certificates or diplomas (two years after high school).
Erffmeyer, Russ, and Hai, 1991, USA	It was found that the most important sources used by the organisations to determine TNA at organisational level were management judgment, interviews with present salespeople, performance measures such as sales volume, customer service and customer complaints, and organisational training goals. The least important information sources were competitors' sales training programmes and interviews with previous sales people. At task/operational level, the most important/important information sources were found to be judgment by upper management, the training department, performance measures, job descriptions/job specifications, and interviews with present salespeople. Whereas, at individual level, the most and only important source of information was judgment of upper management. It was found that most demographic characteristics of the organisations, such as annual sales, number of employees, size of sales force, and size of training department did not influence their TNA practices. However, the research showed that service organisations in the service sector considered some information sources at organisational level (namely performance measures, interviews with customers, and organisational and training goals/objectives) significantly more important than manufacturing organisations. Overall, the study claimed that systematic and formal needs assessments were not practised in the organisations' sales training programmes. Two-thirds of the organisations relied on informal, top-management judgmental approaches to TNA and in terms of frequency of practice, only one-third stated that they 'often' conducted TNA in their sales training programmes.

Author(s)	Research Findings
O'Driscoll and Taylor, 1992 New Zealand	Overall, the researchers concluded that training decisions in the organisations were not made based on systematic TNA. Although the majority of the respondents claimed that they conducted some form of TNA, however, most of them actually relied on informal procedures. It was also found that involvement of training professionals in the organisations, who were supposed to be actively involved in making training-related decisions, was quite minimal. Critical decisions regarding what training to conduct, contents of training and selection of training participants were mainly made by top management such as CEOs, general managers, personnel managers / human resource directors. The findings also reported a weak relationship between TNA practiced in the organisations and their strategic objectives. The researchers claimed that there was an incongruence between the TNA practised and TNA theories, and suggested that practising systematic TNA theories in training approaches could benefit organisations in their efforts to achieve their strategic missions.
Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995 Kuwait	All the government organisations and 96 per cent of the private and joint-venture organisations have no specific practices or procedures for determining training and educational needs of their managerial personnel. The Authors found that these results are strikingly low compared to the Saari *et al.* (1988) study (this study focused on the practice and trends of 611 small to large US corporations in management training and education) where one-third of small to large size organisations and over two-thirds of the largest organisations conduct systematic needs assessment procedures.
Agnaia, 1996 Libya	The research found an unsystematic approach in the way employees were selected for training (that is, views of bosses and performance appraisal results as the predominant approaches used by the majority of both types of companies). Job performance reports were found to be the most common technique used in assessing training needs (64%). Overall, the findings indicated that the approaches and techniques the companies used in selecting training participants and TNA did not involve any communication with the employees and was most predominantly based on the views of their superiors. The main difficulties found in selecting and assessing MTD training needs are listed as follows: insufficient or unclear procedures regarding training activities in organisations; lack of autonomy of MTD managers to make decisions; difficulty in gaining government agencies' agreement regarding selection of participants for overseas training; unsteadiness of administrative staff and organisational structure; lack of co-operation from top management regarding training activities; lack of co-operation from other departments; problems such as ethnic loyalty, kinship, and personality conflict between superior-subordinate that might influence the accuracy of identified training needs; shortage of qualified managers especially in key departments. The study also found no clear evidence as to whether companies conducted TNA at the tripartite levels of analysis (organisational, operational and individual). The researcher claimed this was probably due to the lack of relevant knowledge or qualifications on the part of the managers put in charge of training and development activities in the companies. The researcher further suggested that proper TNA was often neglected and employees went to training because of the presence of motivational elements associated with the training such as training allowances, possible promotion resulting from the attendance, and also a chance to escape work and responsibility.

Author(s)	Research Findings
Amos-Wilson, 1996 UK	A questionnaire survey was conducted in 21 non-governmental organisations (NGOs) of varying sizes in the United Kingdom regarding their attitudes towards management training. All aspects of training, namely the TNA, design, implementation and evaluation of management training were investigated, and what the study found was a less than systematic approach to their TNA practices. There was evidence of a turn-taking system whereby employees were sent to training because it was their turn. Most training conducted in the organisations was reactive in nature such as responding to mandatory training required by law or equipping employees with the KSAs in order to replace those who intended to resign. The research discovered less attention paid to personal developmental training needs. The performance appraisal approach was used by six organisations, nevertheless, its use was more towards pinpointing remedial training needs rather than developing individuals for future career needs. Most organisations (19) reported using help from external consultants to conduct their management training. Finally, the research suggested a mismatch between the overall organisational strategic needs and the types of training actually delivered to the staff.
Yaakub, 1996 Malaysia	Data for this study were solicited from 24 respondents through survey using mailed questionnaires. The respondents comprised training and human resource development managers and executives from various industries, including manufacturing, transport, trading, investment, and construction. Most of the respondents have conducted training needs assessment for their organisation. This study revealed that the level of adoption of the organisational training needs assessment procedures among the training managers in the selected organisations is moderately high. However, the level of adoption of the occupational and individual training needs assessment is lower. Most training managers are using survey or interview as a method to solicit information for training needs assessment purposes. Job analysis method is occasionally used in conducting training needs assessment while the measurement of the knowledge and skills of the individuals is seldom done.
Gray, et al 1997, USA	Results showed that only a limited number of agencies conducted systematic TNA. Only 13% of the agencies conducted TNA on at least 80% of their training programmes. The researchers suggested that this figure is less than the practice of organisations in the private sector (Zemke, 1985 in Gray *et al.,* 1997). Among data gathering methods preferred by the respondents in the TNA process were: employee surveys/questionnaires/skill inventories, executive or upper management decisions/mandates about training, advisory committees comprised of all levels of the organisation, and supervisor interviews. The research found mixed evidence regarding whether the agencies differentiated between training 'needs' and training 'wants'; and whether the data gathering methods they adopted produced clear, relevant and specific data on performance discrepancies.
Poon and Rozhan, 2000 Malaysia	The study reported a positive finding regarding the organisations' TNA practices in which it was found that 92% of them conducted some form of formal TNA to precede their training. Though this finding seemed favourable, however, Poon and Rozhan concluded that TNA conducted by the organisations was largely based on past data, and thus lacked orientation of proactive/ strategic TNA. Furthermore, the findings regarding the organisations' claims that their training efforts were strategic could be questioned since information on the business environment was rarely referred to as one of the sources for TNA data.

Author(s)	Research Findings
Elbadri 2001, Poland	The research showed that organisational size and type of industry affect the training practices. Small companies tend to place less importance on training, not having training departments in the organisation nor planning regularly for their training activities. Companies in agriculture and fishing, and also in manufacturing industries were found to recognise training as more important, and this was reflected by having specific training departments in the organisations. It was found that 60&% of the companies conducted TNA. It was discovered that the larger the company, the more attention was paid to TNA and companies in the manufacturing industry tended to conduct more TNA compared to companies in other industries. The most common reasons why these companies conducted TNA were due to 'management mandate', introduction of a new programme, and alignment of employees' performance to performance objectives. The research did not find any difference regarding data gathering methods used by the companies of different sizes and industries. Overall, the most used methods were management requests (90%), employee interviews (83%), performance appraisals (70%), performance documents (70%), behaviour observations (60%), and questionnaires (50%). Mixed responses were found regarding respondents' level of confidence on whether the methods used differentiated between employees' wants and needs; and on whether the methods produced clear, relevant and specific data on performance discrepancies. Relevancy and quantifiable data obtained, incumbent involvement, cost, time and ease of use were found as the most critical criteria in selecting TNA methods for companies regardless of size or industry.
Wilkins 2001 UAE	The sample of this study was the top 100 private companies in Dubai listed in The Dubai Chamber of Commerce and Industry book in 1998 called *The Top Companies in Dubai*. Some 82% of UAE private companies have a formal process for assessing their employees' training needs. This compares to a figure of 80% in the UK and 85% in France, but the figure is lower in most other West European countries (Holden and Livian, 1993). Methods for assessing training needs used by the UAE organisations, include analysis of business plans, training audits, performance appraisal, requests by line management and requests from the employee.
Abu-Doleh 2004, Jordon	One-third of the investigated organisations report having a formal and systematic plan for the analysis of their managers' MTD needs. The majority of these organisations have conducted their MTD needs analysis for lower level management; and, even worse, the overwhelming majority of the respondents report assessing their managers' training needs in the absence of functional and organisational needs analysis. The study shows that only in a few of the organisations do training managers report having MTD needs assessment procedures linked with managers' job descriptions and management performance appraisal schemes.
Jamil and Som, 2007 Malaysia	The study showed that the top 1,000 organisations in Malaysia used several data collection methods and techniques to analyse their training needs. It found that to a certain extent, all methods were used by the companies. However, the most popular method used was the performance appraisal form (40.5% stated this practice as 'always'). This finding corresponds with Agnaia's (1996), who reported performance appraisals and job performance reports as one of the predominant TNA approaches/techniques in Libyan companies. Such practice is perhaps of no surprise as performance appraisals are often considered the most common and widely used method in TNA (Brown, 2002; Osborne, 1996). The study also suggests that the companies had positive opinions overall regarding their training and TNA practices. The study found that the top 1,000 corporate companies' practices of TNA were quite systematic and in accordance with the suggestions in the literature in the sense that multiple data collection methods and techniques were adopted to identify training needs.

Author(s)	Research Findings
Bowman and Wilson 2008, UK	They use qualitative grounded theory to identify the main perspectives about the purpose of training needs analysis. They distributed three different questionnaires about the purpose and process of conducting TNA with the three groups. The findings are that business needs are the main focus of the TNA. The various actors in the TNA process should be aware of their part in the process. Line managers should receive instruction in TNA.
Van Eerde, Tang, and Talbot, 2008 New Zealand	The comprehensiveness of the needs assessment was significantly and positively related to organisational effectiveness that confirm previous models and results (McGehee and Thayer 1961; Mager and Pipe 1984; Goldstein 1993). They did not find any (linear or non-linear) relation between the size of an organisation and the extent to which the organisation invested in training hours, or on how comprehensive the TNA in the organisation was.
Abdullah 2009 Malaysia	A combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods was employed in this study. Training needs assessments in the manufacturing firms are found to be generally performed informally through observations. Size of firms had an effect on the way training needs are being assessed and analysed. The absence of needs assessment and analysis is due to lack of expertise and it is irrespective of the size of firms.
Sherazi et al., 2011 Pakistan	The purpose of this study is to investigate the manager training needs assessment techniques adopted by the Pakistan corporate sector, especially in Islamabad and Rawalpindi region, and its impact on training outcomes. The data analysis reveals that the majority of the organisations (81%) assess managers training needs through the performance appraisal system. The majority of organisations also conduct TNA at the personal level. More than half of the large size organisations (60%) also pay attention to the task or operational level analysis. No single organisation in the private or public sector used the organisation analysis. And surprisingly, no single organisation involved or engaged in three level TNA or comprehensive TNA practices before conducting training programmes, and this is actually recommended in the literature for better outcomes of training.
Ferdous and Razzak, 2012 Bangladesh	*NBL's Training Need Assessment Practices:* NBL's key need assessment method includes archival, work sample, test, and performance based assessment methods. The archival method mainly based on NBL's organisational strategy focused on the product and service. The work sample is mainly focused on NBL's everyday task description. The practice of testing is not conducted in general aspect. Finally, the performance based method is also similar with work sample method. The key difference is that it measures performance of the employees on a yearly basis. NBL conducts formal organisational and operational analysis for carrying out effective TNA. However, there is no formal process of individual analysis in the organisation. Most of the department heads informally address the training needs of the individuals.
Rodič et al., 2012 Slovenia	The aim of this study is to examine the practices of training needs assessment in a branch of Slovenia's public administration. The research sample was divided in two groups. The first group consisted of civil servants in managerial positions (heads of internal organisational units) while the second group included only the non-managers (clerks). Eight questions concerned the respondents' perception of TNA. Low agreement was found with clerk respondent on two items ('Training needs are proactively determined', and 'Consistent TNA is performed'). Clerks decidedly agreed that training should be based on elaborated TNA (M = 3.88), and in five cases clerks showed moderate agreement with the stated items ('Training planning increases training effectiveness', 'Training needs are defined according to job requirements ', 'Accurately assessed training needs are a precondition for effective training', 'Employees are actively involved in TNA', and 'Training should be based on training objectives'). Managers decidedly agreed on three items ('Training planning increases training effectiveness', 'Training should be based on elaborated TNA' and 'Training should be based on training objectives'), while in five cases their agreement is moderate ('Training needs are defined according to job requirements', 'Accurately assessed training needs are a precondition for effective training', 'Employees are actively involved in TNA', 'Training needs are proactively determined', and 'Consistent TNA is performed').

Source: Author

2.8.1   Comparative Discussions

The above table represents research findings involving organisations of dissimilar natures of businesses, sizes, sectors, and countries. The following pages discuss the findings of the above existing research studies in a comparative way.

- ▪ *Systematic and formal TNA*

With the exception of Poon and Rozhan (2000), all studies reported a positive finding regarding the organisations' TNA practices, and 92% of these conducted some form of formal TNA to precede their training. Wilkins (2001) also reported that 82% of UAE private companies have a formal process for assessing their employees' training needs. This compares to a figure of 80% per cent in the UK and 85% per cent in France, but the figure is lower in most other West European countries (Holden and Livian, 1993). In addition, Abu-Doleh (2004) found that one-third of the investigated organisations report having a formal and systematic plan for the analysis of their managers' MTD needs. Also, Jamil and Som (2007) found that the top 1,000 corporate companies' in Malaysia, used quite systematic TNA practices.

On the other hand, many researchers reported negative findings regarding the organisations' TNA practices. Erffmeyer *et al.* (1991), for example, claimed that systematic and formal needs assessments were absent in the organisations' sales training programmes and found that only one-third of them 'often' conducted TNA in their sales training. And Gray *et al.*(1997) reported that only a very small percentage of the agencies (13%) they studied conducted TNA on at least 80% per cent of their training programmes. Abdalla and Al-Homoud (1995) found that 96% per cent of the private and joint-venture organisations had no specific practices or procedures for determining the training and educational needs of their managerial personnel. Likewise, O'Driscoll and Taylor (1992) found that overall training decisions made by organisations in New Zealand were not based on systematic TNA. Amos-Wilson (1996) and Agnaia (1996) also discovered similar findings in their respective studies.

- *Training decisions*

Most organisations relied heavily on top management judgment in making training decisions. O'Driscoll and Taylor (1992) stated that all important decisions regarding training, from the types and content of training, to the selection of training participants, were made by CEOs, general managers, and personnel managers/human resource directors. Agnaia (1996) confirmed this situation, saying that the approaches and techniques of both oil and non-oil companies in Libya used in TNA did not involve any communication with the employees, and were most predominantly decided by their superiors. Erffmeyer*et al.* (1991) also claimed that management judgment was the most important source of information used by the organisations to determine TNA at all three levels of analysis, i.e. the organisational, operational, and individual levels. Elbadri's (2001) discoveries are consistent with the other findings stating that 'management mandate' was the most common reason for initiating a TNA and 'management request' was the most used method in TNA. McGehee and Thayer (1961) termed such practice as the 'armchair cerebration' approach. Relying solely on top managements' judgments might result in organisations investing money unnecessarily on needless 'wants' rather than true 'needs'. This is in contrast to the recommendations by theorists who require the use of various TNA tools involving perspectives from numerous parties to gather data that will expose the actual and more accurate organisational needs.

- *Stakeholder's involvement*

Bowman and Wilson (2008) suggested that the various actors in the TNA process should be aware of their part in the process. Line managers should receive instruction in TNA. Peterson (1994) suggests that effective TNA should have positive co-operation from the top decision-makers; otherwise it will lack authority, and it might be seriously flawed through the provision of inadequate or inaccurate data on training needs. In support of this, O'Driscoll and Taylor (1992) found that the involvement of training professionals in the organisations, who were supposed to be actively involved in making training-related decisions, was quite minimal. Agnaia (1996) found that employees were not involved in the TNA process, and that the selection of training participants and was most predominantly based on the views of their superiors.

▪ *Data Sources*

Erffmeyer *et al.* (1991) found that the most important sources used by organisations to determine TNA at the organisational level were management judgment, interviews with present salespeople, performance measures such as sales volume, customer service and customer complaints, and organisational training goals. The least important information sources were competitors' sales training programmes and interviews with previous salespeople. At task/operational level, the most important/ important information sources were found to be judgment by upper management, the training department, performance measures, job descriptions/job specifications, and interviews with present salespeople. Whereas, at individual level, the most and only important source of information was the judgment of upper management.

▪ *Data Collection Methods of TNA*

Jamil and Som (2007) found that multiple data collection methods were adopted to identify training needs in their study, a finding which is in accordance with the best practice espoused in the literature. It was found that all methods were used to a certain extent, by the companies in their study, although the most popular one was the performance appraisal form (40.5% stated this practice as 'always'). This finding corresponds with Agnaia's (1996) finding, which also reported the use of performance appraisals and job performance reports as one of the predominant TNA approaches/ techniques in Libyan companies. This particular approach is obviously not surprising as performance appraisals, if conducted properly, do reveal knowledge and skills deficiencies, and are therefore, often considered to be the most common and widely used method in TNA (Brown, 2002). Similar findings by Amos-Wilson (1996) and Sherazi *et al.* (2011), who reported that the performance appraisal approach was used by the majority of the organisations they surveyed, with 81% of these assessingtheir managers' needs through the performance appraisal system. Elbadri (2001) found that the most used methods were management requests (90%), employee interviews (83%), performance appraisals (70%), performance documents (70%), behaviour observations (60%), and questionnaires (50%). Gray *et al.* (1997) found mixed evidence regarding whether the agencies differentiated between training 'needs' and training 'wants'; and whether the data gathering methods they adopted produced clear, relevant and specific data on performance discrepancies.

- *Criteria of TNA method selection*

Two of the research studies also focused on the criteria used when conducing TNA. These were the studies by Elbadri (2001), and Gray *et al.*(1997), and they revealed various criteria that organisations considered when selecting TNA methods, as beingtheir relevance and ability to provide quantifiable data, incumbent involvement, cost, ease of use, management and employee participation, availability and expertise of HR staff, time required, and acceptance likeliness by all levels of employees including senior management, supervisors, line managers, and target employees. These criteria are also in line with Brown's (2002) suggestions which were mentioned earlier.

- *Top management commitment to TNA*

Two cases (Agnaia, 1996, and Elbadri, 2001) highlighted the lack of top management commitment to TNA, and indeed to the training function in general. Agnaia (1996) listed the difficulty of gaining co-operation from top management and other departments as one of the main barriers to the effective implementation of training activities. There are probably several reasons explaining this attitude. Firstly, organisations might simply be unaware of the importance and benefits of TNA. Secondly, they might not have the capital to invest in employee training. Thirdly, they might not want to spend on employees for fear they leave the company after acquiring the new skills and before returning to their work, hence meaning that the cost of their training is not recovered. Fourthly, they prefer to choose other alternatives, like hiring new employees with particular skills, which might appear easier and faster compared to the non-immediate returns of training. All these reasons definitely influence the practice of TNA since in order to produce an accurate and systematic TNA, participation and collaboration from various parties in organisations, especially to produce relevant data, is crucial.

- *Reactive vs. Proactive of TNA*

Training conducted in organisations was found to be reactive rather than proactive by Amos-Wilson (1996), and the organisations in question were also seen to pay limited attention to employees' personal developmental training. This finding concurs with the common use of performance appraisal/review as the technique to determine TNA (Elbadri, 2001), implying that organisations still concentrate on

correcting employees' daily performance and focus less on organisations' future needs. Results from reviews in the literature on TNA studies over the past 25 years by Chiu *et al.*(1999) can be used to support this finding. It was found that TNA conducted at organisational level dominated the literature and studies to analyse individual needs were in the definite minority. Although it is understood why businesses are continuously interested in their bottom-line issues, Chiu *et al.*(1999) nonetheless expressed concern regarding organisations' lack of interest in developing their employees as, in the long run, this might affect their staff motivation levels.

- *Conducting TNA*

According to Wagonhurst (2002), in order to analyse and determine needs accurately, TNA must be conducted by professionals with the relevant expertise. However, as shown by Agnaia (1996), in practice this did not occur in the oil and non-oil companies in Libya, where TNA was not conducted by the 'right' individuals. Agnaia (1996) suggested that this problem was partly due to the overall lack of relevant knowledge or qualifications of the people put in charge of companies' training and development functions. In another study, Ismail and Othman (1993) found that lack of expertise was the main reason why TNA was not conducted by competent and qualified individuals. Indeed, they found that 23% of companies in their study did not conduct any kind of training needs assessment. These findings seem to suggest a limited awareness of theories about training in general, and about TNA in particular. Although some practitioners might possess some understanding on the subject, overwhelmingly their knowledge is outdated. Dubin (1976) attributes this to their reliance on things they learnt in school without keeping abreast of the changes. Hence, some people in charge of the training function are guided by outmoded theories, as their awareness and application of theory might is not up to date. Abdullah (2009) shows that in Malaysia, TNA in manufacturing firms is generally undertaken informally through observations. The size of the firms observed was seen to have an effect on the way training needs are assessed and analysed. Again, in this scenario, the absence of needs assessment and analysis is due to lack of expertise, but was in fact irrespective of the size of firms.

▪ *Conducting training needs in line with the organisations' strategic missions*

There is a discussion regarding whether training conducted in organisations is in line with the organisations' strategic missions. Amos-Wilson (1996) concluded that there was a mismatch between the NGOs' overall strategic needs and the type of training that was actually delivered to the staff. O'Driscoll and Taylor (1992) found a weak relationship between TNA practised in the organisations in New Zealand and their strategic objectives. Gray *et al.* (1997) found mixed evidence regarding whether the government agencies they studied differentiated between training 'needs' and training 'wants'; and whether the data gathering methods they adopted produced clear, relevant and specific data on performance discrepancies. And, although Poon and Rozhan (2000) reported positive findings regarding TNA practice of companies in manufacturing and service industries in Malaysia, they expressed caution regarding this finding. The companies focused mainly on past performance data sources and did not examine the business environments in their TNA, thus calling into question the strategic nature of their training/TNA efforts.

▪ *Comprehensiveness of TNA*

On the comprehensiveness of TNA,Van Eerde*et al.* (2008) reported that this was significantly and positively related to organisational effectiveness, confirming the applicability of existing models of TNA, and the findings of various studies (McGehee and Thayer, 1961; Mager and Pipe, 1984; Goldstein, 1993). However, many researchers found no clear evidence as to whether companies conducted TNA at the tripartite levels of analysis (e.g. Agnaia, 1996;Abu-Doleh 2004) or focused only on one or two levels of analysis, on organisational analysis (e.g. Ferdous and Razzak, 2012), on task\occupational analysis (e.g. Ferdous and Razzak, 2012;Sherazi *et al.*, 2011), or on person\individual analysis (e.g. Sherazi *et al.,* 2011)

2.9   The Gaps in the Literature

This extensive review of relevant research on training and TNA identifies some important gaps in the literature. The first gap in the literature concerns the lack of investigation surrounding practice of TNA and success implementation of TNA in a more comprehensive way. Although there has been proliferation of research which has investigated practice of TNA (as briefly shown in Table 2.7), there is a lack of

research offering a holistic and thorough examination and analysis of the factors that facilitate implementation of TNA. Furthermore, the literature on TNA shows that, most of Arabic countries have difficulty in identifying the training required for their employees. Many of Arab researchers, such as Al-Ameer, Rubai and Tabbouni (1978), Al-Khader (1980) and Al-Faleh (1985), who argued that the Arab organizations lack job descriptions, clear performance appraisal and that the approach used for assessing the development needs of employees was impressionistic rather than systematic.

Secondly, an extensive review of the literature indicates that although a large number of studies have examined training and TNA, There is still relatively littletheoretical and empirical research on TNA (Clarke, 2003; Ferreira *et al.*, 2009, Goldstein, 1993, Kraiger, 2003). As O'Driscoll and Taylor (1992), have themselves recognised while there has been much discussion of the theory-practice gap in TNA, few direct empirical investigations have been conducted. Similarly, previous studies have simply focused on whether or not formal TNA procedures were adopted, rather than exploring the nature of the decision processes utilised. Another important gap which has been identified is that despite the growing number of studies relating to TNA, there is limited research conducted with regard to developing countries. To date, few studies have explored this issue within the context of the middle east region in general, and the UAE in particular.

This highlights the need for further empirical research to provide greater understanding of the TNA process and the benefits that can result from appropriate implementation of TNA in the training and development cycle. Thus, this study is a response to the above deficiencies.

2.10 Conclusions

This chapter can be considered as one of the crucial chapters of the thesis, since it has reviewed and presented the key literature related to the aim of the research, which is concerned with exploring the nature of TNA practice and investigating obstacles related to the TNA process. In this review, the main theories and models of TNA, which are used as a foundation for the study, have been discussed, and from these and the evidence of practice in many organisations as reported by different

researchers, important issues are highlighted, which are considered to be the research agenda for this thesis. The definitional issues in respect of training and TNA have been considered in detail, and it has been established that HR professionals still do not differentiate appropriately between training, education, and development, despite the fact that there are clear distinctions to be made. In section 2.2.2, it has been shown that the processes of training, and development, are neither sequential nor hierarchical; rather they are interlinked, interdependent, and they reinforce each other to improve skills, knowledge, and to change attitudes in order to achieve some organisational objectives.

This chapter shows that training is very important for any organisation's goal achievement and that it is responsible for building skilled, qualified, and capable people, which helps organisations to improve their performance and adapt to any new change. From a human capital theory perspective, training is considered as investment rather than consumption. Research demonstrates that training is an important factor that can facilitate a firm's expansion, develop its potentials, and enhance its profitability (Cosh *et al.*, 1998). Saeed (2010) has stressed that most training theorists and practitioners agree that the training process has at least four steps or phases, beginning with an identification of training needs. This phase is followed by the design and development of an appropriate training programme to serve the organisation's needs, the implementation of the training according to the plan, and finally the evaluation of the training programme to determine whether the original needs have been achieved. Execution of these steps is believed to ensure training effectiveness (Blanchard and Thacker, 2012; Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Noe, 2008; Reid and Barrington, 1997). It has been recognised that among the steps within the training process, the first important one is to determine the need for any programme within an organisation (Boydell, 1976; McGehee and Thayer, 1961).

The chapter has also discussed the key components of the TNA concept, such as need, needs analysis, needs assessment, training needs analysis, and training needs analysis. It is shown that the literature interprets the acronym TNA as both representing training needs assessment, and training needs analysis, in order to emphasise the aspect of identification/assessment as well as analysis (Dingle, 1995).

Additionally, the chapter reveals that the purposes of TNA are to ensure that the particular 'need' or problem highlighted can be alleviated by providing training, and that that training is conceived of as a strategic entity that guarantees the achievement of the overall business/organisational objectives. Furthermore, TNA determines the 'where', 'what' and 'who' decisions of training, and provides a benchmark for evaluating training and maximising the possibility of training transfer. It is shown that TNA is crucial when changes are made to systems, such as when new technology or new government standards are introduced. Likewise, when there is a decline in the quality of work or performance in any particular department or in the organisation as a whole, TNA is required since such a decline is usually the result of a lack of skills and/or knowledge, and/or motivation.

In general, TNA models can be grouped into two major categories: the organisation-task-person (O-T-P) framework, and the Performance Analysis Model. This study considers the McGehee and Thayer O-T-P model because it is considered to be the core framework for needs assessment in the academic literature, and most of the models produced since that model was initially developed have been based upon it, despite the fact that the model was first published as long ago as 1961 (Holton *et al*., 2000).

The McGhee and Thayer model introduced the tripartite levels of the TNA framework and this structure has been a great influence on subsequent TNA models. In the original O-T-P model, there was an integration of both macro and micro aspects of the organisation, characterised by an investigation of training needs to meet organisational needs, task or job needs, and the very specific and personal needs of individual employees. As a result, this model is believed to cover all the angles, and is consequently treated as the most influential TNA model in the literature. Other models have their own influences.

This chapter has also discussed the various sources of data required for TNA, and the ways in which such data can be collected. It has shown that each and every level of data collection has its own, important sources. At the organisational level the most important sources are the published Organisational Goals and Objectives, the Manpower/Labour Inventory, Skills Inventory, Organisational Climate Indices,

Analysis of Efficiency Indices, Changes in Systems or Sub-systems, and Management Requests or Management Interrogation. At the operational level the most important sources are: Job Descriptions, Job Specifications, Performance Standards, Review Literature Concerning Jobs, and at the individual level the most important sources are Performance Data or Appraisals, Tests, Attitude Surveys, and Assessment Centres. It is the nature of the organisation itself which determines which sources are best.

Additionally, the chapter has reviewed and discussed several studies conducted by researchers in various contexts on TNA. In general, most studies are shown to have produced similar conclusions regarding the TNA practices of the research samples involved, and it has emerged that their approaches have been quite different from the espoused TNA theories. However, whilst the findings from these studies are probably adequate to allow a general idea of organisational TNA practices to be gained, they are nonetheless, probably insufficient to understand all the relevant details regarding certain aspects of these practices, such as the people involved, methods used, sources referred to, factors considered, and methods used at all three levels of analysis, etc. In order to obtain a better picture regarding organisational TNA practices, therefore, a need exists to conduct a study with greater and more in-depth scope, and the next chapter elaborates on this.

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Chapter Three

Conceptual Framework for the Study

3.1   Introduction

A conceptual framework lays out the key constructs related to the phenomenon being studied and the presumed relationships among them. Voss *et al.* (2002) have argued that a conceptual framework graphically underlies the research and provides a prior view of the general categories that researchers intend to study. It enables a researcher to link his/her study into the existing body of knowledge in the subject area under investigation, functioning as a sensitising device that helps the researcher to theorise or make logical sense of the particular problem being explored. Consequently, the framework for this study is formed to act as a guide to the exploration and presentation of the constructs related to the phenomenon of TNA practice.

In the literature review chapter, the author discusses the main TNA theories and models, which are utilised as a foundation for this research. The important issues that emerged from Chapter 2 are considered to be the research agenda for this thesis. These issues are as follows:

–   To date, the paucity of literature on the topic suggests we know very little about how such issues may either arise or impact upon the processes involved in TNA (Clarke, 2003). This is problematic since TNA is both systematic and process-oriented and requires a great degree of planning, co-ordination, and analysis. (McClelland, 1993). It has been shown (in section 2.8.1) that there is an absence of research and theoretical models that consider the involvement of all the various stakeholders in the TNA process. Additionally, the literature reveals that many of the studies conducted so far focus on whether or not formal TNA procedures were adopted and they do not explore the nature of the decision-making process in terms of who decided what training was needed and which employees were selected for training.

–   Despite the importance of TNA to the entire training process, there has been little theoretical development and a limited amount of empirical work on the way in which the actual analysis is undertaken (Goldstein, 1991; Moore and Dutton, 1978; Ostroff and Ford, 1989; Taylor *et al.,* 1998). And as O'Driscoll and Taylor (1992) have recognised, there have been few direct empirical investigations despite the high volume of discussion on the theory-practice gap

in TNA. Consequently, TNA models have by and large, remained relatively unchanged over the past 40 years or so, in both theoretical and practical terms (Goldstein, 1993).

– The OTP three-level conception of needs analysis (McGehee and Thayer 1961) is considered the core framework for needs analysis in the academic literature (Holton *et al.,* 2000) and most of the models developed since have been based on this three-level framework (van Eerde *et al.,* 2008; Jamil and Som, 2007; Clarke, 2003; O'Driscoll and Taylor, 1998). Therefore, in order to design training programmes which satisfy both organisational and individual needs, training programmes must be based on organizational, operational, and individual analyses, and prior to their design, the appropriate techniques must be used to collect data from all three levels to ensure the suitability of those programmes (Boydell, 1979; Stanley, 1987, in Agnaia, 1996). Moreover, Holton *et al.* (2000) and Brown (2002) have stressed that a thorough needs analysis examines training needs on three levels: Organisational, Task, and Individual. Therefore, within the O-T-P model in particular, this has resulted in training needs and decisions being determined as a result of integrating macro and micro analyses, arising from an investigation of training needs to meet organisational needs, task or job needs, and the particular needs of the individual or person.

– Many authors have stressed the importance of TNA in planning and designing training programmes. When properly designed and administered, a TNA will provide a detailed picture of an organisation's skill, knowledge, and talent base while simultaneously focusing attention on areas where training programmes are most needed or, depending on the nature of the business, required. Therefore, it is important to ensure the utilisation of TNA as it is not only a first step in the wider training programme but it also helps the other areas such as KSA's; training decisions; training plan; goal setting, and strategic training.

To address these major issues, Chapter Three attempts to build a conceptual framework that support the effectiveness of TNA. Therefore, this chapter highlights the development of the proposed conceptual framework underpinning this study, and discusses the key constructs which are revealed within the extant literature which are considered to influence the effectiveness of TNA.

3.2 The Importance and Benefits of Training Needs Analysis

Many authors have stressed the importance of TNA in planning and designing training programmes (see for example, Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Palmer, 2005; Reid and Barrington, 1997). TNA has become a popular and valuable tool in the HRD profession. When properly designed and administered, a TNA will provide a detailed picture of an organisation's skill, knowledge, and talent base, while simultaneously directing attention to areas where training programmes are most needed or, depending on the nature of the business, required. This, in turn, permits the organisation to allocate funds for T&D in areas where they will have the greatest impact, thereby providing a positive return on the firm's investment. TNA should be seen as systematic and process-oriented, and as requiring a great degree of planning, co-ordination, and analysis. (McClelland, 1993)

Brown (2002) has suggested that conducting needs assessment is fundamental to the success of all training programmes. It is, therefore, stressed by Moore and Dutton (1978), and Anderson (1994), that TNA is integral to any well-designed training programme, and in fact most academics and practitioners agree with this view. In addition, Sleezer *et al.* (2008) stress that the importance of needs assessment stems from its role as the investigative and decision-making process that takes place when an entity (e.g., country, organisation, group, or individual) becomes increasingly concerned about a product, service, or situation.

Boydell and Leary (1996) suggested that TNA, if done properly, provides the basis on which all other training activities can be considered. Although requiring careful thought and analysis, it is a process that needs to be carried out with sensitivity. Inadequately-focused training does not serve the purposes of the trainers, learners, or the organisation. In this respect, McArdle (1998) observed that TNA process when properly done, it is an investment for the organisation, because it will save time, money, and effort by conducting effective TNA. Failure to conduct a training needs assessment or conducting one ineffectively can lead to costly mistakes. For example, a company may rely on training to solve a problem when another strategy may have been more effective, or it may use training to solve a problem without addressing the skills needed to perform a task (Cekada, 2010).

3.3   Training Needs Analysis Failure

Training is often viewed as a nuisance and as a costly endeavour rather than as a tool to boost the organisation's bottom line. These negative perceptions are frequently the result of the failure to illustrate the costs and benefits of training. This requires asking and answering a key question, that being: What is the difference between the cost of no training versus the cost of training? (Michalak and Yager, 2001). Illustrating the cost savings provides a clear indicator (and needed support) to continue with training (Cekada, 2010).

Often, organisations develop and implement training without undertaking a needs analysis, and those which do so, are at risk of overdoing the training, doing too little of it, or totally missing the point and providing the wrong training. Indeed, in order to utilise money and resources most effectively, it is necessary first to determine the exact location, scope, and magnitude of the training need, because there is no justification for expenditure on programmes that do not increase the effectiveness and the efficiency of the workforce. Nonetheless, despite this basic common sense, TNA is seldom carefully developed and many programmes are based on personal wants rather than identified needs. There are various reasons why needs assessment is not conducted as it is described as being a difficult process, time consuming, and costly in terms of the resources it requires to carry out the tasks associated with it (Heraty and Morley, 2000; Elbadri, 2001; Budhwar *et al.,* 2002; Hansen, 2003; Hill and Stewart, 2000; Hill, 2004). On the other hand, Desimone *et al.* (2002) point to several incorrect assumptions being made about needs analysis, i.e. that it is unnecessary because the available information already specifies what an organisation's needs are. Some of these incorrect assumptions result in a distinct lack of support from senior management. In fact, several researchers have demonstrated this lack of support for needs assessment, blaming the situation on the inability of HRD professionals to convince top management of its necessity (Reid and Barrington, 1994; Wilson, 1999; McGoldrick *et al.,* 2002). In fact Smith (1999) notes that most companies do not actually employ qualified HRD professionals or trainers to manage their HRD functions, despite the fact that performing the complex task of analysing needs can be difficult, and hence, it is easy not to go ahead with such initiatives in the absence of human expertise to drive them.

3.4   Development of the Conceptual Framework

Figure 3.1 shows the proposed conceptual framework for the study. The framework tries to link the main constructs discussed in the study that impact upon the effectiveness of TNA. In essence, TNA effectiveness depends on the role played by all the various stakeholders in the process, and the application of an appropriate TNA model. Stakeholders have a crucial role to play since they can help to identify the different barriers to TNA that can obstruct its potential to operate effectively. The application of an appropriate TNA model helps to ensure the best use of TNA in different areas such as KSAs, training decisions, training plan, goal setting and strategic training. The following sections discuss the sets of key constructs, which have emerged from the literature as demonstrated and discussed in Chapter Two.

Figure 3.1: Proposed Framework for the Study
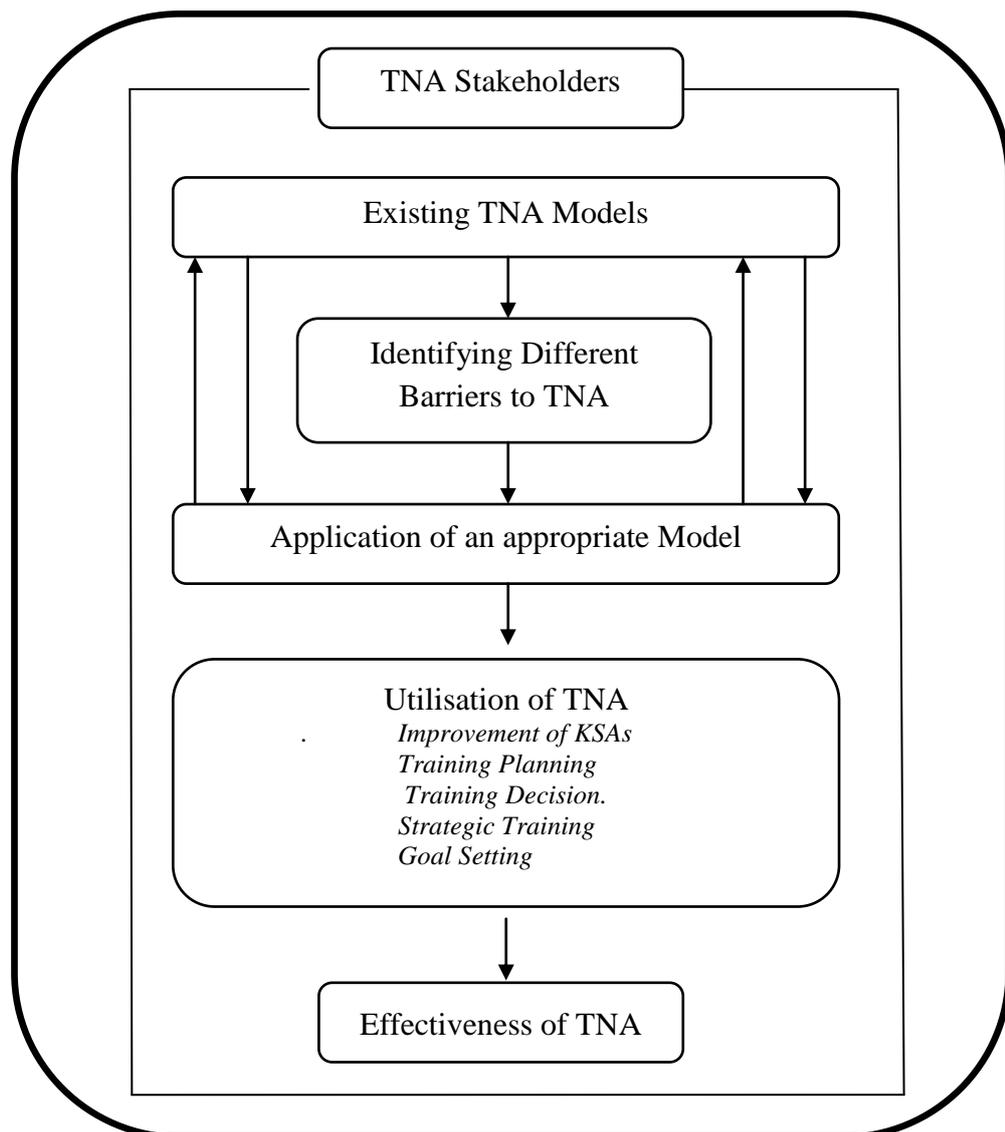
3.4.1   Training Needs Analysis Stakeholders

A stakeholder is *"a person or group with an interest in seeing an endeavour succeed and without whose support the endeavour would fail"* (Singal, 2009, p 105). Stakeholder theory helps to identify, and models, the groups which are stakeholders of a corporation, and it describes and recommends methods by which management can give due regard to the interests of those groups (Freeman, 1984). The essence of stakeholder theory is that all organisations, whether profit or non-profit, public or private, serve and depend on multiple constituencies (e.g., customers, employees, and investors).

Training is an important HR function to which stakeholder theory can be successfully applied, since if training did not have the support of its key constituency groups or stakeholders, it would cease to exist. Training must also strike a balance between and among the needs and the interests of all its stakeholder groups. According to Nickols (2005), using a stakeholder-based approach requires trainers to incorporate stakeholder requirements into the design, development, and delivery of training, and increasing stakeholder interest in the outcomes and in the evaluation of those outcomes in ways that offer meaning, value, and relevance to all of the stakeholders. However, not all stakeholders contribute at each step of the training process and not everyone has expectations at each step. Similarly, the contributions and expectations of some stakeholders have a higher priority than those of others. Sometimes, the expectations of different stakeholders may be conflicting and a compromise or prioritisation is required to ensure that the expectations of all stakeholders are aligned (Heugens and Oosterhout, 2002). This alignment is essential to ensure training effectiveness because, otherwise, it will not be possible to meet all expectations at the same time.

TNA is a social process in the sense that it involves a wide range of people and a number of inter-personal relationships, both within and outside the organisation. In carrying out a successful TNA, people's roles, responsibilities, contributions, enthusiasm, commitments and dedications are vital. Everyone is dependent on one another for the success which is at stake, and, therefore, all are 'stakeholders' in this developmental exercise. The implications of TNA are different for different

stakeholders due to their common as well as conflicting interests and varying agendas and rationale for T&D in an organisation (Mishra, 2011).

As indicated in Chapter One, the aim of this study is to investigate the nature of TNA, and the obstacles to its effectiveness, within the precise context of the Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). Researchers, such as Singal (2009), show that one of the causes of ineffective TNA is the lack of clarity in respect of the responsibilities of the various stakeholders. Logically, therefore, if all stakeholders are identified and informed about their responsibilities at the time when the TNA is conducted, a much higher level of participation and interest can be obtained. Petridou and Spathis (2001) state that the involvement of both the training department experts, and the trainees, in the needs assessment, helps to build commitment to the training effort.

Boydell and Leary (1996) assert that trainees should be involved in the TNA process whenever possible; surprisingly however, they are often omitted from this procedure, when in fact there are several good reasons why they should be involved. Firstly, they know exactly what is going on in their own sphere of work, and secondly, they are likely to give a much higher level of commitment to any training initiatives or changes if they have been able to participate in discussions leading up to these. Line managers also need to take part in the TNA process because they are a source of information on training needs, and play a key role in both encouraging individuals and in creating the right conditions and resources for them to receive feedback and engage in subsequent learning activities. Senior managers or strategic decision-makers provide the overall direction, mission, vision, and strategy within which the TNA is conducted. Additionally, for TNA to be effective, it should have positive co-operation from the top decision-makers, otherwise it will lack authority, and it might be seriously flawed through the provision of inadequate or inaccurate data on training needs.

From the perspective of stakeholder theory, the key stakeholders in the TNA process, who are involved in identifying training needs and making decisions about designing the process are: trainees, trainers, supervisors, line managers, personnel managers, HR managers, and strategic decision-makers (senior managers, directors). Singal (2009) provides a list of a generic example of various stakeholders and their

contributions and as well as expectations in the TNA process. Table 3.1 shows the details in this respect.

Table 3.1 shows that a number of people are likely to be involved in identifying the training needs of an organisation and of an individual, and the stakeholders will have their specific contributions and expectations. It is important to recognise those stakeholders and drive accountability to ensure effective management.

Table 3.1: Stakeholders' Contributions and Expectations in the TNA Process

Contribution	Expectation
Top Management - Clearly define the mission and vision of the company. - Clearly define the business direction. - Provide enough resources and support required for conducting the training programmes resulting from TNA.	- Proposed training programmes are aligned with the company mission, vision, and objectives. - An estimate of the resources required is made available.
Business Development Executives - A forecast of the capacity requirements.	- Delivery managers to incorporate capacity predictions in the training plans.
Human Resource Managers - Create detailed job requirements, job descriptions, and performance benchmarks to help identify person and task level training needs.	- Receive inputs from line managers on job requirements for specific types of tasks and the adoption of job definitions in the TNA process.
Line Managers - Contribute to 'person level' TNA by identifying who needs what kind of training. - Training needs = Standard performance. - Actual performance - Contribute to the 'task level' of need analysis by helping define the job requirements of their departments.	- Get the key training requirements of their team incorporated in the training agenda of the organisation. - For example, the manager of a rapidly growing team will like to ensure that adequate attention is paid to on-boarding trainings for new hires.
Individuals - Individuals contribute to the 'person level' of TNA by doing self and peer appraisals. - Provides feedback on existing training programmes	- Advance in career. - Improves skills.
Training Department - Find out the objectives and expectations of various stakeholders, prioritise and align these objectives, and prepare and share the TNA results with other stakeholders.	- Get support and recognition from all other stakeholders about the training requirements of the organisation.

Source: Singal (2009, p 110-111)

3.4.2 Training Needs Analysis Models

In the literature a plethora of TNA models exist as was discussed earlier (section 2.5). It has been shown that TNA models can be grouped into two major categories: the organisation-task-person analysis framework (referred to as the O-T-P model in this research) and the Mager and Pipe Performance Analysis Model. Furthermore, these two theoretical models of TNA have dominated the training literature for over four decades. Within the O-T-P model, decisions are determined after conducting a comprehensive analysis from the macro to the micro elements of an organisation – i.e. an analysis of training needs to meet organisational requirements, task or job requirements, and the quite specific requirements of individual members of the workforce. In contrast, the Performance Analysis Model focuses on identifying the areas of discrepancy between desired and actual performance and subsequently analysing the causes of such discrepancies. Also, compared to the Performance Analysis approach, the O-T-P model tends to be more strategic in outlook, considering organisational mission, and needs for the future, which are also involved in the TNA. Different models have different implications for the identification of needs. It is the responsibility of the respective organisations to discover which are the best models for their particular situations.

This study considers the O-T-P model of McGehee and Thayer because it is considered to be the core framework for needs assessment in the academic literature and most of the models developed since, have been based on it despite the fact that it was published in 1961. From the existing literature, this study conceptualises that many Arab organisations, including the ADP face several barriers, both technological and cultural, in identifying their training needs. This is because of the absence of an appropriate TNA model.

The most frequently cited approach to needs analysis is that of McGehee and Thayer who modelled the process on a three-level view of the organisation, involving: organisation analysis, operations analysis, and individual analysis. Wang and Zhang (2005) note that her Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary recommended the McGehee and Thayer model to the British local police forces (HMIC, 1999, p70). And Chen and Hung (2012) indicate the effectiveness of the O-T-P as a methodology adopted by the Taiwan Coast Guard (TCG) for TNA.

3.4.3   Barriers to Training Needs Analysis

All the models have their own limitations in identifying training needs. Indeed, many needs analysis techniques fail to produce reliable information. Fairbairns (1991) identifies two questions common to many needs analysis models, these being: 1) what skills, knowledge and/or personal attributes are important in your job, and 2) in what skills, knowledge and/or personal attributes are you in 'need' of training. After reviewing the existing literature, the common barriers to TNA are found to be:

- *No systematic practices of TNA*

There are no specific or systematic practices or procedures for determining training and educational needs due to the lack of reliable information, turbulent political, economic, and fast changing social environments. Other Arab researchers argue that the lack of job descriptions, clear performance appraisal, and the approach used for assessing the development needs of employees, are impressionistic and generalised rather than systematic (Al Tarawneh, 2005).

- *Absence of job description*

Arab organisations rely on different sources to obtain the information required to determine training needs. These are mainly supervisors, and trainees themselves (self-assessment), rather than the actual task or job requirements, descriptions, and manpower planning. (Al Tarawneh, 2005)

- *Communication gap between trainees and the top management*

The ways in which employees are selected to be trained do not generally involve any communication with the employees themselves. Thus, TNA is subject to the views, assessment, and experiences of managers and supervisors. Consequently, in the absence of employees' perspectives, the objectives, design, approach, and content of training programmes may be the opposite of what is actually required, and hence fail to meet employees' needs (Agnaia, 1996).

- *Depending only on performance records*

Assessing training needs by performance records kept by immediate managers may not reflect the actual situation because assessments made in the workplace are subject to personal relationships stemming from family and tribal associations, and

these promote nepotism between the supervisors and employees (Al Tarawneh, 2005).

- *Bureaucratic policies and patronage in selecting trainees*

Only a few employees are selected for training on the basis of greatest need; bureaucratic policies and patronage play more important roles in this regard (Agnaia, 1996).

- *Lack of expertise*

Managers who are in charge of assessing training needs are usually not specialists and they lack the necessary skills and knowledge to perform their tasks. Abdullah (2009) has stated that the absence of needs assessment and analysis is due to lack of expertise.

- *Rank desired training courses for TNA*

Traditional assessment methods ask employees to list or rank desired training courses. Such assessments have been used to quickly assess the training needs of large organisations and allow many employees to be included in the assessment. However, while employee morale may increase temporarily, improvement in on-the-job performance has been limited. One likely reason is that this approach is not performance-based and employees often identify training wants rather than training needs (Cekada, 2010).

- *Lack of support for needs assessments*

There is a lack of support for needs assessments as HRD professionals are unable to convince top management of their necessity. Smith (1999) actually notes that most companies do not actually employ qualified HRD professionals or trainers to manage their HRD functions, despite the fact that performing the complex task of analysing needs can be difficult.

- *Organisational culture and change issues*

Organisational culture and change issues have an important role in the development of a needs analysis process. Sometimes stakeholders resist these changes in the

organisation. As needs assessment is a cultural change process, top management sometimes face different cultural problems (Reed and Vakola, 2006).

- *Political influences within organisations*

TNA may well be subject to a range of political influences within organisations that impact on both the validity of data, and the training decisions reached. In order to conduct a successful TNA, therefore, it is necessary to use multiple data collection methods and to assess multiple organisational levels (Clarke, 2003).

- *Management's interest*

The other real issue is management's interest in TNA, as the way in senior and line managers perceives the training function and the process used to assess training needs is important. Dolliver (1993) points out that though TNA is an essential first step, it is often overlooked because some managers consider it a difficult task, and think of it as costing valuable time that should be spent on problem-solving without training or by means of management tactics.

These are some of the important barriers, which obstruct the process of TNA. In addition, inappropriate training decisions are made that sometimes hamper the effectiveness of TNA, and as a result the evaluation process at the later stage in training is also impaired. To overcome these barriers, a new model is conceptualised and applied within the ADP.

3.4.4 Utilisation of Training Needs Analysis

Debate continues about the importance of TNA to training programmes. The importance assigned to TNA is based on the fact that training programmes can fail due to a lack of attention paid to the assessment/analysis phase. Training can be expensive; therefore, it is critical that it is tailored to meet the specialized needs of the organization and of the individual trainees (Brown, 2002). In addition to justifying the costs of training and providing important data for the organization, taking part in a needs assessment can actually improve employees' satisfaction with the training (McCullough, 2011; Devi & Mallika Rao, 2012). Modern organizations should prioritise TNA, because without such systematic assessment, companies cannot make meaningful strategic decisions in order to achieve organizational

effectiveness (Alkinani, 2013). The importance of TNA outcomes to organizations is explained in detail below.

- *Improvement of knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs)*

It is not hard to see that any improvements in knowledge, skills, and abilities, would be beneficial for firms, as well as for the development of their employees' careers. The role of TNA is imperative because decisions relating to knowledge, skills, and abilities can be made during the process it identifies the gap between what is happening in the organisation and what must happen in terms of employees' behaviours (Hassan & Stephenson, 2005). Research by Khorshidi et al. (2012) even suggests that TNA might be used to test the knowledge and skill levels of employees. Training and development needs exist when an employee feels knowledge, skills, and abilities-related deficiencies while performing an assigned task satisfactorily.

In summary, needs assessment could exist when an employee experiences knowledge, skills, and abilities related deficiencies while performing an assigned task satisfactorily, thus becoming a tool to inform the areas in which training is lacking (Iqbal, 2010; Brown, 2002; Grau-Gumbau et al., 2002; Bowman & Wilson, 2008; Cekada, 2010). Therefore, we can say that, TNA identifies training needs that should be satisfied in order to improve trainees' levels of knowledge, skills, and abilities. At the same time, any remaining deficiencies in their knowledge, skills, and abilities should be used as an input for the future TNAs as a rolling programme essentially, of staff development.

- *Training decision*

TNA provides a wealth of information to assist in the decision-making process regarding training. For example, decisions about whether or not to provide training for employees, and what type of training should be provided, have typically been based in the determination of training needs within an organisation.

According to Goldstein (1993), a TNA is conducted to determine where training is needed, what needs to be taught and who needs to be trained. Information regarding these three questions is important in designing an effective training programme.

Therefore, the role of TNA is to ensure that only the right training is provided to the right employees since training that is perceived to be relevant is more likely to create interest (Blanchard and Thacker, 2004). However, most organisations rely heavily on top management judgment in making training decisions and not on training needs analysis.

▪ *Training plan*

The main use of TNA is expressed in the form of a training plan accompanied by objectives, and assigned time targets (Iqbal and Khan 2011). The training plan is agreed in the sense of being understood and accepted by all the key individuals who are responsible for putting it into effect. An organisation should review its training plan at least once a year, and should do this using a detailed set of procedures, since this review activity is essentially continuous TNA. The process of assessing training needs starts with identifying a problem area in learning for the organisation and then assigning short-term priorities to the problem concerned (Cekada, 2010). Thus, we can say that TNA identifies the training needs that are required for preparing training plans.

▪ *Goal setting*

Goal setting processes and TNA are not independent from each other, and their inter-dependency makes the training and organizational environments richer (Leat & Lovell, 1997). This is due to the fact that TNA, as a systematic process, involves identifying and prioritising training-related issues and their development, as well as organizational goals (Iqbal, 2010; Leat & Lovell, 1997; Morley, 2000; Brown, 2002; Patton & Pratt, 2002). If TNA is properly carried out, then effective human resource development interventions will contribute towards the attainment of organizational goals; it is like a road map for reaching those goals (Iqbal, 2010).

Iqbal, (2010) emphasises that the follow-up process is imperative to the achievement of the objectives of the training and development programme. TNA should be based on the goals of management and the mission of the organization if the conduct of a successful training programme is sought. McClelland (1994a) points out that one way to help achieve the goals of TNA is to undertake preliminary research into possible training categories or issues. From this it is possible to construct specific

training objectives, and course objectives. Thus, we can say that TNA identifies training and non-training needs that should be used for setting training goals and organisational goals respectively. However, these goals should also provide the basis for the future TNA.

- *Strategic Training*

Overall definitions of TNA offered by many authors indicate clearly that TNA is done so that training developed by organizations will enable them to achieve their strategic objectives (Jamil and Som, 2007). Therefore, we can say that the purpose of TNA is to ensure that objectives of training are aligned with the ultimate objectives of the sponsoring organizations. The strategic nature of TNA is seen in its tripartite approach to the process of analysing needs. This enables the analysis to examine the organisational context, which is essential if training is to be able to contribute to the achievement of organisational objectives. In the first level of analysis, analysts must examine all components of the organisation. The three steps involved in this level include the specification of goals, determination of the training climate, and identification of external and legal constraints that would affect training efforts (Goldstein and Ford, 2002). Training conducted without the TNA having been completed beforehand is likely to lack any strategic value. Thus, we can say that TNA identifies training needs that should be used for training that allows the strategic objectives of the organisation to be achieved.

3.5   Conclusions

This research recognised a gap in the literature review dealing with the lack of theoretical models for TNA. Therefore, in this chapter, the theoretical framework underpinning the study has been proposed and discussed in detail. The framework itself is derived from the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, which has recognised the shortage of theoretical models available with which to analyse TNA practice, and hence make meaningful comments upon how to ensure its effective implementation. This proposed model can be used as a tool for further investigation in TNA implementation in different organisations.

The problem domain has been addressed through the presentation of a conceptual model. The discussion has demonstrated that the various stakeholders in the TNA process all play key roles in ensuring that its practices are effective. Indeed, without their input, the process is unlikely to succeed, since as has been shown, the information held by stakeholders is vital to the entire mission of needs analysis; and needs analysis must be completed properly. An appropriate model can help organisations in this matter, since it can help to identify the precise training needs, and where those needs lie. It is indicated in the chapter that without such an accurate identification, the wrong training decisions are likely to follow, and this scenario hampers the effectiveness and performance of the training initiatives launched, and in turn, hinders organisational productivity. Among the different existing TNA models, this study considers the one devised by McGehee and Thayer as the core framework of TNA. It has been shown that there are different variables in this framework, and each of these has been discussed, and will be investigated in practice.

After presenting and discussing the conceptual framework of this research, the thesis proceeds to discuss the research methodology adopted for the empirical fieldwork, detailing and justifying the research approach, as well as the data collection and data analysis methods.

Chapter Four

Abu Dhabi Police: A Brief Overview

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to furnish the reader with some general background information on the Abu Dhabi, providing basic facts about the UAE, as well as its national economy and political and social stability. It discusses the brief history of the capital city of UAE and the context of the study Abu Dhabi Police and providing a justification of chosen ADP as the Context of the Study.

4.2 Geographical Location of the UAE

United Arab Emirates (UAE) is a sovereign, federal, presidential and elected monarchy comprising seven absolute monarchical emirates: Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Fujairah, Umm Al Quwain and Ras Al Khaimah. Abu Dhabi is the capital of the Union (UAE Government Portal, 2012). See Figure 4.1 for the UAE Map.

Figure 4.1: Map of the UAE

Source: Zayed University (2012)

The UAE is located in the heart of the Arabian Gulf. To the north and northwest are the waters of the Gulf itself, while there are also land borders with Qatar, as well as with Saudi Arabia to the west and south, and the Sultanate of Oman to the south and south-east. There is also a short stretch of coast to the east on the Gulf of Oman. The southern coast of the Arabian Gulf extends from the Qatar Peninsula to the Gulf of Oman in the east (UAE Government Portal, 2012). Since its formation in 1971, the UAE has undergone a profound transformation from an impoverished region of desert principalities to a modern state with a high standard of living and per capita income GDP of Dh 195,000 (US$ 53,133.5) in end of 2008 (UAE Year Book, 2010).

4.3   Basic facts about the UAE

The Federation was formally established on 2 December 1971. This day is celebrated as National Day throughout the UAE. Since its establishment, the UAE adopted the Constitution, which declares the main purpose of establishment of the federation, its objectives and components on the local and regional levels. It enumerates public rights, responsibilities and freedoms. The Constitution of the UAE also deals with financial affairs of the federation, armed and security forces provisions, and legislative, executive and international jurisdictions between the federation and member emirates.   The UAE's Constitution allows certain flexibility in the distribution of authority between the Federal and Local Governments. This allows the seven emirates to incorporate in their own local government, matters not included in the Constitution (UAE Government Portal, 2012). The federal system of government includes:

- The President,
- The Prime Minister
- The Supreme Council
- Crown Princes and Deputy Rulers
- The Federal National Council
- The Council of Ministers or The Cabinet

The UAE enjoys a high degree of political stability and is the only state in the Arab world to have a working federal system that has stood the test of time. Specific areas of authority are constitutionally assigned to the UAE Federal Government and other

powers reserved for member emirates. The Federal Supreme Council, the highest constitutional authority in the UAE, has both legislative and executive powers. It is made up of the rulers of the seven emirates, chaired by the President of the country His Highness Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Ruler of Abu Dhabi. The Supreme Council unanimously elected him as the President of the UAE, after his father, the late H. H. Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan on 3 November 2004 (UAE Government Portal, 2012, UAE Year Book, 2010).

The population was 8.2 million at the end of 2010, of whom nationals represented only 947,997 nearly 11.5 per cent of the total, and non-nationals 7.316 million accounting for around 88.5 per cent of the country's total population. The most populous emirate is Abu Dhabi, with 2.9 million at the end of 2011, followed by Dubai, which had around two million people. The official language is Arabic and the official religion is Islam (UAE Government Portal, 2012, UAE interact, 2012).

The country is a civil law jurisdiction. However, (Sharia) which is the body of Islamic religious law. It is the legal framework within which the public and private aspects of life are regulated for those living in a legal system based on Islamic principles of jurisprudence and for Muslims living outside the domain. Sharia deals with many aspects of all day-to-day life, including but not limited to politics, economics, banking, business, contracts, family, hygiene, and social issues. Islamic management, unlike the conventional management, look at the management of organisations from the perspective of knowledge from the revealed source and other Islamic source of knowledge. The application is compatible with Islamic beliefs and practices. There is no demarcation between the secular and the religious; human life is an organic whole. All human activities can be worship provided they are guided by God's commandments (UAE interact, 2012).

Ali (2005) stated that in Islamic management, the organisational objectives are both economic and non-economic and are subservient to the larger purpose of human existence; whereas in conventional management, organisational objectives are also both economic and non economic in nature, but are subservient to organisational interests.

An important figure in the history of the UAE was late Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan. Born around 1918 in Abu Dhabi, he was the youngest of the four sons of Sheikh Sultan, Ruler of Abu Dhabi from 1966 to 2004. As a young man, late Sheikh Zayed travelled widely throughout the country, gaining a deep understanding of the land and of its people. In the early 1930s, when oil company teams arrived to undertake preliminary geological surveys, he obtained his first exposure to the industry. In 1946, Sheikh Zayed was chosen as Ruler's Representative in Abu Dhabi's Eastern Region, centred on Al Ain, 160 kilometres east of the island of Abu Dhabi. He brought to his new task a firm belief in the values of consultation and consensus and his judgements "were distinguished by their acute insights, wisdom and fairness". The first cargo of crude oil was exported from Abu Dhabi in 1962 (UAE Government Portal, 2012; UAE Year Book, 2010).

In 1966, Sheikh Zayed succeeded his elder brother as Ruler of Abu Dhabi. He promptly increased contributions to the Trucial States Development Fund and with revenues growing as oil production increased, Sheikh Zayed undertook a massive construction programme, building schools, housing, hospitals and roads. He was thus able to use oil revenues to improve the quality of life of his people (UAE Government Portal, 2012; UAE Year Book, 2010).

4.4   The National Economy

In 1971, the year of the UAE's formation, the country's GDP, a measure of the total market value of all final goods and services produced, was AED 6.5 billion. Forty years later it stood at around AED 753 billion, over a hundred times greater. By any set of criteria such growth is very significant. But past growth rates are unlikely to continue indefinitely. Instead, the UAE economy is maturing and stabilising (UAE Year Book, 2010).

The UAE's real GDP growth rate, which had shrank by 1.6 per cent in 2009 (the first contraction since 1988), showed significant improvement in 2010 and 2011, estimated at 1.3 per cent and 4.2 per cent respectively. Estimates of real GDP growth for 2012 are in the region of 4 per cent (UAE Government Portal, 2012, UAE interact, 2012). As these figures indicate, despite the impact of the global financial crisis being felt throughout the region, the UAE's economy continues to expand and

its financial fundamentals remain sound. These are underpinned by many years of prudent economic policy that have been responsible for building up the country's significant assets, savings and investments. But, as the Governor of the Central Bank has been quick to acknowledge, there is no doubt that the economy is in `slow-down' mode with the property market re-scheduling some major projects and the banking sector reining in its lending activities, at least for a while. However, this slowing down is regarded by many as a positive phenomenon and is valued as much for the opportunities it brings as the challenges it presents (UAE Year Book, 2010).

The UAE has a vibrant free economy with a significant annual trade surplus. Successful efforts have been made to diversify away from dependence on oil and gas exports, and a solid industrial base has been created, together with a very strong services sector. The establishment of free zones has been an important feature of this diversification policy and reform of property laws has given a major boost to the real estate and tourism sectors (UAE interact, 2012).

The GDP is AED 753 billion (2011) and the non-oil sector contribution to nominal GDP is 64.1% (2011). The main industries are oil and gas, petrochemicals, aluminium, cement, ceramics, ship repair, pharmaceuticals, tourism, transport, real estate and financial services. The UAE is the world's third largest exporter of crude oil, having the sixth largest oil reserves and the fifth largest natural gas reserves in the world (UAE Government Portal, 2012; UAE Year Book, 2010).

4.5   Political and Social Stability

Since its formation in 1971, the UAE has enjoyed a political stability. The existing political structures appear to suit the tribal society of the UAE, and the distribution of huge oil revenues in the form of social and economic infrastructure, high salaries, a high standard of social services, such as health and education, has raised the standard of living for UAE citizens and considerably reduced the likelihood of internal political and social unrest. In addition, political turmoil in the Middle East and North Africa has not impacted on the UAE's economic upturn since it is considered to be one of the most politically stable and secure countries in the region and a relative safe haven for tourism and investment (UAE interact, 2012). It is

worth mentioning that the UAE Government has maintained a relatively good record on human rights since the formation of the state. This in turn has promoted political and social stability. The UAE is an active member of many regional and international associations such as the Arab League, the United Nations, the Non-Aligned Movement, the Arab Gulf Cooperation Council, and the Organization of the Islamic Conference. Relations with many countries of the world, particularly the Western democratic countries, have been traditionally warm. Political and social stability has gone hand in hand with liberal trade policies and has paved the way for investment (domestic and international) in the industrial sector. (Shihab, 2001)

4.6   Abu Dhabi

As mentioned, The UAE is comprised of seven emirates, which occupy the south-eastern corner of the Arabian Peninsula. Each emirate, unique and rich in tradition, is an essential component necessary for making up the whole. In this section, we will discuss the Emirate of Abu Dhabi in detail.

Abu Dhabi is the federal capital of the United Arab Emirates and the largest of the seven emirates. The Emirate lies on the borders with the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the Sultanate of Oman and the Arabian Gulf. Abu Dhabi city is the largest and wealthiest of the country and covers an area of 67,340 square kilometres, which is approximately 87% of the area of the whole UAE and accounts for 90% of the federation's oil and gas making in the UAE (Butt, 2001, p. 231). It also includes an island in the Arabian Gulf, which has an area of 60 square kilometres. The desert occupies 70% of the Emirate; the lowlands occupy 20% while the remaining area is made up of the islands (Abu Dhabi e-Government Portal, 2012).

The emirate of Abu Dhabi consists of three main areas: the city of Abu Dhabi, the eastern area and the western area. In the eastern area of the Emirate is a part of the capital city, which is known as Al Ain City, and the western area of the Abu Dhabi is known as Al Gharbia (Foley, 1999, p. 26).

The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi constitutes more than 60% of the total GDP of the United Arab Emirates, although the Emirate's

population represents only about 33% of the total UAE population. The Abu Dhabi GDP estimates in 2011 amounted to AED 806,031 million at current prices, compared with AED 620,316 million at current prices in 2010. This represents an annual growth rate of 29.9 per cent in 2011 and 15.9 per cent in 2010, which confirms the strength and resilience of the emirate's economy. Accordingly, the annual per capita gross domestic product amounted to AED 380.1 thousand in 2011. The total fixed capital formation was AED 199,001 million in 2011, while compensation of employees amounted to AED 124,960 million in the same year. (SCAD, 2012).

The resident population of the Abu Dhabi Emirate exceeded 2 million people in 2011. In mid-year 2011 the estimated population in Abu Dhabi Region was 1.31 million (61.8%), Al Ain Region 0.58 million (27.6%), and Al Gharbia 0.23 million (10.6%), making the total mid-year population for the Abu Dhabi Emirate 2.12 million. Of the total Abu Dhabi Emirate population, 439,100 people (more than 20%) are Emirati citizens. About 236,000 (53.7%) of the citizens live in Abu Dhabi Region, and about 178,500 (40.7%) in Al Ain Region, leaving 24,600 (5.6%) in Al Gharbia. The non-citizen population of 1,681,600 people comprise almost 80% of the total resident population. Of the non-citizens 1,074,300people (63.9%) live in Abu Dhabi Region. (SCAD, 2012).

The city of Abu Dhabi is the capital and the headquarters for the President, the Prime Minister, most of the ministries and federal organizations, foreign embassies, Zayed Port and Abu Dhabi International Airport, in addition to most oil companies, establishments, facilities and trade markets. Abu Dhabi Corniche including its parks and fountains is considered a major attraction in the city. In addition, Abu Dhabi is home to important financial institutions such as the Abu Dhabi Securities Exchange, the Central Bank of United Arab Emirates and the corporate headquarters of many companies and numerous multinational corporations. One of the world's largest producers of oil, Abu Dhabi has actively attempted to diversify its economy in recent years through investments in financial services and tourism (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012).

4.6.1 Governance and Political Structure Abu Dhabi

Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan is the hereditary ruler of Abu Dhabi (UAE). He is a son of Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, the first president of the United Arab Emirates. His half-brother, General Sheikh Muhammed bin Zayed Al Nahyan, is Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi, and wields considerable influence as Chairman of Abu Dhabi's Executive Council and Deputy Supreme Commander of the armed forces of The United Arab Emirates. The total number of members of the Executive Council has been slimmed down to 98 since the succession and it now consists largely of prominent members of the ruling family as well as a number of respected politicians(Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012). The Executive Council, under which there are a number of separate departments, equivalent to ministries. A number of autonomous agencies also exist with clearly specified powers. These include the Environmental Agency – Abu Dhabi, Abu Dhabi Tourism Authority, Abu Dhabi Authority for Culture and Heritage and Health Authority – Abu Dhabi. (UAE Year Book, 2010)

The emirates maintain their hereditary rulers who, as a group, form the UAE's Supreme Council of Rulers, headed by the president. Although the presidency is renewable every five years through a vote in the council, Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan held the presidency from the formation of the UAE until his death in November 2004, and there is an implicit understanding that Abu Dhabi's ruler will always be elected president.(Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012)

At a federal level, laws must be ratified by the Supreme Council. The Council of Ministers forms the executive authority of the state. This 20-member cabinet is headed by the president's chosen prime minister, a post currently held by Dubai's ruler, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum. The cabinet also refers to the Federal National Council (FNC), a 40-member consultative body to which each emirate appoints a certain number of members. In the case of Abu Dhabi, this is eight. The procedures for appointment to the FNC have recently been amended so that each emirate must now select its representatives through an electoral body. The size of each electoral authority must be 100 times greater than the number of representatives it appoints. Half the members of each electoral body will be selected

by the ruler of the emirate while the other half will be directly elected by residents of the emirate. These amendments are considered to be the first step in a wider electoral reform program which will see greater representation at a federal level (UAE Year Book, 2010).

4.6.2   Government Structure and System of Administration of Abu Dhabi

Since his takeover as the Ruler of Abu Dhabi Emirate on August 6, 1966, the late Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan launched an ambitious process of modernisation in accordance with international world-class best practices. For thirty years since then, he dedicated himself to optimising oil revenues for the interests of UAE nationals. The creation of the federation of the Emirates in 1971 is mainly attributed to the late Sheikh Zayed. His achievements and deeds in all fields continued and resulted in the UAE's prosperity and growth. Moreover, he adopted collaborative and humanitarian positions towards international and regional issues. In recognition of his deep insight, he was chosen from among the world leading figures as the Personality of the Year 1988. Following his death in November 2004, he was succeeded by the Crown Prince, His Highness Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, who became the Ruler of Abu Dhabi, as well as the President of the United Arab Emirates. (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012; UAE Interact, 2012)

Keeping the company of his father since his childhood, Sheikh Khalifa was instilled with the art of leadership, politics, and wisdom in addition to the Arabic-styled morals. Upon the directives of HH Sheikh Khalifa in November 2004, General Sheikh Mohamed bin Zayed Al Nahyan became the Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi. He immediately shouldered a wide range of political, economical and legislative responsibilities in the emirate (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012; UAE Interact, 2012).

In December 2004, he became the Chairman of the Executive Council of Abu Dhabi. Later on, he became the Deputy Supreme Commander of the UAE Armed Forces. Abu Dhabi Emirate is divided into three administrative regions: Abu Dhabi City, the Eastern Region with Al Ain as its largest city, and the Western Region where Madinat Zayed is the largest city (Abu Dhabi eGovernment, 2012; UAE Interact, 2012).

The role of the Executive Council is central to Abu Dhabi's governmental structure. It consists of the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC), the Executive Affairs Authority (EAA), the Executive Committee and the subcommittees. The General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) is an administrative body entrusted to propose public policies and strategies to be decided on by the Executive Council, whereas the Executive Affairs Authority (EAA) provides strategic policy advice to the Chairman of the Abu Dhabi Executive Council. The Executive Committee is tasked with deciding on the projects submitted to the Executive Council. The Subcommittees include Economic Development Sub Committee, Social Development Sub Committee and Infrastructure and Environment Sub Committee. The below government structure is based on the official structure adopted by the Abu Dhabi Accountability Authority, see figure 4.2 (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012).

Figure 4.2: Government Structure of Abu Dhabi
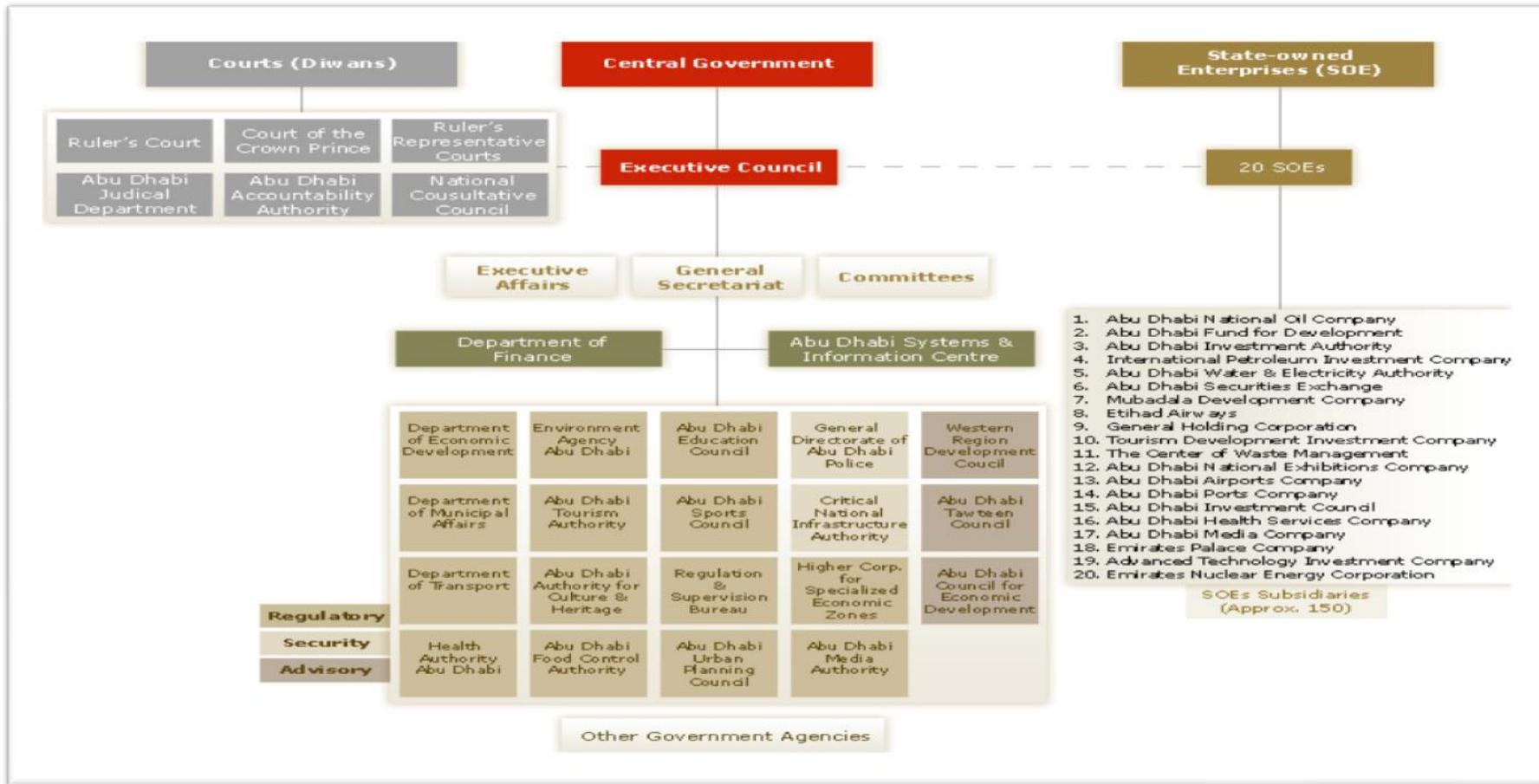
Source: Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012

4.7 Abu Dhabi Police: General Directorate

Abu Dhabi Police is the primary law enforcement agency in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. Under the command of His Highness Lieutenant General Sheikh Saif Bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior, the Abu Dhabi Police is primarily responsible for enforcing criminal law, enhancing public safety, maintaining order and keeping the peace throughout the Emirate. Therefore, the General Directorate of Abu Dhabi Police works in coordination with other entities to accomplish and maintain a safer community by maintaining stability, reducing crime, eliminating feelings of insecurity and providing justice to all the public (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012; Abu Dhabi Police, 2012). ADP's stated vision, mission, values and priorities (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012) are as follows:

Vision: The vision of the Directorate, to help ensure that Abu Dhabi remains one of the safest societies in the world and to become the police force that is more effective in the field responding to the needs of society with the highest level of integrity and training.

Mission: The Directorate purpose is to bring about a safer society to maintain stability, reduce crime and contribute to the delivery of justice in a way which secures and maintains public confidence.

Value: Abu Dhabi Police values are:

- Integrity and honesty.
- Justice.
- Recognition of achievements.
- Effective communication.
- Excellence.

Priorities: To achieve its vision and mission, ADP has developed (6) Priorities (Ps) to concentrate upon and developed (18) Strategic goals which contribute to the delivery of the Priorities. These are summarised below:

P1.   Controlling Crime

P2.   Making the roads safer

P3.   Community Confidence

P4.   Safety and Security of the Emirate

P5.   A well-managed, effective and efficient policing organisation

P6.   Making the most of our people

4.7.1 Establishment of Abu Dhabi Police

Abu Dhabi Police was formed in 1957 by the then ruler of Abu Dhabi Sheikh Shakbut bin Sultan Al Nahyan. There were 80 officers, tasked with guarding royal locations, markets, banks and shipping. By 1959 the forces had grown to 150 and the headquarters and were based to the north of Al Hosn Palace in the centre of the city. In 1971 His Highness the late Sheikh Zayed established the Ministry of Interior which took responsibility for policing not only in Abu Dhabi but across the newly formed UAE. The development and expansion of Abu Dhabi Police continued and since 1995 has been under the Command of His Highness Sheikh Saif Bin Zayed Al Nahyan the Abu Dhabi Police Commander, Minister of Interior and Deputy Prime Minister of the UAE (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012; Abu Dhabi Police, 2012).

In 1961 Sheikh Mubarak bin Mohammed Al Nahyan was charged with responsibility of the Abu Dhabi Police Force. At this time there were two kinds of personnel: the policemen and the khawi (Matarzis). The Matarzis main duty was to accompany the Sheikh and to guard palaces, government premises, customs, markets, banks, monitor traffic and the airports. They also controlled the borders and ports to Abu Dhabi Island at Al Maqta Ben Hatrooch. Policemen were responsible for the protection of guests. As the police force developed it became responsible for escorting Rulers and Sheikhs (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012; Abu Dhabi Police, 2012).

Emiri Decree No. 3 issued on the 18th September 1966 officially appointed Sheikh Mubarak bin Mohammed Al Nahyan as Chief of Police and Public Security Department. His Highness the Late Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan ordered, in 1967, that Sheikh Mubarak should be promoted from the rank of Colonel to Major General. The Criminal Investigation Branch became operational in October 1968, and the Traffic Department began in June 1968, registering ten thousand vehicles in its first year. In the mid 1970s there were three categories in the Abu Dhabi Police – policemen, new policemen (cadets) and the Guard. This was added to by a fourth category of employed policemen in the 1980s. With the development of educational levels in the UAE, the Police made education and scientific qualification a pre-

requisite for selection and admission of new recruits (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012; Abu Dhabi Police, 2012).

On November 1, 1972 His Highness the Late Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan established the Ministry of Interior, with the Abu Dhabi Police becoming the local MOI of Abu Dhabi Emirate. Under the regulation it was responsible for establishing security and stability in the Emirate and maintaining the "souls, honor and properties" of the people. It was also directly in charge of the following: Naturalization and passport matters, prison affairs, traffic affairs, guarding of oil installations, liaison with Arab and International Police Directorates, fighting smuggling and illegal entry of people, drugs and all forbidden substances and prevention of crime.

4.7.2   Organizational Structure of Abu Dhabi Police

Abu Dhabi Police employs 12,500 frontline staff. There is a total staff of 36,000 including civil defence, ambulance and fire services and border security. Under the Commander General of Abu Dhabi Police, there are five departments, which report directly. Six General Directorates with their relevant Departments comprise the rest of the ADP, with three other bodies falling under the Deputy Commander General. See Figure 4.3 for the organisation structure of ADP.

Figure 4.3: Organisation structure of ADP
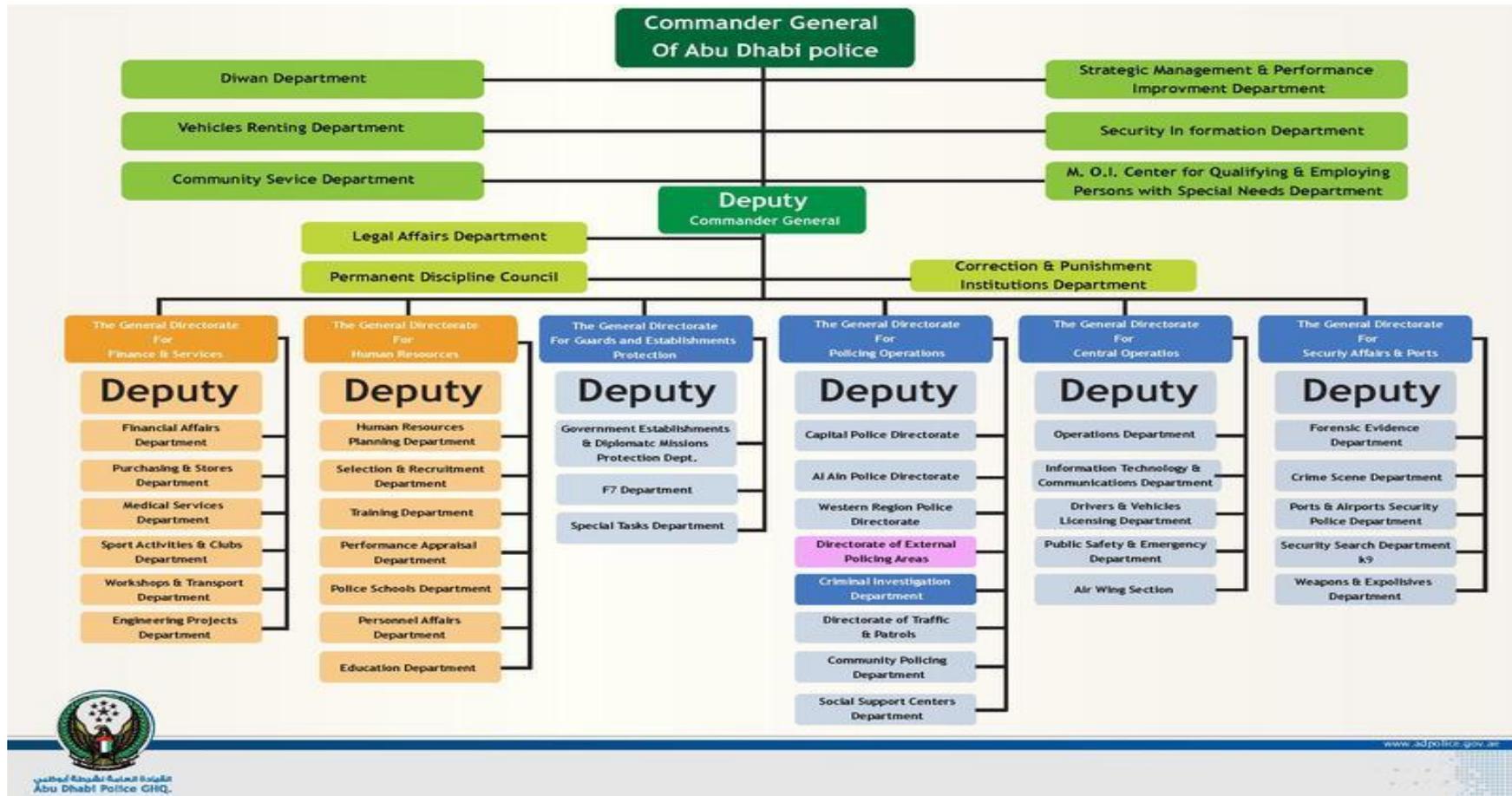
Source: Abu Dhabi Police, 2012

4.8 Conclusions

Currently, the Emirate of Abu Dhabi is experiencing a rapid growth with a major diversification and strategic liberalisation of the economy. Deliberate steps have been taken in order to drive growth in new areas of the Abu Dhabi local economy and to facilitate greater commitment worldwide. Thus, in 2009, Abu Dhabi made key strides towards the implementation of its Plan 'Abu Dhabi 2030', a roadmap that seeks to cope with an estimated tripling of the population of the capital in the next two decades as new industries, cultural attractions, hotels, schools, and hospitals are constructed. Abu Dhabi houses important offices of the federal government and it is the country's centre of political and industrial activity, as well as a major cultural and commercial centre due to its position as the capital. In addition, Abu Dhabi is home to important financial institutions such as the Abu Dhabi Securities Exchange, the Central Bank of the United Arab Emirates and the corporate headquarters of many companies and numerous multinational corporations (Abu Dhabi eGovernment Portal, 2012).

As a result, of accelerated changes in the world in general and in Abu Dhabi in particular and to achieve the vision of the emirate to be one of the most developed capitals the Abu Dhabi police prepares and updates their people with the necessary skills, knowledge and abilities (KSAs), and knowledge of the best practices, to achieve its strategic goals and priorities and organizes all its resources to realize these goals.ADP was chosen as the research context due to these rapid reforms and developments in the last few decades, in Abu Dhabi.

Chapter Five

Research Methodology

5.1   Introduction

This chapter addresses the important issues in respect of the research methodology adopted in this study. It describes, selects, and justifies the research approach and methods chosen for the work presented in the thesis. Firstly, it presents an overview of the underlying research philosophies and then provides justifications for choosing the phenomenological research paradigm. The chapter proceeds by considering the case study as a research strategy and provides a justification for opting for this technique. Thereafter, a discussion of various issues related to the two major research methods (quantitative and qualitative) follows, and a rationale for the choice of the qualitative approach is given. At this point, the framework for conducting the empirical work is presented. This addresses the overall research design and explains the methods for data collection and data analysis. Finally, the case study protocol is presented as an action plan for the collection of data from the case study organisation.

Saunders *et al.* (2012, p 5) define research as *"something that people undertake in order to find out things in a systematic way, thereby increasing their knowledge"*. Two phrases are important in this definition: 'systematic way' and 'to find out things'. 'Systematic' suggests that research is based on logical relationships and not just beliefs (Ghauri and Grønhaug, 2010), and 'to find things out' implies a quest for new knowledge and understanding.

In any such quest for to discover new knowledge, there is a need to explain the data-gathering methods and to analyse the data in a rigorous way, in order to answer the research questions or meet the objectives of the study (Saunders *et al.*,2012). This explanation is referred to as the research methodology, which essentially encompasses all aspects of the research process, from the theoretical foundation to the collection and analysis of the data (Hussey and Hussey, 1997), and to its eventual interpretation. Therefore, the issue of research methodology is important to any study, and choosing the appropriate research paradigm, type of data, and collection methods, has significant implications upon the research findings.

5.2   Research Philosophy

The first critical issue which should be taken into account when deciding the research design of any study is the underpinning philosophy. A research philosophy, or paradigm as it is often called, is a set of beliefs, philosophies, and assumptions about some aspects of the world and the nature of knowledge (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Oates, 2006). Sunders *et al.*(2012) argue that there are two main philosophies dominant in the literature, these being: positivism and phenomenology (social constructionism). These represent distinct views about the way in which knowledge is developed, and both have a significant role to play in business and management research. Each is now briefly described.

- Positivism: the key idea of positivism is that the social world exists externally, and that its properties should be measured through objective methods rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection or intuition (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008, p57). The researcher assumes the role of an objective analyst, serenely building detached interpretations of the data, which have been collected in an apparently value-free manner; this framework also assumes that the researcher is independent of and neither affected by nor influencing the research (Saunders *et al.,* 2012).

- Phenomenology (or social constructionism): the idea of phenomenology is that reality is determined by people rather than by objective and external factors. The focus should be on what people are thinking and feeling, both individually and collectively. Thus, we should try to understand and explain why individuals have diverse experiences, rather than searching for external causes and fundamental laws to explain behaviours (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008, p58).

Table 5.1 presents the contrasting implications of the two paradigms.

Table 5.1: Contrasting Implications of Positivism and Phenomenology

	Positivism	Phenomenology (or Social constructionism)
The observer	Must be independent	Is part of what is being observed
Human interests	Should be irrelevant	Are the main drivers of science
Explanations	Must demonstrate causality	Aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progress through	Hypotheses and deductions	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Unit of analysis	Should be reduced to simplest terms	May include the complexity of whole situations
Generalisation through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	Large number selected Randomly	Small number of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: Easterby-Smith *et al* (2008, p 59)

5.2.1 Justification for the Selection of the Phenomenology as Research Philosophy

There is a longstanding debate in social sciences and management about the most appropriate philosophical foundation from which methods should be derived. Each of the above discussed philosophical positions has to some extent been elevated into a stereotype, often by the opposing side. The line of argument on philosophical position is persuasive in the case of business and management research. Business situations are not only complex but they are also unique, being a function of a particular set of circumstances and individuals. These features immediately raise questions about the generalisability of research that aims to capture the rich complexity of social situations. However, phenomenologists would argue that the generalisation is not of crucial importance. They would also argue that only research methods rooted in the philosophy of phenomenology offer the opportunity to discover the virtual world behind the reality (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008; Saunders *et al*, 2012). Considering the research questions presented in Chapter One, and the proposed research framework proposed in Chapter Three, the phenomenological paradigm was chosen as the research philosophy. The rationale for the adoption of an interpretive paradigm in this study is explained as follows:

    −   The study attempts to seek and understand how the TNA process is practised in the ADP from the perspective of the participants understudy, and investigates issues that affect TNA practices, including genuine obstacles to their chance of success. As noted earlier, the interpretive paradigm does not detach the researcher from the subject being studied, and the researcher argues that this paradigm presents the most appropriate basis on which to develop a more holistic picture of the phenomenon through close investigation, observation, face-to-face contact, and listening to the participants during the course of their daily work. Furthermore, the utilisation of the interpretive paradigm enables the researcher to explore what the ADP's employees from different hierarchical positions are thinking about the phenomenon being investigated, why they act as they do, and what they want to accomplish (Vannoy and Salam, 2010). It is acknowledged that even in the same setting, participants may have different experiences, and therefore it is vital to interact closely with subjects in order to obtain their individual perspectives.

5.3   Research Strategy

According to Yin (2009), there are five different research strategies within social science: experiments, surveys, archival analysis, histories, and case studies. Which strategy to use depends on the type of research questions posed, the extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioural events, and the degree of focus on contemporary versus historical events.

Some of the above stated strategies clearly belong to the deductive-quantitative tradition and some of them obviously belong to the inductive-qualitative tradition. However, often allocating strategies to one tradition or the other is unduly simplistic. What matters, is not the attached label to a particular strategy, but the appropriateness of the strategy for the research questions and objectives. This section does not intend to offer a full illustration and comparison of these qualitative research strategies, but rather to focus on case study as the most suitable strategy for this particular research.

Yin (2009, p 18) defines the case study as "*an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident*". It is a widely used research strategy in situations where the purpose of research and the objectives are to find answers to questions of *how* or *what* (Klein and Myers, 1999). Other researchers define case study as "*a detailed investigation, often with data collected over a period of time, of one or more organisations, or groups within an organisation, with a view to providing an analysis of the context and processes involved in the phenomenon under study*" (Hartley, 2004, p 323). Therefore, case study offers the possibility of understanding the nature of a particular activity, in terms of techniques, procedures, systems, etc.

Oates (2006) argues that the purpose of the case study is not to validate any hypothesis through controlled experiment or statistical analysis; however, it is likely to enable the researcher to gain constructive thought, and useful knowledge which is related to the examined context. The case study is also regarded as a powerful and rigorous approach to expand on or clarify doubts about existing theories (McCutcheon and Meredith, 1993). According to Benbasat *et al.* (1987), research employing a case study strategy often attempts to assess the conditions surrounding the phenomenon under study in order to build a plausible explanation. Table 5.2 summarises some of the key characteristics of case study research.

Table 5.2: Characteristics of Case Study Research

Characteristic	Description
Focus on depth rather than breadth	The researcher obtains as much detail as possible about the phenomenon under investigation
Natural setting	The case is examined in its natural setting
Holistic	The researcher focuses on the complexity of relationships and process and how they are inter-connected and inter-related, rather than trying to isolate individual factors
Multiple sources and data collection methods	The researcher uses a wide range of data sources and seeks multiple perceptions using various data collection methods such as interviews, observation and document analysis.

Source: Oates (2006)

5.3.1 Justification of the Using Case Study as Strategy

After defining and discussing the key characteristics of case study research, it is worth highlighting the rationale for choosing case study strategy for this particular study. There are several reasons why the case study is appropriate for this research, and these are now explained:

- Firstly, as there has been limited previous research that has investigated TNA in the context of HRD in general and in the public sector in particular, this study is exploratory in nature, and exploratory case study strategy is deemed to be appropriate in order to find out what is happening and to seek new insights. As Benbasat *et al.* (1987) indicate, a case study is an appropriate way to research an area in which few previous studies have been carried out. In addition, Eisenhardt (1989) suggests that case study strategy is appropriate when conducting exploratory research on complex social phenomena in real-life contexts.

- Secondly, this research attempts to provide a holistic understanding of the key factors and barriers that prevent effective TNA. It has been argued that case study strategy is useful when a holistic, in-depth investigation is needed (Yin, 2009). A case study approach allows researchers to grasp more detailed, varied and extensive understanding of the phenomenon under investigation using multiple sources of evidence. In support of this, as Collis and Hussey (2009) stress, the case study involves extensive examination of a single instance of a phenomenon of interest and is a good example of phenomenological methodology. In this study, it is adopted because it is appropriate to the aims of the research and in line with the time constraints applying. It allows the investigator to focus on a particular topic of research and to attempt to identify interaction processes at work. Additionally, there is the advantage of being able to draw on a variety of evidence such as interviews, documents and observations.

5.4   Method of Analysis

In management and social science research, two dominant methods are used for analysis: quantitative and qualitative (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). A brief description of each of these is presented below:

- Quantitative methodmainly emphasises the use of measurement to describe objects and relationships understudy (Sarantakos, 2005). Furthermore, quantitative researchers are often independent of the context of study and they aim for large numbers of context-stripped data, and seek statistical significance (David and Sutton, 2004; Neuman, 2003). Examples of quantitative research methods are survey questionnaires, laboratory experiments, simulation, mathematical modelling, and econometrics (Myers, 2009; Neuman, 2003).

- Qualitative method, in contrast to the quantitative approach, is based on words or pictures rather than numbers (Johnson and Harris, 2002; Miles and Huberman, 1994). Qualitative researchers usually work with small samples of people who are studied in-depth in their natural context (Berg, 2009). According to Silverman (2010), a qualitative method is characterised by the detailed observation of, and involvement of the researcher in, the natural setting in which the study occurs. Qualitative research methods are chosen when not much is known about the issue or the problem understudy. In this case, the qualitative researcher attempts to explore and uncover meanings people assign to their experiences of the issue or problem (Sarantakos, 2005). The researcher often talks to the participants face-to-face and sees them behave and act within their context (Creswell, 2009).

The differences between qualitative and quantitative methods have been explained by a number of different authors (e.g. Bryman and Bell, 2007; Maxwell, 2005; Corbetta, 2003). Bryman and Bell (2007) stated the features of both quantitative and qualitative methods as presented in Table 5.3. These features could be advantages and disadvantages according to the research question and objectives. Consequently, the selection of appropriate methods relies on the research question and data.

Table 5.3: Features of Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

Dimension	Qualitative	Quantitative
Concepts	Research development	Operationalised
Approach	Unstructured, driven and open	Structurally driven
Focus	Connects events, activities, factors and people interpretation	Change in social world by static style
Relation between field and researcher	In-depth investigation by close view of the event	General with no deep investigation of subject
Relation between respondent and researcher	Close and direct contact	Indirect contact
Findings	Deep and rich data	General and specific data with no attention to time or place, inflexible and reliable

Source: Bryman and Bell (2007)

5.4.1 Justifications for the Adoption of the Qualitative Analysis Method

Qualitative research often focuses on social process, human experience, and behaviour, aiming to uncover and understand a phenomenon in its context. The present study investigates issues and barriers that affect TNA practices and TNA stakeholder involvement, which requires the researcher to seek in-depth insights through investigation and analysis, to answer 'what', 'how' and 'why' questions concerning the phenomena under study. Green and Thorogood (2009, p30) state that: *"[i]f you want to understand the perspective of participants, explore the meaning they give to phenomena or observe a process in depth, then a qualitative approach is probably appropriate"*.

Corbin and Strauss (2008) reported that qualitative methods can reflect many types of research such as people's lives, lived experiences, behaviours, emotions, feelings, organisational functioning, social movements, cultural phenomena and interaction between nations. They considered many reasons for carrying out qualitative research:

  – Researcher preferences and experience: as some researchers are oriented and temperamentally suited to doing such work.

– Nature of the research problem or question: for example, questions relating to understanding the nature of people's experiences in the research focus.

– Novel understanding of a given area: this method helps to gain familiarity or explore substantive areas.

– Phenomena with complex details: such events are hard to learn about using more conservative research methods.

In the present research, several reasons make qualitative method the most suitable approach for data analysis. These are discussed and explained below.

– Firstly, as previously noted in Chapter One, little research has examined management training needs analysis, and qualitative research is regarded to be the most suitable option for such inquiry. Corbin and Strauss (2008) argue that qualitative research methods can be used to better understand any phenomenon about which little is yet known, as well as to gain new perspectives on issues about which much is already known, or in order to gain more in-depth information that may be difficult to convey quantitatively.

– Secondly, as the intention of this research is to focus on how TNA is approached and practised, and the factors that influence the TNA process, the qualitative research method is more appropriate than a quantitative research method, as the former is designed to help researchers understand people's thoughts and the social and cultural contexts within real life (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Myers and Avison, 2002). Recording actual words and expressions of the participants is a reliable way of gathering data. Furthermore, a qualitative method allows for an understanding of the social and cultural contexts within which the participants work and approach them from different job positions, in order to compare, contrast and understand their viewpoints (Myers, 2009).

5.5   Research Design and Data Collection Methods

Having identified and justified the research philosophy, methods, and strategy to be adopted, the chapter now considers the methods used for the empirical research which is undertaken in an authentic environment.Many studies such as those by Yin (2009), Saunders *et al*. (2012), and Bryman *et al*. (2007) support the identification of these procedures prior to conducting the case studies. Jankowicz (2005) suggested three stages to be followed in qualitative research: deciding upon the research design, data collection from the case study, and analysis of the case study data. The author considers these stages of research methodology appropriate for this thesis and Figure 5.1 presents these steps which are established according to the research question presented in Chapter One.

5.5.1   Research Design

Research design is a cohesive and logical process undertaken by a researcher to collect, analyse and interpret data (Yin, 2009). Figure 5.1 presents the sequence of events in the conduct of the empirical research. The first stage in this sequence is seen as the review of the published literature in order to understand what was already known about the research topic, and from this the identification of what needed to be investigated became clear, i.e., a research need was highlighted. The conceptual framework for the study was then developed, and from that point decisions were taken about the research strategy to be followed, and the Case Study protocol, with its ability to source qualitative data, was adopted as the most suitable for the study. From that point, it can be seen that the type of data to be collected was considered, and the decision to use interviews was arrived at. Consequently, an interview agenda was constructed consisting of a series of questions relating to the units of analysis. The agenda was designed to guide the researcher through the interviews. In addition to the interviews, other methods such as observation, and perusal of archival documents, consultancy reports, electronic documents, and the organisational website were used, to allow for triangulation of data and consequently increase its reliability.
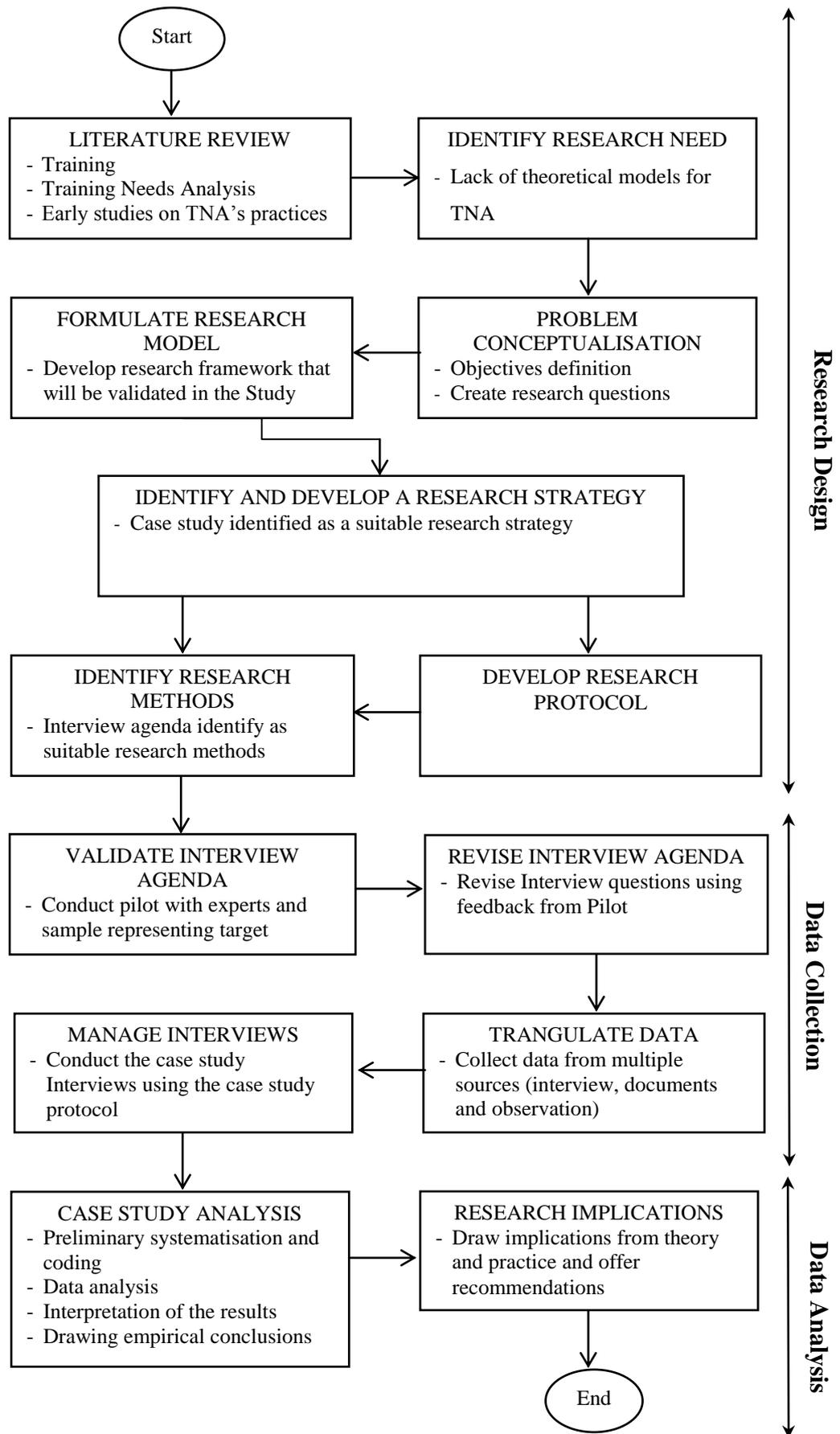
Figure 5.1: The Research Process

5.5.2　Data Collection Methods

In respect of the data collection phase, this was divided into two distinct phases. Prior to the main data collection effort, pilot interviews were conducted to provide preliminary insights into the TNA process in the public sector and to test potential interview questions. The pilot interviews are considered to have improved the quality of the research and helped with refining the plans for the collection of data in the main study, both in respect of the content of the data to be obtained, and the procedures to be followed. Furthermore, the pilot interviews proved to be useful in gaining feedback from practitioners prior to undertaking the main empirical study. The second distinct phase was the collection of data from the ADP.

The ADP is one of the most challenged organisations among all the public sector organisations in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi in the UAE, since it is the one and alone force that has direct interaction and communication with the general public. It was selected as the case study for this research partly for this reason, as indicated in section 1.5. Bassey (1981) suggests that the reliability of a case study is more important than its potential for generalisability. And Morse (2000) has observed that the estimation of the number of participants required to reach saturation depends on a number of factors including: the quality of data, the scope of the study, the nature of the topic, the amount of useful information obtained from each participant, the number of interviews per participant, the use of shadowed data and the qualitative method used. It was, therefore, decided that the researcher would continue to interview participants from the research population until he reached 'stability' or the 'saturation point', where no new information emerged (Patton, 2002). A cross-sectional design was decided upon in which selected numbers of samples were obtained from top management officials, mid-level officers, trainers, trainees, and policy-makers to participate in the interview exercise. From this overall group of participants, three separate samples were identified. Sample 1 included Executives, and Top Management Officials, Sample 2 included Trainers, and Sample 3 included Trainees (Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2: Different Sample Groups
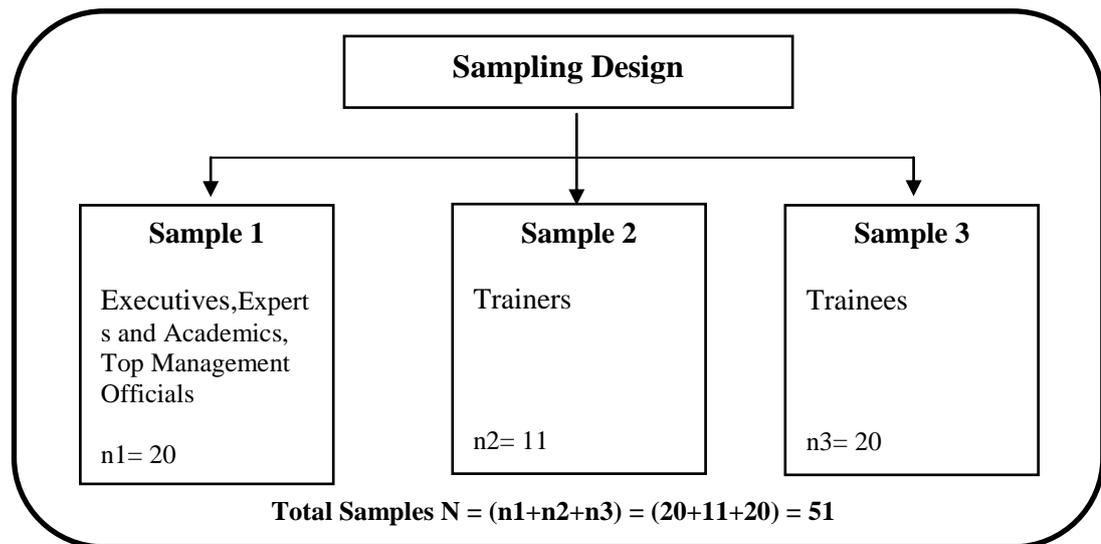
Once the research strategy had been decided, it was necessary to decide upon the manner in which data would be collected for the main study. Gillham (2000, p 20) suggests that a researcher employing a case study approach should look for different types of evidence when collecting data, including *"what people say, what you see them doing, what they make or produce, what documents and records show".* Yin (2009) makes the point that data collection is the backbone of the case study, and that as many types of data as possible should be gathered (Yin, 2009).

Adopting various data collection methods and multiple sources of evidence *"to gain a fuller picture of what is happening" is referred to as "triangulation"* (Myers, 2009, p 10). The main benefit of using the triangulation technique is found in the reduction of *"inappropriate uncertainty"* (Robson, 2002, p 370). That is, exclusively relying on a single method of data collection and assuming that it has yielded the correct answer. Therefore, triangulation provides multiple perspectives on an issue, supplies more information on emerging concepts and allows for cross-checking and testing one source of data against other sources. As Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, p 126) express it, *"case studies are usually considered more accurate, convincing, diverse and rich if they are based on several sources of empirical data".* Additionally, triangulation enables the researcher to *"obtain a rich set of data surrounding the specific research issue, as well as capturing the contextual complexity"* (Benbasat *et al.,* 1987, p 374), meaning that sophisticated problems can

be explored using triangulation. Myers (2009) also notes that triangulation of data from different sources improves the quality of data, and consequently the accuracy of the findings.

In this study, multiple methods of data collection were employed. The application of different methods of data collection is supported by on the grounds of validity and reliability which are both enhanced by following this strategy (Yin, 2009; Bryman *et al.*, 2007; Irani *et al.*, 2008). Semi-structured interviews formed the main source of data, with non-participant observation and data derived from consulting various documents serving as important supplementary sources for understanding the phenomenon (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Eisenhardt, 1989). Given that an interpretive philosophical approach was decided as the basis for this research, the use of interviews was a natural choice as the major data source. In fact in case study research, interviews are considered to be an essential source of evidence (Yin, 2009; Voss *et al.*, 2002; Darke *et al.*, 1998).According to Kvale (2007, p 8), a qualitative interview is a data collection method *"with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the real life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena"*.

- *Interviews*

There are three main types of interview: unstructured, semi-structured, and structured (myers, 2009' Burns, 2000). The first two are considered as qualitative interviews, while the last is more of a quantitative instrument. According to Kvale (2007, p 8), a qualitative interview is a data collection method *"with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the real life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena"*. A quantitative interview on the other hand has pre-determined questions with fixed wording in a pre-set order, and sometimes with a specified time limit. It is really like a questionnaire but with the difference that the instrument is administered by the researcher rather than being self-administered by the respondent. This is known as a structured interview.

At the other end of the spectrum is the unstructured interview which is often an informal conversation in which the researcher has general topics of interest and

concerns with no (or very few) fixed sets of questions. There is often no time limit and this kind of interview is usually left to run its course, i.e. when the discussion is finished and all angles explored, the interview is over.

A semi-structured interview sits in between the structured and the unstructured interview, but it is essentially a qualitative instrument. In this the researcher has some pre-determined questions, but the order can be modified based upon the interviewer's perception of what seems most appropriate. New questions may emerge during the conversation and new directions for exploration may open up but essentially the interviewer is guided by the themes s/he wishes to cover.

In this study, the semi-structured interview was adopted for data collection for two related reasons. Firstly, as this study is interpretive in nature, semi-structured interviews allowed access to the interpretations and views of the participants with regard to the actions and events happening or that have already taken place in the management of the TNA process within the ADP. As Myers (2009, p 79) points out, semi-structured interviews are useful for *"finding out people's motivations, and their rationale as to why they did certain things"*. Similarly, Gray (2009, p 373) highlights that a semi-structured interview is vital when an interpretive approach is being adopted, *"where the objective is to explore subjective meanings that respondents ascribe to concepts or events"*. Secondly, semi-structured interviews represent a useful balance between the very formal structured approach and the informal conversation approach, enabling the researcher to probe deeply to explore answers in more depth, to uncover new clues (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008) and *"to add important insights as they arise during the conversation"* (Myers, 2009, p 125). Additionally, the researcher was able to prompt the interviewees with a set of possible expected answers (Robson, 2002).

Van Bruggen*et al.* (2002, p 469) maintain that a*"multiple informant-based approach yields response data far superior quality"* in comparison to a single informant approach. Thus, semi-structured interviews were conducted with representatives from three different hierarchical levels (senior executive managers, trainers, and trainees). This approach provided the opportunity to collect *"rich data from people in various roles and situations"* (Myers, 2009, p 121). This is consistent with the

recommendation of Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007, p 28) who argue that a key approach to limiting interviewee bias is the use of various knowledgeable informants from different hierarchical levels who *"view the focal phenomenon from different perspectives"*. The interview guide for the three types of participants followed a similar chronological structure, but was adapted to acknowledge the roles that each of the three levels of individual typically played in the TNA process.

Mason (2002, p64) stated that the "*interview is just as much a social situation as is any other interaction ... if your view is that knowledge and evidence are contextual, situational, and interactional, then you will wish to ensure that the interview itself is as contextual as possible, in the sense that it draws upon or conjures up, as fully as possible, the social experience or processes which you are interested in exploring*". For that reason, questions were formulated to elicit data regarding the TNA process through narrative and general questions and consequently embrace all emergent issues to generate *"a fairer and fuller representation of the interviewees' perspectives"* (Mason, 2002, p66). The main themes and components that tailored the formulation of the interview questions were derived principally from the proposed framework, and previous studieson the topic also gave important information regarding suitable interview questions, which in themselves were all guided by the research aim and objectives.

The original interview schedules were made in English, which were approved by my supervisor before the interview; the researcher had to translate all protocols in Arabic for the better understanding of the interviewees. After interview all the filled up schedules (Arabic Version) were transcribed into English and presented in chapter five. Data from each sample groups are presented separately under five sub sections as of the interview schedules for a better understanding.

- *Observation*

Observation is an important qualitative data collection method, and is defined by Marshall and Rossman (2011, p 139) as a process of *noting and recording of events, behaviours and artefacts (objects) in the social setting"*. Observation is mainly used to discover complex interaction in natural social settings and describes*"what happens, who or what are involved, when and where things happen, how they occur*

and why things happen" (Boeije, 2010, p 59). In observation, researchers try to learn about the behaviours and the meanings attached to those behaviours (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). There are two main types of observation: 'participant observation' and 'non-participant observation' (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). In participant observation, the researcher (i.e. the observer) is fully involved and becomes a participant in the culture or the context being observed (Collis and Hussey, 2009). This type of observation requires extensive effort over a long period of time as the researcher need to become accepted as part of the context being observed (Burns, 2000). In non-participant observation, the researcher dose not becomes a participant; instead he/she attempts to observe specific issues (e.g. interactions, behaviours, actions) (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Non-participant observation often takes a shorter time in comparison to participant observation (Burns, 2000).

- *Documents*

Gathering documents has been regarded as an important means of data collection in qualitative studies (Creswell, 2009; Saunders*et al.,* 2012), and it plays a particularly crucial role in case study research (Blumberg*et al.,* 2011). Case study researchers often supplement interviewing and observation with the gathering and analysis of relevant documents produced in the course of everyday events (Gibson and Brown, 2009). As Yin (2009, p 103) points out, *"for case studies, the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources".*Marshall and Rossman (2011) note that minutes of meetings, logs, announcements, formal policy statements, letters, and so, on are useful in understanding the phenomenon under investigation.

5.5.3   Data Analysis Techniques

The third part in the empirical research is the data analysis. According to Collis and Hussey (2009), the data analysis stage is more difficult than the collection stage.Data analysis is defined as a systematic process of searching and arranging the data in order to gain understanding and find useful meaning (Boeije, 2010; Burns, 2000). There is no standardised approach to analyse qualitative data since the nature of qualitative data implies that it cannot be collected in a standardised way. Qualitative analysis generally involves the development of data categories, allocating units of

the researcher's original data to appropriate categories, recognising relationships within and between categories of data, and developing propositions to produce well-grounded conclusions (Saunders*et al.,* 2012). To analysequalitative data, researchers use various techniques, such as content analysis, interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) etc. The analysis stage in any research is very critical and linked to the philosophical foundation of the research.

Considering the philosophical base, approach, strategy and data collection method the researcher found the IPA was suitable for analysing data in this study. IPA in this study aimed at exploring in detail, how participants were making sense of their personal and social world.

5.5.3.1 Steps of Data Analysis

As Figure 5.3 shows, and based on recommendations and strategies developed by Saunders *et al.* (2012), Strauss and Corbin (2008), and Miles and Huberman (1994), thisstudy has built its own analysis plan and data processing practices. According to Miles and Huberman (1994, p 10), analysing qualitative data consists of three activities: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. These general guidelines apply in this research by first using the ideas of Miles and Huberman (1994) as a general strategy, and combining these with those of Saunders *et al.* (2012) and Strauss and Corbin (2008) to arrive at a strategy for analysis data.

Figure 5.3: The Qualitative Analytical Process
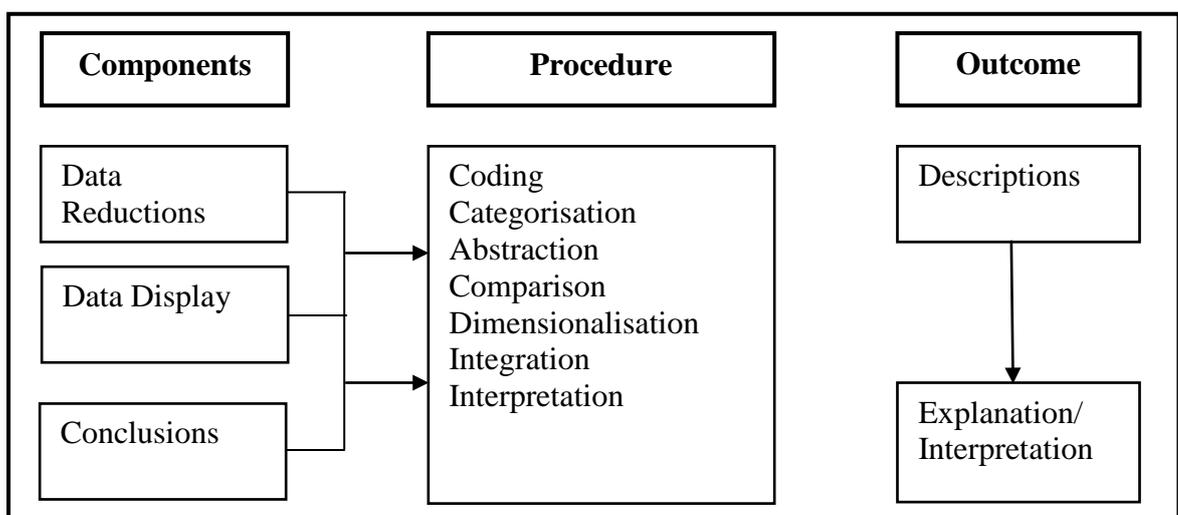
Source: Adapted by the researcher from descriptions given by Saunders*et al.* (2012), Strauss and Corbin (2008), and Miles and Huberman (1994)

- **Data Reduction**

Qualitative data analysis seeks to organise and reduce the data gathered into themes or essences, which, in turn, can be fed into descriptions, models or theories. Data analysis is a well-defined process that begins with basic description and moves to conceptual ordering and then on to theorising (Patton, 2002). Data reduction, therefore, is the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appear in written-up field notes or transcriptions (Miles and Huberman, 1994 p.10). Data analysis is accomplished through an elaborate set of coding processes, the schemes and categories in which are based initially on the conceptual framework themes and sub-themes. This approach was indeed helpful for the data reduction stage, in particular, as it directs the efforts of the analysis towards the research questions and objectives.

- **Data Display**

The second important activity is data display that means transferring the reduced data into a more meaningful categorisation. It is an organised, compressed assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p11). This process revealed two main categories. The first categorisation phase was on the basis of the organisation structure, at which point the respondents were divided into three classifications, according to their level in the structure: senior managers, trainers, and trainees. When classifying respondents in this way, it became much easier to understand and control the raw data collected. This process is supported by Saunders*et al.*(2012), who state that some analytical strategies can be applied inductively without any pre-determined theory. They recommend that researchers who adopt analytical strategies to analyse qualitative data can commence deductively, where data categories are derived from theory. During this phase, the researcher used the themes generated from the literature and upon which the interview protocol was founded. Five categories emerged on the basis of the themes, these being: demographic data of the respondents, current practices of TNA, training decisions, effectiveness of TNA, and barriers of TNA.

- **Drawing Conclusions**

Conclusions are drawn through explanations at this stage. This stage also interprets data and matching patterns. According to Yin (2009), pattern matching logic is based on comparing the theoretical or predicted patterns with the empirical or emerged patterns and, therefore, if the patterns coincide, the result can help to strengthen the internal validity of a case study. Hence, conclusions are drawn from matching theoretical predictions with empirical findings.

- **Coding**

Coding is one way of exploring bits of information in the data, and looking for similarities and differences within these bits to categorise and label the data (Patton, 2002). Coding is not simply part of data analysis; it is the *"fundamental analytic process used by the researcher"* (Strauss and Corbin, 2008, p 12). It is what takes researchers and their data from transcript to theory. In coding, data are broken down, compared, and then placed in a category. Similar data are placed in similar categories and new categories created for different data. Coding is an iterative, inductive, yet reductive process that organises data, from which the researcher can then construct themes, essences, descriptions and theories.

Strauss and Corbin (2008) define coding as consisting of three different processes. The first is *open coding*, which is the initial stage of comparative analysis; it is *"an analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in the data"*. The second process is *axial coding*, whose purpose is to put the fractured data back together in new ways *"by making connections between a category and its subcategory"*. The third process is *selective coding*, which is *"the process of integrating and refining the theory"*. To accomplish this final task, the analyst selects a core category and then relates all other categories to the core as well as to the other categories. Selective coding is similar to axial coding, in which the categories are developed in terms of their properties, dimensions and relationships, except that the integration occurs at a more abstract level of analysis (Strauss and Corbin, 2008).

- **Quantifying qualitative data**

Saunders*et al.* (2012) state that quantifying qualitative data by using the frequency of certain events provides the researcher with the capacity to display a large amount of data that will be discussed through the use of text. These frequencies can then be displayed using a table or diagram. This approach to describing and presenting the qualitative data provides the researcher with a very useful supplement to the most important means of analysing qualitative data. Therefore, the decision was made to quantify the qualitative data as much as possible in order to present them better.

5.5.3.2 Use of NVivo Software Package

NVivo is one of the software packages used to analyse qualitative data. NVivo provides the researcher with a means of examining themes, and hence, allows for inferences and conclusions from the same. Many qualitative researchers suggest the use of software packages such as NVivo to carry out a thorough and transparent and more reliable qualitative data analysis (Myers, 2009; Robson, 2002; Weitzman, 2000). By using this software, the users can examine, classify and arrange huge amounts of data or information, develop and examine complex relationships, and draw conclusions in respect of these.

In this study the focus was on the TNA process in the ADP, and three main categories of respondents, all with a relationship to the others, were the senior executives, the trainers, and the trainees. The intention was to examine each of these groups individually, and then to explore the relationships existing between them.

Consequently, NVivo was used to help in facilitating the qualitative analysis of the transcripts produced from the semi-structured interviews. The use of NVivo software was, therefore, crucial in raising the patterns and developing ways through which the views of managers, trainers and trainees could be examined. It enabled the development of themes inductively while at the same time allowing for a more systematic analysis of data, allowing transparency and an opportunity to re-visit the data more easily and more systematically should new insights or new information become available.

5.6   Case Study Protocol

The case study protocol is an instrument with which the case study is conducted, as well as the general rules and procedures with which the empirical work is carried out (Burns, 2000). The protocol has to be updated and improved with each replication (Eisenhardt, 1989). In addition, a case study protocol contains more than the survey instrument, it should also contain procedures and general rules that should be followed in using the instrument. It should be created prior to the data collection phase, and as noted by Yin (2009), it is desirable under all circumstances without exception. According to Yin (2009), the case study protocol is a major way of increasing the case research reliability and is intended to control data collection from a single case study by the investigator. This protocol allows for the focus on the case study subject, and for the case study to be conducted in a rigorous way by defining issues such as the audience, participants, necessary data, and the time before starting the empirical work (Yin, 2009).

The discipline imposed on the investigator by the protocol is important to the overall progress and reliability of the study. It helps keep the investigator's focus to remain on the main tasks and goals, while the process of development brings out problems that would only be faced during the actual investigation. The overview of the project is a useful way to communicate with the investigator, and the field procedures are indispensable during data collection. According to Yin (2009, p81) a typical protocol should have the following sections:

- **An overview of the case study project** - this will include project objectives, case study issues, and presentations about the topic under study.
- **Field procedures** - reminders about procedures, credentials for access to data sources, location of those sources.
- **Case study questions** - the questions that the investigator must keep in mind during data collection.
- **A guide for the case study report** - the outline and format for the report.

5.6.1   Overview of the Case Study Project

This section of the protocol covers any background information about the project, anddetails the substantive issues to be investigated. The purpose of this thesis is to

explore and describe the nature of the TNA process within the context of the ADP and barriers to TNA effectiveness. Therefore, the various topics that have a bearing on the overall subject area are considered in order to ensure that the data relating to these is collected.

5.6.2 Field Procedures of the Research

Yin (2009, p.13) defines a case study *as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident"*. This suggests that the researcher will be collecting data from people and institutions in their everyday situations and not in laboratory conditions. In case study, the researcher must learn to integrate real-world events that may affect his/her data collection, such as for example the problem of certain documents not being available, unexpected interviewee behaviour, and availability of participants, etc. Such events could affect the case quality. These considerations emphasise the importance of a properly designed fieldwork procedure. During the empirical work for the study, the key fieldwork procedures were adopted as follows:

- Prior to the fieldwork, the interview questions were reviewed and checked by two experts, both of whom were academics in the field of HR, and working in the Ministry of Interior.
- A clear and detailed explanation of the study aim, objectives, and significance was provided to the participants through an introduction at the beginning of the interview schedule.
- The target interviewees were identified, these being top, senior, and line managers, trainers and trainees (51 in total).
- The data collection methods were identified. As mentioned earlier, multiple methods (semi-structured interviews, observations, and documents, including the websites and the internal publications of the organisation) for collecting the data required by the study, were used. The interviews were the main source of primary data, and followed the interview agenda (Appendix B and C). All the interviews were recorded, with the permission of the interviewees, transcribed, and subsequently reviewed by the individual interviewees in the interests of ensuring their reliability and validity. During the interview

process, the researcher took notes of all possible vital points and of any documentary evidence which might be relevant, so that these could be located, and copies made. Different methods of data collection, and the fact that similar questions were asked of different interviewees, increased the opportunities to triangulate the data and to avoid bias in the collection of the data.

− To make the interviews more comfortable for the participants, the researcher sent a copy of the themes to each of them before the interview. This practice is supported by Saunders *et al.* (2007, p252), who note that *"credibility may be promoted through the supply of relevant information to participants before the interview"*.

A case design approach was appropriate in this study to explore the 'how' and 'what' questions (Yin, 2009), with data being collected from a wide range of informants (e.g. top management, senior managers, line managers, trainers and trainees) with the aim of responding to those questions, across a wide range of informants. During the data collection process, themes and interview questions were cross-checked with the researcher's supervisor and other experts to enhance reliability. Baily (2007, p 184) writes that *"reliable questions are those that, regardless of when they are asked, elicit the same responses from interviewees. Reliable respondents are those who provide consistent answers. The conclusion is reliable if different researchers draw similar ones from the same data"*. For Pelosi *et al.* (2001, p 375), reliability *"indicates the extent to which the measure is without bias (error free) and hence offers consistent measurement across time and across the various items in the instrument"*. However, Mason (2002, p 51) claims that *"the traditional understanding of reliability focuses on standardising data collection instruments, and this is premised on the assumption that methods of data generation can be conceptualised as tools, and can be standardised, neutral and non-biased"*. Some researchers, such as Hall and Stevens (1991), Robson (2002), and Koch (2003), consider that 'dependability' is a more appropriate term than reliability for qualitative research.

In this study, several strategies were adopted in order to enhance the study's reliability and to reduce possible biases in the research. Specifically, the researcher:

— Generated a case study protocol for collecting data. This ensured that standard procedures were followed. This is recommended by Yin (2009) who suggests two tactics to achieve reliability: using a case study protocol, and developing a case study database. These two tactics were employed in this research to enhance the reliability of the data.

— Created a structured case study database to store empirical data from the interviews, document review, and observations process. This ensured that the fieldwork data was collected and impressions of the participants were noted and stored in a systematic way and that it was logically ordered.

— Transcribed all recorded data in full, directly following each interview in an effort to ensure as much accuracy as possible in terms of interpretation. The transcripts were carefully checked to make sure that they did not contain obvious mistakes made during the transcription.

— Enhanced reliability by following Flick (2007) recommendation that all interviewers should be skilled, and that interview guides and generative questions were tested after the first interview. Specifically, the researcher attended training courses held by the Brunel Business School at Brunel University to develop his own skill as an interviewer.

5.6.3   Questions in the Case Study

At the centre of the protocol, is a set of questions that reflect the enquiry at an individual case level. It is the characteristics of these questions that distinguish them then those 'echoed' in the interview schedule. Yin (2009) points out two types of question, firstly those that are aimed to give a general orientation to the research, and secondly, those that are specific to the case study and reflect the very precise lines of enquiry. These are described in a little more detail as follows:

General orientation of questions: These questions are set for the researcher, and not for the interviewee, and act as a reminder for the researcher, concerning the data that has to be collected, to test the proposed hypotheses or to enlighten the researcher when attempting to answer the research questions. Essentially, the main purpose of

the protocol questions is to keep the interviewer's focus during the data collection process. In Table 5.4 the research questions presented in Chapter One are shown again as questions that are meant to provide a general orientation to the study.

Table 5.4: Research Questions

Question Number	Research Questions
1	What is the type and nature of the existing TNA process in the ADP?
2	What is the strategic direction underpinning TNA?
3	What is the degree of involvement of the stakeholders in the TNA process?
4	What is the decision-making process used by the ADP, when implementing the TNA process?
5	What are the emerging challenges and barriers to effective TNA?

Levels of questions: Yin (2009) addressed the importance of the case study questions and explained the boundaries. These questions reflect the researcher's real line of inquiry. The outline of these questions and their position in this thesis are summarised in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Levels of Case Study Questions in Multiple Case Investigations

Level of question	Type of Questions	References in the thesis
Level 1	Questions asked of specific interviewees.	Appendix B& C
Level 2	Questions asked in an individual case study.	5.6.1, 5.6.2
Level 3	Questions asked across multiple case studies.	_____
Level 4	Questions asked about the entire study.	1.6
Level 5	Questions about the recommendations and conclusions beyond the scope of the study.	8.2, 8.6

Source: Yin (2009)

5.6.4   Output of the Research

Case study reports do not have a uniform structure, and therefore, this is an aspect which is often neglected by researchers. However, it is essential to plan the report as the case develops, in order to avoid problems at the end (Tellis, 1997).Moreover,

because enormous amounts of data are collected through the data collection process for case studies, consideration of the format of the data output and the means of analysis is recommended. In this study, the researcher collected data specific to the research questions in order to avoid confusion when organising the huge volume of data that was gathered. This strategy increased the value of the research yield. The research output was the result of the empirical data analysis as reported in Chapter Five. Data are presented in this research under the different thematic headings that formed the basis of the questions in the interview schedules. The themes in question are: demographic data of the respondents, current practices of TNA, training decisions, effectiveness of TNA, and barriers to TNA.

5.7   Conclusions

This chapter has described in detail the methodology used in this study. In discussing the research process, this chapter shows that the study used a phenomenological philosophy, sometimes referred to as the interpretative method, and an inductive approach to the data. By adopting an interpretive stance, the researcher was able to take a more holistic and comprehensive view of the phenomenon and all the complex relationships within it. Moreover, this enabled the researcher to interpret and make sense of the meaning which the participants attached to their experiences.

Having considered the underlying philosophical approach, the chapter then discussed the differences between quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis and provided a justification for using a qualitative approach. This was seen to be more appropriate on the grounds that it was definitely the interpretations given to events with which the interviewees were involved, that were required, and these could not be explored using a quantitative method. It was also shown that case study design was the most suitable for this research project, since it allows for the study of real-life situations in all their complexity, by welcoming data from a variety of different sources.

In respect of the primary data, the study used the semi-structured interview technique, and observation, and in respect of the secondary data, archival documents and the organisation's website provided what was required. The chapter has also

given reasons for the choices made in this respect. Regarding the research population, it has been indicated that three distinct sample groups were chosen, thereby providing inputs from all the stakeholders in the TNA process. The chapter ended by discussing the data analysis aspect of the methodology, and showing that the IPA technique was used in this respect. It has indicated the systematic steps that were followed to interpret, code, synthesise, categorise, and discuss the data to discover appropriate recommendations. The case study protocol has also been presented as an operational action plan to facilitate the empirical work by providing a 'step-by-step' approach to the data gathering process.

In Chapter Six, the data collected is presented with researchers analysis and discussion.

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Chapter Six

Data Presentation, Discussion and Analysis

6.1   Introduction

The preceding chapter introduced the research methodology adopted for the study, and justified the various choices made in this respect. Now, the data collected via the methodology detailed, is presented. The primary data collected from the semi-structured interviews held during late 2011 and early 2012 are compiled under the different themes pursued within the interviews. A total of 51 interviews were undertaken with the members of the three separate sample groups – Senior Executives, Trainers, and Trainees - as shown in Table 6.1. The data are described collectively based on the responses of different sample groups, and then further analysed and discussed in the later chapters.

Table 6.1: Name of the Sample Groups and Size of the Samples

Name of the Sample Groups	Number of the Respondents
Group One: Senior Executives	20
Group Two: Trainers	11
Group Three: Trainees	20
Total	**N=51**

6.2   Data Presentation

The interview schedule was in five sections: section A was demographic data of the participants, section B was the current practices of TNA, section C was training decisions, section D the effectiveness of TNA, and section E the barriers to TNA. The following pages present the data exactly found in the interview under the sections mentioned above. Data from different participants groups are organised within the sections.

6.2.1   Presentation of Primary Data of Sample Group One: Senior Executives
Sample group one was composed of senior executives, such as executive directors, directors, heads of department, heads of section, and branch managers. Twenty (20) senior executives of the ADP were contacted and interviewed face-to-face in order to collect primary data.

▪ *Section A: Demographic Data*

Several questions were asked in this section. Data on the educational background of the senior executives is presented in Table 6.2, and on the age group of the respondents in Table 6.3.

Table 6.2: Educational Background - Sample Group One

Respondents Group	High School	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	Not specified
Senior Executives	3	0	13	4	0
Total	3	0	13	4	0

N=20, Source: Fieldwork (2011-2012)

Table 6.3: Age Group - Sample Group One

Respondents Group	25 < 34	35 < 44	45 and above
Senior Executives	5	11	4
Total	5	11	4

N= 20, Source: Field Work (2011-2012)

▪ *Section B: Current Practices in TNA in ADP*

The questions relating to the current practices in TNA in the ADP were asked in this section, and the responses are as follows:

− *Conducting TNA in the ADP*: Fifteen of the participants in this group said they did conduct TNA and five of them said they did not undertake TNA but rather commission specialists to do this, and participate in the whole process in terms of a supervisory role.

− *Levels of TNA in the ADP*: In answering the question relating to the levels that are used in conducting TNA in the ADP, the participants said that all the levels were considered: organisation, task/operational, and person/individual analysis. However, fourteen of the sample emphasised the above two levels, while six of the sample emphasised the individual level.

− *Importance of TNA in the ADP*: The reasons why TNA was considered important in the ADP are, as stated by the participants in this group as follows:

- To keep up with modern developments and be ready for a better future.

- To benefit from the results of TNA in the development of the training plan and identify courses for the future and to determine the best ways to meet these needs.

- To know the skills needed by employees for them to raise their performance and to link what is needed of training courses for the employees and organisation's needs, in order to raise the quality of work overall.

- To determine the annual budget for training.

- To discover the correct and actual training needs, so that the success of the training process is guaranteed, and to avoid mistakes in the future when determining training needs

- To know the weaknesses in the performance of staff that it is possible to overcome by training

- To promote the highest level of police performance through better identification of needs, and to discover the causes of failure in training, and raise the skills of human resources to guarantee the highest level of work performance

- To prepare suitable training programmes each year for employees

- To discover the required materials for training programmes

- *Methods of Assessing Training Needs*: Table 6.4 shows the methods used in the ADP to identify the needs of the trainees. (Data are presented according to the highest percentage).

Table 6.4: Methods of Assessing Training Needs

Training Need Assessment Methods	Yes	%
Performance appraisal information or results	17	85
Through job descriptions for individuals in your organisation	15	75
Determination through special training committee	11	55
Group interviews with managers and supervisors	11	55
Direct Observation	10	50
Questionnaires	10	50
Skills, Knowledge, and Abilities (KSAs) tests	7	35
Personal face-to-face interviews with employees	4	20

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Criteria for selecting the TNA data collection methods*: In considering, the criteria for selecting the TNA data collection methods in the ADP, the interviewees responded as shown in Table 6.5 (Data are presented according to the highest percentage).

Table 6.5: Criteria for selecting the TNA Data Collection Methods

Criteria for selecting the TNA data collection methods	Yes	%
Top management preferences	15	75
Employees' acceptance	15	75
Expertise of the HR staff	13	65
Organisational Culture and values	12	60
Cost-effectiveness	10	50
Time required	10	50
Ease of use	8	40
Sample size	8	40
Confidentiality	7	35

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Sources of Data in different levels:* In answering the question relating to the sources of data in different levels of TNA, the interviewees responded as shown in Table 6.6 (Data are presented according to the highest percentage).

Table 6.6: Sources of Data in Different Levels

Sources of Data in Different Levels		
Organisational Level	**Yes**	**%**
Organisational goal and objectives	16	80
Management request	10	50
Skills inventory	9	45
Changes in the system and sub-system	9	45
Manpower inventory	7	35
Organisational climate indices	4	20
Operational Level	**Yes**	**%**
Job description	17	85
Job specification	16	80
Performance standards	14	70
Relevant literature concerning the job	2	10
Individual Level	**Yes**	**%**
Attitude survey	15	75
Performance appraisal data	14	70
Supervisors' suggestion	13	65
Skills, Knowledge and Abilities (KSAs) tests results	9	45
Assessment survey	8	40

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Perceptions on TNA Practices*: In answering the question relating to the overall perceptions of TNA practices in the ADP, the interviewees responded as shown in Table 6.7.(Data are presented according to the highest percentage).

Table 6.7: Perceptions of TNA Practices

Overall Perceptions Regarding TNA Practices	Yes	%
TNA emphasised in organisation's training practices to ensure training effectiveness	19	95
TNA ensures that organisational needs linked with employees' needs	17	85
TNA determines the 'where', 'what' and 'who' decisions of training	17	85
The management of this organisation believes that TNA process are cost-effective	17	85
The management of this organisation believes that TNA is central for improving the training effectiveness	17	85
Top managers are committed to the TNA function	16	80
It provides a benchmark for evaluating training and records the justification for the training budget.	15	75
TNA is conducted to differentiate performance problems caused by employees' lack of skills, knowledge and abilities (KSAs) and problems caused by other factors.	15	75
TNA methods are used by the ADP to produce clear, relevant, specific data on performance discrepancies	15	75
TNA methods are used by the ADP to make it possible to distinguish between training that employees need and training that they want	13	65
The present volume of TNA is adequate to solve your current problems	13	65
Training needs will only be fulfilled if they are in line with the organisation's strategic needs	12	60

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

▪ *Section C: Training Decisions*

This section, provides information on how training decisions concerning who should attend, and what the training programmes should consist of, are made.

− *Involvement in selecting the trainees*: In answering the question relating to the selection of trainees, eleven of the twenty interviewees said that they personally were involved in the process, whereas the nine remaining said they had no involvement whatsoever.

− *Methods of selecting employees for training*: In answering the question relating to the methods of selecting employees within the ADP for training initiatives, the interviewees presented their responses in six categories, which are shown in Table 6.8, and are ranked according to the highest percentage responses.

Table 6.8: Methods of selecting employees for training

Methods of selecting employees for training	Yes	%
Supervisor's recommendation	16	80
Employees applied to attend (employees' desire)	13	65
Employees were directed to attend	13	65
Suggestion in performance appraisal forms	12	60
Discussing the course with training manager and putting their names forward	9	45
Employees were chosen by their colleagues to represent their department	4	20

N=20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

- *Criteria for selecting employees for training*: In answering the question, relating to the criteria used in the selection of trainees in the ADP, the interviewees said that the selection of trainees for training in the ADP was based on the criteria shown in Table 6.9, which presents the responses of the participants according to the highest percentage.

Table 6.9:Criteria for Selecting employees for training

Criteria for selecting employees for training	Yes	%
Their annual performance appraisal	15	75
The views of their boss	14	70
The decision of the training committee	12	60
Their academic qualification	12	60
Their position	11	55
The length of service	7	35
Their seniority and willingness	5	25

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

- *Forms of training in the ADP*: In answering this question, eighteen of the interviewees in this group stated that the ADP concentrate on providing off-the-job training. For this the ADP also seek assistance from external professional organisations that are also training providers. The reason for seeking assistance from outside organisations is given as being to take advantage of such expertise in developing strategic training plans in the training process in general. Only two participants emphasised that the ADP provide on-the-job training.

▪ *Section D: Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis*

This section provides information on the extent of the strategic nature of the training function, and its overall role in shaping the ADP's strategy

– *Application of learning from the training programmes in the ADP*: In answering this question, nine of the interviewees stated that the ADP employees do apply what they have learned in training programmes in their workplace. On the other hand, eleven of them (more than half) specifically said that they do not apply this learning, because certain difficulties stand in their way, and these barriers to application are as follows:

- Applying what they have learned in training programmes sometimes requires a change in the workflow, which conflicts with the views of managers.

- The training programmes that individuals have attended were inappropriate for their job needs.

- The employee him/herself is not suitable for the particular job to which they are assigned.

- Sometimes there is a conflict between the nature of the work and what has been learned in the training programmes because it is not suitable to the nature of the work or because the right training programme has not been selected.

- Employees themselves are sometimes not keen to apply what they have learned in training programmes, because they don't believe what they have learned is sensible/applicable.

- The current systems do not allow for the implementation of new ideas.

- Some of the trainees are disinterested in the training courses they attend, do not absorb the contents, and consequently do not learn anything.

- Employees can only apply what they have learned in the training programmes if the curriculum is closely allied with the nature of their work, i.e. if the programmes are not too theoretical.

- Sometimes requests to attend specialised courses are refused for reasons unknown or because there are too few applicants to offer such a course, and this means that officers take second best, and thereby following programmes that are not entirely suited to their job needs.

– *Effectiveness of the existing method of conducting TNA in the ADP*: Eleven of the interviewees in this group stated that the methods of conducting TNA in the ADP are ideal, but they did indicate that there should be more co-ordination between the training department, and other departments when it comes to analysing the actual training needs. They felt that best practice should be used to ensure the outcomes of the TNA were valuable to the organisation. However, they did say that the methods in current use did help the ADP because they:

- Help to develop the skills of staff

- Identify the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation and the individuals within it

- Lead to increased awareness among staff and attention to specialised courses and the importance of having such courses available

- Promote a high level of training performance within the organisation

- Allow the organisation to achieve excellence and compete with other organisations

- Provide effective results and easy application of the principles taught

- Use staff who are highly qualified in conducting TNA and who are able to do this in the full knowledge of the developments occurring within the ADP. This has come about as a result of changes in the ADP to improve the qualifications of those involved in TNA.

Nevertheless, despite these favourable comments by just over 50% of the interviewees, the remaining nine individuals, expressed the opinions that the situation was not ideal, and cited the causes of problems as follows:

- The environment is a rapidly changing one, and there needs to be continual updating and development of the methods used in TNA to ensure that the results obtained are accurate and that the training outcome is appropriate for both the organisation and the individuals concerned.

- There is insufficient on-going communication with departments to identify training needs, and communication levels need to be enhanced.

– *Assessing the Effectiveness of TNA*: The outcomes of responses to questions aimed at establishing how the effectiveness of the TNA process is evaluated in the ADP, are shown in Table 6.10, with the answers being ranked according to the percentage response.

Table 6.10: Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis

Effectiveness of Training needs analysis	Yes	%
Training was consciously linked to the Abu Dhabi Police's strategic plans	20	100
Training objectives are in harmony with the Abu Dhabi Police's culture	19	95
You seek the support and commitment from Top management to provide all the facilitation to training activities	18	90
The organisation has a clear on-going plan for training	18	90
The job description of the employee's job is reviewed prior to deciding on the training programme to be undertaken by the employee.	17	85
Policies and plans related to training are flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances	17	85
Employees are motivated to participate in the TNA process	17	85
The job-related competency requirements are ranked according to their importance	17	85
The current skill/competency level of employees is assessed prior to deciding on the training programme to be undertaken by the employee	17	85
You have access to the Abu Dhabi Police's objectives and strategies	16	80
You have decided on the desired competency level you expect an employee to reach after training	16	80
You determined the knowledge, skills and attitudes an employee must have in order to perform the job successfully	16	80
You emphasise cost effectiveness training to assess the effectiveness of training needs analysis	15	75
The relationship between the training staff/external training specialists and line managers is based on mutual understanding and an exchange of ideas to solve problems related to human resource development	14	70
Before considering training, you carefully assessed if the problem could have been somewhere else (such as the work environment, the tools, and reward systems)	13	65

N=20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

- *Section E: Barriers to Training Needs Analysis (Problems and Challenges)*

This section provides data regarding the barriers (general, organisational, cultural or technological) that affect the TNA process in the ADP. The participants' responses to this line of questioning are stated below:

- Needs analysis technique fails to produce reliable information
- Organisational culture (norms, values, beliefs, bureaucratic policies, etc) works against effective TNA

- Trainees are unable to fully describe their training needs

- Not enough time to identify training needs

- Lack of personnel to identify training needs

- Family, nepotism, kinship and personal relationships between the supervisors and employees.

− *Further improvement of TNA in the ADP*: In answering the question relating to the further improvement of TNA in the ADP, all the interviewees believed that there was definitely room for this to happen, and especially, they emphasised the need for a more structured process, more information about personal needs, and more information about future training needs.

6.2.2 Presentation of Primary Data of Sample Group Two: Trainers

- *Section A: Demographic Data*

Several questions were asked in this section. Data on the educational background of the trainers is presented in Table 6.11, and of their age group in Table 6.12.

Table 6.11: Educational Background - Sample Group Two

Respondents Group	High School	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	Not specified
Trainers	1	2	4	4	0
Total	1	2	4	4	0

N=11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

Table 6.12: Age Group - Sample Group Two

Respondents Group	25 < 34	35 < 44	45 and above
Trainees	6	5	0
Total	6	5	0

N= 11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

- *Section B: Current Practices of Training Needs Analysis (TNA)*

The questions relating to the current practices of TNA in the ADP were asked in this section, and the responses are presented below:

− *Conducting TNA in the ADP*: Eight of the eleven (11) interviewees said they were not involved in conducting TNA in the ADP, and three said they did this once a year.

- *Importance of TNA in the ADP*: The reasons why TNA is important in the ADP as given by all the interviewees in the trainers group were:
    - For the development of employee skills so they could do their jobs and assist in developing future training plans
    - To improve and promote the work performance to ensure the quality of the work undertaken
    - To raise the efficiency of employees, to develop training plans as needed, and to estimate the budget for training
    - To discover the extent of the development work required to meet the strategy of the ADP and increase work efficiency
    - To improve employees' performance and consequently, organisational performance
    - To provide individuals with the skills required for developing the organisation in general.
    - To determine the training needs of departments and their employees
    - To obtain sufficient information to help raise the performance of the organisation and to discover the skills needed for their employees
- *Levels of TNA in the ADP*: In answering the question relating to the levels that are used in conducting TNA in the ADP, six of the interviewees in this group said that all the levels are considered: organisation, task/operational, and person/individual analysis. However, the other five interviewees believed there was a greater emphasis on the person/individual level than on the other two levels.
- *Method of Assessing Training Needs:* Table 6.13 shows the methods used in the ADP to identify the needs of the trainees, according to the trainers, with data presented according to percentages.

Table 6.13: Methods of Assessing Training Needs

Training Need Assessment Methods	Yes	%
Through job descriptions for individuals in your organisation	11	100
Group interviews with managers and supervisors	8	73
Direct Observation	8	73
Performance appraisal information or results	8	73
Skills, Knowledge, and Abilities (KSAs) tests	6	55
Questionnaires	5	45
Personal face-to-face interviews with employees	5	45
Determination through special training committee	4	36

N= 11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Criteria for selecting the TNA data collection methods*: In considering the criteria used to select the method for collecting data needed by the TNA in the ADP, the interviewees gave the responses indicated in Table 6.14, where the responses are ranked according to the highest percentage.

Table 6.14: Criteria for Selecting the TNA Data Collection Methods

Criteria for Selecting the TNA Data Collection Methods	Yes	%
Time required	11	100
Top management preferences	8	73
Employees' acceptance	7	64
Cost-effectiveness	7	64
Ease of use	6	55
Organisational Culture and values	5	45
Sample size	5	45
Expertise of the HR staff	4	36
Confidentiality	2	18

N= 11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Sources of Data in different levels*: In answering the questions relating to the sources of data in different levels of TNA in the ADP, the interviewees responded as shown in Table 6.15, where the data are presented according to the highest percentage.

Table 6.15: Sources of Data in Different Levels

Sources of Data in Different Levels		
Organisational Level	**Yes**	**%**
Organisational goal and objectives	11	100
Management request	7	64
Changes in the system and sub-system	7	64
Manpower inventory	4	36
Skills inventory	3	27
Organisational climate indices	3	27
Operational Level	**Yes**	**%**
Job description	11	100
Job specification	11	100
Performance standards	11	100
Relevant literature concerning the job	1	9

Individual Level	Yes	%
Performance appraisal data	11	100
Skills, Knowledge and Abilities (KSAs) tests results	9	82
Supervisor's suggestion	7	64
Attitude survey	3	27
Assessment survey	2	18

N=11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Perceptions of TNA Practices*: In answering the question relating to the overall perceptions of TNA practices in the ADP, the interviewees gave responses as presented in Table 6.16, where the data are shown according to the highest percentage.

Table 6.16: Perceptions of TNA Practices

Overall Perceptions Regarding TNA Practices	Yes	%
TNA emphasised in organisation's training practices to ensure training effectiveness	11	100
TNA ensures that organisational needs are linked with employee needs	11	100
The management of this organisation believes that the TNA process is cost effective	11	100
TNA determines the 'where', 'what' and 'who' decisions of training	10	91
It provides a benchmark for evaluating training and records the justification for the training budget.	10	91
The management of this organisation believes that TNA is central for improving the training effectiveness	10	91
TNA methods used by the ADP produce clear, relevant, specific data on performance discrepancies	9	82
TNA is conducted to differentiate performance problems caused by employees' lack of skills, knowledge and abilities (KSAs) and problems caused by other factors	9	82
Top managers are committed to the TNA function	9	82
The planning of TNA initiatives is congruent with your corporate culture	9	82
TNA methods used by the ADP make it possible to distinguish between training that employees need and training that they want	7	64
The present volume of TNA is adequate to solve your current problems	7	64
Training needs will only be fulfilled if they are in line with the organisation's strategic needs	5	45

N=11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

▪ *Section C: Training Decisions*

This section, presents information on how training decisions are made in terms of who should attend and what training programmes are launched.

− *Involvement in selecting the trainees*: In answering the question relating to the selection of trainees, six of the eleven interviewees stated that they were

involved in this process whereas the other five said that they had no direct involvement.

− *Methods of selecting employees for training*: In answering the question relating to the methods of selecting employees of the ADP for training, the responses are as shown in Table 6.17, where data are presented based on the highest percentage.

Table 6.17: Methods of Selecting Employees for Training

Methods of Selecting Employees for Training	Yes	%
Suggestion in performance appraisal forms	7	64
Supervisor's recommendation	7	64
Employees applied to attend (employees' desire)	7	64
Discussing the course with training manager and putting their names forward	7	64
Employees were chosen by their colleagues to represent their department	6	55
Employees were directed to attend	5	45

N=11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Criteria for selecting employees for training*: In answering the question relating to the criteria for selection of trainees in the ADP, the interviewees in this group said that this was based on several factors, which appear in Table 6.18, where the data are presented based on the highest percentage.

Table 6.18: Criteria for selecting Employees for Training

Criteria forselecting employees for training	Yes	%
Their annual performance appraisal	9	82
Their academic qualification	9	82
Their position	8	73
The views of their boss	7	64
The decision of the training committee	7	64
Their seniority and willingness	6	55
The length of service	5	45

N=11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Forms of training in the ADP*: In answering this question, all the eleven interviewees stated that the ADP used off-the-job training. Eight of them emphasised that the ADP used off-the- job training but outside the organization and five of them also emphasised off-the- job training within the organisation.

− *Assistance from outside organisations for training*: In answering this question eight of the interviewees felt that the ADP seek assistance from training

providers external to the Force. The reason given was to take advantage of the expertise of such professional organisations in developing strategic training plans in the training process in general.

- ▪ *Section D: Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis*

This section provides information on the strategic nature of the training function and the role it plays in shaping the overall strategy of the ADP Force.

− *Application of learning from the training programmes in the ADP*: In answering this question, only five of the interviewees in this group stated that the employees of the ADP apply what they have learned in their training programmes in their service life. They did at the same time say it was sometimes difficult for them to actually do that. The remaining six interviewees in this sample did not agree with this statement. According to one of the participants, not everything learned through training could be applied in the reality because the employee has to be willing and eager to put the theory into practice, and that cannot be guaranteed.

− *Effectiveness of existing method of conducting TNA in the ADP*: Five of the interviewees in this group stated that the methods of TNA in the ADP were actually ideal, but the other six (more than half,) disagreed with this statement.

− *Assessing the Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis:* In answering the question regarding the process of assessing the effectiveness of TNA in the ADP, the participants gave opinions as shown in Table 6.19, where data are presented based on the highest percentage.

Table 6.19: Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis

Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis	Yes	%
Employees are motivated to participate in the TNA process	11	100
The job-related competency requirements are ranked according to their importance	10	91
Before considering training, you carefully assessed if the problem could have been somewhere else (such as the work environment, the tools, and reward systems)	10	91
The organisation has a clear on-going plan for training	10	91
You have access to the Abu Dhabi Police's objectives and strategies	10	91
Training objectives are in harmony with the Abu Dhabi Police culture	10	91
The relationship between the training staff/external training specialists and line managers is based on mutual understanding and an exchange of ideas to solve problems related to human resource development	9	82

Training is consciously linked to the Abu Dhabi Police's strategic plans	9	82
You seek the support and commitment from Top management to provide all the facilitation to training activities	9	82
Policies and plans related to training are flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances	9	82
You decided on the desired competency level you expected an employee to reach after training	9	82
The current skill/competency level of employees was assessed prior to deciding on the training programme to be undertaken by the employee	9	82
You emphasise cost effectiveness training to assess the effectiveness of training needs analysis	9	82
You determined the knowledge, skills and attitudes an employee must have in order to perform the job successfully	8	73
The job description of the employee's job was reviewed prior to deciding on the training programme to be undertaken by the employee	6	55

N=11, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

- *Section E: Barriers to Training Needs Analysis (Problems and Challenges)*

This section provides data regarding the barriers (general, organisational, cultural or technological) that affect the TNA process in the ADP. The responses to this question are as follows:

- Trainees' supervisors lack expertise in how to conduct TNA
- Not enough time to identify training needs
- Lack of personnel to identify training needs
- Family, nepotism, kinship and personal relationships between the supervisors and employees
- Performance appraisal of employees is not designed to indicate individual training needs
- Miscommunication between the employees and their supervisors

- *Further improvement of the TNA in the ADP*: In answering the question relating to the further improvement of the TNA in the ADP, all the respondents in this sample group stated that there is need for more information about job issues, more information about company issues, and to use additional TNA techniques.

6.2.3 Presentation of Primary Data of Sample Group Three: Trainees

- *Section A: Demographic Data*

In this section, several questions were asked of the sample population, but the extremely important one was concerning the educational background of the

interviewees. The data in this respect appears in Table 6.20, and the age group of the interviewees is given in Table 6.21.

Table 6.20: Educational Background - Sample Group Three

Respondents Group	High School	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	Not specified
Trainees	8	2	6	2	2
Total	8	2	6	2	2

N=20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

Table 6.21: Age Group - Sample Group Three

Respondents Group	25 < 34	35 < 44	45 and above
Trainees	12	8	0
Total	12	8	0

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

▪ *Section B: Current Practices of Training Needs Analysis*

The questions relating to the current practices of TNA in the ADP were asked in this section, and the responses are presented below:

– *Discussion on training needs between Supervisor and the Trainees*: Fifteen (15) of the trainees concurred that their supervisor asked them about their training needs, while five interviewees reported that they were never asked for their opinions in this matter. Sixteen of the trainees stated that they had been appraised less than 12 months ago, while the remaining four said that they had been appraised more than 12 months ago. Concerning the recommendations of their supervisors, fourteen trainees said that they were recommended for specific training while six of them reported that they had not been recommended for any specific training.

– *Job Description and Responsibilities*: All twenty trainees said that they had been given a job description, and all but one of these confirmed that all their duties and responsibilities had been clearly stated in it. Fourteen trainees said that to a great extent the job description was related to their job, four believed the job description was only related to their job to some extent, and the remaining two felt that it was only related to a little extent.

– *Methods of Assessing Training Needs*: Table 6.22 shows the methods used in the ADP to identify the needs of the trainees, with data being presented according to the highest percentage.

Table 6.22: Methods of Assessing Training Needs

Training Need Assessment Methods	Yes	%
Through job descriptions for individuals in your organisation	18	90
Performance appraisal information or results	17	85
Determination through special training committee	13	65
Questionnaires	12	60
Group interviews with managers and supervisors	11	55
Direct Observation	9	45
Personal face-to-face interviews with employees	8	40
Skills, Knowledge, and Abilities (KSAs) tests	4	20

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

– *Perceptions on TNA Practices*: In answering the question relating to the overall perceptions of TNA practices in the ADP, the trainees gave responses as presented in Table 6.23, with data ranked according to the highest percentage.)

Table 6.23: Perceptions of TNA Practices

Overall perceptions regarding TNA practices	Yes	%
The management of this organisation believes that TNA is central for improving the training effectiveness	20	100
TNA is emphasised in the organisation's training practices to ensure training effectiveness	20	100
TNA is conducted to differentiate performance problems caused by employees' lack of skills, knowledge and abilities (KSAs) and problems caused by other factors.	18	90
It provides a benchmark for evaluating training and records the justification for the training budget.	18	90
TNA ensures that organisational needs are linked with employees' needs	18	90
TNA determines the 'where', 'what' and 'who' decisions of training	17	85
Training needs will only be fulfilled if they are in line with the organisation's strategic needs	16	80
TNA methods used by the Abu Dhabi Police produce clear, relevant, specific data on performance discrepancies	16	80
The management of this organisation believes that the TNA process is cost effective	16	80
The present volume of TNA is adequate to solve your current problems	16	80
TNA methods used by the ADP make it possible to distinguish between training that employees need and training that they want	15	75
Top managers are committed to the TNA function	15	75

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

▪ *Section C: Training Decisions*

In this section, various questions were asked and the responses are shown in the following tables.

– *Approaches used to Select Trainees*: Different approaches are used to select trainees for different training programmes, and when giving their opinions

regarding the best approaches, the trainees made statements as shown in Table 6.24, where data are presented based on the highest percentage.

Table 6.24: Approaches Used to Select Employees for Training

Approaches Used to Select Employees for Training	Yes	%
My supervisor's recommendation	14	70
I applied to attend (My personal desire)	17	85
I was directed to attend	12	60
Suggestion in performance appraisal forms	12	60
I was a replacement for someone who could not attend	3	15
I was chosen by my colleagues to represent my department	1	5

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Personal ties with the Supervisors*: In answering the question about the personal ties with their supervisors and the decisions to attend the training programmes by the trainees, fourteen of the twenty interviewees said that personal ties with senior executives and their relationships with top management had enabled them to obtain places on training programmes. On the other hand, six others argued that personal ties had not helped them to obtain training

− *Reasons to attend the ADP training programmes*: Different reasons are responsible for individuals attending training programmes, and Table 6.25 reports the answers as offered by the trainees when asked about this issue. The data in Table 6.25 are presented according to the highest percentage.

Table 6.25: Reasons to attend Abu Dhabi Police Training Programmes

Reasons	Yes	%
To enhance the performance of my current job	20	100
To get a certificate	19	95
To acquire new knowledge and skills for promotion	19	95
To meet people	13	65
The course was compulsory	6	30

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Criteria for the selection of trainees*: In answering the question regarding the selection criteria used when choosing individuals to receive training, the respondents mentioned several factors as shown in Table 6.26, which reveals the outcome according to the highest percentage.

Table 6.26: Criteria for the selection of trainees

Criteria for the selection of trainees	Yes	%
Their annual performance appraisal	16	80
The views of their boss	16	80
The decision of the training committee	15	75
Their academic qualification	17	85
Their position	9	45
Their seniority and willingness	7	35
The length of service	7	35

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

− *Different Training Programmes and the ADP*: The ADP is using a variety of different training programmes for the development of trainees within the organisation, and when answering the question about this issue, the interviews gave responses as shown in Table 6.27, which presents the data according to the highest percentage.

Table 6.27: Forms of Training Programmes in the ADP

Forms of Training	Yes	%
External Training outside the organisation	18	90
Off the Job Training within the organisation	13	65
On Job Training	9	45

N= 20, *Source: Fieldwork*(2011-2012)

▪ *Section D: Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis*

In this section the questions relating to the effectiveness of TNA, and especially the strategic position of TNA in the ADP were asked. The responses are described below.

− *Relatedness of the Training Programmes*: Concerning the relevance of the training programmes to the actual needs of the trainees, seventeen of the interviewees reported that the training programmes they followed were very much related to their needs, while the three remaining trainees said they were of little relevance.

− *Use of Learning from the Training Programmes*: In answering the question relating to the use of learning from the training programmes organised by the ADP, fourteen of the interviewees said that it was easy for them to use the learning from these training initiatives in their specific jobs, while the other six said that they did not apply what they had learned.

– *Appropriateness of existing TNA Methods in the ADP*: Responding to the question relating to the appropriateness of the existing methods of TNA used by the ADP, thirteen of the interviewees stated that these were appropriate whereas the other seven said that they were not ideal.

- ▪ *Section E: Barriers to Training Needs Analysis*

In this section, questions relating to the general, cultural and technological barriers to the implementation of TNA were asked, and the responses are given below, ranked in order of frequency.

- ▪ Lack of personnel to identify training needs
- ▪ Needs analysis technique fails to produce reliable information
- ▪ Family, nepotism, kinship and personal relationships between the supervisors and employees
- ▪ Organisational culture (norms, values, beliefs, bureaucratic policies, etc)
- ▪ Top management in our organisation is only interested in the result of the training
- ▪ Lack of support for needs assessments from top management
- *Further improvement of the ADP's TNA*: In answering the question relating to the further improvement of TNA within the ADP, the trainees all believed that there was a need for better communication with the top management and for further involvement of the employees themselves in the process.

6.3 Discussion and Analysis of Data

This section discusses the findings and the results that have emerged from the analysis of the data collected in the empirical work presented earlier in this chapter. It focuses on the main aim and the related objectives of the research, and in so doing, it links the theory as espoused in the literature with the findings obtained from the empirical aspect of the study. The chapter interprets the results, triangulates these, and reflects upon them, making comparisons with the results secured in other related studies. In each aspect of the findings, reference to existing theoretical perspectives is made. On the basis of the overall discussion, a recommended conceptual framework is constructed which aims to achieve greater effectiveness of the TNA function.

6.3.1   Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

In terms of demographic information, it was the academic qualification(s) and age of the participants that was of interest. The findings in this respect are now discussed.

▪ *Academic Background*

Data on the educational background of the three sample groups shows that 46% of interviewees were bachelors' degree holders, and amongst the senior executives, the percentage of individuals qualified in this way was almost 60%. Not surprisingly, fewer people were qualified with a Master's degree, a total of 20% of those interviewed, and actually no individual from the senior executives category held a Master's degree. A significant number of interviewees were holders of a higher diploma only, a fact which indicated the low level of education of the participants, and which was indeed very alarming. Table 6.28 reveals the participants' academic background.

Table 6.28 : Educational Background of the Participants

Participants Group	High School	Diploma	Bachelor	Master	Not specified
Senior Executives	3	0	13	4	0
Trainers	1	2	4	4	0
Trainees	8	2	6	2	2
Total	**12**	**4**	**23**	**10**	**2**

N=51, Source: Table 6.2, 6.11 and 6.20

▪ *Age Group*

Data on the age of the sample population shows that nearly 50% of all individuals were in the middle age group between 35 and 44 years old. Of that age group, the senior executives made up 44%, which is perhaps not surprising as one might expect seniority to go hand in hand with long service and age. The other large distribution is seen in the low age group which accounted for 46% of all participants, the largest single sample group in that age band being the trainees who accounted for 48% of the band. This finding indicates that the majority of trainees are young and that theoretically they should be able to receive effective training. Only four individuals fell into the oldest category, and again, not surprisingly, these were senior executives.

Table 6.29: Age Group of the Participants

Respondents Group	25 < 34	35 < 44	45 and above
Senior Executives	5	11	4
Trainers	6	5	0
Trainees	12	8	0
Total	**23**	**24**	**4**

N= 51, Source: Table 6.3, 6.12, and 6.21

6.3.2   Current Practices of Training Needs Analysis at ADP

The review of the literature on training and TNA provided in Chapter Two shows that a systematic approach to training should begin with TNA. Understanding employee training needs has been shown to be important, not least because it ensures the effective use of resources, and provides the answer as to whether training is the appropriate solution for employee performance deficiencies (Guthrie and Schwoerer, 1994; Brookes, 1995). In this regard, Bee and Bee (2003) assert that assessing training needs plays a very important role in identifying individuals who need to be trained, in designing the programme that relates to the needs of both individuals and the organisation, allocating the required time, determining the programme objectives and the required skills, and determining the required resources for implementing the programme. It is accepted that TNA should be based on analysing organisational tasks or jobs and personal needs, and not simply on one source of analysis. Consequently, this section focuses on investigating the practice of TNA from different perspectives, that is to say, from the viewpoints of senior executives, trainers, and trainees.

In order to understand the whole picture of the TNA process in the ADP, participants were asked different important questions regarding the regularity of conducting the TNA process, discussion on training needs between supervisors and trainees, TNA methods, criteria used when selecting the TNA data collection methods, the importance of TNA in the ADP, levels of TNA in the ADP, sources of data in different levels, and level of perceptions of TNA practices. The responses are discussed and analysed under several themes.

- *Involvement with Training Needs Analysis activities*

The level of involvement with the TNA activities conducted in the ADP was investigated, and participants in groups one and two which is a total of thirty one interviewees were asked this question. Of these 60% participants stated that they were not directly involved with the TNA activities undertaken by the ADP, but that they were indirectly involved with the process. On the other hand 40% of them stated that they are actively involved with different assignments in ADP's TNA activities, such as identifying and analysing training needs and measuring the impact of the training.

- *Discussion on training needs between Supervisors and Trainees*

The importance of discussing training needs was investigated by asking the trainees this question: Did your supervisor discuss your training needs with you before attending the programme?

Group three which is a total of twenty participants were asked this question, 30% of whom confirmed that their supervisor had asked them about their training needs, while 70%reported that they were never asked about their training needs. With respect to this, one of the trainees said:

"We don't have to identify and discuss our training needs. What we do is look at the training brochure that ADP provides and then choose the appropriate programme".

Moreover, of the sample, 80% stated that they were appraised less than 12 months ago, while 20%others said that they were appraised more than 12 months ago. In respect of recommendations by the supervisors, 70% of the sample of trainees said that they were recommended for specific training while 30% of them reported that they were not.

- *Conducting Training Needs Analysis in the Abu Dhabi Police*

Peterson (1994) indicated that in some cases the TNA process might be carried out by the organisation's own training department. Therefore, the senior executives and trainers were asked whether this was the situation in the ADP, i.e. whether they conducted their own formal TNA and, if so, how often this occurred. Groups one and

two which is a thirty-one participants were asked these questions, and 75% of the sample did say that TNA was conducted by the ADP on a regular basis. In addition, the majority answered that they undertook the TNA process annually. However, this left 25% of the sample who said that they did not conduct TNA in-house but instead asked for specialists to do this, and retained their involvement with the process by virtue of adopting a supervisory role. Hence, whether conducted by internal or external experts, the ADP does instigate a TNA exercise on a regular basis, every year. According to Nadler and Nadler (1990), training needs should not only be assessed once in the training cycle, since the process is continually being influenced by a variety of environmental factors that have the potential to affect all the T&D outcomes. Hence, training needs should be assessed in different stages, and the TNA process should be flexible enough to consider any urgent training needs that may arise unexpectedly.

This finding is consistent with other researchers' results. For example, Abdullah (2009) found that more than 92% of the large-scale industries (LSIs) and more than 60% of the small-medium industries (SMIs) in Malaysia had their HRD needs assessed and analysed. On the other hand, about a third (38%) of the SMIs reported that they had never had any needs assessment, whilst only a small number (7.9 %) of the LSIs reported the same. In her study, Altarawneh (2005) found over half of the Jordanian banking organisations that she surveyed declared that their organisations conducted TNA on a regular basis. And in a study of the Jordanian private and public sectors, Abu-Doleh (2004) found that more than two-thirds (80%) of the private organisations and nearly 65% of their counterparts in the public sector reported assessing their T&D needs on a regular basis. Wilkins (2001) found that 82% of UAE companies had a formal process for assessing their employees' training needs. Moreover, Al-Athari (2000) found that 73% of the surveyed Kuwaiti private and public organisations in his study conducted TNA on a regular basis, while 13% did not conduct it at all. Al-Ali (1999) found that 52% of the Kuwaiti public organisations conducted TNA on a regular basis, while 32% of the private/joint venture organisations occasionally did so. However, Albahussain (2000) found that just 29% of the medium-sized Saudi organisations and 42% of the large Saudi organisations which he surveyed conducted TNA on a regular basis, and that the majority of these organisations undertook the process only occasionally.

The mere fact that TNA is conducted on a regular (annual) basis does not, however, necessarily reflect that the process is discharged effectively. Moreover, training needs are not static and do not appear to order to a strict timetable of events, meaning that it is not sensible to assess them once a year at a specific time. Clearly, training needs assessment should be on-going, depending upon the organisation's growth and general conditions. Furthermore, needs should be assessed against formal documentation detailing what employees are supposed to do.

Consequently, the trainees were asked to indicate whether they had been given written job descriptions explaining their duties and responsibilities. It was encouraging to learn that all the trainees did have a job description in which all the duties and responsibilities were stated, and with only one exception, they all said that their job descriptions were quite clear in their expectations of them. Probing the issue further, essentially exploring whether the job description actually did relate to the practicalities of their jobs, it was seen that60% of trainees believed that the job was related to their job description. Only 20% of the trainees said that their job descriptions was very little relation to what they actually did. Moreover, only 20% of them said the job description was to a little extent related.

- *The Importance of Training Needs Analysis in the Abu Dhabi Police*

As of Denby (2010, p.147) training can be an extremely powerful and cost effective investment by an organisation, but only if it is implemented to match and complement the business's needs and objectives. It can help to expand the scope of available skills within the workforce as well as improve on existing expertise, all with the goal of improving the business's efficiency and effectiveness. And enhancing the capabilities of the team can even support retention, as staff feel empowered and invested in, and better equipped to deal with their daily activities.

However, the prerequisite to any effective training effective is the completion of a TNA since without such an exercise, valuable budget may be wasted on coaching and guidance that is unnecessary, and which ultimately does not deliver a return on investment through the delivery of a positive impact on the bottom line (Denby,

2010). Therefore, interviewees from group one and two were asked this question: Why does the ADP conduct TNA?

All the participants were able to provide some answers to this question, and in general, the reasons offered were: it helps to keep up with modern developments that are supportive of the reality, it ensures that the Force is ready for the future, it helps with the development of the future training plan, and it helps to design training programmes. Moreover, TNA was seen as helping to determine the best technique to meet the training needs, to know the skills needed for the employees to enhance their performance, to avoid mistakes in the future when determining training needs, to know the weaknesses of the staff, to find out the causes of failure in training, to determine the training needs of specific departments and their employees, and to obtain sufficient information to help raise the performance of the organisation. This long list of reasons for conducting TNA reveals that the majority of employees are aware of the importance of the TNA process and the positive benefits to be derived from it in terms of training within the ADP. In this context, the following statements are quoted from two top managers:

> *"If training needs are assessed properly, and training programmes are implemented and the right people are nominated for training, then I do not see that this could be a waste of money and time, rather I think this would be a long-term investment for the company, provided that the funds are available and enough". (Head of department, ADP)*

"I think it all starts from excellent TNA, thus if training programmes are built on real work needs this will make training more practical, easy to apply and useful in solving work problems". (Head of section, ADP)

■ *Levels of Training Needs Analysis in the Abu Dhabi Police*

With regard to levels used in conducting TNA, senior executives and trainers were asked to indicate which levels they focus on. In response, 65% of participants indicated that TNA was conducted at the organisational level. This finding leads one to question the value of TNA in helping the organisation to achieve its objectives. According to Goldstein and Ford (2002), in order for training to be able to contribute

to the achievement of organisational objectives, TNA must first examine the context of the organisation. Therefore, unless TNA is based on genuine organisational need analysis little can be said about the usefulness and contribution of these assessments in helping the organisation to achieve its strategic objectives (Abu-Doleh, 2004). In addition, much emphasis was placed on the operational level and the individual level rather than on the organisational level. Indeed, the majority of the interviewees indicated that TNA was conducted at the individual level and functional level (100% individual level and 80% operational level). In this context, one manager added the comment:

> *"In order to achieve a successful and effective TNA outcome organizations need to adopt all levels of TNA, otherwise the results will be poor." (Branch Manager, ADP)*

The above findings indicate that the ADP has some kind of strategic approach to TNA practice because there is a commitment to analyse all three level of needs and take into consideration the overall requirements of the organisation and employees' performance, but there is room for a greater focus on the organisational level since 35% of interviewees did not believe this was at the heart of the TNA.

- *Methods of Assessing Training Needs*

All the interviewees were asked about the methods used in the ADP for assessing training needs, and a large majority (86%) indicated that the training needs are established on the basis of the job description. A similarly large majority (82%) also stated that performance appraisal played a large part in the assessment. Hence, it would appear that job descriptions, and how well the job incumbents appear to be discharging their duties, as seen through appraisal, form the basis of the assessment of their training needs. Interestingly, all the trainees believed that their job descriptions motivated the training needs which the organisation assigned to them. Furthermore, more than half of the research sample confirmed that group discussions led by managers and supervisors with the employees and the training committee also occurred and played a part in determining training needs. Conversely, some methods are little used in the ADP in the TNA process, and these are: direct observation, Skills, Knowledge, and Abilities (KSAs) tests, questionnaires, and face-to-face

interviews with employees. With respect to TNA methodology, performance appraisal appeared to be the best and in this context two participants stated that:

> *"Training needs should be assessed using scientific methods and based on employees' performance appraisal records. We need to know how to assess TNA accurately, how to nominate our employees and how to choose trainers."*

> *"A systematic review of the employees' current performance should be done based on their annual performance reports to determine their skill and knowledge levels. Accordingly, the organization knows who needs training on what, who had training but it has not changed his/her performance and why not, and who we do not need anymore."*

On the other hand, few participants mentioned weaknesses in common TNA methods that made them impractical for ADP's use:

> *"TNA by traditional methods (questionnaire surveys, interviews, assessment centres) are time-consuming in nature. That is why we emphasize a practical approach more, namely on-site observations and SKAs tests." (Trainer ADP)*

> *"Geographical diverse locations and number of subsidiaries and divisions and sometimes it can be tedious. A software solution should be able to resolve this concern". (Trainer ADP)*

In this context, Altarawneh (2005) found that the most commonly used TNA methods in the Jordanian banking organisations were questionnaire, followed by interviewing employees' direct managers or supervisors, and then direct observation, whereas determination through a specialist training committee, job description, and performance records were used the least. Albahussain (2000) found that direct observation was the most popular TNA method used in the Saudi organisations, which he studied, and that this was followed by formal performance appraisal reports, with the questionnaire, the formal interview, and determination by the specialist training committee being the least used. Al-Athari (2000) also reported similar circumstances in public and private sector organisations in Kuwait, finding

that that direct observation of work practices followed by an examination of individual performance were the most important TNA techniques. And Agnaia (1996) found that the most commonly used assessment techniques by Libyan companies were performance appraisals followed by questionnaires, while interviews were the least used method.

The results from this study show that to a certain extent, all methods were used by the ADP to identify the training needs of the employees. However, the most popular method was performance appraisal forms and the job descriptions of individuals. This finding is of no surprise as performance appraisals are often considered the most common and widely used method in TNA (Brown, 2002; Agnaia, 1996), as in theory, they provide information about the achievements and productivity levels of individual employees. However, as discussed in Chapter Two, the use of this method is filled with shortcomings, and many researchers have warned of its weaknesses (Roberts, 2002; Leat and Lovell, 1997; Herbert and Doverspike, 1990). And certainly in a Middle Eastern environment where tribal affiliation, and personal relationships brought about by kinship affect the work environment, performance appraisals cannot be guaranteed as objective.

To sum up this discussion, it can be assumed from the results that the ADP does rely heavily on performance appraisals as a method to gather TNA data. This practice is considered acceptable only if companies have fulfilled certain criteria and taken necessary measures as discussed in Chapter Two in order to ensure that such appraisals are capable of accurately determining their training needs. However, there is also the fear that the ADP depends on this method without being seriously concerned as to whether or not it could produce meaningful TNA outcomes. Moreover, the least used methods were interviews with employees, and KSAs tests, which indicate that the ADP pays more attention to the job than to the individual. It can be seen from the practice of using appraisals that the organisation avoids meeting the employees directly, and simply tries to collect data from supervisors/line managers through the performance appraisal reporting system or from the job description. Sometimes this is because the aim of management is to analyse the job performance, and not to diagnose other factors relating to the individual doing his/her job. However, assessing training needs by performance reports does not precisely reflect the true situation of employees for many reasons. For example, the

reports may be unclear, may not have been prepared recently or may be subject to the family and friendship ties already mentioned, which are not surprising in a country like the UAE, where the individuals have strong solidarity with their family, friends and their tribes.

- *Criteria for selecting the Training Needs Analysis data collection methods*

In considering the criteria used to select the methods for collecting data for the TNA process in the ADP, group one and two of the participants were asked this question. All of the criteria in choosing data collection methods as suggested by Steadham (1980), and Brown (2002), were, to a certain extent, considered by the interviewees, but 75% of all participants said that top management preferences, and employee acceptance are the main basis of the TNA data collection method in the ADP. In order of importance, the remaining criteria considered by the organisation were: Time required, Cost-effectiveness, Organisational Culture and values, Expertise of the HR staff, Ease of use, Sample size, and Confidentiality. In addition, the similarities of findings can be seen when comparing the top seven criteria considered important by organisations in four studies, namely those conducted by Jamil (2006), Elbadri (2001), Gray *et al.* (1997) and this study.

Table 6.30: Seven Most Important Criteria in Choosing Data Collection Methods

Present research	Jamil (2006)	Elbadri (2001)	Gray *et al.*(1997)
Top management preferences	Desired outcomes	Relevancy and quantifiable data	Relevancy and quantifiable data
Employee acceptance	Organisational culture and values	Incumbent involvement	Acceptance likeliness by senior management, line managers, and target employees
Time required	Cost-effectiveness	Cost	Management and employee participation
Cost-effectiveness	Persons to be involved	Tim	Cost
Organisational Culture	Time required	Ease of use	Availability and expertise of HR staff to administer
Expertise of the HR staff	Degree of reliability and validity required	_____	Time required
Ease of use	Top management preferences	_____	Ease of use

Source: Fieldwork; Jamil, 2006; Elbadri, 2001; and Gray *et al.,* 1997

- *Sources of Data in different levels*

The participants of group one and two were asked to rate the extent to which they had referred to several sources of data as recommended by Blanchard and Thacker (2012). In performing TNA at the organisational level, 90% of the respondents claimed they referred to their organisational goals and objectives as the main data source. The next two most referred sources were management requests and changes in the system and sub-system. Skills inventory, manpower inventory, and organisational climate indices were not referred to as often as thought by the participants. It is assumed from this finding that the organisations paid sufficient attention to ensuring that their training efforts were in line with their strategic objectives.

The most important documents referred to in performing operational analysis were the Job Description, and Person Specification. And in the individual analysis, the participants claimed that they referred mainly to performance appraisal data and suggestions from supervisors. These results coincide with the overall findings of the study, which suggest that employees' performance and supervisors' views are important elements in their organisational TNA practices.

A few similarities and differences can be found when comparing these findings to those of the study by Erffmeyer *et al.*(1991). Firstly, organisational goals and objectives were considered important organisational level data sources in both studies. However, the findings of the present study are probably more encouraging as Erffmeyer*et al.* (1991) found management judgment the most important source of data, which could suggest an informal TNA approach. Secondly, all three data sources referred to mostly at the operational level were also considered as important in the Erffmeyer *el al.* (1991) study. However, the judgment of the top management was again prioritised in their study. The data sources referred to by the senior executives and trainers in the ADP at the individual level analysis were also more favourable compared to the data sources referred to by the ASTD members in the study by Erffmeyer *et al.* (1991), as the only important data source they referred to was top management's judgment.

- *Perceptions of Training Needs Analysis Practices*

The question relating to the overall perceptions of TNA practices in the ADP was asked of all participants, and the outcomes suggest that across the entire research sample (three groups) overall perceptions of the organisation's TNA practices were very visible.

The majority of the interviewees (98%) strongly agreed that the TNA process was emphasised in the organisation's training practices, and 92% of the management of the ADP believed that the process was central to the effort to improve training effectiveness. A very large majority (86%) believed that TNA determines the 'where', 'what' and 'who' decisions of training, and 78% of top managers expressed their commitment to the TNA function, with 71% of the population believing that the present volume of TNA activity was adequate to solve the current problems faced by the organisation. Considering the earlier findings, it can be concluded that the TNA process holds an important place in the organisation's training practices. This confirmed by the fact that the ADP had adopted some formal techniques and methods to analyse its training needs and had followed certain proper procedures to choose training participants. This finding concurs with Wilkins' (2001) study, which reported that 82% of the UAE companies who were involved in his research had claimed they undertook TNA before conducting actual training. The finding does, however, contrast with the results from most other studies discussed in Chapter Two (i.e. Agnaia, 1996; Gray *et al.*, 1997; Erffmeyer *et al.,* 1991) which reported the reverse.

A very large majority (90%) of the interviewees strongly felt that their training efforts were strategic in the sense that only needs that were in line with the organisation's mission were translated into training. This feeling is probably true for certain reasons. Firstly, it was found that the ADP considered organisational goals and objectives as its priority in the analysis of needs at the organisational level. Secondly, evidence was found to suggest that the organisation carried out all three levels of analyses in the TNA process as suggested by many scholars, and by so doing, helped the training efforts to be planned according to its strategic needs. Lastly, the organisation also adopted certain techniques, specifically the examination of both internal and external environments, to analyse its needs. This is important as it reveals that the organisation did not make the same errors in training as those

highlighted by Amos-Wilson (1996) who reported a mismatch between the overall organisational strategic needs and the types of training actually delivered by NGOs in the United Kingdom.

Moreover, more the half of the participants in the study seemed quite confident with the methods they used to analyse training needs. They felt that the techniques they adopted were capable of producing clear, relevant, and specific data on performance discrepancies. Most of them also perceived that the methods could differentiate between training 'wants' and 'needs'. It can be concluded that the methods in use by the organisation were up to standard and in line with scholars' suggestions for producing accurate training needs. However, if we look at the overall results of the study, specifically the TNA methods used in the organisation, a different conclusion can be made. It was found earlier that the most commonly used TNA method was performance appraisal forms, but in Chapter Two, it was stressed that such documentation could only be a useful method of gathering data for the TNA process if the appraisal forms themselves were properly designed and the appraisal system properly implemented in a transparent manner. For that reason, it is difficult to say how far the respondents' perceptions of whether the methods they used produced clear, relevant, and specific data on performance discrepancies, and whether these methods could genuinely distinguish 'wants' from 'needs', were actually a true reflection of the situation, since there is no evidence of whether the method used (in this case, performance appraisal forms) was indeed effective. In that sense, the results of the study probably do not differ much compared to those obtained by Gray *et al.*(1997), and Elbadri (2001), who both found mixed evidence concerning the same two statements.

Moreover, the participants felt that TNA conducted in their organisation could differentiate performance problems caused by employees' lack of KSAs and those caused by other non-KSAs factors. As mentioned in Chapter Two, this demarcation is critical for the success of training programmes and it is important for training needs analysts to understand the differences. The majority (86%) of the interviewees believed that the management of the ADP did think the TNA process was cost-effective and 80% of them also considered that the process provided a benchmark for evaluating training and also provided a justification for the training budget.

6.3.3   Training Decisions

This section provides a discussion of the information obtained regarding how training decisions are made in terms of who should attend and training programmes are involved. The total research sample for this question was comprised of thirty-one individuals as the trainees were not themselves included. The responses are given in the following sub-sections.

- *Involvement in selecting the trainees*

McCardle (1996) argues that engaging trainers in the work of TNA lies at the heart of the decision-making process in respect of selecting and designing effective training programmes. The quality of their work in discovering real training needs and then ensuring that those needs are dealt with productively is crucial to 'quality training' in the organisation. Consequently, the interviewees were asked to indicate whether they were involved in the selection of trainees, and from the outcomes it can be seen that nearly 70% of the, did have direct involvement in this matter.

- *Methods of selecting employees for training*

When managers and trainers were asked how the organisation selected training participants, they confirmed that a range of methods were used. 75% of the interviewees indicated that the supervisor's recommendation, and the performance appraisal form were the most common ways of deciding who should be earmarked for training. For instance the Human resource manager planning department pointed out that:

> *"The important thing about TNA is that training needs are assessed based on the nature and type of the relationships between the employee and his/her direct manager, who is responsible for nominating her/him to attend any training programmes; rather than being based on the annual employee performance record. Managers' mood, their preferences to one particular employee, is the most important motives in nominating trainees."*

The least popular methods of selecting employees for training were discussing the course with the training manager and putting their names forward (37%) by the training managers, and the method of being chosen by colleagues to represent the department was acknowledged by 22% of interviewees.

This practice coincides with recommendations in the literature. In particular, Stanley (2002) stated that immediate supervisors were the most common and important sources of data because they were in the best position to observe the strengths and weaknesses of their subordinates. Likewise, Noe (2005) confirms this observation, noting that as middle-level managers, supervisors have the major concern of determining how their subordinates in their respective units could work towards the strategic goals of their organisation.

To conclude, the study found that the most important party involved in the selection of potential training participants within the ADP was the line manager, in effect, the immediate supervisors of lower level employees. They played the biggest part in recommending names for training and their views/approvals were considered the most important factor in determining candidates for training. This scenario suggests a lack of two-way communication in the selection process, a shortcoming which was confirmed by the understanding that employees' performance appraisal forms represented the second most common way of choosing individuals for training. This finding runs parallel with findings from other parts of the study which indicated performance appraisals as an important element in the TNA process, and which showed performance data as a key source of information in conducting individual-level analysis in the organisation. This situation is in line with results reported in previous studies, for example, Jamil (2006) found that the most common ways of selecting participants were direction from supervisors (84% of his sample said this), and information from performance appraisals (69% of his sample said this). Agnaia(1996) also found that similar opinions among his research participants, with 83% citing direction from their bosses, and 50% referring to evidence of job performance as being the most common ways of selecting employees for training. In addition, Abdalla and Al-Hamoud (1995) report in their study of Kuwaiti companies, that 90% of these organisations rely on the direction of supervisors, and 72% on performance appraisals.

- *Criteria for selecting trainees*

This question concerned what the selection procedure for training should be based on. Results indicated that most respondents (78%) believed the most important factor to be taken into account in the selection procedure is the employee's annual performance appraisal. The employee's academic qualification and the views of their immediate supervisors were considered by 75% and 73% respectively of the research population as forming the basis of selection. On the other hand, a smaller number of interviewees mentioned other factors, such as the length of service, and employees' seniority and willingness.

- *Forms of training in the Abu Dhabi Police*

Regarding the forms of training used by the ADP, the findings show that all of the training forms were utilised. An overwhelming majority (86%) of the participants reported that the external training approach was the mostly frequently used, and 71% indicated that off-the-job training was the next most common method. Indeed some of these people said that there was no other type of training for their department but off-the-job training. It emerged that on-the-job training was the least frequently used approach with only 39% of the interviewees confirming its use. In this context, The following statement are quoted from one participant:

"We do not have real training; we do not have internal training all we do is to send our employees to some external training programmes outside the organisation".

This finding is in line with that of Altarawneh (2005) who reported that Jordanian banks used all the forms of the training but that the majority of banks (79%) preferred to have their training conducted externally, that 74% of them preferred off-the-job training, and a smaller percentage (58%) adopted on-the-job training methods.

- *Personal ties with the Supervisors and Top management*

Wilkins (2001), Agnaia (1996), and Abdalla and Al-Hamoud, (1995), all point out that in Arab culture it is unusual for an Arab to openly refuse a request from a friend,

and that individuals depend upon family and friendship ties for getting things done within society in general, and specifically within their work environments. With this understanding in mind, trainees were asked to indicate their level of agreement on whether their social ties with their supervisor and top management helped them to attend training programmes, since the suspicion was that personal ties with the supervisors might encourage their support in selection decisions.

In answering this question, 70% of the participants of group three said that ties of this nature with the senior executives and supervisors had helped them to gain access to training programmes, while only 30% stated that personal ties had not had any impact on their training history. This finding is line with that of Qefel (1998), who reported that 25% percent of trainees in his study agreed with the statement that *"personal ties with top management helped them to attend the programme"* , while, 60% of trainees agreed with the statement *"personal ties with my supervisor helped them to attend the programme"*. One manager said that in ADP:

"TNA unfortunately is conducted randomly, unsystematically; it is subject to the personal consideration relationship and friendships with top managers and the employees' direct managers. It is right that training programmes are distributed to all departments then employees filled in questionnaires but these questionnaires end with the employees' direct managers who will make the final decision, especially when these programmes are conducted outside the UAE."

- ***Reasons to attend the Abu Dhabi Police training programmes***

At this stage, it was felt important to investigate the trainees' own reasons for attending training programmes, and to discover whether there is an association between the purpose of attending the programme and the selection approaches that were used by theirorganisation. As indicated by Tracey (1992), and Sim (1993), the decision to attend a training programme should reflect various factors, these being: the extent to which the employees need training, the employees' potential for advancement, and the extent to which the employees KSAs and overall performance are likely to be improved by the training.

Consequently, the trainees were asked to indicate the different reasons that motivated them to attend training programmes, and in response, they all without exception said that they attended in order to enhance their performance in their current job. Additionally, a very large majority (95%) said that another reasons to attend the ADP's training programmes was to acquire new knowledge and skills which would place them in a better position for promotion, a response which suggests that the trainees place an important value on training for its extrinsic worth. They also stated that the authority rarely made the programmes compulsory for the selected employees, which gave the impression that the organisation did not believe it was appropriate to force employees to attend training programmes against their will, although in honesty, in the case of employees who are under-performing this would seem to be a wrong attitude to adopt.

6.3.4   Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis

In this section the effectiveness of TNA processes was identified. Several questions were asked, in particular relating to the strategic nature of the training function, and its impact on the overall organisational strategy within the ADP. All interviewees from three sample groups were asked these questions, and the responses are discussed below.

- *Application of learning from the training programmes in the Abu Dhabi Police*

Group one and two which is a total of thirty-one interviewees were asked about this issue and in response, 70% said that they believed employees did apply what they learned in training programmes in their service life but that sometimes there were obstacles to doing this. The first one they identified was that the programme had to be commensurate with the work requirements and not simply coincide with what the employee wants, and it seemed that this was not always the case. Secondly, in order to apply what they have learned in the training programmes sometimes requires there to be changes in the workflow, which conflicts with the views of the managers. In fact, some of them agreed that the learning from the training programmes could be more effectively applied if the training programme were selected appropriately. In this respect, one participant said:

"When the training program is linked with their needs, this will be more motivated to take advantage and get the skills to help them in performing their jobs"

There were, however, 30% of interviewees who specifically said that they do not apply the learning from training initiatives, pointing to a variety of difficulties such as the programmes being too theoretical meaning that they cannot really apply what they learn in the real life situation of the job. One of the trainees said:

"I attended some training programmes and I found these lectures boring, trainers did not pass the core points they were not able to conduct these programmes well, thus I think the whole programmes were a waste of time" (Branch manager.)

Moreover, they also said that sometimes there is conflict between the nature of work and what might have been learned during training. In addition, the current systems were blamed for not allowing the implementation of new ideas, and some trainees lack interest in training so do not benefit from it at all. These problems echo those discussed by Carolan (1993) who indicates that much training fails because the actual needs of those attending are not identified accurately. Another possibility is that the training objectives and programme content are not determined on the basis of the organisation's needs and therefore, what is learned cannot be applied because the organisation does not have a place for it.

- ▪ *Appropriateness of existing method of conducting Training Needs Analysis in the Abu Dhabi Police*

All the interviewees in the three sample groups were asked about the appropriateness of the prevailing TNA process, and in response, 75% of them did agree that the methods were appropriate but that there should be more co-ordination between the training department and other departments. They also believed that the parties responsible for diagnosing the needs should use the best methods in establishing the needs to ensure valuable results. They did also give the opinion that the existing methods help the ADP to develop the skills of employees, to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation as well as those of individuals, and to increase awareness among staff of the importance of specialised courses. Interestingly, however, 25% of the research population said that the TNA processes

are not ideal, and according to them, the co-ordination between the training departments with other departments in terms of training needs analysis is poor, and the methods used in the TNA to ensure satisfactory results are out-dated.

- ▪ *Ensuring the Effectiveness of Training Needs Analysis*

Van Eerde *et al.*(2008) have argued that in order to be able to help the organisation to gain a superior performance and improve organisational effectiveness, training should be strategic. Training activities, importantly TNA, should be integrated and derived from the overall organisational strategies, plans and policies. The main ideas of strategic training are that TNA should be integrated and linked with the organisation's strategic planning process and that training should play a proactive role rather than consisting of reactive interventions in response to the specific organisational problems.

Regarding the effectiveness of the TNA process in the ADP, group one and two which is a total of thirty-one interviewees were asked this question: how do you ensure the effectiveness of the TNA process in the ADP?. In the interview schedule, researcher stated a list of 15 criteria and asked the participants to rank these to see what from these criteria was consider by the organization. The results are very interesting, with most of the criteria being highly considered by the ADP, and 90% of the interviewees stating that training objectives are in harmony with the culture of the organisation, and consciously linked with the strategic plans. Moreover, 85% of the population said that the ADP employees are motivated to participate in the TNA process; the ADP has an on-going and clear plan for TNA; job-related competency requirements are being ranked according to their importance in the ADP; policies and plans related to training are flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances; the ADP employees are carefully assessed before considering them for training programmes. The results clearly show that the TNA process of the ADP is effective as it links with the overall organisation strategy.

6.3.5   Barriers to Training Needs Analysis at ADP

There are various reasons why needs assessment is not conducted in some organisations, but the main one is that it is considered as being a difficult process, time-consuming, and resource-intensive (Sadler-Smith *et al.,* 1998; Madsen and

Larsen, 1998; Smith, 1999; Heraty and Morley, 2000; Elbadri, 2001; Budhwar *et al.,* 2002; Hansen, 2003; Hill and Stewart, 2000, Hill, 2004). Moreover, many Arab researchers, such as Al-Ameer*et al.* (1978), Al-Khader (1980), and Al-Faleh (1985), have argued that most Arabic countries have difficulty in identifying the training required for their employees. Therefore, regarding the question relating to the general, organisational, cultural, and/or technological barriers that affect the TNA process in the ADP all the research population (three sample groups) were asked to participate.

Most of the participants stated that training supervisors in the ADP lack expertise in conducting TNA, and that TNA techniques fail to produce reliable information about the employees because the techniques themselves are limited in their potential to do so. Abdullah (2009) stressed that there is a lack of support for needs assessment as HRD professionals are unable to convince top management of its necessity and worth (Wilson, 1999; McGoldrick *et al.,* 2002). This view is confirmed by Smith (1999) who argues that most companies do not employ qualified HRD professionals or trainers to manage their HRD functions, despite the fact that performing the complex task of analysing needs can be difficult. If these companies do not employ qualified HRD professionals it is hardly surprising that the people in the HRD jobs are not able to persuade management of the need for TNA. Other participants said that family, nepotism, kinship and personal relationships between the supervisors and employees disturb the selection process in respect of training in the ADP and that the organisational culture sometimes works against effective TNA because the prevailing norms, values, beliefs, bureaucratic policies, and roles, interfere with the objective process that TNA tries to be. The literature shows that Arab cultural values emphasise conformity to societal norms, and this particular cultural trait exerts pressure upon the trainees and discourages them from transferring what has been learned in the classroom to the workplace (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 1995). Culture has been reported to be a major explanatory variable in people's attitudes (Adler, 1997). Moreover, Wilkins (2001) points out that T&D professionals working in the UAE are operating in a unique cultural and economic situation, although the research of others indicates that the UAE does share many aspects of a common Arab culture which emphasises the importance of religion, family, education, and success (Terpstra and David, 1991; Abdalla and Al Homoud, 1995; Al Bahar *et al.*, 1996;

Agnaia, 1997). Wilkins (2001) also, added that Arab culture plays a major role in shaping organisational structure and decision-making within Emirati organisations.

Lack of communication between the employees and their supervisors is also a barrier in the ADP. Agnaia (1996) found that the ways in which employees are selected to be trained mostly do not include any communication with the employees themselves. Thus, TNA is subject to the views, assessment and experiences of bosses and supervisors (perceptions). Moreover, interviewees said that there are other barriers to TNA such as: the ADP does not have enough time to identify training needs; employees are unable to fully describe their training needs; and lack of sufficient supports for needs assessments from top management. Atiyyah (1993) recognised the fact that the shortage of qualified managers presents a major obstacle to the development of less advanced countries. Abdullah (2009) suggested that the absence of needs assessment and analysis is due to lack of expertise and it is irrespective of the size of firms. Agnaia (1996) found that managers who are in charge of assessing T&D needs are themselves not usually specialists and they lack the necessary skills and knowledge to perform tasks associated with needs analysis.

The other important barriers, according to nearly half of the interviewees, are: lack of trained personnel to identify training needs; and top management in the ADP is only interested on the results of the training. Dolliver (1993) points out that although TNA is an essential first step in the training cycle, it is often overlooked because some managers consider it difficult and others think of it as costing valuable time that should be spent on problem-solving without training or by means of management tactics.

- *Further improvement of the Training Needs Analysis process in the Abu Dhabi Police*

In relation to the potential for further improvement of the TNA process in the ADP, all the interviewees were asked for their opinions, and the vast majority stated that the TNA process could be improved if: more information about individual needs were gathered and factored into the overall equation; the communication between the employees and the supervisors was improved; the whole process were more structured; and more information about future training needs were provided to the employees by the management. More than half of the interviewees emphasised that

for the further improvement of the TNA process within the ADP, it was essential for more information to be gathered and for the job incumbents to play a greater part in this exercise.

6.4   The Revised Framework for the Practice of TNA at ADP

On the basis of the evidence from the data presented, discussed and analysed above, and based on the proposed conceptual framework (in Figure 4.1) the following framework has been recommended, illustrated and discussed in detail (Figure 6.1)for the appropriate practice of TNA at the ADP.

Figure 6.1: The Revised Framework for the Practice of TNA at ADP
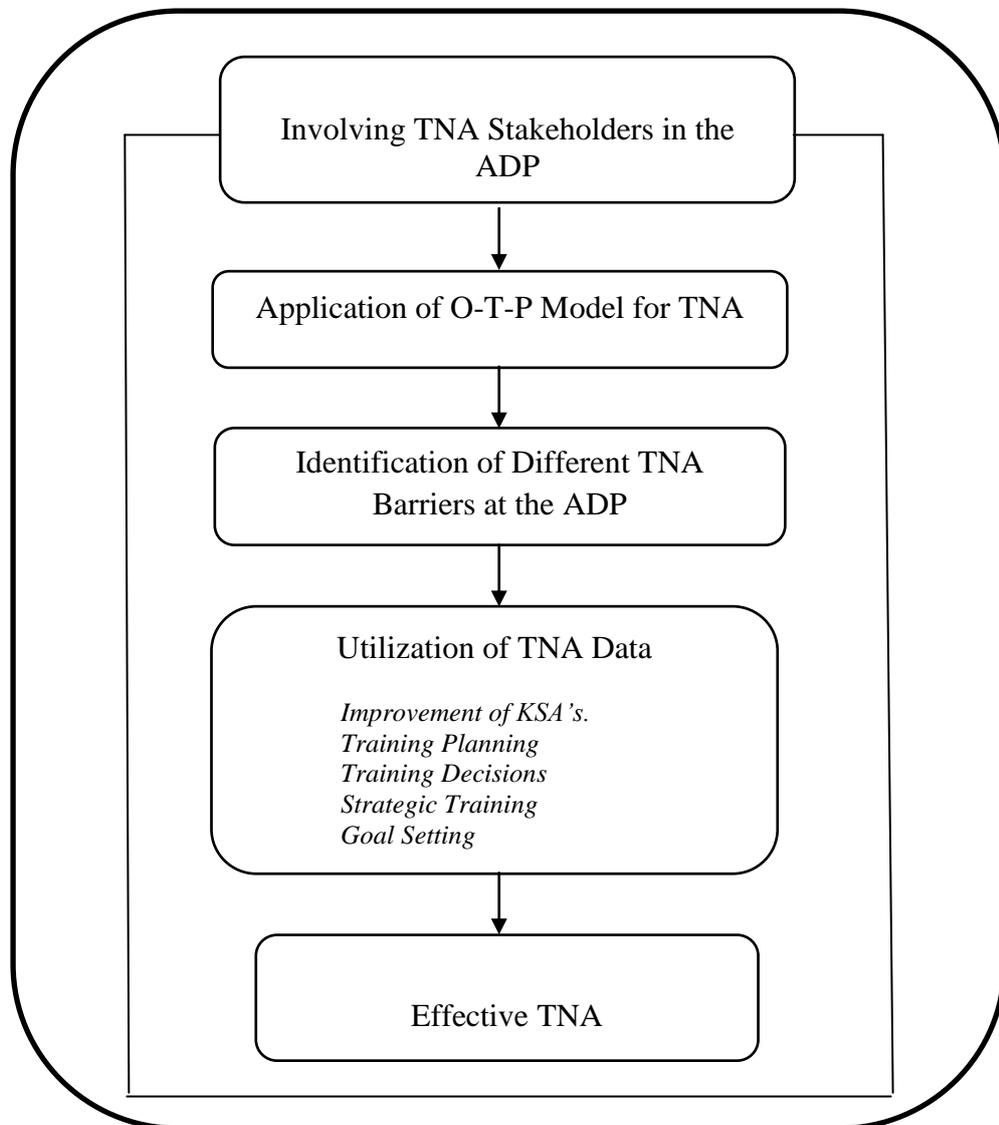
The recommended framework for the practice of TNA at the ADP provides a more holistic understanding of the key constructs which will ensure the effectiveness of TNA. As shown in Figure 6.1 the framework suggests that the effectiveness of TNA is affected by four sets of factors, first the stakeholder's involvement. It is very important to identify the people who involve and responsible of TNA to ensure the effectiveness of TNA. Findings confirmed that TNA stakeholders in the ADP play an important role in the practice of TNA. Moreover, identification of the stockholders and ensuring their involvement will increase their commitment to the process as well as increasing their interest in the outcomes and in evaluating those outcomes in ways that offer meaning, value, and relevance to all of the stakeholders.

Secondly, is the application of an appropriate TNA model. From the literature review (chapter Two) and research findings (chapter Five), it is revealed that among the different existing TNA models McGehee and Thayer's O-T-P model is an appropriate model for the ADP for the following reasons:

− As mentioned before, the limitation of the performance analysis model is its assumption that training is required only to correct performance discrepancies. It excludes training opportunities to continuously improve performance beyond expected levels or to train exemplary individuals or groups. Further, it fails to specify how information can be collected to analyse the causes of performance problems or to determine whether training is needed.

− Person analysis using the O-T-P model determines how well individual employees perform their tasks and the extent to which they possess needed KSAs and competencies. Because it examines performance discrepancies, the function of the model is performance analysis.

− The O-T-P model is considered the core framework for needs assessment in the academic literature. It contains both future-oriented organization analysis and present task and person analysis, which provide comprehensive needs analyses and increase the likelihood of aligning training with organizational and individual needs.

Thirdly, identification of different TNA barriers also been considered to be important in order to enjoy a more effective TNA process. Goldstein and Ford (2002) in particular emphasized the importance of organizational support, correct organizational culture, healthy training climate and proper examination of internal as well as external constraints for the success of a TNA activity, and these they had embedded into the ADP's TNA. Therefore, it is important to identify the problems and barriers to TNA and overcome these to ensure the effectiveness of TNA.

Fourthly, utilisation of TNA, the most important to ensure the effectiveness is the best use of TNA results. This because TNA identifies training needs that should be used for improving the trainees' level of knowledge, skills, and attitude and provides a foundation of information to assist in the decision-making processes. In addition, the training plan is agreed one in the sense of being understood and accepted by all the key individuals who are responsible for putting it into effect and the main use of TNA is expressed in the form of training plan accompanied with objectives, and for assigned time targets. Overall definitions of TNA offered by many authors indicate clearly that TNA is done so that training developed by organizations will enable them to achieve their strategic objectives. Therefore, as Daniels (2003) claims a lot of organizations' investments in training failed to return and suggested that this was probably due to the organizations' failure to connect training efforts with their goals and strategies. Mistakes such as this could have been minimized if training practitioners were aware of the importance of TNA. TNA, if done properly, will force practitioners to determine the potential contribution of every training program to the achievement of organizational objectives. If practitioners failed to see the linkage, it could mean that the trainings were actually based on 'wants' rather than true 'needs'.

It can be argued that if the ADP involves all the stakeholders, such as top management, business development and client executives, HR managers, Line managers, trainers, and trainees etc. and applies an appropriate model (O-T-P model) to identify the needs of the employees the analysis will be very effective. This study confirms that if this model is used in identifying training needs the analysis will be more effective that will ensure the performance of the ADP. In that case, the ADP will appropriately be able to utilize the outcomes of TNA in the areas

of training decisions, identifying employee knowledge, skills and ability, training design and planning, goal setting, problems of TNA and setting training strategy that will help ensuring the total effectiveness of the ADP in future.

6.5   Conclusions

This study was designed as a first attempt to investigate the nature of TNA within the context of the ADP, and by implication to explore the barriers affecting TNA effectiveness. It was also conceived as a means of filling a gap found in the literature in the area of training and TNA – specifically, the lack of a theoretical model of TNA that relates particularly to the process as implemented in the public sector? In this chapter, the results from the field study, designed to explore the current status of TNA in the ADP within the UAE public sector, have been presented, and where possible, these have been compared with other previous studies, and with indications in the literature review.

From the evidence presented in this chapter, the conclusions can be demonstrated as follows:

❖ The involvement of all the stakeholders in the TNA process is important to ensure the effectiveness of that process. Empirically, the TNA stakeholders in the ADP are identified and it is shown that their involvement in the process, through various TNA activities is not direct, and this observation is particularly made in respect of the trainees. This lack of involvement in the TNA process within the ADP, is detrimental to the overall effectiveness of the process, and points to the need for greater importance to be accorded to the participation of all stakeholders.

❖ Empirical evidence from the research sample within the ADP shows that the organisation does believe in the value of TNA as it does instigate a TNA exercise on a regular annual basis. However, this does not necessarily imply that the process is implemented effectively. Moreover, training needs should not be assessed once a year since the organisation's environmental conditions and needs may change more frequently, and hence, there should be assessments on a more frequent basis.

❖ The research findings indicate that the ADP does have some kind of strategic approach to TNA practice since it is clear that it is committed to an analysis of needs at all three levels, taking into consideration, the overall requirements of the organisation, the jobs concerned, and the particular employees performing them. Hence, the ADP does not rely on just one source of data. In addition, the empirical data reveals that the majority of employees are aware of the importance of TNA and the positive impact of the process on training within the ADP.

❖ It appears from the empirical evidence reported in this chapter that to a certain extent, all methods are used by the ADP to identify the training needs of employees. However, the most popular method is clearly performance appraisal – as indicated on the documentation associated with that, and formal job descriptions. This finding is of no surprise as performance appraisals are often considered the most common and widely used method in TNA (Brown, 2002; Agnaia, 1996). However, the practice is considered acceptable only if companies have fulfilled certain criteria and taken necessary measures as discussed in Chapter Twoin order to ensure that such appraisals are capable of accurately determining their training needs. Furthermore, there is also the concern that the ADP depends on this method without being seriously concerned as to whether or not it could produce meaningful TNA outcomes.

❖ Evidence collected during the field work with the ADP reveals certain barriers which prevent the TNA process from being implemented effectively. These barriers are: training supervisors within the ADP lack expertise in conducting TNA; TNA techniques fail to produce reliable information for the employees; family, nepotism, kinship and personal relationships between the supervisors and employees disturb the selection process in respect of training in the ADP; organisational culture (norms, values, and beliefs), bureaucratic policies, and roles sometimes interfere with TNA; and there is a lack of communication between the employees and their supervisors.

❖ It would appear from the evidence reported in this chapter that research findings support the development of the framework for TNA. The findings suggest that TNA within the ADP is determined by four main sets of constructs: involving TNA stakeholders in the ADP; application of O-T-P

model for TNA; identification of different TNA barriers at the ADP; and utilisation of TNA data.

To conclude, the study suggests that if the ADP applies the O-T-P approach to analyse the training needs of its employees, the existing process will become more systematic and in accordance with the recommendations made in the literature as best practice in this area. It is seen that the ADP's earlier approaches to TNA lack sophistication, for example through heavy reliance on the annual appraisal system, and through the problems constraining a meritocratic approach to training, as caused by cultural practices such as favouritism.

The next chapter presents a general summary of this study, research contributions, acknowledges the limitations of the study, and offers suggestions for further research.

Chapter Seven

Research Contributions, Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1   Introduction

This chapter presents a conclusion to the research into the status, procedures and policy considerations relating to TNA within the ADP in the UAE. The aim is to present conclusions regarding the actual practice and obstacles associated with TNA in the ADP. The chapter summarises the main findings reached throughout this study and reviews the evidence assembled to meet the research objectives spelt out in Chapter One. In addition, this chapter contains a presentation of the major contributions of the study, together with their implications. Finally, the limitations of this research are outlined, and these are followed by some suggestions for future research avenues on this topic.

7.2   Research Overview and Summary of Major Findings

The intention of this study was to provide a more holistic understanding of the nature of the practice of TNA. The following paragraphs summarise the major points developed within the preceding six chapters.

As presented in Chapter One, this thesis started with an overview of the research problem. It has been recognised and confirmed in both the literature and empirically, that we know very little about how influences may arise and subsequently affect the processes involved in TNA. Specifically, it was found from previous studies that in existing theoretical models of TNA, there is an absence of consideration of the involvement of the stakeholders in the TNA process.

The chapter also outlined the motivations for conducting this particular study and highlighted its relevance and significance. It was asserted that the TNA process plays an important role in the planning and design of any training programme since it conducted effectively, the TNA is able to provide a detailed picture of an organization's skill, knowledge, and talent base, and with that appreciation it becomes possible to focus attention to areas where training programmes are most needed or, depending on the nature of the business, required. This, in turn, permits the organisation to allocate funds for T&D to areas where they will have the greatest impact, thereby providing a positive return on the organisation's investment, and guaranteeing its future. Chapter One also stated the aim and the objectives of the research and provided an overview of the structure of this thesis.

In Chapter Two, the background theory was established through a literature review of published works on the subjects of training, and training needs analysis. The chapter begins by painting a broad picture in which it discussed training and its importance for an organisation, distinguishing training from other means of employee improvement, such as education and development. Additionally, a brief explanation was given of the systematic training process and the relevance of TNA within this system. Thereafter, Chapter Two provided a more in-depth investigation of TNA using the literature to construct a clear picture and understanding of the TNA process, concentrating on its concepts, importance, and theories associated with it.

Additionally, the chapter reviewed and discussed several studies conducted by other researchers in various contexts on TNA in order to compare their findings with this study. The result of this investigation of the published empirical work revealed that there is lack of a comprehensive framework which can explain the key factors that influence the effectiveness of TNA. It became clear in the chapter that in order to obtain a better picture regarding organisational TNA practices, there was a need to conduct a study with greater and deeper scope.

The conceptual framework of the study was established in chapter three. Rather than applying the grounded theory approach, in which the researcher engages the subject without pre-existing ideas or frameworks, existing theory was used to guide the research. O-T-P frameworks were used as a basis to explore the phenomenon of the TNA process. The proposed conceptual framework provided an opportunity to gain a better understanding of the key factors which impact upon the effectiveness of TNA.

The research methodology was presented in Chapter Five and justifications for the choices made were given. To maximise the quality of the research findings there was a need to choose a methodology, by which the research aim and objectives would be achieved, and the stipulated research questions answered. Given the nature of the research, the phenomenological paradigm that uses an inductive approach was deemed to be suitable. Consequently, the study employed a qualitative approach in the interpretive paradigm. By triangulating the findings from semi-structured interviews, observations, and documents analysis, information regarding practice of

TNA was obtained from multiple participants with different views, perceptions and experiences. The main advantages in using semi-structured interviews in this research was that they provided ample opportunities to ask follow-up questions and clarify issues and check the participants' understanding of the topics until adequate answers and interpretations were gained. By using multiple sources of evidence, and being able to actually observe the participants at work, we were able to mitigate many potential sources of bias. Interpretative phenomenological analysis (with utilisation of NVivo 8, qualitative data analysis software package) was the technique used for analysing the empirical data in this study.

In chapter Six, the empirical data collected in the qualitative interviews with the participants of the three groups of management, trainers, and trainees have been presented. The data gathered from the interviews participants have been reported on the basis of the five themes of the study namely: beginning with the demographic data of the participants, current practices of TNA, training decisions, effectiveness of TNA, and the barriers to its implementation, which collectively have addressed key issues concerning TNA, and how this is seen to operate in the ADP. This chapter also offered a discussion of the key findings yielded in a revised (enhanced) conceptual framework for TNA effectiveness. This revised model can be used as a reference point for organisations wanting to ensure the effectiveness of TNA. The revised framework illustrates that TNA success is influenced by four sets of factors. These are: the degree of stakeholder involvement; the model applied for conducting TNA (in this case, the O-T-P model); the degree to which the barriers to TNA can be identified and overcome; and the way in which the information obtained in TNA is utilised.

7.3   Recommendations

On the basis of the aforementioned conclusions, the following recommendations are offered as a guide to reform the TNA process in the ADP.

Academic Qualification of the Trainees: Academic qualifications should be prioritised at the time of recruitment of employees for the ADP, as it is found that the average academic profile is very low. It is obvious that if the trainees are of poor

academic background it will be very hard for them to digest the messages given in the training sessions.

Involvement of the TNA stakeholders: The TNA stakeholders within the ADP should be involved in the process according to their different roles in the organisation. Without such comprehensive involvement, it will be impossible to identify the exact training needs of employees and to formulate an appropriate training strategy.

Introducing a Formal Appraisal Process: The supervisors must ask their trainees about their own training needs first and should then recommend them for specific training. The ADP should have a formal, updated and regular appraisal process.

Comprehensiveness of TNA: The ADP must consider undertaking a comprehensive TNA approach, because this leads to better training outcomes. The approach should begin at the micro level and work through to the macro level, or it could take the form of scanning from the organisational level through to the individual level. By implementing this type of approach, it will be possible to identify the location of problems, whether these be at the organisational, operational, or individual level. Only through such a comprehensive approach can the ADP appropriately assess the actual training needs. Moreover, such a thorough process has a good impact on the outcomes of the training.

Emphasis of On-the-Job Training: The ADP should emphasise the provision of on-the-job training as well as off-the job-training. Clearly, external experts can be hired for the latter, but it is sensible to improve the quality of the ADP's internal trainers to make them more expert and efficient. This can occur by Training for Trainers programmes.

Motivation to Apply Learning from Training: The employees of the ADP must be motivated to apply what they have learned in the training programmes in their service life. Trainers must tell and also motivate them to apply their learning effectively. To make this be happened, trainees must be selected appropriately, and the training curriculum should be based on the nature of their work.

Using Best Methods: the ADP should use the best the methods in determining training needs to ensure valuable results. The existing methods help the ADP to develop the skills of their staffs; to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the organization as well as individuals; to increase awareness among staffs on the specialized courses and their importance. However, coordination between the training departments with other departments in terms of training needs analysis is lacking; and updating the methods used in the TNA to ensure satisfactory results is not continuous. Therefore, coordination between the departments must be improved and the methods must be the best one.

Flexible Bureaucratic Mentality: Organizational culture such as norms, values, beliefs, bureaucratic policies, and roles sometimes play role over TNA. Therefore there must be favourable bureaucratic mentality towards TNA in the ADP. Moreover, ADP should provide enough time to identify training needs otherwise employees will be unable to fully describe their needs. Sufficient supports from top management; and performance appraisal of employees should be designed to indicate individual training needs.

TNA should be an Investment: TNA should be taken seriously as an investment, a necessary rather than a prestige activity and/or a cost to be minimized. Trainers need to be responsible and able to convince the participants about the importance of training activities for the organisational success. For this to be happened, top management in the ADP should recognise the importance of the training, so that the training officers and trainers have credibility in their training task.

TNA should to be Systematic and Strategic: TNA should to be systematic, linked and derived from the overall organisational strategies, plans and policies, rather than being a subject to the supervisors own viewpoints and personnel aspects or being piecemeal, stand-alone activities, designed to react to the current organisational conditions. In addition, TNA must be pragmatic otherwise it will be carried out without any rational basis and will be doomed to failure. For this to happened, training managers should have long-term training policies and plans. They should strive to relate their training policies and plans to employees' real needs, and to the overall organization strategy. In this regard, it is urgent to relate simultaneously

managers' needs analysis procedures with the analysis of their functional and organizational needs. Thus, all training efforts of the organization will be geared towards the same end result of increasing the organization's efficiency and effectiveness.

Training programmes should Link between Training and the Job Requirement: Training programmes should be rooted in a careful identification of training needs so that a linkage between training and the job requirement is viewed. Senior managers and trainers should go beyond depending heavily on assessing training needs based on performance appraisal and job description. Several methods should be involved in choosing the appropriate procedure for TNA. For this to be happened, the ADP should develop a method that provides accurate, valid, and reliable information about the requirement of training for the organisation.

Training Objectives should be based on TNA Information: TNA information should be used for the development of the training programme objectives. Trainers should ensure that these objectives clearly specify the learning required, and the standard sought by the trainees, which can be accomplished through identifying the most important job function performed by the trainees, so that the objectives, and the curriculum taught in the programme, are related to the trainees' training needs.

Trainee Selection: All the employees should to be considered for nomination to attend training programmes because they need training for their betterment rather than for socio-cultural considerations. For this to be happened, trainee selection should be formalised by the ADP, with the aim to establish standardised criteria in selecting trainees who need training for improving their capability and the organisation. This would make the trainees homogenous in their background and training needs in the classroom.

Selection of Trainers: Trainers need to be well-qualified, educated and, possibly, specialists in the training field because they have the responsibility to improve the training situation and improve the organisations' views about the importance of training. For this to be happened, senior managers and trainers should be provided

with adequate training to enhance their skills and knowledge and to maximise their ability in conducting and managing training needs analysis process.

Introducing Rewarding System: Some forms of recognition and bonus could be administered to trainers and managers, for their mastering in the TNA process. In other words, there is a need to link training with a system of promotion, reward and punishment for an accurate TNA. For this to be happened, the ADP should establish a reward system link with training.

Effective Communication with the Stakeholders: More effective communication should be established among the stakeholders to promote the TNA, and especially the involvement of the employees in the assessment of training needs. For this to be happened, employees should participate in defining their needs, in terms of specific and measurable knowledge requirements, skill development and attitude and behavioural change. Top managers and line managers need to be committed to, and supportive of TNA through being involved in formulating training strategies, plans and objectives

7.4   Research Novelty

The result of this thesis has produced a novel contribution to the subject of training needs analysis and has expanded knowledge of the subject. However, the key contributions and novelty of this research are explained more fully in the following sections.

7.4.1   Contribution to Theory

This research provides important contributions and novel insights into the growing body of research which has sought to examine and understand TNA effectiveness. The major theoretical contribution of this study is the development of a novel, holistic conceptual framework for TNA effectiveness, as proposed in Figure 3.1. The framework was validated through a case study, and based on the findings was revised in Figure 6.1. Therefore, this study is considered as a step towards theory building relating to TNA. The review of the literature in the field of training and TNA has revealed gaps and the need for more empirical studies to be conducted.

This study integrates, refines, extends the empirical work conducted in this field and fills some of the gaps in the literature of this field. Moreover, this study raises awareness of the importance of the TNA as an important strategic function, which could help organisations to achieve corporate strategies and gives a better understanding of how TNA could be effectively approached and implemented.

7.4.2   Contribution to Policy and Practice

This study is the first of its kind to be carried out in the UAE as far as the author believes, so it provides new findings for the TNA research literature. There was a paucity of research into TNA in the Arab and Islamic contexts. Hence, this study leads to a better understanding of such contexts for the future. Thus, it raises and improves the understanding of current TNA practices and management in the ADP more generally in the UAE and enriches and fills the gaps in the literature of TNA in the Arab countries, which in turn enables a clearer understanding of the similarities and differences between the West as depicted in the literature and the Middle East as exampled by the UAE. Moreover, this study provides an assessment for the effectiveness of the current practices relating to TNA in the ADP and reflects all the related problems and challenges. From this study, training professionals can who often need to take critical decisions have a better understanding about their role in TNA process for the development of the organisations. It helps also them to understand how they can better manage their TNA activities, what they need to focus on and what they need to do to improve TNA effectiveness.

The conceptual framework also provides general guideline for TNA practitioners in the public sector of the UAE to ensure the successful and effectiveness when implementing TNA. Therefore, this study also provides useful guidelines to assist the organisation in shifting the role of their TNA functions from playing reactive roles to playing proactive strategic roles and deriving a better understanding of the role of TNA in the organisational development and success.

7.5   Limitations of the Study

Every research project is limited by some constraints of the researcher, and this study is no exception. These are the limitations of this study.

Generalization:

The sample study has been restricted to the ADP in the UAE, so the generalisation of the findings of the present study is limited to the military organisations and other security companies operating in the UAE. The generalisation to other business sectors in the UAE is not possible due to the different organisational environment and context, and to different social, economical and political issues.

Quality of the Data:

Samples of the study were comprised of individuals involved with TNA functions in the ADP. The respondents were asked to answer the questions based on their organizations' past experiences and practices on TNA and this emphasis was also reflected in the interviews. The quality of the data obtained from such an approach might be questionable due to possible inaccuracies or exaggeration. Although all necessary precautions were taken to enhance reliability and accuracy of the data, such possibilities are not unusual in this study. The data reported in this study may thus need to be treated with some caution as it might be subject to much personal opinion or perception.

Responses of the Respondents:

At the time of interview, it was found that the respondents were not so enthusiastic. Some of the respondents were making delay to face the interview. The researcher had to spent huge time for conducting the interview.

Avoidance of Particular Questions:

It was found that the respondents showed discomfort and tried to avoid some of the particular questions relating to their performances, which may disclose their performance deficiencies, since they may have a negative impact on their position. Research found tactical answers on those questions.

7.6   Directions for Future Research

Based on the findings of this study, there is a need for further research on the following:

- − An empirical study may be conducted with more samples from all the military organizations on the practice of TNA, so that a comprehensive approach to TNA can be established for the UAE military organizations.

- − A study on the practice of TNA between public and private sector may be conducted difference between them in relation to the practice and barriers of TNA, so that a comprehensive approach to TNA can be established.

- − An empirical research on the practice of TNA between military and non-military organizations in the UAE may be conducted to know the differences between them in relation to the practice and barriers of TNA.

- − A study on the practice of TNA between the public sector organizations of the UAE and the Western world, especially the UK may be conducted.

- − A study on the cultural influences on the practice of TNA between public and private sector organizations may be conducted to find out whether organizational culture creates influence on the practice of TNA.

- − A study on the practice of TNA between public and private sector should be conducted to find out whether there is a.

7.7   Conclusions

TNA have become a popular and valuable tool in the human resource development profession. When properly designed and administered, a TNA will provide a detailed picture of an organization's skill, knowledge, and talent base while simultaneously focusing attention to areas where training programs are most needed or, depending on the nature of the business, required. This, in turn, permits the organization to allocate funds for training and development where they will have the greatest impact,

thereby providing a positive return on the firm's investment. TNA however, must be more systematic and process-oriented; and requires a greater degree of planning, co-ordination, and analysis (McClelland 1993).

This study suggests a systematic and process-oriented TNA that needs a positive cultural change in the ADP. The ADP must consider best management to introduce such changes, which would impact upon all the departments within the ADP. It is also important to take a holistic view of the situation. Change agents must be identified, trained and charged properly. TNA stakeholders of the ADP must be involved in designing and implementing the TNA process. In short, the recommendations offered in this study, will be helpful for such a systematic TNA for the ADP. This study hopes that the recommendations will help the policy makers and the other stakeholders relating to TNA of the ADP to advance and progress the situation in an expected way.

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APPENDICES

Appendix (A)

Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Senior Executives/Manager /Trainers (English Version)

Brunel University
Brunel Business School

"Practice of Training Needs Analysis: An empirical study of the Abu Dhabi Police"

Dear participants,

I am currently studying PhD in Management Studies at the Brunel Business School, Brunel University, United Kingdom. My area of research is "*Training Needs Analysis: An empirical study of the Abu Dhabi Police* ", supervised by Professor Zahir Irani.

Through this research, I have been trying to assess the current practice, and effectiveness of training needs analysis in the context of Abu Dhabi Police. Your response is truly important to the success of this study. I would like to assure you that your response will be `**Strictly Confidential'**` and will be used for academic purposes only.

May I therefore, request your honour to fill up the questionnaire and oblige thereby.

I shall be pleased to share the findings of this research, if you want, once the study is completed. I appreciate your valuable time and wish to acknowledge your support by our sincere thanks.

Sincerely yours,
(Captain \ ALI HAMAD GHUFLI)

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Purpose of the Research

There is an increasing interest of training in the world in general and in the United Arab Emirates in particular to improve the performance of human resources to achieve the desired level of effectiveness to remain successful. In most of Arab countries training is not conducted in a professional manner, in terms of TNA, nominating the trainees, implementing and evaluating the training programmes. In this regard, Abdalla and Al-Homoud (1995), Bahar et at. (1996) and Abdalla et at. (1998) argue that many Arab organisational practices, in terms of training and development management, are deficient because of the lack of systematic planning, implementation and evaluation. Furthermore, most of Arabic countries have difficulty in identifying the actual training required for their employees.

Many of Arab researchers, such as Al-Ameer *et al*. (1978), Al-Khader (1980) and Al-Faleh (1985), argued that Arab organizations lack a clear job description, performance appraisal and an approach used for assessing the training needs of the employees. Thus, this study seeks to explore the effectiveness of existing training needs analysis process of Abu Dhabi Police, and the factors that affect the process and the impact of TNA on improving training effectiveness.

The research contributes to both empirical investigations of a Training Needs Analysis within the context of the Abu Dhabi police to understanding of current methods and practices of training needs analysis and enrich and fill the gaps in the literature of training needs analysis in Arab countries and theoretical development of model that widely applicable. Therefore, it not only is applied to the Abu Dhabi police and not only the Middle East, to other countries, and to other public sector organisations.

Semi-structured Interview Schedule for

Senior Executives /Managers/Trainers

Section A: Demographic Data

[The purpose of this section is to obtain general information related to you as a participant in this research.]

Position Hold: ....

Length of service in the Abu Dhabi Police...

Length of service in current position: ....

Educational Qualification: ....

Age: ....

Gender: ....

Section B: Current Practices of Training Needs Analysis (TNA)

[In this section, please provide us with some information regarding current Practice of TNA Abu Dhabi police. Please answer only the questions relevant to you.]

Q.1. Are you responsible for any activity relating to the TNA process in Abu Dhabi police.

....

Q.2. If yes, in what kind of activity do you involve?

....

....

Q.3. Do you conduct formal training need analysis in Abu Dhabi Police.

....

Q.4. If yes, how frequent do you conduct TNA?

....

....

Q.5. Why do Abu Dhabi Police conduct TNA?

....

....

....

Q.6. Could you indicate the levels that you use in conducting training need analysis in the Abu Dhabi Police? Please tick the appropriate box (s):

☐ Organization
☐ Task / Operational
☐ Person / Individual
☐ All of the above
☐ None

Q.7. What method do you use to gather TNA data? Please tick (√) in the box that reflects the most accurate answer

Training need assessment methods	**Yes**	**No**
Questionnaires		
Personal face-to-face interviews with employees		
Group interviews with managers and supervisors		
Direct Observation		
Determination through special training committee		
Performance appraisal information or results		
Through a job descriptions for individuals in your organization		
Skills, Knowledge, and Abilities (KSAs) tests		
Others, (please specify)		

Q.8. What criteria do you consider for selecting TNA data collection method? Please tick (√) in the box that reflects the most accurate answer

Criteria of selecting the TNA data collection methods	**Yes**	**No**
Top management preferences		
Employees' acceptance		
Ease of use		
Cost-effectiveness		
Time require		
Organizational Culture and values		
Confidentiality		
Sample size		
Expertise of the HR staff		
Others, (please specify)		

Q.9. What are sources of data that you referred to TNA in different levels? Please tick (√) in the box that reflects the most accurate answer

Sources of Data		
a) Organizational Level	**Yes**	**No**
Organizational goal and objectives		
Skills inventory		
Manpower inventory		
Management request		
Changes in the system and sub-system		
Organizational climate indices		
Others, (please specify)		
b) Operational Level	**Yes**	**No**
Job description		
Job specification		
Performance standards		
Relevant literature concerning the job		
Others, (please specify)		
c) Individual Level	**Yes**	**No**
Performance appraisal data		
Skills, Knowledge and abilities (KSAs) tests results		
Attitude survey		
Assessment survey		
Supervisors suggestion		
Others, (please specify)		

Q.10. What is your overall perceptions regarding TNA practices of the Abu Dhabi Police? Please tick (√) in the box that reflects the most accurate answer

Overall perceptions regarding TNA practices	**Yes**	**No**
TNA emphasized in organisation's training practices to ensure training effectiveness		
Training needs will only be fulfilled if they are in line with organisation's strategic needs		
TNA methods used by the Abu Dhabi Police produce clear, relevant, specific data on performance discrepancies		
TNA methods used by the Abu Dhabi Police make it possible to distinguish between training that employees need and training that they want		
TNA conducted to differentiate performance problems caused by employees' lack of skills, knowledge and abilities (KSAs) and problems caused by other factors.		
TNA determines the 'where', 'what' and 'who' decisions of training		
It provides a benchmark for evaluating training and records the justification of training budget.		
The management of this organisation believes that TNA process are cost effective		
The management of this organisation believes that TNA is central for improving the training effectiveness		
Top managers are committed to TNA function		
The present volume of TNA is adequate to solve your current problems		

Section C: Training Decisions

[In this section, please provide us with information regarding how training decision is made in terms of who should attend and what is the training program. Please answer only the relevant questions]

Q.11. Do you take any part in selecting the trainees for the programme.

....

Q.12. How are the employees of Abu Dhabi Police selected for training? Please tick (√) in the box that reflects the most accurate answer

Methods of selecting employees for training	**Yes**	**No**
Suggestion in performance appraisal forms		
Supervisor's recommendation		
Employees applied to attend (employees' desire)		
Employees were directed to attend		
Employees were chosen by their colleagues to represent their department		
Discussing the course with training manager and putting their names forward		
Others, (please specify)		

Q.13. In your opinion, selection of employees for training should be based on:

Selecting employees for training	**Yes**	**No**
the views of their boss		
the decision of committee		
their annual performance appraisal		
their seniority and willingness		
their position		
their academic qualification		
the length of service		
Others, (please specify)		

Q.14. Which of the following forms of training does the Abu Dhabi Police use?

- ☐ On-the-job training
- ☐ Off-the-job within the organization but not on-the-job
- ☐ External training (outside the organization)
- ☐ Other, please specify...

Q.15. Does Abu Dhabi Police acquire any sort of assistance from external TNA providers (trainers/ training centers) during the preparation or implementation of the Abu Dhabi Police's TNA process.

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Q.16. If yes, please specify, why does Abu Dhabi Police acquire assistance from external providers (trainers or training centers).

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Section D: Effectiveness of TNA

[In this section, please provide us with information on how strategic is your training function and the role of training in shaping the organisations' strategy. Please answer only the relevant questions.]

Q.17. In your opinion, do the employees of the Abu Dhabi Police apply what they have learned in training programmes in their service life, what have made it possible or difficult?

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Q.18. Are the existing method of conducting TNA ideal for Abu Dhabi Police? Give reasons for your answer.

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Q.19. How do you ensure the effectiveness of TNA process of the Abu Dhabi Police? Please tick (√) in the box that reflects the most accurate answer

Effectiveness of Training needs analysis	**Yes**	**No**
Before considering training, you carefully assessed if the problem could have been somewhere else (such as the work environment, the tools, and reward systems)		
The organisation has a clear ongoing plan for training		
The job description of the employee's job was reviewed prior to deciding on the training programme to be undertaken by the employee.		
The relationship between the training staff/external training specialists and line managers is based on mutual understanding and an exchange of ideas to solve problems related to human resource development		
You have access to the Abu Dhabi Police's objectives and strategies		
Training was consciously linked to the Abu Dhabi Police's strategic plans		
Training objectives are in harmony with the Abu Dhabi Police's culture		
You seek the support and commitment from Top management to provides all the facilitation to training activities		
Policies and plans related to training are flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances		
You have decided on the desired competency level you were expected an employee to reach after training		
You determined the knowledge, skills and attitudes an employee must have in order to perform the job successfully		
Employees are motivated to participate in TNA process		
The job related competency requirements were ranked according to their importance		
The current skill/competency level of employees was assessed prior to deciding on the training programme to be undertaken by the employee		
You emphasise cost effectiveness training to assess the effectiveness of training needs analysis		

<u>Section E: Barriers of TNA (TNA Problems and Challenges)</u>

[In this section, please provide us with information regarding the barriers (general, organizational, cultural or technological) that affect training needs analysis process of Abu Dhabi Police.]

Q.20. According to your experience about training needs analysis process in Abu Dhabi Police, what are the main difficulties facing the implementation and conducting TNA?

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Q.21. In your opinion, can the analysis of training needs in the Abu Dhabi Police be improved? If yes, how?

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<u>Comments:</u>

If you have any further comments, suggestions or views relating to the identification of trainees' training needs analysis, please write here:

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Thank you very much for your great assistance in completing this questionnaire. If you would like to receive a copy of the research findings once the study is completed, please give your name and address here:

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Thank you for your co-operation

Appendix (B)

Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Trainees (English Version)

Brunel University

Brunel Business School

"Practice of Training Needs Analysis: An empirical study of

the Abu Dhabi Police"

Dear participants,

I am currently studying PhD in Management Studies at the Brunel Business School, Brunel University, United Kingdom. My area of research is "*Training Needs Analysis: An empirical study of the Abu Dhabi Police* ", supervised by Professor Zahir Irani.

Through this research, I have been trying to assess the current practice, and effectiveness of training needs analysis in the context of Abu Dhabi Police. Your response is truly important to the success of this study. I would like to assure you that your response will be `**Strictly Confidential'** and will be used for academic purposes only.

May I therefore, request your honour to fill up the questionnaire and oblige thereby.

I shall be pleased to share the findings of this research, if you want, once the study is completed. I appreciate your valuable time and wish to acknowledge your support by our sincere thanks.

Sincerely yours,

(Captain \ ALI HAMAD GHUFLI)

PhD Researcher   Police officer

Brunel Business School   Abu Dhabi Police G.H.Q

Brunel University West London   Abu Dhabi, UAE

Middlesex, Uxbridge, UB8 3PH, UK   A00124@adpuk.org

Ali.ghufli@brunel.ac.ukAli_alghufli@hotmail.com

Purpose of the Research

There is an increasing interest of training in the world in general and in the United Arab Emirates in particular to improve the performance of human resources to achieve the desired level of effectiveness to remain successful. In most of Arab countries training is not conducted in a professional manner, in terms of TNA, nominating the trainees, implementing and evaluating the training programmes. In this regard, Abdalla and Al-Homoud (1995), Bahar et at. (1996) and Abdalla et at. (1998) argue that many Arab organisational practices, in terms of training and development management, are deficient because of the lack of systematic planning, implementation and evaluation. Furthermore, most of Arabic countries have difficulty in identifying the actual training required for their employees.

Many of Arab researchers, such as Al-Ameer *et al*. (1978), Al-Khader (1980) and Al-Faleh (1985), argued that Arab organizations lack a clear job description, performance appraisal and an approach used for assessing the training needs of the employees. Thus, this study seeks to explore the effectiveness of existing training needs analysis process of Abu Dhabi Police, and the factors that affect the process and the impact of TNA on improving training effectiveness.

The research contributes to both empirical investigations of a Training Needs Analysis within the context of the Abu Dhabi police to understanding of current methods and practices of training needs analysis and enrich and fill the gaps in the literature of training needs analysis in Arab countries and theoretical development of model that widely applicable. Therefore, it not only is applied to the Abu Dhabi police and not only the Middle East, to other countries, and to other public sector organisations.

Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Trainees

Section A: Demographic Data

[The purpose of this section is to obtain general information related to you as a participant in this research.]

Position Hold: ....

Length of service in the Abu Dhabi Police: ....

Length of service in current position: ....

Educational Qualification: ....

Age: ....

Gender: ....

Section B: Current Practices of Training Needs Analysis (TNA)

[In this section, please provide us with some information regarding current Practice of TNA Abu Dhabi police. Please answer only the questions relevant to you.]

Q.1. Did your supervisor discusses your training needs with you before attending the programme?

....

Q.2. When was the last time your performance was appraised?

....

Q.3. Were you recommended for specific training at your last assessment?

....

Q.4. Is there any written job description that explains your duties and responsibilities in your present job?

....

Q.5. If yes, to what extent is your written job description related to your job in the Abu Dhabi Police?

☐ To a great extent

☐ To some extent

☐ To a little extent

☐ Not at all

☐ I don't know

Q.6. What method does Abu Dhabi Police use to identify your training needs? Please tick (√) in the box that reflects the most accurate answer

Training need assessment methods	**Yes**	**No**
Questionnaires		
Personal face-to-face interviews with employees		
Group interviews with managers and supervisors		
Direct Observation		
Determination through special training committee		
Performance appraisal information or results		
Through a job descriptions for individuals in your organization		
Skills, Knowledge, and Abilities (KSAs) tests		
Others, (please specify)		

Q.7. What is your overall perception regarding TNA practices in Abu Dhabi Police?

Overall perceptions regarding TNA practices	**Yes**	**No**
TNA emphasized in organisation's training practices to ensure training effectiveness		
Training needs will only be fulfilled if they are in line with organisation's strategic needs		
TNA methods used by the Abu Dhabi Police produce clear, relevant, specific data on performance discrepancies		
TNA methods used by the Abu Dhabi Police make it possible to distinguish between training that employees need and training that they want		
TNA conducted to differentiate performance problems caused by employees' lack of skills, knowledge and abilities (KSAs) and problems caused by other factors.		
TNA determines the 'where', 'what' and 'who' decisions of training		
It provides a benchmark for evaluating training and records the justification of training budget.		
The management of this organisation believes that TNA process are cost effective		
The management of this organisation believes that TNA is central for improving the training effectiveness		
Top managers are committed to TNA function		
The present volume of TNA is adequate to solve your current problems		

Section C: Training Decisions

[In this section, please provide us with information regarding how training decision is made in terms of who should attend and what is the training program. Please answer only the relevant questions]

Q.8. Below are various approaches used to nominate candidates to attend a training course? Would you please indicate the methods that were used in nominating you to attend the programme in the Abu Dhabi Police? Please tick (√) in the box that reflects the most accurate answer.

Approaches to select employees for training	**Yes**	**No**
Suggestion in performance appraisal forms		
My supervisor's recommendation		
I applied to attend (My personal desire)		
I was directed to attend		
I was chosen by my colleagues to represent my department		
I was a replacement for someone who could not attend		
Others, (please specify)		

Q.9. Do you think that your personal ties with your supervisors have helped you to attend the training program?

....

Q.10. Do you think that your personal ties with top management in Abu Dhabi Police have helped you to attend the training program?

....

Q.11. In your opinion, what are the reasons played an important part in your desire to attend the training program in the Abu Dhabi Police.

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....

Q.12. In your opinion, selection of employees for training should be based on:

Selecting employees for training	**Yes**	**No**
the views of their boss		
the decision of committee		
their annual performance appraisal		
their seniority and willingness		
their position		
their academic qualification		
the length of service		
Others, (please specify)		

Q.13. Which of the following forms of training does the Abu Dhabi Police use?

☐ On-the-job training

☐ Off-the-job within the organization but not on-the-job

☐ External training (outside the organization)

☐ Other, please specify...

Section D: Effectiveness of TNA

[In this section, please provide us with information on how strategic is your training function and the role of training in shaping the organisations' strategy. Please answer only the relevant questions.]

Q.14. Do you think the training programme was related exactly to your training needs?

....

Q.15. Was it easy for you to apply what was learned in the training programme that you attended after TNA decision into your job place? Give reasons for your answer.

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Q.16. Are the existing methods of TNA practiced in Abu Dhabi Police ideal? Give reasons for your answer?

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Section E: Barriers of TNA (TNA Problems and Challenges)

[In this section, please provide us with information regarding the barriers (general, organizational, cultural or technological) that affect training needs analysis process of Abu Dhabi Police.]

Q.17. According to your experience about training needs analysis process in Abu Dhabi Police, what are the main difficulties facing the implementation and conducting TNA.

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Q.18. In your opinion, can the analysis of training needs in the Abu Dhabi Police be improved? If yes, how?

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Comments:

If you have, any further comments, suggestions or views relating to the identification of trainees' training needs, please write here:

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Thank you very much for your great assistance in completing this questionnaire. If you would like to receive a copy of the research findings once the study is completed, please give your name and address here:

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Thank you for your co-operation

Appendix (C)

Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Senior Executives/ Manager /Trainers (Arabic Version)

<div dir="rtl">

جامــــعةبرونيـــل

كليـــةبرونيـــللإدارةالأعمــال

"ممارسـات تحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة : دراسـة ميدانية لشرطـة أبو ظبـي "

<u>**برنامــج المقابلــة الشخصية لكبارالمسؤولين التنفيذيين والمديرين والمدربين**</u>

أعزائيالمشاركين،

أقوم حالياً بدراسة الدكتوراه في مجال الدراسات الإدارية في كلية برونيل لإدارة الأعمال ، جامعـة برونيـل، المملكـة المتحـدة. ومجـال اختصاصـي مـن البحـث هـو "تحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبية : دراسة ميدانية في شرطة أبوظبي".

ومن خلال هذا البحث ، أسعى لتقييم الممارسات الحالية ومدى فعاليةعملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في إطـار شرطة أبوظبي. وستكون إجابـاتكم في غاية الأهميـة في سبيل إنجـاح هذه الدراسة. وأود أن أؤكد لكم أن إجابـاتكم ستكون "**<u>سرية للغايـة</u>**" وسوف تستخدم لأجل غايات أكاديمية ليس إلا.

ولـذا فـإنني أطلب مـن سـعادتكم ملـئ الاستبيان والتفضـل بالقيـام بـه . ومـن دواعـي سـروري مشاركتكم نتائج هذا البحث ، في حال رغبتكم , بمجرد الانتهاء من الدراسة. وأقدر وقتكم الثمين ونقر بدعمكم لنا ومع خالص شكرنا .

مع تحياتي ,,

النقيب / علي حمد الغفلي

<table>
<tr><td>ضابط شرطة</td><td>باحث دكتوراه</td></tr>
<tr><td>القيادة العامة لشرطة أبوظبي</td><td>برونيل كلية إدارة الأعمال</td></tr>
<tr><td>أبو ظبي، الإمارات العربية المتحدة</td><td>جامعة برونيل غرب لندن</td></tr>
<tr><td>+971502330203</td><td>UB8 3PH،المملكة البريطانية</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ali_alghufli@hotmail.com</td><td>Ali.ghufli @ brunel.ac.uk</td></tr>
</table>

</div>

غـــرض هـــذا البحـــث

هناك اهتمام متزايد بالتدريب في العالم بشكل عام وفي دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة بشكل خاص من أجل تحسين أداء الموارد البشرية لتحقيق المستوى المنشود من الفعالية واستمرار النجاح. وفي معظم الدول العربية لا يتم إجراؤه بطريقة مهنية، من حيث تحليل احتياجات المتدربين وترشيح المتدربين وتنفيذ وتقييم البرامج التدريبية. وفي هذا الصدد ، يجادل عبد الله و الحمود (1995) ، والبحار وآخرون في (1996) وعبد الله وآخرون في (1998) بأن العديد من الممارسات التنظيمية العربية من حيث إدارة التدريب والتنمية ناقصة بسبب غياب التخطيط المنهجي والتنفيذ والتقييم. وفضلا عن ذلك فإن معظم الدول العربية تعاني من صعوبة في التعرف على التدريب الفعلي المطلوب لموظفيها .

(1978)، الخضر (1980) والفالح والعديد من الباحثين العرب، مثل الدكتور الأمير وآخرون (1985) ، يجادلون بأن المنظمات العربية تفتقر إلى الوصف الوظيفي وتقييم الأداء والنهج فإن هذه الدراسة تسعى إلى المستخدم والواضح لتقييم الاحتياجات التدريبية للموظفين. وبالتالي استكشاف مدى فعالية عملية تحليل احتياجات التدريب الحالية للشرطة ، والعوامل التي تؤثر على العملية وتأثير تحليل احتياجات المتدربين على تحسين فعالية التدريب.

ويساهم هذا البحث في الجانب الميداني من حيث التحقيقات التجريبية لعملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية ضمن إطار الشرطة لفهم الأساليب والممارسات الحالية لهذه العملية وإثراء وسد الثغرات الموجودة في المراجع الأدبية لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في الدول العربية، وكذلك يساهم هذا البحث في الجانب النظري لتطوير نموذج يطبق على نطاق واسع. لذلك فإنه لا يتم تطبيقه على الشرطة فقط وليس في الشرق الأوسط فقط ولكن يمتد إلى بلدان أخرى وغيرها من مؤسسات القطاع العام..

<u>**برنامـج المقابلـة الشخصية شبـه المُقننة لجمع البيانات الأولية**</u>

<u>الجزء (أ) : بيانـات شخصية</u>

[إن الغرض من هذا الجزء هو الحصول على معلومات عامة تتعلق بك بوصفك مشارك في هذا البحث.]

الوضع الوظيفي   : ....

مدة الخدمة في شرطة أبوظبي   : ....

مدة الخدمة في الوظيفية الحالية   : ....

المؤهلات العلمية   : ....

العمر   : ....

الجنس   : ....

<u>الجـزء (ب) : الممارسـات الحاليـة لتحليـل الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة (TNA)</u>

[في هذا الجـزء , الرجـاء تزويـدنا ببعض المعلومـات بشـأن الممارسـات الحاليـة لتحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة لشرطة أبوظبي . **والرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة ذات الصلة بك فقط** .]

س1 . هل أنتم مسؤولعن أي نشاط متعلق بعملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية لشرطة أبوظبي؟
....

س2 . في حالة الإجابة بنعم ، في أية نوع من الأنشطة أنت مشارك ؟
....
....
....

س3. هل تقوم بأجراء تحليل رسمي للاحتياجات التدريبية في شرطة أبوظبي ؟
....

س4. في حالة الإجابة بنعم ، كم مرة تقوم بإجراء تحليل للاحتياجات التدريبية ؟
....
....
....

س5. لماذا تقوم شرطة أبوظبي بإجراء تحليل للاحتياجات التدريبية ؟
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....

س6. هل يمكـن أن تشـير إلى المسـتويات التـي تسـتخدمها في إجـراء التـدريب في مجـال تحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبية في شرطة أبو ظبي؟ يرجى وضع علامة في الخانة المناسبة :

مستوى الوظائف ☐   مستوى المنظمة ☐

جميع ما سبق ☐   مستوى الأفراد ☐

س 7 . مـا الطريقـة التـي تسـتخدمها فـي جمـع بيانـات تحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة ؟ يرجوضـععلامة (√) فيالخانةالتيتعكسالجوابالأكثردقة .

لا	نعـــم	طـرق تقييـم الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة
		الاستبيانات
		المقابلات الشخصية وجهاً لوجه مع الموظفين
		المقابلات الجماعية مع المديرين والمشرفين
		الملاحظة المباشرة
		التحديد من خلال لجنة تدريبية خاصة
		نتائج ومعلومات تقييم الأداء
		من خلال الوصف الوظيفي للأفراد في المؤسسة
		اختبارات المهارات والمعرفة والقدرات
		طرق أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها) ....

س8. ماهيالمعايير التيتأخذونهافيالاعتبارلاختيارطريقةجمعبياناتتحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبية؟يرجوضـــععلامة (√) فيالخانةالتيتعكسالجوابالأكثردقة.

لا	نعـــم	معايير اختيار طرق تجميع بيانات تحليل النتائج التدريبية
		تفضيلات الإدارة العليا
		قبول الموظفين
		سهولة الاستخدام
		فعالية التكاليف
		الوقت المطلوب
		القيم والثقافة المؤسسية
		السرية
		حجم العينة
		الخبرةالتيتتمتعبها موظفيالمواردالبشرية
		طرق أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها) ....

س9. مــا هــي مصــادر البيانــات التــي ترجــع إليهــا لتحليــل الاحتياجــات التدريبيــة فــي المســتويات المختلفــة ؟
يرجىوضععلامة (√) فيالخانةالتيتعكسالجوابالأكثردقة .

		مصادر البيانات
لا	**نعــــم**	أ. **المستوى التنظيمى**
		الغايات والأهداف المؤسسية
		بيانمفصلبالمهارات
		بيان مفصل بقوة العمل
		طلب الإدارة
		تغييرات في النظام والأنظمة الفرعية
		مؤشرات المناخ والبيئة المؤسسية
		طرق أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)
		....
		....
		....
		....
لا	**نعــــم**	ب . **المستوى التنفيذى**
		الوصف الوظيفي
		خصائصالوظيفة
		معايير الأداء
		المراجع الأدبية المتعلقة بالوظيفة
		طرق أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)
		....
		....
		....
		....
لا	**نعــــم**	ت . **المستوى الفردي**
		بيانات تقييمالأداء
		نتائجاختباراتالمهارات والمعارف والقدرات
		الاستبيان
		اقتراح المشرفين
		طرق أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)
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س10. مـا هـي رؤيتـك الشـاملة فيمـا يتعلـق بممارسـات تحليـل الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة لشـرطة أبـو ظبـي؟ يرجوضععلامة (√) فيالخانةالتيتعكسالجوابالأكثردقة .

	لا	نعــم	التصور العــام بخصــوص ممارســات تحليــل الاحتياجات التدريبية
1			تحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبيةتؤكد وتدعمممارساتالتدريبفيالمؤسسةلضمانفعاليةالتدريب .
2			تتحققفقطالاحتياجاتالتدريبيةإذاكانتتتماشمعاحتياجاتالمؤسسةالإستراتيجية .
3			الطرقالمستخدمةلتحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبيةمنقبلشرطةأبوظبيتُقدمبياناتذاتصلةووا ضحةومحددة عنأختلافات أو تفاوتالأداء .
4			الطرقالمستخدمةلتحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبيةمنقبلشرطةأبوظبيتجعلمنالممكنالتمييز بينالتدريبالذيح تاجإليهالموظفينوالتدريبالذييريدونه .
5			تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية تنفذ للتمييز بين مشاكل الأداء بسبب قلة المهارات والمعرفة والقدرات في الموظفين ، والمشاكل التي تكون بسبب عوامل أخرى .
6			يحدد تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية "أين" و"ما" و"من" يتخذ القرارات التدريبية .
7			يوفر تحليل الإحتياجات التدريبية مقياساً لتقييم التدريب ويعتبر مبرر للميزانية المخصصة للتدريب .
8			إدارةهذهالمؤسسةتعتقدأنطريقةتحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبيةفعالةمنحيثالتكلفة .
9			إدارةهذهالمؤسسةتؤمنبأنتحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبيةأمرمحوريمنأجلتحسينفعاليةالتدريب .
10			كبار المديرين ملتزمين بدور تحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبية .
11			كميةمعلوماتتحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبيةكافيةلحلالمشاكلالحاليةالخاصةبك .

الجــزء (ت) : قـــــرارات التدريـــب

[وفي هذا الجزء يرجى تزويدنا بمعلومات عن الطريقة التي يتم بها اتخاذ قرار التدريب من حيث من ينبغي أن يحضر وما هو البرنامج التدريبي. *الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة ذات الصلة فقط*]

س11. هل تشارك في اختيار المتدربين للبرنامج ؟

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س12. كيـف يـتم اختيـار مــوظفي شــرطة أبــو ظبــي لحضــور التــدريب؟ يرجوضــععلامة (√) فيالخانةالتيتعكسالجوابالأكثردقة .

لا	نعم	طــرق اختيــار الموظفيــن للتدريــب
		اقتراحات في نماذج تقييم الأداء
		توصية المشرف
		طلب الموظف حضور التدريب (رغبة الموظف)
		توجيه الموظفين للحضور
		اختيار الموظفين من قبل زملائهم لتمثيل إدارتهم
		مناقشة المقرر التدريبي مع مدير التدريب وطرح الأسماء
		طرق أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)
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س. 13. منوجهةنظرك,ينبغيأنيكوناختيارالموظفينبناءًعلى:

لا	نعــم	اختيــار الموظفيــن للتدريــب
		وجهاتنظررئسائهمفيالعمل
		قرار اللجنة
		تقييم الأداء السنوي
		الأقدمية
		مركزهم الوظيفي
		مؤهلهم العلمي
		طول مدة الخدمة
		أسباب أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)
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س14. أيمنأنماطالتدريبالتاليةيتماستخدامهامنقبلشرطةأبوظبي؟
- [ ] التدريب في موقع العمل
- [ ] التدريببعيداعنموقعالعملداخلالمنظمةولكنليسفيموقعالعمل
- [ ] التدريب الخارجي (خارج المؤسسة)
- [ ] أنماط أخرى ، الرجاء ذكرها

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س15. هـل تحصـل شرطة أبوظبي علـى أي نـوع مـن المسـاعدة مـن مقدمي الخـدمات مـن الخـارج لتحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة (المدربين / مراكـز تدريب) أثنـاء إعداد أو تنفيـذ عمليـة تقييم الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة في شرطة أبوظبي ؟

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س16. في حالة الإجابة بنعم , الرجاء تحديد , لماذا تحصل شرطة أبوظبي على المساعدة من مقدمي الخدمات من خارج المؤسسة لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية (المدربين / مراكز تدريب) ؟

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الجــزء (ث) : فعاليــة تحليــل الاحتياجــات التدريبيــة

[في هذا الجزء الرجاء تزويدنا بمعلومات حول مدى الإستراتيجية في التدريب الوظيفي الخاص بك ودور التدريب في صياغة إستراتيجية المؤسسات. *الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة ذات الصلة فقط.*]

س17. من وجهة نظرك هل يقوم الموظفين بتطبيق ما قد تعلموه في البرنامج التدريبي في حياتهم الوظيفية ، وما الذي يجعله ممكناً أو صعباً ؟

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س18. هل الطرق الحالية التي يتم ممارستها لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في شرطة أبوظبي مثالية ؟ أعطي أسباب لإجابتك .

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س19. كيف يمكن تقييم فعالية عملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية لشرطة أبو ظبي؟ يرجى وضع علامة (√) في الخانة التي تعكس الجواب الأكثر دقة .

لا	نعـم	فعاليــة تحليــل الاحتياجــات التدريبيــة	
		قبــل البدأفيالتدريب،تتأكــد بدقــة أنالمشــكلةقد يكــون حلهافيمكانــآخر (مثلبيئةالعمل،والأدوات،وأنظمةالمكافئات) وليس بالتدريب .	1
		المنظمة لديها خطة واضحة للتدريب المستمر .	2
		يتم استعراض الوصـف الـوظيفي لوظيفـة الموظـف قبـل اتخـاذ قـرار بشـأن برنـامج التدريب الذي سيجريه الموظف .	3
		تستند العلاقـة بـين الـموظفين المتـدربين وأخصـائي التـدريب الخـارجيين والمـديرين التنفيذيين على التفاهم المتبادل وتبادل الأفكار من أجل حل المشاكل ذات الصلة بتنمية الموارد البشرية .	4
		لديكحقالوصول إلى أهدافواستراتيجيات شرطةأبوظبي .	5
		يرتبط التدريبارتباطا وثيقا بالخطط الاستراتيجية لشرطة أبوظبي .	6
		أهدافالتدريب تتناغم معالثقافة المؤسسة لشرطةأبوظبي .	7
		يمكنك أنتلتمسالدعموالالتزاممن الإدارةالعليا لتوفير كافة التسهيلاتلأنشطةالتدريب .	8
		السياساتوالخطط المتعلقةبالتدريب مرنةوقابلةللتكيفمع الظروفالمتغيرة .	9
		يتم مسبقا تحديدمدمستوى الكفاءة المطلوبة والمتوقعأنيصلاإليهالموظف بعدالتدريب .	10
		يمكنكتحديـد المعارفوالمهاراتوالاتجاهاتــــالتي يجبأنتكونلــدى الموظف منأجلأداء هذهالمهمةبنجاح .	11
		الموظفينلديهمدوافعللمشاركةفي عمليةتحليلالاحتياجاتالتدريبية .	12
		تمتصنيف متطلباتالكفاءة ذاتالصلةبالوظيفةوفقا لأهميتها .	13
		تمتقيــــــــــــــــــــــــــــيم المهــــــــــــــــــــــــــارات والكفاءاالحالية علمستوى الموظفين قبل اتخاذقراربشأن برنامجالتدريب الذيسيجريه الموظف .	14
		تقوم بالتأكيد على فعالية تكلفة التدريب لتقييم فعالية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية .	15

الجزء (ج) : معوقات عملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية (المشاكل والتحديات)

[في هذا الجزء يرجى تزويدنا بمعلومات عن المعوقات (العامـة والتنظيميـة والثقافيـة والتكنولوجيـة) التـي تـؤثر على عملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية لشرطة أبوظبي.]

س20. وفقا لخبرتك حول عملية تحديد وتحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة في شرطة أبـوظبي، مـا هـي الصـعوبات الرئيسية التي تواجه تنفيذ وإجراء هذه العملية.

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س21. من وجهة نظرك، هل يمكن أن تتحسن عملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في شرطة أبوظبي ؟في حالـة الإجابة بنعم ؟ كيف يمكن أن تتحسن ؟

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التعليقــــات والملاحظظات الإضافية:

إذا كان لديك مزيد من التعليقات أو الاقتراحات أو الآراء المتعلقة بتحديد الاحتياجات التدريبية المتدربين يرجى الكتابة هنا :

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شكراً جزيلا لمساعدتكم القيمة في انجاز هذا الاستبيان ، وإذا كنت ترغب في الحصول على نسخة من نتائج البحث عندما يتم إنجاز الدراسة ، يرجى تقديم اسمك وعنوانك هنا :

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"شــــــــرا لتــــــعاونـــــكـم"

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Appendix (D)

Semi-structured Interview Schedule

for Trainees (Arabic Version)

جامـــــعــــةبرونيـــــل

كليـــةبرونيـــــللإدارةالأعمـــال

"ممارسـات تحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبية : دراسـة تجريبية لشرطـة أبو ظبـي "

<u>برنامـــج المقابلـــة الشخصية للمتدربين</u>

أعـزائي المشاركين ،

أقوم حالياً بدراسـة الدكتوراه في مجـال الدراسـات الإدارية في كلية برونيل لإدارة الأعمـال ، جامعـة برونيـل، المملكـة المتحـدة. ومجـال اختصاصـي مـن البحـث هـو "تحليل الاحتياجـات التدريبية : دراسة ميدانية في شرطة أبوظبي".

ومن خلال هذا البحث ، أسعى لتقييم الممارسات الحالية ومدى فعالية عملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في إطار شرطة أبوظبي. وستكون إجاباتكم في غاية الأهمية في سبيل إنجاح هذه الدراسة. وأود أن أؤكد لكم أن إجاباتكم ستكون **"<u>سرية للغايـة</u>"** وسوف تستخدم لأجل غايات أكاديمية ليس إلا.

ولـذا فـإنني أطلب مـن سـعادتكم ملـئ الاسـتبيان والتفضـل بالقيـام بـه ، ومـن دواعـي سـروري مشاركتكم نتائج هذا البحث في حال رغبتكم بمجرد الانتهاء من الدراسة، وأقدر وقتكم الثْمين ونقر بدعمكم لنا ومع خالص شكرنا .

مع تحياتي ,,

النقيب / علي حمد الغفلي

ضابط شرطة	باحث دكتوراه
القيادة العامة لشرطة أبوظبي	برونيل كلية إدارة الأعمال
أبو ظبي، الإمارات العربية المتحدة	جامعة برونيل غرب لندن
+971502330203	UB8 3PH،المملكة البريطانية
Ali_alghufli@hotmail.com	Ali.ghufli @ brunel.ac.uk

<div dir="rtl">

غــــرض هـــذا البحـــث

هناك اهتمام متزايد بالتدريب في العالم بشكل عام وفي دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة بشكل خاص من أجل تحسين أداء الموارد البشرية لتحقيق المستوى المنشود من الفعالية واستمرار النجاح. وفي معظم الدول العربية لا يتم إجراؤه بطريقة مهنية، من حيث تحليل احتياجات المتدربين وترشيح المتدربين وتنفيذ وتقييم البرامج التدريبية. وفي هذا الصدد ، يجادل عبد الله و الحمود (1995) ، والبحار وآخرون في (1996) وعبد الله وآخرون في (1998) بأن العديد من الممارسات التنظيمية العربية ، من حيث إدارة التدريب والتنمية ناقصة بسبب غياب التخطيط المنهجي والتنفيذ والتقييم. وفضلا عن ذلك فإن معظم الدول العربية تعاني من صعوبة في التعرف على التدريب الفعلي المطلوب لموظفيها .

والعديد من الباحثين العرب مثل الدكتور الأمير وآخرون. (1978)، الخضر (1980) والفالح (1985) ، يجادلون بأن المنظمات العربية تفتقر إلى الوصف الوظيفي وتقييم الأداء والنهج المستخدم والواضح لتقييم الاحتياجات التدريبية للموظفين. وبالتالي فإن هذه الدراسة تسعى إلى استكشاف مدى فعالية عملية تحليل احتياجات التدريب الحالية لشرطة أبوظبي والعوامل التي تؤثر على العملية وتأثير تحليل احتياجات المتدربين على تحسين فعالية التدريب.

ويساهم هذا البحث في الجانب الميداني من حيث التحقيقات التجريبية لعملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية ضمن إطار شرطة أبوظبي لفهم الأساليب والممارسات الحالية لهذه العملية وإثراء وسد الثغرات الموجودة في المراجع الأدبية لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في الدول العربية، وكذلك يساهم هذا البحث في الجانب النظري، لتطوير نموذج يطبق على نطاق واسع . لذلك فإنه لا يتم تطبيقه على شرطة أبو ظبي فقط وليس في الشرق الأوسط فقط ، ولكن يمتد إلى بلدان أخرى وغيرها من مؤسسات القطاع العام.

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برنامــج المقابلــة الشخصيــة شبــه المُقننة لجمع البيانات الأولية

الجزء (أ) : البيانات الشخصية

[إن الغرض من هذا الجزء هو الحصول على معلومات عامة تتعلق بك بوصفك مشارك في هذا البحث.]

الوضع الوظيفي	:	....
مدة الخدمة في شرطة أبوظبي	:	....
مدة الخدمة في الوظيفية الحالية	:	....
المؤهلات العلمية	:	....
العمر	:	....
الجنس	:	....

الجزء (ب) : الممارسات الحالية لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية (TNA)

[في هذا الجزء , الرجاء تزويدنا ببعض المعلومات بشأن الممارسات الحالية لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية لشرطة أبوظبي . والرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة ذات الصلة بك فقط .]

س1 . هل يقوم مشرفك بالمناقشة معك بخصوص احتياجاتك التدريبية قبل الحضور للبرنامج التدريبية؟

....

س 2 . متى كانت آخر مرة تم فيها تقييم أداؤك ؟

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س 3 . هل تم توصيتك ببرنامج تدريبي معين في آخر تقييم لك ؟

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س 4 . هل يوجد وصف وظيفي مكتوب يشرح مهام ومسؤوليات وظيفتك الحالية ؟

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س 5. في حالة الإجابة بنعم إلى أي مدى يكون الوصف الوظيفي الخطي متعلق بوظيفتك في شرطة أبوظبي ؟

☐ إلى حد كبير

☐ إلى حد ما

☐ إلي حد ضئيل

☐ لا على الإطلاق

☐ لا أعرف

س 6. ما الطريقة التي تستخدمها شرطة أبوظبي في تحديد احتياجاتك التدريبية ؟ الرجاء وضع علامة (√) في الخانة التي تعكس أكثر الإجابات دقة لك ؟

لا	نعم	طــرق تقييــم الاحتياجــات التدريبيـة
		الاستبيانات
		المقابلات الشخصية وجهاً لوجه مع الموظفين
		المقابلات الجماعية مع المديرين والمشرفين
		الملاحظة المباشرة
		التحديد عن طريق لجنة تدريب خاصة
		نتائج أو معلومات تقييم الأداء
		من خلال الوصف الوظيفي للأفراد في مؤسستك
		اختبارات المهارات والمعارف والقدرات
		طرق أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)
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س 7. ما هي رؤيتك الشاملة فيما يتعلق بممارسات تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية لشرطة أبو ظبي؟ يرجى وضع علامة (√) في الخانة التي تعكس الجواب الأكثر دقة .

لا	نعــم	التصور العــام بخصــوص ممارســات تحليـل الاحتياجـات التدريبية	
		تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية تؤكد وتدعم ممارسات التدريب في المؤسسة لضمان فعالية التدريب	1
		تتحقق فقط الاحتياجات التدريبية إذا كانت تتماشى مع احتياجات المؤسسة الاستراتيجية .	2
		الطرق المستخدمة لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية من قبل شرطة أبوظبي تُقدم بيانات ذات صلة وواضحة ومحددة عن اختلافات أو تفاوت الأداء .	3
		الطرق المستخدمة لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية من قبل شرطة أبوظبي تجعل من الممكن التمييز بين التدريب الذي يحتاج إليه الموظفين والتدريب الذي يريدونه .	4
		تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية تنفذ للتمييز بين مشاكل الأداء بسبب قلة المهارات والمعرفة والقدرات في الموظفين ، والمشاكل التي تكون بسبب عوامل أخرى .	5
		يحدد تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية "أين" و"ما" و"من" يتخذ القرارات التدريبية .	6
		يوفر تحليل الإحتياجات التدريبية مقياساً لتقييم التدريب ويعتبر مبرر للميزانية المخصصة للتدريب .	7
		يوفر تحليل الإحتياجات التدريبية مقياساً ً لتقييم التدريب ويعتبر مبرر للميزانية المخصصة للتدريب .	8
		إدارة هذه المؤسسة تعتقد أن طريقة تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية فعالة من حيث التكلفة .	9
		كبار المديرين ملتزمين بدور تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية	10
		كمية معلومات تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية كافية لحل المشاكل الحالية الخاصة بك ..	11

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الجــزء (ت)   : قـــــرارات التدريـــب

[وفي هذا الجزء يرجى تزويدنا بمعلومات عن الطريقة التي يتم بها اتخاذ قرار التدريب من حيث من ينبغي أن يحضر وما هو البرنامج التدريبي. الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة ذات الصلة فقط]

س 8. فيما يلي الطرق المختلفة المستخدمة لتسمية المرشحين لحضور الدورة التدريبية؟ هل من الممكن من فضلك الإشارة إلى الطرق التي استخدمت في ترشيحك لحضور البرنامج في شرطة أبو ظبي؟ يرجى وضع علامة (√) في الخانة التي تعكس الجواب الأكثر دقة .

لا	نعم	<u>طــرق اختيار الموظفين للتدريب</u>
		الاقتراحات في نماذج تقييم الأداء
		توصية المشرفين
		تقدمت بطلب للحضور (رغبتي الشخصية)
		تم توجيهي للحضور
		تم اختياري من قبل زملائي لتمثيل إدارتي
		كنت بديلا لشخص لم يتمكن من الحضور
		طرق أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)
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س 9. هل تعتقد أن علاقاتك الخاصة بمشرفيك قد ساعدتك في حضور البرنامج التدريبي ؟

....

س 10. هل تعتقد أن علاقاتك الخاصة بالإدارة العليا في شرطة أبوظبي قد ساعدتك في حضور البرنامج التدريبي ؟

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س 11. في رأيك هل تعتقد أن الأسباب التالية لعبت دورا هاما في رغبتك حضور البرنامج التدريبي في شرطة أبوظبي ؟

لا	نعم	<u>الأســباب</u>
		تعزيز أدائي في وظيفتي الحالية
		اكتساب معارف ومهارات جديدة من أجل الترقية
		اللقاء مع أشخاص
		الحصول على شهادة
		الدورة إلزامية
		أسباب أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)
		....
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س 12. على حسب رأيك، ينبغي أن يكون اختيار الموظفين بناءً على :

<u>لا</u>	<u>نعـــم</u>	<u>اختيـــار الموظفيـــن للتدريـــب</u>
		وجهات نظر رئيسهم عن العمل
		قرار اللجنة
		تقييم الأداء السنوي
		الأقدمية
		مركزهم الوظيفي
		المؤهل العلمي
		طول مدة الخدمة
		أسباب أخرى ، (الرجاء ذكرها)

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س. 13. أي من أنماط التدريب التالية يتم استخدامها من قبل شرطة أبوظبي ؟

☐ التدريب في موقع العمل
☐ التدريب بعيدا عن موقع العمل داخل المنظمة ولكن ليس في موقع العمل
☐ التدريب الخارجي (خارج المؤسسة)
☐ أنماط أخرى ، الرجاء ذكرها

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الجزء (ث) : فعالية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية

[في هذا الجزء الرجاء تزويدنا بمعلومـات حول مدى الإستراتيجية فـي التدريب الوظيفي الخـاص بك ودور التدريب في صياغة إستراتيجية الهيئات. الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة ذات الصلة فقط.]

س 14. هل تعتقد أن البرنامج التدريبي متعلق تماماً باحتياجاتك التدريبية ؟

....

س 15. هل كان من السهل عليك تطبيق ما تعلمته في البرنامج التدريبي الذي قمت بحضوره بعد قرار تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في مكان وظيفتك ؟ أعطي أسباب لإجابتك .

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س16. هل الطرق الحالية التي يتم ممارستها لتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في شرطة أبوظبي مثالية ؟ أعطي أسباب لإجابتك .

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الجزء (ج) : معوقات عملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية (المشاكل والتحديات)

[في هذا الجزء يرجى تزويدنا بمعلومات عن المعوقات (العامة والتنظيمية والثقافية والتكنولوجية) التي تؤثر على عملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية لشرطة أبوظبي.]

س17. وفقا لخبرتك حول عملية تحديد وتحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في شرطة أبوظبي، ما هي الصعوبات الرئيسية التي تواجه تنفيذ وإجراء هذه العملية.

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س18. من وجهة نظرك، هل يمكن أن تتحسن عملية تحليل الاحتياجات التدريبية في شرطة أبوظبي ؟في حالة الإجابة بنعم ؟ كيف يمكن أن تتحسن ؟

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التعليقــاتوالملاحظات الإضافية:

إذا كـان لـديك، مزيد مـن التعليقـات أو الاقتراحـات أو الآراء المتعلقـة بتحديد الاحتياجـات التدريبيـة المتـدربين، يرجى الكتابة هنا :

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شكراً جزيلا لمساعدتكم العظيمة في انجاز هذا الاستبيان ، وإذا كنت ترغب في الحصول على نسخة من نتائج البحث عندما يتم إنجاز الدراسة يرجى تقديم اسمك وعنوانك هنا :

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"شــــــــرا لتــــــعاونــــــكم"

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