

The Path to HRD: An Investigation of Training and Development Practices in the Libyan Manufacturing Sector In 21st century

Abdulrahim, Abdulslam

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study is to understand the nature and maturity level of HRD activities in Libyan manufacturing companies, and to investigate how far Libya has moved along a continuum comprising traditional T&D to HRD practices. It aims to assess whether the concept of HRD can be applied to activities of these companies. This study aims in particular to deduce empirical evidence through descriptive accounts of HRD and to compare them with standard HRD models.

A descriptive methodology has been adopted in this research, and multi-methods (qualitative and quantitative) are used to gather and analyse multi-sources of data that comprise observation, semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, literature, and official documents. Triangulation analysis has been employed, which is appropriate for multi-source data.

The findings include:

The majority of the investigated companies do not have a formal HRD system. HRD programs are still carried out on a piecemeal basis rather than through a systematic long-term policy. Findings which were common among the majority of the approached companies were: an absence of a systematic organisational training needs analysis; the use of traditional training methods; and a lack of effective procedures for T&D evaluation. All of this shows that Libya has made little progress along the continuum from T&D to HRD, and that this progress is mostly confined to large manufacturing companies. Findings revealed that in order to move to the practice of HRD in the manufacturing sector, Libya is faced with the challenge of enhancing employees' learning and development in the workplace and coping with the demand for knowledge-workers. These challenges and the various deficiencies in the HRD system are observed to have resulted from the lack of professional and intellectual HRD expertise. This has implications for the continuous development of human resources, as well as for the development of knowledge-workers.

From this study, models of HRD have been constructed to simplify the complex and multiple realities associated with developing employees in organisations and to provide a framework against which a clearer understanding of the nature of HRD can be conceptualised and theorised. Therefore, this study contributes to research by mapping the extent of HRD development in the manufacturing companies in Libya and forms a basis upon which future research studies may be developed. From the conclusions of the study, various implications were generated for other researchers, management practitioners and policy makers.

DEDICATION

Dedicated to my late father, Mohamad Abduljoad Abdulrahim,

How I wish he was alive to witness this great moment in my life.

And to my mother, Halima; my wife, Hana, my daughter, Hala; my son Mohamed;

and to the rest of my family brothers and sisters.

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List of Abbreviations

ADDIE	Analyse, Design, Develop, Implement, and Evaluate
AHRD	Academy of Human Resource Development
ASTD	American Society for Training and Development
AO	Arab Organisation
AOAS	Arab Organisation of Administration Sciences
ATP	Approved Training Programme
CERA	Cambridge Energy Research Associates
COFAT	Consultative Office for Administrative Training
COFAC	Consultative Office for Administrative Control
GPC	General Public Committee
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GCR	Global Competitiveness Report
GPC	General People's Committee
HR	Human Resource
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
HCIMT	High Centre for Industrial Management and Technology
HIFMB	High Institutes for Management and Banking
IT	Information Technology
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ISPI	International Society for Performance Improvement
ISD	Instructional Systems Development
IHRD	International Human Resource Development
ISO	International Standards of Operation
IiP	Investors in People
LMCs	Large Manufacturing Companies

LCs	Libyan companies
LD	Libyan Dinar
LPC	Libyan Institute of Public Control
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MTDPs	Management Training and Development Programmes
MTD	Management Training and Development
MEVT	Manpower Employment & Vocational Training
NHRD	National Human Resource Development
NIPA	National Institute of Public Administration
OD	Organization Development
ODPS	Organization development for Performance System
PCAP	Professional Congress for Administrative Professions
PCS	People's Committees
SHRD	Strategic Human Resource Development
SSF	Social Security Fund
SMCs	Small and medium Manufacturing Companies
SGPCs	Specific General People's Committees
SPCs	Specific People's Committees
SPA	School of Public Administration
T&D	Training and Development
TQM	Total Quality management
UN	United Nation Organisation
UNDP	United Nation Development Programmes

Chapter one

Introduction to the research themes

1.1 Introduction

In recent years, increasing attention has been given within organisations to human resource development (HRD) through the training and development of employees, in order to prepare and equip them with new skills, methods, and strategies to carry out greater responsibilities (Wang, 2008). Torraco & Swanson, (1995) stated that HRD serves the needs of organisations to provide employees with up-to-date expertise. This need has arisen because of the vital role that training and development (T&D) plays in the human improvement necessary to meet business strategic objectives.

HRD has grown and expanded under a variety of labels, and among these is T&D as old-style of HRD. Willis (1990) defines HRD as a “multifaceted discipline that utilises well-qualified individuals in HRD activities to integrate the use of training and development and organisational development to improve individual, group, and organisational effectiveness”.

This thesis is concerned with the status of T&D and its relationship with HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya and the changing nature of training and development as it moves from a training focus to strategic orientation. Practices labelled as 'HRD,' rather than training and development, are emerging to accompany what has been described as human resource management (HRM). The context in which this study chooses to investigate this change is the Libyan manufacturing sector, where there is talk of 'HRM' being increasingly practised, but where there is very little talk about HRD. The purpose is to advance knowledge and

understanding of the nature and concepts of HRD in the Libyan context and in particular to collect experiential evidence of whether there is a move from T&D towards strategic human resource development in this sector.

The findings of this study will provide valuable insights into the conceptualisation and theoretical understanding of HRD in the manufacturing sector in both Small and Medium Companies (SMCs) and large manufacturing companies (LMCs) in Libya and how these companies are moving gradually from traditional T&D toward HRD. This study also provides an avenue for further research by mapping and developing the literature in the field of HRD.

Chapter one provides an outline for the structure of this thesis, summarising each chapter and illustrating the flow of the study through a diagram of the organisation of the thesis and setting the scene for the working framework and subsequent chapters.

In the context of this study, and given the numerous debates about the terms 'HRD' and 'T&D' (see detailed discussion in chapter 3), the terms 'HRD' and 'T&D' will sometimes be used concurrently. It is perhaps not useful to characterize organizations as having T&D or HRD practices but to consider most organizations in this thesis as being on a continuum between these practices, with HRD more or less integrated into the activities of the organization. When referring to Libyan companies, this study will therefore use the short form T&D/HRD to refer to this continuum. However, in the specific context of this study, HRD is viewed as the overall strategic management of knowledge-creating activity and the development of human resources in organisations, whereas T&D is considered as old-style of HRD.

1.2 The need for the study

The first question that needs to be addressed is: 'what is HRD and why is it so important?' The importance of HRD has been realised by many countries, and they have become more interested in and have emphasised the use of HRD to develop, improve, and upgrade the performance of human resources to achieve the required level of effectiveness, and to remain competitive in the world economy particularly in emerging economies, and Arab world countries (Ahmed et al, 2008).

According to Lee and Stead (1998), the concept of human resource development (HRD) is a product of its era, reflecting current thinking that the modern organisation must evolve, adapt, and transform in order to develop and survive effectively. Similarly, Argyris (1994) argues that business and industry will find it hard to survive in the 21st century unless employees are adequately equipped with the skills needed to enable them to increase significantly their contribution to organisational goals and objectives. Therefore, this emergence has heightened the desire of organisations to compete by developing their human resources to enable them to achieve their business goals and to sustain competitive advantage (Poole & Jenkins, 1996; Gardiner et al, 2001). Most senior managers understand that tougher competition will require more effective learning and greater commitment from all employees. They are also undoubtedly aware that success today and future business effectiveness to a large extent depends upon a well trained and dedicated local workforce (Argyris, 1994).

In an attempt to explain HRD, numerous authors have debated the theoretical concepts of HRD, yet a distinctive conceptual and theoretical identity has not yet been established (Garavan et al, 1999; Garavan et al, 2000; Hatcher, 2000). Sambrook, (2009) indicated that HRD is still an emerging concept. Auluck, (2007) suggests that some aspects of the training and development role have changed. However, this change has not been nearly as great as some of the literature suggests. In fact, there appears to have been a greater level of continuity in T&D

than change to HRD. For example, the literature has increasingly emphasized the shift in terminology from “training” to “HRD” as both a title and as an indicator of the change in role (Mankin, 2001; Garavan et al., 1995). However, Auluck, (2007) indicated that “Training” and “Training and development” continue to be the most frequently used job titles. By comparison, in terms of job titles, the term “HRD” was only used in a very small number of cases. In addition, “Training” remained the most common task and the role continues to be described more as a provider and manager of training and development programmes than as a strategic change or organisation development agent. This is perplexingly at odds with what is espoused in much of the literature. McGoldrick et al, (2002) believed that the debates are complicated by the beliefs and understanding of individual stakeholders and HRD practitioners. Although somewhat debatable, several studies in both developed and developing countries have been undertaken to explain the descriptive practices of HRD.

These studies found that the nature and extent of HRD varies from one country to another and is influenced by the economic, political, cultural, labour market and educational systems of each individual country (see for example, Al-Ali, 1999 in Kuwait; Albahussain, 2000 in Saudi Arabia; Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001 in Russia; Elbadri, 2001 in Poland; Budhwar et al, 2002 in Oman; Sambrook, 1998 and 2001 in the UK; Heraty & Morley, 2002 and Kjellberg et al, 1998 in Sweden; Morrow, 2001 and Nolan, 2002 in Ireland; Mishra, 2002 in India; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003 in the UK and India). Therefore, these disparate discourses have indeed intensified the need to theorising and conceptualiseing human resource development.

To a developing country such as Libya, the need for better informed HRD processes is even more acute at a time when the government is attempting to exercise some control over the inflow of foreign skilled workers into Libya. The demands of a developing economy, coupled

with the increasing globalisation of the world market, growing domestic competition, and other challenges ought to make the HRD function a priority of the utmost importance for all business organisations, particularly in the manufacturing sector of Libya. Yet evidence indicates that the HRD deficit is showing no signs of diminishing, nor is it likely to drop in the foreseeable future, unless awareness of the need to make progress in this area is translated into concrete and determined action.

The next question that needs to be responded to is why this research study focuses on Libya, and particularly on the manufacturing sector. It is important to point out at this stage that all of the companies included in the research population were public companies, owned by the Libyan state. Although privately owned companies exist in the Libyan manufacturing sector, they are mostly small in size and lacking in any kind of HRD policy or function Sakilani (2005). A fuller explanation of the degree of independence enjoyed by these companies can be found in section 2.3.3. First, studies analysing HRD in Libya are still limited in number. Attempts to study HRD in Libya have been previously made by Agnaia (1990 & 1996), who discussed the development of human resource activities from the point of view of old-style training and development (T&D). It investigates how Libyan companies plan, execute and evaluate their programmes, and examines the influence of a variety of factors that have an important impact on T&D programmes. Ahmed (2008) analysed a number of HRD issues in relation to the hotel sector, hospitality education and training in Libyan further and higher hospitality education institutions. However, despite the above research, empirical studies of HRD in Libya are still very limited; particularly in terms of identifying and describing practices of HRD which are still using T&D and moving towards more typical HRD (Ahmed, 2008).

Secondly, Libya, being a developing country that is in the midst of transforming itself into a knowledge-based economy (k-economy), believes that the development of a k-economy is crucial in allowing the country to sustain its economic growth and competitive advantage in order to achieve the status of a developed nation by the year 2025 - the "Vision 2025" plan. Hence, Libya started to lay the foundations for a k-economy in the 2000s with the aim of becoming an industrialised nation with a skilled and knowledge-based workforce by the year 2025 (Libyan Government, 2005). Since then, the task of developing human resources has been the key focus to the Government in the country's HRD plans. Much of the Government's emphasis in HRD is targeted at the manufacturing sector. This is because manufacturing accounts for one third of GDP and more than 30 percent of the country's exports and contributes significantly towards the country's economic growth (Ministry of Finance, 2004). As a result, the development of human resources in the manufacturing sector is recognised as a crucial and important task, which is vital in preparing a capable and skilled workforce with the expertise to meet current and future challenges by providing them with technological skills and critical thinking abilities (Al-Farrised, 2007).

Therefore, specific to the case of publicly owned manufacturing companies in Libya, the Government's initiatives and support towards HRD and its important contribution to the economic growth and strategic thrust of the country thus require an exploration and examination of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya. Furthermore, there is limited empirical evidence of a formal framework of HRD in Libya, even though other developed countries such as the UK, European nations and the USA have differing concepts and assumptions of HRD; this has intensified the need to conceptualise HRD in Libya, particularly it's the context as a developing country.

Hence, this study is pertinent to take stock of the development in the field of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya, and to gain a clear understanding of the nature and extent of HRD and its associated concepts, to ensure the capability of human resources in Libya as a developing country moving towards a knowledge economy and the status of a fully developed nation.

1.3 Research Aims and Objectives

The principal aim of this research study is to determine the nature and extent of HRD and its associated concepts in the manufacturing sector in Libya. The study aims to compare the normative models of HRD identified in the literature review with descriptive accounts of practices in Libya. Therefore, this study also aims to gauge and gain valuable insights into T&D/HRD practitioners' views and opinions of HRD, an aim which is principally met by the qualitative element of the research process. Consequently, this research aims to achieve a number of goals that can be summed up as follows:

1. To explore the understanding of a range of personnel who are responsible for T&D/ HRD in manufacturing companies in Libya of the purposes, concepts and characteristics of HRD.
2. To discover how T&D/HRD is implemented within the manufacturing sector in Libya and the extent to which it is implemented.
3. To identify the major challenges faced by organisations and T&D professionals when implementing HRD.
4. To explore if any evidence can be found of mature level HRD practice in Libya.

1.4 Research Questions

The aims of this research study are to advance knowledge and understanding of the concept of human resource development (HRD). In particular, this study aims to draw upon empirical evidence of the nature and extent of HRD in Libya and its associated concepts, which will provide the foundation for the conceptual and theoretical advance of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya, and in the context of Libya as a developing country. Therefore, in answering the research objective, the study will be guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the purposes, concepts and characteristics of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya?
2. What types of HRD activities are being implemented, and to what extent are they implemented?
3. What are the major challenges in HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya?
4. To what extent has T&D in Libya evolved into HRD?

These research questions are then incorporated into answering the broad question of: to what extent does HRD practice exist in the manufacturing sector in Libya? In the context of the study as a whole, the first three research questions will be answered through the primary data collected by the research instruments, while question four will be answered by a combination of primary and secondary data. Following analysis of the primary data, a model based on that developed by McCracken and Wallace (2000) will be introduced, showing the level of maturity of HRD development in Libya.

1.5 Significance of the study

The main significance of this study lies in it being the first overall survey assessing the practices of HRD in Libya, with a focus on state-owned companies in the manufacturing sector, which have been targeted because of the particular emphasis that the Government has placed on this sector in terms of HRD (Al-Faitori, 2007). The reason for this is the belief that personnel dealing with HRD activities are the most knowledgeable in terms of training practices as well as the main organisational factors related to training effectiveness. The scarcity of research into HRD in Libya has given this study an opportunity to contribute to the body of knowledge in several ways. **Firstly**, this study contributes to the development of new concepts, theories and models of HRD, particularly in the context of the current Libyan economy. **Secondly**, this study charts the changing nature of traditional training and development, which may retain the same name but actually be closer to HRD as a new approach in Libya. The study contributes to improving the understanding of HRD practices in Libya, by adding new understand related to HRD in manufacturing companies, and presents an analytical study to expand the related literature. **Thirdly**, the study raises awareness of the importance of HRD, and provides a better understanding of how HRD principles could be effectively utilised. **Fourthly**, this study will inform policy makers in the Government and managers in the manufacturing sector by highlighting the strategic importance of HRD. **Finally**, T&D/HRD practitioners will be able to use the findings to plan and develop new strategies and improve the processes and practices of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya.

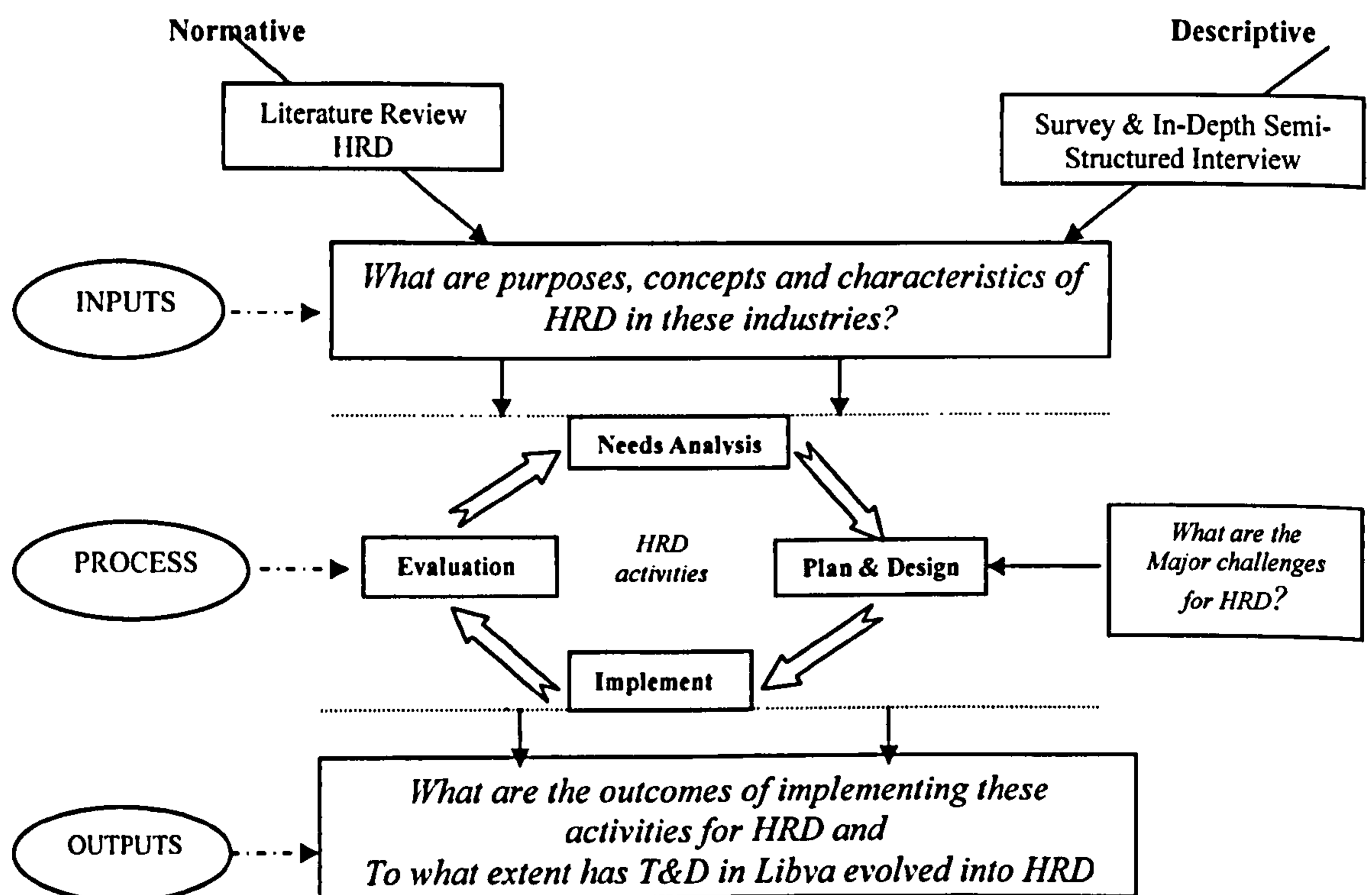
1.6 Conceptual Framework of the Research

The conceptual framework provides a structure within which to conduct this research. For the purpose of this research study, a conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 1.1 has been developed to explore the nature of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya. The figure illustrate that the systematic approach of HRD include four stages: analysing needs, planning

and design, delivery and implementation and evaluation of training activities (Winter, 1995; Harrison, 2000; and Wilson, 2005). Indeed, these processes in HRD are expected to be comprehensive and implemented by means of formal methods, but the literature has indicated that the nature and extent of these activities varies according to the size of the company attempting to implement them (see for example, Keff & McDougall, 1999; Budhwar et al, 2002; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004).

Even though the basic underlying theory and models of HRD have been debated by many researchers, no consensus has been reached on a single theory or a model to represent HRD. But, as has been argued above, this study sets out to explore whether any of the HRD models or theory variants/ criteria are apparent in the manufacturing sector in Libya by examining a descriptive account of the nature of HRD in comparison to such normative models.

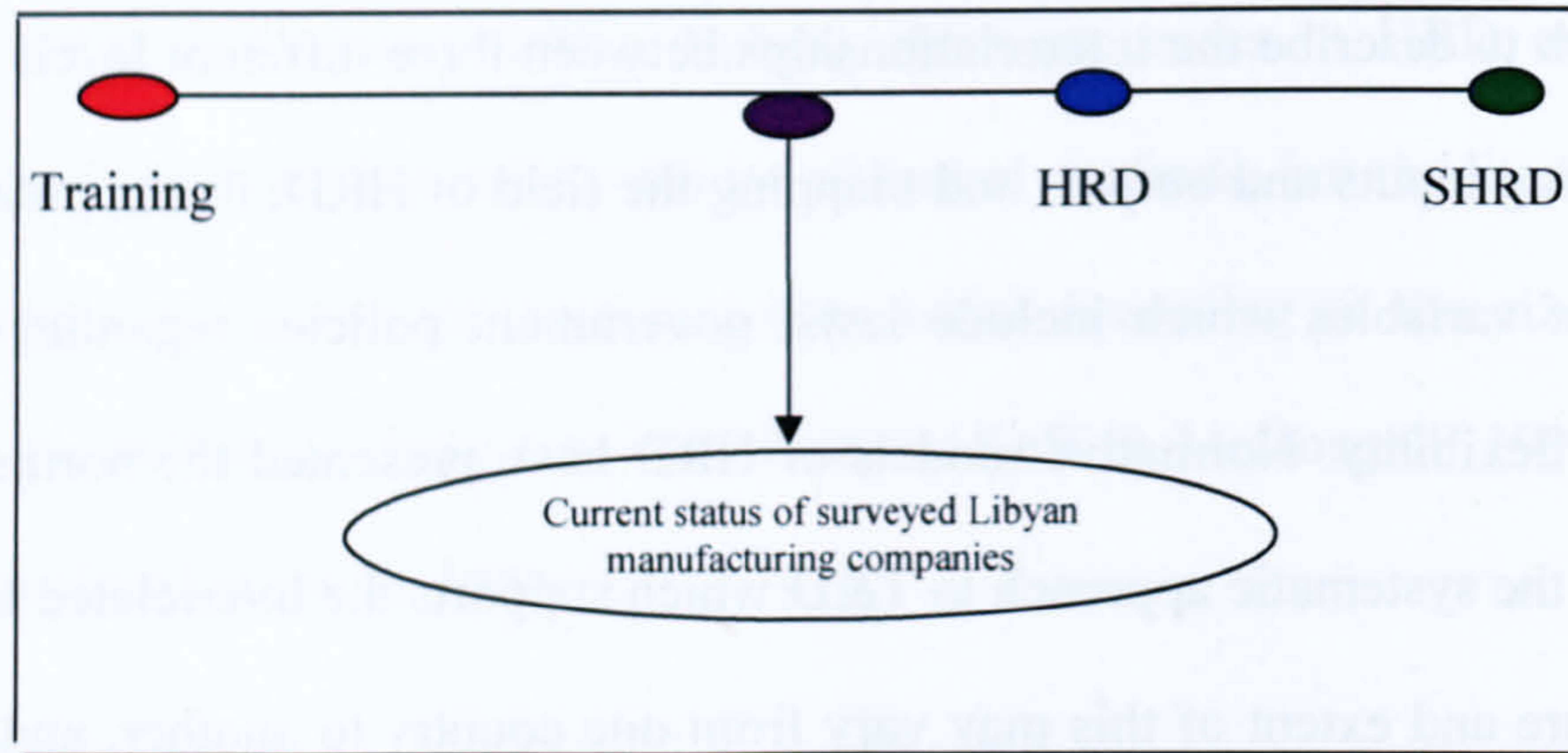
Figure (1.1): Conceptual framework of the research:



Moreover, as has been contended by Guest (1997), the descriptive theory entails a systems approach to describe the interrelationships between three different levels of practice as well as classifying inputs and outputs and mapping the field of HRD; this approach is influenced by a range of variables which include laws, government policies regarding training, and labour market flexibility. Normative models of HRD have presented the norms of training practice, such as the systematic approach to T&D which supports the interrelated functions of HRD, but the nature and extent of this may vary from one country to another, and from organisation to organisation, due to economic and political variations, government legislation and the country's value system (McLean & McLean, 2001, p319). In addition, Lee (2003) indicated that the external environment evolving around HRD shapes the concept and maturation of T&D into HRD. The same considerations apply to HRD in Libya. As the fundamental focus of this study is on HRD in manufacturing companies in the Libya setting, its conceptualisation may vary from other business sectors as well as other countries. In addition, as part of the contribution to knowledge, this study will propose a model of HRD activities which it has been argued above should form the basis upon which HRD in Libya may be considered and which enables a review of HRD as a strategic imperative to be considered.

On the other hand, in terms of the terms 'HRD' and 'T&D', McCracken & Wallace (2000) suggested that T&D and HRD activity described here are not necessarily mutually exclusive. They have been compartmentalised for ease of analysis, but in reality probably represent more of a continuum. In particular, the various roles of training and HRD specialists may well coexist at any one time in one organisation. As a result of previous studies, the possible position of a company on the "Training" continuum is provided graphically in figure (1.2); the diagram can be used to illustrate where most Libyan companies surveyed would be expected to be, somewhere between a training organisation and an HRD organisation.

Figure (1.1): Libyan Organisations and firms on the SHRD continuum



(Adapted from: McCracken & Wallace. 2000)

1.7 Research approach

The research involved a detailed literature review, which aimed at informing the interview and questionnaire components of the research. A phenomenological view was considered as the most appropriate research philosophy, as it focuses on trying to understand the social setting and developing ideas through induction from data. A combination of opinion and analytic research was used to support the research strategy, because it is through contrasts and people's opinions that new ideas and insights are most easily created.

This research strategy was chosen as it is believed to be the most applicable to the research questions. It provides a variety of data collecting tools, which makes the study less vulnerable to the practical issues concerning the unavailability of completed industry sector project data in Libya. It is also considered to be the most suitable way of obtaining descriptive quantitative and qualitative information relating to the experiences, views and perceptions of manufacturing industry personnel, to explore the current situation and practices of HRD in terms of training implementation process, delivery methods and training evaluation and follow up; also, to identify all the challenges that might confront the HRD function.

The methodology used in this study could be described as cross-sectional, adopting a multi-methods approach which includes combining both quantitative and qualitative methods; a questionnaire and interviews were adopted for data collection and the topics and issues covered were specified to ensure that the information obtained was within the context of the research. The descriptive nature of the questions enabled the researcher to explore areas of the interviewees' experiences, opinions and perceptions in greater depth, i.e. to probe beyond the answers and thus seek both clarification and elaboration on the answers given. Hence, for this research, a mix of quantitative and qualitative approaches is employed due to the nature of the research questions, and the need for the objectives to be investigated and measured through a triangulation method, which will enrich the findings of this study and also generate a rich wealth of data and interpretation; in other words, generate more validity and reliability, which strengthen the current study.

1.8 Organisation of thesis

This thesis is organised into eight chapters, as illustrated in Figure (1.3). The following is a brief description of them. The **first** chapter provides a brief introduction, need for the study, aims and objectives of the study, significance of the study, the conceptual framework of the research, research approach, and organisation of study. The **second** chapter presents the research setting and background of the study in three main parts. The first part will provide an introduction to Libya and its background profile. Thereafter, in the second part in this chapter, the chief characteristics of the manufacturing sector as well as its objectives and general policies will be described. The third part of this chapter goes on to describe and define public companies, their objectives, their typical forms, the administration of Libyan public companies and the main problems which they face, as well as Libyan manpower development and management training and development in Libyan legislation.

The **third** chapter emphasises the review of the literature related to HRD and T&D in a global context, but often quoting literature from the UK and USA. The discussion in this chapter begins by presenting the theoretical concepts and the general purposes and functions of HRD, and also discussing the theoretical framework of HRD in different countries. Secondly' there is a discussion of the theoretical foundations and models of HRD, followed by discussion of the structure of HRD; this part begins by explaining the terms 'HRD' and human resource management, provides an overview of strategy and the notion of strategic HRD in organisations, describes the nature of HRD structures in organisations and continues with a review of the funding for T&D/HRD activities and the extent of funding and budget allocated to support T&D/HRD within organizations. The fourth section reviews types of HRD activities by deliberating on their processes and systems. The fifth section reviews the literature relevant to performance management for employee improvement. The sixth section reviews the different challenges faced by organisations and HRD professionals when implementing HRD, especially in the context of environmental change and the modern technological revolution.

Chapter Four presents human resource development in Libya and Arab countries. This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part describes T&D/HRD in Libya, beginning with the historical background and the emergence of T&D/HRD in Libya. Subsequently, this part goes on to describe the various interventions from the Government in supporting T&D in the country. These interventions include policies and legislations, infrastructure and facilities to support the development of human resources to assist the country's development into a knowledge-based economy. The second part provides a brief overview of the characteristics of training and development for Arab and Libyan management this concentrates on: Management in Arab countries and issues which are of a particularly Arab context. Training and development in Arab countries reviews the state of HRD, due to the training and development

being considered as an old-style of HRD, the Arab organisation of T&D and the difficulties that face Arab countries in moving to HRD.

Chapter Five presents the research method and methodology, and reviews the research philosophy, design, and methodology used to accomplish the study objectives. This chapter justifies the use of a mixed-method data collection strategy, the need for pilot testing in the quantitative approach and the benefits of interviews in the qualitative approach. It also describes the procedures used for data collection, sampling and survey administration. Issues relating to ethics and gaining access to the surveyed organisations, the validity and reliability of the results, and also the analysis of both the survey and interview data are explained.

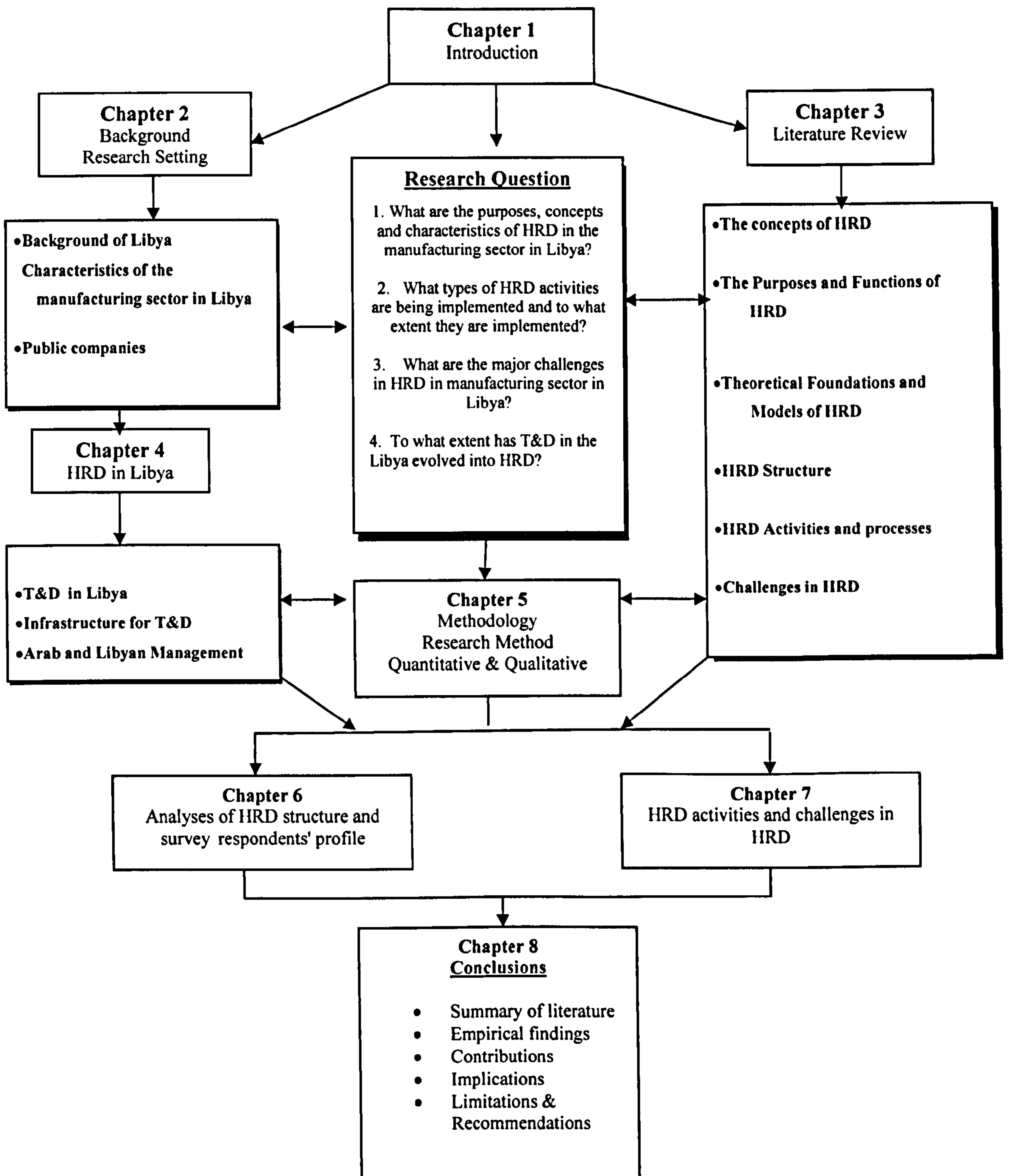
Chapter Six provides the findings related to the profile of the participating companies and personnel in charge of conducting T&D/HRD activities in Libya; these include: findings related to the structure of T&D/HRD and its strategies within the manufacturing industries. The main aim of this chapter is to provide a clear background to the companies and the respondents that participated in the research. This is to categorise the participating companies into different groups according to their characteristics and the respondents to their personal profile. The HRD structure in the organisations included in this research is reported in relation to the provision of HRD departments, training centres, plans, policies and strategies, T&D/HRD budget and yearly expenditure in the manufacturing companies.

Chapter Seven discusses the various HRD activities, which include: needs analysis, design, implementation, and evaluation of training and appraising employees' performance. This chapter also discusses the major challenges faced by T&D/HRD practitioners in implementing effective HRD.

Chapter Eight, include the main findings of the research and addresses the implications of the findings and suggests further research questions for the concerned parties. The chapter also provides an avenue for further research in the field of HRD, particularly in Libya and Arabic countries. One of the significant achievements of this study is conceptualising models for HRD in Libya. An explanation of each of these models that represents HRD in small and medium sized manufacturing companies (SMCs) and also large manufacturing companies (LMCs) are presented. A definition of HRD in Libya is also conceptualised and presented in this chapter.

The Appendices present a copy of the questionnaire (English and Arabic version) circulated for the survey, and also a copy of the semi-structured questionnaire (English and Arabic versions) used as an interview guide in the personal interviews. Also included in the appendices are the introductions, invitation letters used for the survey and interviews, as well as further details on analysing the qualitative data.

Figure 1.3: Thesis Organisational Framework



Chapter two

Libya: research setting and background

2.1 Introduction

Human resource development, with its main focus on developing human resources, is described as being heavily influenced by the context in which it is practiced. In this context, McLean & McLean (2001, p:319) reported that the concept of HRD varies from country to country and organisation to organisation, due to economic and political variations, government legislation and the country's value system. In addition, Lee (2003) indicated that the external environment evolving around HRD shapes the concept and maturation of HRD. The same considerations apply to HRD in Libya.

The discussion in this chapter will be divided into two parts. The first part will provide an introduction to Libya and its background profile. This part commences by explaining the geographical location of the country and how its strategic position within the middle of the North Africa region contributes to its economic activities. The various cities and their locations within Libya will be explained in order to establish the setting in which data for this study were collected. As the culture of a country is said to have a heavy influence on HRD (Rao, 1996; McGoldrick & Stewart, 1996; McLean & McLean, 2001; Harrison & Kessels, 2004), this chapter will also provide a brief description of Libya's population and outline its language and education system.

As the context of the study is the manufacturing sector, it is useful to understand the background characteristics of the manufacturing sector in Libya. Therefore, in the second part in this chapter, the chief characteristics of the manufacturing sector as well as its objectives and general policies will be described. The chapter begins with a historical background and goes on to outline the principal objectives of the manufacturing sector, basic principles of industrial policy of Libya, and gives a brief overview of the most prominent industrial organisations and focuses on the growth of the industrial sector, its investment sources, and the human resources on which it depends for its survival. Finally, the chapter describes Libyan manpower development.

2.2 Background of Libya

Libya is a country with unique values and a distinctive heritage. It possesses key strengths including a workforce, rich endowment of natural resources, accumulated capital reserves, and a geographical location linking Europe to Africa, see Figure 2.1, (MBendi, 2006). Over the last few years Libya has made a deliberate choice to develop its prosperity by reintegrating with the international community, while trying to preserve its unique identity. This choice requires deep reflection and analysis of national priorities so that the country can leverage its opportunities to generate and spread prosperity among all Libyans (CERA, 2005).

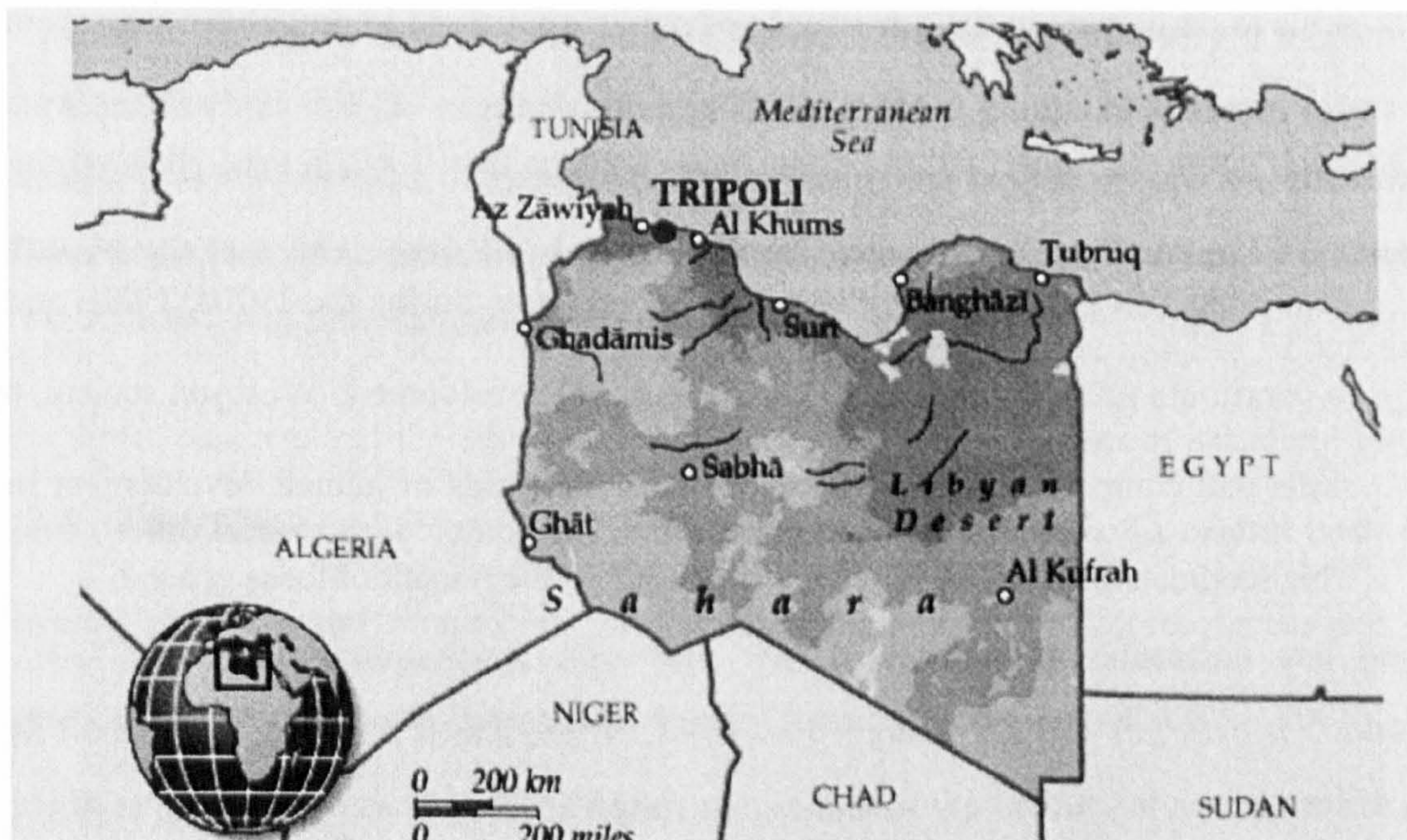
2.2.1 National Characteristics

Libya is Africa's fourth largest country, covering an area of 1,795,540 square kilometers with a coastline stretching 2,000 kilometers along the southern Mediterranean from Egypt to Tunisia. The country is bordered by Egypt to the east; Sudan, Chad and Niger to the south and Algeria, and Tunisia to the West, see Figure (2.1). A large portion of the country is desert, and the main cities and centres of population lie along the coast in the north of the country, where the main

arable lands are located. Agriculture is also found in the Eastern Mountains and around the larger oases in the desert. Libya's world economic ranking is 59th out of 162 developed and developing countries (GPC, 2005). The main religion is Islam and the main language is Arabic. Total population: 5,900,754 includes 166,510 non-nationals (World Bank, 2005) Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita: US\$, 11,070 (World Bank, 2005). Libya's climate ranges from Mediterranean in the northern coastal region to semi-arid inland and arid in the desert south.

Libyan faces an unprecedented series of demographic, economic, cultural, political, and global challenges. It is important to understand how each of these affects the country's future as a whole. These challenges also represent important opportunities for Libya, and require Libyan policy-makers and organisations top management to move beyond the status quo to create an even more focused and effective environment for change. To accept the present situation is to fall behind in the increasingly competitive world.

Figure 2.1: Libya location



Source: Wikipedia website, retrieved 2010

2.2.2 Population

Libya has a small population, around six million people, (World Bank, 2006), in a large land area, where 90% of the people live in less than 10% of the area, primarily along the coast., More than half the population is urban, mostly concentrated in the two largest cities, Tripoli and Benghazi, and fifty percent is estimated to be under the age 15 (SSF, 2004), Native Libyans are primarily a mixture of Arabs and Berbers and the small Tebou & Touareg tribal groups in southern Libya are nomadic or semi-nomadic. Among foreign residents, the largest groups are citizens of other African nations, including North Africans (primarily Egyptians and Tunisians), West Africans and Sub-Saharan Africans.

2.2.3 Education

There is a broad international consensus that investment in education and health infrastructure facilitates development. Such investments help to improve a country's human capital endowment and the health conditions of the labour force. Education and training provides people with the skills and knowledge necessary to escape from poverty. High quality education also contributes to a higher governance capacity since it provides citizens with knowledge and skills to participate in the governance of public affairs and improves the chances of an efficient and skillful management of reforms (UNESCO, 2005).

Two important goals of the Libyan education system during the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s were to contribute to the economic, social and cultural development of Libyan society, by improving skills and competencies, and to rapidly raise standards of human development in the society. This section assesses how Libya is performing in the pursuit of these goals.

Libya's public expenditure on education is approximately 4% of GDP, which is around the average for Middle East and North Africa (MENA) countries. Reported adult literacy levels are among the highest in the region at 82%; with both male and female youth literacy reaching 100% and female literacy considerably better than many MENA peers (MBendi, 2006).

Despite much progress over the last thirty years, and good basic outcomes, the Libyan education system does not yet fulfill the goals it has set itself, including providing the training and skills that are required to drive the economy forward. Poor quality inputs and a number of severe structural challenges are negatively affecting the education system. Since education is a vital driver of quality movement and competitiveness and thus of prosperity, these issues must be addressed for the Libyan people and economy to achieve their maximum potential.

The Global Competitiveness Report, GCR (2006) ranks Libya 110th out of the 111 countries studied on the overall quality of its education system. Libyan school facilities and teaching methods are not regularly benchmarked against any international standard or any systems in other countries. Furthermore the strong links between research institutions and business which are typically seen in developed countries do not exist in the Libyan economy (UNESCO, 2005). Despite the lack of accurate information, it is also clear that education in Libya has significant quality issues. This arises from two sources: problems with the quality of inputs, such as curricula, teachers and the educational infrastructure; and a number of structural issues. These include the lack of reliable and objective standards, the absence of a central body to provide overall planning and monitoring, inefficient allocation of public resources, and a lack of resources in specific areas (Cambridge Energy Research Associates (CERA), 2005).

2.2.4 Language

The Arabic language and culture were brought to Libya by Arabs during the middle Ages. The Arabic speaking Muslims of mixed Arab and Berber ancestry probably make up well over 90% of the country's population. Berbers, other indigenous minority peoples and sub-Saharan Africans make up most of the remainder:

Arabic influence permeates the culture among all classes of society, including the social, political, economic and intellectual elite. Arabs find great beauty and style in their language, which is a keystone of Arab nationalism and a symbol of Arab creativity. Language is a vehicle for the continuing transmission of information, as well as ensuring the continuity of national thought and maintaining and reinforcing cultural identity.

The colonial powers attempted to eradicate Arab identity; for example, during the period of the Ottoman Empire there was an unsuccessful attempt to replace Arabic with Turkish, when Libya and many other Arab countries were occupied. After the political independence of Arab countries, Arab managers faced a formidable challenge in achieving the Arabisation of the civil and administrative system, and they worked hard to develop national thinking according to their Arab culture and history. The strong wave of nationalism accompanying the 1969 revolution found expression in a campaign designed to elevate the status of the Arabic language. An order was issued requiring that all street signs, shop window notices, signboards and traffic tickets be written in Arabic. Despite the progress of Arabisation during the 1970s, English occupied an increasingly important place as the second language of the country. In the Universities numerous scientific, technical, and medical courses were conducted in English.

2.2.5 Economy

The Libyan economy is socialist-oriented (a command economy) and depends primarily upon revenues from oil. In 2005 the oil sector contributed about 56 % of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 97% of the country's exports of goods, and 8% of government revenue, General People's Committee (GPC), (2005). These oil revenues and its small population give Libya one of the highest per capita GDPs in Africa, (\$ US 12,700) but little of this income flows down to the lower orders of society. Libya's non-oil and gas sectors contribute only 40% of Libya's GDP while employing 97% of the formal workforce. If oil wealth were discounted, Libya would have a very low GDP per capita, due to the current level of business competitiveness. Public services including education, healthcare and other services contribute only 9% to Libya's GDP, but employ 51% of the formal workforce (United Nation Development Programmes [UNDP], 2005).

Climatic conditions and poor soil quality severely limit agricultural output, and Libya imports about 75% of its food. Higher oil prices over the four years from 2002 to 2006 led to an increase in export revenues and improved macroeconomic balances, but did little to stimulate broad-based economic growth. In recent years measures have been taken to return parts of the economy, such as the retail sector, to private ownership, in the form of partnerships and co-operatives. Libya is making slow progress toward economic liberalization and the upgrading of its economic infrastructure (World Bank Group, 2005).

The Libyan economy is heavily dependent on revenue from extracting and selling natural resources, rather than creating products and services through investment and innovation. In other words it is an economy based on inherited rather than created prosperity. Libyan leaders have repeatedly stated that the economy must expand beyond the energy sector to develop the conditions in which Libyans themselves can create new sources of wealth. At the same time, the modern global economy has created new challenges for nations wishing to raise the

standard of living for their people. It has become essential for nations to produce goods and service that are globally competitive.

The Libyan experience of the past thirty five years indicates the magnitude of investments implemented in the various sectors and the progress made in the infrastructure of the economy. However, during the last fifteen years a number of problems, in areas such as unemployment, health care, housing, and education have developed, which are usually related to the nature of economic performance under the control of the public sector (World Bank Group, 2007).

Table 2.1: Socio-economic Indicators: Libya

Indicator	
Religions	Sunni Muslim 97%; other 3%
Languages	Arabic, Italian, English. All are widely understood in the major cities.
Population	5.9 million (Includes 166,510 non-nationals) (2006 est.)
Population growth rate	2.3% (2006 est.)
Literacy	Male: 92.4% Female: 72% Total population: 82.6% (2003 est.)
GDP (US dollars)	\$34.83 billion (2006 est.)
GDP per capita (US dollars)	\$12,700 (2006 est.)
Labour force	1.787 million (2006 est.)

Source: infodev, (2007)

2.3 Characteristics of the Manufacturing sector in Libya

In this section, the chief characteristics of the manufacturing sector as well as its objectives and general policies will be described. This section begins with a historical background and goes on to outline the principal objectives of the manufacturing sector, the basic principles of industrial policy of Libya, and a brief overview of the most prominent industrial organisations. It also focuses on the growth of the industrial sector, its investment sources, and the human resources on which it depends for its survival. Finally, it will conclude with a summary of problems and obstacles that face the manufacturing sector in Libya.

2.3.1 The development of Libyan industry

Since the discovery of oil in 1959, Libya has undergone important changes, moving from being a relatively poor desert land with one of the lowest standards of living in the world, to being one of the world's greatest oil producing nations. During the last decades the country has allocated a large amount of money to establishing many industry complexes in different fields to achieve several national goals, such as: increasing the contribution of the industrial sector to economic activity and creating new sources of wealth; achieving a higher degree of self-sufficiency and self-reliance on local products; creating opportunities for new jobs to satisfy the rapid population growth; and achieving many other social objectives (Sakilani, 2005).

The various industries in the manufacturing sector range from the largest contributor, which is the food and drinks industry, to the smallest industry, which is concrete-cement-iron, and several other small industries. Overall, there are fourteen groups of manufacturing industries in Libya. The food and drinks industry forms the largest group, with more than 24 companies, representing about 21 percent of the manufacturing sector. Second comes the furniture and

wooden products industry, which forms about 15 percent of the sector, and another 10 percent consists of the plastic and rubber products industry. The remaining 54 percent of the companies in the sector, in descending order, include: mineral products; textiles: apparels & leather; power and electronics; chemicals and oils; non-mineral products; machines, cars, motors and other vehicles; printing and writing paper; concrete-cement-iron; and others (Secretariat of Industry, 2008). It should be noted that the industries mentioned above are only those that are registered with the Secretariat of Industry, (2008) see table (2.2), and that there might be some firms that are not listed, as they are too small to be listed as industries or to be registered as companies.

Table 2.2 Industrial companies according to size

Types of Industry	Total	
	N	%
1- Food and drinks.	24	21.8
2- Furniture, carpets and wooden products.	17	15.5
3- Plastic and rubber products.	12	10.9
4- Manufacturing and Mineral Products.	9	8.2
5- Textiles, wearing apparels & leather.	9	8.2
6- Power and Electronics.	10	9.1
7- Chemicals and oils.	7	6.4
8- Non-mineral products.	6	5.5
9- Machines, cars, motors and vehicles.	5	4.5
10- Printing and Writing Paper.	4	3.6
11- Concrete-cement-iron.	4	3.6
12- Other (including medical products and glass).	3	2.7
Total	110	100.0

Source: Secretariat of Industry, 2008

2.3.2 History of the Libyan manufacturing sector

Modern industry was first introduced into the country during the Italian colonial period 1911-1943, when the country was under the control of Italy. Indications show that by 1938, more than 700 manufacturing units were in existence, producing basic goods for consumption locally. These manufacturing units were almost all small in size, were located in Tripoli, Benghazi, Darna and Misuratah. About 80 per cent of these units were owned by Italians, and most of the manufacturing units employed fewer than 10 people. During the war many of the manufacturing units were destroyed (Barker, 2005). During the 1950s many small-size light industrial establishments emerged, but mostly under local owners. However, until the end of the 1950s, Libya, like other developing countries, could be characterized as an agriculture-based economy rather than an industrialized economy. The discovery of oil, phosphate, salt, clay, and building materials (not all of them are now of commercial importance) encouraged a greater concentration on manufacturing industry (Khader & El-Wifate, 2006).

The first five year socio-economic plan, 1963-1968, which was implemented after the discovery of oil, proposed an allocation for an industrial development programme of 1.9 million Libyan Dinars [LD], which accounted for about 4 per cent of the total investment. Fortunately, as oil revenues increased, the actual government expenditure reached LD14.7 million or 4.9 per cent of total investment. The main goals of the first plan for the manufacturing sector were to introduce new technology to Libyan society and provide simple processing facilities, mainly in the areas of food processing, beverages, textiles, and building materials, to satisfy the local market (Secretariat of Industry, 2008).

The second five year plan 1968-1972 was in operation for just five months, before the government formed following the 1969 revolution adopted an annual budget for the five year plan in order to speed the revolution in the social and economic structure of country. The revolutionary government came with a commitment to achieve a higher level of development

spending, and was concerned to create viable productive sectors in agriculture and industry. Therefore, in order to reach its goals, the government raised investment in the industrial sector, which reached more than 12 per cent of total annual spending in the years 1971-1972 and increased to about 16 per cent in the years 1972- 1973, when the private sector shared a major role in the country's industrial development plan.

The first three year plan that was introduced after the revolution of 1969 was implemented in 1973-1975. This plan allocated more than LD 325 million to the industrial sector, which was equivalent to about 12.2% of the total proposed investments. The government strategy for development during that period of time shifted to the public sector rather than the private sector. Therefore, all newly established factories (which created about 60,000 additional jobs) were under the direct control of Secretariat of Industry (Secretariat of Industry, 2008).

During the second economic plan after the revolution, 1976-1980, the government allocated LD 1,149 million for the industrial sector alone. The main goal of this huge budget was to introduce a base heavy industry. Therefore, in order to create heavy industry, the plan concentrated on the metal and chemical industries. The government's plans emphasised the need to locate large plants outside the major cities of Tripoli and Banghazi. All the plants and factories established were state owned and the workforce were government employees (Secretariat of Industry, 2008). Most of these companies remain state-owned, and form the core of the research population of this study. In order to establish a new industrial culture throughout the country, the state planned to create a small-scale industrial centre in almost all cities, to employ between 30 and 50 workers and to give more attention to women employees in order to increase their participation in the workforce. Women, in line with the implementation of the plan, increased their participation between 1980 and 1995. In 1964 for example, woman in the craft industry workforces represented 4 per cent of the total workforce; by 1995, this figure had risen to about

15 per cent (Secretariat of Planning 1999). In the 1970s, the industrial sector was by far the most productive of the sectors controlled completely by the government (Gannous et al, 2005). In 1979, all manufacturing companies were nationalized and by 1981 all private manufacturing units had been eliminated completely.

The 1981-1985 transformation plans concentrated heavily on industrial development, allocating more than LD 3, 930 million for new industrial plants, renewing old plants, and supplying raw materials. This huge investment mainly concentrated on heavy industry, where LD 2,673 million was allocated. This investment was concentrated mainly in a series of coastal industrial towns that were developed into major manufacturing centres, such as the steel complex near Musrata the aluminum smelter at Zawia, the petrochemical complexes at Ras-Lanuf and Elbregah, and the oil refineries in Zewys and Azwetena. There was also a massive investment in agro-industry in urban centres, such as a number of factories for food processing, textiles and footwear in Tripoli, Zewya, Khomus, Zeleten, Banghazi, and Darna, and the leather industry, such as the plants in Tajoura, Musrata, Banghazi and Tubroq (Gannous, 2000).

The development plans that have been conducted since the 1970s have given high priority to raising the level of industrial contribution to the nation's economy from 2.5% in 1980 to 6.3% by 1985, and 10% or more by 1995. Although the government's plans aimed to spread manufacturing companies all over the country, the fact remains that industrial factories are concentrated in the major cities. In the 1990s, the country witnessed a new policy when the government allowed the private sector to participate in economic activity. In response, many individuals engaged in manufacturing activities, and large numbers of small family owned plants were established, such as plastics and aluminum factories. A privatization plan was begun in 2003 which targeted the privatisation of all state-owned manufacturing companies, and some of these companies are now ready for sale to the private sector.

2.3.3 State-owned Libyan manufacturing companies

According to the socialist ideology adopted by the government in three decades up to 2004, the Libyan manufacturing sector has become dominated by a large number of state-owned manufacturing companies. These companies are fully controlled by the government. Every public company has to be established by resolution of the government and the resolution should specify the company's name, location, capital, shares and objectives. The resolution also determines the beginning and the end of the financial year and assigns to the board of directors the responsibility to prepare the company's balance sheet and profit and loss account, which must be audited by the Libyan Institute of Public Control (LPC).

The degree of independence of such companies is not necessarily straightforward. Most manufacturing companies have the independence to some extent to administer and control their operations in order to achieve their objectives. The management of each company is responsible for managing the company, running its operations, setting its general policy, and establishing the administrative and financial systems (including management accounting system) necessary for its operation and control. However, the prices of all available products, either produced locally or imported from abroad, are fixed by the Economics Ministry depending on the cost statements prepared by companies, and after negotiation with the companies' management. Some cost accounting directors stated that some the price of some products had remained fixed for more than three years, even though these prices did not cover the full cost of producing the goods. They claimed that they had been asking to modify their prices for more than two years but had not as yet received a response (Sakilani, 2005).

2.3.4 Sources of Finance for Manufacturing Companies

State-owned companies in Libya are financed in different ways, according to their activities, nature and objective. In general, most state-owned manufacturing companies receive their launch grant directly from the government, or indirectly from other state-owned companies. They may also be allowed, according to the resolution establishing them, to obtain loans from a bank to fund their operations. Most companies are also expected to generate their own income and operate profitably. Some companies may receive annual financial support for operating and development expenditure.

2.3.5 Manufacturing companies' objectives

As already mentioned, Libya has been following centrally-planned social and economic development programmes for many years and therefore, the manufacturing sector in Libya is dominated by a large number of state-owned companies. Companies in capitalist countries are likely to have a narrow range of objectives designed to maximize profits. Profit maximization is a lower priority for Libyan companies (Sakilani, 2005). The drive to produce a large number of goods with low prices and high quality in order to raise profitability is a huge challenge for Libyan manufacturers, as they have not traditionally been required to do so.

2.3.6 Current status of manufacturing companies

Manufacturing companies, like other public companies, have experienced many problems including technical, financial, administrative, and social problems. As Buzid (1998. p 177) stated,

"Most public companies suffer from a lack of qualified and experienced personnel, thus their quality of manufacturing is inadequate. Personal relations and family ties often affect management decisions. As a result, the

majority of companies are poorly managed. These problems with inadequate reporting between companies and government often result in the inability of the government to exercise adequate control, leading many companies to be inefficient and subject to corruption".

In the same way, Ghaddafi (2000, p. 21), pointed out that, although a huge amount of money had been invested in the manufacturing sector during the last twenty years, amounting to more than four billion Libyan Dinars, the contribution of the manufacturing sector to the Libyan Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was limited. In order to keep public companies in business, banks owned by the State meet state policy demands by financing those companies with massive loans, regardless of their profitability or risk. The shortfall in manufacturing productivity has occurred as a result of several factors, one of the most important being shortages of raw material. This was caused by a mixture of UN sanctions and foreign exchange shortages. Management inertia, poor production quality, unskilled labour and arbitrary decision-making, were all factors that also significantly contributed to the inefficiency of manufacturing companies.

2.3.7 Libyan manpower in the Industrial sector

The size and the structure of the population in any country play an important role in providing the manpower required for development programmes, and they influence the availability of skilled people. Since independence Libya has been faced with the problem of the small size of its population, which has affected the manpower available for development programmes in different fields. For example, there were 9,657 Libyans employed by oil industry companies and 11,106 employed by non - oil industrial companies (Farley, 2005, p.144). This led to greater dependency on non - Libyan manpower in order to implement development programmes. For example, at the beginning of the 1970s, the majority of professionals and

administrative personnel were foreigners (Maguire, 2007, pp. 6-14, see also table 2.5). To solve this problem Libya gave special importance to investment in human resources and gave this priority in order to prepare and train all its manpower, to increase the percentage of Libyans, especially women, in the productive workforce, and try to develop them by various motivation techniques in order to increase their productivity.

The total population in Libya increased from 2,075,000 in 1970 to 5,673,031 in 2006, with a rate of increase over this period of 173.4%. Due to the growth in all economic activities through the development plans, the size of the workforce in the national economy increased from 450,500 in 1970 to 1,852,000 in 2006, with a rate of increase of 311.1 % (See Table 2.3)

Table (2.3) Libyan population and manpower in 1970 - 2006 (In thousands)

Item \ year	1970	1980	1989	2000	2006
Libyan manpower	400.5	532.8	861.8	1,232.2	1,765.2
Non - Libyan manpower	50.0	280.0	140.5	100.6	86.8
Total manpower	450.5	812.8	1,002.3	1,332.8	1,852.0
Libyan female manpower	24.8	58.9	147.3	198.2	278.2
Libyan Female manpower to Libyan Manpower (%)	5.5	7.2	14.7	14.9	15.0
Libyan population	2,075,000	2,245,800	4,140,000	5,124,500	5,673,031
Libyan manpower to Libyan population (%)	19	23.7	20.8	24	31.1

Total Libyan manpower increased from 400,500 in 1970 to 1,765,200 in 2006, with a rate of increase of 340.7 %. In the 1980s the proportion of the Libyan workforce to the whole Libyan population was not more than 20.8%, compared with 31.1% in 2000. The reason for this was the low participation of women working in economic activities. At the same time, Libyan women were encouraged to increase their participation in the responsibilities of economic development, for example, the female participation to the total Libyan workforce grew from 5.5% to 15% between 1970 and 2006, and most of them employed in the education, health services and administration sectors.

Table (2.4) Evolution of manpower in the Industry Sector between 1970 and 2006 (workers, in thousands)

Year	1970	1980	1989	2000	2006	Percentage increase (1970/2006)
Manpower in Industry Sector (manufacturing, mining, construction, petroleum, chemicals, etc)	34.4	81.2	119.3	135.2	150.6	336.6%
Growth rate of manpower in Industry Sector (%)	-----	136%	46.9%	13.3%	11.4%	-----

Source: Gannous, 2007, p: 677 - 689.

Regarding the increase of manpower size in the period 1970 – 2006, Table 2.4 shows that it gradually increased through the period 1970 – 2000, especially at the end of the 1970s and the beginning of the 1980s, which reflects the expansion of industrial activities in this period. For the whole period the total manpower increased from 34,400 in 1970 to 150,600 in 2006 with a growth rate of 336.6%. This also reflects the special attention that was paid to the industry sector and also the greater emphasis on the development of human capital and vocational training programmes.

2.4 Libyan manpower development

Libya as a developing country gave very little attention to the development or improvement of the abilities and practices of its manpower before the 1950s, except for some efforts concentrated on education and on providing people with the knowledge and information needed to deal with urgent problems and to facilitate certain clerical jobs.

The first practical effort to change this situation was organised by the School of Public Administration (SOPA), which was established with the help of the UN and started its programmes in 1953/54. The main purpose of its programmes was to improve employees' skills and knowledge in the fields of accounting and public administration, to develop better employment, to improve administrative competence, to encourage and fund educational and training facilities and activities, etc. The total number of graduates during the period 1954 - 1956 was 98 individuals.

Through the decade of the 1960s, the understanding of administrative development and its role in promoting the economic development of the country increased. In July 1968, SOPA was renamed The National Institute of Public Administration (NIOPA). This establishment started to deal with training and development programmes as the centre of management development, in order to promote employees' efficiency in the management field. Article three of Law 41 (1968) identified the main objective of the NIOPA as being to promote the employees' efficiency by developing them at all levels and in all administrative activities, and to increase the effectiveness of the administrative cadre, which would help the country to meet its economic plans. In order to achieve this objective, other goals were established, one of which was to increase performance levels among employees by offering educational and management training and development courses that provided administrative skills, techniques and

procedures. In addition, studies and practical research were implemented to help diagnose management and development problems, as well as to offer consultation and advice regarding the areas of public administration in public companies. Other goals included the organisation of seminars, conferences, etc. which aimed to find the ways and means most suited for public organisations to improve their overall efficiency, and also with the goal of establishing close ties between NIOPA and similar organisations at regional, Arab and international levels, in order to develop local administration in the light of the economic, social and political environment (Ministry of Civil service, 2006, p. 214).

As a result of the establishment of the National Institute of Public Administration (NIOPA), more meetings, conferences and courses, varying in length from hours to months, were implemented to deal with and discuss modern managerial concepts and techniques, especially for managers from the public sector, including industrial companies.

Another organisation concerned with employees and their development is the Professional Congress for Administrative Professions (PCFAP), which is supervised by the General Popular Congress. Its activities are to improve the administrative environment of employees, by interpreting the Laws and Legislation that help them to carry out their job effectively. It works as a consultative organisation by helping to find solutions for the problems that face employees in their organisations, presenting suggestions and recommendations which aim to promote the level of employees' productivity, and implementing research and studies related to the employees' work aspects.

Moreover, the PCFAP publishes a periodic paper called the "Employee's Paper", which aims to disseminate employees' views about their work, to explain work laws and procedures, and to suggest solutions and recommendations for administrative problems. Furthermore, the PCFAP established the Consultative Office for Administrative Training (COFAT) in 2005, which aims to design and organize training and development programmes for Libyan companies and to present consultative services regarding management generally, and training and development in particular.

Both the PCFAP and COFAT face difficulties that hinder them in attaining their defined objectives. These difficulties include the following: first, a shortage of financial support, which has led to the lack of the required facilities and to an inability to employ experienced, skilled and specialized people in T&D. Second, there is no suitable building for them to play their role effectively, for example, in giving lectures, providing meeting places, etc. Third, the officials managing these organisations lack the necessary qualifications and experience to be able to do their job effectively.

More recently, in 2006 the High Centre for Industrial Management and Technology (HCIMT) was established under the supervision of the Secretariat of Industry, and by Law 88 (1991). This centre aims to develop industrial management by promoting the efficiency of Libyan employees, following modern management approaches, organising courses, seminars and conferences in industrial management and modern technology. Manpower development in Libyan public companies takes three forms: development within public sector companies (on - the-job-training); development sponsored by specialised organisations both locally and abroad; and development at the NIOPA or other institutes.

The objectives of manpower development are: first, to enable Libyans to contribute towards managing and implementing economic and social projects. Second, to increase women's contribution to economic development. Third, to provide further expansion of education and Management Training and Development Programmes (MTDPs) at different levels and in different fields. Fourth, to promote efficiency and effectiveness through different techniques in order to increase productivity and improve its level of quality. Finally, to redistribute manpower according to the needs and priorities of the Libyan Government (Libyan Government, 2005).

In accordance with the above objectives, the Government has formulated some policies regarding manpower development including: The establishment of a Management Training and Development (MTD) system enables the national economy to achieve its requirement from the developed manpower in order to implement economic and social transformation programmes, and also includes the improvement of the current ability of trainers at different levels of MTD and work, and the development of MTD in order to prepare programmes, increase manpower ability and management skills and the use of facilities and techniques which will promote the productivity, efficiency, and effective level of the manpower. These policies also focus more concentration on manpower motivation and also the encouragement of researchers to study conditions of manpower development in order to find solutions to work problems, (Libyan Government, 2005). Despite the large sums of money being spent on, and the important attention being given to, training and development programmes, Libya is still faced with shortages of skilled and trained people in several fields, because new needs have been appearing as a result of changes in the economic and social structure of the country.

The above mentioned efforts regarding T&D activity came as a result of many events which caused evolution in one way or another. Generally speaking there are many issues that have played an important role in formulating the current situation of T&D in Libya. These include: first, the economic development programmes implemented in the 1970s, which imposed enormous pressure on T&D and education establishments to provide the number of qualified, trained and educated people needed to fill the shortages found in development plans. Second, because of the direct government control of the public sector, and following centralisation in the planning of economic projects, there has been a need for qualified people able to manage these projects. Third, the Government policy of nationalization at the beginning of the 1970s led to an expansion of the public sector, and this in turn led to a greater need for T&D managers. Fourth, T&D was also considered by the country as an important element for any management appointment or promotion process. Fifth, an increase in the country's perception of the managerial manpower required for development, by allocating financial resources and establishing institutes concerned with this activity. Sixth, teachers and researchers were sent abroad for further education to enable them to run management and development institutes, and more establishments concerned with T&D were set up locally. Seventh, the expansion in industrial organisations raised the question of the need for qualified, able people to manage these new organisations, therefore, this expansion led to the establishment of more T&D colleges which were involved in the design and conduct of training and development programmes. Eighth, industrial organisations became more interested in developing their personnel at different levels.

2.5 Summary

This chapter started with a brief description of the background of Libya, the objective of this overview of Libyan was to understand the environment surrounding the field study organisations, because environmental characteristics are found to influence organisational efficiency, and people's attitudes and employees' satisfaction, commitment and performance are most likely to be predictable on the basis of these environmental characteristics (Aghila, 2000). Furthermore, this overview is to be considered as a background for later discussions in subsequent chapters. This chapter has discussed major aspects of the Libyan background in relation to: national characteristics, geographical, historical and political background; population and education; language and economic aspects.

This chapter also addressed characteristics of the manufacturing sector in Libya, and illustrated that during the last decades Libya has allocated a large amount of money to establishing many industrial complexes in different fields to achieve several national goals as part of the government plans (2.3.1 note, what is this reference?). Also, although the government plans aimed to spread manufacturing companies all over the country, the fact remains that industrial factories are concentrated in the major cities and the Libyan manufacturing sector has become dominated by a large number of state-owned manufacturing companies (2.3.3). The government also co-owns some companies with foreign states (or companies?), whereby Libya owns 51% or more of the share capital of these corporations both inside and outside Libya. Every public company has to be established by resolution of the government and the resolution should specify the company's name, location, capital, shares and objectives. Companies in capitalist countries are likely to have a narrow range of objectives in order to maximize profits (2.3.5). Any investigation of T&D/HRD practices in Libya must take account of the fact that producing a large number of goods with low prices and high quality is a huge challenge for

Libyan manufacturers, as they have not traditionally been required to do so. Libyan companies have been directed towards the achievement of certain state goals, and manpower development needs to be considered in this context.

Regarding Libyan manpower development, the economic development plans are aimed at setting up programmes and projects which prepare and develop human resources, in order to form skilled personnel and promote the efficiencies of the manpower in different economic activities. They also establish an information system to enable organisations to find the required data and statistics regarding manpower and its needs in different fields, in order to increase productive ability (2.4.2).

However, despite the large sums of money being spent on, and the important attention being given to, T&D programmes, Libya is still facing with shortages of skilled and trained people in several fields, because new needs have been appearing as a result of the changes in the economic and social structure (2.4.2).

In general, this background information in Libya, particularly in the manufacturing sector, forms an important part of the research study, and will contribute to the analysis and discussion of the findings concerning the various important and relevant characteristics of T&D in the manufacturing companies in Libya included in the study. The next chapter will develop an overview of T&D by examining the existing literature on T&D and in the process critically discussing the stages at which T&D could be said to mature into the conceptualization of HRD.

Chapter Three

AN Overview of HRD

3.1 Introduction

Having discussed the rationale and background for conducting this study into the nature of human resource development in Libya, this chapter will now develop an overview of T&D and HRD by examining the relevant existing literature. As the study of HRD in Libya is a new field, there is limited Libyan evidence and literature to support the discussion of HRD in this chapter. Therefore, most of the literatures being reviewed for this study are from western-based economies, whilst others were gathered from other parts of the globe. Therefore, because of the limited Arabic literature on HRD, and being a new field of study for Libya, some parts of the discussion in this chapter may be descriptive as well as critical. In fact, the inclusion of these descriptive presentations in this chapter is significant, as they form an important part of the research and are required to support the analysis and findings in later chapters. This research also critiques the existing western based models of HRD/SHRD as a result of this research in Arabic context.

This chapter is organised into six sections. The **first** section discusses the theoretical concepts and the general purposes and functions of HRD/T&D and distinctions between HRD and T&D, and also the theoretical framework of HRD in different countries. The **second** section discusses the theoretical foundations and models of HRD. An understanding of these theories, models and concepts is important and valuable, as it will facilitate the theoretical development of the HRD framework to be used in the analysis of HRD in Libya. The rationale of the research calls for an exploration of the broader framework of HRD in order to have a clearer and more comprehensive understanding of HRD. The **third** section examines the structural context of T&D and HRD; this part will begin by debating the relationship between 'HRD' and 'HRM', provide an overview of

strategy and the notion of strategic HRD in organisations, describe the nature of HRD structure in organisations, this section will also discuss the McCracken and Wallace model which is proposed that organisations can be classified according to their level of strategic maturity by examining the evidence for the enhanced SHRD characteristics. After this the extent of funding and budget allocated to support T&D/HRD will be discussed. The **fourth** section discusses HRD activities and processes, the **fifth** section reviews the literature relevant to performance evaluation, and **the final section** examines the challenges of HRD, This framework is important to the research, as each of these entities represent a concept investigated by the research questions, and they offer a very valuable structure within which to discuss the analysis and findings of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya.

3.2 Human Resource Development

This section is divided into three parts. The first part presents the theoretical concepts of HRD. The second part presents the purposes and functions of HRD. The third part presents the theoretical framework of HRD in different countries.

3.2.1 Theoretical concepts of HRD

Numerous attempts to define human resource development (HRD) by academics, researchers and practitioners have led to confusion in the literature, illustrating the elusive nature of this concept. This suggests that a distinctive conceptual or theoretical definition of HRD has not yet been established, and this issue has hence become a subject of constant debate and discourse (Weinberger, 1998; McLean & McLean, 2001; Wang & McLean, 2007). Sambrook, (2009) states that academics, researchers and practitioners are not entirely sure what HRD might mean. The process of defining HRD is made still more difficult by the evolving nature of HRD; for example, the term HRD has developed from the activity known as 'training', which then evolved into 'training and development' (T&D), and then into HRD. However, McGoldrick et al (2002)

suggest that the process of defining HRD is thwarted by the lack of boundaries and parameters and the lack of depth of empirical evidence of some conceptual aspects of HRD, such as strategic HRD, the learning organisation and knowledge management. Therefore, first, the theoretical concepts of HRD will be discussed by analysing certain important definitions of HRD, starting with the definition by Nadler, (1970) to a very recent definition provided by Mankin, (2009). Second, the theoretical framework of HRD by country will be discussed in three dimensions. These include the scope of activities in HRD, the beneficiaries of HRD, and the influences on HRD from a national perspective. Ideally, the definition of HRD should answer what HRD is. However, not all of the definitions of HRD listed in the literature agree on what HRD is. For example, an historical summary of HRD definitions was presented in Weinberger (1998). According to this summary, Craig's (1976) definition was about the focus of HRD, McLagan's (1983) definition was a definition of training and development, Chalofsky & Lincoln's (1983) definition was about the discipline of HRD, Jacobs (1988) dealt with human performance technology, Marquardt & Engel (1993) dealt with HRD skills, and Marsick & Watkins (1994) dealt with what HRD offered and where it had to be positioned. The definition of HRD varies from scholar to scholar, as summarized in table (3.1).

Table 3.1 the definition of HRD

Author	Definition
Nadler, 1970; Gilley & England, 1989; Desimone, Werner, & Harris, 2002; Mankin, 2009	Activity
Nadler & Wiggs, 1986	Learning System
Swanson, 1995; Swanson & Holton, 2001	Process
McLagan, 1989	Integrated use of T&D
Watkins, 1989a; Chalofsky, 1992	Field of study and practice
Nadler & Nadler, 1989	Learning experience
McLean & McLean, 2001	Process or activity

Nadler (1970) first defined HRD as a “series of activities aimed at producing behavioural change within a specified time frame. HRD is a series of organised activities individual T&D conducted within a specified time and designed to produce behavioural change". On the other hand, Gilley & England, 1989; Desimone, Werner, & Harris, (2002) claimed that the intended beneficiary of HRD activities is the individual employee, and that its purpose is to improve an employee's behaviour and performance. In an attempt to give the field some structure, Nadler & Nadler (1989) later redefined HRD as "organized learning experiences to bring about potentials for performance change or personal growth of the individual in the organization" and suggests the three key concepts of HRD are 'training, education and development'. However Garavan, (1997) claimed that the concept of 'training', 'education' and 'development' is an integrated whole with the process of learning holding them together. Nadler & Wigg (1986) broadened the notion of learning experiences and repositioned HRD as "a comprehensive learning system for the release of the organization's human potentials" (p. 5). In contrast to Nadler (1989), who tried to narrow the definition of HRD, Watkins (1989) broadens it by suggesting HRD as a "field of study and practice responsible for the fostering of a long term, work-related learning capacity at the individual, group and organizational levels. As such, it includes - but is not limited to - training, career development and organizational development" (p.427).

Watkins' definition of HRD represents a shift from previous definitions in that it changes focus from learning activities and performance improvement in the short term, to the fostering of long-term learning capabilities in an organization. Swanson (1995; p.208) defined HRD as the “process of developing and unleashing human expertise through organization development and training aimed at improving performance at the organization, work process, group or team, and individual levels”.

According to McLagan (1989), “HRD means the integrated use of training and development, organization development and career development to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness”. Besides these three practice areas of HRD, there are four areas that are closely related to HRD but not the primary purpose of HRD: organisation / job design, human resource planning, performance evaluation systems, and selection and staffing. McLean & McLean (2001, p.322) further define HRD as “any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adults’ work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity and satisfaction, whether for personal or group/team gain, or for the benefit of an organization, community, nation or, ultimately, the whole of humanity.”

The definitions of HRD reflect the perspectives of various scholars (Jacobs, 1990); additionally, as the field has evolved from training and development to encompass broader issues such as organisational development, its definitions inevitably changed. Moreover, distinguishing the difference between T&D and HRD is pertinent as it forms part of the discussion in analysing the concepts of HRD. Therefore, the distinction between HRD and T&D will be discussed by analysing and comparing HRD and T&D.

3.2.1.1 Distinctions between HRD and T&D

As a relatively newly developed the concept of human resource development (HRD) is generally believed to represent the latest stage in the evolution of T&D, which is educating and developing people, with various objectives (Wilson, 1999). The proposed differences between T&D and human resource development have been widely discussed. For example, Garavan, Costine & Heraty (1995) have studied the emergence of strategic human resource development and addressed a list of distinctions between human resource development (HRD) and traditional training. Their arguments have received support from many HRD academics. Some of the distinctions proposed include:

“HRD is viewed as a more strategic and proactive approach compared with the training function, which is always considered as consisting of reactive, piecemeal interventions in response to specific problems” (Walton, 1999, p. 20).

“HRD is considered to be more positive than training as it advocates the involvement of many stakeholders rather than simply the training providers” (Harrison, 2002, p.112)

" HRD professionals have different attitudes and competencies compared with those who are existing in more traditional context”(Harrison & Kessels, 2004, p. 55) HRD advocates that individuals should be future-oriented (i.e. to anticipate knowledge and skills needed in the future rather than react only after the problems occur) (e.g. Joy-Matthews, Megginson & Surtees, 2004).

However, there is also considerable debate within the literature regarding the issue of whether human resource development is indeed different and/or an advancement compared with T&D rather than 'an old wine in a new bottle'. The disagreements are not only restricted to the theoretical discussions of human resource development related activities, such as training, development, education and learning (Garavan, 1997), but also reflect doubts about the applicability of human resource development's assumptions in the organisational context, since there has been hardly any empirical evidence supporting the successful implementation of a whole set of human resource development principles (Mabey et al, 2007). As often found, training activities in most organisations are still based on traditional models without playing strategic roles (Mabey et al, 2007), and commitment from different human resource development stakeholders is not always as easy to attain as it seems (Argyris, 1999). All of these factors have made it difficult to decide what "training and development" means in different organisational contexts.

Against such a background, the researcher believes that it is important to appreciate the complexity of reality and, at the same time, try to capture the changing process of training and development in organisations from the traditional approaches towards a more strategic human resource development direction, if it is happening. Thus, the term "training and development" (T&D) is used in this study as an umbrella term for employee training, development, skill formulation, and work related learning at all levels within organisations. Such a definition may seem to be loose, but it might well catch the subtlety of learning implied in the different types of training and development approaches. As suggested by Garavan (1997), it may be more appropriate to use learning as the "glue" to hold together training, development and education, instead of treating them separately.

As can be seen from the discussion above the definition of human resource development (HRD) is again not an easy task. Ever since Leonard Nadler coined the term "human resource development" in the late 1960s (Nolan 2002), the scope of human resource development has been extending, far beyond its original focus on workplace training and development. With "learning" as one of its key components, human resource development has been considered as either playing a dominant role in or having a great influence on the success of strategic management (Stonehouse, et al, 2000), knowledge management (Ahmed, et al, 2002), human capital management (Mayo, 2001), organisational change and development (Tomkinson, 1999). In addition to the fact that these linked areas are themselves very complex subjects, human resource development itself has been studied at different levels to represent different priorities, such as at the organisational level (see, for example, Drejer, 2000), societal level (see, for example, Horwitz, 1999), national level (see, for example, Hevey, 1997), and transnational level (see, for example, Stead & Lee, 1996). Thus, human resource development seems to have become a notion without foreseeable limits (Blake et al, 1995). Some have asked "whether HRD might become too big?" (Walton, 1999, p: 78). Thus, it is necessary to clarify the

boundary of human resource development within the current research. In order to clearly distinguish the difference between T&D and HRD, their concept, purposes and roles are summarised in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Commonalities and Differences between T&D and HRD

	HRD	Development	Training
Concept	Learning	Learning	Learning
Purpose	Current & Future Job	Future Job	Current Job
Roles	Strategy, T&D	Development	Training

Nevertheless, HRD and T&D may be similar in their concepts and purposes, as mentioned above, but HRD is different in that it has roles that extend far beyond training and development (Stead and Lee, 1996). HRD is the strategic orientated organisational process for managing the development of human resources and is strategically associated with employees' T&D and overall business success (Harrison, 2009). Therefore, in short, HRD is an extension of T&D, which includes a strategic dimension, whereas, T&D is an element in implementing HRD. Hence, having seen the difference between T&D and HRD, this leads to discussing the key concepts underlying HRD.

3.2.2 The purposes and functions of HRD

The purpose of HRD, extracted from the definitions above, is to enhance individual performance and improve organisational effectiveness and productivity (see, for example, McLagan, 1989; Chalofsky, 1992; Stewart & McGoldrick, 1996). However, some definitions have very specific purposes, from behavioural change (Nadler, 1970; Chalofsky & Lincoln, 1983; Megginson et al, 2000) to developing a learning climate or learning organisation (Marquardt & Engel, 1993; Marsick & Watkins, 1994). Moreover, in consonance with globalisation and new technology one

of the purposes of HRD is to meet regulatory requirements, and improving quality and training for implementing new technology (Trehan, & Rigg, 2011). Conversely, the purpose of HRD could also be seen from the activities or key functions in HRD. The key functions of HRD are individual development, organisational development, career development and performance improvement (Abdullah, 2009). Swanson & Holton (2008) propose that there are two main functions in HRD. One is organisation development (OD) and the other is personnel training and development (T&D). OD primarily focuses on the organisation level and how it connects with individuals, while T&D primarily focuses on individuals and how they are connected with and to the organisation. Swanson & Holton (2010) suggest that career development (CD) is also another important component of HRD in improving individual and company performance.

3.2.2.1 Organization Development

OD is an interdisciplinary field with contributions from business industrial/organisation psychology, human resource management, communication, sociology, and many other disciplines. There are many definitions of organisation development (Anderson, 2010). For example, Cummings & Worley (2005, p.1) define

organization development as a system wide application and transfer of behavioural science knowledge to the planned development, improvement, and reinforcement of the strategies, structures, and processes that lead to organization effectiveness.

They provide five main concepts of OD; first, OD applies to changes in the strategy, structure, and/or processes of an organization, a department or work group, or an individual role or job. Through various OD programs, top management teams interact through problem-solving processes within the group and solve the company's problems in strategy and structure. Second,

OD applies and transfers behavioural science-based knowledge and skills that includes both micro concepts such as leadership, group dynamics, and work design, and macro concepts such as strategy, organisation design, and international relations. Third, OD involves a process of planning and implementing changes in order to diagnose and solve organisational problems. OD plans can be frequently revised during the change process. Fourth, OD also concerns change on a long-term basis; that is, new activities are stabilized and institutionalized within the organization through OD.

Finally, OD is designed to improve organisational effectiveness. OD is concerned with solving an organisation's problems and achieving its goals. It is associated both with high performance (e.g., financial returns and productivity) and with high quality of work life (e.g., motivation of effective employees who perform at high levels). Swanson & Holton (2001) suggest that there are many different views of OD, since the contexts of the needs for system change vary greatly across different organizations. They state that OD is essentially a method for defining and solving problems related to the organization, and they introduce two popular models that are seen in many OD process models: action research and organization development for performance system (ODPS). Action research is used as a problem-solving method, and is the foundation for most OD interventions. Organisation members and OD practitioners work collaboratively in small groups to collect data and diagnose problems prior to taking action, to revise and implement solutions, and finally to evaluate results after action is taken (Cummings & Worley, 2005). On the other hand, ODPS involves implementing a process of planned, systematic change to develop human expertise for improving individual, group, process, and organisation performance; its elements are: (a) analyse and contract, (b) diagnose and generate feedback, (c) plan, design, and develop, (d) implement, and (e) evaluate and institutionalize (Lynham, 2000).

3.2.2.2 Training and Development

Watkins (1991, p. 253) argues that

Since HRD engages in developing long-term, work-related learning patterns and outcomes at the individual, group, and organizational levels in organizations, T&D/HRD practitioners should work to enhance individuals' capacity to learn, to help groups overcome barriers to learning, and to help organizations create a culture which promotes continuous learning.

To accomplish this task, HRD requires a strong investment in the functions of training and development. Swanson & Holton (2001) define training and development as a systematic process of developing employees' job knowledge and skills for improving performance. They describe training as more focused on new employees and their acclimatization to new job roles, whereas development is focused on individual growth beyond current job requirements, with a long-term perspective. Swanson & Holton (2001) state that training and development is more focused on training than development. They also point out that T&D has a five-phase process: analyse, design, develop, implement, and evaluate (ADDIE). This training and development process, which is based on the ADDIE model, is rooted in the instructional systems development (ISD) model used by the US military. Generally, training systems follow the ADDIE process to help individuals prepare to meet their job performance requirements (Allen, 2006). Jacobs & Washington (2003,) use another term for T&D, which is employee development. They explain,

Employee development refers to an integrated set of planned programs, provided over a period of time, to help assure that all individuals have the competence necessary to perform to their fullest potential in support of the organization's goals (p.5).

They point out that employee development involves the learning of all employees in an organisation and can be delivered through such practices as off-the-job and on-the-job training programs, educational programs and seminars, job rotations, self-study materials, and mentoring programs.

They argue that because HRD primarily relies on improving organisational performance through employee development, those efforts, in the end; increase the productivity and profits of an organisation as well as the job satisfaction of its individual employees. Harrison (2009) also asserts that training and development provides learning experiences in the workplace in order that business goals can be achieved. She argues that training and development activities should be aligned with the organisation's goals so that through enhancing the skills, knowledge, learning ability and motivation of employees, there will be continuous organisational as well as individual growth.

3.2.2.3 Career Development

Chalofsky (1989) states that career development services have emerged as part of HRD functions, beginning in the early seventies. In this era, firms began sending recruiting counsellors to schools in order to provide career guidance and counseling to students. At the same time, they provided their employees with advice on how to pursue their career goals within the organisation. They made efforts to select high-potential employees and to plan for the career progression of these employees, with the purpose of retaining and directing highly skilled employees intended for top management. Eventually, career counselors began to recognise the need for career development services for their employees and quickly integrated these services into the HRD function, (Brotheridge & Power, 2008).

However, it was mentioned earlier in this chapter that one of the key purposes of HRD is to provide training to enhance future capabilities (career development) as well as to improve current abilities and skills (Marsick & Watkins, 1994; Desimone, et al, 2002; Gilley, Egglund & Gilley, 2002). Career development is viewed as a critical tool by which organisations can endeavour to increase employees' productivity and improve employees' work attitudes (McLagan, 1989; Swanson & Holton, 2001; Gilley, Egglund & Gilley, 2002) as well as focusing on change and transitions

(Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996; Iles, 1996; Harrison, 2000). As part of the strategies of HRD, Gilley et al. (2002) suggested that employees' career enhancement can be developed through job postings systems, mentoring programmes, and also by sending employees to career development seminars and workshops.

However, planning and formalising employees' career development and institutionalising of a career and succession planning system to boost effectiveness, efficiency and productivity was criticised as being almost absent in most organizations by Khan & Charles-Soverall, (1993); and Tregaskis & Dany, (1996). It was stated that because of this deficiency, career progressions were largely achieved because of the individual employee's perseverance, rather than through career developmental training from within the company (Aryee & Debrah, 1992 & 1993; Aryee et al, 1993; Lloyd, 2002; Swanson & Holton, 2001), this is evidence of organisations lacking a clear career path system for employees' career development (Budhwar et al., 2002; Heraty & Morley, 1995). On the contrary, it is said that organisations may have clear career path systems, but they may not be sufficiently well structured to assist employees' career growth and advancement (Cho et al., 1999; Budhwar et al., 2002).

3.2.3 Theoretical Framework of HRD by Country

The theoretical framework of HRD varies from one country to another due to economic and political influences, government legislation and the country's value system (McLean & McLean, 2001). These influences are particularly important in shaping the development of human resources (Lee, 2003; Harrison & Kessels, 2004). The theoretical and conceptual framework of HRD varies across different countries according to three dimensions suggested by McLean & McLean, (2001) as follows:

3.2.3.1 Scope of activities

In many countries the scope of HRD is seen to be very wide, encompassing activities related to the possibility of developing human resources' physical, emotional, spiritual and intellectual improvement as well as improving their technical and productive skills (Busaya & Na Chiangmai, 1998 in Thailand; Rao, 1996 in India and Osman-Gani, 2000 in Singapore). Most countries equate HRD with T&D and the main focus is on activities related to training and career development activities related to individuals. This viewpoint is seen in countries such as Germany (Kuchinke, 1998), Russia (Ardichvili, 2008), and Korea (Park, 1998) cited in (McLean & McLean, 2001). On the other hand, in other countries, HRD is seen to be more focused on activities linked to learning, performance improvement, behavioural and attitudinal change as well as changing organisational culture: see for example, McGoldrick & Stewart (1996) in the UK; Streumer (1998) in the Netherlands; Yan & McLean (1998) in China. Nevertheless, some countries such as Cote d'Ivoire (Hansen, 1998) and Taiwan (Kuo & McLean, 1999) think of HRD in terms of human resource and personnel functions (McLean & McLean, 2001) and in others, such as Germany (Kuchinke, 1998) and Korea (Park, 1998) they do not use the designation HRD, but use T&D instead. The focus on HRD activities among these countries varies in accordance to the individual country's perception and acknowledgment of HRD, which may change with the evolution of knowledge and the influence of globalisation (McLean & McLean, 2001).

3.2.3.2 Beneficiaries of activities

Most of the countries investigated have focused mainly on developing the individual and the organisation through T&D, and career development activities related to individuals, and organisational development initiatives related to the organisation (see for example, Yan & McLean, 1998 in China; McLagan, 1998 in America; Short, 1998 in Australia and Wallace, 1998 in Canada, cited in McLean & McLean, 2001). However, even though, their intended beneficiaries maybe similar, their purposes of HRD are varied. For instance, the primary purpose of HRD in Australia is

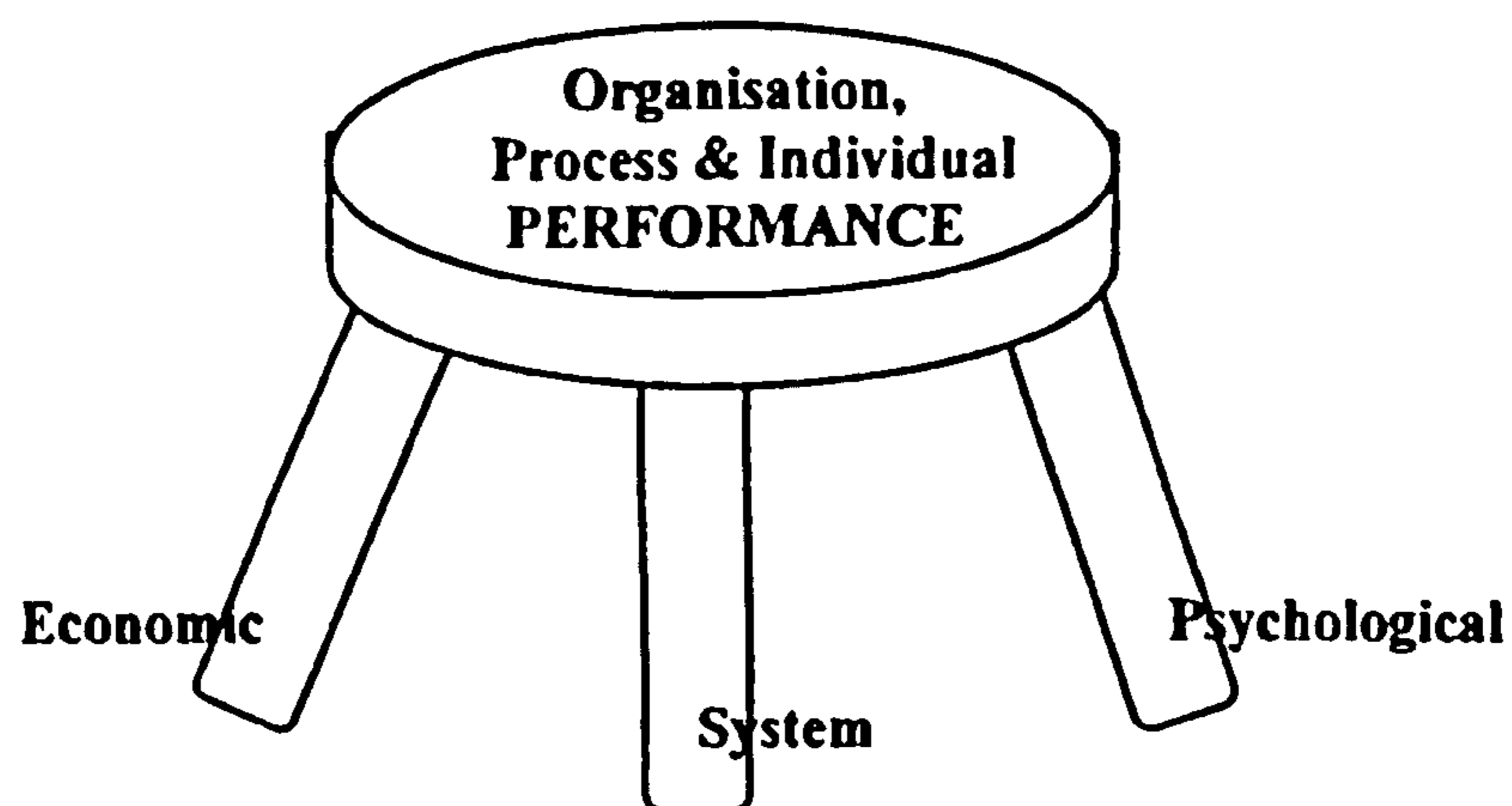
to improve organisational effectiveness and individual performances (Short, 1998), whilst countries such as Singapore, France and Taiwan's HRD activities aimed to benefit the nation other than the individual and the organisation (Osman-Gani, 1998 Sechaud, 1998; and Kuo and McLean, 1999). Interestingly, Thailand, UK, Russia and India have other purposes of HRD. For instance, HRD activities in Thailand are to benefit the nation (Busaya and Na Chiangmai, 1998); to benefit the academics in UK (McGoldrick and Stewart, 1996), to benefit groups in Russia (Ardishvilli, 1998) and finally, to improve HRD process in India (Rao, 1998) (McLean and McLean, 2001). This suggests that HRD in each country is unique in its own purposes. Indeed, the driving forces for HRD in an individual country may be associated with the main purposes of HRD from the internal environment (organisation) and from the external environment (the national requirement).

Following the above premise, the theoretical and conceptual contexts of HRD are heavily influenced by a country's economy, government and legislation. For instance, Russia and China are countries that are in transition from a planned economy to a free-market economy, as a result of which there are issues of T&D facing competitive challenges in the global economy. On the other hand, Singapore, a developing country in the South East Asia region - its T&D is heavily influenced and supported by the Government to enhance its economic and national development (Osman-Gani, 2000). The similarly applies to France, which is a country where the government plays a significant role in T&D and is involved in T&D policy setting and implementation (Sechaud, 1998). The above propositions suggest that differences in the countries definitions of what HRD is at least partly due to their degree of economic maturity and these definitions may change according to the country's level of development (McLean & McLean, 2001). As the fundamental focus of this study is on HRD in manufacturing companies in the Libyan setting, its conceptualisation may vary from other business sectors as well as other countries.

3.3 Theoretical Foundations and Models of HRD

Most writers believe that the underlying theory in HRD is psychological in its basic assumptions, because HRD is intended to make changes or improve an individual's learning, behaviour, work performance, attitudes and cognitive skills (see for example, Swanson & Holton, 2008). However, a set of psychological, system and economic theories has been proposed to support and form a more inclusive theory for HRD (see for example, Swanson, 1999). This multiple based theory is presented as a three legged stool model (see Figure 3.2) and was suggested to provide the more integrated support that is required in HRD. First, since it is basic to survival of organisations, it is seen as economic; second, the notion of connectivity and relationships that can maximise the integration of subsystems and systems require system theory; and thirdly, psychological theory acknowledges employees ability to improve productivity, make changes and create development within organisations through training, learning and personal development (Swanson & Holton, 2008).

Figure 3.2: The Three-Legged Stool Model



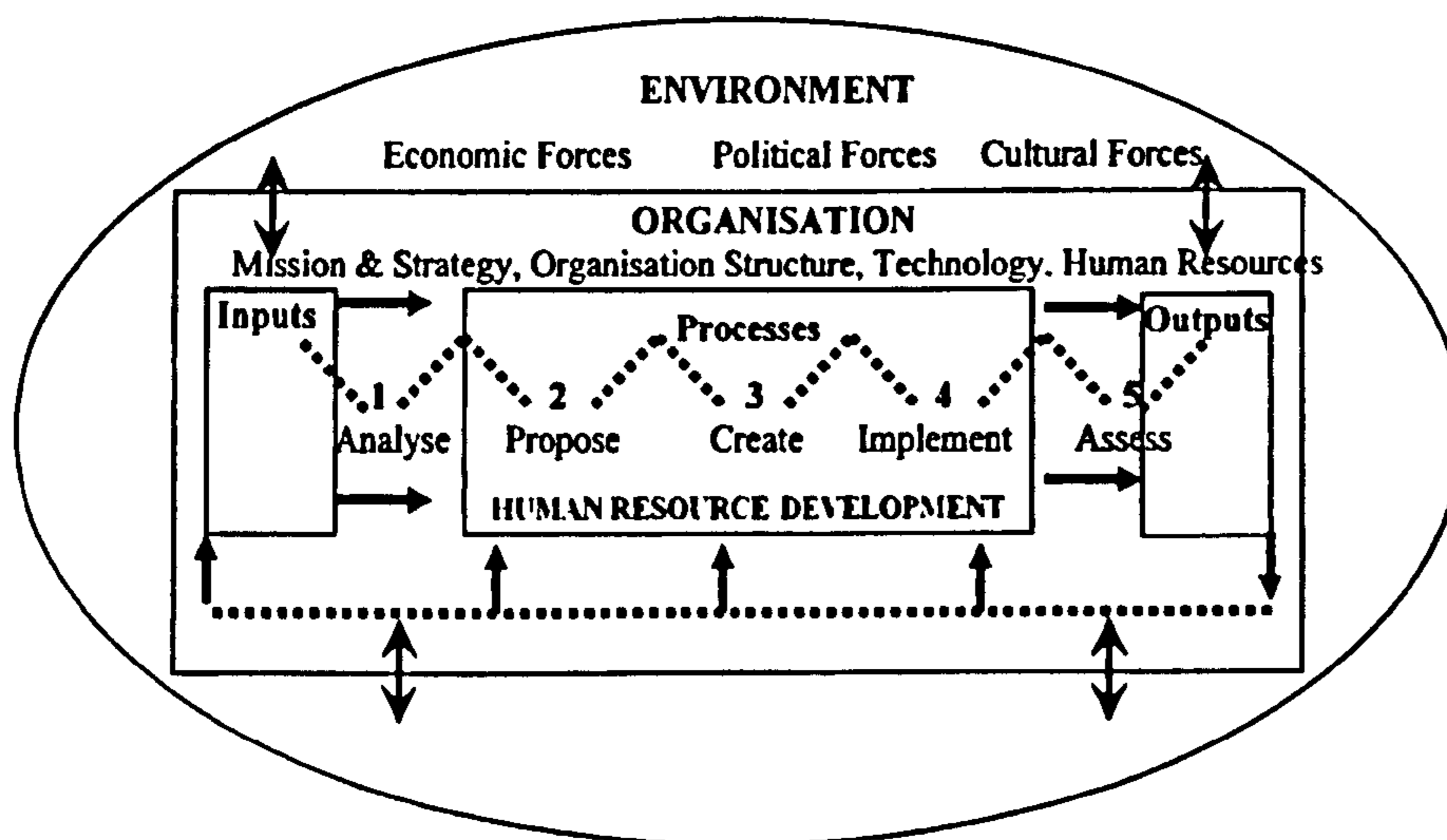
(Swanson & Holton, 2008)

However, this three foundation theory has been criticised in that psychological theories lack the leverage to improve performance, whereas, economic theories have their limitations in interpreting the pressures on human capital and diverse workforces in a rapidly changing work environment (Holton, 1998; and Torraco, 1998). However, system theory has also been identified to highly influence HRD in organisations (Ruona, 1998). Indeed, system theory is often deployed to describe the complexity of HRD in organisations as it has the ability to capture the complex and dynamic interaction of environments, organisations and work process, as well as groups or individuals as illustrated in the input- transformation-output system model (see Figure 3.3).

The system model is a five-phase system which includes the processes of analysing, proposing, creation, implementation and assessment, paralleling the other processes in an organisation (Swanson, 2001c, p. 18-19). Moreover, system theory has even been proposed to serve as the underlying theory to access other theories in HRD such as general systems theory, chaos theory, futures theory and domains of a cybernetic system and complex adaptive system. For instance, firstly, general systems theory explains how HRD and other subsystems connect and disconnect; secondly, chaos theory contends that an organisation has the ability to retain its purpose and effectiveness in the face of chaos; thirdly, futures theory proposes how an organisation has the ability to shape the future; fourthly, cybernetic system explains now the systems functions through communication, feedback and control within a system and also with its environment; and finally, complex adaptive system proposes that the systems function in an area of complexity between chaos and order. Hence, system theory has been claimed as the unifying theory of HRD (Swanson & Holton, 2001). Yet, it is still argued that even this definition has its limitations (Iles & Yolles, 2003).

Figure 3.3: System world-view model of human resource development as a process

within the organisation and its environment.

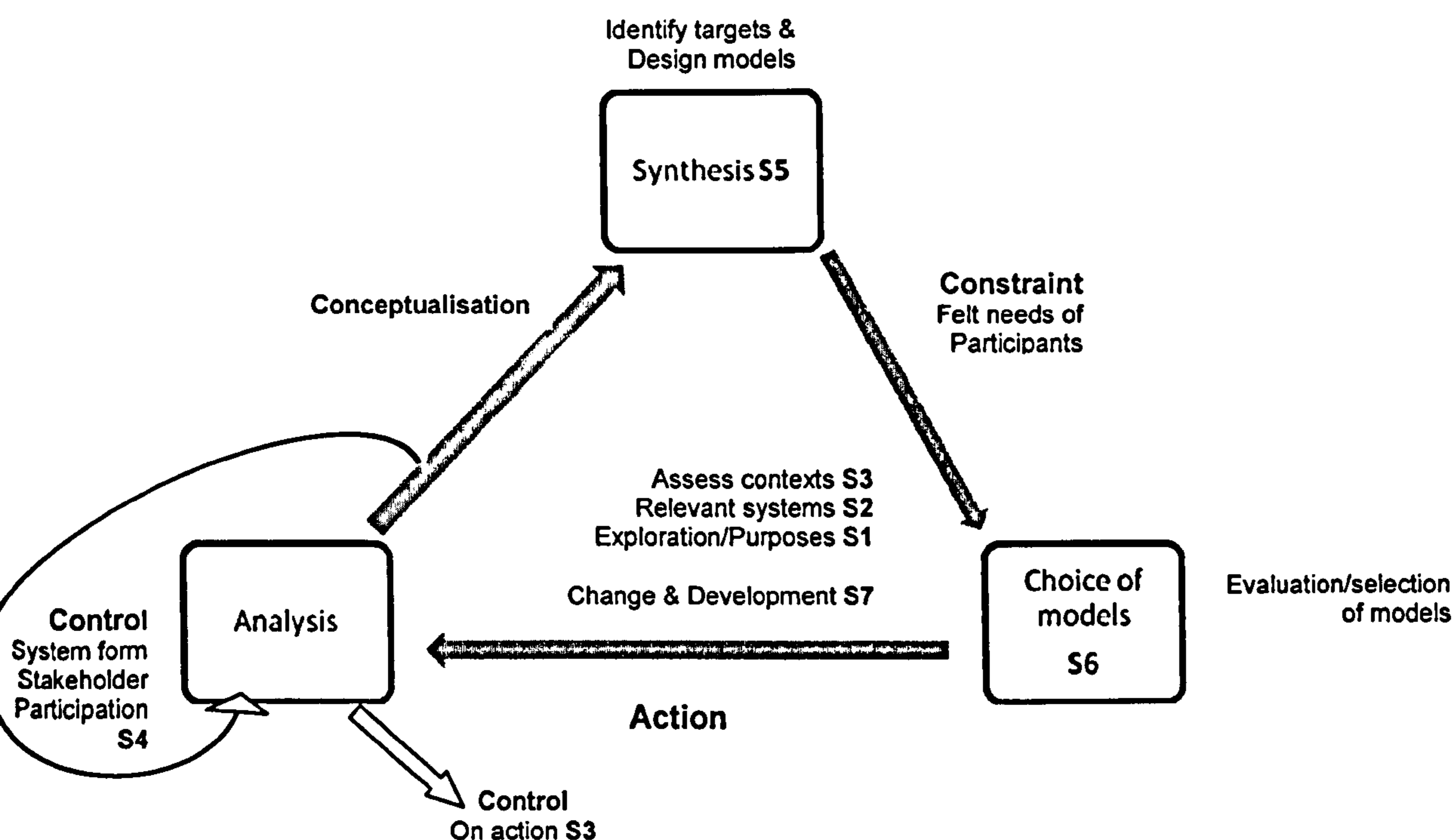


(Source: Swanson, 2001c)

Indeed, Iles & Yolles, (2003) emphasise the increased influence of organisational development (OD) on HRD which was absent in the traditional input- transformation-output system model. This perspective built on the work of Grievies & Redman (1999, p. 85) who described the influence of OD on HRD as 'HRD living in the shadow of organisation development' (Bhatnagar & Sharma, 2005). The systems model has been criticised as being outdated and 'planned' and its simplistic systems thinking is regarded as incapable of dealing adequately with the complexity of the relationships of systems and environments. Some of this criticism has arisen because elements of power, politics, culture and potential for change in organisations are not clearly specified in the systems models (Iles & Yolles, 2003). Therefore, it has been suggested that A model that incorporates organisation development in order to demonstrate the complicated nature of the HRD landscape. This is because this model takes into consideration organisations' dynamic reaction with their environments and incorporates notions of power and organisational control (Iles & Yolles, 2003). The many faceted nature of HRD is illustrated as an evolving model (see Figure 3.4) working in a cycle, adopting a recursive, viable systems model of HRD. The sequential process in

the complex evolving model defines a cycle of inquiry that begins with an identification of the current and future states of an organisation (Step I to Step 3). The cycle then continues to step 4 in which the system is within control of the stakeholders. In this step, the notions of power, structure, conflict and resistance determines the stability of the action stage and if this is not stable, recursion occurs in the cycle. Step 5 and step 6 are described as the action stage or the process in synthesising, selecting and evaluation of HRD activities which is similar as the processes in the systems model. Finally, step 7 provides a comprehensive mapping of the dynamics of change and organisational development. Therefore, the complex evolving theory has been proposed as more appropriate to explain the strategic nature of HRD and provide a better understanding in managing the complex systems and change in HRD. It has been argued that since the methodological principle in this model is based on feedback, the cybernetics aspects present in systems theory is enhanced and the control aspect has been clearly highlighted which was absent in the input-transformation-output system model (Hatcher, 2003; Iles & Yolles, 2003).

Figure 3.4: The Complex Evolving Model (Iles & Yolles, 2003)



Various HRD models have been produced to theorise about HRD - from the simple three legged stool to the complex evolving model - but for example McGoldrick et al 2002) argued that HRD does not really have theories per se, but applies theories from its base disciplines such as education, general systems theory, economics, organizational psychology, sociology, anthropology behaviour and human relations theory (McGoldrick et al., 2002; Hatcher, 2003). These theories and models may not be applicable to all T&D practices in Libya, although they may be adapted and their base disciplines may be used as a basis for all T&D practices. (Further models which addressed issues around strategic HRD are discussed later in section 3.4.3).

3.4 HRD Structure

This part of the chapter will discuss the structure of HRD, in terms of the characteristics of HRD in organisations and how the existence of HRD can be identified in organisations. Harrison (2005) suggests that the signs that HRD is happening and is operating within the strategic framework of a business are that it is clear and meaningful, strategically aligned, and management-led, with specialist staff playing a supportive role and skilful provision and management of learning used to improve performance. However, because of the confusion evolving around HRD in that it is commonly associated or confused with HRM (McGoldrick & Stewart, 1996) it is useful to clarify the difference between 'HRD' and 'HRM'. As such, this section begins by explaining the terms 'HRD' and 'HRM'. The second section will then provide an overview of strategy and the notion of strategic HRD in organisations. Indeed, it is important to determine appropriate HRD strategies and to have an understanding of an organisation's strategic management process and of its overall human resource and development plans and policies (Harrison & Kessels, 2004). It is in this second section that a brief discussion of the importance of commitment and involvement in HRD, particularly from top management and line managers in their support for strategic HRD and in the formulation of plans and policies for HRD are presented. The third section describes the nature of HRD structures

in organisations. The fourth section discusses the funding of HRD activities and the budgets allocated to support HRD.

3.4.1 Structural relationship of HRD and human resource management

The term HRD is often used in conjunction with HRM, and sometimes synonymously. However, the term HRM itself has various connotation and meanings. Usually it is used to define a particular approach to management of people at work, and is contrasted with other approaches (Gibb, 2008). Models for HRD practice identified the Human Resource Wheel that differentiates and explains relationships among HRD, human resources management (HRM), and other human resource functions. Khalek, (2007) states that the Human Resource Wheel includes the following: training and development, organisation development, career development, organisational design, human resource planning, performance evaluation systems, selection and staffing, compensation/benefits, employees' assistance, union/labour relations and human resource research and information systems.

Some authors have indicated that HRD is one of the components of HRM, where HRD supports the role of HRM in T&D for employees, and that the T&D concept fits in or integrates with HRM (Guest, 1987). McGoldrick & Stewart, (1996) posited that HRM and HRD are two parallel paths, especially in terms of their similarity and emphasis on common strategic components. The parallel path, as suggested by McGoldrick & Stewart, (1996) includes all the four components of HRD, namely; training and development, performance appraisals and management, career planning and development as well as organisation development components, and was advocated as positioned under the 'umbrella' or function of HRM along with other components such as recruitment and selection, compensation and benefits, employee and industrial relations as well as safety & health. It is clear that both the HRM and HRD pathways have their own sets of plans and policies, as well as functionality support in the corporate strategy. Thus, this leads the discussion towards the concept of strategy and strategic HRD.

3.4.2 Strategy and Strategic HRD in organisations

This section will discuss the concepts of strategy in HRD. The beginning of the section will examine the meaning of strategy in the context of HRD. This is followed with an overview of several strategies that could enhance an effective HRD. Subsequently, characteristics of strategic human resource development (SHRD) will be discussed based on SHRD models. The concept of strategy is important to discuss because strategy is directly linked with HRD. What is strategy? Wilson (2005) stated that strategy is all about the organization's future orientation. Tyson Tyson (1995, p. 1) described strategy as

the attempt by those who control an organization to find ways to position their business or organisational objectives so that they can exploit the planning environment and maximise the future use of the organization's capital and human assets.

In short, it simply means an idea of how an organisation reaches its goals (Luoma, 2000b).

In the context of HRD, Garavan (1995) contends that the term SHRD is used in many different contexts and that it concerns a range of widely differing activities, leading to considerable confusion about its use. Despite these difficulties, however, a number of definitions of SHRD exist, including the following:

the strategic management of training, development and of management/ professional education interventions, so as to achieve the objectives of the organisation while at the same time ensuring the full utilisation of the knowledge in detail and skills of individual employees. It is concerned with the management of employee learning for the long term keeping in mind the explicit corporate and business strategies (Garavan 1991, p. 17).

Strategic HRD can be viewed as a proactive, system-wide intervention, linked to strategic planning and cultural change. This contrasts with the traditional view of training and development as consisting of reactive, piecemeal interventions in response to specific problems (McCracken & Wallace, 2000).

These definitions, amongst others, (for example Harrison, 1997; Stewart & McGoldrick, 1996), stress the need for SHRD to operate within, be linked to and keep in mind, corporate strategy. Wilson (1999) argued that SHRD must be linked into incorporated to the overall business strategy for it to support the overall strategic direction and to be different from T&D. Garavan (1991) further differentiated strategic HRD from T&D with the involvement of the many partnerships in HRD and also the concept of innovation and creativity of individuals in an organization.

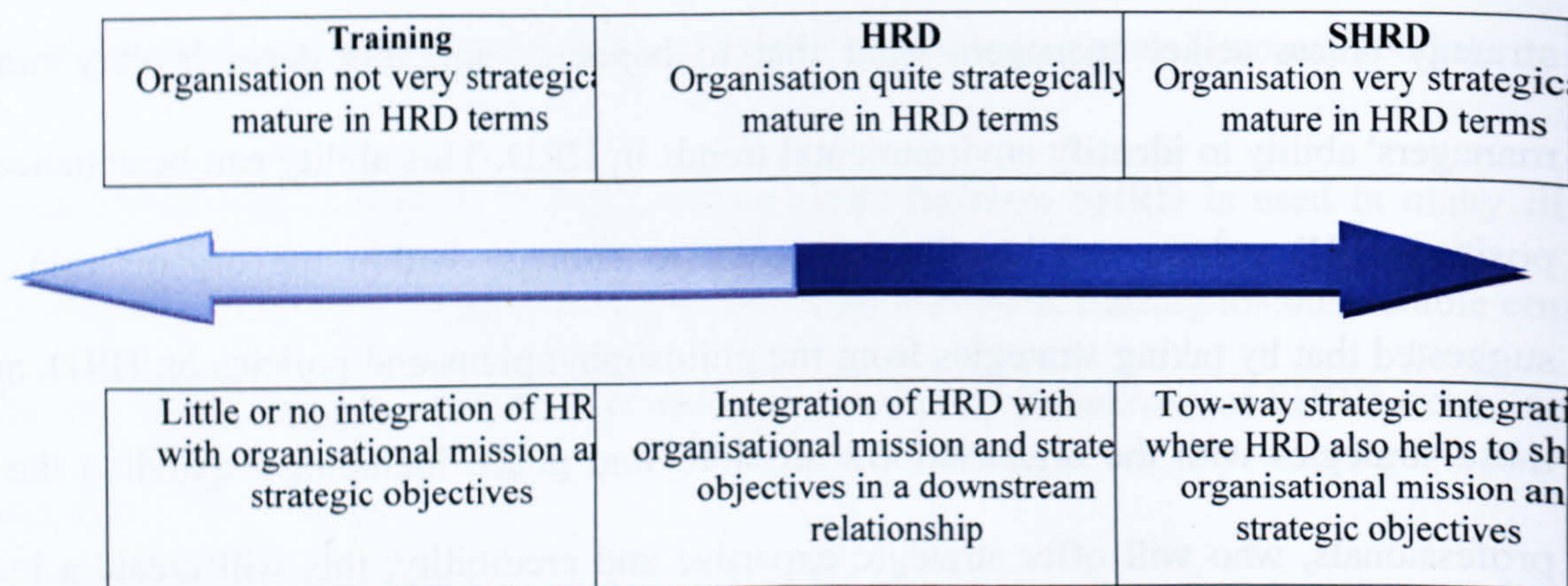
Nevertheless, it was argued by Garavan et al., (1995) that HRD "cannot be integrated into strategy unless senior managers want that to happen", and this depends very much on senior managers' ability to identify environmental trends in HRD. This ability can be enhanced if there is a positive HRD culture and learning approach to strategy within the organisation. Most writers suggested that by taking strategies from the philosophy, plans and policies on HRD, and integrating these strategies with the organisation's missions and goals, including expanding the role of HRD professionals, who will offer strategic expertise and credibility, this will create a learning culture within the organisation (Garavan, 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 1999; Horwitz, 1999; Harrison, 2009; and Armstrong, 2000). However, some writers are more specific as to the concept of learning in terms of its strategic approach, which is, developing impactful learning methods and strategies, reviewing course contents and learning curricula (Noel & Dennehy, 1991; Sadler-Smith et al., 2001). At the same time, it is argued that business and work process integration as well as measuring the performance of an organisation (which includes financial and strategic performance and organisational effectiveness measurement) are important factors in designing a cost effective,

reputable HRD function (Horwitz, 1999; Harrison, 2009). On the other hand, it was noted as criticism that strategic integration of business plans with HRD was lacking, particularly in the SMEs (Kerr & McDougall, 1999).

3.4.3 SHRD: a continuum of maturity

In the analysis below, it is shown how McCracken and Wallace (2000) develop Garavans's (1999) nine Characteristics of strategic HRD as a revised definition and model of SHRD. They present the construct of SHRD as being a very strategically mature compare and contrast this with HRD as training where, in their view, strategic maturity progressively decreases. In the sense their ideas the development of HRD can be presented as a continuum, working through training and HRD to the fullest expression of strategic represented by SHRD (see figure 3.5)

Figure 3.5 A continuum of HRD strategic maturity



Source: adapted from McCracken and Wallace (2000) Cited in Millmore et al, (2007)

This section uses the concept of a continuum of HRD strategic maturity as a useful way of getting grips with what is meant by SHRD and further develops the three positions depicted along the continuum presented in the Figure 3.5. This study will explore possible position of Libyan companies on this continuum. This will answer the fourth research question which will show the level of maturity of HRD development in Libya.

The characteristics of SHRD suggested by Garavan (1991) have thus been refined and redefined, leading to a conceptual model of SHRD. SHRD could thus be defined as the creation of a learning culture, within which a range of training, development and learning strategies both respond to corporate strategy and also help to shape and influence it (McCracken and Wallace ,2000). It is about meeting the organisation's existing needs, but it is also about helping the organisation to change and develop, to thrive and grow. It is the reciprocal, mutually enhancing, nature of the relationship between HRD and corporate strategy (Legnick-Hall & Legnick-Hall, 1988; Butler, 1988) which lies at the heart of SHRD and at the heart of the development of a learning culture. This model was challenged by McCracken & Wallace (2000) who argued that it lacked the strategic concept (see Table 3.2). For example, top management support is without its leadership qualities, line managers' involvement and HRM integration was weakened with the absence of a strategic partnership, this lead to a new conceptual model of SHRD by McCracken & Wallace (2000), with the new characteristics in which SHRD can be defined as the creation of a learning culture, within a range of training, development and learning strategies, both responding to corporate strategy and also helping to shape and influence HRD strategies. In short, Roberts & McDonald (1995) argued that HRD interventions cannot be effective when the critical aspects of corporate strategy are not articulated appropriately and linked successfully to an organisation's goals. This view is supported by Garavan et al., (1998) who claimed that HRD can also be used as a strategic lever in organizations as a means of helping the organization to implement its business strategies. Garavan (2001) stresses the point that the need for integration into business planning is critical for SHRD, as is a contribution to corporate goals and an awareness of the mission of the organisation.

On the other hand, Torraco & Swanson (1995) suggest that where an emergent strategy is dominant, for example in organisations where there are frequent technical innovations, then HRD can have a strategy shaping, rather than simply a supporting role. Integration with organisational missions and goals, as suggested by Garavan (1991), therefore suggests an implementation role for

HRD, but truly strategic HRD should also shape and influence these missions and goals (Legnick-Hall & Legnick-Hall, 1988; Butler, 1988). Despite the importance of having strategies in HRD to strategically develop organisations to success, evidence from available research suggests that many organizations do not implement a total strategic type HRD. The evidence suggests that many organizations adopt short-term perspectives, view HRD in “soft” terms (involves very little strategic work) and lack the coherency required of a strategic approach (Garavan et al, 1995). A summary of the characteristics of strategic HRD is featured in Table 3.2

Table 3.2: A Comparison of SHRD Characteristics

Original SHRD characteristics (Garavan, 1991)	Enhanced SHRD characteristics (McCracken & Wallace, 2000)
1 Integration with organisational missions and goals	Shaping organisational missions and goals
2 Top management support	Top management leadership
3 Environmental scanning	Environmental scanning by senior management, specifically in HRD terms
4 HRD plans and policies	HRD strategies, policies and plans
5 Line manager commitment and involvement	Strategic partnerships with line management
6 Existence of complementary HRM activities	Strategic partnerships with HRM
7 Expanded trainer role	Trainers as organisational change consultants
8 Recognition of culture	Ability to influence corporate culture
9 Emphasis on evaluation	Emphasis on cost effectiveness evaluation

Source: (Tseng, & McLean, 2008)

The potential partnerships of HRD and HRM are already discussed here at the structural and strategic level. Further consideration is given to the importance of environmental scanning, through top and line management support and involvement to integrating HRD activities with organisational goals, as well as clearly articulating plans and policies for employee development. Other characteristics, such as expanded roles in HRD and the emphasis on evaluation, will be discussed elsewhere in this chapter. McCracken and Wallace (2000) proposed that organisations can be classified according to their level of strategic maturity by examining the evidence for the enhanced SHRD characteristics shown in Table 3.2. McCracken and Wallace, (2000) suggested that organisations which are strategically mature in their HRD practices, should show strong evidence of

the enhanced SHRD characteristics and be at the top of training maturity. They are the companies which could be classified as practicing truly strategic HRD, as opposed to those practicing HRD. The latter might show strong evidence of the original SHRD characteristics. In this study, questions were designed to explore whether Libyan companies in the manufacturing sector showed any evidence of either original or enhanced SHRD characteristics and showed to what extent T&D in Libya has evolved into HRD in an attempt to answer the fourth research question.

3.4.3.1 Commitment and Involvement in Strategic HRD

It was argued that senior T&D/HRD practitioners have an important role and are required to have high levels of business expertise to convince and influence top management to commit to HRD, and also required to have the capability and expertise to measure overall organisational performance (Garavan, 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 1999; Jong et al., 1999; Chermack et al., 2003). However, it was argued that due to HRD's labour intensive activities and vast range of functional activities, top management are not seen to be fully committed and involved in HRD (Mintzberg, 1973; Fernald et al., 1999). On the other hand, some writers implied that lack of commitment and involvement in HRD may be due to line managers' lack of interpersonal relationships with top management and HRD specialists (see for example, Garavan et al., 1993; Grace & Straub, 1991). Thus, these views suggest that relationships among all the stakeholders of HRD in the organisation are an important feature in SHRD. This is when the task of HRD specialists is of vital importance to maintain relations within an organisation, as specified as one of the characteristics of the strategic framework of HRD (Garavan, 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 1999; Harrison, 2000). However, these characteristics of HRD are interrelated and interwoven with each other, and discussing each of them would require repetition of any deliberation of the others. Therefore, these characteristics will be discussed and examined throughout the chapter, wherever they are interrelated.

3.4.3.2 HRD Policies and Plans

Another one of the characteristics in the SHRD model is formulation of plans and policies in HRD and integration with the business and organisational policies. Similarly, this characteristic was earlier mentioned by several writers as an important element in HRD's strategic framework (see for example, Lawrie, 1986, Garavan, 1991; McCracken, & Wallace, 1999; Horwitz, 1999; Harrison, 2000). Hence, this section will now detail the discussion on the importance of having HRD plans and policies in a strategically focused organisation, and in the need for the organisation to have its own values included in the SHRD process. The importance of HRM policies being developed in organisations has been stressed by several writers (see for example, Poole & Jenkins, 1996; Armstrong, 2000). Armstrong (2000) stressed that all organisations are ideally required to have HR policies in which HRD policy may be charted along with other specific policies under the umbrella of HR policy. Having HRD plans and policies are important because the effectiveness of HRD activities depends on how well the policies and plans are being developed and integrated with the overall HR policy and organisation's strategy. Therefore, the objective of having the policy is to give the employees opportunities to enhance their skills, realise their potential, advance their careers and increase their employability, both within and outside the organisation (Heraty & Morley, 2000). It can also help to improve the organisation's competitive advantage (Poole & Jenkins, 1996 & 1998).

Certainly, this is the purpose of having a policy, but evidence in previous studies has indicated that most organisations do not emphasise having a specific policy for HRD (see for example, Heraty & Morley, 2000; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003). The importance of developing the policy is to guide managerial decisions in the field of HRD, because the policy can provide HRD professionals with the rationale and legitimacy for establishing and implementing their extensive activities within the broad functions of HRD (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986). Furthermore, it was suggested that having plans and policies for HRD is a basis from which to form the strategic direction of the organisation (Lawrie, 1986; Garavan, 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 1999; and Howitz, 1999). As a result.

organisations that have had HRD policies within their functions are viewed to be having commitment to the continuous development of the skills and abilities of their employees, compared to those without any policy (Armstrong, 2000, p. 260).

However, Armstrong (2000, p. 338) argued that HRD policies can only be implemented well if there are HRD plans in place to support the organisation's commitment towards employee development. McCracken & Wallace (2000) described the HRD plan as a document that consists of details of training interventions that outline employees' training needs and specific training programmes, and the methods and resources to meet the specified needs. Therefore, in order to have effective HRD plans and policies, Clutterbuck (1989), stressed that HRD policies must be conceptualised and formally formulated and translated into actionable HRD plans in order to ensure implementation. On the other hand, Armstrong (2000) stressed that policies have to be expressed in abstract terms because formal policies can provide the guidelines that managers require in organising their daily tasks and responsibilities, rather than operating without a formal working guideline. Furthermore, these policies can be used in induction, team leader and management training to help participants understand the philosophies and values of the organisation and how they are expected to behave within that context (Clutterbuck, 1989; Armstrong, 2000). However, it was argued by Osman-Gani & Tan (2000) that larger companies are more likely to formalise their T&D/HRD plans and policies than their smaller counterparts. Indeed, Hill & Stewart (2000) further argued that smaller companies' HRD plans and policies are more informal, short-term, and reactive to problem solving, as well as reactive to organisational change. As such, this leads to the smaller companies' dependence on the training or HRD policy of their national Government as suggested by several researchers such as Osman-Gani & Tan, (2000); Ardichvilli & Gasparishvili, (2001); Elbadri, (2001); and Budhwar et al, (2002).

Whereas HRD has been viewed as the strategic management of human resources training and development, training may have its own specific sets of plans and policies. The training plans and policy may be a subset of the HRD plan and policy in an organisation. And these plans and policies are targeted to individual development rather than the overall strategic approach to HRD (Harrison & Kessels, 2004). For example, it may be the case that in the training policy, it specifies the amount of training provided for each and every employee in the organisation, the proportion of turnover that should be allocated for training, and the scope and aims of training schemes, as well as the responsibility for training (Armstrong, 2000, p. 511).

Nevertheless, in a general and global context, substantial evidence has indicated that many organisations adopted the International Standards of Operation (ISO) policy rather than a specific HRD policy. Many organisations are operating and conforming to the (ISO) standards for employees' T&D as indicated by several studies (see for example, Heraty & Morley, 2000; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003; Vinten, 2000), and the focus of the ISO policy may be argued as being on product quality targets rather than performance improvement. In contrast, Investors in People Standard (IiP) is commonly adopted in the UK rather than the BS5750 UK Standards (see for example, Sadler-Smith et al, 1999; Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003). The IiP directly pertains to employees' T&D (Harrison, 2000), whilst, the latter is of a similar focus to the ISO policy (Kerr & McDougall, 1999). This suggests that the UK, as a developed country with widely adopted HRD practices, prefers methods which focus on personal development.

In terms of HRD it has been argued that the small companies adopting the ISO policy can gain benefit as they can remain competitive with the larger and multinational companies (Vinten, 2000; Hill & Stewart, 2000). However, despite the importance of having HRD plans and policies, as depicted in the literature, the reality of organisations seriously taking the responsibility of formalising and implementing HRD plans and policies has been argued by several researchers. For

instance, Osman-Gani & Tan (2000) reported that policies related to T&D in Singapore were more likely to exist in larger companies of 500 employees and above, whilst SMCs are dependent on the government's HRD policy to develop their own policy. Nevertheless, irrespective of size, the literature has shown that some organisations still ignored or refuse to accept the importance of having separate plans and policies for HRD (for example, Heraty & Morley, 2000). Moreover, Harrison (2000) argued that HRD plans can influence, rather than react to business plans, but this appears to be a crucial and undeveloped point. Although it is acknowledged that plans and policies are clearly necessary, but it is not known on the extent organisations are acknowledging this point.

3.4.4 Organisational Structure of HRD/T&D

The design of organisational structure varies according to the size, geographical location, number of employees, and sometimes the nature of the business (Drucker, 2007). However, Matthews, Megginson & Surtees (2004) argued that organizations and their structures are always changing and never remain constant because they are full of conflicts, politicking and ambiguity of purpose, which all can influence the way in which organisational structure is designed. Hence, it is the objective of this section to describe the nature of HRD structures in organisations, beginning with the first part in this section, the location of HRD/T&D within the organisational structure. Subsequently, the second part will describe the HRD/T&D department which will be described by the desirability of there being a separate HRD department in an organisation, the size of the department and the term used for labeling the HRD department. Finally, funding for HRD activities will be discussed as the extent of funding and budget allocated to support HRD will determine the extent of the organisation's commitment towards employees' T&D.

3.4.4.1 Location of HRD/T&D within the organisational structure

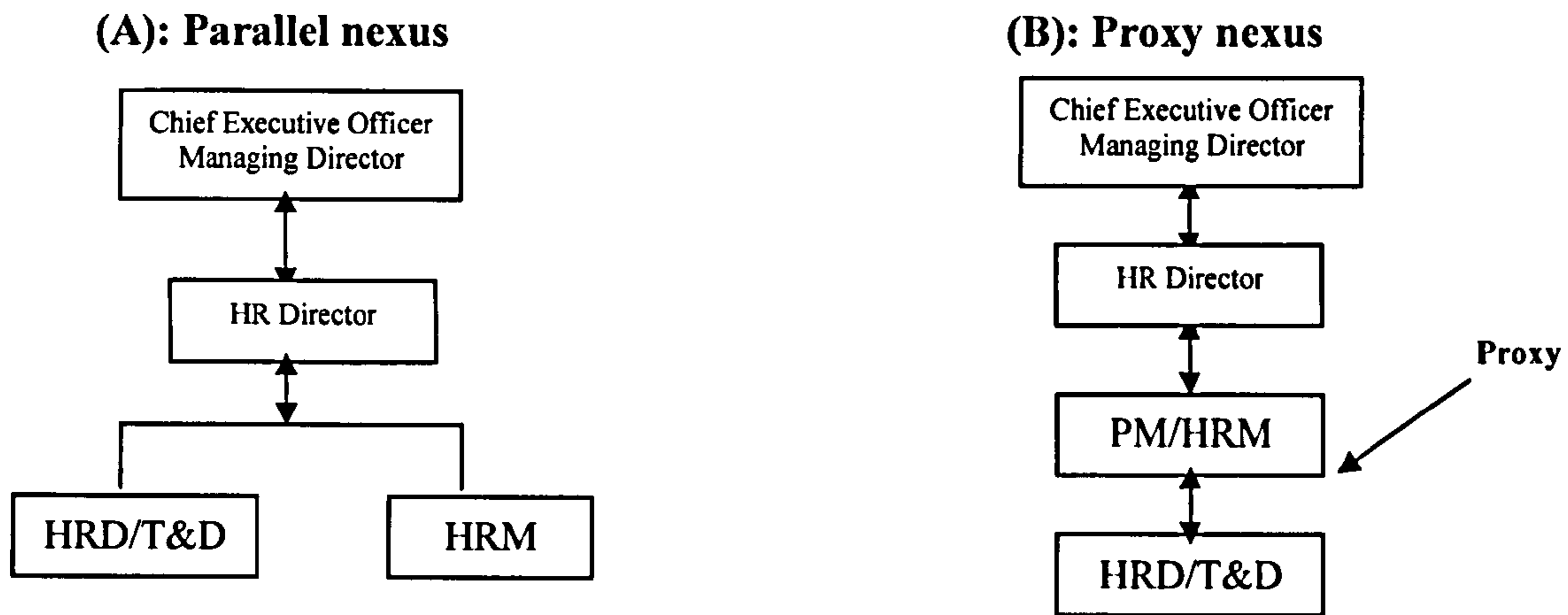
The location of HRD/T&D within an organisation's structure has been argued by several authors to be ambiguous, because of the conflicting and reactive perceptions of HRD activities among academics and HRD professionals (Buckley & Caple, 2009). Furthermore, HRD/T&D departments' position in organisations is often viewed to be insignificant to the organisational structure and to the business (Buckley & Caple, 2009). The location of HRD/T&D in an organisation will review the first describing the location of HRD/T&D within the organisational structure, followed by describing the degree of span of control, exploring the nature of the structure in relation to organisation's size, and finally, examining the different reporting structure of the HRD/T&D function within an organisation.

However, according to the parallel nexus of HRD and HRM which was discussed in the section 3.4.1, the HRD/T&D department can be related to and contributes to the organisation's corporate strategy; therefore HRD/T&D departments may be placed alongside HRM under the HR director, who might report to the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) or the Managing Director (Figure. 3.6a). This is because HRD could have direct contact with the top management to ensure their support and commitment towards HRD, rather than communicating via a proxy through the HRM function. (Matthews, Megginson & Surtees, 2004) as shown in Figure. 3.6b. However, this HRD structure may vary from one organisation to another.

Nevertheless, in some large organisations, all HRD activities may be centralised, whilst other organisations may decentralise HRD's span of control by placing trainers in key locations and operating independently from corporate headquarters. Organisations having several large divisions may have both corporate and regional HRD staff: in such arrangements, the role of the corporate department is one of advising and coordinating HRD activities in the various regions through the regional department (Wexley & Latham, 2001).

Figure. 3.6: HRD department within the organisation chart.

(A): Parallel nexus and (B): Proxy nexus



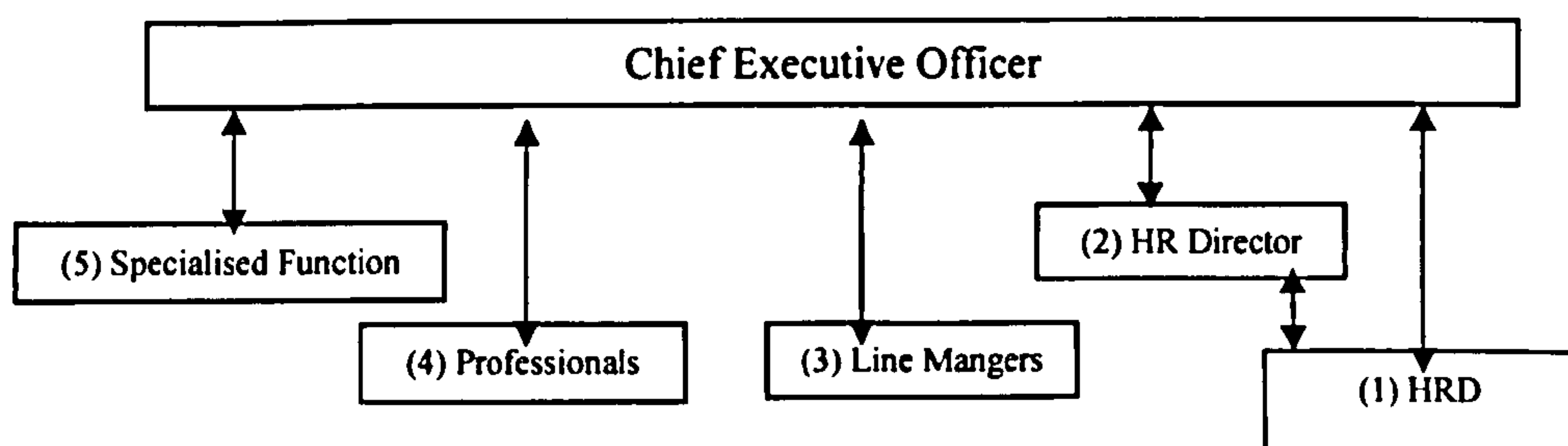
Source: (Buckley & Caple, 2009; Abdullah, 2009)

In contrast, in smaller organisations, the HRD function may be held by the human resource personnel, whose dual role is to manage and develop employees. Alternatively, in organisations where there are many small company branches in different locations, a centralised staff will travel from one location to another or have trainees assemble at one location for training, (Matthews, Megginson & Surtees, 2004).

The location of the HRD function within an organization can be characterised in terms of one of several reporting structures (Figure. 3.7). The first is a structure in which the head of the HRD department can report directly to the CEO or board of management. This situation may be seen as a rarity, except where training and development is a mainstream activity. The second and more common structure involves reporting to the Personnel Director or Director of Human Resources. In this structure, the HRD function may sometimes be seen as a specialist sub-division. In the third structure, HRD is part of the line management function, with no HRD department or specialist staff, and employees' training and development are the responsibility of line managers. This situation is

commonly found in small firms. Fourth, the HRD function may be viewed as an integral element of professional development, with some professionals, such as engineers or accountants, controlling the professional development of junior staff under the direction of an experienced professional. Finally, HRD activities may be controlled according to specialist functions, with individual departments being responsible for their own staff training and development (Moorby, 1996).

Figure 3.7: HRD/T&D Reporting Structures



Source: (Moorby, 1996). Cited in Abdullah

Although there are several ways in which HRD/T&D could exist in an organisation, the establishment and location of the HRD/T&D department may be influenced by various factors. These may include the organisational environment, business goals and strategy, organisational structure and culture, the employment system and technology, as well as the political system, which are all major influences on the positioning of HRD/T&D in an organisation (Harrison, 2000).

3.4.4.2 The T&D/HRD department

Some writers have argued that it is important to establish a separate unit or department for T&D/HRD (Huang, 2001; Matthews, Megginson & Surtees, 2004), which can be seen as linking the functions and activities of T&D/HRD with other departments in almost every part of the company (Garavan et al, 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 1999; Harrison, 2000). This may be true of Nadler and

Nadler (1989), who are among the key initiators of modern HRD and have posited that during the 'old' organisational function, many firms' HRD 'needs' were provided through a subunit of the personnel department, whilst in this new organizational function, many large and medium organizations have attempted to meet the HRD's 'needs' by establishing separate units or specialised and centralised HRD or training departments (Huang, 2001; and Budhwar, et al, 2002). These have been institutionalised or turned into training centres over time, particularly in large corporations. In contrast, small businesses, because of their size and limited resources, rarely have these specialised staff functions (Huang, 2001; Matthews, Megginson & Surtees, 2004).

Nadler and Nadler (1989) claim that the nature of HRD, being a professional and specialised function, means that it should be a distinct part of the company. Moreover, having just one separate HRD unit might not be sufficient. This is because HRD is directly involved in the day-to-day operations of the firm administering and managing line activities, as well as the broader functions of forecasting and planning, ideally, organizations may well have several HRD units. For instance, a study by Budhwar et al (2002) found that most of the HRD departments in Oman have subunits such as training, coordination and legal procedures. With these various units, there seem to be a number of HRD professionals, each responsible for different types of HRD activities. So that, it is not surprising if such an organisation has more than forty fulltime HRD professionals within the organisation, compared to most organisations having just one HRD personnel (Nadler and Nadler, 1989). However, the lack of staff in the HRD function might hinder effective management of employees training and development as well as the strategic recognition of HRD (Cho, Park and Wagner, 1999). In the present study, questions were designed to explore whether Libyan manufacturing companies have separate departments for T&D/HRD.

3.4.4.3 The Label of HRD departments

The term 'HRD' has been used worldwide for more than 20 years, and despite the changing trend from 'training' to 'training and development' and now 'HRD', the term 'training' is still widely used, particularly in the business sector. This also applies to the naming of the departments concerned. Training departments are said to represent the primary and exclusive source of expertise in the field of HRD. For smaller organisations, a general personnel function is often still maintained according to (Matthews, Megginson & Surtees, 2004). In this study, questions were designed to explore what the Libyan manufacturing companies HRD/T&D department/unit was called.

3.4.5 Funding and Budget for HRD

All activity within HRD is strongly related to the funding available for HRD. In addition, an HRD budget is an essential tool to achieve HRD activities and a main part of the success or failure of HRD programmes, if it is sufficient and implemented appropriately. At the same time, HRD is a critical factor in the success of organisations, and the effectiveness of these organisations depends upon the effectiveness of individuals responsible for running the organisation's activities (McClelland, 1993; Kirschner, 1998; Bailey, 1998; Hanover & Cellar, 1998). It is notable that across the world, training and development budgets are rising in recent years. Huselid et al., (2009) stated that true learning organisations would spend between 4% and 7% of their budget on training. Training for example is often seen as an expensive proposition. It still shows up on the cost side of most accounting ledgers. As a result, the training department is often on the defensive, justifying the money spent to improve the skills of employees and, ultimately, to improve the organisation's overall performance. One issue suggested in the literature is that it is critical to have a separate T&D/HRD budget within the corporate or organisational budget (Cho et al., 1999). This is to ensure that the HRD manager has specific financial resources available to provide HRD services throughout the organisation using the budget allocated (Nadler & Nadler, 1989; Harrison, 2000).

However, studies have found that only 10 percent of the overall HR budget is allocated to HRD, which is considered by organisations to have the most value. The remaining 90 percent are devoted to administration and service delivery of HR (Wang, 2008). On the other hand the average is 9%, according to the American Society for Training and Development. According to Training Magazine's Industry Report (2008), \$52.2 billion was budgeted for formal training and development in 2007 in the US, (cited by Filipczak, 2008). In this context, it was posited by Filipczak, (2008) that a dearth of funds can cause organisations to fail in implementing effective HRD and hinder its recognition as a strategic business partner in an organisation, a problem which is particularly prominent in small firms (see for example, Sadler-Smith et al, 1998). This failure was highlighted by Fernald et al., (1999) as in the case of the SMI companies in the USA losing their market share to foreign competitors due to a lack of investment in employees' training and development. Conversely, Calvacca (1999) stated that according to a 65,000-circulation trade monthly, it was predicted that US companies with 100 or more employees budgeted \$58.6 billion for training and development in 1997, a 5% increase over 1996. Abdullrahim (2006) stated that it was estimated that UAE employers would provide employees with some 1.7 billion hours of training that year. Hence, it is seen that funding in T&D/HRD is a critical strategy, and the extent of Libyan organisations' commitment to T&D/HRD funding will be answered in the analysis and findings chapter in this study.

The rationale of the research calls for an exploration of the broader framework of HRD in order to give a clearer and comprehensive understanding of HRD, the previous sections examined the structural context of HRD, and the funding and budget for HRD. The next sections will discuss the systematic approach to T&D/HRD, and also the challenges of HRD. This framework is important to the research, as the research questions are conceptualized from the each of these entities, which provide a very valuable structure within which to discuss the analysis and findings of T&D in the manufacturing sector in Libya.

3.5 T&D/HRD Activities and processes

This section will describe the four functions and main activities of T&D and HRD, where there is a systematic approach to HRD and performance evaluation to improve employees. These will be examined briefly. These reviews constitute an important part of this research as they are necessary for discussing the analysis of this research study in the chapter of results. However, this section will only deal with discussing various activities briefly; they will be discussed elsewhere where they are related to certain sections of this chapter.

3.5.1 Systematic approaches to training as a route to HRD

Having presented previously HRD strategic maturity as a continuum construct, it is probably safe to say that readers will be more familiar with the training end of both these representations and will be acquainted with what is commonly referred to as the systematic approach to training (or HRD. Using the terminology adopted in this chapter). This approach to HRD is frequently depicted as cycle of activities as (modeled in Figure 3.9). In the traditional context, Wilson (2005) indicates that training and development (T&D) is mainly concerned with determining training needs, planning and designing training, implementing, and evaluating training activities. This process is called the "training cycle", as shown in figure (3.8).

However, as views on the conventional training cycle have been challenged with the systematic approach to T&D, a different typology emerged that encompass a process of similar nature to T&D. but with the inclusion of strategy and involving other stakeholders at various stages of the process (Harrison, 2009). Then, in the case of HRD being strategic and systematic, there is a starting point for defining work objectives or strategies, which can be seen in figure (3.9). This systematic approach differs from the traditional approach as shown in figure (3.8) with identification of training needs being replaced by the identification of an organisation's objectives or strategy (Winter,1995). Describing the HRD process has been simplified by Delahaye, (2000) and Harrison, 2000), who

started by examining, designing, implementing and finally evaluating the managing of organisational innovation concerning change management. Each of these four stages is briefly discussed, since they are all somewhat related to the study, and questions were designed to explore the nature of HRD activities in the manufacturing sector in Libya.

Figure (3.8): The Classic Training Cycle (Winter, 1995)

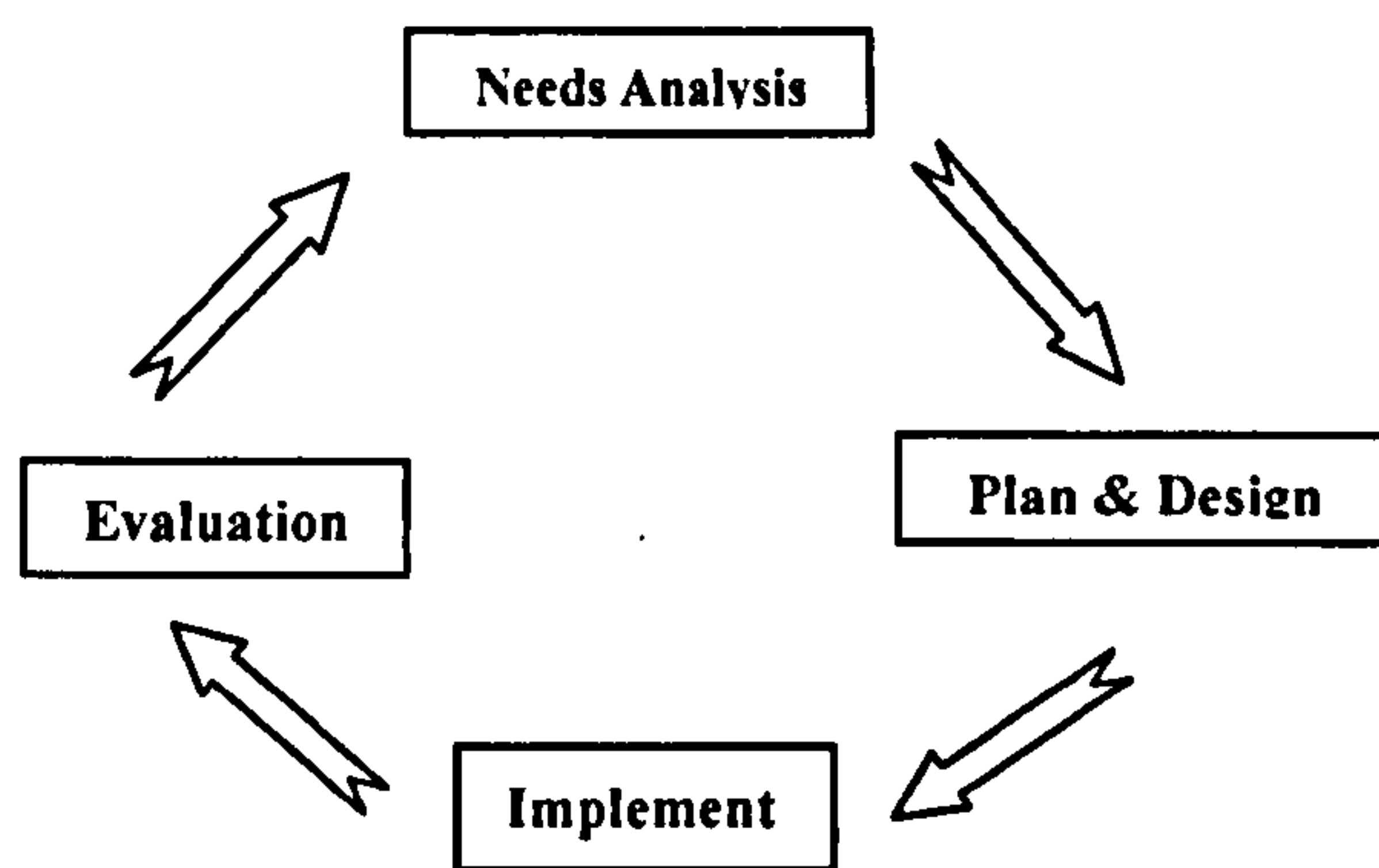
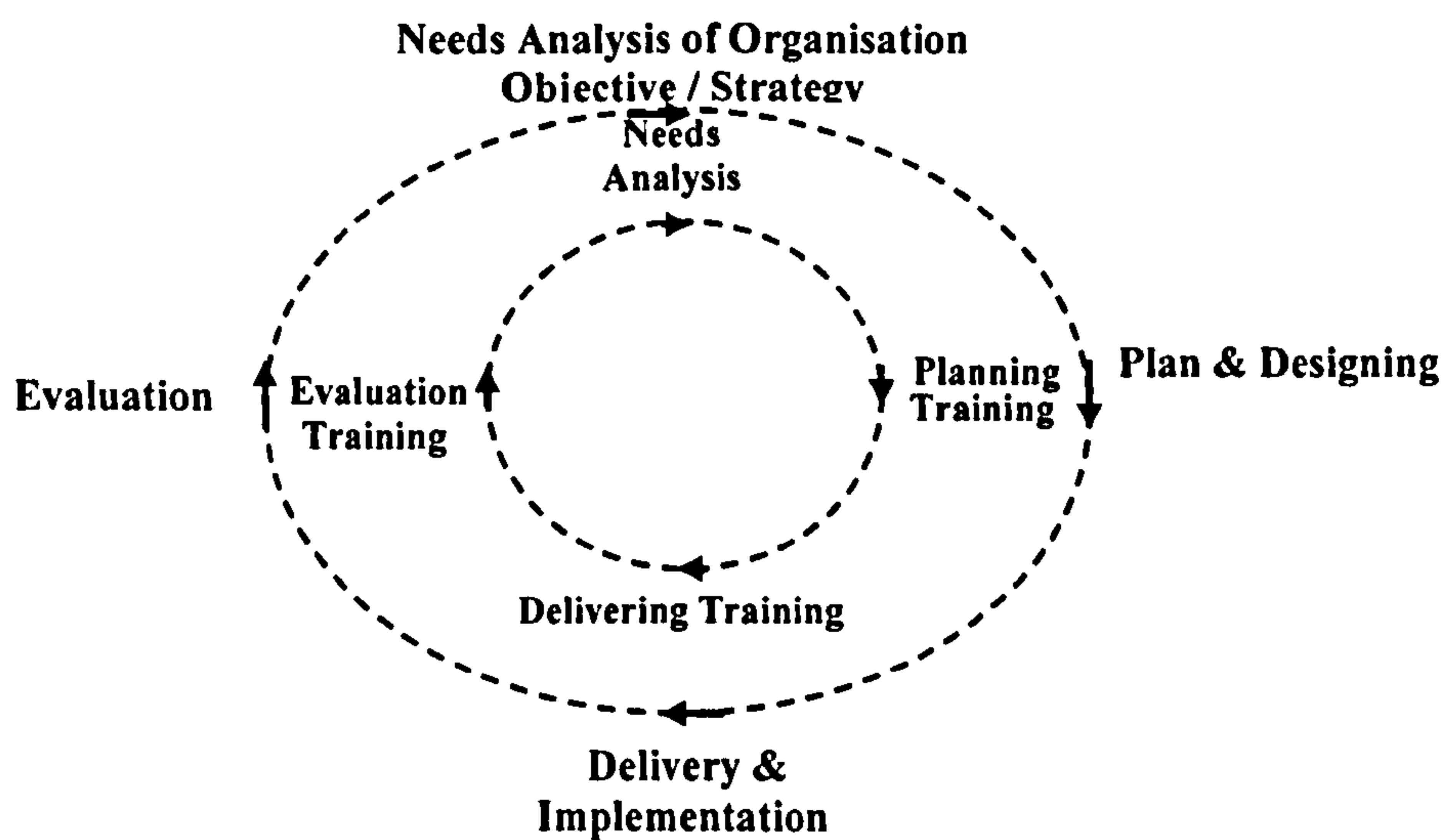


Figure (3.9) the HRD Integrating Model (Winter, 1995)



3.5.1.1 Needs Analysis

The first stage of the HRD process is analysing needs. Leigh et al., (2000) emphasised that evaluating and analysing needs are important because this stage establishes the basis of determining types of HRD intervention necessary for efficient endeavour. Desimone, et al (2002) suggested that in analysing HRD needs, four levels of needs have to be considered. They include assessing the needs of the organisation, individual employees' skills, knowledge and attitudes and their functional responsibilities, as well as the needs of departments (see also Wilson, 2005; Harrison, 2005). This suggestion is also argued by Blanchard & Thacker (2009), who suggests that most companies do not analyses on all the four levels, but place an emphasis on individual employees' needs.

In terms of the methods used in achieving the determination of needs within an organisation Wilson, (2005) referred to the traditional and simple methods, such as interviews, questionnaires observations and focus groups to collect information for analysing HRD needs. On the contrary, Gilley et al, (2003) referred to more analytical methods, such as 'is / should' analysis, critical analysis, and root-cause analysis methods to collect information for needs analysis. However, Reid & Barrington (2005) indicated that methods of identification depend on the focus of investigation and suggested referring to strategic planning documents associated with marketing, production, and staffing; analysing minutes of management meetings, and operative and individual analysis records. In fact, Wilson, (2005) accepts that it is important to combine the HR plan and the organisation strategic plan with needs analysis. Certainly, it was suggested by several theorists that the various methods of identifying needs analysis range from the simpler methods suggested by Wilson (2005) to the more technical and complicated method by Gilley et al., (2003). However, researchers have argued that organisations prefer methods such as performance evaluation and informal feedback from line managers and individual employees (Tregaskis & Brewster, 1998; Baalen & Hoogendoorn, 1998; Kjellberg et al, 1998; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Elbadri, 2001; Morrow, 2001). Particularly in organisations adopting the ISO policy, Vinten (2000) claimed that employees'

training needs recorded through line managers' requests are highly associated with 'non-conformance' that is identified upon completion of the ISO auditing procedure. In this study, questions were designed to test the existence of different analysis methods in the Libyan manufacturing sector.

Although theorists and researchers have discussed the importance of analysing needs, many companies do not consider the procedure of analysing HRD needs as a priority (Anderson, 1994; Smith, 1999; Bhatta, 2002; Budhwar et al., 2002) and this phenomenon is particularly obvious in small firms (Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Vinten, 2000; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004). In fact, there are a range of different reasons which could form the basis for evaluating needs, and it is often referred to as being a difficult and time-consuming process that often lacks resources to complete (Anderson, 1994; Sadler-Smith et al, 1998; Madsen & Larsen, 1998; Smith, 1999; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Elbadri, 2001; Budhwar et al, 2002; Hansen, 2003; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Hill, 2004). On the other hand Desimone et al. (2002) argued that incorrect assumptions are often made about needs analysis being unnecessary because the available information already specifies what an organisation's needs are. Moreover, it has been contested that there is a lack of support for needs evaluation as HRD professionals are unable to convince the top management of its necessity (Reid & Barrington, 1994; Wilson, 2005; McGoldrick, Stewart & Watson, 2002).

3.5.1.2 Planning and Designing

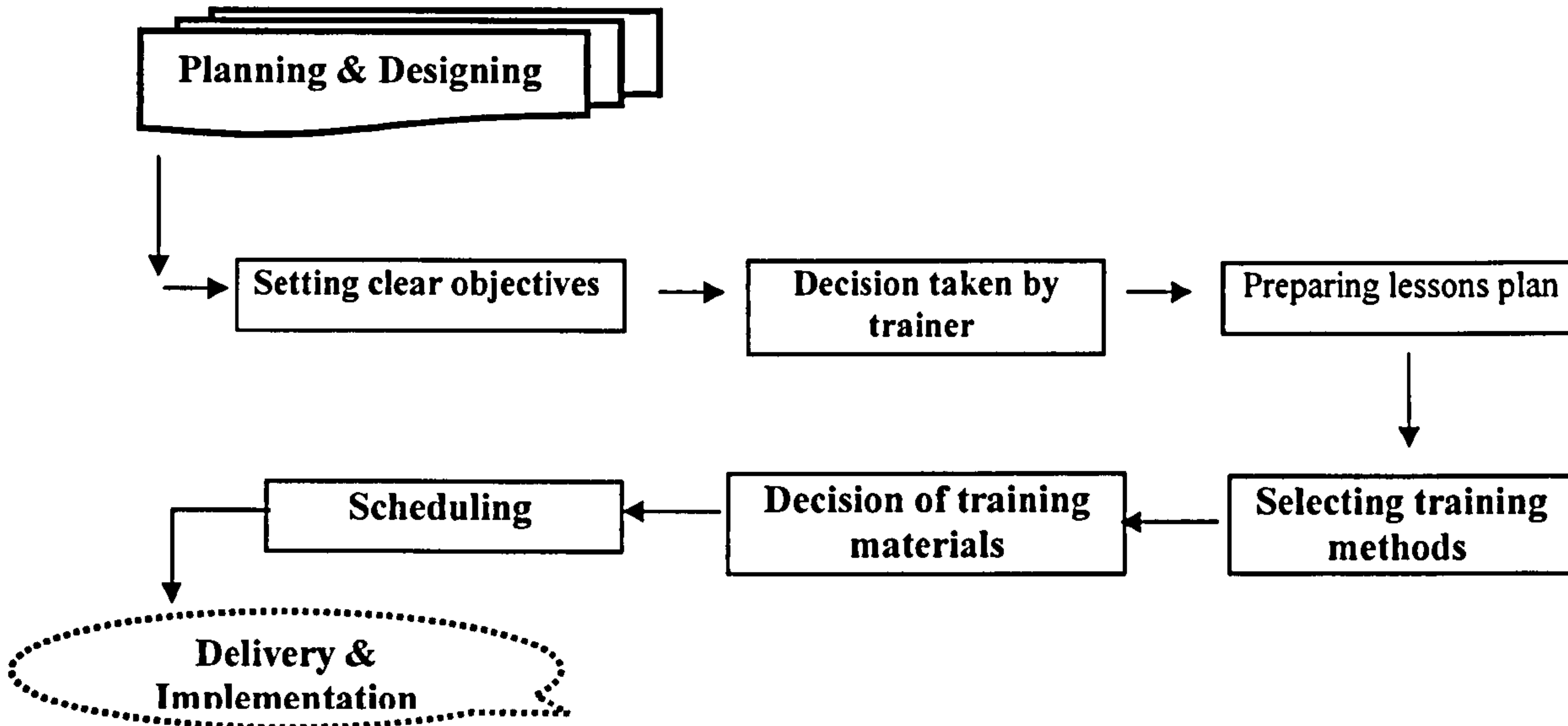
Having discussed the first phase of the HRD process, this section will now review the second stage; the planning and designing of HRD. Delahaye (2000, p. 230) suggested three important considerations in the second stage of the HRD process, which are: exactly what learning strategies will be used, the learning feedback that will be achieved, and the individuals or the learners who will experience the learning episode.

Assuming that apparent objectives are determined after the process of analysing needs, it is indicated that those responsible for training will plan accordingly to select the appropriate training provider so as to spread internal expertise (Alzalabani, 2002; Desimone et al., 2002) or bring in an external training provider in the absence of this expertise (Church & McMahan, 1991; McMahan & Woodman, 1992; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Gainey & Klaas, 2005). Furthermore, Desimone et al. (2002) indicated that developing lesson plans and selecting appropriate methods of training delivery are also an important element in HRD planning and designing. As Nadler & Nadler (1994) contended, lesson plans should serve as an important guide for a trainer regarding the actual presentation of training content. Nevertheless, HRD professionals may also have had to take a decision on whether training materials are bought, or arranged locally, and this depends on whether the programme is bought or is designed by the organisation (Reid & Barrington, 1994). Desimone et al. (2002) suggested that training programs bought from a training provider are usually a complete package. On the contrary, programs designed in-house will require HRD professionals to prepare the materials, and to update and adjust the materials to match the current program. Unfortunately, Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, (2001) indicated that frequent updating and reviewing of training materials is rare.

Finally, it has been argued that the task of scheduling HRD programmes is of equal importance because scheduling a programme can ensure that both trainers and participants are available for training and learning (Desimone et al., 2002). Moreover, the element of arranging the budget is considered an important issue in planning and designing learning activities (as discussed in section 3.4.5). Some studies have indicated that organisations place less emphasis on HRD investments because they fear that Training and Development will be a highly expensive activity (See for example, Cho et al., 1999; Budhwar et al., 2002). In the above mentioned evidence, the importance of having HRD professionals as well as creativity and experience of decision-making to select proper training methods, is crucial in a challenging business environment in order to deliver

effective HRD interventions (Bing, Kehrhahn & Short, 2003), particularly for developing knowledge workers (Which was discussion in section 4.2.4.4) (Harrison & Kessels, 2004)

Figure (3.10): Planning and Designing chart



Source: (Alzalabani, 2002)

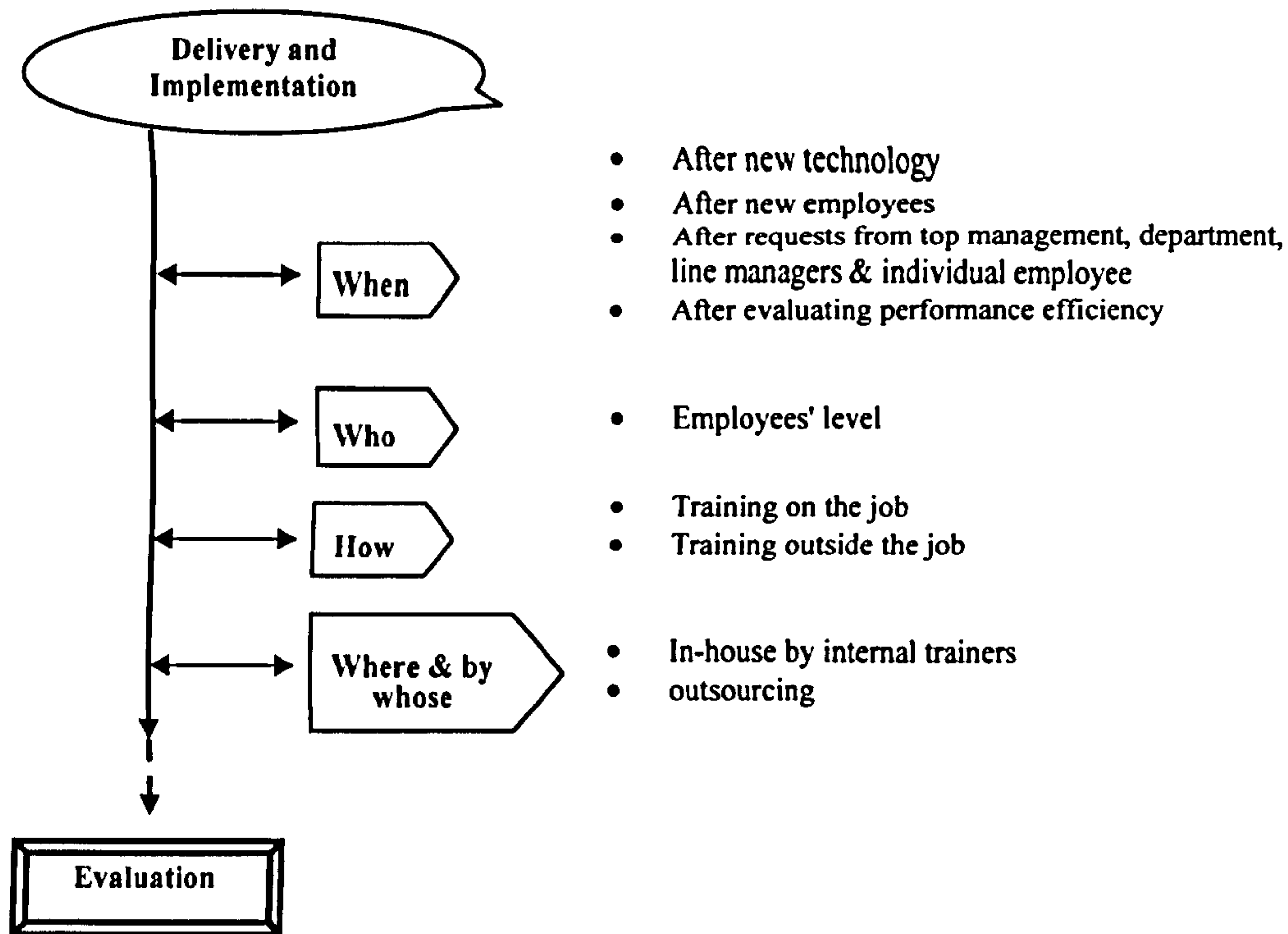
3.5.1.3 Delivery and Implementation

The previous section discussed 'Why' HRD needs are analysed and 'How' HRD is planned and designed. This section will now discuss four issues connected to how training is implemented and delivered, as summarised by Reinhart; (2000):

- 1- 'When' are employees provided with training?
- 2- 'Who' indicates the levels of employees that are to be provided with training?
- 3- 'Where' and 'by whom' do providers and trainers deliver training?
- 4- 'How' are methods used in providing training?

It is emphasised again that these reviews and discussions are valuable to this study since they form an important part of the research, particularly in relation to the 'when, who, where' and 'how' HRD activities that are implemented in manufacturing companies in Libya. The diagram in figure 3.11 illustrates delivery and implementation.

Figure (3.11) Delivery and Implementation diagram



Source: (Reinhart et al., 1987)

When training is provided, research has indicated that most organisations today emphasise the training of new technologies, especially for reaching international quality standards, as well as keeping up with the advancement of technology (Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Goodwin et al., 1999; Yadapadithaya, 2000; Dilworth, 2003; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003). However, entry level training or induction training is argued to be highly recommended in helping and motivating newly recruited employees (Saks, 1996; Jacobs & Washington, 2003). The reality of this was questioned by some observers, since the training provided to new employees or at induction is rarely implemented in organisations, especially in small companies (Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Fernald et al., 1999; Huang, 2001; and Kotey & Sheridan, 2004). The other situation in which employees may be provided with training is when top management, department, line managers and individual employees request it (Tregaskis & Dany, 1996; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Heraty & Morley, 2000). Theorists continue to debate the importance of training provision and expenditure for all employees' levels (from the top management to the shop floor employees) within companies with equal levels of

training (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986; Nadler & Nadler, 1989, 1994; Luoma, 2000a). Conversely, the notion of equal provision was criticised as organisations may vary in their levels of training provision. For example, Thursfield (2001) mentioned that production workers in manufacturing companies in the UK were provided with little training compared to Morrow's (2001) statement that employees at the clerical level are provided with much higher amounts of training than other levels. In contrast, Luoma (2000a) indicated that technical employees and shop floor employees are highly regarded as they are the human capital of the organisations than can drive the business and organisation towards success. Nonetheless, the idea of equal provision and equal spending for employees' training may require further empirical examination.

In terms of the 'Where and by whom' (training providers), researchers have suggested that large organisations which have multifaceted training staff, with competencies and subject-matter expertise to train, will usually deploy their internal trainers in delivering training to their employees (Alzalabani, 2002; Desimone et al., 2002). Otherwise, the choice to outsource to external training providers will be considered in the absence of such internal competencies and expertise (Church & McMahan, 1991; McMahan & Woodman, 1992; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998). Since many organisations lack internal experience and professional expertise, the use of external consultants and training providers is viewed as increasingly common among such companies (Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Kjellberg et al., 1998; Madsen & Larsen, 1998; Mulder et al., 1999; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Vinten, 2000; Morrow, 2001; Budhwar, et al., 2002; Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001; Skule et al., 2002; Dilworth, 2003; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004; Gainey & Klaas, 2005).

Methods of providing training range from the traditional classroom method to the more advanced use of technology, such as audio conferencing and virtual reality (Read & Kleiner, 1996; Wognum & Mulder, 1999). However, Dilworth (2003) argued that classroom-based training or training away from the job becomes less valuable where technology or other methods of providing

training are predominant, which include mentorship, on-the-job instruction training, action learning, problem-based learning, fieldwork visits and job rotation. These methods are classified by Sparkes & Miyake (2000) as being on-the-job training. On-the-job instruction training has been suggested as being frequently carried out in organisations (Tregaskis & Brewster, 1998; Tregaskis & Dany, 1996; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Madsen & Larsen, 1998; Kjellberg et al., 1998; Sadler-Smith et al., 2000; Budhwar et al., 2000; Elbadri, 2001; Garavan et al., 2002; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004). Indeed, Lloyd (2002) described on-the-job instruction as less formal system of training where workers learned by 'doing' and 'they were shown how the work should be done' by other managers.

This approach has been criticised by Heraty & Morley (2000) as being inefficient and unplanned, unsystematic, informal and difficult to evaluate, but it has been recognised as providing a natural learning environment for employees, and thus, it can facilitate the transfer of learning. On the other hand, there has been substantial criticism of other on-the-job training such as fieldwork visits (Koike, 1997; Wong, Maher, Nicholson & Bai, 2003) and job circulation (Thursfield, 2001). Despite this, circulation of jobs obtained a wide range of acceptance from employers and employees in the US and in other developed countries (Ortega, 2001) and was also viewed as having a positive impact on increasing employees' knowledge and skills (Harada, 1999; Bacon & Blyton, 2003). It is generally indicated that forming employees' intellectual development through training on-the-job is considered a crucial factor in the success of organisations which expect more skills development (Koike, 1997; Riding & Mortimer, 2000).

On other hand, and as the name suggests, training away from the job is conducted away from the work of employees or outside the work field, and it may be conducted through lectures in a classroom outdoor or by one-to-one instructions (Read & Kleiner, 1996). This method of providing training has been criticised as it is less preferred in small number of organisations, where more advanced and developed training methods, such as using multi-media learning and computer-based

learning, are increasingly used rather than the traditional lectures (Read & Kleiner, 1996; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Mulder & Tjepkema, 1999; Sadler-Smith et al., 2000; Marquardt et al., 2000; Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001; Dilworth, 2003). However, Sparker & Miyake (2000) argued that off-the-job training helps employees to understand the main concepts while training on-the-job completes the development of intellectual skills. In addition, rather than using a single training mechanism, the deployment of both methods is argued as a better practice to enhance the acquisition of learning and the transfer of knowledge (Tregaskis & Brewster, 1998; Kjellberg et al., 1998; Sparkes & Miyake, 2000). At least, there is an attempt to show that combining training on-the-job with practice and class instructions, with training away from the job may be more effective, and perhaps can benefit both employees and the organisation (Gattiker, 1995).

Other methods of providing training away from the job are suggested in the literature as being equally distinctive in organisations. These may include planned training experiences, such as training and learning outside the site, and activities related to comprehensive quality such as quality control circles. The benefits of outdoor-based training were claimed as having the ability to develop effective work teams, as well as the ability to increase employee's skills of leadership and management (Badger et al., 1997; McEvoy & Cragun, 1997; Short et al., 2002; Francis, 2003). However, Wagner & Campbell, (1994) reported that the effectiveness of this training delivery is being criticised and questioned by researchers and practitioners, and is now sometimes replaced by virtual reality training, particularly in the US and the UK. This view is questioned by Keller & Olson (2000), who argue that the traditional form of classroom-based training is equally effective in building teams and for developing leadership. However, despite different methods of providing training indicated in the literature, each of which is important and effective in its own way, the types of training provided may entirely depend on the objective of the program and expected learning feedback. In this study, questions were designed to answer the previous four questions in section (3.5.1.3) and test them in the Libyan manufacturing sector.

3.5.1.4 Evaluation

This section discusses the final stage of the T&D/HRD process, that of evaluation. Issues that will be discussed in this section of the evaluation process include evaluation purposes, available options for conducting training evaluation and how evaluation results can be transferred. Like other stages of the HRD process, this evaluation stage is equally important and closely related to this research, especially when discussing training evaluation in Libyan manufacturing companies. Moreover, it is noteworthy that all four stages of the HRD process have their level of importance as HRD activities, which is directly related to the third and fourth research questions. Evaluation is the output of training which can be seen when an organisation has obtained benefits and reached its goals. Many researchers have indicated that it is difficult to obtain an objective assessment of training effectiveness. Holden & Livian (1992, p. 15) argued that while it is difficult to identify precisely the values that training has added to the organisation because there is no effective way of directly measuring its efficacy, it is universally acknowledged that this activity is of value. The evaluation process enables the organisation to assess the effectiveness of training and the return on the organisation's investment in the training function.

The purpose of evaluation is presented by Davies (1983, p. 267), as an investigation into whether or how far a training event has achieved its objectives. With regard to the reasons for conducting training evaluation, researchers have indicated that evaluation is: a broad concept involving the continuous systematic accumulation and assessment of data about the organisation which provides feedback for both the trainer and trainee, and the line manager, and the organization. It can enable individuals to consider and alter the purpose, content and methods of training, study the impact of training related and other changes in a firm, develop the internal structure and functioning of the firm, and finally to identify and isolate at an early stage new problems and constraints, and decide whether training offers relevant solution to these problems or not (Pym 1968, p. 180), Bramley & Newby (1984, pp. 11-13), Easterby-Smith & Mackness (1992, p. 43) and Wilson, (2005). Training

evaluation according to Pym (1998) focuses on contextual and other organisational variables and has two purposes, to improve the training and enhance trainees' learning and the transfer of what was learned to the work place. There are several approaches in attempting to define the benefits of training programmes and these are:

- The participant's opinions of the programme (e. g. feedback from trainees). Kaman (1985, p. 42) comments that the trainee may have an entirely different perception about what problems are and how to correct them, and will therefore participate effectively in the training.
- The extent to which they have learned the material (post - testing).
- Degree of their ability to apply the new knowledge.
- Whether the predefined training needs have been achieved (evaluation of job performance).

Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick (2006) recommend consideration of these four levels for evaluating the success of training activities commonly used:

Reaction level: This measure the trainee's likes and dislikes about a particular course (content, style, methods, etc).

Learning level: this measures the achievement of the instructional or course objectives, in other words how well concepts, facts, and ideas have been absorbed and understood by the trainee.

Behaviour level: this concerns the change in trainee behaviour once back on the job situation and attempts to establish to what extent improved performance could be attributed to training.

Results level: this measures changes within the organisation as a whole that can be seen as a positive consequence of training. Whitelaw (1972, p. 8) and Hamblin (1974. p. 17) called this level the effect on the trainee's department and they added a fifth level known as the ultimate level, which measures changes in the ultimate well being of the organisation in terms of profitability or survival.

Regarding the best method of evaluation, Hamblin (1974 p. 14) said that there was no one best way to evaluate in all circumstances, just as there is no one best way to train, so evaluation methods must be identified according to the existing situation.

As with any other training activity, evaluation can be accompanied by various difficulties, which may influence its effectiveness. Phillips (1990) drew attention to the following difficulties: the lack of commitment from anyone involved in the training process, inappropriate programme design centred around the personal interests of the participants rather than around the needs of the organisation, the lack of evaluation know how, and uncontrollable variables affecting job performance. Arab organisations are similar to other, western-based organisations in that there is a lack of reliable information used for the evaluation procedure, which makes it difficult to follow up and evaluate training programmes accurately (Muna, 1987). With reference to training evaluation in the Libyan oil sector, Agnaia (1990, p. 91) found that 86% of officials of the companies to which the trainees belonged see the evaluation function as a mere letter and report writing task. The evaluation takes place without any direct contact with the training candidates. 64% of the companies were found to use the method of finding out the views of the candidates' line managers as a method of evaluating training. As for evaluation directly after training, 71% of the companies concentrated on the method of distributing a questionnaire to the trainees, 57% of the companies used examinations, while other practical methods were only used by 7%- 21% of the companies. The companies did not focus on evaluating the trainees' success in applying what they were trained for and the outcome of the training.

Finally, it was posited by Swanson & Holton (2001, p. 364) that many organisations considered that evaluation is a difficult or most often ignored part of T&D, in which return-on-investment analysis is the hardest part of the evaluation process. Swanson, (2001) contended that less than 5 percent of all training programmes in an organisation is evaluated for its financial contribution. The common reasons indicated for non-evaluation are: fear of criticism and program deductions if the evaluation shows that the program is not effective and needs time, resources and experience that T&D/HRD staff may lack, or an organization may not be intending to expend money on factors underlying the programme itself, such as the financial status of the company, its equipment, policy and procedures, other HR endeavours and availability of resources (Desimone et

al., 2002; Mitchell, 1994; Torres, 2004; Torres et al., 2005). Moreover, Bregman & Jacobson, (2000) wrote that assessing the impact of training on the company's financial performance is a tough and difficult process, requiring workers to isolate a direct cause-and-effect relationship between most training programmes and the business bottom line. Nonetheless, despite the difficulty of evaluation, and the complication of assessing the financial contribution of T&D activities, it has been widely demonstrated as feasible in organisations (Swanson and Holton, 2001; Swanson, 2001b; Torres, 2004; Torres et al., 2005), and also as providing valuable information concerning what training is doing for the employees, (Mitchell, 1994; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998).

This ends the discussion, in which the four-step HRD process was delineated and charted in section (3.5.1); all the four steps are important towards achieving an effective design and implementation of HRD programmes. The failure and success of HRD programs and activities depends on a systematic approach to HRD. In the event, if one step of the systematic approach is circumvented, the possibility of an effective HRD programs may reduce. Hence, it is pertinent that organisations abide by the systematic approach of HRD as it covers the 'why' human resource should be trained and developed, the methods and approaches to be utilised in the training and development activities, the 'who' should be given the necessary and relevant training, the 'when' and 'where' training and development should be implemented and finally, it measures the effectiveness of HRD programmes.

The extent to which these processes are implemented in manufacturing companies which were subject in this study in Libya will be seen, according to the framework of the research. These processes are also known as the macro HRD activities. The following section will therefore discuss the micro HRD activities that include performance evaluation. In this study, questions were designed to explore the four levels mentioned above, and to test them in the Libyan manufacturing sector.

3.6 Performance evaluation

In the earlier discussion it was argued that managing employees' performance improvement is one of the main functions of HRD. Indeed, adopting a system-wide approach by means of performance evaluation to improve organisational performance has been suggested by several authors to be a key element of HRD practice (see for instance, Wehrenberg, 1988; Whitfield & Poole, 1997). This leads to the importance of the performance evaluation system. This function is viewed as being of similar importance to the four macro functions in terms of short-term approaches to HRD (Gilley, Egglund & Gilley, 2002). Some theorists have proposed that the performance evaluation system acts as the management of employees' performance improvement (see for example, Landy et al., 1983; Wehrenberg, 1988; Behn, 2003). However, there have been many criticisms that implementation of effective performance appraisals is a major concern in most organisations, particularly in HRD (see for example, Khan & Charles-Soverall 1993; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Budhwar et al, 2002). Landy et al. (1983) also indicate that performance evaluation systems can facilitate the evaluation of employees, their guidance, and development and motivation (Delahaye, 2000; Desimone et al., 2002; Reid & Barrington, 2005). Based on these views, it is suggested that the creation of management development initiatives, developing self-directed and self-esteemed employees (Gilley et al., 2002) and having a reward strategy for employees, can assist them in achieving high performance standards (Smith, 1993; Whitfield & Poole, 1997; Gilley et al. 2002).

On the other hand, it has been claimed that it is important to appraise employees' performance improvement as it can promote high performance employees (Whitfield & Poole, 1997; Poole & Jenkins, 1997a & 1998; Sadler-Smith & Badger, 1998) and also be used for budgeting training activities (Behn, 2003). Certainly, the benefits of the performance appraisal system are seen to enable HRD professionals in making administrative decisions such as rewards, retrenchment plans and succession plans as well as decisions on employees' short-term and long-term developmental

needs (Delahaye, 2000), but Behn (2003) argued that most organisations do not measure performance. On the presumption that performance appraisals are being performed, they are criticised as lack of objective and they are performed for no real purpose but merely a trend in the business environment (Behn, 2003) and rewarding high performance employees has been largely ill-conceived (Smith, 2002). Therefore, having examined performance evaluation, the next area that requires further attention is the question of what the major challenges in HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya are.

3.7 Challenges of HRD

This section will present a brief overview of the problems and challenges in HRD, beginning with the importance of education and skills base in HRD, education and technical training, and also communication and language skills; organisations' HR Strategies are also viewed as having an impact on HRD and investments in HRD.

3.7.1 Education and skills base

The central axiom in HRD is the human resources or the human capital in an organisation. People are considered the power contributing towards the success of organisations, due to their skills, competencies, knowledge and experience (Becker, 1975; Schmidt & Lines, 2002; Harrison & Kessels, 2004). Moreover, it is clear that in relation to organisations wishing to compete successfully in the global economy, it is important to recruit adequately educated and skillful employees, and provide them with lifelong learning and development (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986; Chalofsky & Reinhart, 1988; Nadler & Nadler, 1989; O'Connell, 1999; Streumer et al., 1999; Low, 1998; Harrison, 2000; Sadler-Smith et al., 2001), (more information about Libyan education in section 2.2.3). However, these are some of the problems faced by employers and organisations and seen as a hindrance to the effective management and development of human resources generally

(Roberts & McDonald, 1995; Fernald et al., 1999; Shim, 2001; Lloyd, 2002; Budhwar et al., 2002; Bates, 2002). The literature indicates that there is a scarcity of HRD professionals who are skilled and are systems experts (Bing et al., 2003), and who have the ability to manage the broad and specialised function of HRD throughout an organisation (Eidgahy, 1995; Buyens et al., 2001; Garavan et al., 2002). For example, Budhwar et al. (2002) mentioned that a lack of HRD professionals in Oman is a great obstacle to the nation's HRD efforts. Kerr & McDougall (1999) indicated that problems also arise as a result of a lack of experience and understanding of HRD and training on the part of managers. In fact, some authors stated that HRD professionals do indeed have a significant role, as they possess the experience in learning and in developing others to become experts (Wright et al., 1999; Eichinger & Ulrich, 1998; Chermack et al., 2002).

3.7.2 Technical Training and Education

The main issues around people's lack of intellectual and functional capabilities are said to be grounded in their educational levels and technical training (Low, 1998). It is reported that organisations work on obtaining a high standard of people with adequate education levels (O'Connell, 1999; Streumer et al., 1999). For instance, Silver (2003) reported that studies have revealed that the employees of British companies have low levels of educational qualifications and training qualifications compared to competitor countries. If Britain as a developed country is regarded as having this problem, it is rather more evident in developing countries. With regard to this observation, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) has reported that more than half of the workforce in manufacturing companies, obtains educational qualifications only at the primary level or lower (ILO, 2000). The arguments show that as well as possessing the required skills for a job and being acquainted with knowledge and training, people should also be required to obtain at least a qualification from a college or university (Low, 1998; Chermack et al., 2003).

However generalisation about the standard of education of all employee levels is unclear and needs further evidence. Yet, it is agreed that an undergraduate degree represented the 'intellectual human capital', the basis on which to build learning and also a knowledge-workforce (ILO, 1997; Harrison & Kessels, 2004). Countries and communities in advanced and less advanced countries have begun to pay attention to the amount of knowledge they possess, and to recognize the importance of building a base for human capital. Generally, the focus of this approach is to establish innovation which is supported both by academic institutions and training and development after employment to ensure vitality and continuity in the face of competition. The promotion of creativity and innovation and the establishment and strengthening of institutional infrastructure is vital for business, which needs workers who can guarantee the survival and continuity of institutional systems in the face of contemporary challenges. In terms of Libya, despite the lack of accurate information, it is also clear that education in Libya has significant quality issues. This arises from two sources: problems with the quality of inputs, such as curricula, teachers and the educational infrastructure; and a number of structural issues. These include the lack of reliable and objective standards, the absence of a central body to provide overall planning and monitoring, inefficient allocation of public resources, and a lack of resources in specific areas (Cambridge Energy Research Associates (CERA), 2005).

3.7.3 Organisational HR Strategies

The effectiveness and success of HRD interventions is viewed as being conceptualised from a formal, structured and strategically focused HRD orientation (Garavan, 1991; Garavan et al., 1995; McGoldrick & Stewart, 1996; McCracken & Wallace, 1999; Swanson & Holton, 2001; Gilley et al., 2002). Moreover, a strategically focused HRD structure is argued to consist of the ability of organisations to formulate plans and policies for HRD and integrate them with plans and policies in HR, and also with overall business plans (Garavan, 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 1999). Unfortunately, these strategies are often reported as being not noticed, because they are mostly short-term plans and are scarcely accessible in some organisations (Garavan et al., 1999; Osman-

Gani & Tan, 2000; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001; Elbadri, 2001; Budhwar et al., 2002) and may be completely absent in small firms (Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Hill, 2004). Inevitably, this leads to a lack of planning for human resources and can affect the recruitment, selection, training and development of employees (Armstrong, 2000; Gardiner et al., 2001; Sadler-Smith, 2004). Indeed, it has been suggested that those with expertise are known to have very high value in organisations and are highly sought after (O'Donnell, 1999; Streumer et al., 1999). Therefore, with this in mind, it is the role of HRM/HRD to develop and provide for these high-value experts by focusing on the recruitment, selection, training and development of human resources (Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001; Gardiner et al., 2001). In addition, it has also been argued that because of the ageing population in the workforce in developed countries, new strategies are required to recruit and retain highly qualified workers and also to strengthen organisations' knowledge management capacity, this make for very different challenges for HRD practitioners in Arabic countries (Debrah, 1996 & 1998; Bova & Kroth, 2001; Chermack et al., 2003).

It has been shown in the literature that this area of HR is increasingly competitive (Cunningham & Debrah, 1995) and challenging for HRD professionals (Shim, 2001). There have been criticisms that organisations are either not focusing on any of these roles or are not striking a balance among roles. For example, a study by Ardichvili & Gasparishvili (2001) indicated that there is evidence of a stronger emphasis on selection and recruitment than on employees' T&D. On the other hand, there has been criticism that identifying and selecting the right people for recruitment, and retaining those that have been trained, are areas of concern for HRM (Bhatta, 2002; Benson & Zhu, 2002; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003). Following this lead, smaller companies with few employees who are operating largely with equipment and new technologies may be strongly affected. This is because identifying and selecting the right employee to be recruited, trained and developed is highly critical in smaller companies (Gardiner et al., 2001), as it directly relates to performance (Jacobs &

Washington, 2003). Hence, with these issues in HRD, employers may have to examine their hiring and promotional criteria to ensure that the right human resources are selected for the appropriate job (Hansen, 2003).

3.7.4 Investments in Training and Development

In both financial terms and with regard to the provision of training and the development of employees, there have been criticisms of under-investment (Streeck, 1989; Fernald et al., 1999; Kerr & McDougall et al., 1999; Vinten, 2000; Thursfield, 2001; Benson & Zhu, 2002; Lloyd, 2002; Budhwar et al., 2002). Inevitably, lack of financial support in HRD is probably a common phenomenon, as any failure in HRD is usually associated with financial constraints (Nadler & Nadler, 1989; Wilkerson, 1997; Cho et al, 1999; Elbadri, 2001; Budhwar et al., 2002),(more detail in section 3.4.5). Moreover, under-investment in employees' T&D has also been blamed on employers' or HRD practitioners' limited knowledge of the economic returns of training (Lloyd, 2002), lack of clear understanding of the benefits expected from HRD (Garavan et al., 1993), problems with bureaucracy related to government-funded HRD initiatives (Kerr & McDougall, 1999) and also the problem of small companies with few employees having insufficient resources for HRD (see for example, Hill & Stewart, 1996; Hill, 2004).

Nevertheless, a high rate of labour mobility is argued to be a major disincentive to the broad provision of training (Lloyd, 2002; Harrison, 2000; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Hill, 2004), and thus becomes an obstacle against the enhancement and expansion of the careers of employees (Budhwar et al., 2002). These problems are associated with employees who leave the company seeking new career expectations, as well as the issue of the poaching of employees (Spurling, 1993; Greenhalgh & Mavrotas, 1994 & 1996; Joyce, McNulty & Woods, 1995; Debrah et al., 2002; Lloyd, 2002; Kerr & McDougall, 2002; Beckmann, 2002; Moen & Rosen, 2004). Concerning Arab countries, and especially Libya, Fadel & Khmushi (2007) stated that some companies do not provide the training

needed by their employees, but prefer to attract employees from other companies who have already been trained and developed by their prior employers. However, it seems that the benefits of poaching talented employees with the intention of saving financial investment in training, depends on the extent of employees' correspondence to the new working environment and their ability to transfer their previous experience and learning to their new jobs. Accordingly, Lloyd (2002) argued that it might be more cost effective to provide more rather than less training for highly skilled employees. However, in the context of the 'elite expertise workers' phenomenon, a better proposition and an effective strategy are yet to be empirically examined.

In general, the issues in HRD and the challenges faced by employers and organisations in the effective implementation of HRD varied from concerns with human capital, to learning, and to strategies and investments in HRD. However, despite these concerns about HRD, the question of moving forward and planning strategically in response to these challenges remains the initiative of each individual organisation, therefore the analysis chapter will review opinions of T&D/HRD practitioners in manufacturing companies in Libya concerning the challenges faced by these practitioners in the effective implementation of HRD. In this study, questions were designed to investigate difficult challenges in HRD within the Libyan manufacturing sector.

3.8 Summary

In terms of the importance of the literature review, in all academic studies, it is considered a crucial source for gathering data related to the subject of research. Since the nature of this study, which is descriptive and exploratory in perspective, the literature review in this chapter had the following goal; to provide a basic understanding of the purposes and concepts of HRD, the activities and challenges of HRD, all of which were related to the research questions, which will compare previous findings with the current situation of HRD in Libya, as a field of study.

This chapter began with the different definitions of HRD stemming from HRD's interdisciplinary nature, drawing on disciplines such as economics, systems, sociology, anthropology and political science. These definitions reflect the perspectives of various scholars (Jacobs, 1990), and they illustrate that HRD is influenced by a country's economic, political and legal framework, and this confirms that the nature and extent of HRD varies from country to country and organisation to organisation, due to these economic and political variations, government legislation and the country's value system (McLean & McLean, 2001, p. 319). The review also illustrated that HRD is an extension of T&D which includes a strategic dimension, whereas T&D is a role within the implementation of HRD. Reflecting back on the purpose of HRD, most theorists suggests that the general purpose of HRD is to develop the individual employee by providing training and development activities, thus enhancing personal, work processes and organisational performance to achieve organisational effectiveness (see for example, McLagan, 1989; Watkins, 1989; Swanson, 2001c; Gilley, Egglan & Gilley, 2002).

The chapter illustrated a complex range of theoretical perceptions and hypotheses deriving from a wide variety of sources; HRD cannot be explained and understood by one theory or one model. Understanding and applying the different multi-system and multi-model theories is required. Swanson & Holton (2008) indicate that main systems, economic and psychological theories can be

used to understand HRD which is an extension of T&D, which includes a strategic dimension whereas, T&D is a role in implementing HRD. However, due to the pressures for constant change as a result of globalisation and technological advances and the complexity of the environment surrounding HRD, it was suggested that the complex and evolving model (Iles & Yolles, 2003) is appropriate to explain the processes and interventions in HRD. Therefore, an understanding of these theories, models and concepts is important and valuable.

This chapter also reviewed the systematic approach to HRD, which includes four stages; analysing needs; planning and designing; delivering and implementing; and evaluating HRD activities (Winter, 1995; Wilson, 2005; Harrison, 2000). These HRD processes are expected to be comprehensive and implemented by formal methods, but the literature indicated that the nature and range of these HRD activities changes according to the size of organisations. In this study each of these four stages were used as a basis for investigation of the Libyan manufacturing sector. Questions were designed to explore the nature of HRD activities in this sector in Libya (See appendix A for questionnaire, and also to enable the development of models for HRD in both SMCs and LMCs, based on the work of Guest (1997). These models are based on the process of HRD inputs and outputs, as illustrated in Figure 1.1, (section 1.6), which will be developed according to the HRD activities that are carried out in the manufacturing companies in Libya and will be introduced in chapter 8, since it will facilitate the theorising and development of the HRD framework to be used in the analysis of HRD in Libya.

In addition, the outcomes of implementing these HRD activities in Guest's model applied in the two sizes of companies will enable an assessment of the level of HRD maturity in SMCs and LMCs in Libya, based on the model of McCracken and Wallace in chapter three, section 3.4.3.

Therefore, this study hopes to provide valuable insights into the conceptualisation and theoretical understanding of HRD in the manufacturing sector in both Small and Medium Companies (SMCs) and large manufacturing companies (LMCs) in Libya and how these companies are moving gradually from traditional T&D toward HRD. This study also hopes to provide an avenue for further research by mapping and developing the literature in the field of HRD particularly in Arabic contexts.

The final section of this chapter discussed the different challenges faced by organisations and HRD professionals when implementing HRD, especially in the environment of globalisation and the modern technological revolution. This section presented a brief overview of the problems and challenges in HRD, beginning with the importance of human capital, education and technical training, and also the communication and language skills of a workforce; the changing demographics of workforces are also viewed as having an impact on HRD and investment in HRD. For more explanation see section 3.7.

However, the purpose of this study was to understand the nature and maturity level of HRD activities in Libyan manufacturing companies, as suggested in the introduction, the evolving model of Guest, (1997) is a more appropriate framework within which to explain the processes and interventions in HRD, and also its outcomes. Indeed, in keeping with this complex and evolving model which focuses on organisational development and change, the challenges in HRD are varied and diverse, ranging from problems with human capital to structural and economic difficulties. Therefore, the next chapter will present an overview of the current status of T&D/HRD in the Libyan manufacturing sector, which will help to explore the relevance and applicability of the western based models of T&D, HRD, and SHRD.

Chapter four

Human resource development in Libya and Arab countries

4.1 Introduction

During the past three decades much attention has been given to T&D in developing countries, including Arab countries. These countries started to increase their efforts in this area, through giving priority to the development of human resources, because they have recognised that T&D is important for the success of economic and social development. Arab countries, including Libya, have implemented T&D policies for both present and future managers to provide them with knowledge and skills which increase human abilities, and to enable them to create and maintain their position in a continually changing world.

This background information on T&D in Libya forms an important part of the research study and will contribute to the analysis and discussion of the findings concerning the various important and relevant characteristics of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya. The focus in this chapter is on initiatives for the Libyan people and does not address issues or policies that might relate to migrant workers. The discussion in this chapter will be divided into two parts. The first part describes T&D in Libya by a review of its historical background, and the emergence of T&D in Libya. Subsequently, this part goes on to describe the various interventions from the Government in supporting T&D in the country. These interventions include policies legislation, infrastructure and facilities to support the development of human resources to assist the country's development into a knowledge-based economy and its achievement of 'Vision 2025'. The second part will provide a brief overview in Arab and Libyan management characteristics, because management development is important for the success of HRD. This part also concentrates on: management in Arab countries and issues which are particularly Arab in context; T&D in Arab countries, discussing the state of T&D;

T&D in Libya; the T&D of Arab organizations; and the difficulties that face Arab countries in moving towards HRD.

4.2 Human resource development in Libya

This section will present T&D in Libya through a review of the historical background and emergence of T&D in Libya, as well as government's role and responsibilities for T&D/HRD. It will provide a clear picture of the research and the government policies and legislation on T&D. It is certainly important to understand government policies and legislation with regard to T&D, because this influences and shapes a country's HRD system (more details in section 3.3). Finally, there is a review of the infrastructure of HRD, which includes technical education and vocational training, training institutions and the project to develop Libya into a knowledge based economy.

4.2.1 Historical background and emergence of T&D

Libya is a large country with abundant resources and a small population of 5.67 million (2006) with a very high population growth rate. Over the last three decades top priority has been given to the education of its people through the provision of free education at all levels. A high percentage of the public budget is allocated to education and T&D. The development of human resources is seen as a prerequisite for sustainable national development and the diversification of its economy, through the availability of skilled manpower. It is likely that the emergence of T&D in Libya started at the beginning of the 1970s. It was mentioned earlier that the historical development and emergence of HRD lacked empirical evidence; the development of T&D during this period was also not very clear or focused (Libyan government, 2005). T&D as an organizational activity was not recognised in Libya before the period of independence. The main reasons for that were because Libya was subjected to many foreign occupations, the last of which before

the First World War was the Ottoman Empire's long occupation (1551-1911) and the subsequent European dominion (1911-1951). The regional administrations under these occupations were interested mainly in collecting higher taxes and conscription to the army. The European colonial power served as an agency to provide technical and managerial advice to the local administrators and to safeguard their own interests. Furthermore, cultural and language differences were considered as barriers to any significant transfer of managerial know-how from these agencies to local administrations (Farley, 2005).

Regarding development in education during the 1950s, the country neglected education which resulted in a lack of planners, administrators and professional people. The government was forced to compete with wealthy oil companies and other foreign firms for the limited supply of trained people (Farley, 2005).

The government post independence realised that education had to be developed because of its effects on all other aspects of life; therefore both the numbers of pupils and the number of schools were increased and many faculties specialising in different subjects were opened. For example, through the 1960s and 1970s there were remarkable increases in the numbers of pupils at all levels of education. In 1999, UNESCO and UNDP signed a Fund-in-Trust Project (LIB/99/003) with Libya for the 'Support and Development of Specialised Schools and Technical Education'. The national implementing agency was the National Centre for Educational Planning and Training which had responsibility at that time for curriculum development for all educational institutions in Libya. Libyan education programmes were responsible for preparing a large number of people to work in administrative posts in the public enterprises (PEs), reflecting the large amount of financial support allocated for this purpose (Secretariat of Manpower Employment & Vocational Training, 2006).

Regarding T&D, the first organized practice was by the School of Public Administration, which started its programs in 1953/1954. The main purpose of its programs was to improve employees' skills and knowledge in the fields of accounting and public administration. Important attention was paid to training and development during the period 1967-1989. Between 1967 and 1980, 1943 Libyans were trained in management subjects by universities. 4,181 were trained in training centres and 2,839 were trained in secretarial skills and printing. Through the period 1999-2003 about 2000 Libyans attended courses with durations from six months to one year in the National Institute for Administration, and this institute also contributed towards developing management staff in different sectors by means of an annual policy that aims to develop at least 15 per cent of Libyan employees at different levels of management (Gannous et al., 1989 and Al-Touboli et al., 2003) through the Economic and Social Transformation plan (Libyan Government, 1995/2005, pp.123-38).

As a result of these efforts, Libyan manpower in the public sector has increased from 454,100 in 1975 to 678,400 in 1985, a rate of increase of 49 per cent, and increased further to 861,800 in 1989, a rate of 27 per cent and also increased further to 1,564,432 in 2000, a rate of 81 per cent. Also the proportion of the Libyan female workforce to the total Libyan workforce increased from 6.2 per cent to 49.4 per cent through the period 1970-2000. Most of these women were employed in the education, health services and administration activities (Al-Touboli et al., 2003). Nevertheless, clear evidence of the importance of training was seen when the government of Libya began to include T&D strategies in the country's development plans and policies in the 1980s. These plans are now to become an industrialised nation with a skilled and knowledge-based workforce by the year 2025 (Libyan Government, 2005). Hence, developing human resources is one of the primary objectives of the country and its organisations.

4.2.2 Government's role and responsibility for T&D

The human resource administrative system in Libya is governed by Secretariat of Manpower Employment & Vocational Training (MEVT), whose objective is to develop a competitive workforce and a climate of industrial harmony and social justice (Libyan Government, 2005). Within the administrative system which operates in Libya, the responsibilities of this authority encompass a wide range of activities related to human resources. The MEVT is responsible for the collection of human resource development levies, as well as managing the establishment and administration of the T&D fund for the purpose of promoting employees' training and development (more details in HRD fund in section (3.4.5). At the same time, the MEVT is also responsible for assessment to determine the types and extent of employees' training and retraining, in keeping with the human resource needs of the industries (Secretariat of Manpower Employment & Vocational Training, 2006). MEVT, with the help of the UN, has also established the National Institute of Public Administration and its five branches in Libya. This was the first establishment concerned with training Libyan employees in the administrative sector.

4.2.3 Government policies and legislation on T&D

Recognition of the importance of human resource development came about because of its role in facilitating the social and economic development process. People are the target of this process on the one hand, and they are the basic factor in the planning and achievement of its objectives on the other. Developing human resources must be considered as a part of a development program designed to create employment opportunities for the total national manpower, which increases every year. Therefore, intensive efforts are required to prepare, educate and train people by following the best approaches, so that the required quantity and quality of manpower can be prepared at a suitable time (Aгнаia, 1996).

In July 1968 Libya, with the help of the UN, established the National Institute of Public Administration. This was the first establishment in the country concerned with T&D. Law 41 (1968) identified its objectives, and the activities to be implemented. By establishing this organization, the country was recognising the importance of this activity and, therefore, many laws were issued to define and organise this activity within public organisations, for example Article 1 of Law No. 37 (1973) which was supported by the Law No. 97 (1990). According to Al-Zawie (1991, pp. 7, 8), these laws stated that:

Training means preparing, and qualifying individuals by providing them with necessary skills and knowledge, and by altering their attitudes in different activities in order to promote their productivity and to cover quantity and quality shortages which contribute towards achieving the goals of development plans

Regarding the responsibility for providing training programmes, Libyan legislation defined the senior management of individual companies as having primary responsibility for giving employees this opportunity. Law 55 (1976) article 30 and Law 13 (1981) article 50 emphasise this view, when they state that senior management must give training opportunities to its Libyan employees in order to qualify them and enable them to work appropriately; this management unit must train them inside or outside the organisation, according to their abilities and the availability of training opportunities outside the organisation (Al-Zawie, 1991).

It is evident that the Libyan legislation gave important attention to training programs, and Libya paid special attention to investment in human resources, and made this a priority by establishing more T&D institutions and allocating more financial support, especially through the 1970s and 1980s.

4.2.4 Infrastructure for T&D

4.2.4.1 Technical Education and Vocational Training

In attempting to develop a knowledgeable and skilled Libyan workforce, the Libyan Government is seen to have placed a high level of emphasis on providing training and education for the development of human resources. In achieving a knowledge-based workforce, workers are encouraged to undertake tertiary and university-level education, or at least technical and vocational education. In terms of higher education, the government's emphasis and support is seen in the development of a variety of institutions, including universities, polytechnics and colleges. These institutions provide numerous options for higher education in the professional, semi-professional or specific skills areas. These options may also include courses such as information technology (IT) and information and communication technology (ICT), engineering, and business related courses at the certificate, diploma and degree levels (Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science, 2001).

In 1980, Libya evaluated its whole educational system and found that student admissions in universities were very high in the pure academic studies: social sciences, literature, law, and the arts (Teferaa & Altbach, 2003). On the other hand, admissions were very low in basic sciences, technology, and engineering. This imbalance did not help Libya's industrial development. Libya's advancement into the developed world required a highly specialised labour force as well as technical experts. As a result of this unbalanced situation, Libya came up with what was known as the New Educational Structure for higher education. This structure required the establishment of technical and vocational education at the university level, in what became known in Libya as Higher Technical Institutions. These institutions became among the main providers of higher education. Studying at this type of higher education institute takes three to five years. Graduates are intended to hold technical positions in the area of industrial and

agricultural production and services. In addition, a number of other technical institutions on the secondary education level, known as secondary Technical Educations have also been established. During the academic year 1995-1996, there were about 54 higher technical and vocational institutions, and in 1999-2000, this number increased to 84, as shown in Teferaa & Altbach, (2003).

There was also significant expansion in student numbers. In the academic year 1999-2000, the number of students in universities grew to 204,332, and 64,970 students were enrolled in higher technical institutions making a total number of 269,302 students. The number of academics reached 4,907 in universities and 4,898 in higher technical institutes (Libyan National Commission for Education, Culture and Science, 2001). University faculties, as well as the higher technical institutes, are widely distributed over the country. This distribution facilitates local and vocational training opportunities and acts as a tool for social change and the cultural development of the local population (Teferaa & Altbach, 2003).

4.2.4.2 Training Institutions and Centres

Alongside government-supported education, a final aspect in the development of human resources is the element of training centres. At this point (2010), there are more than 1,500 training establishments in Libya that are intended to provide consultancy services and training for workers. As for the training of civil servants, the National Institute of Administration (with its five branches) is in charge of the training of employees in the administrative sector, sharing some of its duties with the private sector, whose competences have been growing in recent years. However, not all training establishments can provide training to employees in the manufacturing sector. Only providers that are registered with the Secretariat of Manpower Employment & Vocational Training are allowed to participate and provide training and

consultancy services. Out of the many training providers available in Libya, only about 200 are registered providers and only about 10 percent have the Approved Training Programme (ATP) status (Secretariat of Manpower Employment & Vocational Training., 2006).

4.2.4.3 Developing Libya into knowledge based economy

Government is a major player in shaping the economy and its development in all countries, through measures ranging from active intervention to deliberate distancing or incompetent neglect. Stiglitz (2002, p. 9) notes that “the purpose of economic activity is to increase the well-being of individuals, and economic structures that are able to do so are more desirable than those that do not”. In aspiring to support such structures and to enhance the well-being of a local community or nation, the roles that the State can take vary considerably and will, in turn, impact upon the complementary responsibilities of other stakeholders in the economic well-being of the locality. Libya's development into a knowledge-based economy (k-economy) is seen to be progressing rapidly. The concept of the k-economy can be defined as the generation and utilisation of knowledge with the objective of contributing towards economic growth, and thus to the creation of the nation's wealth (Libyan Government, 2005). Knowledge is currently viewed as a key driving factor for this growth strategy, along with labour, capital, raw materials and entrepreneurship in production (Libyan, Government 2005). Therefore, the notion of a knowledge based economy is viewed as the ability of human capital to create, innovate, generate and exploit new ideas, as well as to apply technology and exercise superior entrepreneurial skills. Organisations are envisaged as likely to become more knowledge intensive as increasing numbers of industries adopt the concept of a knowledge-based workforce. Accordingly, the economy will be characterised by knowledge-based activities and high-technology industries, which will account for a significant share of employment, GDP and exports. Hence, knowledge can become a commodity to be traded, besides being a factor of production (Libyan, Government 2005). As Rangel (2004, p. 374)

notes "in a knowledge-based economy, a better trained and educated labour force increases productivity and the capacity for better understanding among nations based on educated tolerance and respect, fostering free international trade and competitive development of specific industries."

This aspiration is important within the context of an increasingly globalised world economy. At the same time, there are limits to the adoption of global human resource policies and practices as Sparrow, Brewster, & Harris (2004, p. 1) stress when they talk about HRM as "constructed within strong national boundaries". With specific reference to the process of human development within society and the economy, Baum (2001, pp. 198–199) similarly points out that "education and educational systems have evolved in most countries in response to and as a reflection of complex combinations of historical, cultural, political, economic, geographical and technological factors (see discussion in section 3.3). The interplay of these influences has contributed to the creation of institutional arrangements and organisations that are distinctive at a national level". Baum further points out that education and training are highly charged political issues and engender considerable debate and protectionism within the democratic political process.

The Libyan Government has implemented several initiatives, including enhancement of the human and physical resources of the existing higher education of institutions (HEIs) (as discussed in sections 4.2.4.1 and 4.2.4.2) and an expansion of the HEI network across Libya to promote access to sector-specific further and higher education. A fundamental review of curriculum and ongoing evaluation of its fitness for purpose was deemed to be essential. Government officials emphasised the active engagement of the private sector in driving educational reform to ensure that it met their requirements, and to facilitate the smooth development of the k-economy, particularly in the areas of HRD, science and technology, research and development, info-structure and financing. These initiatives are intended to

position Libya on the global map of knowledge-based economies, and measures are being undertaken to ensure equitable access for all segments of Libyan society (Libyan Government, 2005). As a whole, the k-economy aims to maintain sustainable rapid economic growth and competitiveness in the medium and long term (Ernst & Young, 1999). As mentioned earlier, it is hoped that the private sector will continue to be the engine of growth in the k-economy, with support from the public sector. At the same time, the objective of social and economic equity will still be a critical element in this new stage of economic development, but with the added responsibility of narrowing the knowledge gap among various groups, between urban and rural communities and across the regions (Libya, Government, 2005).

4.2.4.4 Shifting Towards the Knowledge Economy

In the 1970s, advanced industrial nations experienced a fundamental economic transition from a manufacturing base to a service-based orientation, leading to the post-industrial economy (Powell & Snellman, 2004; Bell, 1973; Block, 1990). Underlying this economic change was the increased industrial dependency on information and knowledge for production. Powell and Snellman (2004) cite the example of websites like Amazon.com that engage in electronic commerce which including value-added services on their websites designed to monitor tastes in order to make recommendations to consumers (Powell & Snellman, 2004). These services are provided through the use of highly sophisticated information technologies and, more importantly, application of the knowledge of the business to customer relationship management.

The most technologically advanced economies are knowledge-based countries with an evolutionary economic orientation: In these countries, knowledge is a crucial factor, along with land, tools, and labour, in determining the standard of living (World Bank, 1999). In the

knowledge economy, the leverage of information and communication technologies can potentially increase returns on investments over time. This explains at least partially why sustainability can be achieved by developed countries while developing countries cannot despite their large labour pools and capital (Romer, 1986; Romer, 1990). Under this new paradigm, labour and capital would remain endogenous factors of production, that is to say they would be particular to each economic unit, rather than common to the whole economy. However, knowledge, productivity, education, and intellectual capital, although significant factors, are conceptualised as exogenous factors that are not within the economic system (Ernst and Young, 1999). Here, labour encompasses both physical labour and the ideas that reside within human labour. Therefore, increased investment in human capital, knowledge, and fixed capital play important endogenous roles in economic development (Hulten, 2001). In this paradigm, ideas and creativity are determinants of economic growth because they integrate concepts of labour and capital. Therefore, ideas and creativity increase output, and hence productivity, of goods produced through the exploitation of labour and capital. In a knowledge economy, the production and consumption of information goods and services is not as limited by relative scarcities of labor and capital as they are in an industrial economy, because information is more easily replicated and disseminated (Mosco, 1989). To advance Libya into the forefront of knowledge, investment in human capital is critical, as k-economy demands creative, innovative, and knowledgeable human resources. It is for this reason that the state has continued to allocate a substantial portion of the national budget for financing the expansion and upgrading of education and training facilities. However, human resource development needs to be further intensified, particularly through public-private sector collaboration in developing science and technology literate human resources as well as an intellectual capability and competency in management and entrepreneurship. In this regard, opportunities for lifelong learning for all levels of the workforce should be enhanced through this collaboration.

Therefore, it follows that increasing rather than diminishing returns on technological investments can be achieved with the introduction and integration of new technologies (Ernst and Young, 1999). Technology then, including its knowledge base, is an inherent component of an economic system. Knowledge therefore, ascends to become a third endogenous factor of production in the advanced economies of the world (Romer, 1990; Romer, 1986). The knowledge economy is made up of industries engaged in ideas and creativity, that is, innovation.

4.2.4.5 Innovation and the Knowledge Economy

The concept of innovation as applied to a segment of the economy defines knowledge work. Knowledge work can occur in all professions and all segments of the economy. It is important to acknowledge that the scope of the knowledge economy is not confined only to professionals and high-tech businesses. As a primary source of wealth creation (Kim & Mauborgne, 1999), innovation can be defined as the creation and use of a new product, procedure, or service. Among activities included in the definition of innovation are scientific, technical, and market research; product, process, or service development; and manufacturing and marketing in order to support the diffusion and application of invention (U.S. Congress, Office of Technology Assessment, 1995). Since innovation can be applied to any industry, knowledge industries are not restricted to technology-based industries per se. According to the National Science Foundation (NSF) of America, innovation is measured in terms of the employment of scientists and technicians because they reflect the human resource component of innovation (National Science Foundation, 2007), but alternative measures are possible; for example innovation could be measured by the number of new patents registered in an economy in one year. The role of human capital has been acknowledged as an integral part of regional development and the geographic concentration of innovation (Ullman, 1958), this study, will look for evidence of

HRD practices in Libya which may mean that the country is moving towards a k-economy. For example the workforce or human capital contribute ideas and play key roles in the production and diffusion of innovation. Knowledge workers who engage in research and development are at the forefront of a nation's innovative output.

Florida (2002) found that metropolitan areas have abundant work and lifestyle opportunities for the creative class of people. As such, a wide range of economic production activities occur in metropolitan regions (Florida, 2002). Human creativity and technological innovation experience advantages in these metropolitan regions. The Libya's economic growth centred not only on the metropolitan areas but given advances in electronic technology rural areas can become highly innovative and creative centres but it does need the infrastructure. The high concentration of these economic production activities leads to new production processes (Desrochers, 2001), thus yielding the benefits to innovation process. This process, when continued, then becomes sustainable, and thus constitutes the sustainable knowledge economy where ideas and innovation have economic value. This study's aim is to find evidence for advanced level HRD practices in Libyan manufacturing companies, but the criteria for assessing the level of development are drawn mainly from studies investigating advanced economies. Whether these criteria are appropriate to all economies in all regions is a possible issue for further research. According to Gault (2005), established indicators of knowledge creation, such as research and development activities and intellectual property commercialization, are static indicators that cannot capture the dynamism involved in the knowledge economy (Gault, 2005). As such, these measures may not be suitable in defining knowledge work explicitly for empirical research. Although they capture the concept of innovation, they only reflect the output of innovation, which is creation based on knowledge.

Hence, the importance of learning cannot be ignored. It forms the basis for innovation, and through this of knowledge creation. Research and development activities (at the macro level) and individual apprenticeship (at the individual level) exemplify this process by aiming at the promotion of innovation. Technological innovation creates benefits that reduce costs and companies in a developing economy need to evaluate innovation in order to understand the potential of technological progress. It must be noted, however, that both technological and value innovation are tightly inter-related. Value innovation involves leveraging technological innovation for economic benefits (Dillon, Lee & Matheson, 2005). This continued process of value innovation based on continued learning then becomes the key to sustainability.

The advent of information technologies also fuels this process. These interactions create new opportunities for continuous learning and this process becomes crucial to the long-term sustainability of the knowledge economy (Glaeser, 1999). In addition, urban regions are also inhabited with knowledge assets such as tertiary educational institutions, research institutes, as well as technology transfer centers. DeVol (2002) argued that a region's technology dynamism and outcomes are essential to its economic well-being. Human capital is an essential component that can be leveraged to promote economic development in an intangible asset-based economy (DeVol, 2002). He continued to argue therefore, that economic growth depends on investments in education, new work-based learning and training procedures. However, micro-economic empirical evidence suggests that there is no significant correlation between technological change and the wages of human capital (DiNardo & Pischke, 1997). This is due to increases in the number of information workers engaging in information services and products distribution (Lyon, 1988). As new ideas are repeatedly developed through the economic production process in urban regions (Jacobs, 1969), the importance of human capital is reflected in the quantity of ideas among workers. These facilitate and support economic growth (Lucas, 1988). In the context of this study, while it was not the intention of the researcher to distinguish between

HRD practices in urban and rural areas, as an informal observation it can be stated that no significant difference between the level of HRD was observed in large companies in urban and rural parts of the country.

This importance attributed to human capital is clearly illustrated by Nobel laureate Gary Becker: "The continuing growth in per capita incomes of many countries during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries is partly due to the expansion of scientific and technical knowledge that raises the productivity of labour and other inputs in production. The increasing reliance of industry on sophisticated knowledge greatly enhances the value of education, technical schooling, on-the-job training, and other human capital" (Becker, 1992).

It is important to point out at this stage that critical thinking is very important in the new knowledge economy. The global knowledge economy is driven by information and technology, and a worker within such an economy has to be able to deal with changes quickly and effectively. The new economy places increasing demands on flexible intellectual skills, and the ability to analyse information and integrate diverse sources of knowledge in solving problems. Good critical thinking promotes such skills, and is very important in the fast-changing workplace. In this knowledge economy it should also be clear that organizations need to prepare existing workers to meet today's challenges, and to this end in the developed economies many companies have focused on recruiting workers with critical thinking and problem-solving skills. It therefore follows that human resource forms a basis for innovation and critical thinking. In this study, the researcher focused on workers engaged in training and development as human capital, which could in turn amount to the basis for innovation and knowledge creation. This industry based approach is one of many methods to ascertain the innovation capacity and critical thinking of a region.

4.3 Arab and Libyan management characteristics

Arab countries, including Libya, are giving priority to management development, because they have recognised that managers can lead the way for the success of HRD practices. It is, therefore important to provide them with knowledge and skills which increase human abilities. Improvements in HRD practices are a key component of any move towards a knowledge based economy, and this section will therefore concentrate on: Management in Arab countries; T&D in Arab countries, discussing the state of T&D; T&D in Libya; the Arab organisation of T&D; and the specific difficulties that Arab countries face in the T&D field.

4.3.1 Management in Arab countries:

Arab society in the last three decades has witnessed rapid social, economic and political changes, and these changes have affected the quantity, quality, objectives and tasks of public (Government owned) organisations. These changes include: first, the rapid urbanisation of Arab society, that has transferred social and economic activities from the rural areas to the cities; second, expansion of production and employment in industry and service sectors rather than in the agriculture sector; third, increase in the role of bureaucratic organisations in both public and private sectors; fourth, increase in the centralisation of management procedures.

As a result of the above changes, the management of public organisations in Arab countries still faces difficulties regarding management process and organisational systems. The failure of Arab countries to manage these changes has led to their inability to survive, to grow and to attain their predefined objectives. These difficulties are:

- Most efforts being made in this field consist of attempts to adapt to the Arab environment what has been developed in other environments, especially in Europe and North America. Arab management practices are being based on concepts and models built and designed for other societies, and in environments which are totally different from Arab society and its milieu.

Abbas (2006, p. 2) argued that, in order to adapt external concepts, principles and theories, more attention must be given to the distinctive features of the national culture. Unfortunately, Arab scholars and practitioners fail to do this; therefore, most of the text books concerned with management theories can be described as translations and repetitions of books from other countries, such as the USA and some European countries, with no regard for the differences in culture between these countries (Asaf, 1983, and Yeas & Aglani, 1979). As a result, the majority of Arab organisations imitate Western procedures, and the regulations and organisational structures which are used in Western countries.

- Because in the social sciences in general, and management in particular, the application of each theory or model is only possible with reference to the time and variables according to which it was developed, effective Arab management requires a deep study of Arab life in its past and present time in order to select those structures, systems and methods that are appropriate.

- Because there is little association between the concepts, foundations and theories of management on the one hand, and the nature of the Arab environment on the other hand, university graduates from management departments in Arab countries have an unclear understanding of management concepts, which leads to their erroneous practices.

- Government executive bodies in a centralised economy have taken over all aspects of the economy; transportation, communications, finance, commerce and services. As a result of political and economic factors, this process has led to the establishment of organisations which are overloaded with routine work, and therefore far from attaining their desired goals. For most of the employees in Arab organisations work means a source of income and power, without any sense of commitment to the goals of the organisation to which they belong. Their sense of responsibility is affected by factors of the social and cultural atmosphere in which they live. For example, the individual is unable to work within groups separate from the family and tribe. Al-

Saigh (2006, p. 25) argues that the social system in Arab countries [ACs], including the family upbringing and educational methods, does not engender in a child the love of work, efficiency or responsibility. So this employee is usually unable to possess a sense of responsibility, self-control or a sense of organisational belonging. This type of environment makes innovation/creativity and critical thinking much harder to achieve despite Government desires. It is one of the contradictions of these concepts and the reality.

- The natural environment includes many factors, such as the available amounts of petroleum, rain and water resources. These factors can put pressure on organisations in some Arab countries. For example, in the case of Libya, a decrease or increase in oil production has a marked impact on the resources available to public institutions to fulfill their planned objectives.

- The increasing rate of urbanisation has led to more public establishments in the sectors of services, industry and construction. The improvement in aspects of living conditions has increased life expectancy, decreased mortality rates of children, and increased population growth rates. It is necessary for public organisations to respond to these changes and provide the needed services and goods.

- In the last three decades rapid social and economic changes in Arab countries have affected individual behaviour: more women have entered the field of management, individuals have become more disciplined and taken more initiative. However, this progress depends on personal, tribal and political factors. In Arab society, when the managers plan their employment policies, these are based on the tribal and family system, because the family and tribal distinctions still dominate the motivation of the society. For example, 83 % of Kuwaiti managers considered family / tribe connections first, then qualifications, and finally experience as the most important factors for candidates seeking to obtain a high operational position in Kuwait (Al - Tuhaih & Fleet, 1978, p. 15).

- Arab countries have also faced crises in their political and economic systems, which have left their impact on individuals and organisations, and prevent the natural evolution of management thinking. These crises include the Gulf Wars, the periodic decline in oil prices, economic embargos and sanctions in some countries, and the instability of political systems in others. Moreover, the Arab environment lacks freedom of expression and respect for human dignity, which has affected the degree of practitioners and scholars' motivation to promote their suggestions and efforts to initiate much needed changes. Abbas (2006, p. 28) argued that it is useless to discuss theory building outside a context of free speech and individual freedom.

4.3.2 T&D in Arab countries:

As a result of the previously mentioned difficulties, Arab countries after independence were faced with several shortages in the professional, managerial and skilled labour categories. In the last three decades these countries have reacted to this problem by investing huge amounts of money in formal education at all levels. However, T&D received little attention because it was still generally believed that management competence could be acquired through experience. In the 1960s more attention was given to T&D, as a result of the rapid industrialisation and political and economic socialism in many countries (e.g. Algeria, Egypt, Iraq and Syria), which led to the expansion of their public sectors, resulting in an increasing demand for managerial personnel, and the need for T&D to improve the competence of those managers. As the number of public and private organisations in oil-rich countries increased rapidly, the demand for managerial personnel also increased sharply (Mohamed, 2006, p. 50). Arab countries, like other developing countries, started to realise the importance of T&D in 1970s. This was clearly shown by the accelerated growth of a vast number of T&D units in organisations, universities and other establishments engaged in T&D activities (see section 4.2.1). The main purpose of T&D is to produce knowledgeable and skilled managers who are creative, full of initiative and able to increase the productivity of their organizations, and improve the satisfaction of employees.

Many Arab countries (Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Libya, Saudi Arabia, and Sudan) have invited international development experts to analyse and study aspects of their organisational structures, and their employment policies and practices in public organisations and institutes. One of the tasks of these experts was the design and implementation of training programs (Mohamed, 2006, p. 50). With the increase in financial resources allocated to T&D programs through economic and social development, and with the establishment of many agencies for development programs, there has been remarkable progress in this field in most Arab countries.

However, this progress has been accompanied by many problems and shortages, which have developed as a result of economic, social and political factors. It is possible that at present Arab culture and societies are not suited to western management practices, and this conflict is at the heart of successive failures to implement management tools borrowed from developed countries.

4.3.3 Management training and development in Libya

At the beginning of the 1970s Libya recognized the importance of management training and development in implementing the economic advancement of the country. Therefore, more management training and development centres were established, and more departments concerned with management and development were opened in different universities. The ideology behind this was to increase the pace of the achievement of economic and political independence. Moreover, the country took further steps in supporting management training and development policies when it gave the respective ministry for development and training issues more authority for sponsoring and conducting management training and development programs, and building up management training and development plans for the country in

connection with its economic plans as noted in section 4.2.4.4. Therefore, during the last two decades the country has allocated a considerable amount of money to establishing industrial companies in different fields. As a result, large numbers of the population have been employed in these companies, and the industry ministry has become aware of the need for management training and development to create adequate personnel at all levels. This is intended to be accomplished by running effective management training and development programs in companies. However, a great deal of research has indicated that industrial companies suffer from many problems concerned with management training and development activity; for example, human resources management without effective approaches (Ejigu, & Sherif, 1994) as noted in 4.3, as a result of the shortage of well-trained personnel, the returns on the investments in the industrial base are woefully inadequate (Patterson, 2007), therefore, human resources development was found to be a critical element of management reform in industrial companies (Patterson, 2007). Moreover, lack of management training and development was found to be one of the reasons behind the decrease in productivity capacity of industrial companies (Sakilani, 2005).

Others stated that Libyan industrial companies still waste their time and resources on their management training and development programs, while not making the necessary changes to foster genuine innovation and entrepreneurship, (Haftari, Betts, & Tarbaghi, 1994, pp.22-30). More recently one piece of research argued that despite the investments allocated to the industry sector for development, there has been a substantial drop in the effectiveness of its companies (Fadel, & Khmushi, 2007, pp. 36-51), suggesting that investment which is not accompanied by real developments in working practices, including HRD, are not worthwhile especially in sectors protected from competition.

4.3.4 Arab Organisations of T&D

All Arab countries belong to what is called the Arab Organisation of Administration Sciences (AOAS) which is concerned with Arab management issues. This organisation works as a channel, taking the international evolution of management and trying to apply and teach it according to the Arab management environment. In addition, there are other channels in each country, working as centres of management education and training, as well as acting as research centres in this field. The AOAS was established in November 1957, due to the increasing need for co-ordination and unification of the administrative and financial systems in ACs. The organisation held its first meeting on January 1st, 1959. The AOAS gives importance and priority to periodic conventions on Arab administrative policies and developmental management approaches and plans. The AOAS organises conventions in order to attain common objectives such as 1) Emphasising the importance of administrative development in order to complement both social and economic developments. 2) Studying the suitability and effectiveness of management development policies and approaches to the ACs, and analysing if they are applicable to, and serve the welfare and benefits of, Arab citizens. 3) Discussing methods of possible Arab co-operation in the field of management development, and exchanging information and experience among ACs. 4) AOAS in its conventions concentrates on the necessity of considering Arab management in the context of its cultural, historical, political, economic and social elements (Al - Saigh, 2006, p. 23).

The AOAS also started to deal with various international organisations in management development and training, by inviting them to participate in many conferences, to achieve the following objectives: first; to give Arab managers the opportunity to meet and interact with international managers; second, to open co-operative channels between Arab management development organisations and similar international ones; third, to try to benefit from international management development strategy by forming an Arab management development strategy; fourth, to seize the opportunity to focus on the problems which face developed and

developing countries in this field. Arab countries have also established their own national specialised institutions of management, and provided them with all the support needed to enable these countries to solve their problems of management activities. The institutions play a major role in educating and training the countries' manpower, and in researching into the countries' management problems and creative management thought. HRD for managers and management development in Arab countries is being handled through the following channels:

Universities There is hardly any Arab country today that does not have a University offering programs in management. Many of these Universities now offer graduate courses leading mainly to a Master's degree or its equivalent. Some PhD programmes are now emerging in certain countries such as Syria, Sudan, and Egypt, while other educational links with training functions exist in many Universities (Durra, & Buera, 1988, p. 24).

National Training Institutes These institutes were established in some ACs, such as Libya and Sudan, as early as the 1950s, under technical assistance from the U N. Their major role is to offer short T&D courses to Government employees who are already in service. These institutes conduct short- and long- term T&D for middle and lower level managers, and occasionally upper level managers, to improve their performance in their present positions or to prepare them for higher positions. A few countries (Jordan, Yemen and recently Saudi Arabia) have extended their HRD services to private companies Saigh, 2006, p. 109).

4.3.5 Difficulties facing Arab countries in moving from T&D to HRD:

In Arab countries, as in other developing countries, the success of HRD programmes for managers has not always been noticeable, and there is sometimes a doubt about the value of its contribution to the pace of development. One of the difficulties is that some Arab countries are characterised by small populations, high manpower requirements and high oil revenues (e.g.

Kuwaiti, Libya, Oman); in these countries non-Arab immigrants have been accepted and have created substantial economic benefits in terms of the availability of labour to fill manpower shortages. This has led to an increasing proportion of non – Arab immigrants in the labour force, with the possibility of a lack of social integration resulting from the settlement of non-Arab communities. At the same time the population growth in Arab countries has been high, and this has led to a high proportion of young people in the populations of these countries, for example in Libya, 50% of the population is less than 15 years old (Al-Farrised, 2007). This is feeding into to high rate of growth in the available labour force, and therefore, the future need for manpower locally is likely to be met by the indigenous workforce. On the other hand, highly skilled personnel who have emigrated from Arab countries to Europe and America have left shortages with respect to knowledge and skills based industries. This shortage is more evident in countries with a small population than in others. There is also a serious imbalance between the supply and demand of manpower; for example, in Qatar, the shortage of Qataris with professional, scientific or technical education and training, is compounded by an over-supply of Qataris who have studied arts and humanities (Analoui & AL-Madaoun, 2006). In a developing economy seeking to establish products and services capable of being sold abroad, it could be argued that scientific and technical skills are more useful, and provide more leverage to move economic units into states of competitiveness. With respect to the difficulties facing the management training process in ACs, many Arab researchers (Similar situation noted for Libya see section 4.2.1) (Al - Tawail, 1985 p. 34, Durra, 1988, p. 25, Atiyyah, 1991, p. 23 -29 and Achoui, 2009) have summarised the difficulties as follows:

Training needs. Training needs are not sufficiently specified. Public organisations often send their managers on training programs without assessing their needs and ensuring that these needs are met by the programs, which leads to relatively wide variations in the knowledge and skill levels of managers attending these programmes. For example, in Jordan in the public and

private sectors, the real HRD needs have neither been fully recognised nor made explicit by top management. The currently available training programs would seem adequate to meet only about 25 % of the identified needs, and only a few courses are available in the field of general and advanced management, and in most cases these do not exceed two weeks in length (Al - Faleh, 1987, p. 26). The recruitment and promotion of managers in Arab countries is not always based on merit, but on other factors such as loyalty to superiors and political affiliations, in addition to tribal, kinship and personal connections. All these factors show that little significance is currently being attached to HRD in these societies suggesting that either they believe that a k-economy can be achieved without HRD, or that its importance has not yet been recognized.

Program design. As a result of the imprecise definition of HRD needs, the program designers in Arab countries are unable to define program objectives with a great degree of precision and clarity. Moreover, without precise objectives and clear priorities, general management programs are usually designed to cover all major management functions, such as goal setting, planning, decision-making, control and work design. HRD curricula are usually borrowed from Western sources. Only one Arab institute, in Saudi Arabia, has a unit specialising in curriculum design and development, which is also responsible for overseeing the preparation of HRD packages, including textbooks, films and other HRD aids (Altarawneh, (2009)). As a result, concepts and principles taught on Arab programs are sometimes unsuited to the local culture and environment in which Arab managers operate.

T&D methods, The methods of T&D programs in institutes in Arab countries are based on models and practices found in similar institutes in Western industrial countries. The traditional models or methods still dominate the thinking and practice in Management Training and development (MTD) in Arab countries, where in terms of teaching the lecture is still the most frequently used technique, followed by discussion groups and case studies. On the other hand,

role-playing, exercises, games and simulation are rarely used. A survey of 15 major Arab public HRD institutes showed that all of them used lectures, case studies and discussion groups, five of them used role playing and games, and only one was using simulation (Atiyyah, 1993A, p.10). Furthermore, a survey in Jordanian companies indicated that 17 % of the practicing managers believe that external courses were a waste of resources (Al - Feleh, 1987, p. 26). The Arab countries also obtain most of their T&D materials, including text books, from foreign sources, which may be unsuitable for the T&D of Arab managers and employees. Only the Saudi Arabian Institute of Public Administration has the staff and equipment necessary to produce films for use in T&D, and this shortage of resources is one of the reasons the transfer of Western T&D concepts and practices to Arab countries has not been totally successful.

T&D evaluation T&D programs are usually evaluated at the reaction level, and the most widely used method is the questionnaire, which is generally used immediately after the program is completed (Tome, 2009). Thus, the trainees' positive or negative attitude towards a T&D program is the main criteria to assess the effectiveness of the programs. Another way is by asking trainees to prepare a brief written report explaining the main subjects taken in the program, how much they enjoyed the program, and what their general observations and suggestions are. However, they are rarely asked to prepare any report about the applicability of what they learn to their jobs, or what difficulties faced them in transferring program content to their work-place. Other methods, sometimes used in certain countries such as Saudi Arabia, are the testing and grading of trainees. Furthermore, the lack of commitment from employees' supervisors or bosses in utilising what the employee has acquired through training makes it difficult to discover any either positive or negative points of the training program. Also, as a result of the unplanned procedure of training needs assessment, Arab organisations find difficulty in evaluating HRD programmes, due to the lack of clear objectives and standards that should be the basis of an evaluation procedure.

The staff of the T&D Institutes. Institutes in Arab countries have found difficulty attracting qualified and experienced trainers, and most Arab trainers work for short periods and then change their mind and are unwilling to work longer. This may be a result of a shortage of in-service learning programs for trainers. One of the Arab researchers reported that ten of the 15 Arab institutes in his survey had development programmes for their MTD staff. However, those efforts appeared to be inadequate (Budhwar, & Debrah, 2001). In Jordan, for example, good trainers are in extremely short supply; the best establishments in the country have small numbers of teachers and trainers, and it is rare to find complete teams to cover the various aspects and functions of management (Al-Feleh, 1997, p. 29). The factor causing this shortage is the high turnover rate among trainers in Arab countries institutes due to the fact that demand for high quality trainers far outstrips supply, and good trainers usually move to better paid jobs as soon as they establish a reputation, reducing the effectiveness of the MTD a company provides and possibly threatening the continuation of their training programs.

Research centres. In addition to the above difficulties in the training process, little attention has been paid to research and consultation. Arab countries lack training and development research centres and have shortages in qualified personnel for managing and developing these centres. Although the previously mentioned features of Arab management indicate that these countries need to reorganise their management system and introduce a management reform program in order to use HRD in their organizations, there are some cases, especially large private business companies, which are characterised by good management, which apply up-to-date management techniques, and which are to a great extent equivalent to their advanced counterparts in the Western world. Examples of these companies are: "Sabic, Aramco" in Saudi Arabia, "The National Bank of Egypt, Glaxo" in Egypt and "Emirates Airlines" in UAE (El-Salmi, 2006, p. 345).

4.4 Summary

The background information on HRD in Libya forms an important part of the research study and will contribute to the analysis and discussion of the findings concerning the various important and relevant characteristics of HRD in Libya. This chapter has illustrated that T&D in Libya was intended to have started at the beginning of the 1970s, and that after that it was possible for HRD to have started, due to government encouragement, but this research has found little empirical evidence that it did; the development of T&D/HRD during this period was very unclear and unfocused. Thereafter, Libyan legislation was designed to foster HRD programs, and Libya gave special attention to investment in human resources, and made this a priority by establishing more T&D institutions and allocating more financial support (see 4.2.3). However, this investment was ineffective due to a lack of T&D/HRD expertise in the country.

Generally, as we have seen in this chapter, HRD in Libya is supported by legislation intended to support the knowledge and skills development of the workforce. Other than policies and legislation, the Government is seen to support HRD by providing infrastructure, research and development, and financial resources. Indeed, these plans and strategies are intended to increase accessibility to quality education and training, strengthening the base for HRD to support the development of a k-economy. However, the transformation of the economy demands technological skills and expertise, as well as a labour force equipped with tacit knowledge and a high level of mental skill (Ministry of Planning 2002). Thus, despite the numerous efforts made by the Government to ensure that the education and training system has the capacity to enhance the quality of intellectual capital, as well as to expand the human resource base, the effectiveness of these efforts is difficult to confirm due to the lack of research into HRD in Libya, an omission which it may begin to be answered by the findings in the next chapters of this research.

This chapter has illustrated the characteristics of T&D in Arab countries, in particular those of T&D/HRD for managers since they are a key driver for successful T&D initiatives, including Libya, such as training and development needs assessment, program design, training methods and materials and training competence. All are in need of improvement, but this cannot be achieved unless more efforts are made. The financial and qualified manpower resources must be increased, before there can be any improvement in movement towards HRD.

The last section in this chapter illustrated that T&D/HRD in Arab countries is facing difficulties in moving from T&D to HRD, as a result of social, economic and political factors. Most Arab development institutions lack the necessary resources (money, materials, qualified staff, etc.), which are essential if these institutions are to play a principal role in meeting the training and development needs of Arab managers in the future, and thus ensuring the maturity of HRD (see section 4.3.5). In terms of Libya's ambition to be a k-economy by 2025, the evidence this study collected on HRD in manufacturing companies can be of value to policy-makers and academic researchers to formulate strategies to accelerate the pace of development, drawing on the strengths of Libya's most advanced industrial companies while using the experience of HRD practitioners to set benchmarks for HRD best practice. Libya faces many of the same problems in this area as other developing countries, but as the results of the study will illustrate, specific weaknesses include the lack of formal training in these areas available at higher-education level, and the insistence of the state in retaining control over key economic units, which stifles management innovation and blocks the development of an approach to HRD suited to Libya's particular circumstances as a transition economy dominated by one industry (oil). This chapter shows the current state of T&D/HRD in Arab countries, particularly in Libya, and this will contribute to the analysis and discussion of the findings of the various important and relevant characteristics of HRD in Libya. The next chapter will present the research methodologies and design.

Chapter Five

Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction:

Any research process consists of the overall activities undertaken to investigate a given problem. Research methodology is concerned with the way(s) by which the researcher collects data to answer research question(s). Therefore, researchers should be careful when choosing research philosophy and methodologies. They need to spend time studying the appropriateness of the chosen philosophy and methodologies to answer their research questions and objectives. There are many research designs, strategies or approaches that could be used when conducting research, but the nature or the context of the research question(s) and objectives imply a specific type of research design and strategy to be followed. The methodology used in this study could be described as being a cross-sectional study adopting a multi-methods approach (quantitative and qualitative), conducted through a survey and interviews to investigate the nature of HRD in manufacturing companies in Libya. This chapter therefore aims to present the methodological procedures used to collect the data required to achieve the objective of the study.

This chapter is structured as follows: The first part of this chapter discusses the research philosophy that underpins the study; previous studies are discussed with the purpose of justifying the selection of strategies used in this research. Then, the research approaches used in this study will be discussed. The second part discusses methods used in the process of collecting data, with particular reference to the questionnaire. The third part will define the questionnaire survey population and sample, as well as those of the interviews. Finally, the last part discusses the method of carrying out the survey and issues related to the rate of response, together with issues of ethics, access to organizations, legitimacy and credibility, And also

discusses the techniques used to analyse both quantitative and qualitative data in this study which were the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme to analyse data of survey and applying grounded theory coding used to analyse data of interview.

5.2 Research Paradigm and Philosophy

Before talking about the research design used in the study, it is important to understand the research paradigm on which the design is based. A paradigm is the underlying assumptions and intellectual structure upon which research in a field of inquiry is based (Kuhn, 2009). It contains the rules and standards for gathering knowledge and the framework which guides the researcher in the investigation processes (Guba, 1990; Perry et al., 1999). Several researchers (for example Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) have clarified the functions of a paradigm as (a) reflecting how the world works, how knowledge is extracted from this world, and the relationship between the researcher and the known (epistemological position); (b) define the types of questions to be investigated and the methodologies to be used (ontological position); (c) structure the world with meaning and significance (methodology). In other words, the research paradigm can influence what should be studied, how research should be done, and how results should be interpreted (Bryman, 2007).

Research philosophy is important to the decisions concerning other elements of a research methodology, such as the research approach, strategies, data collection methods and even the data analysis techniques. Easterby-Smith et al. (2002, p. 27) state that

There are at least three reasons why an understanding of philosophical issues is very useful. First, it can help to clarify research designs. Second, knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher to recognise which designs will work and which will not. It should enable a researcher to avoid going into too many blind alleys and

should indicate the limitations of particular approaches. Third, knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher identify, and even create, designs that may be outside his or her past experience. And it may also suggest how to adapt research designs according to the constraints of different subject of knowledge structures.

According to Saunders (2003) and Neuman (2010), two important approaches of research philosophy are positivism and phenomenology. Most ongoing social research is based on one of these two. Each approach is associated with different traditions in social theory and diverse research techniques. The linkage among the broad approaches to science, social theories, and research techniques is not strict. The approaches are similar to a research program, research tradition, or research paradigm. A paradigm provides a basic orientation to theory and research, in terms of a model for example. In general, a scientific paradigm is a whole system of thinking. It includes basic assumptions, the question to be answered, and the research technique to be used.

Positivism is a philosophical position that affirms the importance of imitating the natural sciences (Bryman, 2004). 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., 1999). Positivist researchers prefer precise quantitative data and often use experiments, surveys, and statistics. They test hypotheses by carefully analysing numerical results from their measurements. The main strengths of positivism are that it provides wide coverage of data, the collection of data is usually relatively fast and economical, and when large samples are used, they can serve as a basis for policy decisions. Critics of positivism claim that these methods are inflexible and not very effective in understanding processes and generating theories.

The phenomenological view emerged in reaction to the application of positivism to the social sciences. It is the view of phenomenologists that the subject matter of the social sciences, principally people and their institutions, is fundamentally different from the subject matter of the natural sciences; the two subjects require a different logic and separate research procedures (Easterby-Smith et al., 1999). For phenomenologists, the world and reality are socially constructed, and people give meaning to reality. Phenomenologists often use participant observation and field research to collect data. Researchers may analyse transcripts of conversations or study videotapes of behaviour, in order to come to conclusions. Its main strengths as a research philosophy are the ability to follow processes over time, understand processes in depth and to generate theories. Table 5.1 shows the key features of the two philosophies. In terms of investigating a subject such as the development of T&D/HRD, in Libya, it has already been argued is a process which should be considered more of a continuum, then a phenomenological approach would seem to allow for detailed investigation of change over a long time period, providing data to judge how far along the continuum Libyan companies might be.

Table 5.1 Key features of positivist and phenomenological paradigms

	Positivism	Phenomenology
Basic belief	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The world is external and objective • Observer is independent • Science is value-free 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The world is socially constructed and subjective • Observer is part of what is observed • Science is driven by human interests
Researcher should	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on facts • Look for causality and fundamental laws • Reduce phenomena to simplest elements • Formulate hypotheses and test them 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on meanings • Try to understand what is happening • Look at the totality of each situation • Develop ideas through induction from data
Preferred methods include:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured • Taking large samples 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomena • Small samples investigated in depth or over time

Source: Easterby-Smith et al., (1999)

In this study, a phenomenological view was considered the most appropriate research philosophy, as it focuses on trying to understand the social setting of a phenomenon, and on developing ideas through induction from data. A phenomenological approach allows the researcher to determine how far along this continuum Libyan companies might be. This research employs a mix of quantitative and qualitative research approaches (triangulation), using multiple methods such as questionnaire survey, interviews and document analysis (more explanation about it in the section 5.4.3). The published data on the size and composition of the Libyan industry sector is small. Libya is developing its collection of national statistics, but this collection is still immature and not robust. Data on companies in Libya is similarly not generally available, and this fact would make a positivist approach to this study very difficult, (Al-Faitouri, 2007). The phenomenological approach gives the researcher the opportunity to investigate the phenomenon of T&D/HRD in Libya without having access to a large quantity of secondary data.

5.3 Research Design

Defining the appropriate design of the research is a significant step in investigating the research problem, and it precedes the process of collecting data. Design considerations include the whole strategy and thus, the research plan must be discussed to ensure that the strategies used correspond to the study objectives (Oppenheim, 2001; Bryman & Bell 2007). There is more than one definition for the term "research design" in related publications and books. Yet all these definitions emphasize that the research design is a guide for researchers and a framework for the research process. The following examples illustrate this point; Nachmias (1996, p. 97) says that "research design is a program that guides a researcher in the process of collection, analysing, observation and explanation". Bryman (2008) says that it is the general structure and organisation of a research study. This structure allows a framework through which data are collected and analysed. Furthermore, there are five suggested designs in social

research. These are: an experimental design; cross-sectional design; longitudinal design; case study-design; and comparative design, (Bryman, 2008), each of which has advantages and disadvantages. The selection of a certain design depends on the nature of the subject investigated. Sometimes, cross - sectional design is called social survey design, and it is the most common design in human resources research. This design aims at collecting information from more than one case or respondent at the same time. Points of strength of cross-sectional research design include the ability to collect quantitative or qualitative data in relation to two or more variables; they are then examined to determine the extent of patterns of connection, and because data are collected at one specified time, no time is wasted, (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Hence, the decision to select a cross-sectional research design for this descriptive study is appropriate, with a philosophical stance that the phenomenological approach.

Indeed, there are several research approaches in the field of social science, and as Saunders et al., (2007) and Ghauri & Gronhaug (2002) stated there are three research approaches, which are: exploratory, descriptive and causal approach. The descriptive research investigation is selected for this study since the research problem is clearly understood, whereas a comparative study is used when the problem is ambiguous (Gill & Johnson, 2010). This study does not aim at clarifying the causal relation among factors, but it aims at a descriptive explanation of the main or real phenomenon of HRD (Saunders et al., 2009; and Silverman, 2005). Thus descriptive investigation is the most appropriate approach to this study as it illustrates the current situation of HRD, while aiming to determine future needs, especially in the field of industry, which is the focus of this study. There are many potential choices to make when developing a research design. However, the choice between research designs depends on many things - these are to be discussed later in this chapter – but most importantly on the nature of the research questions or objectives and the research philosophy or paradigm (which is to say, the way a researcher thinks about the development of knowledge).

5.4 Research Method

The choice of the appropriate method is the first problem that faces any researcher. Generally, the process of research can be classified into two categories namely, quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection. Quantitative and qualitative approaches both have their pros and cons. The choice of the appropriate approach is totally dependent on the nature of the research and the information required. This study employed a mix of quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. This combined research design allows the study to utilise the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of these two very different methodologies (Babbie, 2003). The following two sections provide a brief introduction to the concepts of each method.

5.4.1 Quantitative Method:

Questionnaire survey design is a form of quantitative research, as it presents a quantitative description of the tendencies or opinions of people through studying a sample of population (Creswell, 2003). It uses controls to allow the testing of hypotheses and to ensure data validity, and also uses a structured methodology to facilitate replication and to ensure reliability. Quantitative methods have advantages as they are distinguished by a high level of data accuracy as well as providing factual information. The results from a questionnaire survey can be tested for significance as they are focused both on information gathered and the type of target audience chosen. Thus, there is more control of the research process as well as the possibility of generalization when samples are larger. The ability to generalise and to quantify research findings is potentially of great benefit for future research. Moreover, the researcher allegedly independent of what is being observed, and thus does not affect the research subject (Oppenheim, 2001; Bryman & Bell, 2007). Furthermore, investigative surveys are relatively inexpensive and rapid with regard to data collection from a large number of respondents distributed over a wide area, compared to the personal interviews used in a qualitative approach. Questionnaire surveys are more suitable for dealing with sensitive issues since a

researcher cannot comment on a sensitive or critical topic during an interview, and respondents are more likely to give honest opinions on sensitive topics when protected by the anonymity afforded by a questionnaire. This is not the case in an investigative survey in which names are recorded, (Oppenheim, 2001).

There are disadvantages to quantitative methods. A quantitative method is considered an objective method to illustrate facts which are constant to a large extent (Silverman, 2005). One of the most significant disadvantages of a questionnaire survey is the inability of the researcher to control the entire situation, especially when making sure that the proper or concerned person was the one who filled out the questionnaire. Collected data can be affected by characteristics of respondents participating in the study, for example, with regard to the current study: responses may be affected by the seniority of the respondents, their limited knowledge and experiences in the field of HRD, as well as their level of honesty and integrity in answering the questionnaire survey. There are other disadvantages, represented by any weakness of the level of clarity of a questionnaire that may lead to confusing data but this can be overcome through precise design and examination of the questionnaire before actual distribution and data collection. In addition, consideration must be given to cultural factors when devising questions, but the researchers' nationality gave him an advantage in this area. However, it must be remembered that questionnaire surveys are affected by political, economic and cultural considerations (Silverman, 2002). For example, and despite assurances that the data would be confidential, the researcher believes that some respondents were inhibited from giving frank opinions due to fear of their superiors or state agencies.

5.4.2 Qualitative Methods:

Among the most common approach of HRD researchers is to deploy qualitative research methods. Unlike quantitative methods, which are concerned with measuring and defining in terms of number, causality, generalisation and experimentation, it is asserted that

qualitative research focuses on understanding social ideas through subjective explanation and perception (Short & Kuchinke in McGoldrick et al., 2002). Bryman (2008) also describes qualitative research methods have a flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses. Unlike quantitative methods, where the researcher is isolated from what is investigated, qualitative methods place the researcher as part of the research process, and this enables the researcher to obtain a closer understanding of the research context. Moreover, collected data come in the form of words, texts and pictures, and when these data are analysed, theory formulation can emerge.

As qualitative methods have a small sampling frame, the costs incurred might be lower and the research process might be simpler to undertake than is the case for quantitative research (Bryman, 2008). This is because unlike quantitative methods, with their rigid methodology, qualitative methods allow alternative explanations of what is going on, and allow the research design to overcome certain restrictions, such as lack of information or initial data on the investigated subject (Bryman, 2008). Qualitative methods seek understanding of behavior in companies through studying the people involved and their beliefs, or understanding of the topic. Unlike the questionnaire survey, qualitative research is more flexible, in that the interview process has far greater flexibility in terms of the questions asked, the way in which they are asked, and the opportunity for clarification and amplification a one-to-one meeting provides: the researcher can also take steps such as ensuring that the appropriate person, with the most relevant knowledge, is interviewed. At the same time, in the case of a question not being understood, the question can be rephrased so as to receive a clearer or more complete answer. However, one of the most significant disadvantages of qualitative methods is the difficulty of generalisation based on limited samples. Furthermore, due to the subjective nature of qualitative research, interpretive and analytical skills become important requirements when analysing data, in order to obtain fruitful results. This is because data obtained from interviews can be lengthy and vast in content. This can also create problems with validity or reliability,

which is a major criticism of this approach. Another disadvantage of qualitative methods is the issue relating to time and inconvenience (Bryman, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Silverman, 2002).

Among other disadvantages relating to qualitative methods is the issue relating to time and inconvenience (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2003; Silverman, 2005). For instance, it would be very inconvenient for the respondents if the interviews were to extend longer than the time specified, or if respondents were called by their superior or someone else in the middle of an interview. This problem was overcome in this study through careful prearrangement, so that the timings of interviews were suitable for respondents. Taking account of the study purpose and objectives and as a result of the literature review and discussion with people in the field of T&D, the researcher decided to use both survey methods and qualitative methods in a design in which each played its own particular part. This was judged to be the best way to obtain good reliable data, and to be able to investigate T&D activities and their implementation in manufacturing companies in Libya. A combination of research methods is often used in order to improve both the reliability and the validity of the data gathered (Silverman, 2005).

5.4.3 Mixed Methods

Two methods of data collection were used in this study; a questionnaire survey (quantitative) and semi-structured interviews (qualitative). The questionnaire survey was conducted to elicit the opinions of the personnel responsible for T&D/HRD activities in the Libyan manufacturing sector. The semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect additional information about HRD from some of the same managers who filled out the questionnaire. Each of the approaches (quantitative or qualitative) has different strengths and weaknesses. A mixed-method approach allows the strengths and weaknesses of methods to be counter-balanced (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

Saunders et al, (2000) suggests that there are three main advantages of using mixed methods in the same study. First, using different types of research approach provides the ability to use different methods for different purposes in any study, and thereby to answer all research questions. As a result, a mixed method provides confidence that important issues have been addressed in the study in a comprehensive manner. Second, this leads to triangulation taking place: that is, using different methods of collecting data that complement each other in the research analysis (Saunders et al., 2000). Finally, using both types of research approach gives the ability to explore an issue through qualitative analysis to determine any variables which need to be studied, and then to study these variables quantitatively on a larger sample. Alternatively, a quantitative survey can be conducted on a larger sample, and certain topics can be observed through a small sample for deeper study. Both these situations provide the benefits of both closed-ended quantitative data and open-ended qualitative data to aid understanding of a research problem (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

In conclusion, methodological triangulation was considered appropriate for this study as it permitted a constructive blend of a primary qualitative oriented approach with a few, albeit important quantitative elements, with a view to providing a more holistic understanding but also to verifying, and thus enhancing the credibility of the research outcomes. Finally, another reason as to why triangulation was adopted for this study is related to the arguments that relying exclusively on one research strategy could potentially bias the researcher's perception, limit and perhaps distort the understanding of the phenomenon under study. "This becomes even more dangerous when the research object is not only so complex and multi-faceted, but also minimally explored previously" (Cohen & Manion, 2007).

5.4.3.1 Strategy of Mixed Research Methods

Like any research method, a mixed methods approach includes a series of research strategies. Creswell & Clark (2007) defined six main strategies in examining mixed methods, which are (1) sequential explanatory (2) sequential exploratory (3) sequential transformative (4) concurrent triangulation (5) concurrent nested and (6) concurrent transformative strategies. However, the most appropriate approach to this study is the approach of concurrent triangulation, which was selected because it uses two different methods, quantitative and qualitative, to "confirm, cross-validate or corroborate findings within a single study" (Morgan, 1998; Greene, Carecelli & Graham, 1989; Steckler, 1992). Strategies differ, and all strategies must be examined to understand their characteristics, advantages and appropriateness to each type of research.

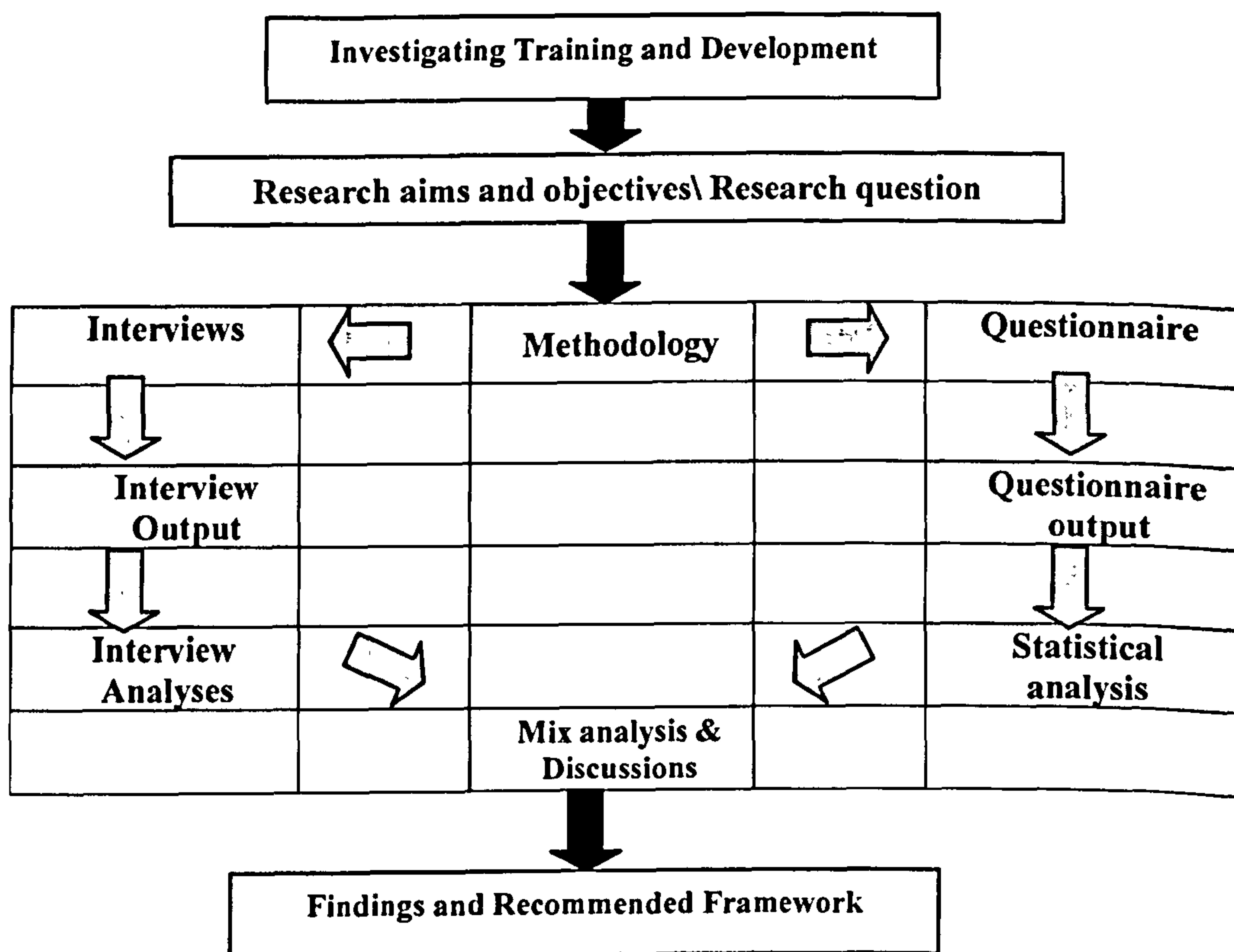
The first strategy identified by Creswell & Clark (2007) is the sequential explanatory approach, which is distinguished by collecting and analysing a group of quantitative data, followed by qualitative data. This strategy uses qualitative results to help describe and explain the initial results of the quantitative study. The second strategy is the sequential exploratory; that is characterised by the collection and analysis of qualitative data followed by quantitative data. This strategy uses quantitative data and results to explain qualitative findings. The third strategy is the sequential transformative approach, where one of the methods is used at first, providing priority to either the quantitative or qualitative stage or using both of them. Both stages are structured during the stage of explanation or illustration. The theoretical perspective of this strategy depends on the definitive research framework. The fourth strategy-concurrent triangulation, which the researcher decided to use in this study (and which is further explained below), is characterised by the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently, followed by a comparison of both sets of research results. This model offers a means to offset the weaknesses inherent within one

method with the strengths of the other method. The fifth strategy is the concurrent nested approach - characterized by the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously, and then combining both data sets during the data analysis phase. This strategy is used to obtain a wider perspective due to the use of different methods instead of using one method, and this is more appropriate for studying different groups and levels. Finally, the concurrent transformative strategies are directed by the researcher using a theoretical qualitative perspective, which is reflected on the definitive theoretical framework. In this case the need for triangulation arises from the research questions, and thus fulfills the ethical need to confirm the validity of the processes.

5.4.3.2 Point of weakness and strength concerning the method of concurrent triangulation

As mentioned previously, the concurrent triangulation method is a strategy that collects data through quantitative and qualitative methods simultaneously, and then compares these results. The most important thing is that the approach is distinguished by its ability to produce precise and concrete results, as it is used repetitively by researchers. In addition, this method is said to have a shorter data collection time frame, because qualitative and quantitative data are collected simultaneously. It is also used to overcome points of weakness through taking advantage of points of strength related to another method, as discussed below. Finally, this strategy can either note the convergence of the findings as a way to strengthen the knowledge claims of the study, or explain any lack of convergence that may result (Creswell & Clark, 2007). However, this model also has its limitations, as it requires great effort and expertise to adequately study a phenomenon with two or more separate methods. It can also be difficult to compare the results of two analyses using data of different forms. Finally, due to the complexity of analysing two different methods, a researcher can become confused when addressing the questions rose through the results. For the purpose of this study, the strategy of concurrent triangulation is shown in the following pattern for greater understanding.

Figure 5.1: Concurrent Triangulation Model



Source: (Creswell, 2003)

5.4.4 The Chosen Research Design and the Rationale behind this Choice

After the researcher had reviewed the literature of research methods in social science,, and having decided on the research questions and objectives, in addition to considering all methodological limitations, criticisms and issues relating to development performance relationship mentioned in Chapter 3, he found that the multi-methods approach (method triangulation) conducted through survey questionnaire and semi structured interviews in a complementary, supplementary way, rather than in competition with each other, was an appropriate and flexible way to conduct this research. The rationale behind this choice is justified in the following:

The research is to be conducted in the context of the manufacturing sector in Libya. It is designed to investigate training and development practices in terms of the training implementation process, delivery methods and training evaluation and follow up; also, to identify all the challenges that might confront the HRD function. To achieve these aims it will apply a multi-methods approach (qualitative and quantitative), including a questionnaire and face-to-face interviews, as the primary data collection methods, in addition to a survey of the available secondary data. Moreover, most of the research questions and objectives are exploratory in nature; the investigation is based on personnel who are responsible for the T&D/HRD function, and their viewpoints and experiences (perceptions) in the context of Libyan manufacturing sector organisations. That requires applying more than one data collection method and exploring many themes underpinning the research objectives, rather than relying only on one particular method. The adopted approach provides useful quantitative and qualitative data, which generate a rich wealth of data and interpretation.

The chosen research design and approach has also been used by other Arab researchers who have conducted studies related to T&D management and practices in different contexts, such as: Albahussain (2000); Al-Athari (2000); Agnaia (1996); Abdalla & Al-Homoud (1995); see also section 5.4. Those Arab researchers found that a multi-method approach combining questionnaires and interviews was the most applicable and acceptable research method in Arab countries. Applying the same research design used by other Arab researchers strengthens the current study's consistency, validity and reliability, since the research is conducted in Libya.

Based on the nature of the research questions and objectives, it is clear that this study includes many subjective variables or factors, for example, analysing needs, planning and design, delivery and implemented and evaluation. These need to be investigated and measured through both the qualitative and quantitative approach. The research includes many social behavioural

factors, beliefs and attitudes that need to be explored and explained in detail. Therefore, applying the chosen research design helps the researcher to address the required qualitative and quantitative data, which provide more flexibility to meet multiple research interests and needs, and facilitates using different quantitative and qualitative data collection methods in one study, which will enrich the findings from this study.

This approach enables methodological triangulation, which refers to using different data collection methods within one study, in order to ensure that data are telling you what you think they are telling you; in other words, to generate more validity and reliability (Saunders et al., 2007). Triangulation involves crosschecking for internal consistency and external validity, which is a concern of this study. In this regard, Saunders et al. (2009) indicate that semi-structured interviews, combined with other data collection methods such as questionnaires, are very valuable ways of triangulating findings. Such is the aim of this study.

Statistical analysis of the quantitative data collected will make summaries, comparisons and generalisation relatively easy and accurate, while the qualitative data will provide a forum for elaboration, explanation and description of events, actions, attitudes, behaviour and lead to more meaningful and new ideas from the perspective of the subjects who are being investigated (Bryman, 1988, p. 61). This will provide a more rigorous understanding of the subject under investigation.

5.5 Research Methods in Previous Studies of T&D/HRD

Several studies have been carried out on T&D in developing and developed countries and these studies used different research approaches; there is no one method considered optimal. Both quantitative and qualitative methods have been preferred by T&D/HRD researchers in developed and developing countries. Publications on these surveys indicate that the questionnaire survey approach and qualitative research approach were applied. For instance,

quantitative research methods were used in developed countries, such as the United States, the United Kingdom and Europe. (For example, Tregaskis & Dany, 1996; Tregaskis & Brewster, 1998; Kjellberg, et al, 1998; Wognum & Mulder, 1999; Luoma, 1999; Fernald, et al, 1999; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Elbadri, 2001; Morrow, 2001; Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Lee et al., 2000; Storey, 2002; Nijhof, 2004; Osman-Gani & Ronald, 2005; Woodall, Jean, 2006; Ville, 2007). Similarly, a quantitative survey approach has been applied in developing countries, such as Hong Kong, Kuwait, Oman, India, and Morocco (Al-Khayaat & Al-Jammaal, 1997; Sun, 2001, Budhwar et al., 2002, Mishra, 2002; Pawan S. Budhwar, Saud AL-Yahmadi & Yaw 2002; Cox, Ben, Estrada, Lynham, Susan & Motii, 2005). Yet, the use of a qualitative approach or a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches in T&D/HRD researches was common among researchers in developed countries, such as the United Kingdom, Russia, Ireland, Finland, Japan, and Korean (See for example, Koile, 1997; Garavan, et al., 1998; Sambrook et al., 1999; Luoma, 1999; MacMahon & Murphy, 1999; Ardichvili et al., 2001; Nolan, et al., 2002; Hill, Turnbull, McGuire, et al., 2002; Lloyd, 2002; Kim & Pyun ,2008; Xiao, Mingzheng ,2008). Researchers in developing countries, such as Brazil, Barbados, the United Arab Emirates, Kuwait, Saudi, Sub-Saharan Africa, Saudi Arabia, and Malaysia, have used a single qualitative method or a combination of both methods (See for example, Khan & Soverall, 1993; Cho et al., 1999; Al-Ali, 1999; Albahussain, 2000; Sparkes & Miyake, 2000; Wilkins, 2002; Dosary, 2004; Abdullah, 2006; Sydhagen & Cunningham, 2007). On the other hand, other investigative methods have been used by researchers in the field of HRD, such as historical research, longitudinal studies and ethnographic case studies (See for example, Kuo, 2002; Howitz et al., 1996; Sambrook, 2001). Where there has been a comparative study of HRD, specifically a comparison between two countries such as the comparative study between the United Kingdom and France, (Tregaskis & Dany, 1996) and between the United Kingdom and India (Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003), these studies have used a survey questionnaire.

Yet, as mentioned before, the number of studies conducted on T&D/HRD is still limited in Libya. By reviewing publications related to research methods of T&D/HRD, it appears that the research methods used depended on the research objective. Thus, the decision to select the mixed method research strategy is based on the research's philosophical stance, design and approach in relation to the research questions and objectives. In the first chapter, we said that the research objective is to describe the nature of T&D in manufacturing companies in Libya. Thus, determining that to a cross sectional design for this descriptive study, with a phenomenological approach is considered appropriate.

5.6 The Specific Data Collection Methods

There are three methods of collecting data regarding a mixed methods research approach such as that used in this study. The data collection methods of documentary reviews, questionnaires and interviews are clarified below, with their advantages and disadvantages.

5.6.1 Documentary Review

Documentary reviews involve analysing secondary data that has been used for other purposes. Secondary data included raw data and published research, including newspapers, governmental statistics, economic data, and public surveys of population. The strengths of secondary data are that they have fewer resource requirements, are unobtrusive, allow for the potential provision of comparative and contextual data and for unforeseen discoveries, and finally, they present a constant source of data (Saunders et al., 2009). Weaknesses of secondary data are the mismatch of the data collected as well as problems gaining access to documentary evidence, which may be difficult or costly in certain organisations, libraries and Government Ministries. This is because the documents that are required may have to be paid for, and are sometimes very costly (Saunders et al., 2009). For instance, obtaining any economic and statistical reports from any ministry in Libya is expensive. However, this method was used in this study in order to integrate secondary data with other data which were collected by other methods.

5.6.2 Interviews

An interview is a direct conversation which includes a researcher, conducted in order to obtain relevant data on specific issues related to the objectives of the study (Cohen et al., 2000). According to what is reported, Saunders et al., (2000) said that an interview is a meaningful discussion between two or more persons. Interviews help to gather valid and reliable data related to research topics and questions. Indeed, the literature has indicated the existence of various different types of interview. Patton, (2002) repeated that there are different methods of approaching interviews including the approach of directing an interview, and systematic interviews or open standard interviews, closed quantitative interviews and unofficial conversations. Yet, it is said that interviews vary according to the results required from them. Measurements of these interviews are determined according to standard types of result outputs. Types of interview include, for instance, in-depth interviews to elicit further insights by probing techniques, ethnographic interviews to study phenomena, elite interviews for highly specific groups of people, life history interviews for biographies, focus groups for brainstorming (Cohen et al., 2000) and exploratory interviews for exploration (Oppenheim, 2001). Nevertheless, Saunders et al., (2007, p.312) say that interviews can be divided into three categories: structured, semi-structured and unstructured: the structured category is more official and uses prearranged standard questionnaires. This is unlike the unstructured category, which is nonstandard, unofficial and enables the exploration of a certain topic in general terms, or in particular. On the other hand, semi-structured interviews are directed or subjected to topics or things in the process of interview.

Interviews could also be conducted on a one-to-one basis, such as face-to-face interviews or telephone interviews, or in focus groups, which can prove to be a problem if they generate too many ideas and contributions. As with other methods, interviews have advantages and disadvantages. One of the most important advantages is the respondent's ability to express his opinions and this clarifies much valuable information. Due to the flexible nature of the

method, there are also sufficient opportunities to clarify the overall research purpose, issues and misunderstandings (Saunders et al., 2009). Analytical skills and patience are important requirements in interviews, as the rich data resulting from unstructured interviews can be extremely difficult to analyse and tabulate. In addition, interviews can be very expensive, due to the dispersed geographical location of respondents which may require repeated visits to research settings. Interviews can also be time consuming, as data might emerge very slowly and the risk of no useful data patterns and no theory emerging is a potential weakness. In addition, bias from respondents and through data interpretation may also be a problem (Saunders et al., 2009; Creswell, 2003; and Silverman, 2005).

5.6.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

Qualitative interviews usually have a guide for directing interviews. An interview guide can be structured or unstructured (Bryman & Bell, 2007). For the purpose of this study, a semi-structured interview guide was used. This approach was chosen because the themes and categories of the interviews were identified during the literature review and in designing the survey questionnaire. Another reason for using semi-structured interviews was because the researcher intended to administer the same questions in the interview as in the questionnaire survey, to corroborate findings.

5.6.2.2 Translation of Interviews

Because the population of this study is speakers of Arabic and many of them may not understand English, this led the researcher to conduct the interviews in the Arabic language. and because this study is administered in English, it was necessary to translate the interviews into English after finishing all of them. Translation of the interviews from Arabic into English is a very important step. It is in fact a delicate issue in cross-cultural methodology. Bulmer & Warwick (1993) discussed this problem in relation to developing societies. They stressed that

great care must be taken in rendering from one language into another, so that the translation does not affect the concepts and meaning of the original interviews. A 'back-translation' technique, they suggest, can iron-out errors and distortions.

Iyenger (1993, p.174) suggests that "validity thus requires that interviews in one language be translated into another language in each way so as to retain their meaning". Validity is therefore determined simply by the accuracy of the translation. Accordingly, and to ensure uniformity, the interview was first translated into English by the researcher, then it was given to two expert translators to check the translation. Subsequently, the researcher gave the English interviews to two other expert translators to render the English interviews into Arabic. In the final step of this phase, the researcher compared the translated version with the original version to identify and correct semantic errors in translation; the aim of this step was to ensure that changing the language of the instruments did not affect the concepts and meanings of questions.

5.6.3 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are considered one of the most common methods for collecting data and they are an effective instrument in collecting information for surveys. A questionnaire can be conducted without a researcher being present, provide structured, often numerical data and are often comparatively straightforward to analyse (Wilson & McLean, 1994; reported by Cohen et al., 2000, p. 245). Saunders et al., (2000 p.278) defined a questionnaire in general as a technique for data collection, where each person is asked to answer the same previously ordered questions, which must be completed by the target sample and returned to the researcher or research assistants. Generally speaking, since a questionnaire is an instrument to collect structured data, it is an effective way to collect responses from a larger sample before conducting interviews. Questionnaires are similar to interviews in that both of them depend on

questions. Like impersonal surveys, questionnaires are easier to analyse through quantified responses, because a researcher obtains the same kind of data from all respondents, whereas in an interview, additional items may emerge, which require more complicated data analysis (Saunders et al, 2000). Oppenheim, (2001) suggested that there is a range of questionnaires and the rule of thumb for questionnaires is the larger the size of the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire. Highly structured and closed questions are useful to generate frequencies of response that are amenable to statistical treatment and analysis. For smaller samples, questionnaires may be less structured, more open and more word-based.

Saunders et al., (2009) state that questionnaires can depend on self-instruction or instruction through interview. Questionnaires used in this study were administered on self-instruction so were sent and delivered by ordinary mail and electronic mail and were filled in via the internet and submitted and collected manually to and from respondents. In fact, a questionnaire aims at collecting information about the current situation or the present phenomenon to evaluate tendencies and current opinions about the subject matter. Among the most important advantages of questionnaires is that they cover a larger geographic area and obtain a bigger sample, and this has economic benefits concerning data collection and questionnaire management. Besides, data collected from questionnaires are standardised and this facilitates making comparisons of data which can be more easily understood due to the structured approach. Yet a good and structured questionnaire is distinguished by clarity and presents information efficiently. Among the disadvantages to questionnaires, or points of weakness, are the low rates of response and biases resulting from this. This method is also inappropriate for the uneducated or illiterate respondent. Opportunities for amending ambiguity or providing help in explanation are nonexistent, and there is no control over the questionnaire with regard to a complete response, because the researcher is absent from the process of completion

(Saunders et al., 2009). In this study, the questionnaire is designed to be self-administered to take information from the person responsible for human resources development, or T&D officials of the manufacturing sector in Libya, in order to collect information that enables the researcher to answer the research questions posed in this study.

5.7 Conducting and Designing Questionnaires

The main objective of the questionnaire is to gather data that enable the researcher to answer the research questions addressed in any given study. In this study, the questionnaire is designed to extract information from the person responsible for HRD or employees' T&D in the manufacturing sector of Libya.

5.7.1 Structured Questionnaire

When writing a structured questionnaire, there are three stances that need evaluation. First, defining topics related to the research question and framework. Second, formulating the questionnaire; the language must be easy and understandable to each respondent even if the respondents are managers, since English is not their language. Thus, a questionnaire must be translated and formulated in the Arabic language as best as possible. Third and finally, is the planning of the questions. Given that the questionnaire survey is considered a structured survey, the respondents to this study were given a list of possible responses. The defining scale was a five-point Likert Scale. In addition, the structured questionnaire contained open questions, and these open questions were used to collect behavioural and demographic data by having the respondent answer without having options. Open questions were used to collect certain responses and to determine which issues dominate respondents' minds, and understand issues through the respondents' points of view. Thus, each questionnaire included open and closed questions.

However, in order to answer the research questions with the questionnaire, it was divided into four groups of questions (see table 5.2). The first group investigates: the background profiles of the participating companies; the respondents' profiles, since they are also the people responsible for T&D/HRD in these companies; the characteristics of HRD, such as its organisational structure; plans and policies; budget. This group of questions answers research question one. This is followed by the second group of questions designed to answer research question two, which examine the types of T&D/HRD activities implemented and the extent of these activities, as well as performance management as part of T&D activities. The third group aims to answer research question three, which investigates the major challenges faced by T&D/HRD practitioners in implementing effective HRD. Finally, the fourth group of questions was designed to answer research question four, which examines the extent to which Libyan manufacturing companies have moved towards strategic HRD. To estimate the extent of SHRD, the researcher based his conclusions on the model developed by McCracken and Wallace (2000), which has been introduced in chapter three.

Statistical techniques of frequency distribution and means comparison are used to present the findings from the survey, and displayed in the form of tables and charts. In addition to the usage of these measures, statements from interviews are quoted to illustrate relevant points to support and complement the survey data. Finally, these analyses were supported or challenged by the literature. Hence, a combination of the results of the statistical analysis, descriptive interviews and reviews from the literature will answer the research questions and allow conclusions to be drawn.

Table 5.2 Association of research questions with questionnaire

Research Questions	Nature of Questions in Questionnaire
What are the purposes, concepts and characteristics of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya?	A-Company information B-Your Job; C-Structure D-Budget F-HRD/ T&D Plans and policies
What types of T&D/HRD activities are being implemented and what extent are they implemented?	G- Design and training implementation H-Needs analysis I-Evaluation J-Performance management
What are the major challenges in HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya?	K-Issues and challenges in HRD
To what extent has T&D in Libya evolved into HRD?	E-HRD Strategy

5.7.2: Components of Questionnaires

At this stage, the form and components of the questionnaire should be discussed. The questionnaire is created through reviewing publications and books related to the theoretical framework of HRD and defining HRD, the complete and partial activities of HRD, and the challenges and practices of HRD in different countries. Some questions are used based on the questionnaires used by Al-Ali, (1999), Albahussain, (2000), Budhwar et al. However, some elements of the questionnaire are used by the researcher and these selected elements are used to define questions corresponding to objectives of the study as a whole. Moreover, a reliability test of the questionnaire was conducted prior to the data collection, (a process which will be explained in more detail below).

This study's questionnaire is divided into eleven parts, which are (1) Information about the company; (2) Respondents' profile; (3) Structure; (4) Budget; (5) HRD Strategies; (6) Plans and policies; (7) Design and Training implementation; (8) Analysing needs; (9) Evaluation; (10) Performance management; (11) Issues and challenges (see appendices) .

First The first part aims to collect information related to the type of company, its ownership, age, number of employees, and capital.

Second, the personal part is collecting data on respondents such as their current jobs, the period that they have spent in these jobs, their previous job, and previous experience in T&D, age, sex, and educational level. This last part is collected with a combination of closed questions and options are interpreted as open questions.

Third The third part of the questionnaire focuses on the structure of HRD in companies. This part of the questionnaire was suggested by Budhwar et al., (2002), and used by Abdullah, (2006), then it was developed through reviewing of literature, such as the publications of Nadler & Nadler, (1989), Church & McMahan, (1996), Harrison, (2000), Megginson et al., (2000). Moreover, these authors emphasized, normatively, the importance of having separate HRD department. Thus, the objective of this part is to decide if there is a separate department for human resources or not. If there is a separate HRD function, we should ask questions about the extent and nature of this management, such as its age, its name, structure and number of employees. On the other hand, if there is no separate department, there must be questions about what is the department responsible for human resources and finally, questions on the existence of a training centre in the company must be asked.

In the **fourth** part, information on the budget and expenditure related to training activities is required. As well as information on the budget and expenditures for designing and training implementation, information on designing and training implementation such as training methods and training levels are sought, the expenditure imposed on each occupational level, place and provider of training programs, is made evident. Finally, questions on the training services provider are asked. Some questions in both parts are taken from Al-Ali, (1999), Albahussians, (2000) and Abdullah, (2006). This part contains various questions with two-option answers followed by open options. In addition, these parts have questions including a five-level Likert Scale to measure the rate of recurrence from 1 = never to 5 = strongly or rapidly recurring; and 1 = too low to 5 = too high (See appendix A).

In the **sixth** part, respondents are asked to answer the questions through a Likert Scale by concentrating on whether there is a strategic approach to HRD activities and practices in the company or not. Then, questions associated are posed with the study by reviewing the work of McCracken & Wallace, (2000), Garavan, (1991). This part asks respondents to determine the degree of their agreement through the five-point scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

The **seventh** part is concerned with having plans and policies for T&D/HRD in the company and these questions are taken from Albahussain, (2000), Al-Ali, (1999), and Abdullah, (2006). Moreover, the nature of the plan and policy and the frequency with which it was reviewed were also explored. If an organisation did not have a plan or a policy for T&D/HRD, further open-ended questions were asked about the reasons why.

In the **eighth** and **ninth** part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked questions about the field of activities in T&D in their company. Questions in these two parts are taken from Al-Ali, (1999) and Albahussain, (2000) and developed through the literature review. The first process to be determined in the systematic approach of HRD was analysing needs. In the

seventh part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked questions related to whether they conducted analyses of needs in their companies, if the answer was that need analyses were conducted, they were subsequently asked about the frequency of any needs analysis, the approach and methods used and the strategies for analysing needs. Open questions were also used regarding the reason for not having analysis of needs if there was none. This is followed by a test of the next level in the systematic approach of HRD, especially designing development and training implementation. The last stage in the systematic approach of HRD is the evaluation stage, and this was dealt with respondents in part nine. This part is taken from Al-Ali, (1999) Albahussians, (2000), where the focus is on methods used in training programs and the level of respondents' satisfaction through evaluation. In measuring the methods used in evaluation, the five levels of Likert Scale ranged from 1 = never to 5 = often. For measuring levels of satisfaction, the five levels of Likert Scale ranged from 1 = strongly dissatisfied to 5 = strongly satisfied.

The tenth part of questionnaire required information on performance management. In this section, respondents from the participating companies were asked questions related to the evaluation of employees performance improvement. The aim of evaluating performance is to assess the training and learning acquired, control behavior, and use this information for budgeting training activities. Questions of this part depended on reviewing the literature, such as Gilley et al., (2002), Delahaye, (2000), Reid & Barrington, (2003), Desimone et al., (2002).

Finally, the eleventh and last part is, asked for respondents to identify the challenges faced by trainers in trying to reach effective efforts in HRD. Questions of this part are taken from Abdullah, (2006) In this part respondents are asked about their agreement regarding the mentioned statements and accordingly, a five-point Likert Scale is used; where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. In these parts (from the ninth to the tenth) respondents are asked about their agreement regarding the mentioned statements and accordingly, a five-point Likert Scale is used; where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

5.7.3 Measuring Questionnaires

The measures used in the questionnaires were the Likert Scale of closed questions. This required the respondent to select from options through marking the square of the selected answer. There were certain questions in which a respondent was required to comment on his selections. Then, in answering the rest of questions according to the nature of their HRD perspective, 25% of the questionnaire consisted of open questions containing detailed information on the discussed topics or issues.

5.7.4 Pilot testing the Questionnaires

Before dealing with the comprehensive field research, pilot testing is extremely significant in any investigative research. Oppenheim, (2001) says that the questionnaire must be tested before being applied to the final sample. The aim of pilot testing is to edit the questionnaire and eliminate any ambiguity, so as to be more beneficial and more appropriate for the collection of the required data. Piloting enables a researcher to evaluate the validity of the questions and the credibility of the data. Cohen et al, (2001) say that it is necessary to evaluate the reliability and validity indicators before carrying out the actual study. Indexes are examined through applying questions to a similar sample, but smaller than that used in the real or actual study. In fact, Bell, (1999) said that there are certain measures for the pilot questionnaire. This always involves the user completing the questionnaire, clarifying the instructions, and noting any questions that the respondent finds difficult to answer; any ignorance regarding any significant or critical subjects, clarity of content and any elements must be included in the questionnaire.

In this research, this questionnaire was given to a primary supervisor to present comments and it was tested in September 2008. Fink (1995) said that not less than 10 participants are required for a pilot test in the manufacturing sector. The questionnaire was

tested in this study by 12 human resources managers in the industrial field in both the LMCs and SMCs Libya which were selected randomly. The twelve managers participating in the pilot testing were visited to discuss their comments on the questionnaire design. The comments of the managers were in Arabic and the questions related to on-the-job and off-the-job training provided for each level of employee, instances of expenditure on T&D programs for each level, and where and by whom these programs of HRD were implemented. These questions were replaced with a five-level Likert Scale; where 1= too low to 5 = too high, instead of requesting the percentages involved.

5.8 Taking Samples

After defining research design instruments and collecting data, the next step comes which is selecting people for the sample from which the information should be collected. People who were targeted in this study included those working for large (LMC), medium and small manufacturing companies (SMC). Bryman & Bell (2007) say that a population is not only people, but also refers to companies from which samples are taken and tested by the researcher. Ghauri & Gronhaug, (2002) suggest that it is possible to collect information from each member of the population rather than sampling from a larger group.

5.8.1 Sample for Questionnaire

The reason for using the whole group instead of taking data from one sample is fairly obvious. Collecting information from the whole group leads to a clear design. Thus, the whole group is used as a sample of the study and as Ghauri et al, (2002) said any error in designing is less in the large sample than the small one.

5.8.2 Population

The population is all manufacturing companies listed by the Libyan Industrial Ministry (2008); a total of 110 industrial companies of large, medium and small size, 56 of which were large companies (LMCs) and 54 small and medium (SMCs), (See table 5.3 below). This sample consisted of different industrial companies in the manufacturing sector in Libya, which will be investigated in the next chapter. It should be reiterated at this point that all the companies listed by the Industrial Ministry are owned by the state, and operate in conditions where their freedom of decision making is constrained by the control of central government. More details on this point were given previously in section 2.3.3

Table 5.3 Industrial companies According to the size

Types of Industry	LMCs	SMCs	Total	
	N	N	N	%
1- Food and drinks	10	14	24	21.8
2- Furniture, carpets and wooden products	8	9	17	15.5
3- Plastic and rubber products	9	3	12	10.9
4- Manufacturing and Mineral Products	6	3	9	8.2
5- Textiles, wearing apparels & leather	5	4	9	8.2
6- Power and Electronics	1	9	10	9.1
7- Chemicals and oils	5	2	7	6.4
8- Non-mineral products	2	4	6	5.5
9- Machines, cars, motors and vehicles	3	2	5	4.5
10- Printing and Writing Paper	3	1	4	3.6
11- Concretes-Cement-Iron	2	2	4	3.6
12- Other (-medical products – glass)	2	1	3	2.7
Total	56	54	110	100.0

The size of industry is described and determined according to the number of employees, and the amount of issued capital. Large companies are ones with more than 250 employees and exported capital not less than 2.5 millions diners. This study uses number of employees as a measure to determine the size of companies, because respondents were not always able to specify the capital held by their companies.

5.8.3 Sample for Interview

In selecting the sample of interview, a non-probability sampling technique was employed to select the appropriate sample from individuals having experience and information on the function of HRD (Saunders et al., 2009). To select and determine the proper sample, purposive or judgmental samples selection was used. This strategy uses a researcher's arbitration to select more appropriate cases for answering research questions and achieving the research objectives (Saunders et al., 2009). The sample is selected before beginning the process of the survey. The most important criterion in selecting the interview sample was that respondents had to be responsible for T&D or for managing T&D job-related responsibilities.

Judgmental samples involved selecting 30 companies for interviews, 15 of which were selected from large companies (LMCs) and 15 selected from medium and small companies (SMCs). These 30 companies received letters inviting them to participate in this study (see Appendix C). The letters clarified the objective of this study, and a copy of the semi-structured interview (Appendix D) was sent to managers who were responsible for HRD/T&D. These managers were then followed up with telephone calls to determine their willingness to participate in the study and dates and timing of interviews were set. Out of 30 letters, 20 managers responded positively. The remaining 10 managers were not able to participate due to lack of time, and some managers said that their companies were unsuited to this type of research, due to their small size. However, the number of positive responses to invitations associated with interviews is shown in table 5.4, classified on the basis of company size.

Table 5.4 Number of Interviews for large companies and small and medium companies

Large Companies		Small and Medium Companies		Total	
IR	IC	IR	IC	IR	IC
15	12	15	8	30	20

Abbreviations: IR Interviews Requested IC Interviews Conducted

The 20 interviews shown in table 5.4 were conducted between November and December 2008. Overall, each interview lasted on average about two hours in the manager's office. Interviews were conducted according to region, starting with companies in the eastern region in which the researcher resides. These took one week to complete. The interviews for the central region were also completed in one week. Finally, it took two weeks to conduct the interviews in the west region of Libya, due to the travelling time involved.

5.9 Survey Management

After designing the questionnaire, the pilot testing and emendations, and the selection of the population sample, the questionnaire was used to collect data related to the research. The last step of survey management is a quite significant one, since it determines the rate of response to the survey. As Jobber and O'Reilly (1996) say, there are five methods used to increase the rate of response in the questionnaire, which are information via telephone, pre-paid financial motivations, un-financial motivations, free stamps for returning envelopes and unidentified observation questionnaires.

In this study, 110 questionnaires were sent out in October 2008. These questionnaires aimed to generate a high response rate by supplying free stamps. The questionnaires targeted the human resources manager or the person responsible for T&D/HRD, and this was clearly specified in the covering letter enclosed with the questionnaire (see Appendix A). Each questionnaire contained a small number in one of its corners indicating the code of the company which was supplied by the researcher to identify the response of each company, the name of which was not written in the questionnaire.

The process of collecting data took 4 months (October 2008 to February 2009). The initial rate of response was low, due to several problems encountered by the researcher as outlined in the following section. The reminder letters were sent at three stages. First, follow-

up inclusion of the questionnaire and pre-paid stamped addressed envelopes, these were sent after three weeks from the initial sending of the questionnaire to the population. This is followed by a second follow-up by mail after another three weeks, a third follow-up was e-mailed to the population with a covering letter. The final number of survey responses was 102. Topics related to double responses were investigated; responses received via the electronic mail bore the company's name with the electronic mail, and this necessitated checking for any duplication.

5.10 Response Rate and Difficulties Facing the Researcher

As mentioned above, the covering letter attached to each questionnaire clarified who should answer the questionnaire, and the letter also said that the company should ask any personnel responsible for HRD or T&D to ensure directing the questionnaire to the right person. In the case of not having a person responsible for HRD or T&D, the questionnaire will be completed by the human resources manager. Among 110 questionnaires sent, 102 questionnaires were returned, and the final rate of response was 92.7%. After investigating and filtering data, it was evident that there were 98 questionnaires valid for analysis. The rate of total response was 89.1%. The high response rate can be explained in terms of Libyan culture and social relationships. By and large, people are cooperative and willing to give time to researchers needing data and information.

As O'Reilly (1998) observed "There does appear to be a tendency for stamped return envelopes to result in higher returns than business reply envelopes". An additional reason for the high response can be attributed to the considerable interest shown in the research topic by the participating organisations. Positive feedback was expressed during the pilot study and the second follow-up, when the researcher contacted some organisations by phone. This was also reflected in their written comments and suggestions in the questionnaire, and their insistence

on receiving a copy of the findings (96.2% of the returned questionnaires). All these matters led to the researcher's ability to receive a high rate of responses after a numbers of reminder initiatives. Among other difficulties which faced the researcher during the survey, was receiving incomplete questionnaires, other ones being answered randomly and other questionnaires containing answers for the first part (information of the company) and the second part (background and personal information) without any answers to any other parts. Accordingly, only 56 responses from larger companies and 42 from small and medium companies were clear and valid (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 Response rates by size of Companies

Size of Company	Number of Questionnaire Distributed	Number of Valid Questionnaire Returned	Response Rate
Small and Medium Companies (SMCs)	54	42	77.8%
Large Companies (LMCs)	56	56	100%
Total	110	98	89.1%

5.11 Ethics and Gaining Access

The ability to conduct interviews depends on obtaining access to proper sources. Gummesson (1991) states that to hold interviews, the first level of access is physical access or entry into the organisation. However, gaining physical access can be difficult for a number of reasons stemming from the individuals or organisations concerned (Saunders et al., 2009). For instance, these reasons include social issues related to not having the desire to co-operate, lack of time, the nature of the company and some reasons due to being occupied with business or political issues.

All social science researchers have an ethical obligation to protect the welfare of the people they study, and the researcher carefully thought through the likely impact on the participants during each stage of the survey. The specific ethical issues stated below were addressed by the researcher to safeguard the rights of the participants in the research activities:

Respondents were informed that participation in the survey was voluntary and that they had the right to decline to respond to any question asked. The researcher explained the objectives and the importance of the research, and clarified the importance of their answers in obtaining reliable results and enabling the researcher to design a good framework for HRD activities.

It was made clear to the participants that any information submitted would be used for the purpose of academic research in the context of a PhD project, and that it would not be used for any other purpose. Respondents were reassured that information submitted would be stored and collected securely and in confidence, both in electronic and paper format. The researcher promised that he would represent the collected data honestly and analyse it to the best of his experience and ability. Provision had been made to respond to queries and problems raised by the participants during the course of the study.

When the researcher was allowed to enter the company, all respondents showed clear co-operation. Some human resources managers and the General Manager of one of the companies welcomed the researcher and volunteered to be interviewed. Before commencing with the interview, the respondents were given a brief idea about the general structure of the interview, and agreement on the audio recording of interviews was obtained, and information providers were reassured that their data was confidential and their names would not be mentioned. Respondents presented documentary evidence to the researcher, such as training

plans or annual training timings, ISO certificates of quality, reports on the company's objectives and the objectives of T&D. Some of them offered files related to the training activities of their company through the course of the interview. Most of the respondents asked the researcher whether he would like to be taken on a tour of the company and actually, the researcher took a tour of several companies and production factories.

After finishing tours and interviews, respondents were thanked for their time, assistance and contribution to the research. Respondents expressed their desire to help and asked for a summary of the research as soon as the PhD thesis was completed. After concluding the interviews, a letter of appreciation was sent to all respondents, thanking them for participating and contributing to the research.

5.12 Reliability and validity

The success of any survey is associated with reliability and validity. Reliability is a measure of whether a tool measures what it is designed for? In this context, it is noted that scales reflect the reality of measured elements. On the other hand, validity is concerned with consistency of measuring (Ghauri et al., 2002). In this study, the validity and reliability of this research were certified by several methods. Some methods which were used to enhance reliability and validity included evaluating the apparent reliability, validity analysing, and triangulation. Clarifying the validity of the research was not done isolated from reliability.

First: reliability was evaluated through asking others who had information on the subject matter about their performance (Ghauri et al., 2002). In this case, the questionnaire was shared with other PhD students in the University of Gloucestershire and feedback was collected. The second strategy used was the pilot tests of the questionnaire through 12 managers of HRD, who were responsible for HRD in their companies. These two tests were concerned with any ambiguity in questions and whether questions were easily understood or

not. In order to verify the validity and reliability of measurement, questionnaires were changed after listening to all relative comments. Among the other methods used to verify the reliability of results, interviews were conducted face to face with the human resources manager in each company. Responses resulting from interviews enhanced the validity and reliability of the investigative survey through verifying the apparent reliability.

Second: analysing validity was used to test the credibility and reliability of results. Validity analyses of all scales illustrated that Cronbach Alpha Values were more than 7, which is a number higher than the minimum limit clarified by Nunnally, (1978). The exceptions were two co-efficients that returned alpha values of 4 and 6, (for training centre and analysing needs respectively). However, Nunnally, (1978) said that low Cronbach Alpha Values depend on the number of parts in the scale (less than 10 in this case). Furthermore, Pallant, (2001) said that the different levels of validity require different levels or degrees in the scale, depending on the nature and target of measuring.

Third: triangulation methods suggested by Ghauri et al., (2002) are ones through which precise results reflect the real situation by combining two different methods in which the situation is considered by two different types of results. In such a case, the mixed methods of integrating the technique of questionnaire and interview when collecting information, helps in enhancing the reliability and validity of results (see section 4.5.3). For example, in the questionnaire survey, respondents were asked questions with various options. During interviews, a respondent was asked the same type of question, but answers were open allowing for the pure opinions of the respondent and reducing any pressures from the researcher. Furthermore, respondents were asked to comment on some of their responses, and they were asked the same questions in different ways to confirm their initial responses.

Moreover, the validity and reliability of the results were compared and checked for consistency with the responses from the other interviews. Creswell (2003) noticed that strategies for examining the validity of qualitative results are limited and he said that examining consistency in patterns and plans is indispensable. On the other hand, it has been argued by several authors that the reliability and generalisability of qualitative results is not of high importance, as the strength of qualitative data lies in obtaining accurate firsthand findings (Huberman & Miles, 2002; and Flick, 2002). Finally, before the end of each interview, a quick presentation of a summary of the interview was made to ensure agreement about its contents. In this case, we can say that the respondent responded correctly; as Ghauri et al, (2002) said that the initial results of an interview must be revised by the respondent in light of the respondents' approval and reaction. However, several authors, such as Silverman, (2005); Ghauri et al., (2002); Saunders et al., (2000); and Oppenheim, (2001), have said that there is not a satisfactory method for examining the credibility and validity of results. Efforts were exerted to enhance the reliability and validity of results, such as selecting the whole sample to generalize results, setting a precise questionnaire, examining the evidence of the questionnaire, asking questions in interviews and using appropriate procedures for statistical analysis.

5.13 Analyzing Data

The data analysis is discussed in two sections, namely: survey data analysis and interview data analysis.

5.13.1 Data of Interview

There is no standardised approach to analysing qualitative data, since the nature of qualitative data implies that it cannot be collected in a standardised way. Therefore there are many qualitative research traditions and approaches, with the result that there are also different strategies to deal with the data collected (Saunders et al., 2007).

To analyse the qualitative data by this study it was necessary to apply content analysis coding methods suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994, and 1998). Miles & Huberman (1994) and Voss (2002) argue that preparing data for the analysis involves three steps: reducing data into categories, grouping the similar categories and giving these similar categories codes. The coding has three forms (Miles & Huberman, 1994, Ezzy, 2002 and Voss 2002):

(1) Open coding – descriptors of the interviewees' attitudes, experiences, and values with regard to human resource development in organizations, in general, and to training and other flexible work practices, specifically;

(2) Axial coding – identification of the connections between the categories that emerge from the open coding process, resulting in patterns that reveal relationships between properties and dimensions of categories; and

(3) Selective coding – development of the central phenomenon in the study which emerges from systematically relating core categories to other categories.

As a result of this process, the researcher can identify and describe “the main analytic story line” that has been discovered through the course of the study (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 144).

Coding is critical to the content of data analysis. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998), “Coding represents the operations by which data are broken down, conceptualized, and put back together in new ways. It is the central process by which theories are built from data” (p. 57), the data are coded and analyzed continuously as they are being collected, enabling the researcher to apply logical deductive methods to verify theory. (See more details on analysing qualitative data in Appendix F).

5.13.2 Survey Data Analysis

The completed questionnaires were coded and initially entered into the Excel programme, in which the data were colour-coded to identify and distinguish the different factors. Once the researcher was familiar with the data, they were transferred into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme. The responses from the open-ended questions were grouped according to the specific questions where they were related to. In the case of the general questions, the responses were grouped and categorized according to the relevant themes.

Prior to analysing the data, the data set were screened for errors. As Pallant (2002) states, errors can distort data and the subsequent analysis may be incorrect. Hence, while coding and entering the data into the SPSS Package, irregularities such as non responses, missing items and incorrect responses were identified. These irregularities were screened and cleaned up, as suggested by Pallant (2002). For example, in this study, the researcher disregarded any questionnaire that had no responses or a lot of missing data. In four of the questionnaires, half of the questions were not answered; these were rejected, leaving a total sample of 98. Furthermore, a check for outliers was conducted to identify any out-of-range responses. In addition, a descriptive frequency analysis was carried out; this also served to check for extreme cases or irregularities in the responses.

Descriptive statistics, also called exploratory statistics, involve the transformation of raw data into a form that would provide information to describe a set of factors in a situation. This was accomplished through ordering and manipulating the raw data collected (Sekaran, 2003). Descriptive statistics include frequencies, measure of central tendency (mean, median and mode) and measure of dispersion (range, standard deviation). It was found that descriptive or exploratory statistics, were the most appropriate approach, since the nature of the study

objectives and questions is to explore, discover and describe the current situations and practices of T&D in terms of training implementation process, delivery methods and training evaluation, in the manufacturing sector in Libya, rather than testing particular hypotheses. In this regard, Hair et al. (2003, p. 252) declare that, "data is collected in business research for two broad purposes-discovery and hypothesis testing. When the purpose is discovery the researcher uses descriptive statistics. When the purpose is hypothesis testing the researcher uses inferential statistics". To compare significant differences between groups, a Chi-Square test of independence, independent samples T-test and Mann-Whitney U test were deployed to make comparisons between groups of SMCs and LMCs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996; Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2001).

5.14 Summary

This chapter aimed to clarify the strategies, methods and procedures used to investigate the human resources development of manufacturing companies in Libya. This chapter discussed the main research design used in this study, which is a combined method of both quantitative and qualitative methods as well as presenting the reason for using this approach. A phenomenological view was considered as the most appropriate research philosophy, because it focuses on trying to understand a social setting, and develops ideas through induction from data.

Therefore, investigative surveys and interviews were used in this study to explore the current HRD practices in terms of how they are conducted in the context of the manufacturing sector in Libya in order to contribute to not only the description of such practices in Libya, but to contribute to the theoretical understanding of the HRD or SHRD concept in an international context.

In designing and formulating the questionnaire, reasons for using structured and unstructured questions were justified. Reasons for conducting a survey for each group instead of a simple sample, and reasons for taking samples from respondents of interviews were illustrated. Samples were taken from respondents to generalise results to the whole group, as well as considering the types and locations of the companies represented by respondents. Respondents were chosen on the basis of the size of the companies they worked for (12 from LMCs and 8 from SMCs), their geographical proximity to the researcher, and their availability at the time interviews were due to be conducted.

The process of managing surveys, ethics and access to organizations were briefly discussed. In this case, the ethical issues were addressed by the researcher to safeguard the rights of the participants in the research activities, and an explanation was given of why access

to manufacturing companies was relatively easy despite the expected problems related to the non-participation of some companies (5.10). Matters related to the legitimacy and credibility of scales and results were clarified. Finally, statistical methods of analysing the data of surveys and methods used in analysing data of interviews were illustrated. In the following chapter, the research findings related to the background profiles of companies and respondents who participated in the survey and interviews will be highlighted and presented in relation to the Libyan environmental context. In terms of this context, this study was conducted in a country moving (slowly) from an economic system based on the dominance of the public sector and largely controlled by the state, to an economy with some degree of competitiveness and entrepreneurship. It was necessary to draw the themes and content of this research from the available literature, which mostly concerns studies conducted in advanced economies, and these themes informed the research objectives and determined the shape of the research instrument, however, there was inevitably a division between the techniques employed in advanced economies and the situation the researcher found in actual Libyan manufacturing companies. Without the triangulation effect made possible by the qualitative (interview) part of the research, this study's results would have been difficult to interpret, given the highly unusual circumstances of the Libyan economy.

Chapter Six

Analyses of respondents' profiles and HRD structure

6.1: Introduction

In earlier chapters, previous T&D/HRD studies were examined and the relevant literature was reviewed. Also presented in the previous chapter was the rationale for the choice of research instruments, which was shaped by the research objectives. Having concluded the literature review and justified the choice of research instruments employed, an attempt to answer some of the research questions raised, employing a survey questionnaire and face-to-face interviews, will be made in this chapter.

This chapter analyses and discusses the results, which are presented in two sections according to the questionnaire survey. This chapter includes all responses to the questionnaire and interviews. The first section is divided into two parts; the first part presents descriptive analysis of the background profiles of participating companies and survey respondents for T&D/HRD employees of these companies. The second part analyses T&D/HRD structure within manufacturing companies and investigates characteristics of HRD such as T&D/HRD regulatory structure, plans and policies, strategies, and T&D/HRD budgets in an attempt to answer the first research question: What are the purposes, concepts and characteristics of T&D/HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya?

This first section presents an analysis of descriptive frequency to investigate distribution contradictions and statistical analysis such as Chi-square test, comparing the company sizes, and principal component analysis (PCA) will be deployed where appropriate. The various statistical

significance tests are deployed based on the types of data in each analysis. The Chi-Square test for independence is applied to analyse categorical data, whereas the Mann-Whitney U test is computed on continuous data.

The second section addresses the second and third research questions. It includes HRD activities and how they are carried out, and investigates major challenges faced by T&D/HRD practitioners in carrying out HRD within their organisations effectively.

It is expected that the research findings shown in this study will provide insights into some of the questions raised in conceptualising HRD in the manufacturing companies. This will be achieved by employing the use of statistical analysis, interview data and quotes, supported by related literature. Hence, statistical techniques of frequency distribution and means comparison are used to present and show questionnaire results through tables. In addition to the usage of these measures, statements from interviews are quoted to illustrate relevant points to support and complement the questionnaire data. Finally, these analyses are supported or challenged by the literature. Combining statistical analyses results with descriptive interviews and interviews quoted in the literature will answer the survey questions and conclude the final results.

6.2 Background of participating companies:

Features of the backgrounds of participating companies are discussed through:

- 1- Industrial sector of manufacturing companies
- 2- Owners of Companies
- 3- Number of years in which companies were integrated
- 4- Number of the companies' employees.

First: Manufacturing companies are categorised according to company size and manufactured products, as shown in table 6.1. Among the whole population of 110, the final number of participating companies in this study is 98, which can be divided into 57.1% of the total population consisting of large companies (LMCs), and 42.9% small and medium companies (SMCs). Of the total number of respondents, 20.4% belonged to the food and drinks industry, and LMCs and SMCs by percentages represented 17.8% and 23.8% of their total categories respectively (see table 6.1). It is not surprising to find the majority of respondents are from the food and drinks industries, as this represents the largest group in the manufacturing sector, 20.8% of the manufacturing sample. As shown in table 6.1, a high percentage of respondents were from the largest four industries in the manufacturing sector. There is no significant difference between the LMCs and SMCs in relation to respondents of different industries. ($\chi^2 = 33.510$, $df = 11$, $p = .000$) and the data follow the normal distributions, with a mean of 6.10 and standard deviation 2.916. This indicates that the survey covered nearly all industries with equal shares from among the LMCs and SMCs.

Table 6.1 Frequency distribution of Libyan industry types by Company size

Types of Industry	Company size				Total	
	Large companies (LMCs)		Small and Medium companies (SMCs)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1- Food and drinks (ind.6)	10	17.8	10	23.8	20	20.4
2- Furniture, carpets and wooden products (ind.3)	8	14.3	6	14.3	14	14.3
3- Plastic and rubber products (ind.9)	9	16.0	3	7.1	12	12.2
4- Manufacturing and Mineral Products(ind.8)	6	10.7	3	7.1	9	9.2
5- Textiles, wearing apparels & leather (ind.7)	5	8.9	3	7.1	8	8.2
6- Power and Electronics (ind.5)	1	1.8	6	14.3	7	7.1
7- Chemicals and oils (ind.2)	5	8.9	2	4.8	7	7.1
8- Non-mineral products (ind.10)	2	3.6	3	7.1	5	5.1
9- Machines, cars, motors and vehicles (ind.1)	3	5.4	2	4.8	5	5.1
10- Printing and Writing Paper (ind.4)	3	5.4	1	2.4	4	4.1
11- Concretes-cement-iron (ind.11)	2	3.6	2	4.8	4	4.1
12- Other (-medical products – glass) (ind.12)	2	3.6	1	2.4	3	3.1
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

Secondly: At the beginning of chapter two (section 2.3.7), it is mentioned that at the beginning of the 1970s, the majority of professionals and administrative personnel in the manufacturing part of the economy were non-Libyan (Maguire, 2007, pp. 6-14). Although international companies opened up in Libya and encouraged foreign investments, more than 90% of participating companies in this survey (91.1% of LMCs and 92.9% of SMCs) claimed that they were fully owned by native Libyans (as shown in bold type in table 6.2). There was no manufacturing company wholly owned by foreigners. Of the remainders, 8.2% of companies were joint ventures partly owned by Libyans and foreigners. It was clear from the literature that the corporate structure of a company is affected by ownership and the company's financial situation (Harrison, 2000).

On the other hand, the Chi-Square test found out that distribution of ownership among the three types of owners differs significantly between LMCs and SMCs among Libyan manufacturing companies $\{\chi^2 = 7.746, p = < 0.05\}$. It seems that the majority of companies are fully owned by native Libyans. This may be a result of governmental initiatives to encourage and support natives to establish their own businesses (Libyan Government, 2004). Or it may be the result of efforts to adapt to the Arab environment what has been developed in other environments especially in Europe and North America section (4.3.2).

Table 6.2 Frequency distribution of company ownership by Company size

Ownership	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
100% locally owned	51	91.1	39	92.9	90	91.8
100 % foreign owned	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Joint venture with foreign company	5	8.9	3	7.1	8	8.2
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

Third: The period that companies have been established in Libya varies from less than 10 years to well over forty years (see table 6.3). Large groups of respondent companies have been working for 20 to 39 years; about 78.6% of LMCs and 61.9% of SMCs belong to this group of companies. Companies working for less than 10 years represented 19.0% of SMCs and 3.6% of LMCs. Nearly 5.4% of respondent companies were LMCs which had been working for more than 40 years and were considered to be the oldest companies included in the study sample.

Table 6.3 Frequency distribution of company age by company size

Number of years companies established	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
below 10 years	2	3.6	8	19.0	10	10.2
10-19 years	7	12.5	7	16.7	14	14.3
20-29 years	15	26.8	15	35.7	30	30.6
30-39 years	29	51.8	11	26.2	40	40.8
40-49 years	3	5.4	1	2.4	4	4.1
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

Fourth: As mentioned in the previous chapter, this study focuses on LMCs and SMCs in Libya. These companies' size are categorised as follows: companies in the manufacturing sector that have more than 250 employees are categorised as Large Manufacturing Companies (LMCs) and companies that have 250 employees or fewer are categorised as Small Manufacturing Companies (SMCs) (Mankin, 2009). In the SMCs, more than a half of the respondent companies had between 100-250 employees (bold type in table 6.4) and nearly 47.6% of companies had fewer than 100 employees.

Table 6.4 Frequency distribution of Number of Employees by Company size

Number of Employees	Company size				Total	
	LMCs (N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Fewer than 100 employees	0	0.0	20	47.6	20	20.4
100-250 employees	0	0.0	22	52.4	22	24.5
251-599 employees	17	30.4	0	0.0	17	17.3
600-999 employees	14	25.0	0	0.0	14	14.3
1000-1999 employees	22	39.3	0	0.0	22	22.4
2000-2999 employees	3	5.5	0	0.0	3	3.1
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

In contrast in the LMCs, 30.4% of respondent companies had 251-600 employees and 25.0% of companies had 600-999 employees, while less than 40% of companies had more than 1000 employees and only 5.5% of companies had 2000-3000 employees. It should be mentioned that the lowest number of employees in the LMCs was 280 and the highest was 2700. In the SMCs the lowest number of employees was 50, and the highest was 250. It is very important to define the number of employees of participating companies since it is agreed that the number of employees in an organisation can influence the extent and nature of T&D/HRD development (Megginson et al., 2000, Nadler & Nadler, 1989). The above discussion summarised general data about participating companies. The following section will discuss the background profiles of survey respondents. Their profiles will be discussed in two categories (questionnaire and interview respondents).

6.3. Background profiles of survey respondents

This part will discuss background profiles of survey respondents according to their age, qualifications, job title, years in their current job, and experience in HRD or T&D. These profiles are examined using descriptive analysis according to their repetitive distribution and compared with each other to highlight significant differences between companies of different

sizes, using a Chi-Square test to compare variables. These variables of data can be assessed by using the Mann-Whitney U test. This will be useful in defining the kind of individuals responsible for T&D/HRD in the sampled companies, because those respondents are the people who really manage HRD processes. According to the results of these analyses a decisive analysis and discussion for reaching a final conclusion about the personal backgrounds of T&D/HRD practitioners in the Libyan manufacturing sector is developed.

6.3.1-Survey respondents' gender and age

Of the total number of respondents (table 6.5), more than three quarters were males and the remaining 18% were female. The table gives a clear indication of a significant difference between the LMCs and SMCs, with proportionately more women respondents in SMCs, $\{\chi^2 = 39.224, df = 1, p = .000\}$ with a mean of 1.183 and standard deviation 0.389.

Table 6.5 Frequency distribution of respondents' gender by Company size

Gender	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	48	85.7	32	76.2	80	81.6
Female	8	14.3	10	23.8	18	18.4
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

Respondent's ages ranged from mid-thirties to late forties. In nearly 82.2% of LMCs and 78.6% of SMCs the respondents' ages ranged from 30 to 50 years (see table 6.18). In the lower age range (from 25 to 35 years) there were no respondents who were responsible for T&D/HRD in LMCs or SMCs. Some respondents belonged to the higher age range (over 50 years old)

however, these respondents, in both the LMCs and SMCs represented less than 20% of the total. So we find that the majority of T&D/HRD employees are middle-aged, with a minority at the upper end of the age range. The average age of respondents was 40 years. Indeed, most of these respondents are found to be significantly older in the LMCs than SMCs ($Z=2.419$, $p=0.016$, $p < 0.05$). Nevertheless, maturity of respondents in terms of age implies that they have the necessary experience and capability to run the HRD function, which is continuously evolving and is sometimes described as a difficult function to manage by authors and researchers (see for example, Iles & Yolles, 2003; Mankin, 2001; Lee, 2003). It may be possible to reach a conclusion on this proposition in the subsequent analysis of findings.

Table 6.6 Frequency distribution of respondents' age by Company size

Age	Company size				Total	
	LMCs (N=56)		SMCs (N=42)		N	%
	N	%	N	%		
25 - 30 years old	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
31 - 35 years old	14	25.0	6	14.3	20	20.4
36 - 40 years old	15	26.8	15	35.7	30	30.6
46 - 50 years old	17	30.4	12	28.6	29	29.6
51 - 55 years old	8	14.3	9	21.4	17	17.3
56 - 60 years old	2	3.6	0	0.0	2	2.2
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

6.3.2 Survey respondents' highest educational level

Education level usually means the formal primary, secondary, and higher education levels. In the modern arena of management, level of education may indicate the knowledge level and the ability of directors to manage. So, T&D/HRD practitioners' education level may be a significant

factor in assessing their abilities to work, manage, and coordinate. This study found that 65.3% of respondents had higher education qualifications such as Bachelor degrees, vocational degrees, and advanced diplomas (table 6.7). 14.3% of the respondents had the highest level of education, such as an MA degree, in both the LMCs and SMCs. The significance test indicated significant differences between the LMCs and SMCs respondents' level of qualifications $\{\chi^2=54.78, p=.000, p< .01\}$. Low (1998) asserts that there is an increasing demand for high level education of manpower, especially in manufacturing industries. In T&D/HRD, communications and languages may affect the demand for higher education for HRD practitioners (Alzalabani, 2002; Desimone et al., 2002). On the other hand, a few respondents (2.4%) admitted that they had received no further education other than at high school and 18.2% only obtained the certificate level of education. Therefore, the concern here is with the impact that this level of education has on T&D/HRD practitioners' ability to perform the responsibilities in HRD effectively. This may be an area for investigation by future studies.

When the educational background of survey respondents was examined, an interesting finding was the variety of education levels which existed among Management, Accountancy, and Electrical Engineering respondents (Hatcher, 2000). The variety existing in this study may refer to the fact that only some T&D/HRD practitioners in the manufacturing industry in Libya have experience or knowledge related to human resource development. Indeed, it has been argued that T&D/HRD practitioners are required to have exclusive expertise and education in the field of T&D/HRD because of its specialised functions (Eidgahy, 1995; Wright, Dyer & Takls, 1999; Megginson et al., 2000; and Chermark et al., 2003). Consequently, this will represent a challenge or obstruction to the effectiveness of HRD management in the performance of Libyan manufacturing companies, if there is insufficient support, training, and knowledge among these practitioners.

Table 6.7 Frequency distribution of respondents' education by Company size

Level of Education	Company size				Total	
	LMCs (N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
LHS, HSC	8	14.3	12	28.6	20	20.6
Diploma	18	32.1	11	26.2	29	29.6
Postgraduate Degree	21	37.5	14	33.3	35	35.7
Masters Degree	9	16.1	5	11.9	14	14.3
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

6.3.3 Survey respondent's job title

As shown in table 6.8, personnel responsible for T&D/HRD in LMCs mostly gave as their job title Human Resource Director, (21.4%), and Training Manager (41.1%), also, 12.5% of respondents mentioned the job title Manager of Learning and Development, with just a few other job titles mentioned, such as HRD Manager and General Manager. There was a contrary scenario in SMCs, where 40.5% of respondents were called General Manager, and Training Manager was the title used by 33.3% of respondents. This verified the results of the Chi-Square test about the big difference $\{\chi^2 = 112.78, p = .000\}$. An interesting finding is that the job title of the respondents responsible for T&D/HRD varies. These changed from Human Resource Director and HRD Manager to Manager of Learning and Development, Training Manager and General Manager. Other titles of the respondents' jobs included: Personnel, TQM, Quality Assurance, Director, Production Manager, Personnel and Administration Manager.

Despite the fact that their jobs are varied and may not seem to be related to HRD, these personnel are indeed responsible for T&D/HRD activities in their organisations, but their level of commitment to T&D can be challenged. This is most often true in the SMCs. The notion that personnel other than HRD and training staff may be responsible for T&D/HRD activities is

evident in the literature, as in the case of personnel or HR staff being responsible for T&D/HRD activities and (Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003).

Table 6.8 Frequency distribution of respondents' job title by company size

Job title	Company size				Total	
	LMCs (N =56))		SMCs(N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Human resource director	12	21.4	1	2.4	13	13.3
HRD manager	4	7.1	0	0.0	4	4.1
Manager of learning and development department	7	12.5	0	0.0	7	7.1
Training manager	23	41.1	14	33.3	37	37.8
General manager	2	3.6	17	40.5	19	19.4
Others	8	14.3	10	23.8	18	18.4
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

6.3.4 Survey respondents' years in current job

The period spent by the employee in the organisation or their current job is an indicator of dedication to work, and commitment towards the job and organisation. In this study, nearly a quarter of the survey respondents (16.1% in LMCs and 35.7% in SMCs) is permanent employees in their current job and has spent between 5-10 years in it (see table 6.9). At the lower end, more than 5.4% of the survey respondents in the LMCs and 33.3% of those in SMCs had spent fewer than 5 years in their current job. There were some loyal employees who had spent more than 10 years in their current job in both LMCs (57.2%) and SMCs (30.9%). A few employees (21.4%) had spent more than 20 years in their current position, especially in the LMCs.

The longest period of any respondent in their current job was 30 years in LMCs, and 18 in the SMCs, with an average of 7.5 years in both types of company. This means that respondents did not stay in their jobs for a long time. This scenario has positive and negative points. One of the positive points is the opportunities for career progression, which explains why respondents may

not have been in their current positions for very long. On the negative side, respondents may not have the ambition to advance, but only want to move from one company to another. Hence, they are not concerned with the company they work for, but they want promotion and other benefits such as higher salaries and higher positions. This supposition is supported by many of the interview respondents.

I expect that the trend culture of our career will be "the hope for job". As you know and as I think, the more you have hope in getting a job the more you will be marketable.....and if you are famous in the market, other organisations will be interested in you (HR director- Power and Electronics- SMC)

I have been in this job (HR) for more than 10 years but I have worked for three companies. In the first company I was appointed as an executive (CEO) of HR and after three years I moved to another company in which I worked as a manager of HR (with a high salary and advancement). And now I have been in this company for 4 years and I am still in HR in the same field, which is better than my previous company (HR director of a food and drinks industry-LMC).

From analysis, we can conclude that the personnel who are responsible for T&D/HRD may not be willing to stay in a job for more than 10 years, except a few of them who have special circumstances, and the permanent employees who have worked for more than 10 or 20 years. The above analysis refers to vocational expectations, work environment, and many other factors that may negatively affect T&D/HRD practitioners to stay loyal and committed to their jobs and tasks. This situation obviously has implications for the continuity of T&D provision, and affects a company's ability to adopt a coherent HRD policy.

Table 6.9 Frequency distribution of respondents' years in current job by Company size

Years	Company size				Total	
	LMCs (N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less than 5 years	3	5.4	14	33.3	17	17.3
5 - 10 years	9	16.1	15	35.7	24	24.5
11 – 15 years	17	30.4	8	19.0	25	25.5
16 – 20 years	15	26.8	5	11.9	20	20.4
20 years and above	12	21.4	0	0.0	12	12.2
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

6.3.5 Survey respondents' previous experience in T&D

With regard to the period of experience respondents bring to their current jobs, it will be useful to consider their previous experience in T&D/HRD, as we have seen how much educational background may vary between respondents. Examining the respondents' experience prior to their current jobs, together with the number of years' T&D/HRD experience in their current job, will allow conclusions to be drawn regarding the abilities and knowledge of these respondents in the field of T&D/HRD, despite being educated in other non-HRD related disciplines.

As shown in table (6.10), more than a third (39.3%) of the survey respondents of LMCs had 5-10 years of experience in T&D/HRD and over a fifth (21.4%) has more than 10 years of experience in T&D/HRD. A few of them (5.4%) have more than 20 years experience. At the lower end, 8.9% of respondents have less than five years of experience and 1.8% has no experience in T&D/HRD at all. The longest time spent in the T&D/HRD field in the SMCs and LMCs was 24 years and 30 years respectively. The results indicate that the respondents have an experience average of 10 years in LMCs and six years in SMCs (a significant difference) ($Z = 6.99, p = .000$). The results also indicate that some of respondents had basic experience in T&D/HRD, unlike others who had no experience at all.

Table 6.10 Frequency distribution of respondents' T&D experience by Company size

Years of experience	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=56))		SMCs(N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
No T&D experience	1	1.8	2	4.8	3	3.1
Less than 5 years	5	8.9	9	21.4	14	14.3
5 - 10 years	22	39.3	11	26.2	33	33.3
11 – 15 years	12	21.4	12	28.6	24	24.5
16 – 20 years	13	23.2	6	14.3	19	19.4
20 years and above	3	5.4	2	5.4	5	5.1
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

6.4 Background profiles of interview respondents

While the questionnaire survey was anonymous and the researcher had no means of classifying responses by company or sector, in the interview stage the researcher was aware of identify of the interviewee their company and its sector. This allowed for a greater of degree of generalisation in terms of sector for the qualitative data collected. Having examined the background profiles of the questionnaire respondents, this section will consider only the background profiles of the interview respondents, who were some of the same people who responded to the questionnaire. It is important to present a brief overview of the background profiles of interview respondents, in order to understand the respondents who were interviewed and to confirm the outcomes of the interviews. This section summarises and discusses the interviews conducted in participating companies and the profiles of respondents, under the following headings:

- (1) Industrial sector of companies that participated in the interviews.
- (2) Number of employees employed by companies interviewed
- (3) The personal profiles of interviewees by company size.

First; While the questionnaire survey examined the profiles of respondents from twelve types of industry (see table 6.1); the interviews focused on only nine of them. The industry types that were most strongly represented in the interviews were manufacturing and mineral products (25.5 %) and food and drinks (25.5 %) from LMCs (see bold type in table 6.11). Participants from SMCs' were represented in a wider range of industries: in Machines, cars, motors and vehicles; furniture, carpets and wooden products; food and drinks; and non-mineral products (12.5 %) and power and electronics, plastic and rubber products (25.0 %).

Second; The employees of organisations which participated in the interviews were re-categorised according to company' size. A quarter of LMCs employed from 251 to 600 employees, while only one had 2001 to 3000 staff The largest company surveyed in the interview process was the Misrata steel company. Just over a tenth (12.5%) of SMCs employed 50-100 employees and a quarter of them (25%) had 201-250 employees. Hence, the number of employees ranged from 50 to 3000 in the SMCs and LMCs respectively. The questionnaire results were confirmed by those of the interviews in a number of industries.

Third; Personal profiles of the interview respondents may be similar to those of the questionnaire respondents; or they may differ. Consequently, comparing the profiles may indicate relevant differences. The first significant feature was the high percentage of male respondents as compared to female. This percentage was 75% in both the LMCs and SMCs. This discovery is similar to the profiles in the questionnaire survey, which showed that most senior personnel responsible for HRD in industrial companies were men. This impression was confirmed by a chairman who said that managers seeking to fill vacant positions of HRD managers in industrial companies believed that males were better suited to the job. Of the women interviewed most worked in the food and drinks industry, and they small.

Table 6.11 frequency distribution of interview respondents' companies and personal profile by company size

	Company size			
	(LMCs) N =12		(SMCs) N =8	
Types of Industry	N	%	N	%
1- Food and drinks (ind.6)	3	25.0	1	12.5
2- Furniture, carpets and wooden products (ind.3)	2	16.7	1	12.5
3- Plastic and rubber products (ind.9)	1	8.3	2	25.0
4-Manufacturing and Mineral Products(ind.8)	3	25.0	-	-
5- Textiles, wearing apparels & leather (ind.7)	2	16.7	-	-
6- Power and Electronics (ind.5)	-	-	2	25.0
7- Concretes-cement-iron (ind.11)	1	8.3	-	-
8-Non-mineral products (ind.10)	-	-	1	12.5
9- Machines, cars, motors and vehicles (ind.1)	-	-	1	12.5
Number of Employees				
50 - 100 employees(ind.6)	-		1	12.5
101-150 employees(ind.9)(ind.5)	-		2	25.0
151-200 employees(ind.5)(ind.9)(ind.3)	-		3	37.5
201-250 employees(ind.1)(ind.10)	-		2	25.0
251-600 employees(ind.3)(ind.6)(ind.7)	3	25.0	-	
601-1000 employees(ind.6)(ind.3)(ind.8)(ind.6)	4	33.3	-	
1001-2000 employees(ind.9)(ind.8)(ind.7)(ind.8)	4	33.3	-	
2001-3000 employees(ind.11)	1	8.4	-	
Gender				
Male	9	75.0	6	75.0
Female	3	25.0	2	25.0
Age				
30 – 39 years old	4	33.3	2	25.0
40 – 49 years old	6	50.0	3	37.5
50 – 60 years old	2	16.7	3	37.5
Education				
LHS, HSC(ind.5)(ind.9)	2	16.7	1	12.5
Diploma(ind.10)(ind.1)(ind.3)	2	16.7	2	25.0
postgraduate Degree(ind.3)(ind.5)(ind.7)(ind.8)	5	41.6	4	50.0
Masters Degree (ind.11)(ind.6)	3	25.0	1	12.5
Job title				
HRD Manager (ind.6, ind.11)	3	25.0	1	12.5
HR director (ind.3) (ind.8)	3	25.0	-	-
Training Manager(ind.5)(ind.7)	2	16.7	3	37.5
Personnel and administration Manager	2	16.7	2	25.0
General Manager(ind.8)(ind.7)(ind.9)	1	8.3	2	25.0
Manager of learning and development department	1	8.3	-	-

The manager of HRD said "senior chairmen are wanted in this industry to control the employees in the factory. Especially those who have senior expertise in the army, or anything like that; these managers are most wanted because of their expertise in controlling and leading the employees in the factory". (HRD Manager; Concrete-Cement-Iron LMC)

The dominance of males in senior T&D/HRD positions in manufacturing industries in Libya has resulted from the nature, role and levels of T&D/HRD in factories. This factor is responsible for the high percentage of middle aged T&D/HRD employees. It is widely believed in Libya that if a person is male and middle-aged, he will be able to manage and control the employees in manufacturing companies who are difficult to manage. It was noticeable that employees reached more senior positions in the large companies at an earlier age. In addition the level of education of interview respondents' does not differ from the level of education of questionnaire survey respondents. More than half of the interview respondents had a postgraduate degree qualification, and a high proportion (25.0) percent of the respondents had obtained Master's degree qualifications, particularly in the LMCs; for example companies in the Concrete-Cement-Iron sector and the Food and drink industries, this indicates that T&D or HRD personnel who were interviewed had developed their education and knowledge for career advancement. The managers interviewed suggested that it is important for personnel who had been in HR for 10 years, to have a MBA degree if they wanted to become a general manager of the company.

Finally questionnaire respondents did differ from interview respondents when giving their job titles in HRD. The title in the LMCs and the SMCs was variously Human Resources Manager, Personnel and Administration Manager, Training Manager, and General Manager. However, more than 50% of interviewed respondents in the LMCs were HRD managers and HR Directors

who were responsible for HRD for example companies in the Concrete-Cement-Iron sector and the Food and drink industries used the term 'HRD Manager', while in other industries the job title for the same function differed. HR must be considered as a significant function with HRD managers who represent human resources at board level. However, having discussed the profiles of participating companies and respondents, the next section will examine the structural arrangement of HRD by analysing HRD/T&D departments and training centres, plans, policies and strategies, finally HRD/T&D budgets will be discussed.

6.5 HRD/T&D departments and training centers;

The structure of a company may affect its strategic decisions and direction. In the same way HRD structure may affect learning, training and development within the organisation (Megginson et al., 2000). Thus, this section discusses frequency distribution of separated departments of T&D/HRD in manufacturing companies. Companies with a separate department of T&D/HRD provided the researcher with a great deal of information on the age of the departments, the current title of the department, the number of employees included in the department and the structural preparation of individual reports concerning who lead the department. Finally, the provision of training centres in manufacturing companies will be discussed as these factors affect HRD structure.

6.5.1 Presence of a separate department for T&D/HRD

One of the characteristics of effective HRD is the availability of specialised HRD personnel to manage T&D activities. All these activities can be difficult without the presence of a separate function or department. So it is important for organisations to have a separate department for T&D/HRD to help them with development of their human resources and achieving their aims. The organisations that have a separate department for T&D/HRD are able to carry out the activities of T&D more effectively than the organisations that do not have this function, due to

lack of resources such as specialised experts and specific budgets (Church & McMahn, 1996; Megginson et al., 2000). On the other hand, the literature indicated that HRD departments' positions in organisations are viewed to be insignificant to the organisational structure and to the business (Buckley & Caple, 2009). In the research 65 companies out of 98 participating companies had a separate department for HRD, 87.5% of which were in the LMCs (see table 6.12).

Table 6.12 Frequency distribution for the provision of a separate department for T&D/HRD by company size

Have separated department for HRD	Company size				Total	
	LMCs (N=56)		SMCs N=42)		N	%
	N	%	N	%		
Yes	49	87.5	16	38.1	65	66.3
No	7	12.5	26	61.9	33	33.7
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

The lack of a separate department for T&D/HRD in the SMCs is affirmed by a meeting with an SMC manager who said;

I think the size of the company and the number of employees determines the necessity for a particular HRD department. If I have a small number of employees then it is not sensible to establish a particular HRD department (executive of human resources, Power and Electronics; SMC).

The previous results indicate these companies are not emphasising the importance of a separate T&D/HRD department in their company structure and this may lead to being not effective and not strategically focused on training and development. As argued above, a structural HRD practice should ideally have a separate department for T&D/HRD.

The absence of such a department may handicap achievement of organisational aims (Drucker, 2007; Megginson et al., 2000) especially in the SMCs. However, there is substantial evidence in the literature criticising the SMCs lack of emphasis on HRDs. And if there is any such evidence it is directed mainly to T&D of employees (Hill, 2004) and (Hill & Stewart, 2000). In contrast some LMCs affirmed the importance of having separate departments for HRD. One of the interviewees with a Director of HR in a Furniture, carpets and wooden products LMC said;

Training and development of our employees is considered very important for our high administration, working and production. We think that, to achieve progress we must have trained employees, which is considered very hard without a separate HRD function.....

Otherwise, according to a Director of HR in a Furniture, carpets and wooden products LMC)

"A separate HRD department will tend to impose unrealistic plans, cause disruption, and constitute a drain on our resources ".

The results in this study conform to the study carried out in Oman by Budhwar et al., (2002). He affirmed that more than 80% of companies in Oman have an official department for human resources development. He indicated that most organisations have at least one separate department for T&D/HRD. Some organisations may well have several T&D/HRD units specialising in different aspects of T&D/HRD (Nadler & Nadler, 1989; Budhwar, 2002; McMahan & Woodman, 1992; and Church & McMahan, 1996). Despite arguments by Nadler & Nadler (1989) that having just one separate department for T&D/HRD might not be sufficient, most of the manufacturing companies in Libya do not acknowledge the importance of having such a department, let alone several. Hence, it could be said that having a separate department for T&D/HRD in the manufacturing companies in Libya is not a priority among employers particularly in the SMCs.

6.5.2 Number of years that T&D/HRD departments have been established and the names of these departments

The questionnaire survey respondents who reported a separate department for HRD or training were asked for the number of years that the department had been established and what the department was called. The study shows that the T&D/HRD department of the majority of the companies (72.3%) had been established in a period ranging from 5 to 15 years (table 6.13). In addition 20% of companies had T&D/HRD departments which had been established for a period of less than five years. The shortest period of time that these departments had been established was two years and the longest period of time was 20 years. The minority of these companies had had T&D/HRD units for only 15 years. This indicates that the majority of T&D/HRD departments were established at the beginning of the 1990s, because the government in this period introduced new laws which affected the industrial sector.

For the companies that have a separate department for HRD, the names for these departments varies from the traditional "training and development" to the more recent HRD departments or units. As in table 6.13, 9.2% of these departments were called HRD departments or units. Less than a quarter (23.1%) of these departments was called training and development. More than a third (38.5%) were called training departments. Some companies call their HRD units "Learning and development" (15.4 %), and others are called "Unit of Employees' Development and Skill Development" (13.8%). This indicates that the traditional name "training" is still used widely compared with the new name "HRD". Nevertheless, despite the varied labels for HRD, a majority of the manufacturing companies in Libyan still believe that HRD and other similar terms are about providing employees with skills and technical training, or simply regard this function as being merely about the provision of training rather than HRD.

Table 6.13 Frequency distribution for the number of years the T&D/HRD department has been established and names of these departments by Company size

Years Establish	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=49)		SMCs (N=16)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less than 5 years	4	8.2	9	56.3	13	20.0
5 - 9 years	15	30.6	7	43.8	22	33.8
10 - 14 years	25	51.0	0	0.0	25	38.5
more than 15 years	5	10.2	0	0.0	5	7.7
Total	49	100.0	16	100.0	65	100.0
Names of HRD departments	N	%	N	%	N	%
HRD department	5	10.2	1	3.6	6	9.2
Training & development	14	28.6	1	3.6	15	23.1
Training department	18	36.7	7	43.3	25	38.5
Learning and Development	7	14.3	3	18.8	10	15.4
Others	5	10.2	4	25.0	9	13.8
Total	49	100.0	16	100.0	65	100.0

Additional analysis of the interviews indicated opinions of T&D/HRD practitioners about HRD in Libya. This supports the different percentages that were discussed previously. An example is an the interview with the General Manager of a Chemicals and Oils LMC, who said,

I have been in this field for more than 10 years, and I have seen many changes in the terms from 'training' to 'HRD'. These Names like... Finance Development! So any term used in this field will mean training!

Therefore, it can be concluded that T&D/HRD practice in manufacturing companies in Libya is still not very advanced in its development. As a consequence, T&D/HRD practitioners must require specialised education and training in HRD in order to carry out a structured and systematic HRD, rather than merely providing training to employees (Garavan, 1991; Harrison 2000). This expectation is that they should become familiar with the modern term "HRD" and with more inventive terms like "employee' development", "skills development" or other similar names.

6.5.3 Structure of HRD/T&D reporting

The structure of HRD/T&D reporting within organisations ranged from ultimate responsibility lying with the Board of Directors to the Manager of Human Resources, and the percentages throughout this range were approximately equal in both LMCs and SMCs (table 6.14). Around half (52.3%) of respondents indicated that they reported to the Director of HR. Reporting to the Chief Executive Officer or General Manager represents nearly 37% of the total number of respondents. The rest, nearly 10.8 % of the total number of respondents, reported to the Board of Directors or Managers of HR.

Table 6.14 Frequency distribution for the structure of HRD/T&D reporting by Company size

Reporting structure	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=49)		SMCs (N=16)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Board of Directors	3	6.1	1	6.3	4	6.2
Chief Executive Officer	9	18.4	3	18.8	12	18.5
General Manager	9	18.4	3	18.8	12	18.5
Human Resource Director	26	53.1	8	50.0	34	52.3
Human Resource Manager	2	4.1	1	6.3	3	4.6
Total	49	100.0	16	100.0	65	100.0

Two quotations from the interviews illustrate this situation. One is from an interview with the HRD Manager in a Manufacturing and Mineral products LMC

I report directly to the Chief Executive Officer. From my point of view, the department of HRD should report to the high administration, because it has a large amount of money from the budget and finance of training. To make the HRD process fit and to accelerate acceptance, HRD employees should not report directly to the Chief Executive Officer.

And the second example is from an interview with the Training Manager of a Power and Electronics SMC

I think that reports should be presented to top management in every case, or to the Director of HR, so that the specialised training budget may be accelerated, because the Director of HR has the authority to authorize this.

Indeed, it was revealed that the practice of personnel in charge of HRD/T&D reporting to the HR Director, CEO or GM of the company was as an effective management structure. As such, it has been endorsed by Buckley and Caple (2009) who claimed that reporting to the HR Director, CEO and the GM represents direct contact with the top management of the company. This is to ensure their support and commitment (especially in terms of budgets and approvals) towards employees' training and development, rather than communicating through a proxy such as the HR or Personnel Manager. Indeed, a number of authors have contended that top management support and commitment towards HRD is imperative (see for example, Garavan 1991 & 1995; Harrison, 2000; McCracken and Wallace, 2000).

6.5.4: Number of staff working in separate departments of HRD/T&D

In order to complete the assessment of HRD/T&D departments in these companies, and despite the majority of these departments being called "training", it is necessary to examine the number of staff who works in these separate departments. It has been shown some companies had departments for human resources development; therefore, with this provision, it is accepted that there will be at least one if not several staff in the department. Companies that had a separate department for HRD/T&D had between 1 and 25 staff manning the HRD function (table 6.15). The majority of companies, representing more than 50 %, had 3 or 4 members of staff operating the HRD function. Around 12.3% of companies have only one member of staff in HRD work with the figures for SMCs and LMCs 18.8% and 10.2% respectively. Some LMCs (16.3%)

reported that they had more than six members of staff in HRD/T&D work, including internal and specialised technical trainers

Table 6.15 Frequency distribution for the number of staff in HRD/T&D departments by Company size

Number of staff in T&D/HRD departments	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=49)		SMCs (N=16)		N	%
	N	%	N	%		
One employee	5	10.2	3	18.8	8	12.3
Two employees	3	6.1	6	37.5	9	13.8
Three employees	11	22.4	5	31.3	16	24.6
Four employees	15	30.6	2	12.5	17	26.2
Five employees	7	14.3	0	0.0	7	10.8
More than six employees	8	16.3	0	0.0	8	12.3
Total	49	100.0	16	100.0	65	100.0

In contrast, in SMCs there were no more than four members of staff in HRD/T&D work. Actually, McMahn & Woodman (1989), and Church & McMahn (1996) affirm the existence of few staff who work directly in the HRD/T&D department. Nadler & Nadler, (1989) also indicate that it is probable to have more than 40 members of staff work in HRD/T&D department in LMCs. The largest number of HRD staff was found in a Food and Drinks Company in Libya, which had about 25 staff working in the HRD/T&D department. The above results indicate that manufacturing companies in Libya are comfortable with fewer staff in the HRD/T&D department. However, it has been argued that having insufficient staff to carry out HRD functions may hinder the strategic recognition of HRD/T&D (Cho et al., 1999). In addition, researchers (McMahn & Woodman 1992) affirmed the benefits of the existence of few HRD employees who are responsible for all functions and specialised activities. So the lack of specialised HRD employees may explain that widespread choice of specialised expertise which is externally resourced.

6.5.5 Other departments responsible for T&D

As mentioned previously in this chapter (section 6.5.1), more than a third (33.7%) of the respondents had no separate department in their company for HRD functions, and the majority of these companies were SMCs, (61.9%, see table 6.12). By the absence of a separate department for T&D in its structure, these companies indicated that there are other departments responsible for HRD. The majority of respondents said that HR departments were responsible for T&D in their company; this was reported by the LMCs and the SMCs at rates of 28.6% and 34.6% respectively (table 6.16). Nadler & Nadler (1989) indicated that HRD & HRM come under the auspices of HR, so the existence of HR departments is acceptable.

Table 6.16 Frequency distribution for other departments responsible for T&D by Company size

Other departments responsible for T&D	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=7)		SMCs (N=26)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Human resource department	2	28.6	9	34.6	11	33.3
Personnel Department	3	42.9	5	19.2	8	24.2
Administration & Finance / Accounts	1	14.3	8	30.8	9	27.3
Others	1	14.3	4	15.4	5	15.2
Total	7	100.0	26	100.0	33	100.0

On the other hand, approximately 42.9% in the SMCs and some 19.2% in the LMCs had personnel department responsible for T&D. Megginson et al., (2000), and Ardichvili & Gasparishili (2001) considered HRD as a part of personnel management, and that the generalist function of a personnel department still was maintained, especially in smaller companies. In addition to the absence of HR and personnel departments, SMCs had other departments such as administration and finance or accounts departments (30.8%), Quality Assurance and TQM department managing employees' training and development amounted to 15.2%. Indeed, as we

mentioned above, some of the literature has affirmed that companies that have no special function for HRD may be not able to achieve effective HRD, This may hinder its ability to carry out organised strategies and aims (Church & McMahan, 1996; Megginson et al., 2000; Huang, 2001; Budhwar, et al., 2002).

Building on from the above premise, it was revealed from the Chi-Square test for independence that the types of departments responsible for T&D function in the SMCs and the LMCs is significantly different ($\chi^2 = 95.92$, $df = 4$, $p < .001$). This outlook is confirmed by the majority of the HRD departments within the LMCs being labelled as HR departments, with very few being called "Personnel" or other similar titles. However, in the SMCs category, a variety of labels are used for HRD departments other than "HR department". Some researchers affirmed that departments as personnel and HR are responsible for T&D, especially in small organizations, (Buckley & Caple, 2009; Fernald et al., 1999; Megginson et al., 2000; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Vinten, 2000; Hill, 2004; Sadler Smith & Lean, 2004), as we see in this study.

6.5.6 Possession of training centres

In literature indicated that that it is important to establish a separate unit or department for HRD/T&D (Huang, 2001; Matthews, Megginson & Surtees, 2004), which can be seen as linking the functions and activities of T&D with other departments in almost every part of the company (Garavan et al., 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 1999; Harrison, 2000). As mentioned in section 6.5.1, more than 33.7% of companies among LMCs and SMCs companies had no separate department for HRD/T&D. Following on from this finding, the study examined whether the participating companies in the questionnaire had training centres in their company. Thirty six participating companies out of 98 had training centres (55.4 % of the LMCs, while 11.9% of the SMCs). These results indicate that 63.3% of companies had no training centre in their organised structure. This leads to from the Chi-square test of independent, that the

existence of training centers in the LMCs differs from training centres in the SMCs ($\chi^2 = 16.50$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). Most of the manufacturing companies in Libya said training centres were not necessary in their company.

This claim may have been motivated by the availability of numbers of external training suppliers, besides institutions that offer different resources such as experts, trainers, equipment materials, machines and other resources. However, this availability is still far behind the provision of such centres in the USA, where specialised HRD departments have been institutionalised into training centre (Megginson et al., 2000).

Table 6.17 Frequency distribution for training centres by Company size

Have training centres	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	31	55.4	5	11.9	36	36.7
No	25	44.6	37	88.1	62	63.3
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

6.6: Plans, policies and strategies

This section, relating to section (F) in the questionnaire, presents the empirical findings on issues connected with plans and policies for T&D/HRD. The formulation of plans and policies of T&D/HRD is considered as an important strategy in the frame of the strategic work of HRD. So HRD depends on developing and integration of comprehensive plans and policies. In this regard, the provision of and the extent to which plans and policies for HRD exist, the nature of these plans and policies, reasons for not having any plans and policies and other associated concerns towards such provisions, will be examined and presented.

6.6.1 Providing plans and policies for HRD/T&D

The human resources development plan is described as a scientific document that includes the details of training activities and takes into consideration the employees' training needs, and defines the headlines of specific training programs, the method used and the resources needed to satisfy specific needs (McCracken & Wallace, 2000).

This study found that 74.5% of the companies indicated that they did not have HRD plans, (71.4% of the LMCs and 78.6% of the SMCs). For the rest, 64.0% of the companies had human resources development plans which were implemented in the short-term or "less than a year" (table 6.18). It appears that the plans of training and human resource development in the manufacturing companies in Libya are not in an advanced state. Nevertheless, irrespective of size, the literature has shown that some organisations still ignored or refused to accept the importance of having separate plans and policies for HRD/T&D (for example, Heraty & Morley, 2000). Although it is acknowledged that HRD/T&D plans can influence, rather than simply react to business plans (Hendry & Pettigrew, 1986), this appears to be a crucial and underdeveloped point in the manufacturing sector in Libya.

Subsequently, the remaining companies that claimed to have plans for HRD/T&D activities regularly were asked whether their plans were formal or informal. In this regard we should remember that HRD/T&D plans should be conceptualised, formally formulated and translated into actionable HRD policies, and it's important to use these formal policies as guidelines for any HRD program to guarantee its effective implementation (Clutterbuck, 1989; Armstrong, 2000).

In this study, 25% of companies which claimed to have T&D/HRD plans a total of 20% of the manufacturing companies claimed that they had formally written policies on HRD, and the remaining 80% percent continued to operate with unwritten policies (see table 6.18). A particularly striking finding is observable in the SMCs category, in which none of the participating SMCs indicated that they had formal written HRD/T&D policies. The study's results are similar to other studies, for example 20% of Irish companies surveyed by Hearty & Morley, (2000), more than 40% in India and Britain (Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003) and more than 90% in Malaysia (Abdullah 2006) of organisations worked without a formal policy, compared with more than 80% of manufacturing companies in Libya.

Table 6.18 Frequency distribution for HRD/T&D plans and policy by Company size

Have HRD plan	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	16	28.6	9	21.4	25	25.5
No	40	71.4	33	78.6	73	74.5
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0
Types of Plans	LMCs(N=16)		SMCs (N=9)		N	%
Short term	13	81.3	3	33.3	16	64.0
Medium term	3	18.8	6	66.7	9	36.0
Long term	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Types of Policy	LMCs(N=16)		SMCs (N=9)		N	%
Formal	3	18.8	2	22.2	5	20.0
Informal	13	81.3	7	77.8	20	80.0

So from these results, it can be concluded that the SMCs were less committed to planning for HRD/T&D activities and formulating HRD/T&D policies compared to the larger companies. This evidence was also supported by the previous results, which show that LMCs have better human resource development structures compared with SMCs. Osman-

Gani & Tan (2000) supported the conclusion that large industries are more likely to find HRD/T&D plans and policies compared with small industries. In addition Hill & Stewart (2000) mentioned that planning HRD in small and medium industry was informal and short-term and only considered in the light of organisational change. This trend was also identified by this study in manufacturing companies in Libya.

Analysis through open-ended questions and interview data revealed some interesting results on HR managers' perceptions related to HRD/T&D policies and plans. The data of the interviews with managers reported the following:

"We have no formal policy for (HRD), but we have the instructions of ISO, and it dictates that every employee should have training" Training Manager - Power and Electronics SMC.

"We comply with all the details defined in the international standard organization, ISO, also employees request training so we do not have to prepare a training policy" (HRD Manager - Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC).

The results clarified that the idea of forming HRD/T&D policy and comprehensive planning related to HRD activities was not necessary as the manufacturing companies were dependent on the ISO quality policy as a guide line for the provision of training for their employees. All the same, the relevant literature has confirmed that most of the companies according to ISO certificate conditions. For example, in the UK, Investors in People Award (IIP) and BS5750 UK standards are a formal link to training and developing (Sadler-Smith, 1998: Kerr & McDougal, 1999: Yadapaithaya & Stewart, 2003). But Armstrong, (2000) stated that to prepare an HRD policy the corporation should make a human resource development plan, which appeared to be lacking in most companies, included those in this study.

The lack of comprehensiveness of T&D/HRD policies can raise questions about the ability of HRD strategic work to integrate work plans with comprehensive policies to achieve strategic and organisational goals. In addition, the companies which carry on working without properly documented HRD policies were asked about the lack of these policies and plans. Most of the answers to these open-ended questions were similar, and the reasons were related to the lack of concern from the top management; the small companies were more concerned about production than employee training. These reasons were confirmed by people in the interviews and comments included:

It is not necessary in a small company like this to care about the individual's development; we are more concerned about production, operating and quality (General Manager of a Machine, cars, motors and vehicles SMC).

The Secretariat of Manpower Employment Development applied a policy of some kind to SMCs concerning the employees' training; we follow exactly the defined requirements in the policy (Training Manager, Plastic and rubber products SMC).

The results show that most of the Libyan companies included in the study are not concerned about formal and systematic plans and policies for HRD/T&D. Among companies that appeared to have a commitment towards HRD planning and to have applied formal policies, all were LMCs. These companies were presumed to have experience in HRD departments and to have proper policies. According to the provided resources of the LMCs, they may give more concern to the training and development of their employees. Indeed, Armstrong (2000) suggests that companies which have HRD policies seemed committed to HRD.

Concerning the SMCs, the evidence suggests that T&D/HRD provision depends upon the ISO quality instructions or the guidelines of the policies of the Secretariat of Manpower Employment Development, in addition to their own human resource development plans and policies. Nevertheless, having a separate set of policies for HRD in the SMCs may not be necessary due to the smallness of the companies, and dependence on the Government's HRD policy may suffice. The resources shortage may lead the SMCs to depend on the state's HRD policy or government training (Budhwar, 2002; Osman-Gani & Tan, 2000; Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001; Elbaadri, 2001; Sadler-Smith, 1998). On the other hand, global competition as well as on-going changes in technology has influenced companies to take some form of quality certification such as ISO. As a result of this, when using ISO the SMCs can compete with large industries and foreign-owned companies (Sadler-Smith, 1998; Vinten, 1999; Hill & Stewart, 2000). In general, with the absence of organisational planning and official policies most of the HRD users in Libya seem to need guiding in applying HRD activities and practices, so they neglect the strategic approach to T&D. Nadler & Nadler; (1986) have emphasized that the existence of an HRD policy provides T&D/HRD practitioners with the rationale and legitimacy to establish extensive HRD activities as well as managing a specialised HRD department.

6.6.2: HRD strategies

The previous section discussed the issues related to providing policies and plans that form a part of the strategic framework of HRD. Most Libyan companies lack formal policies and plans. However, numerous critics have emphasised the importance of plans and policies as a base to form the strategic attitude of a corporation (Lawrie, 1986; Garavan, 1991; McCracken & Wallace, 1999, and Horwitz, 1999), but this might not be feasible in the Libyan companies sampled. However, it is still relevant to examine the other factors in the strategic framework to determine the application standard in these companies. Firstly, after analysis of all the

questionnaire survey items connected with HRD strategies, which were found there were significant differences between SMCs and LMCs, the main content of each item was reduced to two factors, following McCracken & Wallace, (2000) and Garavan, (1991) (see section 3.4.2). This analysis helps in simplifying the explanation process to condense the item groups to form smaller groups (see the questionnaire part E). The two groups are called strategic planning and strategic partnerships. (1) The first group is formed from the items related to the integration of HRD plans policies, and the second (2) is related to the total company involvement in HRD from the top management right down to employees' participation and involvement (table 6.19).

Table 6.19: The HRD strategic factors

The strategic planning
The comprehensive needs analysis
Plans and policies are guided by the organisation's overall policies and plans
The T&D /HRD plans and policies are integrated
HRD is integrated into the organization's long range planning
The strategic partnerships
Top management support and involvement in HRD
Training and development needs for all levels from shop-floor, technical to top management
Encouragement of all heads of department and line managers to be involved in the HRD process

The two extracted groups (strategic planning and strategic partnerships) were calculated using the (T) test of the independent sample to compare its mean records to partnerships mean. Results displayed the mean scores for strategic planning ($t = -7.263, p = .000$) and the strategic partnerships ($t = 7.712, p = 0.000$) was significantly different between the SMCs and the LMCs at the critical level 0.05 and this will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Table 6.20 methods comparison and (t) test to the single samples of HRD strategies

HRD strategies	Company size				T- Test	
	SMCs(N=42)		LMCs(N=56)		T	P
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Strategic planning	1.85	0.320	2.42	0.520	7.263-	0.000
Strategic partnerships	2.24	0.610	2.85	0.763	7.712	0.000

Mean ranking: 1-Strongly disagree 2-Disagree 3-Neither 4- Agree 5- Strongly Agree

6.6.2.1: Strategic planning

This section, relating to section (E) in the questionnaire, presents the empirical findings on issues connected with HRD Strategy with the first factor (1) called "strategic planning", which contains:

- 1- Performing a comprehensive needs analysis
- 2- Plans and policies are inspired by the organisation's overall policies and plans.
- 3- The T&D /HRD plans and policies are integrated
- 4- HRD is integrated into the organization's long range planning.

These strategies are mainly associated with HRD policies and plans and integrated with the organisation's long-term planning of the corporation and the comprehensive HRD plans. The strategic planning and integration are deficient in the manufacturing companies, so in many cases when the HRD is rare the comprehensive needs analysis for more resources and support may well be insignificant.

In the LMCs, strategic planning was accomplished in less than 25% of companies, as shown in table 6.21, and it has never been initiated in the SMCs. This suggests that the LMCs have some kind of strategic planning for HRD, although the distribution degree appears low compared with the SMCs that do not have any planning. In addition, the study corroborated the absence of strategic planning in the SMCs because the training and development activities in these small and medium companies did not include clear integration with the business plan

regardless of whether the working plan is formal or informal (see for example, Sadler-Smith 1998; Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004).

Table 6.21: Frequency Distribution for Strategic planning

The strategic planning	Companies size						Chi-Square Test	
	LMC(N=56)			SMC (N=42)			x ²	P
	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Agree	Neither	Disagree		
The comprehensive needs analysis	13 23.2%	6 10.7%	37 66.1%	0 0.0%	2 4.8	40 95.3%	5.484	0.0
Plans and policies are guided by the organisation's overall policies and plans	14 25.0%	4 7.1%	38 57.8%	0 0.0%	3 7.1%	39 92.9%	12.551	0.0
The T&D/HRD plans and policies are integrated	12 21.4%	3 5.4%	41 73.2%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	42 100.0%	13.439	0.0
HRD is integrated into the organization's long range planning	15 26.8%	12 21.4%	29 41.8%	0 0.0%	7 16.7%	35 73.3%	18.289	0.0

6.6.2.2: Strategic partnership

Second- the second factor called "strategic partnerships" includes:

- 1- Top management support and involvement in HRD.
- 2- Training and development needs for all levels from shop-floor, technical to top management.
- 3- Encourage all other heads of department and line managers to be involved in the HRD process.

The strategic partnership associates with the individual organisation's participation in HRD, the commitment and support of the top management to employees, and department managers' participation in the program and activities of HRD. The participation from employees at all levels available in the LMCs can be seen in table 6.22. About a quarter of the HRD participants in the LMCs said they had top management support and 25.0% of department managers were committed to the programs. Furthermore, about a quarter of respondents encouraged

participation from the employees in developing HRD activities. In contrast, only 30.9% of the SMCs indicated that they had top management support and involvement in HRD. Apparently, the heads of departments and line managers were not very helpful and supportive towards employees' HRD activities, which were often not present in these smaller companies. This may not be surprising, as the SMCs were also viewed as unsupportive and lacking in commitment towards employees' training and development, other than maximising the use of HRD funds. However, studies have also shown that the labour intensive nature of activities in HRD can lead to a lack of support and involvement from top management (Mintzberg, 1973; Fernald, Bradley & Solomon, 1999).

Table 6.22: Frequency Distribution for Strategic partnerships

The strategic partnerships	Companies size						Chi-Square Test	
	LMC(N=56)			SMC (N=42)			x ²	P
	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Agree	Neither	Disagree		
Top management support and involvement in HRD	16 28.6%	5 8.9%	35 62.5%	13 30.9%	3 7.1%	26 61.9%	12.728	0.0
Training and development needs for all levels from shop-floor, technical to top management	14 25.0%	4 7.1%	38 67.8	0 0.0%	3 7.1%	39 92.9%	12.551	0.0
Encouragement of all heads of department and line managers to be involved in the HRD process	21 37.5%	3 5.4%	32 57.1	0 0.0%	2 4.8	40 95.2%	20.507	0.0

Hence, these findings suggest that strategic partnerships only existed in the larger companies. Indeed, the absence of strategic planning and partnership in manufacturing companies in Libya is evident. In addition to this, a study by Wognum, (2001) found that in spite of the realisation of the importance of the HRD being strategic, the existence of HRD policies, strategic planning and partnership was very rare in most of the study's surveyed corporations. This mean there is no strong evidence of the existence of HRD practices operating at a mature level in the manufacturing sector in Libya.

6.7 Budget and yearly expenditure

The absence of commitment to planning and establishing a policy for T&D/HRD is an obstacle to HRD strategy. The level of commitment of companies towards HRD can be assessed by examining the way in which T&D activities are being financially supported. This study aimed to show if the participating companies had a separated budget allocated for employees' training and development, and whether the allocated budget was sufficient to achieve their HRD objectives. At the same time, this section set out to investigate the surveyed companies' yearly expenditure on HRD/T&D.

6.7.1 Separate and adequate budget

The provision of separate and adequate budgets for T&D/HRD is analysed by comparing the frequency distribution between the SMCs and LMCs. Results indicated that less than a quarter of participating companies had fixed separate and adequate budgets for HRD. As we see in table 6.23, 25% of large industries had a separate budget for employees' training and development while no SMC has a separate budget for employees' training and development. This analysis indicates that supply of a budget for employees' training and development varied between the SMCs & LMCs. As shown in the table the majority of companies had no separate budget (75% and 100% in the LMCs and SMCs respectively) and relied heavily on the budget available from the Human Resource Development Funds to support their HRD activities. Moreover, both the LMCs and the SMCs reported maximising the utilisation of HRD funds 10.2%. And supporting this report, one of the respondents said;

It is obligatory for companies and employers to coordinate by 1% of employees' wages to fund T&D. Although we train our employees and benefit from funds, we must share... (Training Manager, Power and Electronics SMC)

Another respondent affirmed that;

It is not necessary for us to have separate budget for training, because we always share our T&D fund to use it to train our employees, every year we try to use our funds (HRD Manager, Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC).

Table 6.23 Frequency distribution for HRD/T&D budget separated and adequate by Company size

Have Separate HRD/T&D budget	COMPANY SIZE				TOTAL	
	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	14	25.0	0	0.0	14	14.3
No	42	75.0	42	100.0	84	85.7
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0
Have adequate budget	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)		N	%
Yes	10	17.9	0	0.0	10	10.2
No	46	82.1	42	100.0	88	89.8
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	0	100.0

The above results indicate that a small number of the LMCs had a separate budget for employees' training and development, and at the same time were dependent on the T&D/HRD funds. So it is clear that large companies could afford to allocate sufficient separate budget for employees' training and development, in contrast with SMCs, which have limited resources. Supplying an HRD budget is considered an important factor today in companies, especially if it wants to have enough trained employees. It is notable that across the world the amount of resources committed to training and development budgets is rising. Abdullrahim, (2006) stated that it was estimated that UAE employers would provide employees with some 1.7 billion hours of training that year. Filipczak (2008) stated that the true learning organisations would spend between 3% and 6% of their budget on training. Training for example is often seen as an expensive proposition. However, from the fact that these manufacturing companies are

dependent on the T&D/HRD funds, is quite obvious that there is no separate budget for training and development of employees within their corporate budget. Nevertheless, under-investment in employees' training has been confirmed in the literature (for example, Streeck, 1989; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Lloyd, 2002) If the budget is not sufficient to achieve HRD goals, it may block the aims of organization. Cho et al., (1999) suggested that the lack of funds for HRD can cause organisations to fail in implementing an effective HRD policy, and subsequently hinder the participation of HRD as a strategic business partner.

6.7.2 Yearly expenditure

There was small percentage of manufacturing companies that had separate budgets and adequate funds to achieve HRD aims. This section continues to examine the annual expenditure of companies participating in HRD activities. The research indicated that the existence of a separate and sufficient budget was perceivable in the LMCs while the SMCs had no separate budget for employees' training and development. However, all types of companies had an annual expenditure on HRD activities, since the SMCs were utilising the HRD funds for their training activities, which represents an annual expenditure on HRD. The sum of money that was expended on HRD activities by participating companies varied from less than LD10, 000 to more than LD1 million; see table (6.24).

The SMCs annual expenditure on training activities reached LD500.000. In contrast, the LMCs indicated much greater activity, with annual expenditures that exceeded 1,000,000 LD. The biggest sum of money that the LMCs spent on HRD activities was LD2 million. The analysis indicated that the LMCs had a large expenditure compared with the SMC industries ($\chi^2 = 115.58$, $p = 0.000$). This comprehensive expenditure was expected of large industries, because they have more employees and funds for HRD. On this basis, it is pertinent to examine the amount of spending per each allocation, which may reveal differences in spending for HRD

activities between the LMCs and SMCs. Otherwise, the LMCs can be presumed to expend more with no justification. Analysis on the interviews illustrated the following statements from interviewees in both the SMCs and LMCs.

We sometimes try to expend less for every employee. And this is the reason why we want to have internal training; we pay about LD1500 for the trainer. We can put from 20 to 30 employees in the lecture. So we expend about LD550 per year for every employee, for observers and low level employees. The budget of middle managers is LD1500 to LD2000 (Executive of human resources, Power and Electronics SMC).

Our budget every year for each employee is LD 1,000 for supervisors and below; middle managers have a higher budget of LD2500. Sometimes they expend more than the specialized budget under the orders of the high administration (Director of HR, Furniture, carpets and wooden products LMC).

Table 6.24 Frequency distribution for HRD/T&D budget yearly expenditure by Company size

yearly expenditure	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less than LD10,000	2	3.6	22	52.4	24	24.5
LD10,001 to LD50,000	20	35.7	16	38.1	36	36.7
LD50,001 to LD100,000	14	25.0	3	7.1	17	17.3
LD100,001 to LD 500,000	12	21.4	1	2.4	13	13.3
LD500,001 to LD one million	5	8.9	0	0.0	5	5.1
Above LD one million	3	5.4	0	0.0	3	3.1
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0

The above data and findings from the semi-structured interviews indicate that the LMCs such as those in the Concrete Cement Iron sector and Food and Drink sector expended proportionately more on their employees than the SMCs and devoted sum of money to training employees according to their requirement for skills. Furthermore, the LMCs also had wide expenditure on HRD activities. So employers in these companies had the ability to provide sufficient training and development to their employees and provide separate and sufficient budget for training activities. On the other hand, the SMCs sectors such as Power and Electronics depended on T&D/HRD fund contributions; however, this does not necessarily indicate that they could not provide sufficient training for their employees. In case of suitable planning and obtaining benefits of T&D/HRD funds and other incentives, employers of the SMCs could be supported to provide sufficient training and development programs for their employees. However, the extent to which the employers in the SMCs were maximizing their HRD funds is not known. Fernald et al., (1999) highlighted that the absence of T&D investment was a main reason for the SMCs in the United States of America losing their foreign market share.

The above findings presents an overview of selected elements of HRD maturity, considered from the perspective of large and small companies. At this point, some discussion of the level of HRD maturity in the different sectors of manufacturing is necessary. Generally speaking, large companies show higher levels of maturity, and those companies which have close links with foreign companies based in more developed countries also have higher levels of HRD maturity. Therefore, a sector such as Concrete- Cement- Iron, which is dominated by two enormous state-owned industrial complexes, shows relatively high levels of HRD maturity. These industries are heavily involved in import/export activities, and as a result need to maintain their competitiveness through high level HRD practice. In addition to this, their size means that large HRD budgets are possible, and their numbers of employees means that

shift/work patterns are able to be adjusted to allow time for training. On the other hand, the Power and Electronics sector, which has a high proportion of small and medium sized companies, shows much lower level of HRD maturity. The advantages enjoyed by large companies are not available to SMCs, and even if their management wanted to improve HRD practices, the time resources necessary are lacking. Companies in this sector often do not even have a separate department for HRD. The interview extracts within this chapter give a useful impression of the attitudes towards HRD of companies within different sectors or manufacturing.

6.8: Summary

This chapter presented background profiles of companies and respondents who participated in the questionnaire and interviews. It also discussed the issue of providing an important structural basis of HRD such as having a T&D/HRD department and drawing up plans, policies, and strategies related to HRD. The literature of HRD affirms that for a successful implementation of HRD, it is necessary for a company to have a structural basis for each job in its operation available, so that when skills recruiting can be matched to vacancies, and of rewards performance can be appraised objectively (Nadler & Nadler 1989; Desinione et al., 2002; Megginson et al., 2000;, and Harrison & Kessels, 2004). It is clear that most Libyan manufacturing companies did not have the most important structures for these functions or for a separate department for T&D/HRD. This is a main reason for the absence of strategic HRD planning and direction found by the study. Some evidence for advanced level HRD practices was found only in the large companies in the Concrete-Cement-Iron, sector particularly in the Misrata steel company, and in the food and drink sector and manufacturing and mineral products, because these sectors have separate departments and budgets for T&D/HRD and also have formal written HRD/T&D policies. It can be concluded that T&D/HRD practice in these

companies is still not very advanced in its development. SMCs such as those operating in Power and Electronics and Plastic and Rubber products were less committed to planning for HRD/T&D activities and formulating HRD/T&D policies compared to the larger companies and the idea of forming HRD/T&D policy and comprehensive planning related to HRD activities was not necessary as these companies were dependent on the ISO quality policy as a guide line for the provision of training for their employees, and no SMC had a separate budget for employees' training and development. It seems that HRD jobs in Libyan manufacturing companies are affected by governmental strategies such as HRD national policies for the organisation of training and financing of HRD. Also, the gradual increase in adopting international management criteria has affected the formation of HRD roles and HRD departments of these companies. Despite the absence of a separate function for HRD in most manufacturing companies, HRD was still an important process in training and human resources development for improving performance and productivity to achieve success. Providing employees with training and development and the process adopted for developing human resources are the subjects that will be discussed and examined in the following chapter.

Chapter seven
Analysis of HRD Activities
And Challenges in HRD

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented descriptive analysis of the background profiles of participating companies in Libya and analysis of T&D/HRD structure within manufacturing companies, as well as investigating the characteristics of T&D/HRD in these companies. This chapter will discuss the varied activities of human resources development, which include: first, T&D needs analysis; second, provision and facilitation of the training process; third, evaluation of training; fourth, performance management. The final part of the chapter will investigate major challenges in HRD. These will be examined through statistical tests as well as data from descriptive interviews so as to respond to the second and third research questions, which asked about the nature and types of human resources development activities that are implemented, and the challenges faced in HRD in manufacturing organisations of Libya.

The analytical pattern used in this chapter to investigate the above begins with descriptive frequencies or analysing a comparison of means related to each section. Given that most questions consist of a large number of answers, principal component analysis is used to highlight unclear or hidden components. Once the data are reduced and manageable constructs are identified and categories clarified, the results are then tested for statistical significance where relevant. These statistical results will be integrated with the data of the interviews and statements to enhance the research outcomes.

7.2 Assessing and Analysing Needs

The systematic approach of T&D/HRD begins by defining the objectives or strategy of the work of the company. Thus, assessing and analysing needs is the first step of intervention in relation to any T&D activity (Leigh et al., 2000). Accordingly, this section investigates to what extent the participating companies analysed their needs and objectives, and planned their development. Four areas that will be examined: first, the number of companies that analysed the needs of T&D and the frequencies of analysing these needs. Second, the approaches used in determining these needs of T&D; third, the levels of analysing needs; and fourth, methods used in analyse the needs of T&D.

7.2.1 Frequencies of needs analysis

Practitioners of T&D/HRD in companies were asked if their company analysed employee's training and development needs. The results of the analyses showed that most of the LMCs (75%) had analysed the needs for HRD, and 37.5% of these companies conducted these evaluations and analyses once per year (Table 7.1). More than 40% of the SMCs had analysed and assessed their needs for T&D; however, 28.6% of these companies assessed their needs annually. In the remaining companies, LMCs and SMCs, the needs of T&D are assessed once every two to three years or when necessary. In fact, more than a half (59.5%) of the SMCs and a quarter (25%) of the LMCs reported that they did not conduct any evaluation of needs. Accordingly, in the statistical test there is a significant difference between the LMCs on the one hand and the SMCs on the other, concerning their analysis of needs ($p = .000$, $X^2 = 20.67$).

Accordingly, it can be said that for many companies, especially SMCs, analysing needs is not considered an important matter. This finding is supported by other researchers into T&D in SMCs (Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Sadler-Smith, et al., 1998; Vinten, 2000; Hill & Stewart, 2000). For on the basis that most manufacturing companies in Libya were not

systematic in their analyses of T&D needs, therefore, it may be that employees are not efficiently trained and that development attempts and training were on an ad-hoc basis: this suggests a fairly low level of maturity on the road from performance driven T&D to a more strategically developed HRD. Previous studies have shown that many institutions do not analyse needs at the required rate (Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Smith, 1999; Bhatta, 2002; Budhwar et al., 2002).

Table 7.1 Frequency distribution for frequencies of T&D needs analysis by Company size

T&D needs analysis	Company size				Total	
	LMCs(N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	42	75.0	17	40.5	59	60.2
No	14	25.0	25	59.5	39	39.8
Total	56	100.0	42	100.0	98	100.0
Review Frequencies	LMCs(N=42)		SMCs (N=17)		N	%
Once a year	21	37.5	1 2	28.6	33	33.7
Every 2 years	10	17.9	5	11.9	15	15.3
Every 3 years	6	10.7	0	0.0	6	6.1
Ad-hoc	5	8.9	0	0.0	5	5.1
Total	42	75.0	1 7	40.5	59	60.2

7.2.2 Strategic Approaches to Determining the Needs of T&D

Since large numbers of the manufacturing companies surveyed performed some sort of needs analysis in their companies, the various approaches used by practitioners of T&D/HRD to determine the needs of T&D/HRD must be defined and examined. To define these approaches questions were designed to determine the needs analysis methods of T&D/HRD. These question testing five approaches in needs determination include:

1. Examining top management and senior managers' opinions and perceptions regarding the company's future direction and outlook.
2. Taking into account employees' opinions and perceptions of the company.
3. Examining top management strategic direction, goals, objectives and financial situation.
4. Examining changes in the business processes in the company.
5. Examining and considering internal and external business needs and challenges.

When a T&D/HRD practitioner takes into account all five approaches in identifying their T&D needs, the organisation can be viewed as having a strategic approach in its needs identification. Results of analyses show that most T&D/HRD practitioners agreed that there was an examination of changes in the business processes in their company (97% and a mean of 4.18) and (85% and a mean of 3.74) in both LMCs and SMCs respectively, see table 7.2). There was also an examination of internal and external business needs and challenges (96% and a mean of 4.02) and (71.4% and a mean of 3.71) in both LMCs and SMCs respectively. On the other hand, examining top management opinions in the company and taking into account employees' opinions of the company were not considered important by the LMCs and SMCs compared to other approaches (Mean from 1.36 to 2.63).

However, more than 70% of T&D/HRD practitioners in the LMCs agreed that top management strategic and financial situation was considered, while this was not so common in the SMCs. As is shown in table 7.3, which examines the significant differences related to size of companies, the approach used by the SMCs significantly differs from that adopted by LMCs ($p = .000$).

Table 7.2: Comparing Means, Frequency Distributions and the Independent Sample T-Test of Strategic Approaches in Defining T&D/HRD Needs.

Approaches of T&D needs	Size of company						t-test	
	LMCs			SMCs			T	P
	Mean	SD	Agreement %	Mean	SD	Agreement %		
Examine top management opinions in the company.	2.63	1.008	32.1	2.32	0.803	4.8	-3.733	0.000
Take into account employees' opinions of the company.	1.75	0.639	1.8	1.36	0.485	0.0	-3.326	0.000
Examine top management strategic and financial situation.	3.54	0.785	71.1	1.69	0.604	0.0	12.665	0.000
Examine changes and the business processes in the company.	4.18	0.386	97.0	3.74	0.941	85.0	-3.175	0.000
Examine internal and external business needs and challenges.	4.02	0.300	96.5	3.71	0.864	71.4	-2.443	0.000

In general, previous analysis shows that the approach used by practitioners in determining their HRD needs is an examination and assessment of the business processes, changes and also the overall business needs as and when required for the business environment. Indeed, this amplifies the literature which suggests that identifying human resources' HRD needs is at least in part a strategic activity (Horwitz, 1999; Garavan, 1995; Anderson, 1994).

7.2.3 Level of Needs Determination

Analysing the needs of employees and companies has been identified to be important for T&D/HRD practitioners, in order to deal with the gap between employees' abilities and performance and the requirements of the company. Thus, there are four levels of determination, namely; 1) The company's overall performance; 2) Departmental requirement and performance; 3) Individual employee's skills, knowledge and attitudes; and also 4) Employee's job and functional responsibilities.

As shown in table 7.3 about a quarter of LMCs conducted analysis on each of the four levels of determining needs. It should be noted that some companies may have used more than one level. More than a third (38.1%) of SMCs analysed individual employee's skills, knowledge and attitudes. Similarly, the Chi-Square test showed that levels of defining needs showed significant differences between LMCs on the one hand and SMCs on the other, at the company level ($X^2 = 11.543$, $P < .05$, $p = .205$), department level ($p < .05$, $p = 0.306$, $X^2 = 5.65$), the individual employee level ($P < .05$, $p = .0.040$, $X^2 = 8.52$), and job functional level ($P < .001$, $p = .000$, $X^2 = 10.21$). This result is supported by managers in LMCs and SMCs interviewed. For instance

What we consider is the current skills of an employee as well as their knowledge and attitudes and sometimes we recognise the importance of department requirements (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather LMC).

We mostly examine or investigate the requirements of the company and the employees' abilities and attitudes in relation to their current work (HR director; Power and Electronics SMC)

Previous results show that the LMCs are concerned with analysing the four levels of needs and take into consideration all requirements of the company and employees. On the other hand, the SMCs are interested in analysing individual employee's skills, knowledge and attitudes, and authors such as Kerr & McDougall, (1999) are agreed upon that. This means that LMCs have moved further towards HRD/SHRD than SMCs.

Table 7.3: Frequency Distribution and Chi-Square Test of Independency for the Levels of Determining Needs

Level of Needs Determination	Size of company				Chi-Square Test	
	LMCs		SMCs		X ²	P
	N	%	N	%		
Company's overall performance	13	23.2	4	9.5	11.54	0.205
Departmental requirement and performance	13	23.2	7	16.7	5.65	0.036
Individual employee's skills, knowledge & attitudes	14	25.0	16	38.1	8.52	0.040
Employee's job and functional responsibilities	14	25.0	2	4.8	10.21	0.000

7.2.4 Methods Used in determining Needs of T&D

Several methods are suggested to determine the needs of T&D in a company. Reid & Barrington (2005) suggest that methods of determination depend on what is being focused on in the research. In this study, the various methods used in determining the needs of T&D/HRD were classified into formal and informal methods of needs determination (see Al-Ali, 1999; Albahussain, 2000). This was to simplify the interpretation of the various needs identification methods. Principal component analysis was deployed and the results showed that the two extracted factors clarified reports with a percentage of 63.85% of the variance. The first factor included a special training committee, a questionnaire survey, a performance appraisal report and the individual job description. Thus, this factor is called "Formal methods" to determine the needs of T&D. The second factor included informal methods to determine the needs, such as personal interviews with individuals, direct observation, production reports and heads of departments or line manager's reports.

Table 7.4: Matrix of Factors Related to Methods of Determining the Needs of T&D

Formal methods	Component	
	1	2
Special training committee	0.835	
Questionnaire survey	0.718	
Performance appraisal report	0.798	
Individuals' job description	0.674	
Informal methods		
Personal Interviews		0.789
Direct Observations		0.712
Production reports		0.532
Heads of departments or line manager's report.		0.432
Eign value	2.40	1.20
% cumulative variance	37.83	63.85

$P = .000, df = 36, X^2 = 694.938$

7.2.4.1 Formal and Informal Methods

Table 7.5 shows that informal methods, such as direct observation and heads of departments or line manager's reports were used repeatedly by practitioners of T&D/HRD in determining the needs of T&D. Furthermore, production reports and personal interviews were less used, with rates of 10.7% and 14.3% respectively. To explain the two formal methods which are frequently used to identify T&D needs, the following statements given by managers during interviews in manufacturing companies can be used:

In fact, the personal interview is considered an informal conversation with two selected employees about what they believe with regard to the development of their occupational duties, such as occupational operations and types of training programs which can be useful for their management or career. Through these interviews with some employees, we deduced an idea about the type of training programs of this management (Director of HR; Furniture, carpets and wooden products LMC)

The employees' training needs can be analysed through observation by the direct supervisor or heads of department; they can easily define these needs in terms of the abilities, knowledge and skills of the employees. Thus, the direct supervisor can give advice concerning the requirements for training and development of employees {Executive of human resources; Power and Electronics SMC}.

Previous findings show that SMCs and LMCs both rely on personal observation and talking to employees about their training needs (primary information) more than secondary information to determine training needs.

More formal methods (the second factor) of collecting information are used, such as questionnaire surveys (22.8%); performance evaluation reports (12.5%) special training committees (13.0%) and individuals' job descriptions (7.1%). Gilley et al., (2003) show that methods used to determine and analyse the needs of T&D/HRD also include other formal methods, such as critical analysis and case analysis, and informal methods, such as requests from managers of production lines to provide competent persons (Budhwar et al., 2002) but in this study, formal methods are not widely used by practitioners of T&D/HRD in manufacturing companies. The more informal and easily used methods, such as direct observation and personal interviews with employees are used, as well as asking employees and heads of departments about their requirements related to training needs, which were sometimes considered by employers if they were relevant to the needs of the individual employee and the department. In this context, requests for training from line managers were usually associated with 'non-conformance' as identified through the ISO auditing procedure (Roy & Raymond, 2008). This study considers that the use of formal methods of determining T&D/HRD needs long-term is evidence of HRD practices being present.

Table 7.5 Frequency Distribution of Formal and Informal Methods of Determining Needs

Methods Used	Size of company				Total	
	LMCs (N=56)		SMCs (N=42)			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Formal						
Special training committee	2	3.5	4	9.5	6	13.0
Questionnaire survey	12	21.4	9	21.4	21	22.8
Performance appraisal report	7	12.5	0		7	12.5
Individuals' job description	4	7.1	0		4	7.1
Informal						
Personal Interviews	8	14.3	0		8	14.3
Direct Observation	14	25.0	12	28.5	26	53.5
Production report	6	10.7	0		6	10.7
Head of department's report	5	8.9	3	7.1	8	16.0

In general, LMCs seem more varied in the methods they used to determine the needs of T&D/HRD while SMCs mainly depended on direct observation, with 21.4% conducting a questionnaire survey. SMCs were satisfied with using informal methods of analysis while LMCs tended to adopt more formal method of determining the needs of T&D/HRD. In fact, other studies have shown that performance evaluation is commonly used in analysing the needs of T&D/HRD in LMCs (Tregaskis & Dany, 1996; Tregaskis & Brewster, 1998; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Elbadri, 2001; Morrow, 2001) which contradicts the findings in this study. However, the use of informal methods through feedback from managers of production lines and individual employees in SMCs are supported by other studies (Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004; Vinten, 2000).

Nevertheless, in this study open-ended responses and interview data are integrated with statistical data related to several factors that limit the analysis of needs. Among the comments that are common among practitioners of T&D/HRD are complaints about the lack of financial and human resources as well as the absence of skills and knowledge that are indispensable for analysing systematic requirements. A large number of companies in both SMCs and LMCs did not analyse the needs of T&D/HRD as frequently or as thoroughly as they should have due to the difficulty of analysing needs, the lack of

resource and the length of time required for this activity. For instance, managers interviewed said the following:

Analysing training needs is unimportant... First, we do not have the occupational structure that knows how to analyse needs. Second, delegating a foreign expert to the institution is expensive More than LD 10, 000 for each project ... (HR director; Power and Electronics SMC)

Analysing needs is considered a good way of determining staff training requirements, but we do not have the right person to be responsible for training. As it is apparent, I am the one responsible for the function of human resources and I cannot focus on training since I am supposed to focus on matters of human resources (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather LMC)

Previous results in this study show that the absence of needs evaluation and analysis is due to a lack of experience, regardless of the size of a company. These results are supported by other studies (Hill & Stewart, 2000; Sadler – Smith et al., 1998; Anderson & Hill, 2004). On the other hand, Smith, (1999) said that most companies do not recruit HRD specialists for managing HRD jobs, although analysing the needs of T&D/HRD is a specialized task. One of the factors cited by Libyan manufacturing companies as an obstacle to HRD needs analysis was the high number of staff relocations and the absence of a separate training unit for staff development. Therefore, on the above basis, these obstacles make companies regard T&D/HRD as a burden and thus, these companies analyse the needs of T&DHRD only in the case of urgent need. Therefore, it is believed that manufacturing companies included in this study in Libya do not consider the nature or needs or objectives of long-term HRD, and this is evidence of a lack of maturity in the development of HRD.

7.3 Planning and Design

The second stage in the systematic approach to T&D/HRD is the planning and design of training and learning. In this stage, the use of learning strategies and the means to achieving learning outcomes, as well as the persons who will be included in the learning process, are all planned (Delahaye, 2000). The next stage includes providing and facilitating training and learning activities. The objectives in the designing and planning stage influence the training and development programs as well as the level of employee provided with training. In addition, the methods used in training and learning activities and the location and provider of HRD activities (Desimone et al., 2002) are some of the factors that are considered in the stage of designing and planning the T&D process, and are examined in this part of the study.

7.3.1 Providing Training

The training and development of employees is regarded as a significant factor in ensuring that an employer can have a workforce with a high level of knowledge and skills. An employer uses several resources, such as financial support, manpower and production time, in providing employees with training. All these are mentioned many times in the literature by researchers, such as Nadler & Nadler, (1989), Stewart & McGoldrick, (1996). In this section the level of provision of training and development services in manufacturing companies included in this study in Libya will be discussed. Eight different situations were defined, through which training is provided to the employee in a company (see section 3.5.1.3 and the Appendix questionnaire part G-1). These situations were classified into groups to simplify explaining the process of providing training.

These groups were organised according to three factors. The first factor, "Post evaluations" included the training provided in relation to assessment (Bing et al., 2003). The second factor, "during change", included the training provided when recruiting new employees and promoting existing ones, and training staff on new equipment or new working methods (Jacobs & Washington, 2003; Kotey & Sheridan, 2004). The third factor, "upon request" included the training provided according to staff, department and managerial demand (Tregaskis & Dany, 1996; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Heraty & Morley, 2000). The classification of elements included by these factors is shown in table 7.6.

A one sample t-test was conducted to calculate the average points distinguishing each factor. This test clarified the differences between the mean scores of training provided for employees after evaluation (mean = 2.27, sd = 1.09, $p < 0.001$), when change occurred in the company (mean = 3.46, sd = 1.20, $p < 0.001$) and when the top management, management, department or employees requested it (mean = 2.73, sd = 1.23, $p < 0.001$). The T-test for the independent sample, which was applied to these variables, revealed that situations of providing training show a significant difference between LMCs and SMCs, as indicated by $p = .000$ the significant level of the three situations (see table 7.6). This implies that LMCs provided training to their employees under more varied circumstances, placing a higher emphasis on training provided when change takes place within the organisation, and a lesser emphasis on requests from top management, departments and employees. Furthermore, training after any form of evaluation showed the lowest level of provision (see Table 7.6). An analysis of each of these factors is developed below.

Table 7.6: Means Comparison for Training Provided Post Evaluation, During Change, and Upon Request.

Training Provided	Size of company				t-test	
	LMCs		SMCs			
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	T	P
Post Evaluation (Factor 1)	2.85	0.980	1.68	0.850	-14.322	0.000^d
When performance efficiency evaluations are made	2.41	0.654	1.71	0.553		
Upon completion of training needs evaluation	3.28	0.825	1.64	0.484		
During Change (Factor 2)	4.07	0.870	2.85	0.990	-14.221	0.000^d
On new equipment or new working methods	4.03	0.785	3.40	0.938		
When employees are newly recruited	4.25	0.744	2.76	0.829		
When employees are upgraded to fill vacant Positions	3.96	0.685	2.38	0.696		
Upon Request (Factor 3)	3.20	1.051	2.23	1.320	-10.246	0.000^d
When requested by employees	2.66	0.640	2.04	0.955		
When requested by department	3.35	0.903	2.64	0.576		
When requested by top management	3.60	0.730	2.02	0.154		

Rank of Means: 1-Never 2- Rarely, 3- Sometimes, 4- Frequent, 5- Very Frequent.

$$(1+2+3+4+5) \div 5=3$$

*Meaningful significance at level 0.001

As shown in table 7.6, both LMCs and SMCs focus on training employees when change occurs in the company. Providing modern technologies or equipment are examples of such change (mean= 4.03 and 3.40 respectively). Furthermore, when new employees are recruited in a company, training is provided for them so as to keep pace with new change and new work methods. However, the matter differs between the LMCs and SMCs, ($t = -14.221$, $P=.000$). For instance, in the SMCs sometimes new employees are trained as soon as they join the company. Respondents from SMCs said that the new employees were immediately placed on the floor for on-the-job training and working with other senior employees. In order to support this, the impact is mentioned in interviews:

Our main objective is the employee's ability to use and operate technology. We assert that they have to be subjected to training in order to operate equipment and machines used in performing their duties. We do not support traditional training since we feel that it is a waste of time. New employees have to exist in the work field and start working immediately. They will gradually understand regulations, policies, procedures and work methods, assisted by their more experienced colleagues (they will learn on the job) (HR director; Power and Electronics SMC)

Of course, training all employees on new machines is a typical thing, but due to production objectives, we try to know whether new machines are difficult to use and whether we have to train one person at first on using the machines. After that, this person trains the other employees and shows them the operation catalogues if possible (Human Resources Manager; Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC)

New employees in the SMCs are subjected to training by working with supervisors or managers. New employees learn new skills from their more experienced colleagues. Their occupational position is determined after three months depending on their occupational contracts. However, some jobs depend on the use of modern technological machines that require more training for employees. Companies focus on the importance of training provided to employees regarding their new duties with modern technologies or work operations. However, it appears that these manufacturing companies rarely train employees for higher vacant positions and promotions. Manufacturing companies tended to be pessimistic about training their employees in order to develop their work. The following statement made by a manager from an SMC supports this view:

We find that training employees to be promoted or upgraded within the company is considered a waste of resources. These employees leave us and work with competitors after obtaining information and acquiring skills through us. It is better from the economic perspective to recruit new employees who are already qualified and skilled in the job; we have found with experience, that it is better (General Manager; Machines, cars, motors and vehicles SMC)

This clarifies the reason for some employers' reluctance to train their employees and raise their skill level. This supports the poaching principles mentioned by Debrah et al., (2000) in their study of Singapore. They mentioned that sufficiently trained employees are offered higher salaries in other companies. There is evidence available to illustrate this in the literature, which deals with the employer's attitude towards poaching, especially in SMCs, and this idea was one of the reasons for the employer withholding training from his workforce (Hill & Stewart, 2000; Harrison, 2000 and Hill, 2004). On the other hand, practitioners of T&D/HRD in SMCs prefer recruiting new employees who need little training or no training whatsoever in order to avoid incurring training expenses. These practices are common in both SMCs and LMCs. (Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Lloyd, 2002).

Generally, in LMCs and SMCs, when there is a need for training based on the department's requirements, it must be acknowledged and approved by the top management. This training is provided depending on the needs and requirements related to these demands and their relation to the needs of the company and its work success (Trgaskis & Dany, 1996; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Elbadri, 2001 and Morrow, 2001). The above observations suggest that T&D/HRD practitioners in manufacturing companies in Libya are very concerned about advances in technology, which can impede the

organisations' competitive advantage. With this in mind, there was a perception that providing employees with training on new technologies and new working processes was fundamentally critical.

In fact, there is ample evidence to suggest that companies are concerned with learning or being trained on modern technologies in order to conform to international quality standards (Yadapadithaya, 2000; Goodwin, 1999; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003 and Dilworth, 2003) as well as improving their competitive abilities (Debrah & Smith, 2000; Smith & Debrag, 2000; Pool & Jenkins, 1998). However, although training was provided to employees on modern technologies and work duties, their efficiency of performance is not assessed adequately (means ranging from 1.71 to 2.41). Employers appear to ignore the significance of performance effectiveness evaluation, but the lack of knowledge and experience of HRD employees regarding this activity means that the evaluation of performance effectiveness was not being taken into consideration. It has been argued that this is one of the factors hindering the effective management of T&D/HRD (McDonald & Smith, 1995; Bing, Kegrhahn & Short, 2003).

7.3.2: Levels of Training Provided

Respondents were asked about the degree of training provided at each level of employee in the company. These levels were classified into two groups to simplify explanation of the level of training provided. These groups named two factors. Factor 1 included the top management and managers of the medium level who manage and gain assistance from clerical employees, and this factor is called the operation level. Factor 2 included supervisors, technical and shop-floor employees, who worked on the production line, which is called the production level (See table 7.7).

Table 7.7: Means Comparison for Levels of Training Provided, Operation Level and Production Level

Levels of Providing Training	Size of company				t-test	
	LMCs		SMCs			
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	T	P
Operation Level (Factor 1)	2.93	0.670	2.69	0.870	-6.234	0.000*
Top management	2.73	0.797	2.64	0.850		
Middle management	3.14	0.519	2.76	0.849		
Clerical	2.92	0.735	2.66	0.545		
Production Level (Factor 2)	4.21	0.550	3.76	0.490	-4.753	0.000*
Lower Management\ Supervisory	4.14	0.553	3.66	0.477		
Technical	4.21	0.562	3.66	0.477		
Shop-floor	4.82	0.556	3.95	0.538		

Rank of Means: 1-Very low 2- Low, 3- Average, 4- High, 5- Very high. $(1+2+3+4+5) \div 5=3$

*Meaningful significance at level 0.001

It is clear from table 7.7, as shown in bold type, that for both the LMCs and SMCs there is a focus on providing training to the production level employees (means = 4.21 and 3.76 respectively). It is apparent that the highest level of training is provided to the shop-floor employees, technical employees and supervisors (Means ranging from 3.66 to 4.28).

However, operation level employees received training at an average level (mean from 2.64 to 3.14). Yet, training provided on the productive level ($t=-6.234$) $P<0.01$ and level of operation employees ($t=4.753$) $P<0.01$) are different with regard to LMCs and SMCs.

Effect analyses were conducted on the type of training provided to employees at each level of production and operation. It was found that the main types of training provided to production level employees included training during work practice, technical training and motivational training. Both the LMCs and the SMCs have the same concerns related to training, besides providing technical knowledge and skills, issues regarding motivation of employees were their major concerns, as mentioned by a respondent from an SMC:

We train our employees from the supervisory level to lower level; especially shop-floor employees on motivational programs, the rates of absenteeism in these levels are very high. We motivate them towards skills of teambuilding aimed at changing their attitudes towards their work and colleagues. (General Manager: Machines, cars, motors and vehicles SMC)

In order to support this, a person, who was interviewed in an LMC, said:

We do not face a problem in relation to the employees' knowledge and skills about the job, but the major problem is their attitude and loyalty to work. There are problems related to absences since they take vacations without prior notification or emergency vacations and the rate of sick leave has increased; that is why the focus is on motivation (positive work attitudes) and programs of teambuilding (Human resources manager; Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC)

Therefore, and based on the above mentioned, we can say that high levels of training were being provided to employees at the productive level (supervisor, technicians and shop-floor workers) because T&D/HRD practitioners were concerned with developing motivated employees and raising their functional knowledge and skills. Thus, it is evident that employees on the level of operations (superior and middle managers and clerical employees) are somewhat ignored and considered as not needing motivational training. Yet they do need development on the managerial level and training on clerical programmes. Such programs are rare and similarly, there was evidence which showed that employees directly related to production received a higher level of training compared to others.

This result contradicts the training level provided to employees in the United Kingdom and France. For instance (Tregaskis & Dany, 1996) report that training provided at the managerial level is higher than that provided to the lower level employees. These results show that T&D/HRD practitioners and employers in manufacturing organisations included in this survey, know that providing the training to employees on the production level, such as supervisors, technicians and shop-floor employees is an extremely important thing, especially in Libya, since they are the basis of the labour force responsible for productivity and the output of the production line.

7.3.3: Spending on Each Level:

The importance of a separate budget for HRD has been previously mentioned (see section 3.4.3). This budget ensures financial resources that are available to T&D/HRD practitioners in order to provide employees with training throughout the company. Nadler & Nadlar, (1989) report that spending for HRD and training activities must be directed through the company, but the evidence of this study indicates that the sums of these financial resources distributed to each level may vary in manufacturing organisations included in this survey in Libya. This section examines the level of spending on training and developing employees at each level in manufacturing companies.

Again, as mentioned previously, there are different levels of employees. This helps to define or form two factors; production and operation level employees, as previously analysed. Production level employees included supervisors, technical and shop-floor workers, whilst the middle and top managers and clerical employees represent the category of operations level. (See table 7.8). A mean of scores are calculated to compare means between production and operation level employees by using the paired-sample test.

Means showed that there is a significant difference between production level employees (mean = 3.58, standard deviation = 0.530) and operation level employees (mean = 3.03, standard deviation = 0.610). From this test, high levels of spending on training appeared in relation to production level employees compared to operation level employees, and that the amount of spending on production and operation level employees varied between LMCs, and SMCs (Refer to table 7.8).

Table 7.8: Means Comparison and T-test of Independent Sample for Spending on Operations and Production Levels

Levels of Providing Training	Size of company				t-test	
	LMCs		SMCs		T	P
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
Operations Level (Factor 1)	3.30	0.598	2.76	0.630	5.334	0.000*
Top management	3.50	0.713	2.88	0.592	4.563	.008*
Middle management	3.21	0.529	2.47	0.772	5.608	.001
Clerical	3.19	0.553	2.92	0.745	2.042	.492
Production Level (Factor 2)	3.80	0.620	3.35	0.541	4.983	0.000*
Lower management\ supervisory	3.63	0.727	2.92	0.558	5.164	.001
Technical	4.12	0.558	3.52	0.551	5.396	.023**
Shop-floor	3.67	0.575	3.61	0.582	0.504	.401

Rank of Means: 1-Very low 2- Low, 3- Average, 4- High, 5- Very high. $(1+2+3+4+5) \div 5=3$

*Meaningful significance at level 0.001 ** Meaningful level at 0.5

The total result of the analysis showed that employers in manufacturing companies were not spending excessively on T&D/HRD, where the level of expenditure for each level ranges from low to high as indicated by means, which range from 2.47 to 4.12. For more illustration, refer to table 7.8. However, employers appeared to be spending the most on staff at the production level, especially technicians (mean 4.12, as shown in table 7.8). The analysis indicated that the other levels of employees received low to average expenditure, as spending was focused primarily on technical and shop-floor employees, which might

suggests that the T&D/HRD budget was unequally distributed between the various levels of employees. At the same time, T-tests of the independent sample conducted on the level of employees illustrated that the sums spent on employees at each level varied between LMCs and SMCs ($P < 0.01$ and $0.05 < P$). It is worth noting in this context that government funding for this kind of training is linked to the products of a company. Exportable products are more likely to attract funding.

It is clear that previous results show that employers in manufacturing organisations included in this survey are dependent on the skills and capabilities of their technical and shop-floor employees to determine the success or failure of their organisations. The previous results are accepted by Nadler & Wiggs, (1986). It is said that success of an organisation does not only depend on financial and natural resources, but also on human resources: the people who are performing operations in the production line, Luoma, (2000a). Thus, we may say that manufacturing organisations included in this survey indicate the importance of efficient management and employing appropriate personnel for achieving the objectives of an organisation.

7.3.4 Training Methods

This section will discuss the two principal methods used in training employees, , on-the-job training (within the company) and off-the-job training (away from the company) This means that the decision as to whether the training will be on or off-the-job depends on many factors, for example, availability of trainers, facilities and costs. For the purposes of this study, all types of training methods used to provide training both 'inside' or 'outside' the companies are subject to analysis. Therefore, to classify the various methods into 'inside' and 'outside' the job, the participants were asked to identify whether the training

methods were either 'inside' or 'outside' the job. The training methods used in 'outside' the job included training in classes, computer-based training, outdoor experiential training and audio and visual. While the training methods used inside the job included on-the-job instructions, special projects, field work visits and role playing. Each method used is shown in table 7.9. This study considers that the methods used in training employees using on-the-job training in its modern form is evidence of HRD practices being present.

After combining the various training methods into two groups, training 'inside' the company and training 'outside' the company, a paired sample t-test revealed that there is a significant difference between methods within a job (mean = 2.50 ,sd = .612) and methods outside a job (mean = 3.20, sd = 0.723) ($P < .001$, $df = 215$, $t = 12.542$). In addition, t-test of the independent sample indicated that there is a significant difference between LMCs and SMCs with training methods away from the company and inside the company ($P < .001$, $t = -5.334$) and ($t = -1.983$, $p < 0.000$) respectively.

Table 7.9 Comparison of Mean and Independent Sample T-test for Methods Used.

Training Methods	Size of company				t-test	
	LMCs		SMCs		T	P
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
Away from the company	3.38	0.790	3.02	0.860	-5.334	0.000*
Training in classroom (Lectures)	4.03	0.785	3.57	0.940	-2.660	.008
Computer-based training	2.80	0.748	2.47	0.772	2.152	.034**
Outdoor experiential training	3.78	0.824	3.38	0.854	2.368	.382
Audio and visual	2.92	0.735	2.66	0.845	-1.636	.105
In the company	2.54	0.710	2.45	0.541	-1.983	0.000*
On-job Instructions	3.87	0.772	3.59	0.766	-1.823	.229
Special projects	2.17	0.811	1.97	0.412	-1.477	.000*
Field work visits	1.98	0.646	2.19	0.545	-1.785	.661
Role playing	2.14	0.644	2.04	0.308	-0.884	.000*

Rank of Means: 1-Never 2- Rarely, 3- Sometimes, 4- Frequent, 5- Very Frequent. $(1+2+3+4+5) \div 5=3$

*Meaningful significance at level 0.001 ** Meaningful level at 0.5

Further analyses on training methods 'away' from the company and 'in' the company were conducted and it was revealed that the most commonly used methods outside the company were the classroom (mean = 3.38 and 3.02) and 'outdoor experiential' (mean = 3.78 and 3.28). Comments from those who were subjected to interview regarding training away from the company included the following:

..... Types of training method differ for each levelwith regard to employees at the lower level, training is conducted through lectures and watching films, and computer-based trainingconcerning employees of the medium and senior level, group discussions and case studies are used instead of lectures ... (HR director; Food and drinks industry LMC).

I like group programs (outdoor experiential training); where some games or touring can be practiced and there will not be a feeling of boredom, but training in classrooms is very boring (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather LMC)

Using more advanced technology such as video conferencing, local networks and the internet was not common in manufacturing organisations in Libya (see table 7.9) and this contradicts surveys by Desimone et al., (2001) and Read & Kleiner, (1996), who report that training through classroom teaching was preferred in the United States. However, despite experiential training being common in manufacturing companies in Libya, its impact is still a matter of debate between academics and practitioners (Wagner & Campbell, 1994). But, it has been argued that the traditional form of classroom-based training is equally effective in building teams and for leadership development (Keller & Olson, 2000).

The centrality of on-the-job training has been mentioned repeatedly in the literature as the most frequently used method of training (see for example, Tregaskis & Brewster, 1998; Tregaskis & Dany, 1996; Sadler-Smith et al., 1999; Sadler & Lean, 2004). Accordingly, training on instructions within a job was common in manufacturing companies. This training method was common in both LMCs and SMCs (Mean = 3.787 and 3.59 respectively). However, Heraty & Moreley, (2000) criticised the strategy of instruction within a job as it is considered ineffective since it is unplanned, unsystematic and difficult to assess. Nevertheless, training through instructions within work was found to allow a natural learning environment and facilitate the process of presenting information (Heraty & Morley, 2000).

Other methods of on-the-job training such as job rotation, especially visiting projects and work sites were less common and are not talked about in detail; means were between 1.98 and 2.19, which are low rates since this is considered expensive and a waste of time, especially visiting projects and work sites. Sending employees overseas for fieldwork, visits to parent companies is an expensive investment, but these visits can enable companies to transfer the learning of new technologies to the local companies (Koike, 1997; Wong et al., 2003).

In terms of role playing, the notion of regularly rotating employees to perform various tasks is regarded as having a positive effect on the employee's knowledge and skills (Bacon & Blyton, 2003). However, this may not be the case in manufacturing organisations in Libya. Employers in Libya are not convinced with regard to the importance of role playing. For example, and as one of the managers who was interviewed said:

An employee becomes happy when he continues working in the same career for several years and when he feels bored, he leaves the company seeking another job. Accordingly, changing roles is uncommon in our company and the rate of occupational change is high (Executive of Human Resources; Power and Electronics SMC)

Based on the previously mentioned results, T&D/HRD practitioners in Libyan manufacturing companies stated that training through classroom, outdoor-based training and training on the job instructions were preferred. In this case, the companies realised that the importance of learning through classrooms and outdoor experiential training have a motivational objective and on-the-job instructions training is for skills training, especially with current employees in a specific job. Therefore, it is believed that manufacturing companies included in this study preferred using traditional methods more than modern one, and this is evidence of the lack of maturity in the implementation of HRD.

7.3.5 Training Provider and Place

Training can be provided to an employee in several ways, such as internal training at the headquarters of the company, if it has a place suitable for training. Training can also be provided externally through an external training provider or in any place outside the location of the company. The other option is having an internal trainer or external consultant to provide the training program within the training centre of an institution.

The results displayed in table 7.10 show that LMCs and SMCs preferred internal training conducted by external consultants (mean = 4.62 and 4.42 respectively) and outside the company through external consultants, (means = 4.26 and 4.50). Similarly, regarding LMCs and SMCs, the use of training service providers, such as external training

through internal trainers and training conducted in the companies' training centre, was the least preferred option according to means which ranged from 2.21 to 1.88. With each option, there was one difference between LMCs and SMCs. The SMCs indicated a low preference for training delivered by an external trainer, especially when training was inside the institution (mean = 2.88). In this case, LMCs preferred receiving internal training from internal trainers (mean = 4.39). SMCs often do not have the resources to provide internal trainers and appropriate training places compared to LMCs. Generally, these results show that LMCs and SMCs have a greater preference for outsourcing their training activities to external trainers and consultants, and that delivering training through their own trainers to their employees was less popular. The following statements emphasise the above propositions:

Internal trainers focus on training activities within a job, such as checking vehicles and maintenance of equipment and they do not have extra time for anything else (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather LMC).

External trainers provide more experiences and new skills, they believe in exchanging opinions through their wide experience, they can provide the best practices (Executive of human resources; Power and Electronics SMC).

In fact, it is understood that external trainers help with providing new practices and professional opinions that the internal trainer may lack. Those internal trainers are responsible for some specific aspects related to occupational training, such as training during the job or specialised technical training, such as the training of engineering practices and training on information technology or occupational security and health.

Table 7.10 Comparisons of Means and T-test of the Independent Sample for Training Providers

Place and Training Providers	Size of company				t-test	
	LMCs		SMCs			
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	t	P
In-house by internal trainers	4.39	0.528	2.88	0.592	-13.303	.000*
In-house by external consultants	4.62	0.492	4.42	0.500	-1.762	.081
Externally conducted by internal trainers	2.53	0.808	2.12	0.771	-2.574	.012**
Externally conducted by external consultants	4.26	0.746	4.50	0.740	1.730	.087
Organisation's own training centre	2.21	0.867	1.88	0.705	-2.035	.045**

Rank of Means: 1-Very low 2- Low, 3- Average, 4- High, 5- Very high. $(1+2+3+4+5) \div 5=3$

*Meaningful significance at level 0.001 ** Meaningful level at 0.5

According to what is mentioned above, employers prefer depending on external training sources because they lack the required internal experience for certain specialised training programs. The need for specialised professional and skillful human resources personnel, as well as lack of time for human resources personnel, led to resorting to external sources to support training programs. Among other justifications was:

"When we conduct our training in-house, the number of trainees needed to attend a particular programme is small and could be more cost-effective, also our company does not have a training room and the necessary equipment and facilities for training..." (Human resources manager; Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC)

The previous statement illustrates the reason why HRD practitioners may resort to external sources. Having an in-house training room is not seen a necessary. Employers appear to prefer sending employees to public programs because they have the right after that to demand training costs from T&D funds. This is one of the reasons for the dependence of HRD programs on external sources. However, outsourcing HRD activities,

which were formerly conducted in-house, is extremely common in manufacturing organisations in Libya. In fact, a substantial amount of research suggests that most companies outsource their HR activities, particularly targeting outsourcing HRD activities (see for example, Mulder & Tjepkema, 1999; Gainey & Klaas, 2005).

7.4 Evaluation

Evaluation is the most important stage of the training process, but also the most often ignored one (Davies, 1983; Swanson & Holton, 2001). It is the stage that is most likely to be conducted in an unprofessional manner (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 1995). Evaluation aims to collect all necessary information as a feedback to correct and develop training programs, to control the whole program's stages and to ensure that training objectives are consistent with the prepared plans. However, this stage is the most difficult task in the training cycle. Hence, the participating companies were asked questions concerning the evaluation of their companies.

7.4.1 The Methods of Evaluation and Level of Satisfaction

This part will discuss the different levels of evaluation, mentioned in chapter three (see section 3.5.1.4) including: 1) Trainees' reactions 2) Learning outcomes 3) Behaviour change 4) Organisational performance 5) The return on investment.

Before performing these evaluations, the learning outputs of employees will be compared before and after each training program. Thus, the various levels of evaluation are the basis for comparison and evaluation has at least some degree of precision. Finally, the level of employees' satisfaction about the different methods of evaluation was investigated and these results are shown in table 7.11.

Table 7.11 Means Comparison and Independent T-test for Evaluation

Place and Training Providers	Size of company				t-test	
	LMCs		SMCs			
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	t	P
1-Trainees' reactions	3.96	0.852	3.52	0.943	-3.384	.036
2- Learning outcomes	3.75	0.856	3.30	0.949	-2.360	.135
3- Behaviour change	4.03	0.785	3.57	0.940	-2.592	.008*
4-Organizational performance	2.28	0.706	1.97	0.348	-2.850	.000*
5- The return-on-investment	1.70	0.652	1.40	0.543	-2.558	.290
Comparing the learning outcomes of employees before and after each training programme	2.41	0.654	1.71	0.553	-5.696	.066
Satisfaction with evaluation methods	4.10	0.927	3.52	0.943	-3.051	.348

Rank of Means: 1-Never 2- Rarely, 3- Sometimes, 4- Frequent, 5- Very Frequent. $(1+2+3+4+5) \div 5=3$

*Meaningful significance at level 0.001

The first stage of evaluation is aimed at measuring an employee's reaction towards the training program attended. At this stage, employees are required to complete the questionnaire at the end of each training program. (Delahaye, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 1998). The first stage of evaluation seems to be regularly performed by LMCs and SMCs (mean = 3.96, 3.52 respectively). In fact, most studies emphasise that defining and analysing trainers' reactions is frequently performed in the process of evaluation (for example, Heraty & Morley, 2000; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003; Morrow, 2001; Blanchard et al., 2000). For instance, one comment on this method of evaluation was as follows:

"the questionnaire contains questions relating to the facilities, equipment used, food served, whether the room is comfortable, the efficiency of the trainer, materials and course contents, whether they are easy to understand and relevant to the job, whether we have learned anything from the program and our satisfaction with the program" (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather LMC).

The second stage of evaluation measures employees' learning outcomes which is sometimes carried out by T&D/HRD practitioners in both LMCs (mean = 3.75) and SMCs (mean = 3.30). This stage evaluates knowledge and skills acquired by an employee and changes in attitudes (Delahay, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 1994). To confirm employees' outputs, the evaluation of T&D/HRD practitioners can only be valid when evaluating employees' learning before and after each training programme (Warr, Allan & Birdi, 1999). However, this process was rare in both LMCs (mean = 2.41) and SMCs (mean = 1.71). Other studies have provided similar results (For example, Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003). Interviews included comments on the second stage as follows:

"Sometimes we choose to talk with employees at random, and this talk is an informal conversation, such as posing a question about the program, Or whether the program is OK It is an informal question" (Director of HR; Furniture, carpets and wooden products LMC)

The findings revealed that the interviews were conducted with employees after each training program to inquire about whether they had acquired any knowledge or experience during the learning program. These interviews were conducted informally with employees who had expected a formal and documented process, with the information gathered being used to assess the employees' learning, and identify training needs in the future. However, in manufacturing companies in Libya, interviews with employees within the evaluation process have been reported as being informal talks with a group of workers rather than a formal and documented process.

To move to the third stage: measuring the employee's behavior, this level answers, 'whether people use what they know at work?' (Hale, 2003). Again, it is evident that LMCs and SMCs differed in their approach to this stage of evaluation. In this stage, employees' behavioural change is evaluated through job performance and social interactions, and the means were (4.03, 3.57 respectively) in these companies. This third stage of evaluation is considered difficult by several researchers (Bassi et al., 1997; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003; Morrow, 2001; Banchard et al., 2000; Altarawneh, 2005).

The fourth stage of evaluation assesses the effect of HRD on organisational performance. T&D/HRD practitioners in manufacturing organisations in Libya rarely use this measure of evaluation (mean = 2.28 for LMCs and mean = 1.97 for SMCs). This phenomenon is not uncommon since several researchers have posited that this stage of evaluation was not considered important by employers (Morrow, 2001; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003; Blanchard et al., 2000; Altarawneh, 2005). However, interviews with the T&D/HRD practitioners revealed a different perspective; it was found that the impact of training programs was observed through the increase in productivity due to employees' teamwork and motivation. This is reflected in the comment below:

"It is said that a difference can be seen in the production line...low absentee rate, complete attendance by production employees. All these lead to production increase" (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather LMC)

Concerning the approach used to evaluate training program, previous results show that informal observation and feedback are used rather than more complex formal methods.

The previous four stages of evaluation are designed to measure non-economic results, such as employee's reaction, learning, behavioural change, and transfer of learning as well as evaluating intangible economic results (Reid & Barrington, 2003).

The fifth and final stage is assessing the cost efficiency of training in terms of recent return on investment (ROI). Mitchell (1994) argued that measuring the income of investments was a method that investigates and documents training benefits and is used to create a measurable training impact. Conversely, the scale of measuring investment income of training programs in manufacturing companies which were subjected to survey was not significant, and this can be noticed in table 7.11 since it shows that LMCs (mean = 1.70) rarely evaluate the financial income of training programs. SMCs ignore this subject (mean = 1.40). This observation is similar to those found in other studies. For example, Swanson (2001a) noted that only 5% of all training programs in an institution were being evaluated for their financial impact. This is because evaluating the financial impact of training was considered to be most difficult, and most often ignored evaluation in the process of HRD (Swanson & Holton, 2001).

It is evident through previous results that evaluating the financial benefits of training programs in manufacturing companies is considered useful for assessing future financial benefits of training employees. However, it is not always practical.

Generally, both SMCs and LMCs were satisfied with the methods used in evaluation related to the different stages of evaluation, despite the preference for more informal methods of evaluation, such as observations, informal interviews and conversations. Particularly, more than three quarters of T&D/HRD practitioners from LMCs (mean= 4.10) and more than half of SMCs (mean= 3.52) were satisfied with their existing methods of evaluation.

In conclusion T&D/HRD practitioners in manufacturing companies included in this study in Libya rarely practice any formal evaluation. The conducted evaluation was a formal investigative survey on the employees' reaction level, and since the employee's informal feedback was used in evaluating the obtained learning level, and observation and feedback were used to evaluate an employee's performance, these evaluations were sometimes not rigorous. Agnaia, (1996) referred to similar results showing that trainers in Libya were not committed to evaluating training in the required manner. Furthermore, other studies have emphasised that a only a small number of organisations assessed training programs in many cases, which usually included informal training methods (Smith, 1999; Budhwar et al., 2002; and Alzalabany, 2002).

7.5 Performance Management:

As discussed earlier, most companies in this study do not evaluate training activities from the systematic or formal perspective, or only do so to a limited extent. In this section, the participating companies were asked questions related to the evaluation of employees' performance improvement. The aim of evaluating performance is to assess the training and learning acquired, control behavior, and for use for budgeting training activities (Behn, 2003) and motivating and promoting high performance employees (Whitfield & Poole, 1997; Poole et al., 1997a & Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Gardiner et al., 2001).

The variables in performance management were classified into two groups to better explain employees' performance management. These groups named two factors (Gilley, Egglund & Gilley, 2002). Factor 1 included: Measured performance gaps, Employee's acquired skills, knowledge and attitudes after training and development activities and comparison between employee's current performance and desired performance, this factor

is termed the **Performance Evaluation Process**. Factor 2 measured the development and encourages self-directed and self-esteemed employees, reward strategies for high performance employees and development initiatives for managers, which are termed the **Performance Management Strategies** (See table 7.12).

Table 7.12: Comparing means, frequency distributions and the independent sample T-Test of Performance Management.

Performance Management	Size of company						t-test	
	LMCs			SMCs			T	P
	Mean	SD	%	Mean	SD	%		
Yearly employee's performance appraisal	2.78	1.43	51.8	1.78	.870	9.5	-4.269	0.000*
Performance Evaluation Process (Factor 1)	2.56	1.26	-	1.69	1.05	-	-3.745	0.000*
Determine employee' performance gaps	2.28	1.33	25.0	1.66	.816	2.4	-2.660	0.000
Analyse employee's acquired skills, knowledge and attitudes	2.75	1.26	35.8	1.73	1.16	14.3	-4.039	0.060
Compare employee's current performance with desired performance	2.64	1.19	25.0	1.69	1.19	11.9	-4.012	0.012
Performance Management strategies (Factor 2)	3.15	.990	-	2.55	1.25	-	-2.679	0.000*
Development and encourage self-directed and Self-esteemed employees	3.64	.840	69.6	3.04	1.34	61.9	-2.691	0.000*
Reward strategies for high performance employees	2.28	1.33	25.0	1.73	1.16	14.3	2.121	0.019
Create management development initiatives for managers	3.55	.800	64.3	2.88	1.25	47.6	-3.225	0000*

Classification average: 1- Strongly disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neither 4- Agree 5-Strongly agree $(1+2+3+4+5) \div 5=3$
 % Percentage of agrees responses (answers). Significant at level 0.01

The T-test of the paired sample showed a statistically significant difference between means of performance evaluation process (mean = 2.61 and standard deviation = 0.936), ($t = -4.722$, $df = 86$, $p < .0001$). When comparing the mean scores, the process of performance evaluation and formulation of the performance management strategy was higher in LMCs (mean = 3.17 and sd = 0.734) than SMCs (mean = 2.38 and sd = 0.873), ($t = -6.439$, $p < .0001$). Furthermore, it is evident that the performance evaluation process and performance management strategy are significantly different in SMCs and LMCs ($p = .000$, less than .05 significant level).

7.5.1: Repetition of Performance Evaluation Process

Results showed that 51.8% of LMCs conducted annual performance evaluation regularly, compared to 9.5% of SMCs. However, as shown in table 7.12, T&D/HRD practitioners rarely implement the three stages of evaluation in SMCs (means from 1.66 to 1.73) and LMCs (means from 2.28 to 2.75). For instance, few respondents from SMCs said that they exert systematic efforts to determine performance gaps for employees (2.4%), analyse skills, knowledge and attitudes (14.3%) and compare employee's current performance with desired performance (11.9). In contrast, about more than a quarter of respondents from the LMCs exert performance evaluation efforts systematically. Accordingly, the significant difference of $p = .000 < 0.05$ indicates that LMCs are more willing than SMCs to evaluate the improvement and achievements of employees' performance.

Performance evaluation in this survey is designed to focus on managerial decision-making, such as rewards, retrenchment plans, future plans and plans regarding employees' developmental needs either currently or in the future (Sadler-Smith & Badger, 1998; Delahaye, 2000; Gardiner et al., 2001; Behn, 2003). However, in manufacturing organisations in Libya, which were subject to survey, another perspective was reached concerning the results of this study. For instance, most T&D/HRD practitioners said that they disagree with the current performance evaluation system since the objective of performance evaluation is unclear, and there is also a lack of rewards which are considered effective in terms of implementing performance evaluation. This opinion can be noted in the discussions below; where most managers, who were subject to interview, commented on the extent to which performance evaluations were conducted

Yes we have performance evaluation that is conducted every year, but as you know... it is formally conducted.... everything is written without being discussed with the workforce and I personally believe that this is unfair (Human resources manager; Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC).

Furthermore, it was found that T&D/HRD practitioners disagree with employees' evaluations due to discrimination that was noted in another interview:

I do not accept our system of evaluating performance: the boss will not mention anything except my weaknesses and he will ignore my strengths. Furthermore, the evaluation system includes only three choices: poor, satisfactory and good. No matter how good you are, you will be always given: satisfactory (Human resources manager; Manufacturing and Mineral Products -LMC).

No...we attempted to conduct performance evaluation... but it was subjective...the boss is the only one who evaluates our performance; if he likes me, everything will be fine and if he dislikes me, he will not allow me to defend myself and we will be obliged to agree to any of his performance evaluation measures (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather LMC).

In view of this, it appears that management do not seriously deal with performance evaluation of T&D/HRD staff in either LMCs or SMCs. Similarly, the process of evaluating employees' performance in manufacturing companies included in this study tends to be more informal and lacks the commitment of employers and managers involved in the process of evaluation.

7.5.2: Performance Management Strategies:

The lack of commitment of employers and managers to performance evaluations has been identified as one of the drawbacks in complying with the systematic process of performing performance appraisals. However, Gilley, Egglund & Gilley (2002) suggested three critical strategies to improve performance abilities of managers and employees in the organisations. First: create management development initiatives such as problem-solving and consultative skills for managers, who conduct the process of evaluation. Second: develop and encouragement self-reliance and self-esteem on the part of employees through the evaluation process. Third: reward strategies for high performance employees. Of these three strategies, the first and second strategies gained strong support from respondents in the current survey. More than 60% of LMCs and 47.6% of SMCs agreed on the value of these strategies. Yet, only a small number of respondents (25% of LMCs and 14.3% of SMCs) agreed with rewarding employees who had high performance in their companies. Reward strategies for high performance employees seem undesirable in the manufacturing companies included in this study and this is evident from the following statements mentioned by managers, who were subject to interview:

The board of directors determine yearly bonuses for our employees, which is considered as a motivation reward for their performance, but there is no special performance bonuses; every employee receives the same amount (Human resources manager; Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC) .

An annual bonus, which is considered a motivational reward, is given to our employees; however, employees receive the same amount. Thus, there is no difference between the distinguished and undistinguished (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather; LMC)

The previous statements indicate that Libyan manufacturing companies do not have a special rewards plan for their employees and tend to reward both the above-average and average employee performance equally. This indicates that employees' motivation could be affected, because high performance employees were not recognised and rewarded accordingly and this may be due to a cultural effect or is to do with the politics in these companies.

7.6 Career planning and development

Career development is a tool by which organisations can endeavour to increase employees' productivity and improve employees' attitudes toward work. In addition, career development is an accepted HRD strategy, and is known as a more systematic method of reducing performance problems for both employees and managers (Gilley et al., 2002). In this study, participating companies were asked whether they generated any career development plans and activities for their employees. Further detailed analysis of planning, progression programs and evaluation for career development is presented below.

7.6.1 Long Term Human Resource Planning

Earlier in the analysis, it was specified that employees' long-term developmental planning was affected by organisation size. Employees' long-term developmental planning was evidently different between the LMCs and the SMCs indicated by $p = .000$. The SMCs were observed as never having formulated any plans for their employees career development (mean = 1.22), whereas, the larger industries were a little more proactive, as indicated by a mean score of 1.88 (rarely). For instance, as commented by a manager interviewed:

We do not have career planning and development for our employees. Usually, if there is a vacant position in our organisation, we take in new people. It saves us the time, money and manpower in the production of training internal workers for promotion, (General Manager; Machines, cars, motors and vehicles SMC)

The above statement may support the evidence from the survey that formal planning for employees' career development was rare almost to the point of non-existence. This may not be surprising as formalising career development plans is also a rarity and practically absent in most organisations surveyed in previous studies (see for example, Tregaskis & Dany, 1996). This suggests that these organisations do not have the ingredients to identify themselves as having HRD.

7.6.2 Career Progression Programmes

With the scarcity of career planning, the notion of employees being provided with career developmental programs was also predicted to be a rarity. It was suggested by Gilley et al., (2002) that job posting systems, mentoring programs, career development seminars and workshops are some of the methods that can be used in enhancing and developing employees' career paths. Career development programs such as job posting (mean = 1.88), mentoring (mean = 1.78), seminars and workshops (mean = 1.84) were rarely implemented in the larger companies. These programs were hardly initiated at all in the SMCs (mean scores between 1.18 and 1.23). Without a doubt, the extent to which career development programs were being executed in the SMCs and LMCs was significantly different, with these programs being non-existent in the SMCs and rarely put into practice by the larger companies.

7.6.3 Career Progression Evaluations

Furthermore, it was observed that performance appraisals were rarely transformed into career developmental evaluation in the LMCs (mean = 2.25) and was never performed in the SMCs (mean = 1.34). The proposition that very few companies in the SMCs performed formal and regular performance appraisals (which was discussed in the previous section) corroborates the findings that performance appraisals were never transformed into developmental evaluations. Thus, this suggests that T&D practitioners in the manufacturing sector companies surveyed lacked the responsibility to provide their employees with career development opportunities and were not thinking of long-term development, but more of short-term developmental activities. Indeed, this was also confirmed by the lack of long-term T&D plans, as discussed earlier in the chapter. However, T&D practitioners' lack of long-term developmental foresight may lead to high employees turnover rates. At the same time, the notion that employing new employees may be cheaper than upgrading existing employees may be in evidence, but this proposition may not be true as employers might end up training both the internal and external replacement rather than saving training costs. Nonetheless, despite employers' preference for recruiting new employees, there is an increased emphasis on retaining existing skilled employees as highly skilled workers are currently in high demand (Tregaskis & Dany, 1996; Garavan, Morley, Gunnigle & McGuire, 2002). Nevertheless, previous studies have corroborated the fact that most organisations surveyed do not have clear career development systems (Budhwar, Al-Yamadi & Debrah, 2002; Swanson & Holton, 2008). Career progressions are largely achieved through the perseverance of individual employees (Aryee, Debrah & Yue, 1993) rather than through career developmental training by the company (Lloyd, 2002).

Table 7.13: Means Comparison and Independent Sample T-test for Career Development

Career Development	Size of company				t-test	
	LMCs		SMCs			
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	T	P
Long term human resource planning	1.22	.479	1.87	1.13	-6.724	.000
Career progression programmes	1.18	.419	1.83	1.05	-6.429	.000
Career progressions appraisals	1.34	.745	2.25	1.43	-7,219	.000

Rank of Means: 1-Very low 2- Low, 3- Average, 4- High, 5- Very high. $(1+2+3+4+5) \div 5=3$

*Meaningful significance at level 0.001

7.7 Major challenge of HRD

In the previous part of this chapter, the overall HRD process and the various activities and practices of HRD were discussed. These include planning and strategy for T&D, analysing T&D needs; the design, delivery and implementation of training, as well as evaluation and managing performance improvement. Indeed, it was suggested that all these activities are critical in managing HRD and they require appropriate and efficient planning, development, organisation and implementation in order to be effective (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986; Chalofsky & Reinhart, 1988; Nadler & Nadler, 1989; Harrison, 2000; Armstrong, 2000; Swanson & Holton, 2001; Gilley et al., 2002;). Yet, the management of HRD has its own set of problems in attempting to implement effective HRD. Hence, on this basis, this section will examine three major challenges faced by T&D/HRD practitioners in manufacturing companies in Libya in implementing effective HRD, and aims to answer the third research question, namely to identify is what the major challenges of HRD are in the manufacturing sector in Libya. Since the data of this analysis were obtained by open-ended questions and interviews data, these were not used to compare LMCs and SMCs. The findings from this analysis are a general overview of the manufacturing companies in Libya. Analysis was determined in this section by classifying subjective ideas for open-

ended questions and interview data to constitute a consistent approach to the study. Upon analysis, the three major challenges include: First: a lack of HRD professionals. Second: managing the demand for knowledge skills workers. Third: developing employees' learning and development. These challenges are discussed in following section.

7.7.1 Lack of HRD professionals

As stated in the previous chapters, the literature states that it is important for employers to employ skillful and knowledgeable employees in their organisations, where they are the main human capital or assets of the company (Nadler & Wiggs, 1986; Nadler & Nadler, 1989; Harrison, 2000; Schmidt & Lines, 2002; Harrison & Kessels, 2004). Similarly, T&D/HRD practitioners are also viewed as important human capital in organisations because of their knowledge, skills, experience and competence to manage the complex and broad function in HRD. Unfortunately, the lack of HRD professionals, who are the main human capital in the HRD function, is limiting the HRD function efficiency in manufacturing companies in Libya. As indicated in this study, most manufacturing companies had T&D/HRD practitioners but this group appeared to lack the knowledge and skills to carry out T&D/HRD functions. In support of this, typical statements from the interviews included the following:

My duty is to plan for yearly training programs, bring external trainers in and get our workers to attend the training as we don't have experienced internal trainers (HR director; Power and Electronics SMC).

We provide our workers with training but our problem is having someone to do the TNA, evaluating and supervising trainingetc. These tasks are not easy and require an expert, such as a real HRD expert! I can't perform them because it is not my area (HR director; Food and drinks industry LMC).

From the above statements, it is clear that manufacturing companies in Libya lack the manpower and experience for performing different responsibilities in T&D. This view is similar to that of Debrah et al., (2000) in their study of the manufacturing sector in south East Asia. This manufacturing sector requires experienced and knowledgeable HRD individuals such as professional internal trainers who have experience of training and developing employees in organisations. This requires employers to focus upon employing experienced HRD professionals to take a role in developing human expertise in organisations and managing HRD of different specialisations such as training, development, performance management, professional development, organisational development management and change. However, the situation existing in manufacturing companies in this study revealed a lack of HRD professionals and a situation in which HR managers responsible for HRD were performing multiple functions. These practitioners view training and employee development as a secondary role to managing HR. Accordingly these conditions may result in ineffective implementation of HRD and increasing uncertainty as to the purpose of HRD (Sambrook & Stewart, 2002).

7.7.2 Managing the demanding for knowledge workers

Since government HRD policy invites employers and organisations to train employees and provide them with skills and knowledge, T&D/HRD practitioners in these manufacturing companies face the challenge of managing the demand for knowledge qualified employees. Three critical factors will be discussed to describe the challenge faced by T&D/HRD practitioners regarding managing the demanding for these workers.

These factors include:

- 1- Hiring and retaining technical expertise and a qualified workforce.
- 2- Staff education level.
- 3- Libya's educational system
- 4- The learning difficulties of older staff.

The first factor is related to hiring and retaining technical expertise and a qualified workforce. Employers and T&D practitioners face challenges in hiring and retaining technical expertise and a qualified workforce, although various organisations have been established by the government to support technical and professional training. Hiring skillful workers and knowledgeable trainers in competitive industries is difficult. However at the same time developing and retaining these workers is increasingly challenging due to problems faced by employers and T&D/HRD practitioners (Cunningham & Debrah, 1995; Chermack et al., 2003). For example some of the managers interviewed discussed the issues of hiring, retraining and retaining technical expertise; it was found that employees often leave their jobs after receiving training.

It is not easy to convince an employee to stay in their job after obtaining costly training They are good workers but we can't force them to stay in their jobs because they have great aspirations (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather; LMC).

All technical workers spent many years at the company..... They have been promoted from the bottom.....but the problem is that they are headhunted by other competitor companies (Executive of Human Resources; Power and Electronics SMC).

Our workers being headhunted by other competitors and even our neighbour company has always happened. It is part of the challenge of being in HR, which is why we rarely give expensive training to our workers, except those whom we know are our dedicated and loyal workers (Human Resources Manager- Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC).

Accordingly, workers of manufacturing companies in this study were seen as being attracted by competitor companies for their expertise, or in search of their own career advancement which may be lacking in the manufacturing companies under survey. This phenomenon exists because those trained workers are in demand by competitor companies which offer high salaries and more benefits (Lloyd, 2002; Kerr & McDougall, 2002; Beckmann, 2002; Moen & Rosen, 2004). Moreover, these aspirational attitudes in manpower involve HRD professionals, highly skilled employees, technicians, IT specialists and engineers who are determined to find a new, challenging job and a new work medium (Bova & Kroth, 2001), (Holland, Hecker & Steem, 2002) and (Chermack et al., 2003). Therefore, the above implies that employers and T&D/HRD practitioners may have to examine their hiring and promotion criteria to ensure that individuals employed are competent according to their job specifications (Hansen, 2003). Moreover, aspects such as training, retention and career progression may require some serious attention to enable skilled and competent workers to be trained and retained within the organisation.

Indeed, attracting and retaining capable human resources has become the key challenge for most organisations as the workforce has become more valuable in terms of their expertise and competence in a competitive environment (O'Connell, 1999; Wedell, 1999; Chermack et al., 2003).

Second: the demand for knowledge workers not only concerns individuals' skills and abilities but also their education level (Silver, 1991; O'Connell, 1999; Streumer et al., 1999). Existing employees in manufacturing companies have limited qualifications and some have no qualifications beyond primary school level six or are illiterate, particularly in the case of shop floor employees (production operators). This point was made clear in an interview:

Of course it is not a problem of language only but the most common problem in many manufacturing companies is the low educational level of manpower, especially at the production level. Most of our workers have no qualification higher than grade six primary. We are starting to employ intermediate certificates holders or at least those who left school and have computer skills (Human Resources Manager; Manufacturing and Mineral Products LMC

Supervisory team workers who were upgraded from the shop floor (production level) are considered as pioneers in the production line, given that their experience made them qualified to be upgraded to supervisory level. But due to the low educational level of these employees may cause problems related to language, communications and attitudes towards learning. For instance, a statement from the HR director of a food and drinks industry is quoted as:

The educational problem is a big problem ...because many of our workers were recruited some time ago... at a time when the company did not require high educational levels (HR Director of Food and Drinks Industry LMC).

The ability to read and write in the workplace is an important requirement for employees' participation in HRD and training activities (O'Connell, 1999; Streuner et al., 1999). Organisations having relatively high numbers of employees with low basic skills and a low educational level believe that it is difficult of these workers to fully participate in any training available (Bates, 2001). Moreover, highly qualified employees are desired (Low, 1998) and (Chermachet al., 2003) especially in the manufacturing industry. Nowadays employers appoint persons holding at least an intermediate certificate or a university degree with computer knowledge.

Third: Libya's educational system has been upgraded by means of a broad expansion of school and university education, as well as the creation of other institutes. Moreover, this large educational campaign includes sending many Libyan students and postgraduates abroad. The aim is to increase the number of highly qualified professionals in all sectors. According to the General Secretariat for Education and Scientific Research GSESR, (1999), in comparison to the rest of North Africa, Libya has the highest number of academically trained and highly qualified citizens. Many Libyans have completed study programmes at well-known foreign universities across the world. They are well educated, but not sufficiently well trained, in particular with regard to management and leadership techniques. Moreover, Libya evaluated its whole educational system and found that student admissions in universities were very high in the pure academic studies: social sciences, literature, law, and the arts (Teferaa & Altbach, 2003). On the other hand,

admissions were very low in basic sciences, technology, and engineering. This imbalance did not help Libya's manufacturing development.

The generally poor educational system in Libya in which quantity was favoured over quality in the process of eradicating illiteracy produced an unskilled worker force requiring extensive on-the-job training. This can drive up training costs and render TQM implementation quite expensive, as stated by the following interviewee:

I do not think the educational system is preparing graduate students for the variety of jobs in the marketplace. Employees need to be re-educated and heavily trained to reach manufacturing standards (HR Director; Power and Electronics SMC)

Fourth: it was stated by respondents that the majority of senior members of the workforce represent the oldest group, commonly referred to as "baby boomers" in the literature (Bova & Kroth, 2001), (Desimone et al., 2002) and (Chermack et al., 2003), this point was confirmed this comment:

We upgrade them on the basis of experience and we find that many workers are unfamiliar with machinesso they cannot understand advanced technology ... we have to train them but there are many old people who can't be trained. We can't change their positions or fire them so they we have to give them other secure work (HR Director; Food and drinks industry LMC).

In fact it was found that senior staff was unable to use computers or new technologies. As a result, developing them to become knowledge workers may be considered a challenge or a waste of resources (Low, 1998; Chermack et al., 2003). Generally the above results state that T&D/HRD practitioners are faced with the challenge of hiring, training, retraining, retention and developing employees to become knowledge workers. This problem is particularly acute in the case of ageing number of staff, especially those with a lower educational level. In this context, the literature stated that demographic issues of manpower such as education levels and ageing manpower are challenges for employers and HRD in many organisations (see for example Alzalabani, 2002, Desimone et al., 2002, Chermack et al., 2003; and Low, 1998).

7.7.3 Fostering learning and development in the workplace

It is indicated in the literature that HRD activities are designed to change the behaviour and attitudes of staff towards their jobs and organisation (Nadler, 1989) but T&D/HRD practitioners are faced with the problems related to employees' behaviours and jobs. This section will first discuss the issues of managers' uncooperative behaviour and secondly, that of the attitudes of non-managerial staff towards their job in the workplace.

First: this study found that top management, senior and line managers' uncooperative behavior towards HRD affected HRD efficiency. For example, it was stated that obtaining cooperation from line managers to make employees undergo training and encouraging employees to transfer their newly acquired skills is a problem in this manufacturing sector. This was stated by a manager in an interview as follows:

Production is the most important thing for managers or supervisors. This makes managing training programs a very difficult task. For example, when we have certain training program for production workers, the main thing from which they suffer is that they have insufficient manpower on the production line and are unable to release any individual for training (HRD Manager; Concretes-cement-iron (ind.11) LMC).

A heavy workload on the production line is typically given by line managers as the reason for their lack of cooperation and support towards HRD. The analysis in this study showed that managers viewed production output as more important than providing employees with the required training, hence, the lack of cooperation in employees' T&D. Another main concern is employees' inability to transfer learning from training programs attended, and apply this learning to the workplace, due to supervisors' lack of support towards the transfer of learning. The transfer of learning represents the extent to which employees apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired in the training context to their job (Wexley & Latham, 2001). Earlier research on transfer of learning has provided convincing evidence that the work environment - the physical, social, and psychological conditions that individual employees experience at work - can either encourage or discourage the acquisition and transfer of new skills and knowledge (see for example, Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992; Reid & Barrington, 1997; Tannenbaum, 1997; Cheng & Ho, 2001; and Kupritz, 2002).

Second: Employees' negative attitude have may be more harmful and challenging because attitude and behavior change and organisational performance and efficiency were affected (See for example - Marsick & Watkins, 1993 and Swanson & Holton, 2001). T&D/HRD practitioners in manufacturing companies in Libya were seen to be concerned about employees' attitudes and mindset towards their jobs, learning, training and development, especially in adopting a learning climate. The following was quoted in the interviews:

"..... Employees' attitudes are the most challenging issue for employee training; development skills could be easy to enhance but not attitudes Service is not their priority; they work as an employee ...they don't work for achieving profits and goals (Training Manager; Plastic and Rubber products SMC).

"Our main problem is workers attitudes towards their jobs They are not committed to their jobs; they will take an emergency leave without reason They come to work late with no reason (Executive of Human Resources; Power and Electronics SMC).

"The worst problem is in attendance – because in the manufacturing line – workers attendance is very important Our line is operated by shifts and let me say that if each shift has 10 workers to operate production, if two are absent, this will affect production and other problems may arise (Director of HR; Furniture, Carpets and Wooden Products LMC).

Moreover employees lack commitment towards learning and training, especially committing to participation in training activities for example, as observed by some managers, full attendance at internal training program is impossible to achieve, and the absence percentage usually ranges from 20% to 40% for every session.

"Encouraging workers to attend training is a very difficult task as well as encouraging all of them to attend. Either they refuse to attend or they have other problems in the work place" (Director of HR; Furniture, Carpets and Wooden Products LMC).

Some managers stated that many employees had latent negative attitudes towards training. It was stated that some employees were "Satisfied" and content in the organisation so that new changes were not a threat. For example, one manager stated the following:

"I believe those workers' negative attitudes are because they are satisfied with their current position and achievements and feel settled in the company" (Executive of Human Resources; Power and Electronics SMC).

It is clear that the above attitudinal problems may require employees to resist change. Of course any change is usually resisted where it requires learning and adopting new skills and competencies (Tichy, 1983; Watkins & Marsick, 1993). Then T&D/HRD practitioners, employers and managers face the challenge of changing employees' attitudes towards positive learning and development. In fact the commitment of top management and support for HRD and training would facilitate the monitoring of employees' permanent learning and development (Kotter, 1996, Fernald et al., 1999, Harrison, 2000 and Desimone et al., 2002). However, in the surveyed companies only a small percentage

of top management is committed and involved in HRD. In fact, employers and T&D/HRD practitioners in these manufacturing companies are seen to be confronted with the individual employee negotiated character of learning other than the resources required to support such learning. Indeed, these dimensions in learning are said in the literature to be an important adaptation in fostering learning and development in the workplace (Harrison & Kessels, 2004). However, to develop learning and development in the workplace, self motivated and directed learning is related to individual employees (Marsick & Watkins, 1993 and Gilley et al, 2002), otherwise T&D/HRD practitioners are faced with a major challenge in adopting continued and effective learning in the workplace in order to provide workers with knowledge especially in manufacturing companies in Libya.

7.8 Summary

This chapter discussed the different HRD activities, and it is evident from the analyses that there is an obvious consideration for types and degrees of HRD activities that are carried out. The greatest consideration was given to the analysis of needs and evaluation processes. Most companies conducted some analyses of needs and evaluations. However the largest number of companies used informal methods rather than formal ones in analysing HRD needs. On the other hand, it is noticed that the process of evaluating training activities is mostly ignored in the manufacturing companies of Libya. Other activities, such as employees' performance evaluation, were also hardly emphasised. In addition, the study results show that HRD activity, which was carried out in the manufacturing companies that were subject to survey, was not carried out systematically and lacked a formal framework. These positive results in the context of Libyan manufacturing companies reveal complete diversity, as it is expected from the standard models of HRD.

Furthermore, this chapter has also discussed three challenges faced by T&D/HRD practitioners in developing HRD in manufacturing companies in Libya. However, due to the complex nature of HRD and the rapid changes in technology and workforce requirements (Poole & Jenkins, 1996 & 1997a; Debrah & Smith, 2000a,b&c), effective management of HRD is confronted with a shortage of highly qualified HRD professionals who are necessary to manage HRD function, foster learning and develop knowledge workers.

Chapter Eight

Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises and discusses the findings of this research which add to the body of knowledge within the HRD field. The first section presents the summary of the literature. The second section summarises the empirical findings. The third section sets out the major contributions made by this work. The fourth section addresses the limitations and the fifth section presents the general implications suggested by the findings. Finally, the last section presents a number of recommendations for future work.

The purpose of this research was to conduct an investigation in the Libyan manufacturing sector in both publicly owned Small and Medium Companies (SMCs) and large manufacturing companies (LMCs). This study is specifically concerned with the following research objectives.

1. To explore the understanding of a range of personnel who are responsible for T&D/ HRD in manufacturing companies in Libya of the purposes, concepts and characteristics of HRD.
2. To discover how T&D/HRD is implemented within the manufacturing sector in Libya and the extent to which it is implemented.
3. To identify the major challenges faced by organisations and T&D professionals when implementing HRD.
4. To explore if any evidence can be found of mature level HRD practice in Libya.

These research objectives are achieved through answering the following targeted research questions.

1. What are the purposes, concepts and characteristics of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya?
2. What types of HRD activities are being implemented, and to what extent are they implemented?
3. What are the major challenges in HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya?
4. To what extent has T&D in Libya evolved into HRD?

To answer these research questions and objectives, the researcher has undertaken a detailed review of the available literature on T&D/HRD in Libya, other Arab countries and in the western world. The purpose of this was to explore and construct a strong theoretical background of the conditions under which T&D and HRD is most effective, both in theory and published practice further discussion of the T&D/HRD continuum can be found in chapter one, section (1.6) and chapter three, section (3.4.3). A questionnaire survey based on previous research along with interviews conducted with 20 top managers responsible for HRD/T&D were the main primary data sources. In responding to the research questions the researcher developed models for HRD in both SMCs and LMCs, based on the work of Guest (1997) and that of McCracken and Wallace (1999) amongst others which has been discussed in chapter one and chapter three, section 3.4.3. These models are principally based on the process of HRD as illustrated in the conceptual framework in figure (1.1) chapter one, and chapter three, section 3.4.3 and informed by the HRD activities carried out in the organisations surveyed. The outcomes of applying the related HRD activities to these models enabled an assessment to be made of the level of HRD maturity in SMCs and LMCs in Libya based around these models.

8.2 Summary of the Literature

The main purpose of this study was to understand the nature and maturity level of HRD activities in Libyan manufacturing companies. It aimed to assess whether the concept of HRD can be applied to such activities. This study aimed in particular to understand using empirical evidence gained through descriptive accounts of T&D to make a comparison of the normative HRD models with these descriptive findings in the context of the manufacturing companies in Libya, and propose a model of HRD that can form the basis upon which HRD in Libya can be considered. This contributes to knowledge of the extent to which HRD exists in the manufacturing sector in Libya. Most similar studies have focused on T&D and HRD in developed countries, (see for example, (McGoldrick & Stewart, 1996; Valkeavaara, 1998; Short, 1998; Petridou & Glaveli, 2003; Sechaud, 1998) while research in developing countries has focused on Singapore, India, China, Malaysia and Sultanate of Oman, it has never been undertaken in this way in Libya (Osman Gani, 2000; Rao, 1996; Yan & Mclean, 1998; Busaya et al., 1998; Ardichvilli, 1998; Pawan et al., 2002).

The study of HRD is important in Libya, especially in state-owned manufacturing organisations because, first: these manufacturing organisations are one of the main contributors to economic development in the country, and second: the government emphasises the importance of developing human resources to enable the country to develop a skilled, highly specialised and experienced workforce in Libya the government exerts a high degree of influence over the companies in the research population due to their ownership structure. One of the key human and social capital objectives for Libya is to achieve a knowledge based economy with knowledge-workers (Libyan Ministry of Finance, 2004).

The western based literature revealed that the field of HRD has been one of continuous discourse and debates, with ambiguity surrounding its theories and models. The theoretical foundation and models of HRD have evolved from the simple three-legged stool model, (discussed in chapter three, section 3.3). This requires that the integrated functions of economic theory, systems theory and psychological theory required in HRD be adapted to the latest description of HRD as being recursive and complex (Swanson & Holton, 2009; Iles & Yolles, 2003). However, the complexity of HRD continuously develops and transforms responding to environmental changes (Lee, 2003; Iles & Yolles, 2003).

The literature revealed that HRD concepts and purposes can differ from one country to another depending on economics, politics, governmental legislation and the value system place at the time (McLean & McLean, 2001). In the normative context, HRD concepts involve training, educating and developing employees to improve knowledge and skills as well as enhancing attitudes and behaviour (Nadler & Nadler, 1989; Wilson, 2005; and Lee, 2003). The beneficiaries of HRD in this context are the individual employees, groups and organisations (Watkins, 1989; Chalofsky, 1992; and Weinberger, 1998). However, in the national context, the purposes of HRD extend to wider aims such as benefiting the country's social development (France), community development (Thailand), as well as economic and national development (Singapore) (see for example Sechaud, 1998; Busaya & NaChaingmai, 1998; Osman-Gani, 2000; Weinberger, 1998). Consequently, there is no agreement on one global definition of HRD (Ruona, 2000). Because the scope of HRD is seen to be very wide the focus on HRD activities in different countries varies in accordance to the individual country's perception, which may change with the evolution of knowledge and the influence of globalisation through for example the growth of multinational corporations that introduce their own brand of HRD to local operations (more details in section 3.2.3.1)

Some authors such as Stead & Lee, 1996, Harrison, 2000 consider HRD as an expansion of training and development (T&D) with a strategic component, such as combining Human Resources (HR) policies for future planning and developing of employees with organisational development. The normative model of HRD indicates that organisations tend to establish a separate management and budget to support their T&D/HRD activities (Church & McMahan, 1996) and (Huang, 2001). However, the concept of HRD with its strategic component is viewed as a realistic ambition for larger organisations but not smaller ones (Megginson et al., 2000) where HRD functions can include developing the occupational progress of employees career management and career development), managing performance improvement and managing change in organisations. It may also include the extensive role of training and providing advice and guidance to employees. Therefore it is claimed that HRD is a difficult and specialised field of management (Stead & Lee, 1996; Gilley et al., 2002). Despite the fact that these elements are repeated in the literature as important functions for HRD, there are many western based organisations which do not adopt all these practices, For instance, in some cases the development of employees' career progression has been reported not to be the responsibility of HRD practitioners, as employees' increasingly take responsibility for their own career paths (Debrah & Yae, 1993; Liloyd, 2002; Swanson & Holton, 2001).

The systematic approach to T&D/HRD includes four stages; analysing needs, planning and designing, delivering and implementing, and evaluating HRD activities (Winter, 1995; Wilson, 2005; Harrison, 2000) (see chapter three, section 3.5). These HRD processes are expected to be comprehensive and implemented through methods, but the literature indicated that the nature and range of these HRD activities changes according to the size of organisation and such activities can also be influenced by the type of organisation and the host nation policies (see for example, Kerr & McDougal, 1999; Budhwar et al., 2002; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004).

In terms of the first stage, analysing needs, although the literature has indicated the importance of analysing needs many companies do not consider it as a priority (Anderson, 2010; Smith, 1999; Bhatta, 2002; Budhwar et al., 2002) and this phenomenon is particularly clear in small firms (Sadler-Smith et al., 2004; Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Vinten, 2000; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004). Indeed, there are a range of different reasons which could form the basis for analysing needs, and it is often referred to as being a difficult and time-consuming process that often lacks resources to complete (Anderson, 2010; Hill, 2004; Hansen, 2003; Budhwar et al., 2002; Elbadri, 2001; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Smith, 1999; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Madsen & Larsen, 1998).

The second stage in the systematic approach is the planning and design of training and learning. In this stage, the literature has indicated that those responsible for T&D/HRD will plan, and select the appropriate training provider after the needs analysis process to deploy internal expertise (Alzalabani, 2002; Desimone et al., 2002), or bring in an external training provider in the absence of this expertise (Church & McMahan, 1991; McMahan & Woodman, 1992; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Gainey & Klaas, 2005). Furthermore, Desimone et al. (2002) indicated that developing lesson plans and selecting appropriate methods of training delivery are an important element in T&D planning and designing.

The third stage in the systematic approach to T&D/HRD is the delivery and implementation of training: the literature has indicated that the process of providing training includes training provided in relation to assessment, the training provided when recruiting new employees and promoting existing one, training staff on new equipment or new working methods, and the training provided according to staff, departmental and managerial demand (Bing et al., 2003; Tregaskis & Dany, 1996; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Jacobs & Washington, 2003; Kotey & Sheridan, 2004), and the range of these processes of providing

training change according to the size of an organisation (see for example, Kerr & McDougal, 1999; Budhwar et al., 2002; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004).

The fourth stage of the systematic approach to HRD is evaluation, which includes five levels starting from assessing employees' reaction to training, until the fifth level of evaluating the impact of training on the organisation's financial performance, (Desimone et al., 2002; Reid & Barrington, 2005). The literature increasingly indicated that most organisations do not evaluate all the five levels in T&D, but rather focus on the first and second levels only (Blanchard et al., 2010; Bregman & Jacobson, 2000; Delahaye, 2000). On the other hand, smaller organisations are criticised for ignoring altogether the importance of evaluation, although this is considered a highly critical operation in HRD terms (Sadler-Smith, 1999; Kerr & McDougal, 1999; Hill & Stewart, 2000; Huang, 2001; Vinten, 2003). This is because evaluation processes in T&D are said to be complicated and this is the case wherever qualified and adequately experienced T&D/HRD practitioners are required to manage the specialised function of T&D (Wright et al., 1999; Chermack et al., 2002).

However, research results have indicated that organisations mostly lack adequately qualified T&D/HRD practitioners (Shim, 2001; Lloyd, 2002; Budhwar et al., 2002). This leads to other challenges facing employers and organisations in implementing effective HRD practices. The normative model of HRD provides HRD standards of practice, such as the systematic approach of HRD for supporting functions related to HRD, but the nature and range of T&D/HRD changes from one country to another. Thus, this study aimed at examining the extent to which the descriptive accounts of HRD practices in the manufacturing sector in Libya correspond to the normative theory of HRD.

8.3: Empirical Findings

The four research questions were investigated based on the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data, presented in Chapters 6 and 7, the following is a summary of the main empirical findings connected with the research questions and objectives.

8.3.1: Purposes and Concepts of HRD

Given the emerging and constantly evolving nature of HRD, the concepts and purposes of HRD are the subject of continuing discourse. This has led to one view of HRD as a complex field (suggested by Swanson & Holton, 2009). It was clear that HRD definitions may change according to the individual country's political, economic, and cultural climates, and the legislation introduced by various governments (Swanson & Holton, 2009). The same elements apply to concepts and purposes of HRD in the manufacturing sector in Libya, wherein development of human resources in the manufacturing sector in Libya is politically directed by the HRD policy of the government (Secretariat of Manpower Employment & Vocational Training, 2006), (see sections 4.2.2, 4.2.3 and 4.2.4). Theoretically, HRD in organisations tends towards achieving organisational objectives and purposes (see for example, Stewart & McGoldrick, 1996; Ruona, 2000; Hatcher, 2000; McGoldrick et al., 2002). With this in mind, HRD concepts and purposes in the context of manufacturing companies in Libya in this study are mainly conceptualised as taking into account the objective of HRD at the organisational level. It was found in this study that the general concept of HRD among the companies surveyed is more related to training and development (see discussion in section 6.5.1). Based on this concept, the objective of HRD, in the organisations surveyed, is to develop its existing human capital through technical and motivational training and skill-based training in order to improve their skills and knowledge as well as encouraging changes in work attitudes and behaviour. The purpose here is to raise the level of employees' performance in the workplace with the objective of improving productivity and sustaining competitive advantage.

The descriptive accounts given by Libyan HRD practitioners must be seen in the light of Libya's aim to become a k-economy, as discussed in chapter four, section 4.2.4.4. In terms of Libya's ambition to be a k-economy by 2025, the evidence presented by this research on HRD in manufacturing companies can be of value to policy-makers and academic researchers to formulate strategies which may accelerate the pace of development, drawing on the strengths of Libya's most advanced industrial companies while using the experience of HRD practitioners to set benchmarks for HRD best practices. Libya faces many of the same problems in this area as other developing countries, but as the results of the study illustrated, specific weaknesses include the lack of formal training in the area of HRD available at higher-education level, and the insistence of the state in retaining control over key economic units and policy in this area, which does not help management innovation and appears to be actively working against the development of an approach to HRD suited to Libya's particular circumstances as a transition economy dominated by one industry (oil). This study aimed to find evidence for advanced level HRD practices in Libyan manufacturing companies but the criteria for assessing the level of related development are drawn mainly from studies undertaken in advanced economies. Examination of these criteria may not be appropriate to all economies in all regions and is an issue for further research.

Given the separation between HRD as it exists or not, based on company size, the nature and extent of HRD and its associated concepts in SMCs were considered separately from LMCs. This is because the two groups differed significantly in their reported understanding and positioning of HRD as an organizational function, and the related management of HRD activities.

8.3.2: HRD in Small and Medium Sized Manufacturing Companies

The findings of this research revealed that HRD in SMCs is greatly influenced by government policies (see section 6.6), confirming the findings of HRD studies in other developing countries (see for example, Sechaud, 1998; Osman –Gani, 2000; Ardichvili et al., 2001; Elbadri, 2001; Budhwar et al., 2002; Harrison & Kessels, 2004). HRD in the SMCs surveyed as part of this research is viewed in terms of a business led need to respond to changes in the business environment, such as adopting the International Standards of Operations (ISO) in order to retain competitive position. Thus, HRD activities in SMCs are mainly planned and carried out in response to the introduction of international standards for example ISO guidelines and as a tool to respond to organizational based problems, (see for example Sadler-Smith, Sargeant & Dawson, 1998; Sadler-Smith, Down & Field, 1999; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003; Heraty & Morley, 2000; Vinten, 2000). In this research it was revealed that conforming to ISO standards is a primary concern of SMCs in terms of their HRD related responses.

Therefore HRD in these types of manufacturing organizations is characterised by, both a willingness to adapt to International Quality Standards (IQS) as well as responding to government requirements for investing in the training and development of its employees.

Evidence from the survey and interviews revealed that the majority of SMCs do not carry out a systematic analysis of employee's training and development needs before implementing training initiatives (see section 7.2.1). However, in order to respond to increasing competition and drivers in the external environment, business processes and needs are likely to be analysed, (see Figure 8.1, page 298), but this occurrence is generally on a reactive and unplanned basis.

"analysing needs is unnecessary, and is quite an expensive process and this company lacks internal experience in HRD" (HR director; Power and Electronics SMC)

However, this is offset by the fact that employees in SMCs are sometimes provided with training when change occurs, such as introducing new technology and new work methods or new work operations (see table 7.6). Thus, the evidence indicates at least amongst production related employees (consisting mainly of technical staff, supervisors and shop floor staff), are provided with larger amounts of training than operational staff (top managers, medium-level managers and supporting clerical staff, see section 7.3.3). This practice is keeping with the policy of the government with regards to training, which states that management must give training opportunities to its Libyan employees in order to qualify them and enable them to work appropriately. The finding of the study suggest that training, like other HRD activities, is provided on an ad hoc basis in Libyan SMCs, to cope with short term problems and immediate crises. The reader is referred to chapter four, section 4.2.2 and 4.2.3 and chapter seven, section 7.3, for an illustration of this situation. This result contradicts the situation in the UK for example in which production employees are provided with relatively less training (Kerr & McDougall, 1999; Taylor, Shaw & Thorpe, 2004). The training provided for these production employees tend to use more conventional methods such as classroom-based training, outdoor experiential training, as well as on-the-job instruction training, even though the use of more advanced technology is increasingly popular (Read & Kleiner, 1996; Wognum & Mudler, 1999; Dilworth, 2003). Findings from this research revealed that training activities in Libyan manufacturing companies in this sector are mainly outsourced to external providers (indicated in section 7.3.5), due to the absence of a separate or specialist function related to HRD (section 6.5.1), and (Eidgahy, 1995; Sadler-Smith et al., 1998; Buyens et al., 2001; Chermack et al., 2003).

Generally, results in SMCs suggest that unless the owner-managers provide complete support and commitment to HRD, and unless line managers become more involved in the processes of HRD, especially needs analysis and assessment, the process of HRD will remain ignored, since these processes are considered by the SMCs as being relatively less important.

Owner-managers and line managers are evidently more concerned about productivity and outputs than employees' formal training and evaluation. This is evidenced by the survey and it is supported by data from interviews.

Despite this, HRD activities carried out in some SMCs go beyond developing employees to improve performance and related work processes. However, given the lack of long-term HRD plans and performance evaluations across the sector the long-term development of individuals is largely ignored (indicated in section 6.6). Overall, it appears that where there are T&D/HRD practitioners in SMCs they do not focus on systematic processes and established procedures often related to HRD practice, but tend to focus more on the reality of delivering training. Nonetheless in the SMCs surveyed there does appear to be some organisation based support and legitimate experience in HRD; otherwise, the SMCs may not be able to remain competitive in the markets within which they compete. Generally the research findings show that many SMCs do not carry out systematic analysis of training needs in terms of HRD activities process, and show a fairly low position of maturity on the continuum from T&D to the more strategic HRD. This completes the conceptualisation of HRD in the SMCs. The following section will now conceptualise HRD in the Large Manufacturing Companies (LMCs), and provides a clear picture of the nature and process of HRD in this industry, sector.

8.3.3: HRD in the Large Manufacturing Companies

Findings from this research revealed that the framework of HRD adopted or developed in LMCs is part of a developing and evolving process. The function of HRD in the manufacturing sector has undergone considerable change in recent years particularly in terms of the way in which organizations interact both internally and internationally and need to respond to environmental, political and economic pressures to maintain their competitive position. The majority of manufacturing companies reported that continuous pressure for increasing quality,

innovation, productivity and the drive to improve employee capabilities are forces which provide impetus for HRD initiatives. Thus, employees are supported and developed through HRD activities not only in order to enable them to keep pace with modern technology and new working processes but also more broadly in terms of the commitment to the development of human and social capital as principles espoused by a number of most western based organizations.

In view of the Libyan government's stated aim to develop a k-economy by 2025, this study found evidence that the policies of the government were having an effect on the HRD practices of LMCs. However, although provision of HRD plans and policies is referred to in the literature as being a main element of strategic HRD (Clutterback, 1989; Howitz, 1999), only a third of LMCs have developed a set of plans and policies related to HRD, and of these most of them consist of short-term plans and informal policies (see table 6.18). While some companies have also adopted the formal ISO policy and the governmental policy related to HRD, most organisations have as yet not seen the importance of a separate policy to drive HRD practice. This evidence has been provided from the surveys and was supported by interview statements. For example;

"Having another policy for HRD is unnecessary as a requirement for employees with regard to training are defined in the standards of ISO" Training Manager; (Power and Electronics Company LMCs).

The findings of this research correspond to other studies (for example, Heraty & Morley, 2000; Yadapadithaya & Stewart, 2003) whereby HRD in large firms is considered as more of a response to compliance issues rather than as a process to respond to organisational strategic development.

Traditionally, the responsibility for training and development was centred solely on the Personnel or HR function, and it was often viewed as an amorphous activity without any real strategic focus (Garavan et al., 1995) and (Heraty & Morley, 2000). This situation still predominates in SMCs, but is clearly changing in LMCs. The research revealed that LMCs mostly have separate departments which have responsibility for HRD (see table 6.12), but these are generally referred to as the training department as opposed to HRD (see table 6.13). However, in those companies without a training department, the HR department is responsible for HRD activities. Generally, in LMCs, HRD as a function has a direct reporting relationship with top management with some companies also having a separate budget for employee training and development within the organisation structure (see section 6.7.1). This appears to reflect the importance of HRD in the structure of companies and indicate top management commitment to HRD, which is considered an important aspect (see Garavan, 1995; McCracken & Wallace, 1999; Harrison, 2002).

This research shows the HRD process in LMCs to be relatively systematic, at least up to a point, but not very formal or comprehensive with most companies tending to adopt less formal approaches. Results indicate that evaluations of HRD needs are regularly carried out, but they are mainly conducted via direct observation by managers and informal feedback rather than via more formal methods of analysis or through systematic approaches (see table 7.5). The same principle applies to evaluation of training needs and performance improvement evaluation.. Less formal approaches to training analysis and evaluation have been criticised in the literature as being the least effective methods (see for example, Heraty & Morley, 2000; Budhwar et al., 2002). However, survey results revealed that analysing HRD needs and the evaluation process in LMCs is restricted by a number of factors including time availability; financial limitations and lack of real expertise (see section 7.2). This can have significant implications for both reporting and the effectiveness of HRD activities. Despite these constraints, production based

employees in this research are generally considered as high value and similar to SMCs are supported with large amounts of training, especially during the early stages of employment, changes in workplace practices and the introduction of new technology.

Providing training in LMCs (see section 7.3.4) has consisted of class-based training, on-the-job training and instruction, as well as training through outdoor experience even though outdoor training is a widespread practice despite been criticised in western country literature as being relatively ineffective (Wagner & Campbell, 1994). And although the introduction of more advanced methods of training, virtual and technology based, has seen a significant increase in the past few years this research has shown it is at a relatively early stage of development in Libya (Read & Kleiner, 1996; Wognum & Mulder, 1999; Mulder & Tjepkena, 1999; Marguart et al., 2000; Dilworth, 2003). This indicates that more advanced training techniques which draw upon technology and related training methods are not yet fully utilized in support of the delivery or assessment/evaluation of training and learning. This has clear implications for the development of electronic learning and computer-based training. Further, this research has revealed that a number of training activities in this sector, depending on the type of training, and numbers and experience of employees, are either outsourced to external providers of training, or are locally organised inside organization based training centres (indicated in the section 6.5.6). This supports other research in which this is not an uncommon response where there is shortage of local experience and/or professionals, expertise thus; outsourcing of HRD activities has become an increasingly global phenomenon (Kjellberg et al., 1998; Madsen & Larsen, 1998; Mulder et al., 1999; Morrow, 2001; Budhwar et al., 2002; Gainey & Klaas, 2005).

Results indicate that a lack of formality characterises evaluation activities in which the main method of considering the performance improvement of individuals in terms of acquired skills, knowledge and attitudes is via informal observation and feedback, and not through formal structured types of intervention, reward or recognition. Although evaluations of employee performance operate to some extent in the companies surveyed they are not associated with reward strategies, such as salary increases or bonuses for high performance. This is supported by data from the interviews in which LMCs

"do not have planning related to rewarding their employees for high performance...Performance bonuses were given by rewarding all employees equally" (HRD Manager; Textiles, wearing apparels & leather LMC) .

This lack of reward or recognition related to performance may have implications for motivation and the long-term development of employees. For example, the evidence indicates that T&D/HRD practitioners face the problem of developing a positive learning environment in the face of a lack of motivation among employees. This suggests that performance evaluation in this sector do not have a real objective or purpose (see discussion in section 7.5.2) following Behn (2003), who indicated that performance evaluations that are conducted in organisations can be simply a box-ticking exercise, and are not effective. It is evident that LMCs carry out a number of activities in support of HRD in relation to its impact on performance but these activities mainly lack objectivity, tend to be informal and not related to reward or recognition policy/strategy. Nevertheless, HRD activities carried out in LMCs contribute to the development of individuals and team development, and enhance performance and work process improvement. Such feedback is part of the central principle of HRD endeavours (Swanson, 1987; Stewart & McGoldrick, 1996; Gourlay, 2001) and Libyan manufacturing follows a similar pattern.

The research showed that the HRD systems in operation generally lack specialised HRD professionals and this has clear implications for HRD effectiveness regarding the development of a skilful, specialised workforce (see section 7.7). In fact, it was observed that T&D/HRD practitioners in the manufacturing sector of Libya are faced with the challenge of coping with the demand to develop a knowledge workforce, in addition to fostering employees' learning and development in the workplace in the face of an unfocused educational system which exists in Libya. These challenges are significant for both the development of HRD and for the development of the workforce. These findings support other studies, which argue that the complicated and developing field of HRD is continuously challenged by a lack of human experience in a rapidly changing environment (McGoldrick & Stewart, 1996; Schmidt & Lines, 2002; Lee, 2003). Employers and T&D/HRD practitioners have to further develop their organisational expectations and strategies in relation to HR management in order to sustain the competitive nature of their business in the challenging environment of an increasingly international economy.

By presenting the HRD concept as it exists in SMCs and LMCs, the following section discusses commonalities and disparities between the two groups of companies. This is to expose any similarities or differences in the way in which SMCs and LMCs are understood and characterised.

8.3.4 Commonalities and differences of HRD between SMCs and LMCs

The systematic approach to HRD includes four stages; analysing needs, planning and designing, delivering and implementing, and evaluating HRD activities (Winter, 1995; Harrison, 2000; Wilson, 2005;). These HRD processes are expected to be comprehensive and implemented by formal methods, but in developed country literature indicated that the nature and range of these HRD activities changes according to the size of organisation (see for example, Kerr & McDougal, 1999; Budhwar et al., 2002; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004).

However, in this study, although the overall assessment of the HRD situation within the majority of manufacturing companies surveyed makes for rather depressing reading, it would be inaccurate to conclude that none of the organisations surveyed has tried to create favourable conditions for HRD progress. Comparisons between SMCs and LMCs indicated both commonalities and differences. It was revealed that the size of the organization had an effect for the adoption of ISO and for factors related to quality standards. There were also similarities in the way HRD activities were associated with a drive towards higher standards of productivity, quality and efficiency in order to remain in a competitive environment. These factors were often influenced by the need to respond to change and through intense local competition. In this context, both the SMCs and LMCs are seen to value their production based employees, providing them with more training and development than employees at other levels or in support type functions and this group is, associated with greater levels of spending than any other group (see section 7.3.3). This is in line with the Libyan government's emphasis on technical training and investment in IT infrastructure and HRD as part of its drive towards making Libya a k-economy, although the motivation of the companies was probably to target spending on training towards areas where it is most likely to yield short term returns. Both SMCs and LMCs tended to adopt informal approaches to both policy formation and practice and it is noteworthy that in comparison with SMCs, LMCs tended to include a separate function for HRD although often not referred to under this precise term.

At least 28% of LMCs indicated that they had a HRD plan as well as a formal HRD policy, whereas 21% in the SMCs had an informal HRD policy (see table 6.18); LMCs were optimistic about the outcomes of their HRD plans in terms of the completion of its intentions. 55% of LMCs also stated that they had their own training centre, whereas this rate was 11% in the SMCs (see table 6.17). Further, about 25% of LMCs also claimed to have a separate budget for HRD activities, whereas the figure was 0% in SMCs (see table 6.24).

Many LMCs organise their own in-house training programs for their employees. In this context the Chamber of Commerce and Industry in Libya, (2007) confirmed that smaller organisations do not usually have training centres due to their small number of employees and the high cost of establishing and staffing specialised training centres..In this research; SMCs appear to prefer training carried out by an external trainer, especially when training is inside the company premises. However, LMCs prefer receiving internal training from their own internal trainers (see also Al-Ali (2006) (see table 7.10).This indicates that SMCs appear not to have the resources to provide either internal trainers and/or appropriate training locations compared to LMCs.

Despite the similarities between Libyan companies in terms of the levels of training activity and training spend the LMCs do not depend on external providers for training while SMCs have a deficiency in this regard and have to almost wholly rely on training requirements being provided by external consultants (see discussion 6.3.5). Reid & Barrington (2005) and Taylor (1996) note that the responsibilities for training in small companies rest with the owner or manager, but in medium-sized and large companies it is often necessary to establish a training department to provide line management with a more specialist service.

A number of LMCs who took part in the survey appeared unaware of employee performance improvement or the need for long-term development or the need to evaluate the results of HRD activities. In the latter context, a few companies at least assert that they were able to identify a return from their training investments. As such, it may be argued that even though only a few of the LMCs associate HRD activities with business results and employees' long-term development, there were attempts to undertake a systematic approach to implementing and evaluating HRD activities whereas in the SMCs there was no evidence of this.

8.4 Contributions of the Study

This is a study of HRD in Libyan manufacturing sector, and more specifically an investigation of the extent to which mature level HRD practices exist in Libyan manufacturing companies. The study takes account of developments in HRD practice that are the result of influences such as the technological revolution and globalisation, and puts Libyan HRD practice into the context on a Libyan system in transition from a closed, socialist economy to a more open, capitalist system. Libyan government initiatives such as the drive to become a k-economy by 2025 have also been factored into discussions of HRD practiced. The methods employed in the study combined qualitative and quantitative data collection tools and sought to provide results that would enable an assessment of Libya's HRD maturity level in companies with more advanced economies, while also collecting sufficient detailed information to provide a basis for recommendations for improvements in future practice. The work highlights areas for further work which are not limited to Libya but also includes the emerging economies particularly in the Arab world in an era of social evolution.

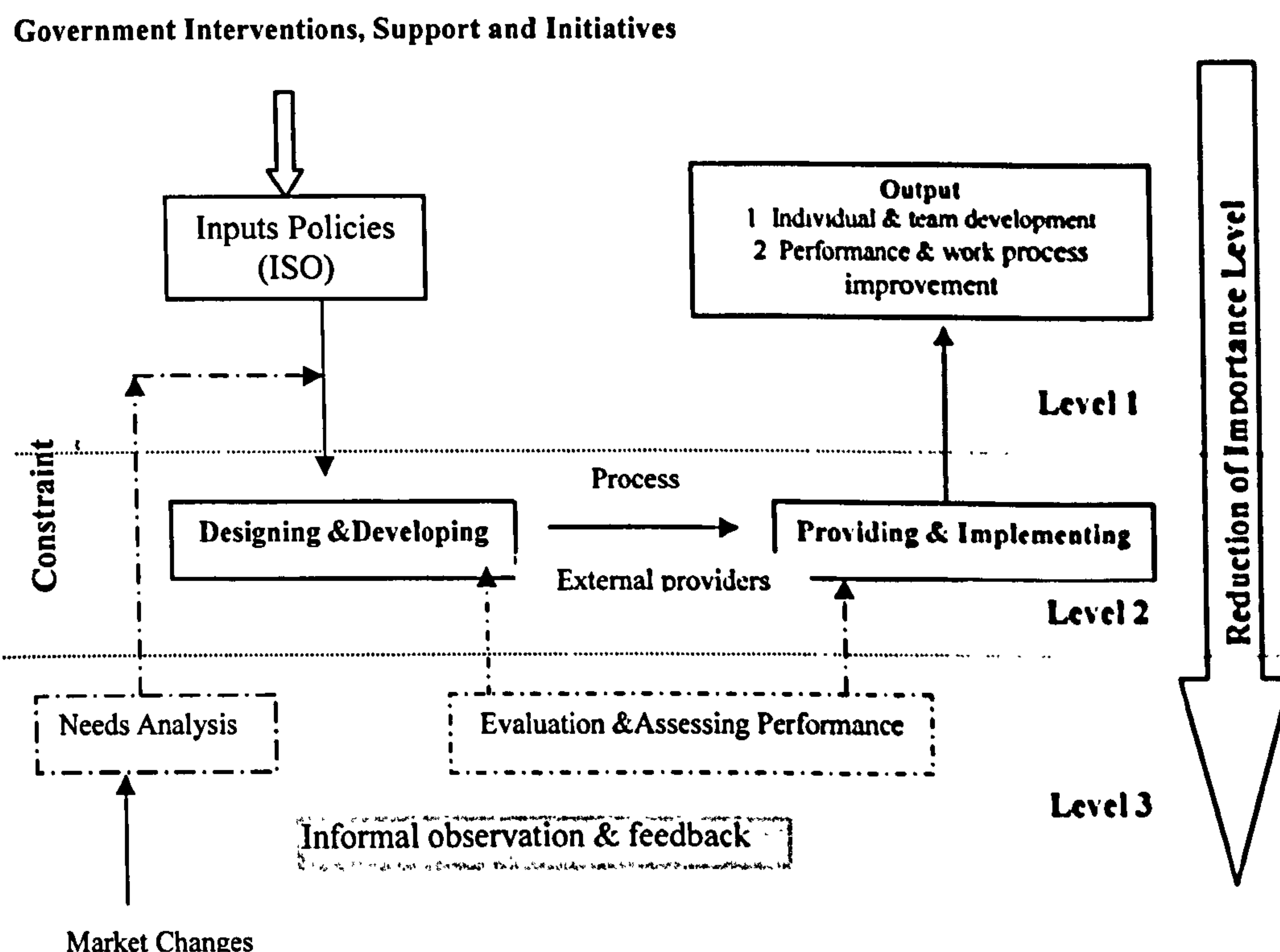
The discussion above regarding theoretical and empirical findings of this research enabled the identification and discussion of the various contributions made by this research to the study field of HRD. In this section, there is a description of eight key contributions to knowledge areas made by this research so as to support future studies and research into HRD. These contributions include the following: 1) Supporting the development of complex HRD theory. 2) Development of a model for HRD in Libyan SMCs (figure 8.1, page 298). 3) Development of a model for HRD in Libyan LMCs (figure 8.2, page 300). 4) Clarifying the difference in T&D/HRD between sizes of industry. 5) Descriptive discussion of HRD in Libya. 6) Analytical discussion of HRD in Libya. 7) Development of a definition of HRD in Libya. 8) The ability to use a number of different research techniques in HRD.

The first contribution concerns complexities of HRD theory. Many practitioners and researchers have criticised the process of HRD as being complicated, especially when analysing needs and evaluating the effectiveness of training. The organisations included in this study are characterised by rapid technological development as well as intense international and local competition. The complexity of HRD theory is related to the dynamic reaction of HRD towards change in internal and external environments and how systems and operations in HRD develop according to environmental changes (following Iles & Yolles, 2002). As a whole, the nature of HRD in the sector under scrutiny is complex and dynamic. Therefore, building on Iles & Yolles's (2002) complex evolving model, a model of HRD in the researched sector was developed to illustrate a clear picture of HRD and its associated processes. This model of HRD in Libyan LMCs also incorporates the concept of inputs and outputs of the HRD process. As seen in the model, (figure 8.2, page 300), the inputs in HRD denote the Government's interventions, such as HRD plans and policies, funds and other initiatives, and in the case of the current research the government's stated ambition to make Libya a k-economy by 2025, and also the adoption of the ISO policy by most LMCs. Discussion of the Libyan government's role in policies and legislation on T&D/HRD can be found in chapter three, section 4.2.2 and 4.2.3. This research contributes and supports the global view of HRD as a complex and developing process.

The second contribution is related to developing a specific model for HRD in SMCs, which is achieved through the theoretical and empirical findings of this research (see figure 8.1). Development of this model is based on the process of HRD inputs and outputs as illustrated in Figure (1.1), the conceptual framework of the research, and is developed according to the concept that HRD in SMCs is less formal and focuses on the process of training employees so as to encourage behavioural change and improvement of productivity through skills development. In this model, HRD inputs in SMCs are directed by governmental plans and policies in addition to those plans to conform to the ISO standards to provide training

for their employees. On the other hand, the outputs indicate outcomes of HRD activities implemented in the researched sector. Thus, as seen from the model figure (8.1), and due to the complexity of HRD theory mentioned above, HRD activities that are carried out in SMCs are described in their order of importance. Analysing HRD needs and evaluating training activities are ranked as less important largely because training needs in SMCs are more a reaction towards changes in the business environment and the introduction of new technology and one of the consequences of this is that evaluation of training is largely ignored. Therefore, in SMCs, designing, developing, providing and implementing HRD activities in response to specific mostly short term issues are considered more important than evaluation. The central process of designing and developing training is almost always conducted by external providers. As a result, through the findings of this study, a model of HRD is proposed which indicates the process of HRD in SMCs. Such a model provides a structure within which the nature of HRD in this sector may be considered.

Figure (8.1): Model for HRD in Libyan SMCs



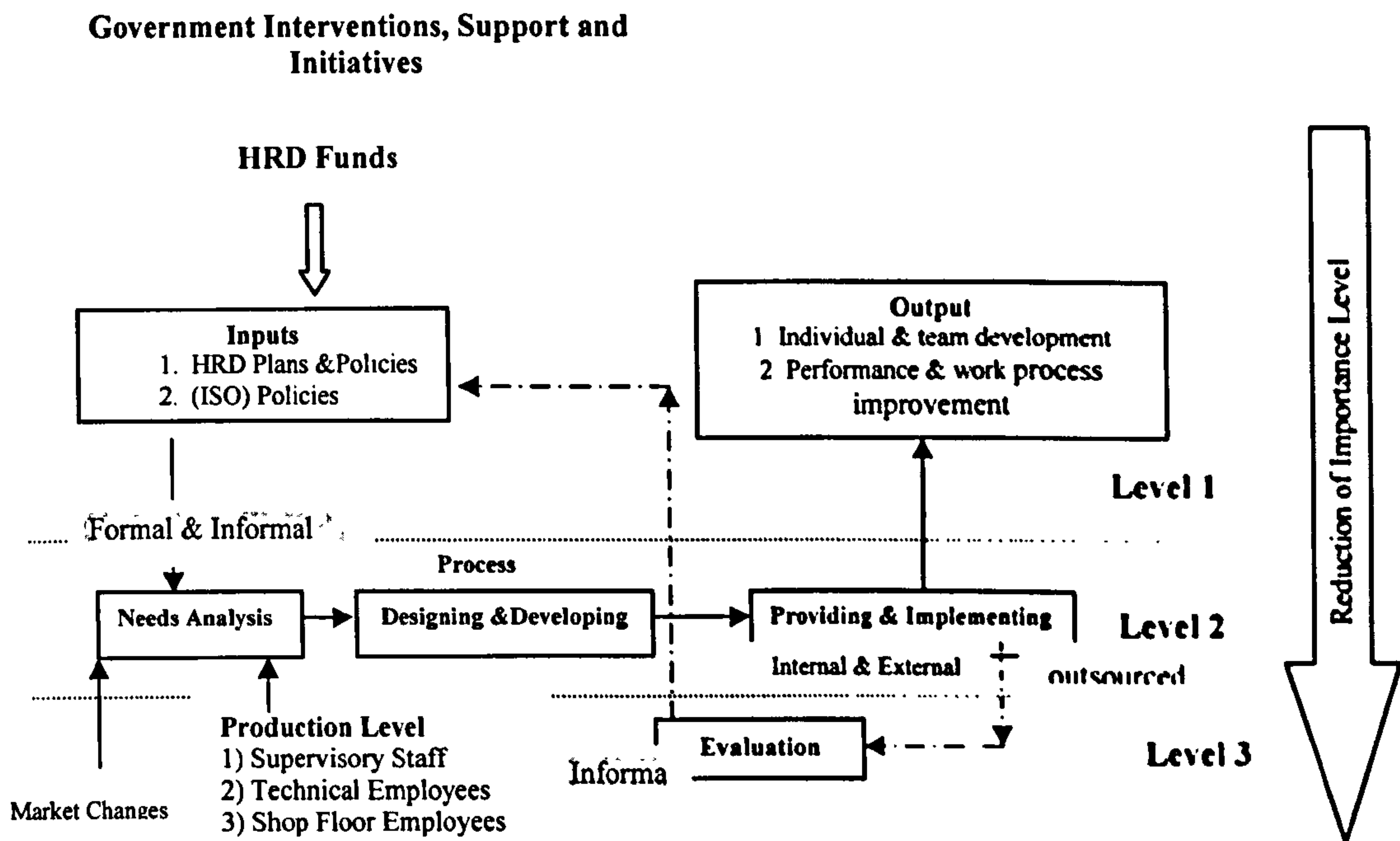
(Adapted from the work of Guest (1997) by the researcher)

The third contribution is related to the development of an HRD model in LMCs. The nature of HRD in the manufacturing sector as a whole is complex but systematic. This is determined in the empirical findings and is also observed in the framework of HRD as shown in figure 8.2. Thus, as illustrated in the evolving complex model of Iles & Yolles, (2003) an HRD model for this size of company is developed to show a clear picture of HRD and its connected processes. The model of HRD in LMCs also integrates the concept of HRD process, inputs and outputs. As can be seen in the model, inputs in HRD indicate governmental interventions, such as HRD plans and policies; funds and other initiatives as well as the adoption of ISO policy by most of the LMCs included in this study (see section 3.4.2.2). Outputs refer to outcomes of HRD endeavours in this type of company such as individual and team development and performance and work process improvement. The evolving model indicates that HRD in LMCs might be systematic in its processes compared to SMCs, but it is clear that needs analysis is more important in LMCs than in SMCs, and can also be a reaction to changes in the business environment. Therefore, as seen from the model, HRD activities that are implemented in LMCs are described in their order of importance. Evaluating training is considered of least importance and appears to be almost neglected in the type of organisation which formed the LMC element of this research.

However, analysing HRD needs, designing, developing, delivering and implementing HRD activities are important in any organization and constitute the central process of employee training and development. These processes are either carried out internally or outsourced to external providers, depending on the availability of HRD expertise or the competencies required for training. Cumulatively this indicates that these organisations have made little progress along the continuum from T&D to HRD based on the model of McCracken and Wallace, (2000). Thus, according to results in this research and the development of the HRD model, this study helps to locate current practice in terms of HRD, inform a better understanding and provide a clear view of HRD and its processes in LMCs in the Libyan

manufacturing sector. The model (figure 8.1) is based on that of Guest (1979) which places the elements of the training cycle in a strategic context. This enables the development of a new of HRD development achieved by Libyan man companies, as shown in the findings of this study.

Figure 8.2: Model for HRD in Libyan LMCs



Adapted from the work of Guest (1997) by the researcher

The fourth contribution relates to the implications of organizational size to HRD practice. This research has shown that the size of companies has a significant impact on the implementation of HRD practices. As argued previously (see section 8.1 and for example, Kerr & McDougal, 1999; Budhwar et al., 2002; Sadler-Smith & Lean, 2004), the literature on HRD in Libya is insufficient and work on the organisational context of HRD is nonexistent. The empirical evidence supporting HRD comparison in SMCs and LMCs is limited, and thus, this study contributes to a better understanding of the extent of HRD related practice in the different sizes of organizations surveyed as part of this research. As expected HRD outcomes

are similar in both organization size groups but this research also contributes to the expanding literature established by HRD in SMCs and LMCs in the broader context related to developing countries and in the context of Arab countries and specifically in Libya.

The fifth contribution is concerned with descriptive discussions in some parts of the thesis. This study presents new research in an area where little previous research exists that is describing T&D/HRD in Libya. In particular the descriptive parts of this research contribute to understanding HRD as it is practiced in the Libya context by detailing and mapping out the epistemology or reality of what is happening from both the theoretical and practical perspective. This is a significant contribution since it provides an essential basis for future studies on T&D/HRD in Libya and in particular will help to inform other work in developing countries both Arabic and non-Arabic.

The sixth contribution is concerned with the analytical part of the study. Again, since this study on T&D/HRD is the one of first studies in the Libyan context there is a dearth of other empirical evidence to support a HRD perspective. The research relies on the global literature from both developed and developing countries in order to analyse the structural framework, strategies, activities and processes of HRD in the context of Libya. Thus, the analytical part of the research helps to inform our understanding of the conceptualisation of HRD in the context of developing countries and contributes to understanding the nature and level of maturity of HRD activities particularly in Libya in their environment of a transition economy still predominantly under the control of the state.

The seventh contribution relates to the development of a definition of HRD, in the context of developing countries. The definition of HRD differs between developed countries in terms of background, economic, political and governmental legislation, and the country's value system as well as beliefs and plays a key role in affecting the way HRD is defined in a particular country (McLean & McLean, 2001). Based on the theoretical and empirical findings of this study, the definition of HRD related to the context of Libya is;

The organisation based activities available for employees to change their work capability and to increase knowledge and skills in order to enhance performance and improve productivity.

The eighth key contribution of this research is reflected in the research design used to evaluate the nature and extent of HRD and its associated concepts. This research adopted a cross-sectional survey design that utilised a model of simultaneous triangulation, which benefited from two main types of data collection: the main questionnaire survey; and face to face interviews. One of the items arising from respondents' participation in the research has been that it has raised interest levels in the concept and practices of HRD and as a consequence is likely to increase the numbers of people with responsibilities in this area of management in addition to the activities of training and developing employees. This research approach to data collection enabled an accurate description of HRD to be formed and considered and it is an approach which is particularly suitable for the way in which Libyan/Arabic society operates. It is also a suitable approach for use in developing countries (see for example, to Khan & Soverall, 1993; Sparker & Miyake, 2000; Cho et al., 1999; Wilkins, 2003).

Although the key contributions are listed above, it is the opinion of the researcher that the major contributions of this study lie in numbers two and three. The models in these sections, are adapted from the work of Guest (1997) (as discussed in Chapter one) and developed on the basis of data collected through the research via questions suggested by the work of McCracken and Wallace (2000). The models help to explain the different priorities of both small and large companies, and provide future researchers an opportunity to design studies to investigate how these priorities might be changed in terms of improving HRD practices. The models are the result of a process clearly discernable from the literature review, through the methodology and the discussion chapters to the analysis of data, and are the culmination of the process of research.

8.5: Limitations of the Study

As is the case with any research project, there are limitations to the scope and aims of this study and these limits do not necessarily have a negative effect on its results, but they have to be taken into consideration when for example interpreting results. Furthermore, these limitations can be used as instructions for other researchers to deal with these determinants in a more effective way. Thus, this study has the following limitations:

1. This study was carried out in the manufacturing sector in Libya only and the study did not include other economic sectors due to the central and specified purpose of the study. The literature states that the nature of HRD varies according to the economic sector of the company studied (Ardishvilli, 2001; and Sambrook, 2001). Based on this, we cannot generalise the results of this study to all sectors which deploy human resources development practices to support organizational aims.
2. Respondents who were selected for this study were persons responsible for HRD activities or T&D in their companies, in order to gather accurate information on their experiences related to human resources development. These experiences reflected their understanding of HRD, and the way it is conducted in real situations by those who hold operational responsibility. Researchers report that data collected from respondents on the individual level leads to foregrounding of individual views (see for example, Bartlett et al., 2002; Budhwar et al., 2002; Poell et al., 2003; Pudelko, 2005). Therefore, the limitation of this method is that HRD practitioners' perceptions of the policy and activities of HRD did not represent the perceptions and understandings held by top management or other employees.
3. The causal relationship between varied HRD activities and their supposed outcomes (such as individual and team development, performance and work process improvement and strategic planning for organisational change) was not established. As noted above a single point in time data collection is a limitation (Bartlett & Kang, 2004) and sufficient time

must be spent evaluating the feedback from practices (Gould-Williams and Davies, 2005). However, wherever the used data are cross-sectional, the only conclusion that can be reached is that HRD activities may contribute to individual and team development, and to performance improvement, and these are the only expected outcomes. In this context, longitudinal data must be collected over a period of time to establish causality. Despite that, even if HRD effectiveness leads to higher levels of improvement, there are still questions on confirming feedback and justifying training expenses.

4. There was a lack of literature on HRD in Libya, and in other developing countries generally although there were more Arabic based sources than anticipated. In addition, strategic HRD is a relatively new development so there is a lack of related studies that could help to inform an accurate assessment of the extent of strategic HRD in the context of Libya.

8.6 Implications of the research

Although some limitations of this study are outlined above, they do not hinder the significance of results of this study.

The first implication is related to the importance of the role and function of HRD in developing organizational capacity through human resources and the contribution the process may make towards human and social capital generally. There remains a view that HRD is less important in relation to human resources management and it is prevalent in the manufacturing sector in Libya. Of course, there are a few exceptions: some companies defined the critical need for a separate function concerning HRD that is managed by people who have relevant experience and qualifications. Moreover, this study presents evidence showing that the function of HRD is associated with the effective management of developing employees, and

that the practice of HRD can affect the efficient implementation of HRD activities, especially planning and strategic integration of human resource development. This has implications for employers and T&D/HRD practitioners who are committed to considering the importance of having a separate effective function for HRD, operated by people with relevant experience, otherwise HRD will not be able to achieve its main objectives. This has clear implications for the future policy direction of the Libyan state: the findings of the study suggest that if the government wants the kind of HRD development that will lead to a k-economy, it must intervene in HRD practice less, not more.

The second implication is related to the changing process of the training and development role. It is evident that training activities in most companies are still based on traditional models, and do not play a strategic roles. Of course, there are a few exceptions: some companies are trying to evolve the process of training and development in organisations from more traditional approaches towards a more strategic human resource development direction, but perhaps this kind of HRD is not appropriate yet in the Libyan manufacturing companies: although it is a widely used academic term, perhaps training and development might be the preferred term and the practices more associated with HRD should be allowed to develop in an organic way thereby becoming more acceptable as the need for more mature systems evolve. Moreover, this study presents evidence showing that “training” and “training and development” continued to be the most frequently used job titles in the companies surveyed. By comparison, as a job title, the term “HRD” was only used in a very small number of cases and even where it was used the job involved T&D as opposed to HRD. In addition, “training” remained the most commonly referred to task and the role continued to be described more as a provider and manager of training and development programs than as a strategic change or organisation development agent.

Third implication: it is evident that the important process in HRD means that analysing HRD needs and evaluating the effectiveness of training and development activities are mainly conducted informally, and not through a more formal or more systematic process. This implies a lack of commitment to these processes. It is understood that these processes are time-consuming often costly and require scarce resources. But at the same time, inaccurate analysis of needs and evaluation may have a negative effect on HRD especially by senior management who are seeking clear returns on investments. Thus, it is both necessary and fair to educate employers and T&D/HRD practitioners regarding the importance of maintaining balance in the process of HRD in order to ensure a proper calculation for providing appropriate training activities, developing them and controlling their effectiveness while at the same time retaining sufficient flexibility to provide a response towards changing strategies and operations as well as educating and training employees.

The **fourth** implication concerns human resources development and the proper investment of resources. As mentioned above with regard to discussing results, production workers are mostly viewed as the decisive factor in the companies surveyed, and they are regarded as the key to competitive advantage, which indicates that employers and T&D/HRD practitioners will be more likely to benefit from HRD activities through investment. However, the perception of HRD as a cost as opposed to an investment still tends to dominate most employers and T&D/HRD practitioners in the surveyed organizations otherwise, it is perceived that the HRD funds exist mainly to be maximized and vied between departments according to the needs of the moment. Furthermore, given the intense competition among manufacturing companies for a local skilled workforce, the skill levels of employees and technical specialisations, especially among production workers, must be addressed in a concerted way at a national level. Thus, appropriate investments in HRD at a national level can be related to changes in workplace skills to achieve long-term prospects as a part of a cascaded strategic planning process.

The **fifth** implication, which is likely to be useful to policy-makers and HRD practitioners in Libya, is related to the existing HRD practices. McCracken and Wallace, (2000) proposed that organisations should be classified according to their level of strategic maturity. The results of this study indicate that LMCs in the manufacturing sector in Libya are demonstrating only some weak evidence of the existence of HRD practices, which are operating at an immature level. In fact these companies are, according to the results shown, practising training rather than HRD. A further implication of the study arising from the relationship between firm size and HRD maturity level concerns the level of HRD development within different sectors of the economy. If large companies show higher levels of maturity, it is likely that sectors dominated by a small number of organizations or the very large companies will show higher levels of HRD maturity than those containing a large number of small companies. In terms of the companies in which interviews were conducted, it was possible to make a connection with HRD level maturity and the extent of a company's connection to foreign business influence. The large companies in the Iron and steel and food industries were involved in export activities, and necessarily had close contact with companies from outside Libya, while two of the companies (in the leather and Car industries) were joint ventures with foreign companies. All of these companies showed relatively higher levels of HRD maturity than the companies whose operations and ownerships were confined to Libya (See page 219).

The **sixth** implication is related to the government policy concerning HRD. The government strategies on HRD are designed to support manufacturing companies so as to develop their employees to improve productivity and add value to operations both locally and internationally, as well as providing main structure policies and resources. In addition, employers in manufacturing companies are required to provide their employees with education and training activities as well as providing the training and development that are necessary for raising employees' individual performance, improving productivity and

achieving organisational success. This requirement has been introduced by the government recently and complements its stated ambition to turn Libya into a k-economy and is clearly related to earlier points about raising interest and investment in human and social capital. However, a requirement for training is unlikely to have the anticipated effect unless a proper needs analysis has been conducted in advance, and the evidence for advanced level HRD practices collected by this research can be valuable at a national, regional and organisational level. It is important to point out at this stage that critical thinking is very important in the new knowledge economy. Employers in manufacturing companies are required to have well developed rationalisation skills. The knowledge economy is driven by information and technology, and a worker within such an economy has to be able to deal with changes in technology quickly and effectively. The new economy places increasing demands on flexible intellectual skills, and the ability to analyse information and integrate diverse sources of knowledge in the rapid solution of problems. Good critical thinking promotes such skills, and is very important factor in the modern workplace.

The seventh implication of this study is concerned with recruiting and maintaining specialised and skilled employees. This research produced evidence that recruiting specialised and skilled employees is considered a challenge for both employers and T&D/HRD practitioners alike. Accordingly, failure to retain these individuals is not only a challenge, but it is also a waste of resources. Hence, employers, HR and T&D/HRD practitioners could focus on creating and developing a work environment in which specialised and skilled workers are trained and then retained in a purposeful way. Thus, focusing on developing proper human resources strategies associated with appropriate organisational structures and providing a flexible work environment with a wider range of dominant opportunities will be effective for training and retaining those workers.

As a result of the above evidence in this research revealed gaps between the stated objectives of HRD and the real world existence of HRD practice. Gaps mentioned by T&D/HRD practitioners in the manufacturing sector include; 1) Lack of awareness regarding procedures and operations for claiming HRD funds; 2) too much bureaucracy in the claims process (see 3.7.4); 3) Lack of HRD training and awareness of HRD practitioners, who are unspecialised in HRD. Moreover, it is revealed in results that T&D/HRD practitioners regarded HRD as being training and development (T&D), although the government has emphasised the strategic orientation of HRD. These factors may have adversely affected the development of HRD activities as carried out by employers and HRD practitioners. This has serious implications for the policy makers in achieving the objectives of a national process of HRD. The implication is that there is a need for the Government to address these issues at a national level otherwise, even though the Government has invested billions of Dinars in supporting HRD, it is unlikely there will be any strategic alignment or integration between HRD and manufacturing companies objectives.

8.7: Recommendations for Future Research

This study serves as a basis from which to suggest potential avenues for future research that may be pursued by other scholars and researchers interested in exploring the field of HRD. The first set of recommendations for future researches are based on the limitations of the study. When conducting the current research, only the manufacturing sector was selected for inclusion in the study, at the expense of the other private non- manufacturing sectors. Moreover, the causal relation between different HRD activities and their outcomes are not confirmed due to the reasons given in the above discussion regarding limits of the study. Therefore, it is indicated that research is conducted to examine the impact of various HRD activities on the performance of individuals and teams as well as the impact of productivity on the level of work process and on planning for organisational change. Based on this, a

comparison may be made to determine whether certain types of HRD activities and programs are more significant than others. One of the methodological limits of this study was the sample selection. Therefore further studies could include the specific reasons discussed above. Thus, as well as HRD practitioners, questionnaire and interview surveys could be performed with the top management and first line employees to reveal their understanding and opinions about HRD, and to examine their perceptions on the nature of HRD in their companies. The perceptions of T&D/HRD practitioners and their understanding of HRD can be validated from the perspectives of the top management and employees.

Second: in terms of recommendations to the small and medium industries from the theoretical and empirical findings, the other areas in HRD that are recommended for future research include specifically researching HRD in the SMEs, examining issues such as how the existence of HRD expertise might influence or shape their perspectives on HRD in general, as their main limitation in engaging in HRD is the lack of HRD expertise. Moreover, the evidence taken from results indicates that HRD in SMCs is informal rather than formal. The view of results in this study indicated that although HRD tends to be informal in SMCs, the contributions that are expected from these informal HRD activities were similar to larger companies, which have a certain degree of formality in their HRD strategies. Thus, it will be important and valuable to study the dynamic relationship between formal and informal HRD in SMCs, an aspect that merits further conceptual and empirical development.

Third: In the context of policies, the manufacturing companies depend on ISO plans and policies to provide their employees with impetus and an agenda for training. Thus, it will be beneficial to research the impact of ISO plans and policies on HRD activities. Moreover, the present study mainly focused on HRD activities on the organisational level, and the evidence suggests that cultural values have an impact on these practices. Therefore, it is recommended that a future study must be conducted to investigate the cultural orientation of HRD. In fact, extension of this study may be useful to seek various confirmed or contradictory results, which

can form an evaluation. This study can extend in various contexts, such as the different organisational sectors, industrial sectors, the different national contexts as well as developed and developing countries.

Fourth: It was perceived by managers that HRD in the companies surveyed was influenced by the country's policies, laws and regulations, the high management levels in the country, such as Ministries of Industry, Secretariat of Manpower Employment Development & Vocational Training, Education and Human Resource Development Establishments are recommended to encourage the establishments of HRD, by participating effectively in directing HRD in the correct direction. For example, in participating in international conferences concerned with HRD issues, in obtaining regularly any specialised publications concerned with HRD such as: journals, proceeds of conferences, books, reports, etc. Moreover, the publishing of local specialised journals should be encouraged and supported financially, especially those journals which are facing publishing problems. This can be achieved by establishing a HRD practitioner to take responsibility for the development, consultation and research of every aspect of HRD.

In conclusion, this study defined the nature and range of the implementation of HRD in organisations, and the maturity level of HRD activities in Libyan manufacturing companies, as well as their commitment to developing employees in order to achieve organisational objectives. This definition is essential for understanding the strategies of organisations for the development of human resources and the difficulties confronted by employers and T&D/HRD practitioners in managing the development of human resources, as well as future consequent challenges. It is obvious that there are great amounts of work and development to be done later on by employers, T&D/HRD practitioners and the government. HRD can play a credible value-adding role in improving organisational effectiveness, so as to support the national policy objective of establishing a skilled labour force of knowledge-economy status.

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Appendix A Survey Invitation Letter Survey Questionnaire (English Version)

September 10, 2008



To: The human resources manager or the person responsible for T&D/HRD in The company

Object: Research Questionnaire

Dear Sir,

I am writing to ask for your valuable assistance in completing a questionnaire that is part of my Doctoral research which I am undertaking during my period of study at the Management Centre of The University of Gloucestershire, UK.

The research is related to human recourse development and my topic is: "Human Resource Development in Manufacturing Company in Libya".

The questionnaire should not take very long to complete and for the vast majority of questions you need only to tike the appropriate boxes. All the information collected will be treated as strictly confidential and anonymous. Your name and that of your firm will not appear in any material and no part of the data will be used for any purpose other than the current piece of research. For your reassurance, your name and your firm's name are not requested in any part of the questionnaire.

Your participation in this research is extremely important. A good response in answering the questions is vital and can make all the difference in coming up with valid results which could potentially from the basis for the formulation of constructive suggestions for human resources development in Libya.

If you wish to receive a copy of the research findings, once the study is completed, Please feel free to send me a note together with the completed questionnaire. Finally, if you have any other question relating to the questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me via email at S0708473@glos.ac.uk or samolibya@yahoo.com or call me on 00447988838908 or 00218914467546.

Thanking you in advance for your kind cooperation

Yours faithfully,

Abdulslam Abdulrahim



Training and development In manufacturing sector in Libya

A-Company information

1. Which industry does your company belongs to?

- Machines, cars, motors and vehicles 1
- Chemicals and oils 2
- Furniture, carpets and wooden products 3
- Printing and Writing Paper 4
- Power and Electronics 5
- Food and drinks 6
- Textiles, wearing apparels & leather 7
- Manufacturing and Mineral Products 8
- Plastic and rubbery products 9
- Non-mineral products 10
- Concretes-cement-iron 11
- Others, please specify 12

2. Who is the owner of your company?

- 100 percent locally owned 1
- 100 percent foreign owned 2
- Joint venture with foreign 3

3. How long has your company been incorporated? -----Years

4. How many employees are there in your company?

----- Employees

5. How much is your company's paid up capital? LD-----

B-Your Job

1. What is your present Job title?

- Human resource director 1
- HRD manager 2
- Manager of learning and development department 3
- Training manager 4
- General Manager 5
- Others, please specify 6

2. How long have you been in your current job?.....Years

3. What was your job prior to the current one?

4. How many years were you in your previous job?Years

5. How many years of your work experience do you have in the field of training and development?Years

6. What is your age?Years

7. What is your gender?

- Male 1
- Female 2

8. What is your highest level of formal education?

- Lower High School 1
- High School 2
- Diploma in (please specify)..... 3
- University Bachelor's degree in (please specify) 4
- Higher Diploma in 5
- Master's degree in..... 6
- Professional courses (please specify)..... 7
- Others, please specify 8

C-Structure

1. Does your company have your own training centre?

- Yes 1 No 2

2. Do you have a department/division/unit/section for HRD/ training and development in your company?

- Yes 1 If yes please go to Questions 3, 4, 5 and 6
No 2 If No, please go Question 7

3. If YES, how long has your HRD/T&D department/section been established? -----Years

4. What are your HRD/T&D department/ unit called?

- Human recourse development (HRD) department/unit 1
Training and development (T&D) department/unit 2
Training department / unit 3
Learning and Development 4
Others, please specify 5

5. Who does your head of HRD/T&D report to?

- Board of Directors 1
Chief Executive Officer (CEO) 2
General Manager 3
Human resource director 4
Others, please specify 5

6. How many employees are there in the HRD/T&D development? _____Employees

7. If No, which section/department is responsible for employees' training and development?

- Personnel department 1
Administration & Finance/Accounts 2
Others, please specify..... 3

D-Budget

1. Does your company have a separate budget for employees' training and development?

- Yes 1 No 2

2. How much money do you spend each on employees' training and development? LD.....

3. Is the budget adequate for achieving the HRD objectives for employees' training and development?

- Yes 1 No 2

4. How much of for total HRD fund did you utilize yearly? LD.....

5. How often does your company conduct an estimation of return on investments (ROI) on your HRD programmes?

- Never 1
Rarely 2
Sometimes 3
Frequent 4
Very frequent 5

E-HRD Strategy

To what extent do you agree or disagree that the following are applicable in your company?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5
 Strongly Disagree Neither Agree Strongly
 Disagree Agree

The strategic planning

1. We integrate HRD into the company's long range planning 1 2 3 4 5
2. We conduct a comprehensive and extensive needs analysis including company, individual and business needs 1 2 3 4 5

1. Our HRD/T&D plans and policies are inspired by the organizations overall policies and plans 1 2 3 4 5
1. The HRD/ T&D plans and policies are integrated 1 2 3 4 5

The strategic partnerships

5. We have top management support and involvement in HRD 1 2 3 4 5
6. We encourage all other heads of department and line managers to be involved in the HRD process 1 2 3 4 5
7. Our HRD/T&D plans includes training and development needs for all levels from shop-floor, technical to top management 1 2 3 4 5

F-HRD Plans and Policies

1. Does your company have a clear ongoing plan/policy for HRD /T&D?

Yes 1 If YES, please go to Questions 2,3
 No 2 If NO, please go to Question 4

2. How often are the plan / policy reviewed?
 Long term (over 3 years) 1
 Medium term (1 to 3 years) 2
 Short term (less than 1 year) 3

3. What is the nature of your HRD/T&D policy in your company?
 Formal written and documented 1
 Informal, unwritten and undocumented 2

4. If No, What do you think are the main reasons for not having HRD/ T&D plans and policy in your company?

.....

G- Design and Training implementation

1. To what extent does your company apply the following in HRD?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5

Never Rarely Sometimes Frequent Very Frequent

Training Methods	In your company					External training				
1. Lectures	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Management Games	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Case studies	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Special projects	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Group discussion	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Role playing	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. On-job instruction	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Field work visits	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Audio visual	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. Computer based	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

2. When is training provided for employees in your company?

1. When employees are newly recruited	1	2	3	4	5
2. On new equipment or new working methods	1	2	3	4	5
3. When performance efficiency assessments are made	1	2	3	4	5
4. When employees are upgraded to fill vacant Positions	1	2	3	4	5
5. When requested by department	1	2	3	4	5
6. When requested by employees	1	2	3	4	5
7. Upon completion of training needs assessment	1	2	3	4	5
8. When requested by top management	1	2	3	4	5

3. How much training and development (on-the-job and off-the-job training) is provided at each of the following levels?

Very Low Low Average High Very High

1. Senior management	1	2	3	4	5
2. Middle management	1	2	3	4	5
3. Lower management /supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
4. Technical	1	2	3	4	5
5. Clerical	1	2	3	4	5
6. Shop-floor	1	2	3	4	5

4. Indicate the amount of money spent on HRD programmes for each level of employees.

Very Low Low Average High Very High

1. Senior management	1	2	3	4	5
2. Middle management	1	2	3	4	5
3. Lower management /supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
4. Technical	1	2	3	4	5
5. Clerical	1	2	3	4	5
6. Shop-floor	1	2	3	4	5

5. Where and by whom are your HRD/T&D programmes being carried out? Indicate the level appropriately.

	Very Low	Low	Average	High	Very High
1. In-house by internal trainers	1	2	3	4	5
2. In-house by external consultants	1	2	3	4	5
3. Externally conducted by internal trainers	1	2	3	4	5
4. Externally conducted by external consultants	1	2	3	4	5
5. Company own training Center	1	2	3	4	5

6. Should your company emphasize on external training providers, what are the main reasons for selecting external providers rather than internal trainers and professionals?

2.
3.
4.

7. Do you have a clear policy and guideline for selecting external training providers?

Yes 1 No 2

8. If YES, please specify THREE most important criteria for selecting a particular training provider?

2.
3.
3.

H-Needs Analysis

1. Does your company conduct employee's training and development needs?

Yes 1 If yes please go to Questions 2, 3, 4 and 5
No 2 If No, please go Question 6

2. How often does your company identify employees' training and development needs?

Once a year 1
Every two years 2
Every three years 3
On ad hoc basis 4

3. What approach do you apply in determining training needs?

(You may tick more than one answer)

Analyzes company's overall performance 1
Analyzes departmental requirement and performance 2
Analyzes individual employee's skills, knowledge & attitudes 3
Analyzes employee's job and functional responsibilities 4

4. What methods do you apply in determining and analyzing employees' training and development needs? (You may tick more than one answer)

Questionnaire survey 1
Personal interviews with individual's 2
Direct observation 3
Performance appraisal report 4
Analyzing individuals' job description 5
Heads of departments or line manager's report 6
Production report 7
Special training committee 8
Others, please specify..... 9

5. To what extent do you agree or disagree that the following are applicable in your company with regard to needs assessments and analyses?

- | | |
|---|--|
| | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree Neither Agree Strongly Agree |
| 1. Examine top management and senior managers' opinions and perceptions regarding the company's future direction and outlook. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. We take into account employees' opinions and perceptions of the company. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. Examine top management strategic direction, goals, objectives and financial situation. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. Examine changes the business processes in the company | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. Examine and consider internal and external business need and challenges. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

6. If you do **NOT** conduct any formal employees' training and development needs, what are the main reasons for not conducting them?

.....

I-Evaluation

1. Methods used evaluating employees' training and development

- | | |
|--|--|
| | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 |
| Never | Rarely Sometimes Frequent Very Frequent |
| 1. Assess employees' learning through their job performance | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. Employees' completing a questionnaire at the end of each training programme | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. Interview employees after each training programme | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. Asking employee's manager or supervisor for their assessment of employee's learning | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. Comparing the learning outcome of employee's before and after each training programme | 1 2 3 4 5 |

2. What is your own personal perception of the different methods used in your company to evaluate employee's training and development?

- | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Strongly Dissatisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> 1 |
| Dissatisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> 2 |
| Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> 3 |
| Satisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> 4 |
| Strongly Satisfied | <input type="checkbox"/> 5 |

J-Performance Management

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements with regards to your company's performance management systems?

- | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-----------|----------------|
| 1. We have a yearly employee's performance appraisal | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 2. We compare employee's current performance with Performance standards to determine performance gaps | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 3. We analyze employee's acquired skills, knowledge and attitudes after training and development activities | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 4. We compare employee's current performance with desired performance | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 5. We create management development initiatives for managers who does appraisals (e.g. problem solving and counseling skills) | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 6. We development and encourage self-directed and Self-esteemed employees | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 7. We have reward strategies for high employees performance | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |

K-Issues and Challenges in HRD

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements with regards to issues and challenges in HRD practice?

- | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-----------|----------------|
| 1. Difficulties in measuring employees' performance improvement in certain jobs | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 2. Difficulties in measuring employees' changes in behavior over a short period of time | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 3. The absence of job descriptions to compare job requirement and standards requirement | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 5. Lock of financial resources for evaluation process | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 6. Participants could not apply what they learned in HRD programmes to the workplace | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 7. The absence of follow-up process after HRD programmes | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 8. Lack of manpower to conduct the evaluation | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 8. Some senior managers do not believe the importance of employees' training development | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |
| 9. The HRD policy is not clearly stated. | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 | |

2. من هو مالك مؤسستك ؟

1

ملكية محلية بنسبة 100%

2

ملكية أجنبية بنسبة 100%

3

مشروع مشترك مع شريك أجنبي

3. ما هو عمر مؤسستك ؟ ----- عام

4. كم عدد موظفي مؤسستك ؟ ----- موظف

5. كم يبلغ رأس المال المدفوع في شركتك ؟ ----- دينار لبيي

ب- وظيفتك

1. ما هو مسمى وظيفتك ؟

1

رئيس الموارد البشرية

2

مدير تطوير الموارد البشرية

3

مدير قسم التطوير والتعليم

4

مدير تدريب

5

مدير عام

6

أخرى ، حدد

تنمية الموارد البشرية

في قطاع التصنيع في ليبيا

أ- معلومات عن المؤسسة

1. ما هو نوع صناعة مؤسستك ؟

1

ماكينات سيارات محركات وأدوات نقل

2

كيماويات وزيوت

3

أثاث و مفروشات ومنتجات أخشاب

4

ورق طباعة وكتابة

5

كهرباء وإلكترونيات

6

أغذية ومشروبات

7

قماش وملابس وجلود صناعية

8

تصنيع ومنتجات معادن

9

. منتجات بلاستيكية ومطاطية

10

مواد غير معدنية

11

اسمنت- خرسانة وحديد

12

أخرى ، حدد

ج- الهيكل

1. هل تشمل مؤسستك على مركز تدريبي؟
2 لا 1 نعم
2. هل يوجد بمؤسستك إدارة/ قسم / وحدة / فرع للتدريب والتطوير ولموارد البشرية

- 1 لو نعم أجب على أسئلة 3 ، 4 ، 6
نعم
2 لو لا أجب على سؤال 7
لا

3. لو نعم ما هو عمر هذه الإدارة أو القسم ----- عام

4. ماذا يطلق على إدارة أو وحدة للموارد البشرية والتدريب والتطوير؟
- 1 إدارة / وحدة تطوير الموارد البشرية
2 إدارة/ وحدة التطوير والتدريب
3 إدارة/ وحدة التدريب
4 التعليم والتطوير
5 أخرى ، حدد

2. كم من الوقت قضيت في وظيفتك الحالية؟ عام
3. ما هي الوظيفة التي كنت تشغلها قبل هذه الوظيفة؟
4. كم من الوقت قضيت في وظيفتك السابقة؟ عام
5. كم عام من الخبرة لديك في مجال التدريب والتطوير؟ عام
6. كم يبلغ عمرك؟ عام

7. ما هو نوعك (جنسك)؟

- 1 ذكر
2 انثى

8. ما هو أعلى مستوى تعليمي وصلت له من الناحية الرسمية؟

- 1 أقل من المرحلة الثانوية
- 2 شهادة المرحلة الثانوية.....
- 3 دبلومه في
- 4 الشهادة الجامعية في مجال
- 5 دبلومه عليا في مجال.....
- 6 ماجستير في مجال
- 7 دورات مهنية (حدد).....
- 8 أخرى، حدد

2. كم من الأموال نصرّفها على التدريب وتطوير الموظفين ؟

.....

3. هل الميزانية مناسبة لتحقيق أهداف تطوير الموارد البشرية بالنسبة للتدريب والتطوير ؟

نعم لا

4. كم من ميزانية الموارد البشرية تستخدم سنوياً ؟

موظف

5. كم عدد من المرات تقوم مؤسستك بعمل تقييم على العائد الاستثماري من خلال برنامج تنمية الموارد البشرية ؟

أبداً
قلما
أحياناً
كثيراً
كثيراً جداً

5. لمن يقدم رئيس الموارد البشرية والتدريب والتطوير تقريره ؟

مجلس الإدارة
الرئيس التنفيذي
المدير العام
مدير الموارد البشرية
أخرى ، حدد

6. كم يبلغ عدد الموظفين في إدارة الموارد البشرية والتطوير والتدريب ؟

7. إن كانت الإجابة بلا فأي إدارة أو قسم مسئول عن تدريب وتطوير الموظفين ؟

شئون الأفراد
الإدارة والحسابات
أخرى ، حدد

د- الميزانية
1. هل لدى مؤسستك ميزانية خاصة لتدريب وتطوير الموظفين ؟

نعم لا

2. متى تقدم الخدمات التدريبية للموظفين في المؤسسة؟

1. للموظفين الجدد

2. على طرق العمل الجديدة أو المعدات الجديدة

3. عندما يتم تقييم فاعلية الاداء

4. عندما يتم ترقية الموظفين لمناصب جديدة

5. في حالة طلب الادارة

6. في حالة الموظفين

7. فور تقييم استكمال الحاجات التدريبية

8. فور طلب الادارة العليا

5 4 3 2 1

هـ-التطبيق والتوصيل

1. ما مدى تطبيق مؤسستك للاتي في تنمية الموارد البشرية؟

1-أبداً نادراً أحياناً كثيراً جداً

2-أبداً نادراً كثيراً جداً

3-أبداً نادراً كثيراً جداً

4-أبداً نادراً كثيراً جداً

5-أبداً نادراً كثيراً جداً

1. محاضرات

2. أنشطة إدارية

3. دراسات حالة

4. مشروعات خاصة

5. مناقشة جماعية

6. لعب الأدوار

7. تعليمات داخل العمل

8. زيارات عمل ميدانية

9. وسائل سمعية وبصرية

10. استخدام الحاسب

5 4 3 2 1

5. أين ومن قبل من يتم عمل برامج تطوير وتدريب الموارد البشرية ؟
حدد المستوى بدقة ؟

عالي جداً	عالي	متوسط	جداً	بسيط جداً
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1

6. هل تصمم مؤسستك على مدربين خارجين وما هو سبب اختيار مدربين خارجين بدلاً من المدربين الداخليين ؟

1.
2.
3.

3. ما مدى تقديم خدمات تدريبية تنموية (تدريب أثناء وخارج العمل) بالنسبة للمستويات الآتية ؟

عالي جداً	عالي	متوسط	جداً	بسيط جداً
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1

4. حدد الأموال المنصرفة على برامج تطوير التنمية البشرية لكل مستوى وظيفي ؟

عالي جداً	عالي	متوسط	جداً	بسيط جداً
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1
5	4	3	2	1

4. تقوم بتحليل الحاجات الملحة شاملة احتياجات العمل والفرد والمؤسسة
5 4 3 2 1

5. تشجع رؤساء الأقسام الأخرى ومديري خطوط الإنتاج للاشتراك في
عمليات إدارة الموارد البشرية
5 4 3 2 1

6. تضع معايير اختبار لمشاركة الموظفين في أنشطة تطوير الموارد البشرية
5 4 3 2 1

7. نرحب بالتغذية العكسية والتعليقات من المشرفين ومديري خطوط الإنتاج
وكبار المديرين والموظفين بشأن عمليات ووظائف الموارد البشرية
5 4 3 2 1

8. خطط وسياسات الموارد البشرية والتطوير والتدريب خاضعة للسياسات
والخطط العامة للمؤسسة
5 4 3 2 1

9. خطط الموارد البشرية والتطوير والتدريب تشمل كل حاجات التطوير
والتدريب على كل المستويات بداية من الورش مروراً بالفنيين وانتهاء
بالإدارة العليا
5 4 3 2 1

10. خطط وسياسات إدارة الموارد البشرية والتدريب والتطوير تتكامل مع
سياسات وخطط الموارد البشرية
5 4 3 2 1

7. هل لديك سياسة و خطة واضحة لاختيار مدرسين خارجيين ؟
لا نعم

8. إن كانت الإجابة نعم : حدد ثلاثة معايير لاختيار مدرب بعينه ؟

1.

2.

3.

و- استراتيجية الموارد البشرية

إلى أي مدى توافق أو لا توافق على وجود الآتي في مؤسستك ؟

1-----2-----3-----4-----5

أعارض أعارض بشدة لا أستطيع أو افق أو افق بشدة
إبداء رأي

1. يوجد خطة وسياسية واضحة مكتوبة لإدارة الموارد البشرية
5 4 3 2 1

2. يوجد تأييد إداري واهتمام واضح بإدارة الموارد البشرية
5 4 3 2 1

3. يوجد تكامل بين إدارة الموارد البشرية وخطة المؤسسة طويلة المدى
5 4 3 2 1

ح- تحليل الاحتياجات

1. هل تقوم مؤسساتنا بتدريب الموظفين والبحث عن احتياجات التطوير ؟
- نعم 1 لو نعم أجب على أسئلة 2 ، 3 ، 4 ، 5
لا 2 لو لا أجب على سؤال 6

2. كم مرة تقوم مؤسستك بتدريب الموظفين وتحديد احتياجات التطوير ؟

- 1 مرة كل عام
2 كل عامين
3 كل 3 أعوام
4 حسب الحاجة

3. ما هو المدخل الذي تستخدمه في تحديد متطلبات التدريب ؟ (يمكنك اختبار أكثر من إجابة)

- 1 تحليل الأداء الكلي للمؤسسة
2 تحليل المتطلبات والأداء الإداري
3 تحليل المهارات والمعلومات والاتجاهات الفردية للموظف
4 تحليل المسئوليات الوظيفية لدى الموظف

ز- خطط وسياسات الموارد البشرية

1. هل لدى مؤسستك خطة واضحة مستمرة أو سياسة بشأن الموارد البشرية والتطوير والتدريب ؟

- نعم 1 لو نعم أجب على أسئلة 2 ، 3
لا 2 لو لا أجب على سؤال 4

2. كم مرة يتم مراجعة السياسة / الخطة ؟

- 1 على المدى الطويل (3 سنوات فأكثر)
2 على المدى المتوسط (من 1 إلى 3 سنوات)
3 على المدى القصير (أقل من عام)

3. ما هي طبيعة سياسة الموارد البشرية والتدريب والتطوير في مؤسستك؟

- 1 رسمية مكتوبة وموثقة
2 غير رسمية غير مكتوبة وغير موثقة

4. إن كانت الإجابة بلا ، فما هي الأسباب الرئيسية لعدم وجود هذه الخطة والسياسة في مؤسستك ؟

.....
.....

1. معرفة آراء الإدارة العليا والمديرين فيما يخص الاتجاهات المستقبلية للمؤسسة
5 4 3 2 1
2. نضع في الاعتبار آراء الموظفين في المؤسسة
5 4 3 2 1
3. معرفة أهداف وأغراض واستراتيجيات الإدارة العليا والموقف المالي
5 4 3 2 1
4. معرفة تغير عمليات المؤسسة
5 4 3 2 1
5. معرفة حاجات وتحديات الأعمال الخارجية والداخلية ووضعها في الاعتبار
5 4 3 2 1

6. في حالة عدم القيام بالتدريب الرسمي للموظفين وعدم معرفة حاجات التطوير فما هو السبب في ذلك
.....
-
-
-
-

4. ما هي الطريقة التي تتبعها في تحديد وتحليل الحاجات التدريبية والتطويرية للموظف؟ (يمكنك اختيار أكثر من إجابة)

- 1 المسح الاستيعابي
- 2 مقابلات شخصية مع الأفراد
- 3 الملاحظة المباشرة
- 4 تقرير تقييم الأداء
- 5 تحليل وصف المهام الفردية
- 6 إبلاغ رؤساء الإدارات ومديري خطوط الإنتاج
- 7 تقرير الإنتاج
- 8 لجنة خاصة للتدريب
- 9 أخرى ، حدد

5. إلى أي مدى توافق أو تعارض في وجود الآتي في مؤسستك فيما يخص تقييم وتحليل الاحتياجات؟

- 1-----2-----3-----4-----5
- أعارض بشدة أعارض ليس لدى رأي أوافق أوافق بشدة

2. ما هو رأيك الشخصي في الطرق المختلفة المستخدمة في مؤسستك في تقييم وتدريب الموظف ؟

- 1 غير مقتنع بشدة
 2 غير مقتنع
 3 ليس لديك رأي
 4 مقتنع
 5 مقتنع بشدة

ط- إدارة الأداء

إلى أي مدى توافق أو لا توافق على الآتي بالنسبة لمنظم إدارة أداء مؤسستك ؟

- 1-----2-----3-----4-----5
 أعارض بشده أعارض ليس لدى رأيي أوافق أوافق بشدة

1. يوجد تقييم أداء سنوي للموظف 1 2 3 4 5
 2. تقارن الأداء الحالي للموظف بمعايير الأداء القياسية لتحديد أي فجوات في الأداء 1 2 3 4 5
 3. نحال المهارات والمعلومات والاتجاهات المكتسبة من قبل الموظف بعد الأنشطة التدريبية والتطويرية 1 2 3 4 5

ط- التقييم

1. الطرق المستخدمة في تدريب وتطوير الموظفين

- 1-----2-----3-----4-----5

أبدأ قلماً أحياناً كثيراً كثيراً جداً

1. تقييم تعليم الموظفين من خلال أداء وظائفهم

- 5 4 3 2 1

2. استبيان يقوم الموظفون بملئه في نهاية كل برنامج تدريبي

- 5 4 3 2 1

3. عمل مقابلات مع الموظفين بعد كل برنامج تدريبي

- 5 4 3 2 1

4. سؤال مدير أو مشرف الموظفين عن تقييمهم لتعليم الموظفين

- 5 4 3 2 1

5. مقارنة مخرجات الموظفين قبل وبعد كل برنامج تدريبي

- 5 4 3 2 1

3. عدم وجود وصف واضح للوظائف يمكن من مقارنة متطلبات العمل والمتطلبات القياسية
4. محدودية الموارد المالية المستخدمة في عمليات التقييم
5. لا يستطيع المشاركون تطبيق ما تعلموه في برنامج تطوير الموارد البشرية داخل مكان العمل
6. عدم وجود متابعة لما بعد برامج تطوير الموارد البشرية
7. قلة المتخصصين في عمل التقييم
8. بعض المديرين غير مقتنعين بأهمية التطوير التدريبي للموظفين
9. سياسة تطوير الموارد البشرية ليست واضحة المعالم
10. عدم وجود تخطيط طويل المدى لتطوير الموارد البشرية
11. ارتفاع تكاليف برامج التطوير والتدريب

4. مقارنة الأداء الحالي للموظف بالأداء المرغوب
5. تقوم بعمل مبادرات تطوير إدارية للمديرين الذين يقومون بعمل تقييمات (مهارات حل المشاكل وتقديم الاستشارات)
6. نشجع الموظف الذي يعتمد على نفسه ويحقق ذاته
7. نقدم مكافأة للموظفين المتميزين بحسن الأداء.
- ع- قضايا وتحديات تنمية الموارد البشرية
- إلى أي مدى توافق أو لا توافق على العبارات الآتية فيما يخص قضايا وتحديات الموارد البشرية؟
1. صعوبات في قياس مستوى تحسن أداء الموظف في وظيفة معينة
2. صعوبة قياس التغير في نمط سلوك الموظف خلال فترة قصيرة

21. برامج تنمية الموارد البشرية المعتمدة على مصادر خارجية لا تناسب ثقافة وقيم المؤسسة

5 4 3 2 1

ما هي أكبر ثلاث تحديات لتنمية الموارد البشرية في مؤسستك ؟

1.

2.

3.

نشكر لكم مشاركتكم الكريمة في هذا البحث، ونرجو منكم إرسال الاستمارة بعد تعبئتها على أحد العناوين التالية:

Abdulslam Abdulrhim

P. O. Box 1330

Room 05

Drna University

Faculty of economic

University of Gloucestershire

DU 106

The Park

Cheltenham GL50 2RHTe

Tel: +218914467546 or +44(0)7748802288

Email: Abdulslam.Abdulrahom@glos.ac.uk Or

samolibay@yahoo.com

12. مشاكل خاصة بحاجات التدريب على التطوير

5 4 3 2 1

13. صعوبة تقييم مخرجات برنامج التدريب

5 4 3 2 1

14. عدم وجود فريق عمل وتعاون وتنسيق بين الإدارات المختلفة وإدارة تنمية الموارد البشرية

5 4 3 2 1

15. ترك الموظفون للمؤسسة بعد التدريب

5 4 3 2 1

16. مديرو خطوط الإنتاج لا يرغبون إرسال الموظفين للتدريب بسبب كثرة الأعمال

5 4 3 2 1

17. عدم وجود معلومات ومهارات لتحديد حاجات وتقييم تنمية الموارد البشرية

5 4 3 2 1

18. نقص وجود العامل البشري للقيام بالوظائف المطلوبة في إدارة الموارد البشرية

5 4 3 2 1

19. لا يوجد دور للموارد البشرية على كل مستويات الإدارة بداية من المستوى الإشرافي فما فوق

5 4 3 2 1

20. تعيين واختيار الموظفين لا يناسب الوظيفة المطلوبة

5 4 3 2 1

Appendix C Interview Invitation Letter



September 10, 2008

Re: Interview - Research on HRD in the Manufacturing Companies in Libya

I am a full time PhD research student with Gloucestershire Business School, Cheltenham, UK. I am currently doing a research entitled "HRD in the Manufacturing Companies in Libya". I am writing to request your kind cooperation in allowing me to visit your organization in which I will interview you or the person in charge of employees' training and development.

Attached are my research outline and also the questions I hope you would answer, for your attention and review. Having read my outline, I hoped very much that you would agree to be interviewed in your premise which will take no more than 45 minutes during week commencing 1st November, 2008. I will be conducting interviews in your region from 1st to 13th August, 2008. Should you are not available on the dates specified; please advise me your convenient date. I will telephone you tomorrow to confirm the date and time of the interview.

Thanking you in advance and hope to get a positive response from you.

Yours sincerely,

Abdulslam Abdulrahim
Doctoral Research Student
Gloucestershire Business School

Tel: 00447988838908 or 00218914467546
Email: S0708473@glos.ac.uk or samolibya@yahoo.com



Appendix D Semi- Structured Interview (English Version)

Interview questions

Introduction

Thank you very much for participate in this research. The interview should take no more than one hour and with your consent I will be taping this conversation. I can assure that all your responses will be dealt with strict confidence and will be remain anonymous. As I explained in the short letter I sent you, I am now interested in investigating the nature and extent of HRD and its associated concepts in the manufacturing companies in Libya.

Part 1: organization and respondents background

Background and biography

First I would like to begin asking you about your background and career.

1. Could you describe your current role?
2. How long have you been in this position?
3. How would you describe your career?
4. Why have you moved into this role?
5. What sort of training and development have you had for this role?
6. What is your highest level of formal education?

Organization information

1. How do you describe this organization?
2. What does it manufacture, year of incorporation and how many employees?

Speaking of employees' development, I am trying to find out how your employees are being trained and developed.

PART 2: HRD STRUCTURE, PLANS, POLICIES & STRATEGIES

HRD Structure

1. Could you tell me about your HRD or training department?
2. When it was established?
3. What it is called? Number of employees in the section?
4. What is the role, purpose of the HRD function in your organization?
5. Who is responsible of this function? Who are the people involved?
6. What types of activities are they involved with?
7. How has this function changed recently?
8. Who does the head of HRD report to?

HRD Plan and Policies

1. Can you tell me about your HRD/training plan and policy in this organization?
2. What is the nature of your HRD/T &D policy in your organization?
3. How often is the plan reviewed?
4. What are involved formulating the HRD plans and policies and what is their role?

HRD strategy

1. What is your organization mission statement?
2. What is the objective of your mission statement?
3. How important do you think is the HRD function in this organization? Why do you think this is?
4. Can you tell me about top management involvement in HRD?
5. What is the level of top management support and in HRD?
6. How does the HRD function contribute or relate to business or organizational strategies?
7. How does the HRD function fit with what are involved with and trying to achieve?
8. How are you involved in development these strategies?
9. How do you think HRD and HRM/Personnel function relate?
10. Can you tell me about heads of departments and line managers' involvement in the HRD process or employees development?
11. Who do you target your training and development plans? How much at each level and why?
12. Can you describe how you get employees to participate I HRD activities?

Part 3: HRD Activates and Processes

Needs Analysis

1. Can you describe training needs analysis in your organization?
2. How often is it conducted?
3. What approach do you apply in determining training needs?
4. What methods do you apply in determining and analyzing employees' T&D needs?
5. How are top management and senior mangers involved in the needs analysis?
6. How are employees involved in the needs analysis?

Develop and Deliver HRD Activities

1. Can you describe your budget spending on HRD? How much money do you spend each on employees' training and development?
2. Do you have a separate HRD budget other than HRD funds?
3. Is the budget adequate for achieving the HRD objectives for employees' training and development?
4. Can you tell me about the HRD fund and HRD subscriptions?
5. How often does your organization conduct an estimation of return on investments on your HRD programmers?
6. What type of training methods do you use in employees' development and why?
7. Can you describe employees' career planning and progression? What methods do you use?
8. When is training provided for employees in your organization?
9. How much training and development (on-the-job and off-the-job training) is provided at each level in the organization?
10. Where and by whom are your HRD/T&D programmes being carried and why?
11. Should your organization emphasise on external training providers, what are the main reasons for selecting external training providers rather than internal trainers and professionals?
12. Do you have a clear policy and guideline for selecting external providers and what are the criteria for selection a particular training provider?

Evaluation

1. Can you tell me about evaluating employees' training and development?
2. How, when and why?
3. Can you comment on the different methods used in your organization to evaluate employee's training and development?

Performance Management

1. Can you describe evaluating employees' performance improvement in your organization?
2. What approach and methods do you use in evaluation employees' performance in your organization?
3. How often is it conducted?

Issues and challenges in HRD?

1. Finally, can you describe the problems that you faced in training and developing your employees? Or the major challenges that you faced in implementing HRD?

Closing

Thank you very much for spending your precious time with me That concludes my question, you have given me great deal of information, but if there is anything you would like to add, anything you feel I have missed. Please feel to express yourself. I may wish to conduct follow-up interviews later to pursue emerging themes. Significant issues or fill possible gaps. I will also contact you again later to corroborate and validate this interview. In the meantime, thank you very much for your time and valuable contribution. In the meantime, thank you very much for your time and valuable contribution.

Appendix E Semi- Structured Interview (Arabic Version)

أسئلة المقابلة

شكرا جزيلاً على مشاركتكم في هذا البحث, هذه المقابلة قد لا تستغرق أكثر من ساعة وبموافقتك أنا سأسجل هذه المحادثة. أحب أن أطمأن بأن كل إجاباتك سيتم التعامل معها على أنها خاصة وسرية للغاية. كما وضحت في الرسالة السابقة التي أرسلتك اليكم، هذه البحث ، أنا مهتم بالتحقيق في طبيعة ومدى تنمية الموارد البشرية ومفاهيمه المرتبطة في شركات التصنيع في ليبيا.

الجزء الاول معلومات عن الشركة والمستجيبين

السيرة الذاتية

أولاً أنا أود أن أبدأ بسؤالك حول خلفيتك ومهنتك.

1. هل يُمكن أن تصف دورك الحالي؟

2. منذ متى وأنت في هذا الموقع؟

3. كيف تصف مهنتك؟

4. لماذا تحركت إلى هذا الدور؟

5. أي نوع من التدريب والتطوير أخذته من أجل هذا الدور؟

6. ما مستواك الأعلى من التعليم الرسمي؟

معلومات عن المنظمة

1. كيف تصف هذه الشركة؟

2. مالذي تصنع هذه الشركة ، في اي سنة اندمجت الشركة وكم عدد المستخدمين فيها؟

حديث عن تطوير المستخدمين، أحاولُ إكتشاف كم مستخدمونك يُدرَّبون ويطوِّرون.

الجزء الثاني هيكل وخطط وساسات واستراتيجيات تنمية الموارد البشرية

هيكل تنمية الموارد البشرية

1. هل يُمكن أن أنت تُخبرني عن تنمية المراد البشرية او التنمية والتدريب؟

2. متى هو أُنسَن هذا القسم؟

3. ماذا هو يَسمى هذا القسم؟ كم عدد المستخدمين في القسم؟
4. ماهو دورٌ وغرض وظيفة تنمية الموارد البشرية في منطمتك؟
5. مَنْ هو المسؤولة عن هذه الوظيفة؟ مَنْ هم الذين تشملهم هذه الوظيفة؟
6. أي نوع من نشاطات يَرتبطون بهم؟
7. كيف تغيرة هذه الوظيفة مؤخرأ؟
8. لمن يرسل مسؤول تنمية المراد البشرية تقريره؟

خطط وساسات تنمية الموارد البشرية

1. هل بالإمكان أن أنت تُخبرني عن تنمية الموارد البشرية / خطة وسياسة التدريب في هذه المنظمة؟
2. ما طبيعة تنمية الموارد البشرية / سياسة التدريب والتطوير في منطمتك؟
3. كم مرّة تتم مراجعة الخطة؟
4. ما الذي يتطلبه صياغة الخطط وسياسات تنمية الموارد البشرية وماهو دورها؟

أستراتيجية تنمية الموارد البشرية

1. ما هو مهمّة منطمتك؟
2. ما الهدف من هذه المهمة؟
3. حسب أعتقادك ما هي أهمية وظيفة تنمية الوارد البشرية في هذه المنظمة؟ لماذا تَعتقدُ هذا؟
4. هل بالإمكان أن أنت تُخبرني عن تدخّل الإدارة العليا في تنمية الموارد البشرية؟
5. ما مستوى دعم الإدارة العليا في تنمية الموارد البشرية؟
6. كيف تساهم وظيفة تنمية الموارد البشرية أو تتعلّق بالعمل أو الإستراتيجيات التنظيمية؟
7. كيف وظيفة تنمية الموارد البشرية تتلائم مع ما هو مرتبط بما ستحصل عليه؟
8. كيف تُشارك في تطوير هذه الإستراتيجيات؟
9. ماهو أعتقادك حول علاقة وظيفة تنمية الموارد البشرية وأدارة الموارد البشرية وادارة الافراد؟
10. هل بالإمكان أن أنت تُخبرني عن رؤساء الأقسام وأشتراك المدراء المباشرين في عملية تنمية الموارد البشرية او تطوير المستخدمين؟
11. مَنْ هم المستهدفين في التدريب وخطط؟ ما مقداهر في كل مستوى ولماذا؟
12. هل بالإمكان أن تصف كيف تحصل على المستخدمين لمشاركة في نشاطات تنمية الموارد البشرية؟

الجزء الثالث عمليات ونشاطات تنمية الموارد البشرية

تحليل الحاجات

1. هل بالإمكان أن تصفُ تدريب تحليل الحاجات في منظمتك؟
2. كم مرة تتم هذه العملية؟
3. ماهى الطريقة المستخدمة في تحديد حاجات التدريب؟
4. ماهى الطريقة المستخدمة في تحديد وتحليل حاجات تدريب وتطوير المستخدمين؟
5. كيف ان الإدارة العليا والمدراء الكبار يشتركون في تحليل الحاجات؟
6. كيف يشترك المستخدمون في تحليل الحاجات؟

تطور وتوصيل نشاطات تنمية الموارد البشرية

1. هل بالإمكان أن تصفُ الميزانية التي تصرف على تنمية الموارد البشرية؟ ما مقدار المبلغ الذي يصرف على تدريب وتطوير المستخدمين؟
2. هل تملكون ميزانية منفصلة لتنمية الموارد البشرية؟
3. هل الميزانية كافية لإنجاز أهداف تنمية الموارد البشرية لتدريب وتطوير المستخدمين؟
4. هل بالإمكان أن أنت تُخبرني عن تمويل تنمية الموارد البشرية وإشراكات تنمية الموارد البشرية؟
5. كم مرة منظمتك تجري تقدير عائد الاستثمارات على برامج تنمية الموارد البشرية؟
6. أي نوع من طرق تدريب التي تستعمل في تطوير المستخدمين ولماذا؟
7. هل بالإمكان أن تصفُ تخطيط مهنة المستخدمين وتعاقبها؟ وماهى الطرق التي تستخدمونها في ذلك؟
8. متى يتم تزيد الموظفين بالتدريب في منظمتك؟
9. ماهى كمية التدريب والتطوير داخل او خارج المنظمة التي يزود بها في كل مستوى في المنظمة؟
10. أين ومن قبل من برامج تنمية الموارد البشرية تنفذ ولماذا؟
11. هل يجب على منظمتك ان تؤكد على مزودين التدريب الخارجي، وماهى الأسباب الرئيسية لإختيار مدربين التدريب الخارجي بدلاً من مدربين محترفين داخليين؟
12. هل لديكم دليل و سياسة واضحة لإختيار المدربين الخارجيين وماهى المعايير للإختيار مزودي تدريب معين؟

التقييم

1. هل بالإمكان أن أنت تُخبرني عن تقييم تدريب وتطوير الموظفين؟
2. كيف يتم ذلك، ومتى وأين؟
3. هل بالإمكان أن تُعلّق على الطرق المختلفة التي تستخدم في منظمك لتقييم تدريب وتطوير الموظفين؟

إدارة الاداء

1. هل بالإمكان أن تصيف تقييم تحسين أداء الموظفين في منظمك؟
2. ماهى الطريقة و المنهج المتبع فى تقييم أداء الموظفين في منظمك؟
3. كم مرّة تتم هذه العملية؟

القضايا والتحديات فى تنمية الموارد البشرية؟

1. أخيراً، هل بالإمكان أن تصيف المشاكل التي واجهت في تدريب وتطوير الموظفين؟ أو التحديات الرئيسية التي واجهت في تطبيق تنمية الموارد البشرية؟

الختام

شكراً جزيلاً على وقتك الثمين معي. وفى نهاية سؤالي، انت أعطيتني الكثير من المعلومات، لكن إذا هناك أي شى تود أن تُضيف، أي شى ترى بأنني لم اتطرق اليه . رجاء لا تتردد فى ذكره. أنا قد ارغب فى إجراء مقابلات أخرى لاحقاً لمُتَابَعَة بعض المواضيع والقضايا الهامة محتملة قد تحتاج الى مراجعة. أنا سأتصلُ بك ثانية لاحقاً لتوثيق وتصديق هذه المقابلة. فى هذه الأثناء، شكراً جزيلاً على وقتك ومساهماتك الثمينة.

Appendix F: Further Details on Analysing the Qualitative Data

The researcher started working on the data as soon as it was collected: taking notes during the interviews, recording the interviews and translating them into transcripts. During these steps the researcher started to understand the data, recognised many relationships and explored and understood many new facts relating to HRD. Three important critical factors helped the researcher to conduct the interviews successfully, firstly, the interviews were conducted in Arabic language, the researcher's mother tongue, which enabled the researcher to understand each word and expression taken during the interviews; secondly the researcher believed much in what Easterby-Smith et al., (1991) emphasised regarding to the importance of arranging interviews with enough time between them to allow the researcher sufficient time to write or type a transcript or set of notes and to think about the data, analyse and explore some issues in it. Since there were only about 20 interviews, and each interview took between two and four hours, the researcher had sufficient time to think about each line in each interview transcript; thirdly, and importantly, the researcher had predetermined questions to be asked generally in all the interviews, since the nature of the interviews were semi-structured, which facilitated the analysis process to some extent.

As mentioned before, there is no standardised approach to analysing qualitative data since the nature of qualitative data implies that it cannot be collected in a standardised way. Therefore, there are many qualitative research traditions and approaches with the result that there are also different strategies to deal with the data collected (Saunders et al., 2007). The analysis process started when the researcher returned to the UK after undertaking the field work. The main advantage was that, as there were only 20 transcripts to work with, and all of these interviews had been conducted by the researcher, he had already started on them during the field work. In some interviews he remembered even the voice of the interviewees, the context and any other

details accrued during the interviews. It is important to read the transcript for each interview two or three times. Categorising the data which means classifying the data into meaningful categories (Saunders et al., 2009), was started by the process by which each interview transcript was marked with a specific colour to distinguish and account for them. For example, food and drinks companies' interviews' transcripts were marked with a green colour, power and electronics companies with yellow furniture, carpets and wooden products companies red and plastic and rubbery products companies with a purple colour. After three readings time of each interview transcript, each unit of data, expression was given a specific number which corresponded to a particular category. So, each number related to a particular category. During this process some expressions or unit of data were given two or more numbers since each could be allocated under two or more categories. After that the researcher asked some people who were PhD students to read the transcripts and decide whether each unit of data referred to the allocated categories. The names of the categories were derived from two main sources from the research question and objectives (the interviews questions) and some emerged from the data itself, since it contained newly explored facts. Unitising the data means, according to Saunders et al (2007), attaching relevant bits or chunks of the data which refer to as units of data to the appropriate category or categories, as explained in the previous stage. A unit of data may be a number of words, a sentence, a number of sentences, a complete paragraph or sometime a complete answer for particular questions asked in the interviews that fit the category. The transcripts were then copied, cut up and filed into many files, each file contained piles of related units of data which correspond to a particular category. Undertaking this stage of the analytic process implies engaging in a selective process which has the effect of reducing and rearranging the data into more manageable and comprehensive forms (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Saunders et al., 2007).

Generating categories and reorganising the data according to them, or designing a suitable matrix and placing the data gathered within its cell (creating files and placing the data gathered and labelling these files with the categories names) means that you are engaging in the process of analysing the qualitative data (Saunders et al., 2007). This kind of analysis continues with the search for exploring key themes and patterns or relationships among the data units. It is the researcher's ability and concentration on the work that makes the analysis make sense. The interactive nature of the data collection and analysis allows the researcher to recognise important themes, patterns and relationships as she collected the data and allows these patterns and relationship to emerge from the process of collecting and analysing the data.

Saunders et al. (2007) argue that quantifying qualitative data by using 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. 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 better present them.

It is important to mention that, the researcher tended not to use computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) to analyse his qualitative data. That was because of different reasons, firstly, the number of interviews was 20; so it was easy to work on them manually, secondly, the researcher wanted to be part of the analysis process; involved in it, observe the data think of the data, read it again and again. Thirdly, there are a number of (CAQDAS) software which may vary in relation to the type of facilities that they offer and potentially in their usefulness for different analytic situation; however, they were not accessible or available for the researcher and even if they were accessible they require high experiences and abilities to experiment with different software, because choosing the appropriate software is very

problematic thing which require experiences with all other software. Seidle (1991) argues, in Saunders et al. (2007), that in a case where CAQDAS software is used by inexperienced researcher, this will move the attention into analytical practices and conceptual problems rather than, into depth analysis, this is referred to the fact that analyst become more concerned with analysis based on quantification than exploration of meaning.